

**FACTORS INFLUENCING WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-
MAKING IN COMMUNITY-BASED WATER PROJECTS IN MACHAKOS
CENTRAL DIVISION, KENYA**

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**A Research Project Report Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Award of the Degree of Master of Arts in Project
Planning and Management in the school of continuing and Distance Studies,
University of Nairobi.**

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DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been presented for an academic award in any other University or institution of higher learning.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this research project to my parents for their sacrifice without which I would not have made it this far. I also dedicate it to my husband for the support he accorded me and to our children for their understanding when I had to be away on weekends studying.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

EOC- Equal Opportunities Commission

GEM- Girls Education Movement

APEP- Afghanistan Primary Education Program

USAID- United States Agency for International Development

COBET- Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania

FGM- Female Genital Mutilation

KReP- Kenya Rural Enterprise Program

KWFT- Kenya Women Finance Trust

KNBS- Kenya National Bureau of Statistics

KIHBS- Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey

SME- Small and Medium Enterprise

MOEST- Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.

GER- Gross Enrolment Rate

ASAL- Arid and Semi-Arid Lands

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HIV/AIDS- Human Immuno Deficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

UNICEF- United Nations International Children Emergency Fund

MDG- Millennium Development Goals

FAWE- Forum for African Women Educationists

DHS- Demographic and Health Survey.

NFE- Non Formal Education

MHRD- Ministry of Human Resource Development

IIPS- International Institute for Population Science

RGCC- Register General and Census Commission

UK- United Kingdom

GOK- Government of Kenya.

IRIN- Integrated Regional Information Network

NGO- Non-Governmental Organizations.

CEDAW - Convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

WMS- Welfare Monitoring Survey

ABSTRACT

The participation of women in decision-making positions in sub-Saharan Africa is still very low. This is despite their contribution in their households, food production systems and national economies. This can be attributed to various factors influencing the participation of women in decision-making such as demographic factors, educational factors, cultural factors, economic factors and women's natural abilities. This study sought to establish the influence of these factors on the participation of women in decision-making with the study area as Machakos central division in Machakos County. The research study used the descriptive study design, which employed both the qualitative and quantitative methods. The target population of the study was composed of two categories namely the committee members and the beneficiaries. The study employed simple random sampling technique to select the sample. Sample size was 50 selected from a target population of 128. Two sets of questionnaires were developed; one for the committee members and another for the and the other for the beneficiaries. The study concludes that demographic factors such as age, gender and marital status influence the participation of women in decision-making. School attendance by girls at primary school level is very good, but it decreases as they move up the academic ladder. This in turn means that they do not possess the skills necessary for them to participate in decision-making. Girls also marry at the tender age of between 16-25, a factor that affects their schooling. Property ownership by girls and women is very low and in most cases non-existent, they mostly own small scale enterprisers and have poor access to credit facilities. This means that they can therefore not access self-improving facilities due to poverty. Women possess natural abilities which can improve the quality of decisions they make. The study recommends that the government should look into the education of girls. Retrogressive Cultural practices should be done away with. Policies which encourage gender equity in education and property ownership should be adopted.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Traditionally community affairs and administration has been the domain of men (Hassan & Silong, 2007). This is evident from the gender imbalance of leaders and office bearers across community, local council and associations. Women have not been active in local politics and are relatively inactive in public processes due to constraints such as lack of interest, institutional, socio-economic, cultural, educational qualifications and discrimination. The disadvantages facing women and girls are a major source of inequality. All too often, women and girls are discriminated against in health, education and the labor market; with negative repercussions for their freedoms. The Gender Inequality Index shows that: Gender inequality varies tremendously across countries; the losses in achievement due to gender inequality range from 17 percent to 85 percent. Countries with unequal distribution of human development also experience high inequality between women and men, and countries with high gender inequality also experience unequal distribution of human development.

Among the countries doing very badly on both fronts are Central African Republic, Haiti and Mozambique. Social and economic indicators for developing countries consistently show that women bear the brunt of hardship in poor communities. Efforts to modernize discriminatory laws can be frustrated by the deep-rooted cultural barriers that so often run in parallel with poverty. Women are not only key agents for delivery of poverty reduction programmes but also find themselves in the front line of major global issues – food production, population growth and climate change. The pursuit of equal rights for women through international law has been a slow process. The principle that everyone is entitled to rights "without distinction of any kind, such as race, color, sex..." was given voice in Article 2 of the 1948 Universal declaration of Human Rights.

However, the Declaration was non-binding and it took over 30 years for the international community to create a robust legal framework against gender injustice. The Convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1979.

It spells out the areas in which women experience discrimination and commits countries to amend their laws, construct national gender policies and create institutions to deliver them. A more recent positive development for women's rights was the 2011 launch of the UN Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, to be known as UN Women. This new body merges the four UN agencies previously engaged in gender issues, elevating the seniority of input on women's issues within the UN decision-making process. The appointment of the respected former Chilean president, Michelle Bachelet, as the first Executive Director of UN Women has been widely welcomed. The movement for women's rights has grown as the counterweight to strong historical beliefs that women should occupy a domestic environment and that men should enjoy exclusive rights to property. The process of ending discrimination against women is relatively advanced in modern industrialized economies. In sub-Saharan Africa many countries are burdened with amending colonial-era laws which prevent women from owning land and property.

Transition to more equal rights is most problematic in Islamic states where elements of Sharia family law governing the behaviour of women remain in place. For example, in Saudi Arabia women are not permitted to drive cars. Beyond the debate about Islamic teachings, ineffective enforcement of national legislation has further restrained the global pace of reform, as has the failure of the US to ratify CEDAW. However, times are changing. There is now an acceptance that women can and do play a vital role in community affairs, particularly in contributing to achievement of community security, development and progress. Women have for long been the mainstay of communities and are heavily involved in community initiative in various forms. Though unsung heroes of community actions, women's role in development has become increasingly important. In some communities they have established themselves as leaders in community development and acquired skills that brought change to their communities. Women leaders play key roles in establishing and maintaining important relationships and networks in the communities. Though they are integral in decision-making in community-based projects, studies show that their participation remains low relative to their potential. Women are yet to tread the stranglehold of male dominance in decision-making in community projects.

In Kenya the 2030 vision for gender, youth and vulnerable groups is gender equity in power and resource distribution, improved livelihoods for all vulnerable groups, and responsible, globally competitive and prosperous youth. In addition, Kenya aims to increase the participation of women in all economic, social and political decision-making processes through higher representation in Parliament; improve access of all disadvantaged groups to business opportunities, health and education services, housing and justice; and minimize vulnerabilities through prohibition of retrogressive practices such as female genital mutilation and child labor.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Women all over the world have made efforts to organize and articulate their concerns as well as make their voices heard. However, women, especially in Africa, encounter many obstacles. The material conditions under which they live and work have continued to decline in many countries, due to economic and social decline, wars and conflict, and the spread of AIDS. Women in Africa constitute the majority of the poor and the illiterate. Half of the estimated 20 million cases of HIV in Africa are female because of their lack of power over their sexuality and reproductive functions (Manuh, 1998). Poverty has pushed some young women between the ages of 15 and 25 into sex work, and many new cases of HIV are being reported from this group. In 1992, HIV prevalence rates of 15 to 20 per cent were reported for female sex workers in Nigeria.

Women in general have fewer opportunities to earn income. Ongoing economic crises and the gulf between job creation and the growth in the numbers of jobseekers have worsened the employment situation for women and men alike. Women are predominant in the lower echelons of the social services sector, which face the heaviest budget cuts, leading to retrenchment of most of the women. Women face greater vulnerabilities in the labor market because of their relative lack of education and training, the tendency to channel women into certain occupations, and the continuous heavy burdens of unpaid domestic work, child-bearing and child-care, which restrict the time and energy available for income-earning activities. In many African countries, women do not have access to land. Land titles are registered in the name of a male headed household, regardless of the existence of female headed households. Women also face problems of access to credit facilities. Many credit associations limit membership to household heads in many African countries, thereby excluding most married and unmarried women.

Banks demand collateral in the form of landed property and male approval before making loans to women. Lack of access to formal education and training has been identified as a key barrier to women's employment and advancement in society. In Africa, female illiteracy rates were over 60 per cent in 1996, compared to 41 per cent for men. In many African countries, parents still prefer to take boys to school at the expense of girls. In addition, factors such as adolescent pregnancy, early marriage and girls' burden of household labor act as obstacles to their schooling. Most school curricula are not geared to helping girls acquire basic life skills. Religious and cultural factors lead to slow progress in improving the health of women in Africa. Women in many countries have no access to antenatal care.

This study therefore sought to investigate whether these factors influence the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

This study sought to identify the factors that influence participation of women in decision-making in community-based projects and suggested ways of improving participation of women in decision-making in these projects.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The overall objective of the study was to establish factors influencing participation of women in decision-making in community-based projects in Kenya. To achieve this, the following specific objectives were formulated.

1.4.1 Specific Objectives.

The study had five specific objectives as listed below:

- i. To examine the extent to which demographic factors lead to a lack of interest in participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division
- ii. To assess the extent to which educational factors influence the participation of women in decision-making committees that identify and allocate resources to water projects in Machakos central division.

- iii. To establish the extent to which culture influences participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division.
- iv. To establish the extent to which economic factors influence the participation of women in decision-making projects in Machakos central division..
- v. Analyze the extent to which women's natural abilities influence quality of decisions made by women in community-based water projects in Machakos central division.

1.5 Research Questions

In view of the problem statement, the study addressed the following research questions:

- i. To what extent do demographic factors influence the participation of women in decision-making in Water projects in Machakos central division?
- ii. To what extent do educational factors contribute to the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division?
- iii. 3. To what extent do cultural factors influence the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division?
- iv. To what extent are economic factors responsible for the low participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division?
- v. To what extent do women's natural abilities improve the quality of decisions made by women in water projects in Machakos central division?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The results of this study will be used to Sensitize women and the society in general on the importance of participation of women in decision-making in community-based projects, Highlight the constraints that women encounter in their quest to participate in decision-making in community-based projects, Make recommendations that will help to mitigate the constraints and form basis for further research. The recommendations of the study will assist in addressing the factors influencing the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division and the wider Machakos County. It will also serve as a source of knowledge since a copy of the report will be availed to the relevant ministry and stakeholders for implementation aimed at helping to improve the participation of women in decision-making in community-based projects.

1.7 Limitations of the study

Some drawbacks were encountered during the study. These include inadequate funds, time shortage, distance between the water projects and little or no co-operation from the target population. The lack of cooperation forced the researcher to self-administer the questionnaire. Illiteracy levels among the target population also slowed down the data collection process.

1.8 Delimitations of the Study

The study focused on water projects in Machakos central division which is found in Machakos County. It focused on the constraints women face in their quest to participate in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division as well as the strategies they adopt to overcome the constraints. In Machakos central division, there are about six community-based water projects. These are Kitanga water project in Kathome, Kwa Mukonzo water project which lies between Katelembo and Kithini, Kwa Mbunga which is located between Kwa Musyoka and Tumba, Mua water project in Makyau, Kimutw'a water project which is located in Kimutw'a and Kaseve water project located at Kwa Mbuu. All the other water projects in the division are run by the Ministry of water, CDF and NGOs.

1.9 Assumptions of the Study

The assumption of the study was that the sample chosen would represent the population and that the respondents would answer the questions correctly and truthfully. It was also assumed that the data collection instruments would have validity and that they would measure the desired constructs. Another assumption was that the target population would have a certain minimum level of literacy.

1.10 Definition of Significant terms

Community-based projects are those projects which are run by the persons benefiting from them.

Cultural factors refers to issues that affect people's way of life.

Decision-making is the act of influencing the way projects are run.

Demographic factors refers to issues such as age, marital status, gender, and level of education

Economic factors refer to those issues that contribute the living standards of a people.

Educational factors refers to training and skills

Factors influencing refers to those issues that affect something

Government Policy refers to the National action plan

Implementation of Projects is the act of performing; doing something successfully; using knowledge as distinguished from merely possessing it.

Natural abilities are inborn qualities, capabilities, potentials or characteristics.

Participation is the act of playing a role in a certain activity.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter involves the search for literature to find out what has been done about the participation of women in decision making positions. The literature review sought to see the ideas of others interested in the study on women in decision-making as well as providing results of other similar or related studies. It specifically tried to find out what has been studied under women and culture, women and educational qualification, women and socio-economic factors as well as women's natural abilities. It also brought out the theoretical framework within which the study is done. There are three main sources of literature review which were explored: general references, primary sources as well as secondary sources.

