

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS INFLUENCING WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN
TRADE UNION LEADERSHIP: THE CASE OF CENTRAL ORGANIZATION OF
TRADE UNIONS, NAIROBI COUNTY, KENYA**

BY

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**A RESEARCH PROJECT REPORT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF
ARTS IN PROJECT PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF
NAIROBI.**

2014

DECLARATION

This project report is my original work and has not been presented for examination for a degree in any other university or institution.

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DEDICATION

This research project is dedicated to my parents Mr. and Mrs. Manasseh Omulama and my husband Captain Oscar Omoyo who have constantly provided advice and financial support.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost I would like to express my gratitude and appreciation to my supervisor the late Dr. Patricia Muchiri and Dr. Charles Rambo for their guidance; their contributions have been beyond measure.

I truly acknowledge the efforts of all the lecturers in the college of Education and External Studies of the University of Nairobi who contributed in expanding my knowledge and skills during my study. Special appreciation goes to the 2011 – 2013 University of Nairobi, Nairobi branch classmates especially Wilson Kiptoo Limo, Fredrick Omondi and John Oluoch.

My sincere gratitude goes to my friends especially Venali Isur and Deborah Juma who have supported this study and my brothers and sisters including; Truphena Omulama, Martin Omulama, Bilha Omulama and Andrew Omulama for their support in enabling me to successfully complete this research project proposal

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AUKMW: Amalgamated Union of Kenya Metal Workers

CEDAW: Convention on Elimination of Discrimination Against Women

COTU: Central Organisation of Trade Unions

COSATU: Congress of South African Trade Union

GTUC: Ghana Trade Union Congress

KETAWU: Kenya Electrical Workers Union

ILO: International Labour Organization

NOTU: National Organization of Trade Unions

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Science

TUC: Trade Union Congress

TUCTA: Trade Union Congress of Tanzania

UGIs: Units of Gender Issues

UK: United Kingdom

UNRISK: Union of National, Research Institutes Staff of Kenya

USA: United States of America

WTUL: Women Trade Union League

ABSTRACT

Women involvement and participation in leadership is important. Despite the efforts of affirmative action and the provisions of the Kenyan new constitution, women leadership in the country is still wanting. The top leadership of COTU (K) Secretariat is made up of two (2) women whereas the men are ten (10). This makes their bargaining power weak when it comes to addressing matters that pertains women. The consequences of not including the women in the leadership of trade unions is that all the decisions made by male leaders may be biased hence will put women in a disadvantaged position. The study sought to establish socio-economic factors influencing women participation in trade union leadership the case of the Central Organization of Trade Unions in Nairobi County. Further, the research sought to establish the extent to which demographic characteristics influenced women participation in trade union leadership, determine the extent to which the levels of education, income and cultural traditions influenced women participation in trade union leadership in the study area. The purpose of the study was to establish the socio-economic factors influencing women participation in trade union leadership in Nairobi. This research was based on a descriptive survey design. At the same there was qualitative data because of the feedback the researcher received from the focus group discussions. Further, the study targeted a population of 210 that comprised of women leaders that was derived from different trade unions in Nairobi (Appendix III). The sample size was 136 which was selected using proportionate method. Questionnaires comprised of closed-ended questions (see appendix I) were used to gather quantitative data. The questionnaires were administered by the researcher and got the feedback from the respondents. The limitation was that the study only dealt with COTU-K in Nairobi as the study area. The data obtained was analyzed using descriptive statistics. Results of analysis were presented in frequency tables. In terms of demographic characteristics, the study investigated the age and found out that 47 (35.6%) were aged 18 – 30 years, whereas 35 (26.5%) were aged 31 – 40 years. 25 (18.9%) of the respondents were those with 41-50 age group. Those in the age group of 51-60 years represented 15 (11.4%) and 10 (7.6%) of the respondents were over 60 years of age. On marital status, 34 (25.8%) were single, 71 (53.8%) were married, 8 (6.1%) were separated, 12 (9.1%) were divorced and 7 (5.3%) were widowed. On the level of education, 16 (12.1%) had primary school as their highest level of education, 52 (39.4) had secondary school as their highest level of education, 38 (28.8%) had university as their highest level of education, 19 (14.4) had tertiary as their highest level of education and 7 (5.3%) did not indicate their highest level of education. In terms of the extent to which the level of education influences women participation in trade union leadership, 10. (7.6%) indicated that the level of education influenced women participation in trade union leadership to a limited extent, 9 (6.8%) to a moderate extent, 46 (34.8%) to a larger extent, 44 (33.3%) to a very large extent and 23 (17.4%) neutral. Regarding the extent to which the level of income influenced the participation of women in trade union leadership, 39 (29.5%) indicated to a limited extent the level of income influences women participation in trade union leadership, 31 (23.5%) to a moderate extent, 44 (33.3%) to a large extent and 18 (13.6%) to a very large extent. On the extent to which cultural tradition influences women participation in trade union leadership, 104 (78.8%) indicated that cultural traditions influenced women participation in trade union leadership to a limited extent, 14 (10.6%) to a very large extent and 14 (10.6%) neutral. Recommendations for policy makers were that; the COTU (K) should enhance the participation of women leadership in trade union; they should educate the women leaders. COTU (K) should provide training in terms of capacity building in leadership skills so that they can equip themselves and be like their male counterparts and women leaders should be assigned more roles and responsibilities so that they can have experience in matters that pertains leadership. Since the research was based on only four variables, the researcher suggested that other variables be identified and researched on to establish their influence on women participation in trade union leadership.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Women have been referred to as weaker sex and this has influenced their leadership styles (Andibo, 2012). This gives the impression that women are powerless or in another word not as strong as men. Due to this perception, certain jobs and functional duties are generally regarded as not for women. This impression, no doubt has affected women education and aspirations. During the colonial period, education curricula emphasized religious instruction and clerical skills for boys and domestic science for girls (Odi, 2010). Besides, there was the perception that women needed to be educated only to be good housewives. By nature, women are responsible for birth, nurturing and upbringing of children, who will grow to become adults of tomorrow. Men regard the kitchen as the right place for women, (Kaminski and Pauly 2011).

Furthermore, common sense demands that as women work side by side with men in various work places and institutions, it is necessary that they take active part in Trade Union Movement, so as to be able to put across their views and needs for example professional and other needs peculiar to women for deliberation at trade union meetings, congresses and conferences (International Labour Organization Convention, 2009). It is important to note that women have even become professional trade unionists besides active participation as working unionists.

In the United States Women's Trade Union League (WTUL) was an organization of both working class and more well-off women formed in 1903 to support the efforts of women to organize labor unions and to eliminate sweatshop conditions (Jone and Lewis, 2012) The WTUL played an important role in supporting the massive strikes in the first two decades of the twentieth century that established the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union and Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America and in campaigning for women's suffrage among men and women workers. The Women's Trade Union League, nearly forgotten in much of the mainstream, feminist and labor history written in the mid-20th century, was a key institution in reforming women's working conditions in the early 20th century (Robin Miller Jacoby, 1994).

Further, it also drew on the earlier work of activists in the settlement house movement, such as Jane Addams and Florence Kelley, and budding unions in industries with a large number of women workers, such as garments and textiles. The WTUL leadership comprised both upper-class philanthropists and working-class women with experience organizing unions, including a significant portion of the most important female labour leaders of the day, including Mary Kenney O'Sullivan and Rose Schneiderman (Orleck and Annelise, 1995) But the heyday of the League came between 1907 and 1922 under the presidency of Margaret Dreier Robins. During that period, the WTUL led the drive to organize women workers into unions, secured protective legislation, and educated the public on the problems and needs of working women (Margaret Dreier Robins and the Women's Trade Union League, 1988).

In United Kingdom the Trade Union Congress (TUC) comprises of 61 unions representing 6.4 million members 30 percent of the leaders being women. The TUC has close links with the UK's Labour Party. Frances O'Grady has made history as the first woman to be elected General Secretary of the Trades Union Congress in September 2012. A recent study from Queen Mary University of London in 2010 casted some light on the level of O'Grady's achievement in the wider union landscape. This cross-national study found that in both the UK and the US, women still have fewer top positions in trade unions despite growth in overall female membership. The paper, *Lift as You Rise: Union Women's Leadership Talk*, discusses the lack of women at union leadership level, and the management styles adopted by those women who do climb to the top, (Elizabeth Anne Payne et.al, 1988)

Unlike corporate organisations, unions are generally democratic, but their leadership structures in both America and Britain are historically dominated by white men, (Foner and Philip, 1997). While more women have joined unions in the last decades, the proportion of female leaders in either country remains low. 130 women, including the most senior union officials from the UK and North Eastern USA, were interviewed for the study, which was carried out by Geraldine Healy and Gill Kirton of the School of Business and Management at Queen Mary. Among the UK's 10 larger unions, there are now four women general secretaries; however only two unions have achieved proportionality on the National Executive. In the US, women's representation has increased dramatically since the 1970s, but men continue to take the top and most powerful positions. In nine major US unions with significant female membership, women comprise 24 per cent of top leaders, but in none of these unions does the female proportion of leaders reflect membership rates. Women who were interviewed often

had greater expectations of their female leaders than their male leaders; typically they expected other women leaders to be less hierarchical and more supportive and encouraging of other women. Those who failed to exhibit these feminist leadership practices were often condemned by other women, (Orleck and Annelise, 1995).

In Germany a study done by Heiner Dribbusch and Peter Birke (2012) on Trade Unions in Germany in May 2012, the biggest individual trade unions are metal workers union and the United Service Union which represent 70 percent of the members and the majority who are education and science workers union were women. The women involved in trade union leadership vary in age and perform different leadership roles such as organizing, recruiting and empowering other women in trade unions in Germany, most of the women ended up joining the East Germany's Trade Union Confederation and Free Germany Trade Union Federation all of them being affiliates of German Federation of Trade Unions (DGB) Further, in Finland the Central Organisation of Finnish Trade Unions has 21 affiliated trade unions with a total membership of one million and it is an effective representative body, which negotiates a periodic incomes policy with employers. The union claims that its membership consists of 46% women, with 25% of all members being under the age of 30 (Raymo, Warren, Sweeney and Hauser, 2010).

In Nigeria, there has been low participation of women in trade unions. Recent research suggests that women are less competitive and hierarchical than men (Andibo, 2012). Women being so professionally involved almost in all occupational sphere raises the question as to whether or not they should participate in Trade Union Movement. Since there is women education not only in Kenya but globally, a feat facilitated by Government free education programme, it is only logical to expect that the women who passed through the school system would be better equipped to serve the nation in various capacities as workers, experts and policy makers. If this fact is accepted, it is not abnormal for women to participate in trade unionism, the instrument for effective bargaining, improvement of working conditions and the creation of cordial relationship between the employees and the employers.

In South Africa, the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) which was established in 1985 following unity talks between unions and federations that previously competed with one another and is the biggest of the country's three main labour federations, with a combined membership of 2.2-million workers grouped into 20 affiliated trade unions.

The majority of their members are in the mining and quarrying sector, followed by the public sector in community, social and personal services, and electricity, gas and water supply (2012 figures, Cosatu draft organisational report, PDF). Because of the nature of work the workers involved in it has become very difficult for women to join COSATU hence the number remaining minimal (www.cosatu.org.za). In Ghana, the Ghana Trade Union Congress (GTUC) has a membership of 500,000 workers with 18 affiliated trade unions, 20 percent of the leaders being women (Buad, 1994). In Egypt, the Egyptian Trade Union Federation was until 30 January 2011, the sole trade union federation in Egypt. It represents 2.5 million workers in 23 unions. It is affiliated with the International Confederation of Arab Trade Unions, and the Organization of African Trade Union Unity. Syndicate formations have existed in Egypt for a long time to cover all professions, specializations and different crafts in order to defend the rights of the workers and develop and protect the profession itself. Subsequently, other professional syndicates were established given the notable increase in women taking leadership positions in Trade Unions in Egypt (ICTUR et al, 2005).

According to a regional seminar in 2003 on poverty reduction strategy programmes in East Africa: A critical glance at Trade Union participation, the National Organisation of Trade Unions (NOTU) has 30 percent of its leaders are women. In Tanzania the Trade Union Congress of Tanzania (TUCTA) has a membership of over 2 million workers with 25 percent being women and at the same time their age, level of education, marital status and level of income varies (World Bank, 1995).

In Kenya, modern trends have shown and indicate that women after all are not as weak as may be perceived in some quarters. In recent times, women have now combined the kitchen job with office and factory jobs (Kamau, 2010). Consequently, the role of women in helping to build a good society should not be under-rated. It is therefore, not surprising today few enterprising women who felt they can compete with men are fast breaking new grounds in terms of securing jobs, taking part in politics for example women like Martha Karua who was in the race for Presidency in the year 2013 elections, Nancy Barasa who was the former Deputy Chief Justice among others.