The chapter begins by discussing the participation of women in decision-making. This is followed by a theoretical framework within which the study is based. Under theoretical framework, feminist theory, motivational theory and Porter's five forces theory are studied in relation to participation of women in decision-making. Contemporary feminism, Marxist feminism, Radical feminism, Socialist feminism, postmodern feminism and Multicultural/Global feminism are covered under Feminist theory. Under motivational theory, needs theory, cognitive dissonance theory, Goal setting theory, incentive theory, and Herzberg's theory of motivators and hygiene factors were covered. Supplier power, Buyer power, Competitive rivalry, Threat of substitutes and Threat of new entry were covered under Porter's five forces theory.

After the theoretical framework, the factors affecting the participation of women in decision making is covered. Women and Educational factors, Women and culture, Women and Socio-economic factors, Women's natural abilities and Government policy were covered. Under women and Education, policy development towards gender parity, Representation of girls at all levels of Education and Drop-out rates for girls are covered. Marriage and dowry, discrimination, Health and sanitation as well as property ownership were covered under Women and Culture. Under Women and Socio-economic factors, poverty, Access to credit facilities, Health and Sanitation as well as property ownership were studied.

Concern for people, Interpersonal skills, intuitive management and creative problem solving were covered under Women's natural abilities. Under Government policy, Equity in education and Credit facilities for women are covered.

The interrelationship between variables comes after factors affecting the participation of women in decision-making. The conclusion and Summary of gaps closes the chapter.

2.2 Women and participation in decision-making

Representation of both men and women in decision making processes is critical for effective implementation of policies that affect the general population. This includes participation in Government organs, civic positions and senior Government positions, among others.

As far as women's share of managerial positions is concerned, the rate of progress is slow and uneven. Men are in the majority among managers, top executives, and higher levels of professional workers whilst women are still concentrated in the lower categories of managerial positions.

Both visible and invisible rules have been constructed around the "male" norm, which women sometimes find difficult to accommodate: male and female colleagues and customers do not automatically see women as equal with men, women tend to have to work much harder than men to prove themselves, and sometimes they have to adapt to "male" working styles and attitudes more than necessary. Furthermore, women tend to be excluded from the informal networks dominated by men at the workplace, which are vital for career development. The problem is compounded by employers' assumption that women, unlike men, are not able to devote their full time and energy to paid work because of their family responsibilities.

Consequently, women are not given as many opportunities as men to do the more demanding responsible jobs, which would advance their careers. However, there is evidence to show that once women attain the upper levels of management, attitudes towards them are not much different to those towards men (ILO, 2003).

Women are under-represented in high offices of state and positions of decision-making in government, the military, central banks, finance and planning ministries and African regional organizations. Average female representation in parliaments is less than 8 per cent in Africa, and many of the women are nominated, not elected. UNDP's *Human Development Report* (1995) recommends 30 per cent minimum of women be elected members in parliament or in ministerial positions.

As of October 2003, the global average for women representatives in national parliaments stood at 15.2 per cent, with 15.5 per cent in the single or lower house and 13.9 per cent in the upper house or senate compared with 13 per cent, 13.4 per cent and 10.9 per cent respectively in 1999. Scandinavian countries still lead the world with the highest share of women holding lower house parliamentary seats. In Sweden, women held 45 per cent, in Denmark 38 per cent, in Finland 37 per cent, and in Norway 36 per cent. Rwanda achieved near parity in gender balance in lower parliamentary seats after the election of September 2003, when women's share stood at 48.8 per cent. Women cabinet members are found all over the world. As of November 2003, there were a total of ten women presidents and prime ministers. Women ministers still tend to hold non-strategic cabinet posts such as health, education, labour, social affairs, and women's affairs. More women have been appointed to cabinet posts in the last couple of years in areas that have long been considered male domains, such as foreign affairs, finance, and defense and security. As of November 2003, there were 20 women ministers in foreign affairs, nine in defense and security, and 19 in finance (Worldwide Guide to Women in Leadership, 2003).

A negligible proportion of women are represented in senior and middle level policy formulation and implementation processes despite the substantial number of women in the Profile of Women's Social-Economic Status in Kenya (Institute of Economic Affairs, 2008). A comparison between 2003 and 2006 indicate that the number of female Ministers declined from 3 to 2 against a total of 32; even if the number of women Assistant Ministers increased from 4 to 6, still it is a mere 13% compared to male representation. In other public service representations such as the level of provincial administrations, women were not represented at all by January, 2006 while at the District Commissioners administrative unit, the number of women actually reduced from 3 in 2003 to 2 in 2006 representing a mere 2.8%.

However, despite the fact that females constitute 51% of the population, they constituted 8% of Members in National Assembly during the 9th parliament; 6% of Ministers; 13% of Assistant Ministers; 3% of District Commissioners; 20% of District Officers; 13% of Councilors and 21% of Deputy Secretaries. In 2006, there was no female judge in the Court of Appeal, which is the highest court in Kenya. About 20% of High Court Judges are women while the highest representation of women (44%) is among Resident Magistrates. In total women represent 37% of the judicial service establishments. In 2007, one Lady Justice was appointed to the Court of Appeal.

Except for Chief Justice, Judges of Appeal, High Court Judges and Chief Kadhi, female establishments is above 30%. This is encouraging and can be attributed to the fact that law courses are in the arts category and tend to attract more women. However there is need to consider more women representation in the senior positions.

2.3 Theoretical Review

A theory is defined as a reasoned statements or groups of statements, which are supported by evidence, meant to explain phenomena. Eisenhart (1991) described a theoretical framework as a structure that guides research by relying on a formal theory. It is constructed using an established, coherent explanation of certain phenomena and relationships.

In this study, the motivational theories, porter's five forces model as well as the feminism theory were discussed.

2.3.1 Feminism theory

Feminism is defined as a belief in the social, political and economic equality of the sexes. It can also be defined as the movement organized around this belief. It is a movement that mobilizes for women's emancipation and equality with regards to gender. Hence, feminism encompasses many varied activities and contexts (Korany, J. A. Sterba, J.P. & Tang, R. 1993). The goals of feminism are: to demonstrate the importance of women, to reveal that historically women have been subordinate to men and to bring out gender equity.

It is therefore a fight for equality of women and argues that women should share equally in society's opportunities and scarce resources. The first Women's Rights Convention held in Seneca Falls, New York in 1848, focused on the social, civil and religious condition of women. It marked the beginning of a 22 year battle to gain women the right to vote in the United States. In 1920 women won the right to vote. Within the broader feminism theory, there are a number of theories. These are: contemporary feminism, Liberal feminism, Marxist feminism, radical feminism, social feminism, postmodern feminism and multicultural/global feminism (Lord et al, not dated).

The contemporary feminism movement which began in the 1960s. For many years, 'free love' helped women to escape the sexual double standard they experienced in their marriages. Divorce became commonplace because women were not 'happy housewives' anymore. Higher level employment and fulfillment outside the home became the norm. The following are they branches of contemporary feminism (Mackie, 1994)

Liberal feminists argue that all people are created equal and should not be denied equality of opportunity because of gender. They focus their efforts on social change through construction of legislation and regulation of employment practices. According to them, inequality stems from the denial of equal rights and that the primary obstacle to equality is sexism. They view discrimination placed on women as a group as unjust because it deprives women of equal opportunities for pursuing their own self-interest. Liberal feminists do not regard the oppression of women as a structural feature of the capitalist economic system, and do not advocate overthrowing that system. Instead they look to the state to bring about women's liberation through legislative measures.

They are concerned about rectifying the informal discrimination against women that grows out of the differential socialization of females and males. It has played a role in bringing about significant reforms in the workplace (i e equal pay for equal value, maternity leave etc), and in the family (matrimonial property rights), they press for more day care places, more services for abused women, pension rights and human rights legislation, and they argue for changes to the education system. They see education as a means to change.

They expect the state to bring about women's liberation through legislative measures. Members comprise of professional and middle class women. It is the "accepted voice of feminism" as it has increased public awareness and acceptance of feminist aspirations for change

Radical feminists argue that male power and privilege is the basis of social relations. They argue that sexism is the ultimate tool used by men to keep women oppressed. According to them, women oppression is the most widespread and deepest. It causes the most suffering. Women's oppression provides a conceptual model of understanding all other forms of oppression. It advocates for creation of women only institutions. At their extreme, they call for severing relationships with men (ending heterosexual relationships with men). Violence against women (VAW) - rape, sexual harassment, incest, pornography and domestic violence- are focus issues.

Socialist feminists view women's oppression as stemming from their economic dependence on men. They argue that women's inferior position is the result of class-based capitalism and family structure within this system. Socialists believe that history can be made in the private sphere (home), not just in the public sphere (work.). They advocate for an increased emphasis on the private sphere and the role of women in the household, as well as equal opportunities for women in the public sphere. They seek to integrate the issues of gender and class.

Marxist feminism advocates that division of labor is related to gender role expectations. For example, females give birth and males are left to support family. Division of labor is related to gender role expectations. Marxist feminist theorists believe that an individual is labeled at birth as a member of a sex category, either male or female, and from that point on, is held to acting accordingly. Gender is not something that one has or something that one is; rather, it is something that one does (Lord et al, not dated).

Postmodern feminists hold the view that all women are different. They believe that one can never generalize. They therefore argue that a feminist theory is not possible. Postmodern feminism attempts to criticize the dominant order. They believe that all theory is socially constructed and reject claims that only rational, abstract thought and scientific methodology can lead to valid knowledge. Looking to the past no longer applies since we are in a global economic world highlighted by technology (Butler, 1990).

Multi-cultural/Global feminism advocates for the recognition of all other differences, not just gender, class, ethnicity, sexuality, able-bodiedness and age. They hold the view that there is an intersection of gender with race, class and issues of colonization and exploitation in the developing world (Lord et al, not dated).

It can therefore be concluded that feminism is a social movement and ideology in support of the idea that a larger share of scarce resources should be allocated to women. Feminists believe that women should enjoy the same rights as men and, that they should share equitably in society's opportunities. They attempt to give a voice to women and the female perspective.

2.3.2 Motivational theories

Motivation is defined, as the process used to allocate energy to maximize the satisfaction of needs (Pritchard & Ashwood, 2008). There are two types of motivation: intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation arises when an individual decides to do something. It causes satisfaction. For example, Students who are intrinsically motivated are more likely to engage in the task willingly as well as work to improve their skills, which will increase their capabilities (Wigfield et al, 2004). Extrinsic motivation arises when an individual receives some form of reward as a result of doing something. The theories discussed here are needs theory, cognitive dissonance theory, goal setting theory, incentive theory and Herzberg theory.

2.3.2.1 Needs theory

This theory was put forward by Abraham Maslow in 1943 in his paper; *A theory of motivation*. He came up with Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Human basic needs are physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualization needs (Maslow, 1954). Physiological needs refer to that which we need to physically survive. These include water, food, clothing and shelter. Safety needs are those needs which come after the physiological needs have been satisfied. These include physical safety, security needs and economic safety. In the absence of physical safety due to war, natural disaster, family violence, childhood abuse etc, people experience post-traumatic disorder and trans-generational trauma transfer.

In the absence of economic safety due to economic crisis and lack of job opportunities. These manifest themselves in such things preference for job security, grievance procedures for protecting the individual from unilateral authority, savings accounts, insurance policies as well as reasonable disability accommodation safety. Security needs include personal security, financial security, health and wellbeing as well as safety net against accidents/illness and their adverse effects.

Social needs are those needs that give us a sense of belonging and acceptance. This security can come from a large social group such as the clubs, office culture, religious groups, professional partners, mentors, close colleagues and confidants. Esteem needs entail the desire to be valued and respected by others in order to maintain self esteem. Self esteem is achieved according to our sense of achievement and confidence. Maslow noted two versions of esteem needs; a lower one and a higher one. The lower one is the need for the respect of others, the need for status, recognition, fame, prestige and attention.

The higher one is the need for self-respect, the need for strength, competence, mastery, self confidence, independence and freedom. Deprivation of these can lead to an inferiority complex, weakness and helplessness. Self-actualization is the desire to reach one's potential in maximum of potential in all that they do. It is the highest in the hierarchy of needs.

2.3.2.2 Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Cognitive dissonance is the mental conflict that people experience when they are presented with evidence that their beliefs or assumptions are wrong (Montier, 2002). This is a theory of human motivation that asserts that it is psychologically uncomfortable to hold contradictory cognitions. The theory is that dissonance, being unpleasant, motivates a person to change his cognition, attitude, or behavior (The Skeptic's Dictionary, 2005). It is founded on principles of Gestalt psychology. It arises from the need to reconcile two conflicting cognitions at the creative subconscious level. The need to avoid cognitive dissonance may bias one towards a certain decision even though other factors favour an alternative (Spencer et al, 2006).

Individual's levels of cognitive dissonance can vary, but in the workplace staff who are sensitive to cognitive dissonance issues will persist in seeing tasks through to completion and to the best of your ability. They will also often make the best problem solvers. Cognitive dissonance is a good example of intrinsic motivation where the person concerned constantly to improve themselves.

2.3.2.3 Goal setting theory and motivation.

This was put forward by Edwin Locke. It involves breaking down a large task into smaller components. Goals have a pervasive influence on employee behavior and performance in organizations and management practice (Locke & Latham, 2002). As each goal is attained the owner of the goals has feelings of empowerment in achieving something, driving them on to successfully complete the next goal or objective. The goals should be SMART (Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic and Time bound). This level motivation is needed, as some people, when given a task to do, will try and find ways of not doing any work (creative avoidance). On the other hand, without making the goals SMART someone might seek perfection to such degree that they seemingly cannot finish.

2.3.2.4 The incentive theory of motivation.

It was put forward by B. F. Skinner. His theory of operant conditioning was based on the work of Thorndike (1905). Edward Thorndike studied learning in animals using a puzzle box to propose the theory known as the '*Law of Effect*' (McLeod, 2007). Skinner (1948) studied operant conditioning by conducting experiments using animals which he placed in a "*Skinner Box*" which was similar to Thorndike's puzzle box.

From the experiments it can be concluded that, no matter what level of salary, some people are on, they always seek or even expect further reward for their work. It is of the view that some people can be motivated to work by both tangible and intangible rewards. In both cases, the incentive instills in the person receiving it the desire to repeat the behavior that resulted in the reward. This is to say that people who enjoy a challenge are highly self-motivated.

2.3.2.5 Herzberg's theory of motivators and hygiene factors.

The Two-factor theory, also known as Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and Dual-Factor Theory, states that there are certain factors in the workplace that cause job satisfaction, while a separate set of factors cause dissatisfaction. It was developed by Frederick Herzberg, a psychologist, who theorized that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction act independently of each other (Herzberg et al, 1959). Two-factor theory distinguishes between Motivators (e.g. challenging work, recognition, responsibility) that give positive satisfaction, arising from intrinsic conditions of the job itself, such as recognition, achievement, or personal growth (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) and Hygiene factors (e.g. status, job security, salary, fringe benefits, work conditions) that do not give positive satisfaction, though dissatisfaction results from their absence. These are extrinsic to the work itself, and include aspects such as company policies, supervisory practices, or wages/salary (Herzberg, 1968). For women to participate successfully in decision-making they need to be motivated. It should also be recognized that women and men may not be motivated in the same way and do not all move up the hierarchy at the same pace. A different set of incentives should therefore be offered in the community-based projects for both men and women. This should be done in order to help them fulfill each of their needs in turn and progress up the hierarchy.

2.3.3 Porters five forces theory

Porter developed his Five Forces analysis in reaction to the then-popular SWOT analysis, which he found unrigorous (Porter, 2008). Porter's five forces is based on the Structure-Conduct-Performance paradigm in industrial organizational economics. It has been applied to a diverse range of problems, from helping businesses become more profitable to helping governments stabilize industries (Simkovic, 2012). Five Forces analysis assumes that there are five important forces that determine competitive power in a business situation. These are supplier power, buyer power, competitive rivalry, threat of substitution and the threat of new entrants.

Supplier power deals with how easy it is for suppliers to drive up prices. This is driven by the number of suppliers of each key input, the uniqueness of their product or service, their strength and control over you, the cost of switching from one to another, and so on. The fewer the supplier choices you have, and the more you need suppliers' help, the more powerful your suppliers are.

Buyer power assesses how easy it is for buyers to drive prices down. This is driven by the number of buyers, the importance of each individual buyer to your business, the cost to them of switching from your products and services to those of someone else, and so on. If you deal with few, powerful buyers, then they are often able to dictate terms to you.

When looking into competitive rivalry, what is important is the number and capability of your competitors. If you have many competitors, and they offer equally attractive products and services, then you'll most likely have little power in the situation, because suppliers and buyers will go elsewhere if they don't get a good deal from you. On the other hand, if no-one else can do what you do, then you can often have tremendous strength.

Threat of substitution refers to the ability of customers to find a different way of doing what you do. For example, if you supply a software product that automates an important process, people may substitute by doing the process manually or by outsourcing it. If substitution is easy and substitution is viable, then this weakens your power.

Threat of new entry comes about when people are able to enter your market. If it costs little in time or money to enter your market and compete effectively, if there are few economies of scale in place, or if you have little protection for your key technologies, then new competitors can quickly enter your market and weaken your position. If you have strong and durable barriers to entry, then you can preserve a favorable position and take fair advantage of it.

The Porter's Five Forces tool is therefore a simple but powerful tool that women can employ to understand where power lies in a project situation. This is useful, because it helps one to understand both the strength of their current competitive position, and the strength of a position she is considering moving into.

With a clear understanding of where power lies, they can take fair advantage of a situation of strength, improve a situation of weakness, and avoid taking wrong steps. This makes it an important part of their planning toolkit. Conventionally, the tool is used to identify whether new products, services or businesses have the potential to be profitable. However it can be very illuminating when used to understand the balance of power in a project situation.

2.3.4 Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is a structure that guides research by relying on a formal theory. It is constructed using an established, coherent explanation of certain phenomena and relationships. In this study, feminist theories, motivational theories and Porters five forces theory were investigated in relation to how they contribute to the participation of women in decision making as shown in the figure below.

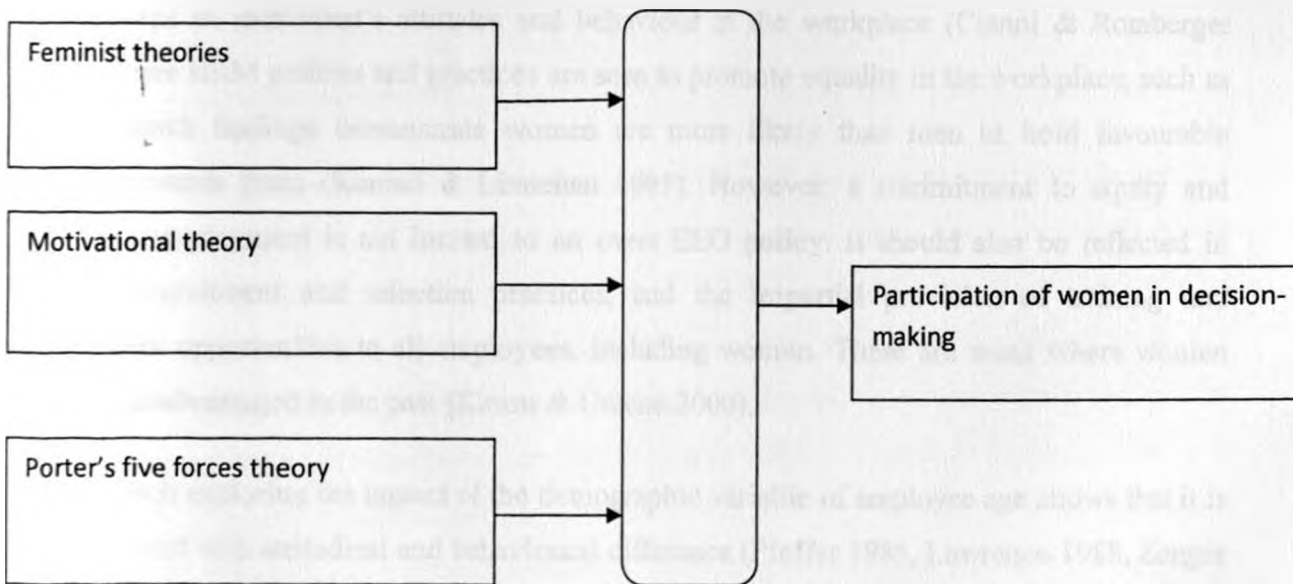


Figure 1: Theoretical Framework

2.4 Factors influencing women's participation in decision-making

The factors reviewed are demographic, educational, cultural, economic and women's natural abilities.

2.4.1 Demographic factors.

According to Edgar & Geare (2004) demographics include such factors as gender, age, ethnicity, occupation, seniority, salary levels, marital and family status. Studies indicate demographic factors, especially gender, ethnicity and employment sector, does influence women's attitudes towards decision-making. A large number of studies comparing the behaviour and attitudes of males and females report that gender differences do exist (Mor Barak et al. 1998, Konrad & Hartmann 2002).

These differences are often attributed to the discriminatory treatment experienced by women (Mai-Dalton & Sullivan 1981, Kirton & Greene 2000), and it is suggested that these experiences in turn shape an individual's attitudes and behaviour in the workplace (Cianni & Romberger 1995). Where HRM policies and practices are seen to promote equality in the workplace, such as EEO, research findings demonstrate women are more likely than men to hold favourable attitudes towards them (Konrad & Linnehan 1995). However, a commitment to equity and fairness in employment is not limited to an overt EEO policy. It should also be reflected in impartial recruitment and selection practices, and the impartial provision of training and development opportunities to all employees, including women. These are areas where women have felt disadvantaged in the past (Kirton & Greene 2000).

Prior research exploring the impact of the demographic variable of employee age shows that it is also associated with attitudinal and behavioural difference (Pfeffer 1985, Lawrence 1988, Zenger & Lawrence 1989, Wehrmeyer & McNeil 2000, Konrad & Hartmann 2002). Stereotypical beliefs about age are found to impact significantly on outcomes for certain age categories within an organization (Wagner, Pfeffer & O'Reilly 1984, Lawrence 1988). For example, Kirton and Greene (2000) claimed that older employees received less training and development in the workplace, because employers thought they did not want it, and because older employees are seen as less of an investment (Kirton & Greene 2000).

The demographic attribute of age has importance through linkages with individual experience and personal accumulated knowledge. Long-term experience may influence attitudes and belief systems which can be substantially different across cohorts of age dissimilarity (Wagner et al, 1984)). Age also influences employee attitudes towards Affirmative Action policies, with increased age being associated with more positive attitudes towards these policies (Konrad & Hartmann, 2002). This suggests older employees will consider EEO to be more important than will younger employees. There is some evidence older people face greater recruitment and selection barriers than younger people. For example, in a recent study (McKay, 1998) found that 25 per cent of employers considered a person aged over 50 too old to recruit. It has been suggested that age-related differences exist for employee attitudes towards the importance of recruitment and selection. This works against women because most of the times they venture into employment at an older age due to domestic commitments. Uniformity of treatment promotes equity and fairness in employment and leads employees to hold positive perceptions about the environment in which they work (Wood, 1995). Uniformity of treatment means consistency is evident in the application of terms and conditions of employment across the work force.

2.4.2 Educational factors.

Education is ultimately more effective than laws in empowering women to overcome the barriers to equality. Educated girls are more likely to resist pressures to marry too young, to have too many children and to resign themselves to unpaid work. They have greater competence as mothers and as active agents in their communities. Lack of access to formal education and training has been identified as a key barrier to women's employment and advancement in society. In Africa, female illiteracy rates were over 60 per cent in 1996, compared to 41 per cent for men (Manuh, 1998). In many African countries, parents still prefer to send boys to school, seeing little need for education for girls. In addition, factors such as adolescent pregnancy, early marriage and girls' greater burden of household labour act as obstacles to their schooling. While most girls do not go beyond primary education, school curricula have not been guided by this reality and their content is not geared to helping girls acquire basic life skills. The curriculum also is full of gender biases and leads girls into stereotypical "feminine" jobs in teaching, nursing and clerical work. Few women are found in scientific or technical education where they could develop better skills to secure better paying jobs.

2.4.2.1 Enrolment of girls in learning institutions.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) include the important objective of full parity of enrolment of boys and girls at all levels of education. Policy could and would inevitably have a positive effect upon behaviour and performance (Arnot et al, 1999). It has been established that although quantitatively, girls have an advantage over boys in education systems in the Caribbean, because of the pattern of participation in the educational process, qualitatively, girls are at a disadvantage when compared to their male counterparts. Data exist which point to the fact that in the market-place males can succeed with fewer years of schooling than can their female counterparts (Figueroa & Handa, 1996). The patterns of Curriculum participation and achievement suggest that girls are leaving the secondary level of the education system without a strong scientific-technical base. In 1996, equal opportunities policies dealing with gender were claimed by most of the primary and secondary schools in the UK (Arnot et al, 1996). The development of education feminism in the UK demanded full female entitlement to the same education that boys received and the rights of girls to make their own choices. The movement called for equality of outcome and gender equity in society.