Further, there is disproportionate participation of women in politics, trade unions and high-level decision-making in the country when compared to countries like Rwanda and South Africa, which have 56 percent and 33 percent women representation respectively, (Republic of Kenya, 2010). There are also large wage gaps to the disadvantage of women and only a small

portion can be explained by gender differences in education, work experiences or job characteristics. Women for example hold mere 16 percent of top positions in the Kenya government (job groups Q,R,S,T,U) Further, women are confined to the bottom of the public service with 74 percent representation in job groups A,B,C,E and F (Republic of Kenya, 2009). In addition, inadequacy of gender disaggregated data has constrained the integration of gender issues in formulation of implementation of national development policies and programmes.

The gender machinery institutions have been plagued by subtle challenges which are financial and staff constraints. Consequently, the institutions have not been able to conduct their activities adequately. The mandate of Departmental/Division of Gender has been misunderstood to include actual gender project implementation, rather than just coordination. As a result the unit which lacks the capacity to effectively co-ordinate has not been able to fulfil either its proper or its additional mandates. Similar capacity constraints have also hampered the work of the National Commission on Gender and Development which lacks adequate operating budget and professional staff. The previous Gender Department was mandated to set up Units of Gender Issues (UGIs) in all ministries (Republic of Kenya, 2011).

Masta and Omolo (2011) stated that the maximum number of positions held by females in the national trade union leadership is eleven (11). The majority (77.8%) of the unions have 0-3 national positions occupied by women while only about 22 percent have between 4 – 5 slots occupied by women at the national level(Masta and Omolo, 2011). Amalgamated Union of Kenya Metal Workers (AUKMW) and Kenya Electrical Workers Union (KETAWU) have no female elected national officials while Union of National, Research Institutes Staff of Kenya (UNRISK) has the highest five (5) as female elected national officials. The positions held by the elected female national officials include that of the Treasurer, Assistant Treasurer, National Executive Council Members, Committee members and shop stewards. Some of these are positions of decision making which when effectively utilized can promote women empowerment and engendering of trade union movement in the country. By contrast, the number of male national officials ranges between 8 and 29. This shows the skewed nature of female representation in trade union leadership. The under representation of women in trade union leadership is also reflected in the minimal number of women nominated by COTU (K) to represent the organization in tripartite institutions or other bodies that require workers' representation.

Moreover, women have argued in words and actions that, “what men can do, women can also do even do better” (Andibo, 2012). This is due to the fact that education is now available to both men and women in the country and both sexes are becoming more and more educationally equipped to serve the nation in various capacities. It is however, expected that educated women like their male counterparts will also be allowed to render their education given or endowment services to the nation as workers. Professional areas previously regarded as the sole preserve of men are now being invaded by women (Kenya Women Magazine, 2012).

1.2 Statement of the problem

It is logical and empirical that women play a very important role in trade union leadership but the sad reality is that the trade unions do not show affirmative action in relation to women leadership (Andibo, 2012). Despite the numerous attempts at discussion around gender issues in the trade unions, it is very clear that the pace at which gender equality is moving in favour of women is slow hence making trade unions fail in mainstreaming gender in the management of trade union in Kenya. It is therefore important for the Central Organization of Trade Unions to do some introspection and embrace women leadership within the organization. Women comprise 40% of 1,500,000 which translates to 600,000 members in trade union in Kenya, but a smaller percentage of union leaders (Masta and Omolo, 2011).

The top leadership of COTU (K) Secretariat is made up of two (2) women whereas the men are ten (10). This makes their bargaining power weak when it comes to addressing matters that pertains women for example in the collective bargaining agreements, issues like working conditions during the periods of maternity, policy formulations among others. Decision making becomes a problem when they go by the majority (Masta and Omolo, 2011). Masta and Omolo (2011) states that despite the campaigns and conferences all over the globe in respect of the need to enhance and promote gender equality in all human spheres; there still exists a wide gap of difference between the level of women and men participation at COTU (K) (Kenya Women Magazine, 2012). The consequences of not including the women in the leadership of trade unions is that the decisions made may be biased which will put women in a disadvantaged position hence issues such as working conditions during the periods of maternity, policy formulations among others will not be addressed in the right way. Consequently decisions will be skewed hence favouring men leaders only. It is against this background that this research

seeks to establish the socio-economic factors influencing women participation in trade union leadership.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to establish socio-economic factors influencing women participation in trade union leadership.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study aims to achieve the following objectives:

1. To establish the extent to which demographic characteristics influences women participation in trade union leadership.
2. To determine the extent to which level of education influences women participation in trade union leadership.
3. To establish the extent to which level of income influences women participation in trade union leadership.
4. To determine the extent to which cultural practices influences women participation in trade union leadership.

1.5 Research Questions

The study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent do demographic characteristics influence women participation in trade union leadership?
2. To what extent do level of education influence women participation in trade union leadership?
3. To what extent do level of income influence women participation in trade union leadership?
4. To what extent do cultural and practices influence women participation in trade union leadership?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of this research may be significant to scholars undertaking studies in the area of leadership and trade unions. It may also help those involved in women leadership especially in the wake of affirmative action efforts. Both the theoretical and empirical findings may be of great help to the academicians and professionals in the area of leadership. Study

results may be of aid to the government in the areas of planning and policy formulation in the area of women leadership. The research findings may be instrumental to the policy makers and opinion leaders in the trade industry in drafting policies that benefited all the stakeholders. The study may add the much needed information to the Central Organization of Trade Unions leadership and the entire labour movement in Kenya.

1.7 Assumption of the Study

The study assumed that the information provided from the field was accurate and authentic hence the analysis was convenient to the study.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The researcher anticipated the following limitations in the course of the study:
One location- Nairobi as a study area and this can produce results that might not be the same if the research were to be done in other parts of the country.

The researcher got a document indicating the schedule of activities of the women leaders from the COTU Headquarters in order to check their availability. This made the researcher to plan for the days of administering the questionnaires. The purpose of doing this was to void cases of other women leaders being out of Nairobi on other engagements hence the limitation did not influence the outcome of the study.

1.9 Delimitation of the Study

The study focused on the women who hold leadership positions in Trade Unions in Nairobi at the same time focused on the four variables which were demographic characteristics, education income levels and cultural traditions and how these variables influenced women participation in Trade Unions leadership in Nairobi.

1.10 Definitions of Significant Terms used in the Study

Demographic characteristic : Comprises of age which is the period of time during which respondents has existed from birth. Gender which refers to the roles and responsibilities associated with men and women and that they are socially constructed and marital status which is a state in which a respondent is, whether single, married, divorced, separated or widowed.

Level of Education: This is the highest level of education attained by a respondent.

Gender equity: Both men and women being accorded equal opportunities in terms of leadership position in COTU

Gender equality: Fairness in relation to resource allocation and other opportunities between men and women.

Level of Income: This is the extent in monetary terms in which a respondent earns

Leadership: The art of motivating a group of people to act towards achieving a common goal.

Trade union: An organization of workers who have joined together so as to improve their interests.

Socio-economic factors: Combination of two words which describes the relationship between the economic activities and social life.

Women Leaders: This refers to females who give guidance or direction in term of decision making and policy formulation at COTU (K).

Male leaders: This refers to male who give guidance or direction in term of decision making and policy formulation at COTU (K).

Cultural traditions: The way men and women view their customs in relation to the responsibilities they are assigned.

1.11 Organization of the study

Chapter one provided a background on women leadership in general and in the trade unions, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions significance of the study, limitation and delimitation of the study, assumption of the study and definition of significant terms used in the study. Chapter two covered areas that had been addressed by the various studies in tandem with the research objectives and reflected issues on demographic characteristics and women participation in trade union leadership, education levels and women participation in trade union leadership, income levels and women participation in trade union leadership, cultural traditions and women participation in trade union leadership and also the theoretical and conceptual framework and the summary of literature review. Chapter three outlined the research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, research instrument, pilot testing, validity of instruments, reliability of instruments, data collection methods, data analysis techniques, ethical considerations and operational definition of variables. Chapter four provided data analysis, presentation and interpretation of the findings in line with the research objectives. Finally, chapter five provided a general summary of findings, discussion, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviewed related literature to the problem of study. It focused on studies that have been conducted by experts in the area of study. The subsections covered include; age and women leadership, marital status and women leadership, education levels and women leadership, income levels and women leadership as well as the theoretical and conceptual framework guiding the study.

2.2 Demographic characteristics and women participation in Trade Unions leadership

Leadership is defined as the art of motivating a group of people to act towards achieving a common goal (Ward, 2010). The leader is the person in the group that possesses the combination of personality and skills that makes others want to follow his or her direction. The web enhanced Leadership Education and Development (weLEAD) online magazine (2010) defines leadership as the active ability to articulate a vision, to embrace the values of that vision, and nurture an environment where followers can reach the organizations goals and their own personal goals.

Age is a neglected variable in leadership research. An electronic literature search of studies published in *The Leadership Quarterly* over the past 20years found only one study that treated leaders' age explicitly as a theoretically relevant concept and not merely as a control variable (Kawashima-Ginsberg and Thomas, 2013). While the aging of the workforces in most Western industrialized countries has led to an increased interest among organizational researchers in the relationships between age and employee attitudes and performance, leadership researchers have hardly considered age as a substantial concept (Calásand Smircich, 2009). The aging of the workforce in many countries has led to an increased interest in the role of age in the work context among developmental as well as organizational scholars (Raymo, Warren, Sweeney and Hauser, 2010)

The investigation of associations between age and leadership processes and outcomes has been neglected. This is surprising, given that interactions between young, middle-aged, and older supervisors and their subordinates constitute common social experiences for most

members of the workforce (Zacher, Heusner, Schmitz, Zwierzanska and Frese, 2010). Even though an early theoretical article emphasized the importance of taking a life span approach to leadership, hardly any studies exist in the developmental psychology literature that investigated leadership (Raymoet *al.*, 2010). However, the combinations of age and age-related developmental tasks such as generativist (Ross-Smith and Huppertz, 2010). Specifically, it is assumed that leadership success declines with increasing age unless leaders accomplish these developmental tasks (for example unless they become more generative with age) (Yeung and Fung, 2009). Thus, further research on age and leadership is needed to identify factors that may help maintain leadership success at higher ages (Kawashima-Ginsberg and Thomas, 2013).

Moreover, suggestions that age and leadership success may not be related perse, which would be similar to the relationship between age and employee performance (Andibo, 2012). However, the relationships between leader and age and different criteria of leadership success may be affected by a moderator, such that leaders with a high level of the moderator variable are better able to maintain leadership success at higher ages than leaders with a low level of the moderator variable (Zacher *et al.*, 2010). Consequently, in many countries the gender pay gap (different salaries for men and women) still exists. In most countries, the terms “sticky floors” and “glass ceilings” are used to describe how and why the gender pay gap increases with age, as women are overlooked for promotion in favour of male colleagues (International Federation of Journalists, 2009).

In 2011, a proud and well-respected woman elder called Pat Waria-Read and trade union leader received an award because she was a catalyst for the rights of Aboriginal women on a community, state and national level, ensured their voices are heard, acknowledged and respected. Because of her age she has been able to empower generations of women leaders in the trade union movement (Liz Scarce, 2011). In 2012 Katrine Hildyard Branch Secretary of the Australian Services Union who has led a union campaign to ensure that workers in the community sector are paid appropriately also received an award because of her good work in the trade union leadership and having worked within the South Australian and Northern Territory Branch of the Australian Services Union for almost fourteen years (Gail Gago 2012).

(Yeung and Fung, 2009) indicates that leadership success declines with increasing age unless leaders accomplish these developmental tasks and at the same time Pat Waria-Read a well-respected elder trade union woman leader received an award because at her age, she has

been able to empower generations of women leaders in the trade union movement (Liz Scarce, 2011). It can be pointed out that in an empirical study done in Finland by the Central Organisation of Finnish Trade Unions in (2000) that has 21 affiliated trade unions with a total membership of one million, women leaders in trade unions play a major role in effective representation in trade unions further, they negotiate a periodic incomes policy with employers. The union membership consists of 46% women, with 25% of all members being under the age of 30 (Raymo, Warren, Sweeney and Hauser, 2010). In Germany a study done by Heiner Dribbusch and Peter Birke on Trade Unions in Germany in May 2012, the biggest individual trade unions are metal workers union and the United Service Union which represent 70 percent of the members and the majority who are education and science workers union were women aged between 25 and 45 years.

On marital status, a married woman may find it harder to participate in trade union activities compared to a single or divorced woman (International Labour Organisation Convention, 2009). Allam and Harish (2012) in a study about the influence of socio-demographic factors on job burnout and satisfaction among Eritrean medical workers found that female personnel showed significantly greater degree of job satisfaction in leadership than their male counterparts. The same study also reported that married employees as well as the younger group of employees showed significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than the unmarried and older group respectively. This, by deduction means that both the married and the younger employees experience less stress (Hey and Leathwood, 2009). Therefore, workers' levels of stress are affected by age and marital status (Allam and Harish, 2012). Gender differences in leadership with females show some tendency to be more satisfied than their male counterparts (Calás and Smircich, 2009). Leadership is influenced by factors such as gender and marital status (Zacher *et al.*, 2010). According to Dave Ramsey (2011), marital status affects the leadership of women in the sense that if they have crazy partners they drain their leadership skills at the same time when their partners nag, bicker and become petty they drain their energy. Consequently the relationship with a spouse will also affect the quality of your leadership.

From a study conducted in Nigeria on marital status by Trade Union Congress (2007), it was found out that, a married woman may find it harder to participate in trade union activities than a single or divorced woman because of responsibilities such as taking care of her husband and also seeking his consent in whatever actions she takes hence she does not make

decisions alone (Blessing, 2008). Study conducted in the Harvard Trade Union Program where participants were from the U.S. and Canada and they ranged in age from 40 to 57, realized that most of the women leaders were divorced or never married; some reported their spouses were not supportive of their union role (Kaminski and Pauly, 2011).

This therefore shows that marital status is an issue that influences the leadership style of women (Schein, 2007). Noticeably, most of the women leaders in the study were divorced or never married. When asked about support in their personal life, none of them mentioned a supportive spouse or partner during their early or middle leadership experiences, although two did in their current position. One attributed a broken marriage and failed relationships, in part, to the amount of time she spent working for the union (Kaminski and Pauly, 2011).

Moreover, a study by Sarkar and Bhowmik (1999) conducted in Kenya on trade unions and women workers in tea plantations found that the most common reason for joining a union was because the husband or the father of the woman was a member of that union. In the case of married women they became members of the unions their husbands belonged to. Unmarried women were influenced by their fathers' decision on the choice of the union (Sarkar and Bhowmik, 1999). Traditional and cultural role of women as care takers/givers makes them to have additional responsibilities, which they cannot effectively combine with the highly demanding union work (Kaminski and Pauly, 2011). Closely related to this is the socio-cultural tag placed on women by some communities, where women are not allowed to sit and contribute in discussions on equal footing with men (Blessing, 2008). This inhibits effective participation of women as workers' representatives. Others also perceive women trade unionists as "prostitutes or divorcees" which perception negatively affects participation of women in trade union leadership (Odi, 2010).

In a study done by Masta and Omollo (2011) on the status of women in trade union in Kenya, sexual harassment is rife in trade unions and this act as a disincentive for women to join trade unions and/or actively participate in trade union activities. The interviewed group argued that some women have an inherent feeling that they are able or inferior. The feeling of inferiority limits the women's capacity and drive to take up leadership positions in the trade unions, provide leadership to the union members and /or make appropriate decisions (Zacheret al., 2010). Men are overbearing and are bent on imposing issues. This lack of freedom to independent decision making is a challenge to trade union leaders (Morley, 2011).

The attitude of married women in trade union leadership have shown that many have a very narrow view of what unions do and how they might be useful to them (Tomlinson 2005). This is relevant to a discussion of women's leadership to the extent that failure to identify with the local trade union agenda can prevent women from joining and participating in the first place, let alone putting themselves forward for leadership positions (Wirth, 2001). This is also where female role models or better still a critical mass of local women leaders can help make a difference by putting women on or further up the agenda and by explicitly encouraging other women to get involved (Kirton and Healy 1999).

In terms of gender, historically leadership participation in trade unions has carried the notion of masculinity and the belief that men make better leaders than women is still common today. Although the number of female leaders has increased, they are often named as an afterthought. According to Højgaard (2002), the societal conventions regarding gender and leadership participation in trade unions traditionally exclude women, and top leadership is viewed as a masculine domain. The same author further argues that the cultural construction of leadership in itself instigates difference and this is only now being transformed or contested as women gain access to leadership positions. In African societies, it is believed that men lead and women follow (Ngcongo, 1993, in Grant, 2005). It is not uncommon in rural villages in Africa to find the man literally walking ahead of the woman. Different reasons may be advanced for this but ultimately it illustrates the deeply held notion of leadership as masculine.

There was a time that it was believed that leaders were born with certain leadership traits. However, current thinking on leadership participation in trade unions assumes that leadership can be taught and learned, hence the many leadership-training programs (de la Rey, 2005). Cheryl de la Rey (2005) lists the traits commonly associated with leadership as effective communication skills, task completion, responsibility, problem solving, originality, decision making, action taking, vision, self awareness, confidence, experience and power. While it is possible to develop these traits in any individual, regardless of gender, in male dominated societies (as is often the case in African societies) male leadership and leadership styles predominate and are regarded as the more acceptable forms of leadership.

Grove and Montgomery (2000) defined leaders as people "who provide vision and meaning for an institution and embody the ideals toward which the organization strives" (p. 1). From that perspective, leaders are alike and genderless. However there is still skepticism when

women lead and in many situations, gender, more than age, experience or competence determines the role (position) one is assigned. There is research to show that such fears or doubts about women are baseless. Growe and Montgomery (2000), in studies on school administration, found that schools with female administrators are better managed (the quality of pupil learning and professional performance of teachers is higher), and on average perform better than those managed by men. Similar findings have been reported by Aladejana (2005) in her study regarding female representation in leadership positions in trade unions in South West Nigeria.

There seems to be enough evidence to suggest that women lead differently from men (Eagly and Johnson, 1990, as cited in de la Rey, 2005). For instance, women portray a more participatory approach, are more democratic, allow for power and information sharing, are more sensitive, more nurturing than men, focus on relationships and enable others to make contributions through delegation (de la Rey, 2005; Growe & Montgomery, 2000; Tedrow, 1999). Tedrow (1999) also noted characteristics such as building coalitions and advancing individual and community development are constructs that women display in their relational styles. Women leaders are also better at conflict management, have better listening skills and show more tolerance and empathy. While men and women do have different leadership styles, that should not mean that one is dominant over the other. It has been observed that the differences we see in leadership participation are partly due to the way men view leadership as leading, while women see leadership as facilitating (Growe & Montgomery, 2000).

In contrast to the characteristics of women given above, men lead from the front and attempt to have all the answers while stressing task accomplishment, the achieving of goals, the hoarding of information and winning (Growe & Montgomery, 2000). Contemporary work environments could definitely benefit from leaders who portray more of the traits associated with women.

Sadly, in a situation where accepting women as leaders participation is problematic, it is possible to overlook their positive leadership traits and view them as weaknesses. In fact, stereotypes of how women lead have made it difficult for women to access or even stay in leadership positions. Tedrow (1999) argued that women who display more relational styles of leading are likely to be marginalized within their organizations and viewed as 'outsiders'. Even more disconcerting is the fact that women who seem to 'make it' as leaders often end up

conforming to the strong male culture in the work place, and adopt male leadership styles. As indicated by Growe & Montgomery (2000), since female leaders see gender as a hindrance, they are compelled to lead the way men do as it is considered the norm hence making their participation in leadership minimal. In their view, utilizing men's methods of leadership is not only the easiest way for a woman to be hired for any position of leadership, but is the most successful method of attracting promotion and recognition.

2.3 Level of education and women participation in Trade Unions leadership

When women and men are simply compared without considering their racial backgrounds or socioeconomic background (such as family affluence and level of educational attained, some serious race and class gaps among women can be overlooked (Kawashima-Ginsberg and Thomas, 2013). Gender equality legislation and policy initiatives, changes in socio-economic gender relations and aspirations and the expansion of higher education opportunities have all contributed to increasing numbers of women undergraduate students globally (Leathwood and Read, 2009). Female enrolment ratios now exceed those of men in two out of every three countries with available data (Morley, 2011). The number of women enrolled in tertiary institutions has grown almost twice as fast as that of men since 1970 (UNESCO, 2010). A UNESCO global gender parity index that computes the ratio of female to male enrolments in higher education is now 1.08 meaning that there are slightly more women undergraduates than men enrolled worldwide. Globally, the number of female students rose six-fold from 10.8 to 77.4 million between 1970 and 2008, (World Bank, 1995).

Moreover, literature suggests that women and men in higher education are largely placed differently, with differential access to leadership, and hence to influencing meanings, discourses and practices (Calás and Smircich, 2009). While numbers have increased in some countries for example Sweden, it is indisputable that women are under-represented in senior leadership positions internationally (Morley, 2011). As Ross-Smith and Huppertz (2010) observe, there has been excess research on the barriers to women's advancement in management but less empirical research has concentrated on women who have spent prolonged periods of time in senior managerial roles. There is scant coverage of success stories of women accessing authority and facilitating change. Nor is there much consideration of the ambivalence or pleasures that many women experience in higher education either by becoming leaders, or by making positive choices (Hey and Leathwood, 2009). However, this does not mean that

women do not lead as empirical evidence has shown that today, women are challenging men for the available leadership positions (Kawashima-Ginsberg and Thomas, 2013).

According to Al-Lamki's (1999) study among Omani women in Arab societies, the main obstacles for women managers were limited opportunities to higher education, discriminatory appointment and promotion practices, traditional attitudes of male bosses towards working women, male dominated domain, male resistance to women in management, absence of policies and legislation to ensure participation of women in management positions, lack of professional networking, lack of female role models, and lack of professional management development programs. In Asian countries, it was clear that the driving forces for success for Arab women in management are education and the support of their husband and families and that success for Arab women is not defined in terms of financial gains but rather satisfaction, happiness and growth (Omair, 2011).

Women lack awareness and understanding of how unions can benefit them (Schein, 2007). Unions are often not sensitive to the needs of women workers and that their entrenched rules and structures are not conducive to women's participation in leadership (Leathwood and Read, 2009).

2.4 Level of Income and women participation in Trade Unions leadership

Women have different options and capacities than men do to respond to climate change impacts on health, food and livelihood security (Lambrou and Nelson, 2010). Many women have limited access to education, livelihood assets and health care, due to lower incomes and cultural expectations that restrict their mobility (United Nations Development Programme, 2009) as a result of that it becomes a challenge for them to rise to leadership position and the existing women leaders are not motivated because of the low income hence the productivity is low.

However, a study in the United States and United Kingdom on wage differences in 1995, the researcher found that individual differences in personality account for substantial differences in earnings, and that the way such characteristics affect earnings differs between the sexes (Orleck and Annelise, 1995). In high-status jobs, women are penalized for having aggressive personalities, whereas men are rewarded, the study finds (after controlling for education, measured ability, exam success and other factors affecting earnings).The pattern is

reversed for passive, withdrawing personalities, with men losing and women gaining income. Further, after controlling for other income-related factors, that women in the United States with a lower sense of their own ability to influence their destinies have lower earnings, (World Bank, 1995). A study done in (2010) in the United States shows that bright but undisciplined male school dropouts who lack persistence and adaptability earn less than others with the same levels of ability and cognitive achievement and will continue to do so, beyond school (Raymo *et al.*, 2010). These types of enquiry are increasingly demonstrating the importance of non-cognitive skills in economic life.

Women participation in leadership has remained oppressed and exploited in very specific ways in the society and within the trade union movement, women experience oppression and discrimination in explicit and implicit ways within structures, programmes and activities. This takes form of gender-blindness, where programmes and activities such as collective bargaining do not take account of the specific needs of women members. It also takes the form of active and direct domination through sexual harassment and discrimination towards women leadership positions. Women issues are not integrated in trade union work like training, skill development and opportunities for promotion (Masta and Omolo, 2011). It is a fact that women still do not receive pay that is equal to that of men for the same work in some professions (Riccucci, 2008). One outcome of occupational segregation is significant pay differences between men and women workers. Although the ILO Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), has one of the highest rates of ratification of any international labour standard (149 as of 31 December 2000) and the principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value has been incorporated into the labour legislation of many countries, however pay differentials continue to be one of the most persistent forms of gender inequality (Wirth, 2001).

For example, Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs and Tamkins *et.al* (2004) in their research on women who succeed at gender-typed tasks in America found that women who broke from traditionally female jobs and succeeded in traditionally male jobs were liked less and personally derogated more often than their male counterparts. Furthermore, they reported, these negative feelings often affected the women's salaries (Heilman *et al.*, 2004). In publishing these figures the Statistical Office of the European Commission (Eurostat) noted that: These averages reflect structural differences in the characteristics of working women and men – mostly age, education and occupation. Fewer women than men occupy management positions, which are amongst the best paid jobs. The imbalance in their presentation of women or men in

certain economic sectors and occupations is one of the determining elements of the gender pay gap (Wirth, 2001:18).

Trade unions do not guarantee job security to workers, favourable terms and conditions of service and some trade union benefits are accessible even to non-members hence women are not motivated to join the leadership (Masta and Omollo, 2011).

2.5 Cultural practices and women participation in Trade Unions leadership

Santovec, (2006) advanced the argument that at the bottom of the constraints that women face is the patriarchal system where decision making powers are in the hands of males. In the African context, traditional beliefs and cultural attitudes regarding the role and status of women in society are still prevalent and many women are part of this system finding it difficult to dislocate from this culture and tradition lest they be ostracized. Despite women's education and entry into the job market, the woman's role is typically one of homemaker. The man, on the other hand, is bread winner, head of household and has a right to public life (Sadie, 2005). Confining women's identity to the domestic sphere is one of the barriers to women's entry into leadership position and trade union politics by its nature catapults one into public life. Generally, cultural attitudes are hostile to women's involvement in trade union leadership.