In India, there has been progress in improving educational attainment for both sexes over the last several decades. In 1971, only 22% of women and 46% of men were literate (RGCC, 1977). By 1991, 39% of women and 64% of men were literate (RGCC, 1993). Despite the improvements in literacy, there continues to be a gap between the literacy levels of men and women. In India as a whole, many states have large rural-urban differences in female literacy. In 6 and 24 states, 25% or less of the women in rural areas are literate. The Indian government started non-formal Education (NFE) in 1979-80 to reach children that were not in the formal education system, particularly girls and working children. Classes are held at times that are convenient for the students, and the curriculum is adapted to their needs. Approximately, 40% of the centers are exclusively for girls (The World Bank, 1997b)

The provision of education and training to all Kenyans is fundamental to government overall strategy (MOES&T, 2004). The gross primary enrolment rate has fallen as low as 86.9 percent in 1999 after attaining a peak of 105.4 percent in 1989. The secondary enrolment rate also declined from 29.4 percent in 1990 to 21.5 percent in 1999.

There are also large regional disparities in primary school enrolment and, by 1999 all North-eastern districts had gross enrolment rates less than 30 percent while Machakos, Embu, and Nyandarua districts enjoyed universal primary enrolment of more than 100 percent. Transition rate from primary to secondary school has been declining – an indication of increase in wastage and inefficiency in the education system. The transition rate declined from 44.60 in 1990 to 39.90 percent in 1998.

Kenya is faced with regional and gender disparities in education especially at the primary school level. The disparities differ from region to region with the lowest recorded at North Eastern with a GER of 29.3% of girls and a GER of 112.2% in Western province. Education sector interventions aim at promoting girl child participation in education through provision of scholarships and bursaries; expansion and improvement of physical infrastructure in schools including sanitary facilities; construction of boarding schools in Arid and Semi-Arid Lands (ASALs); provision of water and sanitation facilities to create conducive and gender responsive environments in schools particularly in ASALs (GoK, 2005a and GoK, 2005b). There are also specific interventions such as establishment of Starehe Girls Centre (targeting marginalized girls), Keriri University and targeted cash transfers. However, although some of these interventions have led to impressive access gains, gender disparities both in participation, progression and performance in some regions at primary education level still persist. There are also glaring gender disparities at post primary levels especially in technical and science oriented courses at tertiary level (Institute of economic affairs-Kenya, 2008).

The primary school enrolment rate in Machakos county is 81% for both boys and girls. School dropout was reported to be 5.5%. The Primary school going population (6-13 years) makes up to 20.3% of the county's total population. The secondary schools and an enrolment rate of 32% for both boys and girls. The secondary school going age group comprises about 9% of the total population. The secondary school drop-out rate was estimated to be 4.7%. Many children drop out of primary and secondary school mainly due to inability to afford cost of education and the limited number of schools (Machakos District strategic plan, 2005-2010).

2.4.2.2 Representation of girls in all levels of education

Gender equity means fairness of treatment for women and men, according to their respective needs. This may include equal treatment or treatment that is different but which is considered equivalent in terms of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities (ILO, 2000). Lack of access to formal education and training has been identified as a key barrier to women's employment and advancement in society. In Africa, female illiteracy rates were over 60 per cent in 1996, compared to 41 per cent for men. Certain countries have extremely high rates: Burkina Faso at 91.1 per cent, Sierra Leone at 88.7 per cent, Chad at 82.1 per cent and Guinea at 86.6 per cent (Manuh, 1998). In many African countries, parents still prefer to send boys to school, seeing little need for education for girls. In addition, factors such as adolescent pregnancy, early marriage and girls' greater burden of household labor act as obstacles to their schooling. While most girls do not go beyond primary education, school curricula have not been guided by this reality and their content is not geared to helping girls acquire basic life skills.

The curriculum also contains gender biases and leads girls into stereotypical "feminine" jobs in teaching, nursing and clerical work. Few women are found in scientific or technical education where they could develop better skills to secure better paying jobs. There have been improvements in the net enrolment of girls at primary levels, but disparities persist in comparison with the enrolment of boys. Female enrolment numbers decrease as girls move up the education ladder. Exceptionally, in Southern Africa, the out-migration of men has led to a very different pattern of gender representation in the education system. Lesotho provides the most striking case, with females accounting for more than 75 per cent of students, even in higher education. Prospects for increasing the access of women and girls to education have been undermined by economic crisis, budgetary cuts, and debt servicing burdens. Average per capita education spending declined from \$41 in 1980 to only \$26 in 1985 and was \$25 in 1995.

Meanwhile the proportion of foreign aid allocated to education declined from 17 per cent in 1975 to 9.8 per cent in 1990, increasing slightly to 10.7 percent in 1994. Cuts in state spending on education have led to a slower rate of increase in gross enrolment rates, while drop-out rates for girls have risen as they have been withdrawn from school in response to new fees and "user charges," and other economic factors.

In 1993, only about 40 per cent of school-age girls were enrolled in primary or secondary school. The teaching profession shows a similar level of female participation. In 1993, women accounted for 30 per cent or less of primary teaching staff in 13 African countries, while their proportions in secondary schools remained at 33 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa between 1985 and 1994. In India, Currently, a very small proportion of both men and women have a college education; just over 3% of men and 1% of women. Although a very small proportion of the Indian population attends college, women account for a third of the students at this level (MHRD, 1993).

This sex ratio is found for most fields except Engineering and Commerce where women account for a much smaller proportion of the students; and Education, where women account for nearly half of all the students. In Uganda, trend data available shows that girls' enrolment at secondary school has consistently lagged behind that of boys by about 20% (Kasante,2003) . However, it is hoped that girls' enrolment will improve at secondary school level following the increased number of girls attending primary school. Nationally, Kenya has achieved gender parity in participation at the primary school level with a GER of 105.8% for boys and 103.7% for girls (MOES&T, 2004). However, there are regional disparities where participation of girls is as low as 15.7% compared to 29.3% for boys in one region.

With predominantly arts, humanities and social science academic qualifications and qualifications in domestic/care oriented courses, women still find themselves in what has traditionally described as 'women's work'. In 2002, women formed 69 % or more of administrative & secretarial, personal service, and sales & customer service occupations. Men made up 69 % or more of managers & senior officials, skilled trades, and process, plant & machine operatives (EOC, 2003a: 1). Women's jobs often command lower wages than 'men's work,' leading to inequalities in pay and income. (EOC, 2001c: 1).

Even with relative equality in levels of qualification, the gender pay gap is still in existence; female employees working full time earn on average nineteen per cent less than the average hourly earnings of male full-time employees (EOC, 2003a: 1).

2.4.2.3 School drop-out rates for girls.

A major educational problem facing both boys and girls in India is that although they may be enrolled at the beginning of the year, they do not always remain in school. It is estimated that 45% of girls and 41% of boys drop out of school between grades one and five (The World Bank, 1997b). Girls are also taken out of school to help with family responsibilities such as caring for young siblings. Girls are also likely to be taken out of school when they reach puberty as a way of protecting their honor. The data on school attendance by age show that the proportion of girls attending school decreases with age while for boys it remains stable. In 1992-93, only 55% of aged eleven to fourteen were attending school compared with 61% of the young age-group (International Institute for population science -IIPS, 1995).

In Uganda girls tend to drop out of school between the ages of 13-18 years due to early marriage and pregnancy especially in the Eastern and Northern regions (DHS EdData survey, 2001). The pregnant girls either withdraw themselves from school due to stigma associated with premarital pregnancy or through the policies that ensure that girls are expelled from the education system with little or no chance of re-entry after delivery (FAWE, 1994).

The data obtained from the Welfare Monitory Survey III in Kenya shows that the percentages of females who have attained primary level of education are slightly higher than those of the males in the age group 6 – 39. This trend reverses in the age group 40 – 44 and 50 –90 (those with standard 5-8 level of education). Nevertheless, secondary school and higher levels of educational attainment have remained very low for the case of females as compared to their male counterparts in the age group 20 – 99. The worst hit is university education, with attainment levels reversing with age in the same age group.

Despite the growth in education as shown by World Education Indicators (WEI), less than half of the population aged 25 – 34 years in most countries have completed upper secondary education.

In the oldest age group (55 – 64 years) – whose members were of school age between 40 and 60 years ago – fewer women than men have upper secondary education in all countries represented in WEI (OECD, 2000a).

In some countries such as India, Indonesia, and Jordan, the differences are great: the upper secondary attainment rate of 55 – 64 year old women is 36 percent that of men in Indonesia, 25 percent in Jordan, and 15 percent in India. In other countries, especially those in Latin America, the differences are smaller.

However, in all countries with the exception of Zimbabwe, differences are diminishing across successive younger generations and are even being reversed in some cases (OECD, 2000a). Across OECD countries, an average of 63 percent of the adult population have completed at least upper secondary (OECD, 2000b). The literacy gap between males and females increases with age. The report also shows that urban females had a higher literacy rate than their rural counterparts. The rural females are disadvantaged as compared to their counterparts in the urban areas. A comparison of illiteracy rates in some selected African countries that shows Kenya's illiteracy rate of 22.7 percent in 1995 was below the sub-Saharan Africa and Africa averages of 45.2 and 45.6 percent respectively, but higher than the South African rate of 16.7.

Among the selected countries, Ethiopia had the highest illiteracy rate (71.7%) in 1990, which declined to 66.8% in 1995, and further to 61.3 % in 2000. In comparison, to Burundi's illiteracy rate declined from 62.2% in 1990 to 51.9 % in 2000. Egypt followed Burundi with an illiteracy rate of 52.9 %, 48.9 % and 44.7 % in 1990, 1995, and 2000 respectively. The illiteracy rates of these three countries were above the African average.

2.4.3 Cultural factors

Culture refers to a people's way of life. These include marriage and dowry, property ownership and discrimination.

2.4.3.1 Women and Marriage

Despite the ratification of African states of several human rights instruments protecting the human rights of women in Africa and the solemn commitment of the African states to eliminate all forms of discrimination and harmful practices against women, women in Africa still continue to experience human rights violations (Journal of African law, 1 April 2007).

About 50 per cent of women in Africa are married by age 18 and one in three women is in a polygamous marriage (Manuh, 1998). Estimates of average total fertility rates in Africa were 5.7 children per woman in 1995, although some Southern African countries, as well as Kenya and Mauritius, have begun to see declines. High fertility arises from the economic value of children, high infant mortality and low levels of contraceptive use. It is also as mothers that women secure claims in their marital homes and to their husband's assets. They are denied equal enjoyment of their human rights, by virtue of the lesser status ascribed to them by tradition and custom or as a result of overt or covert discrimination. In the Shona culture for instance, from a tender age, the socialization process differentiates the girl child from the boy child. Shona girls are taught to be obedient and submissive housekeepers. This is because society views women as sexual beings and not as human beings (Charvet, 1982). Women are not only constantly defined in relation to men but are defined as dependent and subordinate to them all (MC Dowell and Pringle, 1992).

2.4.3.2 Property ownership

An FAO "synthesis report" on nine countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Congo, Mauritania, Morocco, Namibia, Sudan, Tanzania and Zimbabwe) showed that women rarely own land and when they do, their holdings tend to be smaller and less fertile than those of men.

According to World Bank (2004), only 1% of Kenya land titles in are held by women while 5-6% are held jointly (Institute of Economic Affairs-Kenya, 2008). Without control on property, women are therefore vulnerable to dispossession, and thus constrained from initiating long term projects. Women are absent from land bodies; the land disputes procedures remain biased against women; and husbands may sell matrimonial land without their wife's consent (FIDA-Kenya, 2008).

Gaps in Kenyan law on matrimonial property and land during marriage and at divorce violate women's rights to equality in marriage, an adequate standard of living, including housing, and to property.

Regardless of whether the marriage is formalized under statute or custom, women often have no more than mere use rights to the matrimonial land, revocable at the will of the husband. Married women rarely enjoy equal rights to control, alienate, or transfer matrimonial property.

At separation or divorce, women are often unable to take away an adequate share of their matrimonial property, and are often forced to leave the matrimonial home with little more than personal effects.

2.4.3.3 Discrimination

In most cultures, women face discrimination not only at home, but also in the workplace, in education, as well as in property inheritance. Discrimination occurs when someone or a group of people are given preferential treatment over others. There are subtle forms of gender-based discrimination which hinder the participation of women in development (Yentsch & Sinderman, 1992).

Exclusion is one such form. Descriptive stereotypes can indirectly contribute to informal discrimination: the negative expectations of women's abilities and skills may lead members of an organization to socially ostracize them, thereby keeping women from becoming central players within their organizations. Since their input may be deemed less valuable, they are more likely than men to be omitted from key discussions, overlooked when perspectives are being sought about important decisions, and left out of informal networks that provide the context for critical information-sharing. Others in the workplace are less likely to come to them for help precisely because they are viewed as lacking essential traits for success, thus creating a system where women are cut off from opportunities to exert influence. Interaction patterns between men and women in male gender-typed work environments are of a substantively different quality from those that occur between and among male employees. Research indicates that not only do women encounter more difficulty forming social connections at work than men do, but they reap fewer benefits from the relationships that they do form.