Some women were able to transcend cultural barriers and rise to positions of leadership but more often than not, it meant having to juggle cultural expectations with their leadership roles. Perhaps one of the most notable examples in literature is Grace Onyango who in 1969, was the first female elected Member of Parliament in Kenya, but had previously held several leadership positions including that of mayor of the third largest City in Kenya. Grace Onyango was well versed with the Luo traditions, respected and even adhered to them, while at the same time playing into the political/official role of mayor, then parliamentarian. It must be realized that the Luo, like many ethnic groups in Kenya, is traditionally patriarchal. When Onyango came to power in the 1960s, Africa, according to Tripp (2001), had the lowest rate of female legislative participation in the world (p. 142), and politics was a male affair. Ascending to leadership positions was not easy for Onyango. She often faced opposition with people (men in particular) arguing that these positions were only suitable for men. Musandu's (2008) chronicle of Onyango's political career shows a woman who was bold, knew what she wanted, and had specific skills that appealed to men and women. Onyango seems to have been cautious not to offend her people by opposing respected (male) elders, and Musandu (2008:14) reckons that at

one point Grace Onyango was “at an ethnic and national political crossroads and her survival as a politician depended on the successful balancing of the two important interests”.

It has been argued that women themselves are often reluctant to run for leadership positions and this is partly attributed to cultural prohibitions on women speaking in public or going to public places. Campaigning for trade union leadership positions requires that one travel extensively to different areas in such of votes, spend nights away from home, go into bars, and for women it means meeting men. All of these things are not easily accepted for women in many African societies (Tripp, 2001). Women who vie for trade union office have to consider the risk of being labeled ‘loose’ or ‘unfit’ as mothers and wives, and being socially stigmatized. Such considerations make many women shy away from trade unions, and leadership positions that put them in the public eye.

The socialization of the girl child in many societies is also to blame for perceived inabilities on the part of women. Melody Emmett (2001) quoted, “The life passages of women are not sacramentalised, celebrated or even acknowledged”. This is illustrative of the position ascribed to women, right from the birth of the girl child, in comparison to the boy child and the subsequent position of men in society. In many African cultures, the rituals and rites of passage pertaining to the boy child nurture them for leadership positions, whether at local or national levels of governance, in business, politics or public administration. Religion tends to cement these cultural norms. As observed by Emmet (2001), all mainstream religions have stereotypical roles for men and women where women are perceived as less equal than men, often being kept separate in the way roles are assigned. In her discussion of women’s experience of religion, Emmet (2001) analyzed the rituals performed for and by men in various religions (including Hinduism, Islam and Christianity), finding that men are generally valued and empowered by religion in many ways. Women do not enjoy such privilege, being disempowered by religious structures and practices.

In other public arenas, women’s access to leadership positions has been hindered by discrimination and stereotyping. Women are more or less persecuted for seeking an executive positions. This is largely due to society’s attitude toward appropriate male and female roles. In their discussion on barriers women face in leadership positions, Grove and Montgomery (2000) assert that compared to men, women receive little or no encouragement to seek

leadership positions. There are also few social networks (formal and informal) for women such as membership in clubs, resulting in a lack of recognition that leads to advancement.

Leadership positions require hard work, long hours and are stressful. For women, this burden is added on to their child-care, home, and family responsibilities, a phenomenon referred to as the 'double shift' in Sader, et al. (2005). These observations are also true of women in higher education. In addition to issues of family responsibility that make it difficult for women to advance, cultural beliefs about the roles of men and women inhibit women's advancement to top leadership as much as it does in politics (Pandor, 2006). Pandor (2006) also pointed out the all too common statement (often not taken seriously) that women at senior level positions are not always supportive of other women and tend to want to maintain the status quo. Of course, institutional culture and micro politics do act as barriers for women implicitly or explicitly influencing the research environment that ultimately breeds professors and executive leaders. For many women, the time demands of such positions conflict with the demands of the family, and this in itself is a barrier.

2.6 Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is a collection of interrelated concepts, like a theory but not necessarily so well worked-out. A theoretical framework guides the researcher in determining what things you will measure, and what statistical relationships you will look for (Diezmann et. al 2002). The research was based on eco-feminist theory that believes patriarchy and male domination is harmful to women, as well as the environment. There is a link between a male's desire to dominate unruly women and wilderness (Vendana Shiva 1993). According to this theory, men feel as though they must tame and conquer both in order to have complete power. This theory is related to this study in the sense that it outlines some of the factors influencing women domination in leadership hence in this case the researcher sought to establish the socio-economic factors influencing women participation in trade union leadership in Kenya. The theory has however not looked into the socio-economic factors influencing women participation in trade union leadership that are under investigation in the study.

2.7 Conceptual framework

Conceptual framework is defined as a network, or "a plane," of interlinked concepts that together provide a comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon or phenomena (Jabareen, 2009). The framework in the study depicted the relationship between the selected

independent variables of age, marital status, education and income levels and women leadership, with moderating and intervening variables.

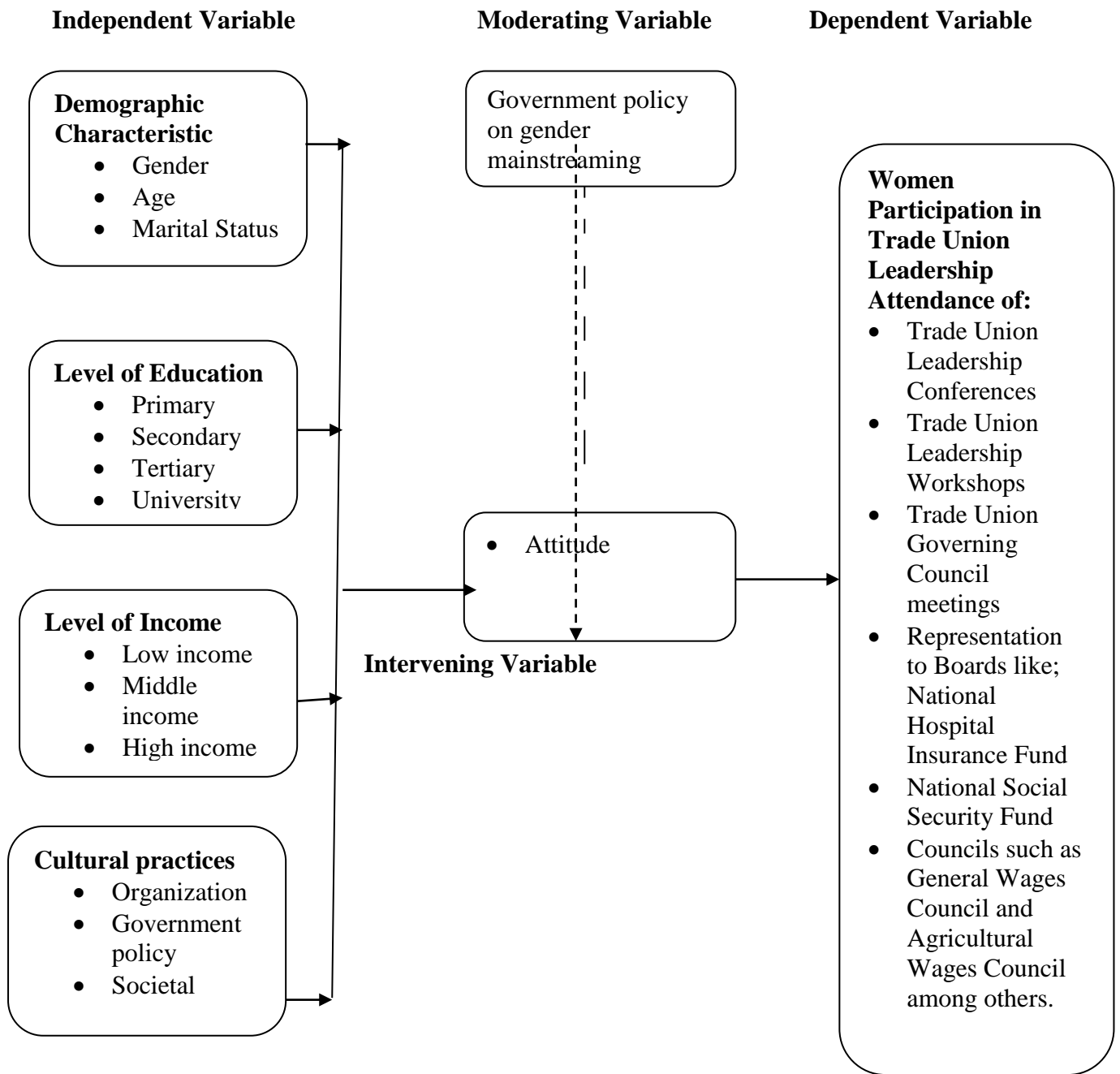


Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework

From Figure 1, the independent variables were demographic characteristics (gender, age and marital status), education level, income levels and cultural traditions and practices whereas the dependent variable is women participation in trade union leadership. In between are the moderating and intervening variables which operate between the dependent and the independent variables. On demographic characteristics there was gender which was indicated by male or female, age the indicators are young, middle age or old, marital status, there was single, married, divorced, separated or widowed.

Concerning education level, there was the primary, secondary or tertiary, the income level has low, middle-level income or high income and finally cultural traditions and practices had belief, values and customs. All these variables had the ability and capacity to influence the participation of women leadership in trade unions. However, there was the moderating variable which is access and availability of resources for leadership. These resources could be human or financial, depending on the type of leadership required. On the other hand, there was the intervening variable which is the attitude of the leader towards the trade union. An attitude influenced the manner in which a person in leadership engage or interact with the employees and management. On the dependent variable which was women participation in trade union leadership, issues like participation in conferences, workshops, governing council meetings and representation to various boards served as the indicators of this dependent variable. Leadership in an organisation is usually geared to ensure that the organisation's mission, vision and core values are attained.

2.8 Summary of literature review

In summary, Women leadership stood the challenge of male domination in leadership in trade unions all over the world. From the foregoing literatures, it was explicit that many authors did not shed enough light on how demographic characteristics (age, marital status), level of education, level of income and cultural traditions influenced women participation in trade union leadership.

It was clear that age differences influenced women leadership in trade unions. The young, the middle and the old perform differently in terms of leadership. Marital status for instance; single, married, divorced, separated and widowed influenced women leadership in trade unions despite the fact that it has not been regarded in most literatures as a variable that influenced women participation in trade union leadership.

Further the level of education for example primary, secondary and tertiary level influenced women leadership in trade unions although it was regarded that the most educated leaders are the best, this was however debatable because personality skills usually take the upper hand hence further research is necessary.

The level of income such as low income, middle income and high income influences women leadership in trade unions, it was said that ‘Money answers all things’ (New International Version, 2006), but sometimes it did not have answers in leadership matters as a high salary-earning person was seriously deficient in leadership. Therefore this created that knowledge gap that needs to be filled by this study.

Finally cultural traditions such as beliefs, customs and values were regarded as among the social factors that influenced women participation in trade unions not much was documented hence creating a gap which was closed by the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter described the methodology which was used in conducting the study. This included: research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, data collection instruments, data collection methods, data analysis techniques, ethical considerations, operational definition of the variables.

3.2 Research Design

This research was based on a descriptive survey research design According to Best (2004) a survey is a means of gathering information about the characteristics, actions, or opinions of a group referred to as population. This design was appropriate for the study because it assisted the researcher collect data appropriately.

3.3 Target Population

The target population consisted of women leaders in trade unions and it was derived from the sampling frame (Appendix III) available at the records of COTU (K). The target population which was 210 (see Appendix III) was from the women leaders in trade unions in Nairobi. These target population was located at the headquarters and had been chosen because the researcher deemed that they had the appropriate and relevant information on women leadership in trade unions.

3.4 Sample size and Sampling Procedure

This section describes the sample size and the sampling procedure of the target population.

3.4.1 Sample Size

A sample size is a subset of the total population that is used to give the general views of the target population (Kothari, 2004) According to the (Krejcie and Morgan Table, 1970) (Appendix IV), when the target population is 210, the appropriate sample size is 136. Therefore the sample size for the study was 136.

3.4.2 Sampling techniques

Proportionate method was used to select respondents for the questionnaires. The target population of 210 (See Appendix III) was derived from the women who were involved in trade union leadership in Nairobi. The researcher preferred this method due to its simplicity and appropriateness.

Proportion sample (x) of each trade union = $n/N \times 136$

Where n = size of each trade union women leaders

N = total population of women leaders

Sample size = 136

3.5 Research instruments

The study used questionnaires which is a set of questions that are carefully designed and given in exactly the same form to a group of people in order to gather data about some topic(s) which is of interest to the researcher (McLean, 2006). Questionnaires comprised of closed-ended questions (see appendix I). Closed-ended questions were used to gather quantitative data. The questionnaire had five distinct sections. Section one sought to gather demographic information from the respondents; section two sought answers concerning level of income and women participation in trade union leadership; section three had questions on education level and women participation in trade union leadership; section four sought answers concerning cultural traditions and women participation in trade union leadership; The questionnaires were administered by the researcher.