Analyses of social networks reveal that men have more extensive social networks that include influential organizational members than do women (Ibarra, 1992). Working women also report more difficulty establishing mentoring relationships with male colleagues than do men (Ragins & Cotton, 1991). Even when women do find mentors and develop social networks, these relationships are less strongly associated with positive career outcomes such as promotions and compensation than are men's relationships (Eddleston, Baldrige & Veiga, 2004). There is an interesting phenomenon illustrating a form of exclusion from male networks (Cole, 1942). He points to the frequency with which an altered pattern of discussion occurs when male colleagues converse with women scientists. They discuss technical issues with other men, but switch to non-technical topics like families and vacations when addressing women scientists. Cole characterized such behaviour patterns as issues of "scientific citizenship" that still influence in a negative way the workday experiences of women in science.

Another form of discrimination is gender stereotyping. Gender stereotypes lie at the heart of many of our perceptions of the workplace and the people that operate within it. The constellation of traits and attributes that are thought to uniquely describe men and women are called *descriptive* stereotypes. These stereotypes are applied to individuals that one encounters in work settings, and become the basis for inferring their internal, stable characteristics. Thus, even in situations in which person A may have very little knowledge about person B, he or she will infer a set of characteristics about B from the general category of *man* or *woman* to which person B belongs (Stangor, 1988). In contrast to descriptive stereotypes, *prescriptive* stereotypes refer to the set of attributes and characteristics that describe how men and women "should" be (Burgess & Borgida, 1999; Eagly, 1987; Heilman, 2001; Terborg, 1977). Perceptions of people are therefore guided simultaneously by cognitive representations of their category-based traits and attributes and their normative beliefs about what is appropriate and inappropriate for them to do, given their gender categories. Thus, research has demonstrated that even when the actual qualifications of men and women are equivalent, men are viewed as having higher performance ability, are expected to perform better (Heilman, Martell & Simon, 1988), and are therefore favored over women in the selection process for male gender-typed jobs (Davison & Burke, 2000; Gerdes & Garber 1983; Glick, Zion & Nelson, 1988; Heilman, 1984).

Studies have found that at higher levels within an organization, women received fewer promotions than men (Lyness & Judiesch, 1999).

Back lashing is another form of gender bias. In a competitive world, back lashing is expressed by complaints or lawsuits about reverse discrimination. Sometimes men, following a personal experience of being bested by a woman express dismissal of the entire concept of feminism. The more outspoken of the men point to the unfair advantage in hiring accorded to women by institutions with aggressive equal employment opportunity policies, which in some instances dictate hiring of women over equally qualified males. Rudman (1998) demonstrated in a series of laboratory studies that women who presented themselves in a self-promotional manner were perceived to be more competent than those who were self-effacing (a more stereotypically consistent presentation style), but were less likely to be hired by the study participants. They were also more likely to have their opportunities sabotaged by those with control over their future opportunities (Rudman & Fairchild, 2004).

Invisibility, another form of gender-based treatment, involves not calling on women for example in class, forgetting them in introduction, ignoring their contribution in work co-authored with men, overlooking them in a group and dismissing their roles as wage earners from the family. Other forms of female invisibility include such minor annoying practices as having a session chair address a mixed audience as "gentlemen" or worse still adding a lame and delayed after-thought "and ladies", having work in a jointly authored paper discussed as though it had been done by the male co-author, or having a working group chair recognize male participants and ignoring females who want to enter the discussions. These responses according are extremely prevalent, seldom deliberately malicious and usually unconscious to the extent that the perpetrator can be amazed and chagrined when they are called to his attention (Shapiro, 1978). However they carry the connotation that women's contributions can be ignored as presumably inconsequential and as such the actions are clearly discriminatory.

Hostility is also a subtle form of discrimination. Hostility towards women who are viewed as trespassers on male territory can originate from the fear of being displaced or bested by a woman competitor. Hostility can be disguised as teasing, making belittling and inappropriate remarks, and accusing the woman of lacking a sense of humor if they respond negatively.

It can also arise from basic lack of understanding or acceptance of role changes for women, away from traditional ones of wife and mother. Sandra Harding (1986) has a hard-line explanation that "...masculine gender identity is so fragile that it cannot afford to have women as equal to men in science". Other expressions of male hostility are more direct and overt, even though they are diminishing in frequency in today's climate of non-acceptance by women of any form of bias. Some male professionals still espouse that being a female is an infirmity, and some of those men are affected by the concept of gender equality in science or anywhere else. They react with anger at what seems to them as the humiliation of seeing women professional not only performing as well as men, but in some instances outperforming men and even dominating scientific forums. Quiet range may erupt as public displays of hostility, if circumstances provide the opportunity.

All these subtle forms of gender discrimination can provide an added and totally unnecessary burden of stress for women in decision making positions, many of whom are already trying to cope with severe career-related and family related demands. They have no place in the professional environment. Their persistence can only be attributed to a lack of sensitivity and perception on the part of male decision-makers and an unwillingness to create confrontational situations on the part of female colleagues.

2.4.4 Economic Factors

The continuing poverty of the majority of African countries, declining terms of trade and the burden of external debt create an unfavorable environment for development. Of the limited resources available, little is directly allocated to women. In addition, structural adjustment policies pursued for nearly two decades by African governments in conjunction with the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) have had important gender consequences. Governments' macroeconomic policies do not incorporate gender perspectives in their design and ignore the structure of households in Africa and the social relations that influence women's roles in production (Manuh, 1998). Among the majority of rural and low-income urban dwellers, women perform all domestic tasks, while many also farm and trade. They are responsible for the care of children, the sick and the elderly, in addition to performing essential social functions within their communities.

They seek to manage the environment, although their struggle for survival often results in environmental damage from activities such as fuel-wood collection. Many rural and urban women belong to women-only mutual-aid societies, benevolent groups in churches, cooperatives and market women's groups. Under this factor, women and poverty, women and access to credit facilities, women and enterprise ownership as well as women and employment will be studied.

2.4.4.1 Enterprise ownership

There are three profiles of women entrepreneurs operating MSEs in Kenya, namely those in Jua Kali micro-enterprises, "very small" micro-enterprises and "small-scale" enterprises (Stevenson & St-Onge ,2005),). These are differentiated by their demographic profiles, extent of previous business experience, needs, access to resources and growth orientation.

The Jua Kali micro-enterprisers are identified as owners of unregistered (informal) businesses who have little formal education (usually less than secondary school level) and lack entrepreneurial and business know-how. They also have little access to credit, with limited awareness of markets and market opportunities. They are constrained by their household responsibilities and marital status; for instance, having to obtain permission from their husbands to town for training or trade fairs.

The "very small" micro-enterprisers are identified as those registered, operating from legitimate business premises and employing 6 to 10 workers. "Small-scale" enterprisers are identified as being registered, operating from legitimate business premises and employing over 10 workers and having, at least, secondary level education with some previous experience as employees. Occasionally, women entrepreneurs in this category have supportive husbands who may also be directly or indirectly involved in the enterprise. This segment is constrained by lack of access to finance for various reasons, including having no land/property title deeds to be used as collateral for large loans. Small-scale business owners are most likely to be university graduates from an entrepreneurial family, with managerial experience in the corporate world, access to finance and a supportive husband. Usually small-scale enterprises are engaged in exporting.

The study concluded that to develop their businesses, each of the above categories of entrepreneurs requires targeted schemes, programmes or mechanisms to suit their particular needs (Stevenson & St-Onge, 2005).

According to the 1999 National MSEs Baseline Survey, there were 612,848 women in MSEs in Kenya. The results showed that women tended to operate enterprises associated with traditional women's roles, such as hairstyling, restaurants, hotels, retail shops and wholesale outlets. According to the Department of Micro and Small Enterprise Development in the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development, there were about 2.8 million MSEs in Kenya in 2002, employing about 5.1 million people. In 2003 there were 5.5 million people in MSEs and, in 2004, there were about 6 million (5.97) employed in MSEs in Kenya (GoK Economic Survey, 2005).

Women operate 54% of the total enterprises in the Kenya. However, they dominate wholesale and retail, rural manufacturing and urban agriculture sectors alone. Men are well represented in such sectors as urban manufacturing (71%), transport (73%), financial services (80%), and social services (69%). The proportion of male representation is even higher in the urban areas. For instance, 99% and 91% of persons operating construction and transport enterprises respectively in urban areas are men (KIHBS, 2005/2006). In women-owner/managed MSEs, about 86 per cent of the workers were women owner/managers themselves, 4 per cent were hired workers, with the remainder made up of unpaid family members and/or apprentices.

Whereas, in men-owner/managed MSEs, only 68 per cent of the workers were men owner/managers themselves, 17 per cent hired workers and the remainder made up of unpaid family members and/or apprentices. The survey also indicated that women tended to operate smaller MSEs than men and made less income than them, with women making an average gross income of KES4, 344 per month compared to KES7, 627 for men. This research has established that most of the disabled women are concentrated at the lower end of MSEs, dealing mainly in hawking and petty trade. It can, therefore, be inferred that they earn less than the average incomes earned by women entrepreneurs in MSEs.

2.4.4.2 Poverty

Poverty is usually measured by pricing the basic necessities of life, drawing a poverty line in terms of this price and defining as poor those whose income fall below that figure (Haralamboo, 1980). Women bear a disproportionate burden of the world's poverty (Omutoko and Wambugu, 2009). They are more likely than men to be poor and at risk of hunger because of systematic discrimination they face in education, health care, employment and control of assets.

Poverty implications are widespread for women, leaving many without basic rights such as access to clean drinking water, sanitation, medical care and decent employment. This is because in general women have fewer opportunities to earn income. With the decline of national and local economies, many men have been unable or have refused to contribute their share of household expenses. This has increased household pressures on women, raising the numbers of women living in poverty and the numbers of households in the poorest categories headed by women. Poverty reduction has been a major challenge since independence in Kenya. The number of people living below the poverty line has increased from 42% in 1994 to 52% in 1997 and to 57% by 2003 (NEMA, 2004). Poverty denies women access to credit and the resources necessary to improve themselves.

A focus on Kenya was done by UNICEF and Central Bureau for Statistics (CBS, 1984) in their Situation Analysis of Children and Women in Kenya. They confirmed that small holding households headed by women tend to be poorer than those headed by men. Women who are heads because they have no husbands (through death, divorce or separation), are more firmly trapped by the conditions of poverty than women who head the family and farm in their husband's absence. Slightly over a quarter of the rural small households are headed by women. Female-headed households can be fitted into two major categories: permanent and temporary — a female (wife) heading household during absence of the male head (husband). The study revealed that the proportion of small holding households headed by women by Kenya's provinces as of 1984 was as follows: Coast (12.2%), Eastern (22.9%), Central (31.1%), Rift Valley (21.1%), Nyanza (32.6%), Western (32.8%) and North Eastern (27.3%).

The study also found that there were economic differences within female-headed small holdings and they are not homogenous. The economic position of women headed rural households, because they currently do not have husbands tend to be more adverse than that of women who head households in their husbands' absence. Smallholdings headed by women whose husbands are absent are disadvantaged in comparison with those headed by resident males. A US Agency for International Development (USAID) study of Kenya found that almost all women who headed households (95%) classified farming as their main occupation and that households studied tended to have more resident women than men (Barnes & Werner, 1982).

Machakos County had 68.7 per cent and 63.3percent respectively of its population below the poverty line ((WMS II, 1994 & WMS III, 1997). During the poverty assessment exercise carried out in the year 2000, the district was estimated to have 66.2 percent of the population as poor (Machakos District Strategic Plan 2005-2010). A large number of the population in the county is still unable to meet their basic needs given their levels of income (CBS,2003a). CBS (1998/1999) in its integrated labour force survey argues that the spatial distribution of poverty shows that the rural areas of the district are far worse compared to the urban areas with corresponding poverty ratios of 70% and 39%. Although poverty incidence declined from 56% in 2000 to about 47% in 2005, it is higher among women in both rural, where 50% of women are poor and in the urban centers where 46% of women are poor (KNBS, 2007).

2.4.4.3 Access to Credit facilities

Access to financial services is critical for economic empowerment of any population and it varies across gender. Many rural and urban women belong to women-only mutual-aid societies, benevolent groups in churches, cooperatives and market women's groups. Some of these groups allow women to pool resources to reduce their workload and to invest in savings societies or cooperative ventures. Cooperative societies have provided women access to resources, for example, the Corn Mill societies in Cameroon, the "Six S" associations in Burkina Faso and the General Union of Cooperatives in Mozambique, which supplies most of Maputo's fruits and vegetables. In Benin only 8 per cent of rural women belong to formal cooperatives, but an estimated 90 per cent participate in traditional women's savings and credit groups.

Informal rotating credit associations in Ghana, Tanzania, Gambia and Zimbabwe have been used by the estimated 25 per cent of economically active women in the non-agricultural informal sector to invest in businesses and farms, home improvements and school costs for their children (Manuh, 1998).

According to a recent study on Kenya, indicates that more women (51.1%) tend to save compared to their male counterparts (48.9%) (Financial Sector Deepening 2007). Loosening economic constraints imposed on women can have immense consequences on development. For example Grameen bank was set up to provide small loans for women to start businesses on their own (Murdoch, 1999).

Great success has also been reported by the Graham bank which increased the share of women from 44% to 75% in recognition of the role of women in development. Micro credit taken by the woman rather than the man of the household increases non-land assets and children's education and doubled women's expenditure (Pitt & Khandker, 1998)). The Equity bank of Kenya has adopted a similar model to that of Grameen and Graham banks. It has launched a credit line specifically for women in small and medium enterprise (SME) sector in June, 2007. This line targets legally constituted community groups with a good history. Such groups, mainly composed of women receive loans without security. The group members act as guarantors for such loans. Equity bank also undertakes a six week business training for new community groups composed of women. Other related facilities are provided by the Kenya Women Finance Trust (KWFT) and the Kenya Rural Enterprise Program (KReP). The proportion of the population currently accessing credit facilities reflects an equal gender split. In 2005/2006 about 50.1% of the population that had access to credit services were male and 49.9% were female. The low access to land and lack of collateral constrain access to business credit.

2.4.4.4 Employment

Women form the majority of the population in most countries (population census, 1999), yet they are not equitably represented in economic activities, either as employees or owner managers of businesses.

This is because they face greater vulnerabilities in the labor market because of their relative lack of education and training, the tendency to channel women into certain occupations, and the continuous heavy burdens of unpaid domestic work, child-bearing and child-care, which restrict the time and energy available for income-earning activities. According to UNDP, women are two-thirds less likely than men to get waged employment, while only 3 out of 10 women in the labor force in sub-Saharan Africa are paid employees. In 1990, about 5 per cent of the female labor force worked in industry, 20 per cent in services, 23 per cent in sales, and only 6 per cent in professional, technical, administrative or managerial positions.

Despite International Labour Organization (ILO) conventions, to which many African countries are signatories, there are significant income disparities, with women earning half or less of the incomes of men in some countries. Many women also do not benefit in practice from formal laws and policies guaranteeing maternity protection or equal pay for equal work.

Data from the ILO and other sources suggest that women's formal sector participation rates dropped from 57 per cent in 1970 to 53 per cent in 1990, with 2.5 million women losing their jobs between 1985 and 1990. In Benin, for example, women accounted for 26 per cent of retrenched workers, although they were only 6 per cent of formal sector workers; women had predominated in the lower echelons of the social services sector, which faced the heaviest budget cuts. Many of such retrenched women have relocated to the informal sector.

The non-agricultural informal sector employs about 25 per cent of the female labor force, mainly in petty trading and home-based processing and manufacturing, where they have little access to official sources of credit or information. Congestion and lack of water and sanitation create a hazardous environment for both the women and the children they must take with them to work (because no other childcare is available).

These women workers also do not benefit from minimum wage and social security provisions and have to provide for their own health and retirement needs. Many are subject to harassment and exploitation from municipal authorities (Manuh,1998).

Unemployment in Kenya varies across regions, sex, and level of education and age groups. Unemployment rate stood at 6.5 percent in 1989, with 6.6 and 6.5 percent of the female and males in the total labour force unemployed. According to the Economic Survey of 2005, in 2003 and 2004, men accounted for 70 per cent of wage employment and women for only 30 per cent. The table below summarizes gender segregation of wage employment by sex (GoK Economic Survey, 2005.)

Table 1: Wage employment by sex, 2003 and 2004 ('000)

Gender	2003	2003(%)	2004	2004 (%)
Men	1,216.1	70.4	1242.4	70.4
W0men	511.2	29.6	521.3	29.56
total	1727.3	100	1763.7	100

2.5 Women's Natural Abilities

The current problems in productivity and increasing competition in the world as well as concerns about managing the changing worker, necessitates a focus on the role women can play. In effecting this change by encouraging women to follow the expedient path; playing the man's game, and not to challenge the sex bias in expectations for decision-making positions, much of the current self-help literature effectively denies the use of the full scope of their abilities. Consequently, the potential effectiveness of the women managers is significantly constrained. Organizations that perpetuate a biased leadership style provide a major barrier for women and create a significant obstacle to their overall effectiveness in decision-making. It must be accepted that women can play a significant role in making community-based projects more competitive if they are allowed to show their natural strengths. Management of the future will be more participatory than it is today (Charlene Mitchell *et al*, 1985).

Among the characteristics that are becoming increasingly important to the success of community-based projects and their leaders is their concern for people, interpersonal skills, intuitive management and creative problem solving. Women managers may be in a better position to use the tools than men. The skills which women are expected to leave behind when they enter the field of management are finally being recognized as critical to organizational stress, long term health and viability. Feminine leaders see the world through two different lenses concurrently; hence respond to situations on both the thinking and feeling level (Shwartz, 1989). Relative to the traditional male managers, the female managers behave differently in problem solving and managing relationships.

There are some male-female distinctions in management (Morrison, 1987)). According to her, the feminine approach is characterized by a co-operative operating style as compared to a far more competitive masculine style of management. The feminine model proposes teamwork, approach with emphasis on quality outcome. This is in contrast to the common hierarchical, win-lose and authoritarian approach. The feminine model is premised on a marriage of rational and intuitive problem solving style, while the masculine model emphasizes exclusive reliance on a rational view of the problem. The feminine leadership model accents empathy, collaboration and high performance standards.

2.6 Government policy

It is critically important for policy-makers to listen to and work with women to improve their positions and thereby accelerate Africa's development (Manuh, 1998) A comprehensive approach must be taken by the government, in conjunction with development agencies and women themselves, to remove the social, economic, educational and legal constraints on women. National action plans must be designed in broad consultation with women's groups to complement regional initiatives. In order for more women to reach the same high positions as men in various fields, more focused education and socialization are needed for better burden-sharing and a fairer division of labor between the sexes in the home and society.

Governments' macro-economic policies should incorporate gender perspectives in their design, as well as take into account intra-household differences in resource use and control, recognizing that improvements in women's incomes promote equity as well as child welfare. Gender biases strongly affect women's access to productive resources and markets, ultimately frustrating economic reform policies.

Therefore governments should take into account gender biases and tailor planned interventions to improve women's ability to take advantage of incentives, thus enhancing overall economic efficiency. They must demonstrate commitment to removing legal barriers and socio-cultural obstacles against women, especially in the rural areas where the majority of women live and are economically active. The constraints on women's access to land, credit, extension services, inputs and new technologies must be removed, and opportunities should be created for their enterprise. The Government must build partnerships with the emerging associations of women bankers and entrepreneurs to create an enabling policy environment including making credit available to women at affordable rates, with the private sector assisting government efforts to get credit to women.

Appropriate technologies for household chores, food processing, preservation and storage are needed, as are farm tools that are appropriate for women, including small transportation equipment that will free women from head loading. The increased provision of potable water and cheap and reliable energy sources are also needed to reduce the long hours that women work and to remove the drudgery from their lives. Gender biases in the educational system, training and employment must be consistently attacked to give women new opportunities for achievement, while school curricula must incorporate concepts of gender equality and peace at all levels, so that students will incorporate them throughout their lives. Young women need role models to motivate them and must be given a usable education and skills to play meaningful roles in society and to safeguard them from harmful practices which mortgage their health and lives. To enable women to protect themselves there are three issues at stake: improving their social and economic status; providing a method over which they have sufficient control; or getting more men to adopt safe sex.

Women's leadership skills in their communities, groups and associations need to be harnessed and formalized to give them political and decision-making power. Women's commitment to their households, to local and national food security, local production and the environment should be reflected in equitable representation on all bodies that make decisions in these areas, as well as in broader economic programmes that affect women's lives. Implementation mechanisms must harness take into account women's own energies, through their associations. Technical units in government departments and ministries should be established, along with data banks and resource centers at local, regional and national levels to support actions on behalf of women and they should be adequately funded and staffed. In Kenya, gender equity has taken centre stage resulting in the development and enactment of various legal and policy interventions including enactment of the National Commission on Gender and Development Act in 2003 as well as introduction of gender desks in key Parastatals and police stations.

The introduction of women's enterprise fund, the passing of the national policy on gender and development as well as the 30% presidential decree on affirmative action in public appointments are some of the policy interventions in removing barriers to female general well-being. The country's commitment to addressing gender equity and inequalities can be traced in both international and national policy commitments.

The third and fifth millennium development goals underscore the need for gender parity especially in education and access to social, economic and political opportunities by 2015. As a result the country has put in place various policies and interventions including legislation, female specific policies, plans and programs aimed at addressing specific gender gaps or forms of discrimination. However, most of the policy interventions targeting the elimination of gender gaps are however not consistently documented and they are not informed by data or statistics. Moreover, the status of female population with respect to distributions of opportunities in various economic, social and political dimensions is scantily documented (Omutoko and Wambugu, 2009).

2.7 Conceptual framework

Reichel and Ramey (1987) define a conceptual framework as a set of broad ideas and principles taken from relevant fields of inquiry and used to structure a subsequent presentation. Participation of women in decision making in community based projects is the main focus of this research. This research sought to establish the factors influencing the participation of women in community based water projects in the central division of Machakos county by studying the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables as depicted in the conceptual framework in figure 2.



Independent Variables

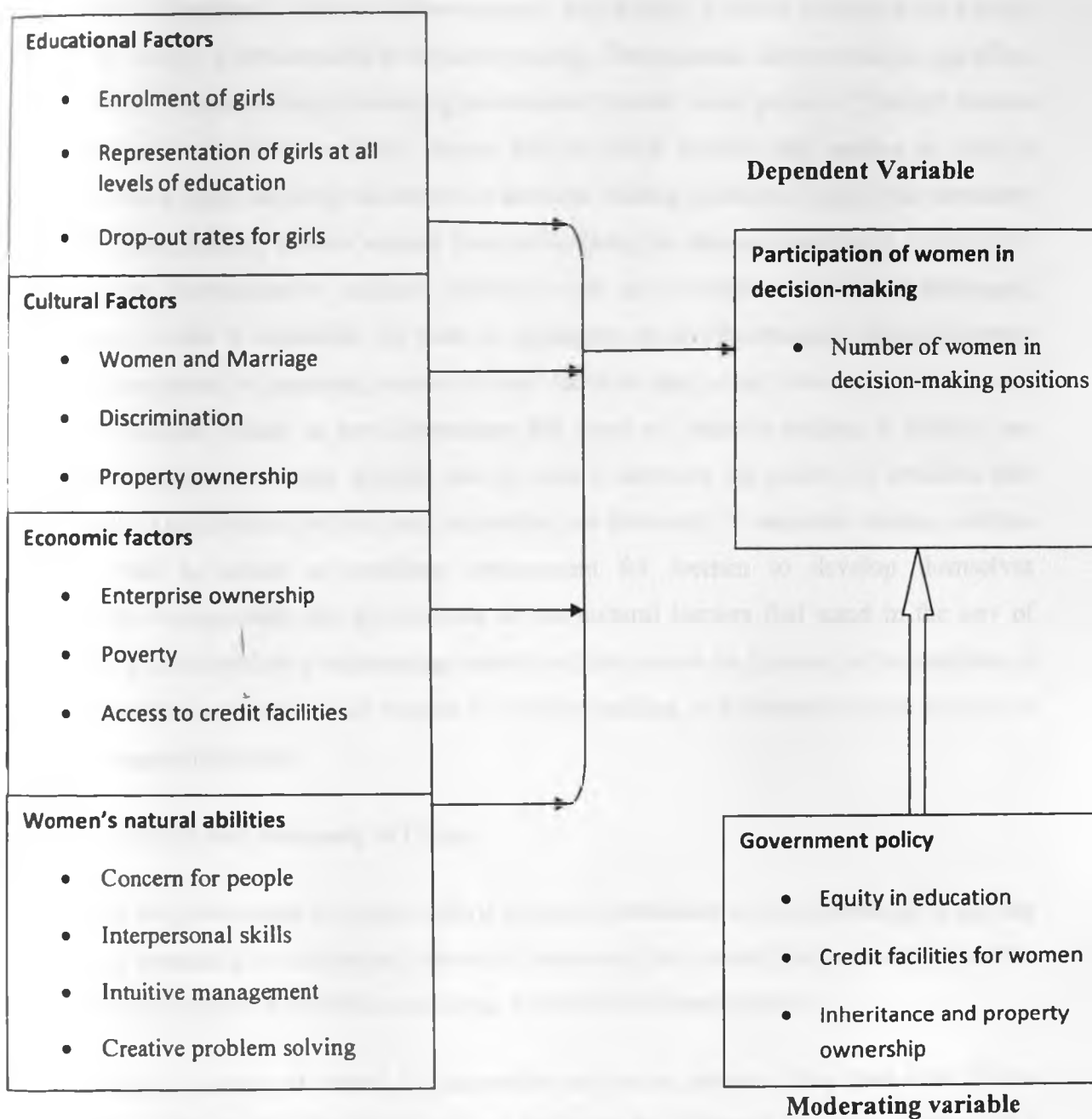


Figure 2: Conceptual Framework

2.8 Inter-relationship between Variables.

Demographic, Educational, cultural, socio-economic and women's natural abilities have a direct influence on women's participation in decision-making. Demographic factors such as age affect participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects. Younger women find themselves tied down by family issues such as child bearing and rearing as well as household chores hence showing no interest in decision making positions. Lack of the necessary educational qualifications hinders women from participating in decision-making in community-based projects. Retrogressive cultural practices such as arranged and forced marriages, discrimination, make it impossible for them to participate in decision-making. Socio-economic factors such as control of resources, access to credit facilities and poverty determine the financial freedom of women which in turn determines the level of decision-making a woman can participate in. Women's natural abilities can be used to improve the quality of decisions that women make. Government policies and legislation are necessary to engineer change, address challenges and to create an enabling environment for women to develop themselves educationally, economically and to eliminate all the cultural barriers that stand in the way of women. They are therefore a moderating variable which cannot be ignored in the analysis of factors influencing participation of women in decision-making in community-based projects in any given geographical area.