3.5.1 Pilot Testing

Pilot testing involved conducting a preliminary test of data collection tools and procedures that identified and eliminated problems, allowing programs to make corrective changes or adjustments before actually collecting data from the target population (Berg and Bruce 2009). Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) when the sample size is less than 1000, one has to take a sample size of 10% hence 10% of the sample size (136) which was 14. The researcher chose 14 women leaders randomly from different trade unions in Nairobi, administered the questionnaires, got the feedback and compared if it was in line with what was contained in the conceptual framework in terms of objectives. Further the same 10% was used for testing

reliability of the instruments. The researcher classified the instrument into items in odd numbers and items in even numbers in the questionnaire. The resulting coefficient indicated the degree to which the two halves of the test provide the same results and hence consistency of the test. The reliability coefficient was calculated using the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula whereby according to Brown (2004) a correlation coefficient value above 0.70 is generally considered sufficient and reliable. The following formula was used by the researcher to determine the reliability of the instrument.

Reliability of the overall test

$$= \frac{2 \times \text{reliability for } \frac{1}{2} \text{ tests}}{1 + \text{reliability for } \frac{1}{2} \text{ tests}}$$

3.5.2 Validity of Instruments

Validity is the appropriateness, correctness and meaningfulness of the specific references which are selected on research results (Fraenkel & Wallen 2004). It is the degree to which results obtained from the data analysis actually represent the phenomenon under study. To ascertain validity of the instrument, the researcher addresses content and constructs validity (extent to which the domain of interest is comprehensively sampled by the items in the questionnaire) Using the 14 respondents from the pilot testing the researcher distributed the questionnaires to them and returned them back after they had been answered. The researcher compared the feedback and found they were in tandem with the content contained in the objectives. This helped to prove whether the respondents perceived the questions in the questionnaire in the way the researcher wanted at the same time the researcher was able to tell that the content was valid and the objectives were achieved in relation to the conceptual framework.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

Data collection is the process of gathering and measuring information on variables of interest, in an established systematic fashion that enables one to answer stated research questions, test hypotheses, and evaluate outcomes (Weller 1998). The researcher got a formal letter from the Central Organization of Trade Unions Headquarters permitting the researcher to

administer questionnaires personally to the women in the 36 trade union leaders and interviewing them; at the same time after the respondents responded she collected them back personally.

A focus group is a form of qualitative research in which a group of people who have similar characteristics such background and experiences who are asked about their perceptions, opinions, beliefs, and attitudes towards a product, service, concept, advertisement, idea, or packaging. Questions are asked in an interactive group setting where participants are free to talk with other group members (Creswell, 2012). The researcher used 34 men leaders which represents a quarter of the total sample size (136) in trade unions as the focus group to discuss and get their views, opinions, beliefs and attitude towards women participation in trade union leadership.

3.7 Data Analysis Techniques

Data analysis by definition is the conceptual interpretation of the dataset as a whole, using specific analytic strategies to convert the raw data into logical information (Kothari, 2004). The data was processed and prepared for analysis by editing, coding, classification, tabulation and cross-tabulation. Descriptive statistics was used to address the research objectives. Descriptive statistics is a series of procedures designed to illuminate the data, so that its principal characteristics and main features are revealed (Bowers, 2008). The data was entered in the Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS) version 17.0 and analysed. Results of analysis was presented in frequency tables and correlation analysis to ascertain the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable was performed.

3.8 Ethical considerations

For the purpose of this study, permission was sought from the relevant authorities and a letter granted to allow the researcher to carry out the research study. Further, in order to avoid suspicion and scepticism the researcher reassured the respondents of the utmost secrecy and that the information they provide was only used for academic purposes. Furthermore, while collecting data the researcher acknowledged all the sources of information collected from textbooks and other research materials respectively.

3.9 Operational Definition of variables

An operational definition of a variable is a definition of the variable in terms of how, specifically, it is to be measured. For some variables, this is not much of an issue. A

researcher can usually determine whether someone is female or male by looking at them or by asking them.

Table 3.1: Operationalization of variables

Objectives	Variables	Indicators	Measurements	Measurement scale	Tools of Analysis
To establish how demographic characteristics (gender, age and marital status) influences women participation in trade union leadership.	Gender				
	Age	18 – 30 years	Whether 18 – 30 years	Ordinal	Mean
		31 – 40 years	Whether 31 – 40 years	Ordinal	Mean
		41 – 50 years	Whether 41 – 50 years	Ordinal	Mean
		51 – 60 years	Whether 51 – 60 years	Ordinal	Mean
		Over 60 years	Whether Over 60 years	Ordinal	Mean
	Marital status	Single	Whether single	Nominal	Mean
		Married	Whether married	Nominal	Mean
		Separated	Whether separated	Nominal	Mean
		Divorced	Whether divorced	Nominal	Mean
		Widowed	Whether widowed	Nominal	Mean
b)To establish how education level influences the leadership of women	Education level	None	Whether none	Ordinal	Mean
		Primary	Whether primary	Ordinal	Mean
		Secondary	Whether secondary	Ordinal	Mean
		Tertiary	Whether tertiary	Ordinal	Mean
c)To establish how income level influences the leadership of women	Income level	Below 10,000	Whether below 10,000	Ordinal	Mean
		10,000 – 20,000	Whether 10,000 – 20,000	Ordinal	Mean
		20,001 – 30,000	Whether 20,001 – 30,000	Ordinal	Mean
		30,001 – 40,000	Whether 30,001 – 40,000	Ordinal	Mean
		40,001 – 50,000	Whether 40,001 – 50,000	Ordinal	Mean

		Above 50,000	Whether above 50,000	Ordinal	Mean
d) To determine how cultural traditions and practices influences women participation in trade union leadership.	Cultural practices	Organizational	Whether there is allocation of leadership positions for women	Ordinal	Mean
		Government Policy	Whether gender mainstreaming	Ordinal	Mean
		Societal	Whether there is specific gender roles	Ordinal	Mean

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter represents the study findings which have been analyzed based on themes and sub thematic areas in line with the study objectives. The themes were; demographic characteristics and women participation in trade union leadership, level of education and women participation in trade union leadership, level of income and women participation in trade union leadership and finally cultural practices and women participation in trade union leadership.

4.2 Questionnaire return rate

From the 136 questionnaires issued, 132 were successfully filled and returned .This translated to a response rate of 97% which was considered adequate to represent the study. According to Mugenda (2003), a response rate above 50% can be used in establishing the research objectives and answering research questions. Therefore, since this return rate was more than 50% recommended by the theory, there was a need to continue with the study. Questionnaires which were not returned were treated as missing data and did not affect the final results of the study.

4.3 Demographic characteristics of the respondents

The general characteristics from the 132 respondents included their personal information such as age, marital status and level of education. The information on these characteristics was important for this study because of their influence in women participation in trade union leadership.

4.3.1 Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age was one of the determinant variable in the study so as to inform the researcher on the age bracket of the respondents. Table 4.1 shows results obtained from respondents.

Table 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by age

Age Bracket	Frequency	Percent
18-30 Years	47	35.6
31 - 40 Years	35	26.5
41-50 Years	25	18.9
51-60 Years	15	11.4
Over 60 Years	10	7.6
Total	132	100.0

Out of 132 respondents who participated in the study, 47 (35.6%) were aged between 18 – 30 years, whereas 35 (26.5%) were aged between 31 – 40 years. 25 (18.9%) of the respondents were those with 41-50 age group. Those in the age group of 51-60 years represented 15 (11.4%) and 10 (7.6%) of the respondents were over 60 years of age.

From the above results, the least number of the respondents were over 60 years of age whereas those of 18-30 years age group represented the largest proportion of the respondents. This indicates that women aged 18 – 30 are interested in leadership of trade unions perhaps because of youthful professional enthusiasm.

4.3.2 Marital status of the respondents

Marital status was a very important characteristic which was investigated by the researcher because of the influence it had on participation of women leaders in trade union. The respondents were asked to state whether they were single, married, separated or divorced. Results obtained were analyzed and presented in table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Distribution of Respondents by Marital status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	34	25.8
Married	71	53.8
Separated	8	6.1
Divorced	12	9.1
Widowed	7	5.3
Total	132	100.0

From the analyzed results, 34, (25.8%) out of the 132 respondents who participated were single, 71 (53.8%) were married, 8 (6.1%) were separated, 12 (9.1%) were divorced and 7 (5.3%) were widowed.

The widowed represented the least proportion whereas the married represented the largest proportion out of the respondents. This meant that their spouses were comfortable with them being leaders in trade unions and at the same time they gave them their full support that is they were the largest proportion.

4.3.3 Distribution of respondents by level of education

The researcher was interested in establishing the relationship between level of education of the respondents and their participation on leadership in trade union. The final results were presented the results in table 4.3

Table 4.3: Distribution of respondents by level of education

Level of Education	Frequency	Percent
Primary	16	12.1
Secondary	52	39.4
University	38	28.8
Tertiary	19	14.4
None	7	5.3
Total	132	100.0

In regard to the level of education, out of the total respondents who took part in the study, 16 (12.1%) had primary school as their highest level of education, 52 (39.4) had secondary school as their highest level of education, 38 (28.8%) had university as their highest level of education, 19 (14.4) had tertiary as their highest level of education and 7 (5.3%) did not indicate their highest level of education. From the above results the primary level had the least proportion whereas the secondary level had the largest proportion out of the respondents. This showed that most women leaders in trade unions had an average level of education meaning that women who were in management for example the senior managers among others were more educated than them.

4.3.4 Distribution of Respondents by Religious Affiliation

The researcher was interested with the religious affiliation of the respondents because some religions discourage women from participation in leadership position whereas others encourage women to participate in leadership of trade unions hence they appreciate their participation. The outcome is presented in table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Distribution of respondents by Religion

Religious Affiliation	Frequency	Percent
Christian	101	76.5
Muslim	18	13.6
Traditional	7	5.3
Hinduism	6	4.5
Total	132	100.0

Out of 132 respondents who participated in the study, 101 (76.5) were Christians, 18 (13.6%) were Muslims, 7 (5.3%) were traditionalists and 6 (4.5) were Hindus. From the above results the least proportion were Hindus whereas Christians constituted the largest proportion of the respondents. This illustrates that Christian religion have no distress in women seeking leadership positions.

4.3.5 Distribution of Respondents by Level of Income

The level of income as a variable was investigated by the researcher to establish its influence in the participation of women participation in trade union leadership. Table 4.5 show the monthly level of income of the respondents and the frequency.

Table 4.5: Distribution of respondents by Monthly income

Level of Income	Frequency	Percent
Below Ksh 10,000	2	1.5
Ksh 10,000 -Ksh 20,000	47	35.6
Ksh 20,001-Ksh 30,000	10	7.6
Ksh 30,000 and above	72	54.5
Missing System	1	.8
Total	132	100.0

In terms of the respondents' monthly income out of the 132 respondents who participated in the study, 2 (1.5%) earned below Kshs. 10,000 as their monthly income, 47 (35.6%) earn between Kshs. 10,000 – Kshs. 20,000 as their income while 72 (54.5%) earn Kshs. 30,000 and above as their monthly income. 1 (0.8%) did not respond to that particular question. From the above results, the least proportion received below Kshs.10, 000 and the largest proportion

received above Kshs. 30,000. This meant that respondents who earn Kshs.30, 000 and above were more likely to participate in trade union leadership may be due to the fact that they are able to cater for their expenses.

4.4.1 Influence of age on women participation in trade unions

Age was one of the major variables in the study so as to be able to establish if age influenced the participation of in trade union leadership. Table 4.6 shows the frequency of respondents in terms of their responses regarding age influencing the participation of women participation in trade union leadership. It shows that half of the respondents who participated in the study agreed that age influenced women participation in trade union leadership and half of the respondents who participated in the study did not agree.

Table 4.6: Distribution of response on age and Leadership

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	66	50.0
No	66	50.0
Total	132	100.0

As to whether age influences women participation, out of the 132 respondents who participated in the study, 66 (50%) agreed that age influences women participation in trade union leaders. At the same time, similar number of 66 (50%) did not agree that age influences women participation in trade union leadership. From the results above, it cannot be exclusively concluded that the age is a determinant factor influencing women participation in trade unions leaderships.

From the findings of the focus group discussion it was clear that age did not influence women participation in trade union leadership because respondents indicated that participation in leadership depended on how vocal someone is to represent the workers and the ability to express themselves better regardless of age.

4.4.2 Young women and better leadership

It was necessary for the researcher to also investigate young women and their capabilities of being better leaders. The importance of this study was to inform the researcher on the abilities

and performance of young women in leadership positions. Table 4.7 shows the women leaders' views of young women as better leaders

Table 4.7: Distribution of response on Young Women and Leadership

Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	85	64.4
No	43	32.6
Total	128	97.0
System	4	3.0
Total	132	100.0

When asked as to whether young women of age 50 and below offered better leadership, of the 132 respondents, 85 (64.4%) viewed young women as better leaders whereas 43 (32.6%) viewed young not better leaders and 4(3.0%) did not respond to that particular question. From these results least proportion indicated that young women were not better leaders whereas the largest proportion agreed that young women were better leaders. It therefore, according to the above results be stated that young women offer better leadership in trade unions.

4.4.3 Women participation in trade union leadership

The research further sought to established respondents' views on women participation in trade union leaderships. Table 4.8 shows the analyzed ratings.