2.9 Conclusion and Summary of Gaps.

Even though the government has made efforts to provide education to all children, girls still lag behind boys, especially in college and university education. As a result, they do not possess the skills that may be required for decision-making in community-based projects.

In most cultures, women are treated as non-entities and as sex objects. They thus exist for the pleasure of men. They should only be seen and not heard; be followers and never leaders. As a result, they may not be willing to take a leading role in community-based projects.

Women face discrimination in subtle forms; which the women and the society in general may not recognize as discrimination. This makes them to feel inferior. Their femininity is questioned if they succeed in decision-making and leadership.

In community-based projects, women are so intimidated that they will let men go for the chairperson's position. The impression created is that only men can successfully manage the community-based projects.

Women do not own or control resources in the family although they contribute to the generation of the resources. As a result they lack the security needed to access self improving credit facilities. Enterprises owned by women are less lucrative because they lack the capital and skills needed to engage in the lucrative ones that men own. Women possess natural abilities that leaders in community-based projects can tap into to improve their management and success. The study attempted to address these gaps.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this section the research procedures employed in the study were explained. The procedures of how data was collected, developed, analyzed and presented were also explained. The steps involved in conducting the study were described in detail. The study utilized both descriptive and inferential analysis. Under descriptive analysis percentages, tables and frequency distribution were used while under inferential analysis, correlation and regression analysis were used to determine the relationship between dependent and independent variables.

3.2 Research design

The research used descriptive design. Orodho (2003) defines research design as the scheme, outline or plan that is used to generate answers to research problems. The major purpose of descriptive design is description of the state of affairs as it exists. Kerlinger (1969) points out that descriptive studies are not only restricted to fact findings, but may often result in the formulation of important principles of knowledge and solution to significant problems. They are more than a collection of data. They involve measurement, classification, comparison and interpretation of data. Descriptive survey which is a method of collecting information by interviewing or administering questionnaires to a sample of individuals was used.

The use of descriptive design made it possible to meaningfully describe the distribution of scores or measurements using a few indices or statistics. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. Qualitative methods provide a broad approach in understanding and giving in-depth explanations on phenomena in a natural setting (Marshal & Rossman, 1999). The quantitative methodology was employed to help in providing and analyzing raw data on survey questionnaires. The study used correlation to determine the degree of the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable. Regression analysis was used to find out whether the independent variables predict the dependent variable.

3.3 Target population

Mugenda & Mugenda (2003) defines population as the entire group of individuals, events, objects, having common observable characteristics. Target population is also defined as the people a researcher selects as respondents in the study and is vital in achieving the set objectives (Kombo & Tromp, 2006).

In Machakos central division, there are about six community-based water projects. These are Kitanga water project in Kathome, Kwa Mukonzo water project which lies between Katelembo and Kithini, Kwa Mbunga which is located between Kwa Musyoka and Tumba, Mua water project in Makyau, Kimutw'a water project which is located in Kimutw'a and Kaseve water project located at Kwa Mbuu. Kwa Mbunga water project was selected because it is still run by the community and has the greatest number of beneficiaries. Kimutw'a and Kaseve are no longer functional while Mua has been taken over by the ministry of water. Kitanga and kwa Mukonzo are still very young and the beneficiaries are few. The target population was 10 committee members, 27 community leaders and 91 beneficiaries. The selection of these respondents was due to the fact that the respondent, they had attained a certain minimum level of literacy, were willing to assist the researcher to study by voluntarily giving information and they were ready to participate in the study.

3.4 Sampling procedure

The study employed a simple random sampling technique. This is a method in which no complexities are involved (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). Sampling technique is the procedure a researcher uses to gather people, places or things to study (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). Simple random sampling technique was used to select the most informed respondents from the area.

The sample size represents 40% of the Target population and (Patton, 2002) recognizes 10% to 30% as an adequate sample in an explanatory descriptive survey design.

Table 3: Sample size

Respondents	Target population	Procedure	Sample size
Project implementers	10	10×0.4	4
Beneficiaries	91	120×0.4	36
Community leaders	27	27×0.4	10
Total	128	128×0.4	50

3.5 Data collection Instruments.

Data refers to all the information a researcher gathers for his or her study. There are two types of data: primary and secondary data. The research was conducted by collecting primary and secondary data. Primary data was collected with the help of community leaders in the target area and who are involved in water projects in the area. Pre-testing of the questionnaire was done in the other division before actual administering in the field. The data was collected using personal interview. A semi structured questionnaire was used to collect the data during the interview.

The questionnaires were in two sets. One set was administered to the beneficiaries which captured data to help in finding out the factors that influence the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in the area. Socio-economic status of the sampled households was also captured using this set of questionnaire.

The second set of questionnaire was administered on those in charge of the community-based water projects (project implementers) and in the target area to get information on their perception on factors influencing participation of women in decision –making in community-based water projects in the district. This information was used to validate the data collected using questionnaires from households.

3.5.1 Validity

According to Kothari (2009), validity refers to the extent to which a test measures what we actually wish to measure. This study employed data triangulation to ensure validity. Data triangulation involves using different sources of information in order to increase the validity of a study (patton, 2002). These sources include the stakeholders in the project such as the committee members managing the water projects, community leaders and the beneficiaries. During the analysis stage, feedback from the stakeholder groups was compared with that of the beneficiaries to determine areas of agreement as well as areas of divergence.

3.5.2 Reliability

According to the Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), reliability refers to a measure of the degree to which research instruments yield consistent results. To establish the reliability of the research instruments test-retest method was applied. This involved administering the instruments twice to the pre-test group. pre-testing the questionnaires was done with a selected sample which was not included in the actual data collection to identify and correct any irrelevant or offensive questions and techniques as emphasized by Cooper &Schindler (2003).

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

This section explains how data was collected, processed, analyzed and reported. Interviews and schedules were the main procedures of data collection. Two data collection methods and their corresponding procedures were used for both primary and secondary data.

3.6.1 Primary Data Collection Methods

Two sets of questionnaires were developed, one for those in charge of the projects (committee members), and another one for the water users (beneficiaries) as shown by Appendix 2 and 3. The questions were structured (closed-ended questions) as well as unstructured (open-ended) with the Majority being structured to make it possible to collect as much information as possible about perception on the challenges faced by women in decision-making in community-based water projects.

The questions were grouped together to address particular objectives of the study. Questions on personal information such as gender, age and education were asked.

The questionnaires were self-administered by the researcher; to ensure that the questions were not misunderstood, to assist illiterate respondents and to minimize the risk of collecting incomplete and wrong information especially when people were unable to understand the questions. This data collection procedure was considered appropriate in providing a safe basis for generalization and high accuracy. The Likert type scale was also be used to measure the attitude of the respondents to certain issues. Each questionnaire had an identification number for tracking purpose. Respondents were informed of the research for them to cooperate. A letter of transmittal was prepared. The letter briefly described the purpose, the importance and the significance of the study as well as assuring confidentiality

Once the questionnaires were ready, they were pre-tested to ascertain that the questions were properly worded and easy to comprehend. Five subjects from the two categories of the sample population; the project managers (committee members) and the project beneficiaries, were selected. The subjects involved in the pre-test were encouraged to make comments and suggestions concerning instructions; clarity and relevance of the questions. This made it possible to test for the reliability and validity of the data collection instruments.

3.6.2 Secondary Data Collection Methods

Secondary data collection involves the systematic identification, location and analysis of documents containing information related to community-based water projects. Both published and unpublished information were reviewed. Secondary data collection sources included Sessional papers, past theses, past project evaluation reports, journals, vision 2030 document, development plans and publications by bodies such as USAID, among others. The study area analysis was carried out through literature review, internet browsing, are maps analysis and field surveys. The objective was to capture general information on the area in order to develop clear understanding and insight of the context in which data was collected.

The data was collected using questionnaires having both closed and open ended questions. Ordinal, nominal and interval scale were used in data measuring to make coding and categorizing easier after the data collection.

Descriptive statistics in the form of tables, frequencies and percentages were used to establish the general characteristics of the study sample. Inferential statistics was also applied to generalize the results obtained from the sample on the whole population. In particular, correlation and regression were used to analyze the degree of relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. SPSS method of data analysis was used to analyze data.

3.8 Operationalization of Variables

An operational definition defines the exact manner in which a variable is measured (Tuckman, 1978). Table 2 indicates the types of variables and how they are measured in the course of the research.

Table 2: Operational Definition of variables.

variable	Type of variable	Indicators	Measure	Scale of measurement	Tools of analysis
Participation of women in decision-making	Dependent	Women in decision-making positions.	How many	ordinal	Descriptive
Cultural factors	Independent	Place of women in the household.	Role played in decision-making in the family	Nominal	Descriptive
		property ownership	How many own land, livestock	Ordinal	Descriptive

		Marriage and dowry	and houses. average age which girls marry	Ordinal	Descriptive
Demographic factors	Independent	Age	Number of years	Ordinal	Descriptive
		Gender	Male/female	nominal	Descriptive
Educational factors	Independent	Level of education.	Primary Secondary College University Other	Ordinal	Descriptive
Economic factors	Independent	Poverty	Types of houses	Nominal	Descriptive
		Access to credit facilities	How many have access	Nominal	Descriptive
		Enterprise ownership	Type of enterprises	Ordinal/ratio	Descriptive

Women's natural abilities	Independent	Interpersonal skills Intuitive management Creative problem solving	Frequency of use	Ratio	Descriptive
Government policy	Moderating variable	Existing policies on gender equity in education, property ownership	Number of policies	Ratio	Descriptive

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION.

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents analysis and findings of the study as set out in the research methodology. The study findings are presented on the challenges women face in their quest to participate in decision-making in projects. The data was gathered exclusively from the questionnaire as the research instrument. The questionnaire was designed in line with the objectives of the study which are to;

1. Examine the extent to which demographic factors lead to a lack of interest in participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division.
2. Assess the influence of lack of the necessary skills on the participation of women in decision-making committees that identify and allocate resources to water projects in Machakos central division.
3. Establish the impact of culture on the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division.
4. Establish the extent to which economic factors influence the participation of women in decision-making projects in Machakos central division.
5. Analyze the influence of women's inborn strengths on the quality of decision-making by women in community-based water projects in Machakos central division.

4.1.1 Response Rate.

The study targeted 50 respondents; 5 committee members (project implementers) and 45 beneficiaries of the project. All the respondents filled in and returned the questionnaire making a response rate of 100%. This was made possible by the community leaders who assisted in administering the questionnaires. The community leaders, who are members of the committees in charge of the water project, were first trained. The questionnaire was then administered to them. The questionnaires to be filled by the beneficiaries were then divided among them.

It was also made easy by the fact that the community is divided into four 'stakes' which are groupings formed for the purpose of raising funds for funerals. Each 'stake' meets on its own day and this made it easy to meet the members.

4.2 Demographic Information

The study sought to find out whether demographic factors influence the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division. These include gender, level of education and age.