Table 4.8: Distribution of response on extent of Women Participation in Trade Unions Leaderships

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Good	19	14.4
Better	24	18.2
Average	35	26.5
Excellent	24	18.2
Fair	30	22.7
Total	132	100.0

In regard to women participation in trade union leadership of the 132 respondents, 19 (14.4%) indicated that women were good leaders, 24 (18.2%) said that they were better leaders, 35

(26.5%) responded that they were average leaders, 24 (18.2%) lamented them as excellent leaders while 30 (22.7) said were fair leaders.

From the above results, least proportion (14.4%) indicated that women were good leaders whereas the largest proportion (26.5%) indicated that women were average leaders. The results therefore indicate that women are equally capable leaders.

4.4.4 Older women and stable leadership in trade unions

To as whether old women offered stable leadership in trade unions, the respondents were asked to indicate their response by a yes or no to the question. Table 4.9 shows how the respondents viewed old women on stable leadership.

Table 4.9: Distribution of response on Older Women and stable Leadership

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	86	65.2
No	42	31.8
3	3	2.3
Total	131	99.2
System	1	.8
Total	132	100.0

On the stability of older women, 86 (65.2%) out of the 132 respondents who took part in the study indicated that older women offer stable leadership, 42 (31.8%) indicated that older women did not offer stable leadership and 1 (0.8%) did not respond to that particular question. From the above results the least proportion pointed out that older women did not offer stable leadership whereas the largest proportion agreed that older women offered stable leadership. From these results, it means that old women defined by the researcher to be of age 51 years and above provide stable leadership in trade unions compared to their younger counterparts having less than 51 years.

4.4.5 The extent to which older women offer stable leadership participation

Establishing the extent of leadership stability old women of age 51 provided in trade union was key. Respondents were therefore asked to indicate whether the extent was limited, moderate, large, or very large. Table 4.10 contain the analyzed results

Table 4.10: Distribution of response on older women and extent stable leadership

Response	Frequency	Percent
Limited extent	21	15.9
To a moderate extent	44	33.3
To a large extent	40	30.3
To a very large extent	18	13.6
Neutral	9	6.8
Total	132	100.0

Results obtained indicate that out of the 132 respondents who participated in the study, 21(15.9%) indicated that older women offered stable leadership participation to a limited extent, 44 (33.3%) to a moderate extent, 40 (30.3%) to a large extent, 18 (13.6%) to a very large extent and 9 (6.8%) neutral. From the above results the least proportion (6.8%) indicated as neutral whereas the largest proportion (33.3%) indicated that it was to a moderate extent.

It can therefore be concluded based on the above results that although older women of age 51 years and above provide stable leadership in trade unions, this is only to a limited extent.

4.5.1 The influence of marital status and women participation in trade union leadership

Marital status is a demographic factor likely to have an influence on women participation in leadership. It was therefore necessary for the study to investigate whether marital status had any influence in the participation of women in trade union leadership. Table 4.11 shows the influence of marital status on women participation in trade union leadership.

Table 4.11: Marital status influence on Women Participation in Trade unions Leadership?

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	87	65.9
No	41	31.1
Total	128	97.0
System	4	3.0
Total	132	100.0

As to whether marital status influenced women leadership in trade unions, 87(65.9%) of the respondents were in agreement whereas 41 (31.1%) of the respondents were of the view that marital status did not in any way influence women participation in trade union leadership. However, 4(3.0%) of them did not indicate their responses. These findings reveal that majority of the respondents were in agreement that marital status played a key role in influencing women participation in trade union leadership.

4.5.2 The extent to which marital status influences women participation in trade union leadership

In addition to marital status being identified to as having an influence on women participation in trade union leadership and to establish its extent. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent measured in Likert scale of 5 – represents to a very large extent, 4 – to a large extent, 3 – to a moderate extent, 2 – to a limited extent and 1 - neutral. Table 4.12 shows the extent to which marital status influence women participation in trade union leadership

Table 4.12: Distribution of response on extent of marital status and Women Participation trade unions Leadership?

Response	Frequency	Percent
Limited extent	20	15.2
To a Moderate extent	26	19.7
To a large extent	57	43.2
to a very large extent	9	6.8
Neutral	20	15.2
Total	132	100.0

Results obtained indicate that out of the 132 respondents who participated in the study, 20 (15.2%) indicated that marital status influenced women participation in trade union to a limited extent, 26 (19.7%) to a moderate extent, 57 (43.2%) to a larger extent, 9 (6.8%) to a very large extent and 20 (15.2%) neutral. From the above results the least proportion of 6.8% thought marital status influences women participation in trade union leadership to a very large extent whereas the majority (43.2%) indicated marital status influenced women participation in trade unions to a large extent. Marital status therefore, in relation to the acquired results can be said to influence women participation in trade unions to a large extent.

4.5.3 Single women and better leadership in trade unions

In an attempt to seeking the relationship between single women and better leadership in trade unions, the researcher sought from the respondents by asking them whether they thought single women offered better leadership.

Table 4.13 shows how the respondents view single women in terms of better leadership in trade unions.

Table 4.13 Distribution of response on single women and better leadership

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	50	37.9
No	78	59.1
3	2	1.5
Total	130	98.5
Missing System	2	1.5
Total	132	100.0

When asked whether single women offered better leadership, 50 (37.9%) out of the 132 respondents who took part in the study pointed out that single women offered better leadership, 78 (59.1%) disagreed that single women offered better leadership, 2 (1.5%) did not respond to that particular question. From the above results the least proportion did agreed that single ladies offer better leadership whereas the largest proportion agreed that they offered better leadership. These results shows that single women don't offer better leadership in trade unions as compared to married women.

4.5.4 Rating of single women participation in trade union leadership

For single women participation in trade union leadership, the research needed to find out their extent. This was achieved by asking the respondents to rate them as fair, good, better, average and excellent.

Table 4.14 shows how the respondents rated single women of their participation in leadership in trade unions.

Table 4.14: Distribution of response on single women and leadership participation in Trade Unions

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Good	30	22.7
Better	32	24.2
Average	40	30.3
Excellent	14	10.6
Fair	16	12.1
Total	132	100.0

In regard to the participation of single women in trade union leadership, 30 (22.7) out of the 132 respondents who participated in the study rated single women as good in terms of leadership participation in trade union, 32 (24.2%) rated as better, 40 (30.3%) rated as average, 14 (10.6%) rated as excellent and 16 (12.1%) rated them as fair. Base on the results above, it can be concluded that single women participate in trade unions leadership averagely.

4.5.5 Rating of divorced women leaders and participation in trade union leadership

It was of interest to the researcher as well to find out the extent to which divorced women engaged in trade union leadership. Table 4.15 shows how the respondents rated the participation of women leaders in trade unions

Table 4.15 Distribution of response on participation of divorced women leaders in Trade unions in Nairobi

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Good	31	23.5
Better	22	16.7
Average	41	31.1
Excellent	20	15.2
Fair	17	12.9
Total	131	99.2
Missing System	1	0.8
Total	132	100.0

Results obtained indicate that 31 (23.5) out of the respondents 132 respondents who took part in the study rated divorced women leaders as good in terms of participation in trade union, 22 (16.7%) said they were better, 41 (31.1%) pointed as average, 20 (15.2%) excellent, 17 (12.9%) fair and 1 (0.8)% did not respond to this particular question. Based on the above results, divorced women participated in trade union leadership to an average extent.

4.5.6 Rating of married women and participation in trade union leadership

The study similarly sought to find out the extent to which married women engage themselves in trade union leadership. The respondents were asked to rate them as fair, good, better, average or excellent.

Table 4.16 shows how the respondents rated the participation of married women leaders in trade unions

Table 4.16: Distribution of response on the extent of participation of married women leaders in trade unions

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Good	29	22.0
Better	34	25.8
Average	47	35.6
Excellent	4	3.0
Fair	18	13.6
Total	132	100.0

When asked on the rating of married women in trade union leadership, out of the respondents 29 (22.0%) rated the participation of women leaders being good, 34 (25.8%) better, 47 (35.6%) average, 4 (3.0) excellent and 18 (13.6%) fair. From the above results the least proportion rated married women leaders in trade union leadership as excellent whereas the majority (35.6%) rated them as average. The results are similar for single, divorced and married women indicating that participation is the same for women in the three category statuses.

When asked if marital status influenced women participation in trade union leadership, the respondents unanimously agreed that married women comprised the greatest percentage of women leaders which meant that they did not experience a lot of challenges unlike the single, divorced and widows.

4.6.1 Level of education and women participation in trade union leadership

Level of education was another variable identified by the researcher as having an influence on women participation in trade union leadership. This parameter will help in determining if educated women are more active in union leadership than those who don't have education. The respondents were asked to respond with a yes or no and the results are as in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17 Distribution of response on level of Education and Women participation in Trade unions leadership

Responses	Frequency	Percent
yes	76	57.6
No	53	40.2
System	3	2.3
Total	132	100.0

Results obtained indicate that out the respondents 76 (57.6%) agreed that the level of education influences women participation in trade union leadership, 53 (40.2%) disagreed that education did not influence while 3 (2.3%) did not attempt that particular question. Based on the above results, it is apparent that education level has an influence on women participation in Trade unions leaderships.

4.6.2 Extent to which the level of education influences women participation in trade union leadership

Education being an important variable in women participation in trade unions leadership, it was vital that the researcher further establish its extent of influence. Table 4.18 shows the extent to which the level of education influences the participation of women leaders in trade unions.

Table 4.18: Distribution of response on the extent Education level influences women in Participation in Trade Unions leadership

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Limited extent	10	7.6
To a moderate extent	9	6.8
to a large extent	46	34.8
to a very large extent	44	33.3
Neutral	23	17.4
Total	132	100.0

When asked the extent to which the level of education influence women participation in trade union leadership, 10 (7.6%) out of the 132 respondents indicated that the level of education influenced women participation in trade union leadership to a limited extent, 9 (6.8%) said its to a moderate extent, 46 (34.8%) to a larger extent, 44 (33.3%) to a very large extent and 23 (17.4%) neutral. From the above results it can be pointed out that education level influences women participation in trade union leadership to a large extent based on the response of the majority.

4.6.3 University graduates and better participation in leadership

In order to establish the relationship between women university graduates and participation in trade union leadership, the respondents' answers were sought on whether university graduates were better leaders or not. Their results analysed and presented in table 4.19.

Table 4.19 Distribution of response on whether University graduates were the best leaders in terms of participation in Trade unions

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	82	62.1
No	50	37.9
Total	132	100.0

As to whether university graduate being best leaders, 82 (62.1%) out of the 132 respondents agreed that university graduates are the better leaders in terms of women participation in trade union leadership and 50 (37.9%) disagreed. From the results, it is clear that university graduates offer better leadership compared to those having lower education.

4.6.4 Extent of better performance of graduate and women participation in trade union leadership

Finding out the extent to which graduate women offered better leadership in trade unions was also critical to the researcher. The analysis of the ratings is presented in table 4.20.

Table 4.20 Distribution of response on the Extent to which women Graduates are better performers in trade union leadership

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Limited extent	14	10.6
To a Moderate extent	37	28.0
To a Large extent	42	31.8
To a very Large extent	24	18.2
Neutral	15	11.4
Total	132	100.0

Results obtained indicate that 14 (10.6%) out of the 132 respondents indicated that graduates were better performers to a limited extent, 37 (28.0%) to a moderate extent, 42 (31.8%) to a large extent, 24 (18.2%) to a very large extent and 15 (11.4%) neutral. From the above results, graduate women are better performers to a large extent as far as leadership in trade unions is concerned.

From the focused group discussions, the researcher found that the level of education was a crucial factor because most of the women were not highly educated compared to their male counterparts and that was a reflection of few women being in leadership positions. One of the respondents indicated that at times when they are given assignments for example writing proposals to the donors they always delegated to a members of staff of any other person who would perform the task. When asked the reasons as to why women are elected to leadership despite having low level of education, the respondents indicated that the leadership positions were elective and elections were democratic so one had to go round campaigning and a person did not have to undergo a particular training. Further they indicated that women leaders were not aggressive at the same time they listened to their male counterparts before making any move making them not to stand on their own yet for one to be a leaders one is expected to be firm on decision he or she makes.

4.7. Level of income and women participation in trade union leadership

Study of this variable was important since it establishes whether a relationship exists between the level of income and women participation in trade union leadership as well as the extent of the influence. Table 4.21 shows the influence of the level of income and women leadership in trade unions.

Table 4.21 Distribution of response on influence of Level of income on Women Participation Trade Unions Leadership

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	43	32.6
No	89	67.4
Total	132	100.0

Regarding the level of income influencing women participation in trade union leadership, 43 (32.6%) out of the 132 respondents who took part in the study agreed that the level of income influences women participation in trade union leadership and 89 (67.4%) disagreed on the same. It can therefore, be concluded based on these results that the level of income among women has no influence in their participation in trade union leadership.

4.7.2 Extent to which level of income influences women participation in trade union leadership

As to the extent of influence of income level on women participation in trade union leadership, the respondents were asked to rate as limited, moderate, large or very large. Table 4.22 contain the analyzed outcome.

Table 4.22: Distribution of responses on the extent to which level of income influences women participation in Trade Union Leadership

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Limited extent	39	29.5
Toa Moderate extent	31	23.5
To a Large extent	44	33.3
To a Very Large extent	18	13.6
Total	132	100.0

In terms of the extent to which the level of income influences women participation in trade union leadership, 39 (29.5%) out of the 132 respondents indicated that the level of income influences women participation in trade union leadership to a limited extent, 31 (23.5%) to a moderate extent, 44 (33.3%) to a large extent and 18 (13.6%) to a very large extent.

The results obtained above was confusing since it prior results indicated that level of income had no influence on women participation in trade union leadership, however when asked the extent of the influence, majority of the respondents (33.3%) pointed out that the influence was to a large extent. The researcher therefore could not make any meaningful conclusion from the two results.

From the findings of the focus group discussion, the level of income influenced women participation in trade union leadership to a large extent because confidence is instilled in the women leaders in the sense that they are presentable during meetings at the same time they are able to meet their expenses comfortable.

4.8.1 The influence of cultural tradition and women participation in trade union leadership

Culture and tradition was an important aspect for study so that the researcher establishes its influence on women participation in trade union leadership as well as the extent of the influence. The respondents were therefore asked whether they thought cultural traditional influence women participation in Trade Unions Leadership. The responses are indicated in table 4.23

Table 4.23 Distribution of response on influence of cultural traditions on women participation in Trade Unions Leadership

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	39	29.5
No	93	70.5
Total	132	100.0

As to whether cultural traditions influences women participation in trade union leadership, 39 (29.5%) out of the 132 respondents participating in the study agree that cultural traditions influences women participation in trade union leadership and 93 (70.3%) did not agree on the same. From the above results, it is obvious that majority of the respondents (70.5%) do not agree that culture and tradition has no influence on women participation in Trade Unions Leadership.

4.8.2 The extent to which cultural traditions influences women participation in trade union leadership

Cultural traditions have been known to influence participation of women in many spheres leadership positions and as such this study wanted to establish the extent to which culture and traditions may have influenced women participation in leadership of trade unions. Table 4.24 shows results obtained from respondents.

Table 4.24 Distribution of response on the extent to which cultural traditions influences women participation in trade Unions leadership

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Limited extent	104	78.8
To a very Large extent	14	10.6
Neutral	14	10.6
Total	132	100.0

In terms of the extent to which cultural traditions influencing women participation in trade union leadership, out of the respondents 104 (78.8%) indicated that cultural traditions influenced women participation in trade union leadership to a limited extent, 14 (10.6%) to a very large extent and 14 (10.6%) neutral. As from the above results the least proportions were to a very large extent and neutral that cultural traditions influences women participation in trade union leadership whereas the large proportion indicated to a limited extent.

4.8.3 The extent to which gender equality is being practiced to enhance women participation in trade union leadership

Gender equality strives to ensure that both gender gets equal access and opportunities in all aspects. It is with this that the study examined it so as to determine the extent to which it was being practiced and thus gauge if it influenced women participation in the leadership of the trade unions. Table 4.25 shows the extent to which gender equality is being practiced to enhance women participation in trade unions.

Table 4.25 Distribution of response on the extent gender equality is being practiced to enhance women participation in Leadership trade union

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Limited Extent	36	27.3
To a moderate extent	35	26.5
To a Large extent	61	46.2

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Limited Extent	36	27.3
To a moderate extent	35	26.5
To a Large extent	61	46.2
Total	132	100.0

Regarding the extent to which gender equality is being practiced to enhance women participation in trade union leadership, out of the 132 respondents 36 (27.3%) thought that gender equality was being practiced to enhance women participation in trade union leadership to a limited extent, 35 (26.5%) to a moderate extent and 61 (46.2%) to a large extent. As from the these results, least proportion indicated to a moderate extent whereas the large proportionate thought gender equality is being practiced to enhance women participation in trade union leadership to a large extent.

4.8.4 Government policy and gender mainstreaming implementation

This variable was relevant for the study as it enabled the researcher know if government policy on gender mainstreaming was being implemented and whether it had played a role in women participation in trade unions leadership. Table 4.26 shows if the government policy on gender mainstreaming is being implemented.

Table 4.26 Distribution of response on whether Government policy on gender mainstreaming was being implemented

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	75	56.8
No	57	43.2
Total	132	100.0

Results indicate that out of the respondents 75 (86.8%) indicated the government policy on gender mainstreaming was being implemented and 57 (43.2%) disagreed with that. From the above results it can be pointed out that a small number of respondents does not believe the government is implementing gender mainstreaming policy whereas the majority support the idea that government policy on gender mainstreaming was being implemented and hence improved women participation in leadership of trade unions.

4.8.5 Existence of specific roles by men and women leaders in trade unions

There was a need for the study to examine this variable so as to be able to know whether there were specific roles reserved for particular gender and whether this had any influence on determining the participation of women in the leadership of trade unions. Table 4.27 shows results obtained from respondents on whether or not there were specific roles for each gender.

Table 4.27 Distribution of response on existence of specific Roles for Men and Women Leaders in trade unions

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	41	31.1
No	91	68.9
Total	132	100.0

In terms of the existence of specific roles for men and women leaders in trade unions, out of the 132 respondents who took part in the study, 41 (31.1%) agreed that there were specific roles for men and women leaders in trade union and 31 (68.9%) did not agree on the same. Based on the above results, a small proportion agreed that there were specific role for women and men leaders in trade unions whereas the majority did not agree on the existence of specific roles for either gender and hence neither determined their participation.

4.8.6 Women participation in trade union meetings

This study variable was relevant to the study so as to be able to examine the frequency with which women attended various trade union meetings. This has a direct bearing in their participation since it provides a platform within which they can exercise their leadership and decision making skills. In order to determine this, the respondents were asked to state the frequency of attendance to meetings organized by trade unions, governing council, and NSSF boards and council meetings. Table 4.28 shows results obtained from respondents.

Table 4.28: Distribution of responses on the frequency of women attendance of trade union meetings

Response	Frequency	Percent
Always	15	11.4
Often	43	32.6
Sometimes	32	24.2
Rarely	33	25
Never	9	6.8
Total	132	100.0

Results from the 132 respondents who took part in the study indicated that 15(11.4%) said that they always attend meetings convened by trade unions and other affiliated stakeholders. majority of the respondents 43(32.6%) often attended the meetings, whereas 33(24.2%) responded that they sometimes attend. 33(25%) of the respondents rarely attended the meetings while 9(6.8%) who were the least had never attended. From the results, it can be revealed that although these women are leaders, close to a third (31.8%) of the respondents had rarely or never attended any of these meetings. However, more than half (56.8%) often or sometimes attend the meetings.

When asked about the cultural traditions and their perception on women participation in trade union leadership, the researcher found out that the respondents from the focused group discussions believed that women could participate effectively just like their male counterparts hence they were built a positive attitude towards women participation in trade union leadership by supported them.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This section presents the study's summary of findings, discussions, conclusions and recommendations based on the themes and sub thematic areas in line with study objectives . The summary of the analysis of each research indicator is featured and from the study analysis, associated recommendations and suggestions for further research were made.

5.2 Summary of findings

The studies sought investigate the socio-economic factors influencing women participation in trade union leadership the case of the central organization of trade unions in Nairobi County. The study engaged women in trade unions who hold leadership position and focus group discussion which comprised few men who hold position in trade unions. The socio-economic factors included; demographic characteristics, the level of education, level of income and cultural traditions.

In terms of demographic characteristics, the study investigated the age and found out that 47 (35.6%) were aged 18 – 30 years, whereas 35 (26.5%) were aged 31 – 40 years. 25 (18.9%) of the respondents were those with 41-50 age group. Those in the age group of 51-60 years represented 15 (11.4%) and 10 (7.6%) of the respondents were over 60 years of age. From the above results, the least number of the respondents were over 60 years of age hence they are already to retire from the leadership of trade unions whereas those of 18-30 years age group were the majority of the respondents meaning that many women are taking up leadership position in trade unions.

Regarding marital status, results obtained indicated that out of the total respondents 34 (25.8%) were single, 71 (53.8%) were married, 8 (6.1%) were separated, 12 (9.1%) were divorced and 7 (5.3%) were widowed, therefore from the above results the widowed represented the least proportion indicating that very few of them were leaders whereas the married represented the largest proportion out of the respondents showing that most of the married women participate in the trade union leadership and since the leadership position in trade unions are elective this means that they also involved themselves in campaign by selling their policies to the members so that they could be elected. At the same time since they are the largest number it means they

receive support from their husbands and relatives that is why they are able to vie for such positions.

On the level of education, results obtained indicated that out of the total respondents 16 (12.1%) had primary school as their highest level of education, 52 (39.4) had secondary school as their highest level of education, 38 (28.8%) had university as their highest level of education, 19 (14.4) had tertiary as their highest level of education and 7 (5.3%) did not indicate their highest level of education. From these results the primary level had the least proportion indicating that the literacy level is increasing in women whereas the secondary level had the largest proportion out of the respondents. Indicating that most of the respondents had attained secondary level of education.

Concerning the level of income, results obtained indicated that out of the respondents 2 (1.5%) received below Kshs. 10,000 as their monthly income, 47 (35.6%) received Kshs. 10,000 – Kshs. 20,000 as their income, 72 (54.5%) received Kshs. 30,000 and above as their monthly income and 1 (0.8%) did not respond to that particular question. The results above indicated that most of the women leaders receive a reasonable amount of income because they are able to cater for their needs which motivates them to vie for leadership positions and very few get little money as their monthly salary.

On age, the results obtained indicated that out of the respondents 66 (50%) agreed that age influences women participation in trade union leaders at the same time 66 (50%) did not agree that age influences women participation in trade union leadership. From the results above the number of responses were equal for yes and no meaning half of the respondents and agreed and half of the respondents disagreed on the influence of age on women participation in trade union leadership because some indicated that age was just a number and could not fail a woman in terms of leadership at the same others mentioned that it was a critical factor when it came to leadership.

In terms of the extent to which the level of education influences women participation in trade union leadership, results obtained indicated that out of the respondents 10 (7.6%) indicated that the level of education influenced women participation in trade union leadership to a limited extent, 9 (6.8%) to a moderate extent, 46 (34.8%) to a larger extent, 44 (33.3%) to a very large extent and 23 (17.4%) neutral. From the above results it can be pointed out that the least proportionate indicated to a moderate whereas the largest proportion indicated the level of education influenced women participation in trade union leadership to a large extent. Meaning

that a good number of women valued education and that it also played a key role in effective leadership participation in trade unions.

Regarding the extent to which the level of income influencing the participation of women in trade union leadership, results obtained indicated that out of the respondents 39 (29.5%) indicated to a limited extent the level of income influences women participation in trade union leadership, 31 (23.5%) to a moderate extent, 44 (33.3%) to a large extent and 18 (13.6%) to a very large extent. Based on the above results the least proportionate thought the level of income influences women participation in trade union leadership whereas the large proportion thought to a large extent. This shows clearly that they are motivated by the income they receive hence making them to participate in trade union leadership.

On the extent to which cultural tradition influences women participation in trade union leadership, results indicated that out of the respondents 104 (78.8%) indicated that cultural traditions influenced women participation in trade union leadership to a limited extent, 14 (10.6%) to a very large extent and 14 (10.6%) neutral. As from the above results the least proportions were to a very large extent and neutral that cultural traditions influences women participation in trade union leadership whereas the large proportion indicated to a limited extent.

It is clear that most women leaders in trade unions believe that cultural traditions have been overtaken by events hence it cannot deter them from participation in leadership.

5.3 Discussions

On demographic characteristics, the study investigated the age and found out that 47 (35.6%) were aged 18 – 30 years, whereas 35 (26.5%) were aged 31 – 40 years. 25 (18.9%) of the respondents were those with 41-50 age group. Those in the age group of 51-60 years represented 15 (11.4%) and 10 (7.6%) of the respondents were over 60 years of age. This findings are in line with an empirical study done in Finland by the Central Organisation of Finnish Trade Unions in (2000) that had 21 affiliated trade unions with a total membership of one million, women leaders in trade unions played a major role in effective representation in trade unions further, they negotiated a periodic incomes policy with employers. The union membership consisted of 46% women, with 25% of all members being under the age of 30 (Raymo, Warren, Sweeney and Hauser, 2010). Further, in Germany a study done by Heiner Dribbusch and Peter Birke on Trade Unions in Germany in May 2012, the biggest individual trade unions were metal workers union and the United Service Union which represent 70

percent of the members and the majority who are education and science workers union were women aged between 25 and 45 years.

In terms of marital status, results obtained indicated that out of the total respondents 34 (25.8%) were single, 71 (53.8%) were married, 8 (6.1%) were separated, 12 (9.1%) were divorced and 7 (5.3%) were widowed. This findings are in line with Allam and Harish (2012) in a study about the influence of socio-demographic factors on job burnout and satisfaction among Eritrean medical workers found that married employees as well as the younger group of employees showed significantly higher levels of job satisfaction and had no problem in participating in the leadership of trade unions than the unmarried and older group respectively. This, by deduction meant that both the married and the younger employees experienced less stress (Hey and Leathwood, 2009). Therefore, workers' levels of stress were affected by age and marital status (Allam and Harish, 2012).

Regarding the level of education, results obtained indicated that out of the total respondents 16 (12.1%) had primary school as their highest level of education, 52 (39.4) had secondary school as their highest level of education, 38 (28.8%) had university as their highest level of education, 19 (14.4) had tertiary as their highest level of education and 7 (5.3%) did not indicate their highest level of education. This finding negates the findings of (UNESCO, 2010) that indicates the number of women enrolled in tertiary institutions growing almost twice as fast as that of men since 1970 this is because the largest number of respondents had attained secondary level of education meaning the trade unions have a key role to play in ensuring the women leaders further their education.

Concerning the level of income, results obtained indicated that out of the respondents 2 (1.5%) received below Kshs. 10,000 as their monthly income, 47 (35.6%) received Kshs. 10,000 – Kshs. 20,000 as their income, 72 (54.5%) received Kshs. 30,000 and above as their monthly income and 1 (0.8%) did not respond to that particular question. This finding negates, a study in the United States and United Kingdom on wage differences in 1995 where the researcher found that individual differences in personality account for substantial differences in earnings, and that the way such characteristics affect earnings differs between the sexes (Orleck and Annelise, 1995). Its clear that the women leaders in trade unions earn a reasonable amount that enables them to take care of their day-today expenses.

On the extent to which cultural tradition influences women participation in trade union leadership, results indicated that out of the respondents 104 (78.8%) indicated that cultural traditions influenced women participation in trade union leadership to a limited extent, 14 (10.6%) to a very large extent and 14 (10.6%) neutral. These findings are in line with Musandu (2008) chronicle of Grace Onyango who did not believe in cultural tradition and her political career showed a woman who was bold, knew what she wanted, and had specific skills that appealed to men and women. It is clear that cultural traditions did not influence women participation in trade union leadership because women believed they had what it took to be leaders just like their male counterparts hence cultural beliefs and traditions were long gone.

5.4 Conclusions

The study focused on factors the demographic characteristics influencing women participation in trade union leadership. Findings revealed that women leaders with the age bracket of 18-30 were the majority whereas women with 60 and above years had less proportion clearly indicated that young women are interested in the leadership of trade unions. Further in could be concluded that married women were comfortable participating in leadership of trade unions because they received support from their spouses.

In this study, it can be concluded the level of education influences women participation in trade union leadership to a moderate extent and that is why most of the women leaders attained secondary level as their highest level of education and a small proportion had primary level as their highest level of education. This means that one did not necessary have to be a university graduate to be elected to leadership position.

From the findings of the study, it can be concluded the level of income influences the participation of women in trade union leadership to a large extent in the sense that the majority women leaders is trade unions earn a reasonable salary (Kshs. 30,000 and above) which enables them to take care of their expenses without any constraints.

From the findings, it can be concluded that cultural traditions influences women participation in trade union leadership to a limited extent because most of respondents believed cultural traditions had been overtaken by even hence women can take up leadership responsibilities just like their male counterparts.

5.5. Recommendations of the study

Women participation in trade union leadership is important because through their representation they will be able to articulate women issues in policy formulation and it is for this reason the researcher had to make recommendations.

5.5.1 Recommendation for policy makers

1. The central organization of trade unions should enhance the participation of women leadership in trade union, they should educate the women leaders for example those who have not got chances to go to tertiary institutions or universities on their own should be sponsored by the organization in order to bridge the gap between the secondary school leavers as their highest level of education and the university graduates.
2. COTU (K) should provide training in terms of capacity building in leadership skills so that they can equip themselves and be like their male counterparts. By doing that they will automatically be motivated to vie for leadership position because they will have the capacity to do so and in case of any challenges they will be able to handle them.
3. Women leaders should be assigned more roles and responsibilities so that they can have experience in matters that pertain leadership, by doing that they will have confidence in themselves which will eventually attract other women in the trade union movement.

5.5.2 Suggestions for further research

The focus of this study was to investigate socio-economic factors influencing women participation in trade union leadership. The research was based on four variables; demographic characteristics, level of education, level of income and cultural practices. The researcher would suggest that other variables be identified and researched on to establish their influence on women participation in trade union leadership.

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Appendix I: Letter of transmittal

TERRY DIANA OMULAMA

P.O. BOX 1160

NAIROBI

0729530786

Dear Sir/Madam,

**RE: SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS INFLUENCING WOMEN PARTICIPATION IN
TRADE UNION LEADERSHIP: CASE OF CENTRAL ORGANIZATION OF TRADE
UNIONS, NAIROBI COUNTY**

I am a student at the University of Nairobi (Reg No. L50/68021/11). I am undertaking a study that seeks to establish Socio-economic factors influencing women participation in trade union leadership: the case of Central Organization of Trade Unions in Nairobi County.

You have been selected to provide information on the various socio-economic factors influencing women participation in trade union leadership. This is a request for your participation in responding to the attached questionnaire. Please be assured that any personal information will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be purposely used for this study.

Yours faithfully,

Terry Diana Omulama.

Appendix II: Questionnaire for women leaders in Trade Unions in Nairobi

I. Demographic characteristic and women participation in Trade Union leadership (Tick where appropriate).

1. What is your age bracket?

18 – 30 years () 31 – 40 years () 41 – 50 years () 51 – 60 years () Over 60 years ()

2. What is your marital status? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Single () Married () Separated () Divorced () Widowed ()

3. What is your highest level of education? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Primary () Secondary () University () Tertiary () None ()

4. What is your religion? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Christian () Muslim () Traditional () None () Hinduism ()

5. What is your monthly level of income? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Below Kshs. 10,000 () Kshs. 10,000 – Kshs. 20,000 ()

Kshs. 20,001 – Kshs. 30,000 () Kshs. 30,000 and above ()

6. According to you, does age influence the women participation in Trade Unions leadership?

Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Yes () No ()

The following questions will be answered based on the likert scale of 1 - 5 below:

To a very large extent/Excellent	5
To a large extent/Good	4
To a moderate extent/Better	3
To a limited extent/Average	2
Neutral/Fair	1

7. To what is the extent does age influence women participation in Trade Unions leadership?

Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Limited extent To a moderate extent To a large extent

To a very large extent Neutral

8. According to you, are young women better leaders? Please tick one appropriate box

Yes No

9. How would you rate young women participation in Trade Unions leadership? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Good Better Average Excellent Fair

10. Do older women offer stable leadership participation? Please tick one appropriate box

(√)Yes () No ()

11. To what extent do older women offer stable leadership participation? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Limited extent To a moderate extent To a large extent To a very large extent
 Neutral

12. According to you, does marital status influence women participation in Trade Union leadership? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Yes () No ()

13. To what extent does marital status influence women participation in Trade Union leadership? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Limited extent To a moderate extent To a large extent To a very large extent
 Neutral

14) According to you, do single women offer better leadership participation? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Yes () No ()

15. How would you rate single women in terms of leadership participation in trade unions? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Good Better Average Excellent Fair

16. How would you rate the participation of divorced women leaders in trade unions in Nairobi? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Good Better Average Excellent Fair

17. How would you rate the participation of married women leaders in trade unions in Nairobi?

Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Good Better Average Excellent Fair

II. Level of Education and women participation in Trade Unions leadership

18 According to you, does level of education influence the women participation in Trade Union leadership? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Yes () No ()

The following questions will be answered based on the likert scale of 1 - 5 below:

To a very large extent/Excellent	5
To a large extent/Good	4
To a moderate extent/Better	3
To a limited extent/Average	2
Neutral/Fair	1

19. To what extent does the level of education women participation in Trade Union leadership? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Limited extent To a moderate extent To a large extent
 To a very large extent Neutral

20. Are university graduates the best women leaders in terms of participation in trade unions in Nairobi? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Yes () No ()

21. To what extent do you think the participation of women leaders in trade unions in Nairobi who are university graduates are good performers. Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Limited extent To a moderate extent To a large extent
 To a very large extent Neutral

22. Can women leaders in trade unions in Nairobi with low level of education participate in good leadership? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Yes () No ()

23. To what extent do you think women leaders in trade unions in Nairobi with low level of education offer good leadership? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

- Limited extent To a moderate extent To a large extent
 To a very large extent Neutral

III. level of Income and women participation in Trade Unions leadership

24. According to you, does level of income influence women participation in Trade Union leadership? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Yes () No ()

The following questions will be answered based on the likert scale of 1 - 5 below:

To a very large extent/Excellent	5
To a large extent/Good	4
To a moderate extent/Better	3
To a limited extent/Average	2
Neutral/Fair	1

25. To what extent do you think the level of income influences women participation in Trade Union leadership? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

- Limited extent To a moderate extent To a large extent To a very large extent
 Neutral

26. How do you rate the participation of women leaders in trade union who earn high level of income? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

- Poor Fair Good Excellent Average

27. How do you rate the participation of women leaders in trade union who earn average level of income? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

- Poor Fair Good Excellent Average

IV. Cultural traditions and women participation in Trade Unions leadership

28. Do you think cultural traditions influence women participation in Trade Unions leadership?

Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Yes () No ()

The following questions will be answered based on the likert scale of 1 - 5 below:

To a very large extent/Excellent	5
To a large extent/Good	4
To a moderate extent/Better	3
To a limited extent/Average	2
Neutral/Fair	1

29. To what extent do you think cultural traditions influences women participation in Trade Unions leadership? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Limited extent To a moderate extent To a large extent To a very large extent
 Neutral

30. Do you think cultural traditions can be eliminated?

Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Yes () No ()

31. To what extent do you think gender equality is being practiced to enhance women participation in leadership in trade unions? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Limited extent To a moderate extent To a large extent To a very large extent
 Neutral

32. Is the government policy on gender mainstreaming being implemented?

Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Yes () No ()

33. Are there specific roles for men and women leaders in trade unions? Please tick one appropriate box (√)

Yes () No ()

30 .How frequent do you attend meetings organized by trade unions and its affiliated stakeholders. Tick the appropriate box.

Always () Often () Sometimes () Rarely () Never ()

Appendix III Sampling Table, COTU (K) 2010 (List of women leaders in trade unions in Nairobi)

S/NO	NAME OF TRADE UNION	Target Population(n)	Sample Size (x)
1.	Amalgamated Union of Kenya Metal Workers	5	3
2.	Kenya Petroleum Oil Workers Union	7	5
3.	Bakery, Confectionery Manufacturing and Allied Workers Union	10	6
4.	Kenya Building, Construction, Timber, Furniture and Allied Trade Employees Union	5	3
5.	Kenya Chemical and Allied Workers Union	4	3
6.	Kenya Engineering Workers Union	3	2
7.	Kenya Game Hunting and Safari Workers Union	6	4
8.	Kenya Union of Domestic, Hotels, Educational Institution, Hospitals and Allied Workers	5	3
9.	Kenya Local Government Workers Union	6	4
10.	Kenya Quarry and Mines Workers Union	4	3
11.	Kenya Electrical Trades Allied Workers Union	7	5
12.	Kenya Shoe and Leather Workers Union	5	3
13.	Kenya Jockey, Betting Workers Union	5	3
14.	Union of National, Research Institutes Staff of Kenya	4	3
15.	Union of Kenya Civil Servants	6	4
16.	Kenya Union of Printing, Publishing,	7	5

	Paper Manufacturing and Allied Workers		
17.	Banking Insurance and Finance Union	8	5
18.	Communication Workers Union	5	3
19.	Railway Workers Union	4	3
20.	Tailors and Textile Workers Union	10	6
21.	Transport and Allied Workers Union	4	3
22.	Kenya Union of Entertainment and Music Industry Employees	7	5
23.	Kenya National Private Security Workers Union	5	3
24.	Kenya Hotels and Allied Workers Union	9	6
25.	Kenya Union of Commercial, Food and Allied Workers	7	5
26.	Kenya Aviation and Allied Workers Union	3	2
27.	Kenya Union of Journalists	10	6
28.	Kenya Long Distance Truck Drivers and Allied Workers Union	2	1
29.	Kenya National Union of Teachers	2	1
30.	Kenya Union of Post Primary Education Teachers	5	3
31.	National Nurses Association of Kenya	7	5
32.	Kenya Shipping, Clearing and Warehouses Workers Union	4	3
33.	Kenya Union of Sugar Plantation Workers	7	5
34.	Kenya Plantation and Agricultural Workers Union	9	6
35.	Dock Workers Union	8	5
36.	Seafarers Workers Union	5	3
	TOTAL	210	136

Appendix IV: Krejcie and Morgan Table, 1970

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	346
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	351
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	181	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	170	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	180	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	190	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	200	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	373
65	56	210	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	220	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377
75	63	230	144	550	225	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	240	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	250	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	260	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	256	2600	335	100000	384

Appendix V: Timeframe of the study

	2014		
TASK	APRIL	MAY	JUNE
Data collection	■		
Data analysis and Project writing		■	
Project defence			■