Table 4.1: Gender of Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
male	16	35.5
female	29	64.5
Total	45	100

The study sought to find out the gender of the respondents. From the findings 35.5% were male, 64.5% were women. This is indicated in table 4.1.

Table 4.2 Age group.

Age group	Frequency	Percentage
15-25	11	24.4
26-35	9	20.0
36-45	15	33.3
46-55	6	13.3
Over 56	4	8.9
Total	45	100.0

This study also sought to find out the age group of the respondents. 24.4% of the respondents were aged between 15-25 years, 20% between 25-35 years, 33.3% 36-45 years, 13.3% 46-55 years and 8.9% were over 56 years. This is illustrated in table 4.2 above.

Table 4.3 Level of education

Level of education	Frequency	Percentage
Primary	11	24.4
Secondary	17	37.7
College	14	31.1
University	1	2.2
Other	2	4.4
Total	45	100.0

The study sought to find out the level of education of the respondents. 4.4% of the respondents have gone up to primary school, 37.8% up to secondary school, 31.1% up to college, 2.2% up to university level and 4.4% other levels. The results are illustrated in table 4.3.

Table 4.4 Demographic factors and participation of women in decision-making

	Frequency	Percentage
Very large extent	23	52.3
Large extent	10	22.7
Small extent	8	18.2
Very small extent	2	4.5
Undecided	2	4.5
Total	45	100.0

The study explored the extent to which demographic factors influence the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division.

73.3% of the respondents concurred that demographic factors influence the participation of women in decision-making to a large extent. This is illustrated in table 4.4 above.

4.3 Educational factors

The study sought to find out whether educational factors such as enrolment, and drop-out rate influence the level of education attained by girls, and eventually their participation in decision-making

Table 4.5 School enrollment by girls

Attendance	frequency	Percentage
Excellent	3	6.7
Very good	10	22.2
Good	27	60.0
Poor	5	11.1
Total	45	100.0

The study sought to find out the school enrolment by girls. About 88.9% of the respondents concurred that the enrolment of girls was good. This is indicated in table 4.5 above.

Table 4.6 Enrolment of girls in Primary schools, Secondary schools, Middle level colleges and University

Attendance	Primary		Secondary		College		University	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Excellent	8	17.8	4	8.9	1	2.2	2	4.4
Very good	28	62.2	4	8.9	5	11.1	2	4.4
Good	9	20.0	30	66.7	10	22.2	2	4.4
Undecided	-	-	1	2.2	-	-	-	-
Fair	-	-	6	13.3	28	62.2	13	28.9
Poor	-	-	-	-	1	2.2	25	55.6
Total	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0

The study sought to investigate the enrolment of girls at all levels of education. 100% of the respondents felt that enrolment of girls at primary school level is good. This was attributed to the free primary education offered by the government. 84.4% of the respondents concurred that enrolment of girls at secondary school level is good.

This was attributed to teenage pregnancies. 36.6% of the respondents indicated that the enrolment of girls to middle level colleges is good while only 13.3% indicated that the enrolment of girls in the Universities is good. This in turn means that majority of the girls do not acquire the level of education and skills necessary for them to participate in decision-making. This information is summarized in table 4.6

Table 4.7 Factors contributing to Dropout rate of girls

	Poverty		Early Marriage		Peer Pressure		Lack of Role models	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	24	53.3	20	44.4	26	57.8	23	51.1
Agree	18	40.0	16	35.6	14	31.1	9	20.0
disagree	2	4.4	6	13.3	2	4.4	6	13.3

Strongly disagree	1	2.2	2	4.4	2	4.4	3	6.7
Undecided	-	-	-	-	1	2.2	4	8.9
Total	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0

The study also attempted to establish the factors which influence the drop-out rate of girls from school. Some of the factors investigated were poverty, early marriage, peer pressure and lack of role models. 93.3% of the respondents indicated that poverty contributes to the drop-out rates, 80% indicated that early marriage is a contributing factor, 88.9% indicated peer pressure influenced the drop-out rate, and 71.1% indicated that lack of role models is a contributing factor. This is indicated in table 4.7.

4.4 Cultural factors

The study investigated whether cultural factors such age at which girls get married and property ownership influence the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division.

Table 4.8 Average age of marriage

Age	Frequency	Percentage
9-15	2	4.4
16-25	31	68.9
26-35	8	17.8
Over 35	4	8.9
Total	45	100.0

The study sought to find out the age at which girls get married. 4.4% indicated that girls get married between the age of 9 and 15, 68.9% indicated that girls marry between the ages of 16 and 25, 17.8% indicated the ages between 26-35 and 8.9% indicated that the age at which girls get married is over 35 years. Table 4.8 illustrates this.

Table 4.9 Factors contributing to the age at which girls get married

	Cultural factors		Poverty		Level of education	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	percentage	Frequency	percentage
Strongly agree	17	37.8	24	53.3	24	53.3
Agree	14	31.1	18	40.0	18	40
Disagree	9	20.0	-	-	-	-
Strongly disagree	3	6.7	1	2.2	1	2.2
Undecided	2	4.4	2	4.4	2	4.4
Total	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0

The study also sought to find out the factors influence the age at which girls get married. The factors investigated included cultural factors, poverty and level of education. 68.9% indicated that cultural factors influence the age at which girls get married, 93.3% indicated that poverty contributed to the age at which girls get married and 93.3% indicated that the level of education is a contributing factor. Table 4.9 summarizes this information.

Table 4.10 Level of property ownership by women

	Frequency	Percentage
Very high	6	13.3
High	7	15.6
Low	14	31.1
Very low	10	22.2
Non-existent	8	17.8
Total	45	100.0

The study also sought to investigate the level of property ownership by women. 13.3% felt it was very high, 15.6% thought it was high, 31.1% felt it was low, 22.2% felt it was very low, while 17.8% felt it was non-existent. This is illustrated in table 4.10.

Table 4.11 Factors influencing property ownership by women

trend	Say in transfer of matrimonial property		Representation in land committees	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Very large extent	7	15.6	6	13.3
Large extent	7	15.6	5	11.1
Small extent	12	26.7	13	28.9
Very small extent	19	42.2	21	46.7
Total	45	100.0	45	100.0

The study sought to establish the indicators that women participate in property ownership. These include say in the transfer of matrimonial property and representation in land bodies. Only 31.1% of the respondents indicated that women had a say in the transfer of matrimonial property and 24.4% indicated that women were represented in land committees. This information is summarized in table 4.11

4.5 Economic factors

The study aimed at establishing whether economic factors influence the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. The factors investigated were access to credit facilities, type of enterprises owned by women, and extent to which women have access to salaried employment.

Table 4.12 Level of access to credit facilities by women

	Frequency	Percentage
Excellent	5	11.1
Very good	3	6.7
Good	3	6.7
Poor	19	42.2
Very poor	15	33.3
Total	45	100.0

The study aimed at establishing the level of access to credit facilities by women Only 24.4 of the respondents indicated that it is good. Table 4.12 gives a summary of this information.

Table 4.13 Factors influencing access of credit facilities by women

	Lack of information		Lack of collateral		Types of enterprises owned by women		Ignorance	
	Frequency	percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly agree	24	53.3	18	40.0	25	55.6	18	40.0
Agree	16	35.6	21	46.7	18	40.0	21	46.7
Undecided	3	6.7	3	6.7	1	2.2	3	6.7
Disagree	2	4.4	3	6.7	1	2.2	3	6.7

Total	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0
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The study sought to establish the factors that influence the access to credit facilities by women. The factors investigated were lack of information, lack of collateral, types of enterprise owned by women and ignorance. 88.9% indicated lack of information as a contributing factor while 86.7% named lack of collateral as a factor that influences the access of credit facilities by women. 95.6% indicated that type of enterprises owned by women contribute to the level of access of credit by women while 86.7% indicated that ignorance as a contributing factor to the access of credit by women. Table 4.13 illustrates this.

Table 4.14 Types of enterprises owned by women

trend	Frequency	Percentage
Large scale	5	11.1
Medium scale	6	13.3
Small scale	18	40.0
Non-existent	16	35.6
Total	45	100.0

The study also sought to investigate the type of enterprises owned by women. 11.1% thought it is large scale, 13.3% medium scale, 40% small scale and 35.6% felt that the businesses were nonexistent. This information is summarized in table 4.14.

Table 4.15 Factors influencing the type of enterprises owned by women

	Education level		Financial strength		Lack of membership in self-help groups		Availability of market	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
Very large extent	28	62.2	25	55.6	22	48.9	21	46.7
Large extent	6	13.3	16	35.6	12	26.7	13	28.9
Undecided	1	2.2	1	2.2	3	6.7	1	2.2
Small extent	8	17.8	1	2.2	6	13.3	8	17.8
Very small extent	2	4.4	1	2.2	2	4.4	2	4.4
Total	45	100.0	45	100.0	45.0	100.0	45	100.0

The study sought to find out the factors that influence the type of enterprises owned by women. Factors investigated include level of education, financial strength, lack of membership in self-help groups and availability of market. 75.5% of the respondents indicated that educational factors contribute to the type of enterprises owned by women, 91.1% indicated financial strength as a contributing factor, 75.6% indicated lack of membership in self help groups and 75.6% indicated that availability of markets influences the type of enterprises owned by women. This is illustrated in table 4.15.

Table 4.16 To what extent do women have access to salaried employment

Trend	Frequency	Percentage
Very large extent	2	4.4
Large extent	12	26.7
Not very large extent	7	15.6
Non-existent	24	53.3
Total	45	100.0

The study also sought to find out the extent to which women participated in salaried employment. 4.4% of the respondents indicated a very that it was to a very large extent, 26.7% indicated large extent 15.6% indicated not very large extent and 53.3% indicated that it was non-existent. Table4.16 summarizes this information.

Table 4.17 Type of jobs done by women.

	Housewives		House-helps		Teaching		Mechanics		Engineering	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Very large extent	43	95.6	24	53.3	6	13.3	4	8.9	3	6.7
Large extent	2	4.4	10	22.2	15	33.3	-	-	3	6.7
Small extent	-	-	4	8.9	9	20.0	2	4.4	-	-
Very small extent	-	-	7	15.6	15	33.3	39	86.7	39	86.7
Total	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0

The study sought to establish the types of paid jobs that women did. 100% indicated that majority of the women are housewives, 85.5% indicated that most women work as house helps while 46.6% of the respondents indicated that women are employed as teachers. Only 8.9% of the respondents indicated that women are employed as mechanics and 13.3% indicated that women work as engineers. This information is shown in table 4.17.

Table 4.18 Factors influencing the type of paid jobs women do

	Lack of relevant skills		Cultural factors		Marital status		Peer pressure		View that certain jobs belong to men	
	Frequenc y	Percentag e	Frequenc y	Percentag e	Frequenc y	Percentag e	Frequenc y	Percentag e	Frequenc y	Percentag e
Strongly agree	30	66.7	18	40.0	20	44.4	16	35.6	25	55.6
Agree	13	28.9	16	35.6	17	37.8	19	42.2	14	31.1
Disagree	1	2.2	9	20.0	5	11.1	4	8.9	3	6.7
Strongly disagree	1	2.2	1	2.2	1	2.2	1	2.2	1	2.2
Undecided	-	-	1	2.2	2	4.4	5	11.1	2	4.4
Total	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0

The study also investigated factors that influence the access of salaried employment by women. 95.6% of the respondents named the lack of relevant skills, 75.6% indicated cultural factors, 82.2% indicated that marital status is a contributing factor, 77.8% indicated peer pressure and 86.7% indicated that the view that certain jobs belong to men influence the type of jobs owned by women. Table 4.18 gives summary of these findings.

Table 4.19 To what extent HIV/AIDS affect decision making by women

YES	Frequency	Percentage
Very large extent	2	40
Large extent	2	40
Small extent	1	20
Total	5	100

The study also sought to find out the extent to which HIV/AIDS affects the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos district. 80% of the respondents indicated that it influences to a large These findings are summarized in table 4.19.

4.6 Women’s natural abilities

The study sought to find out whether women’s natural abilities such as concern for people, interpersonal skills, intuitive decision-making and creative problem solving improve the quality of decisions made by women.

Table 4.20 Whether women's natural abilities contribute to quality of decisions

	Concern for people		Interpersonal Skills		Intuitive decision-making skills		Creative Problem Solving	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Strongly agree	32	71.1	21	46.7	16	35.6	29	64.4
Agree	12	26.7	22	48.9	23	51.1	12	26.7
Disagree	1	2.2	2	4.4	6	13.3	3	6.7
Strongly disagree	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2.2
Total	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0

Out of all the respondents, 97.8% indicated that concern for people improves the quality of decision-making by women, 95.6% indicated that interpersonal skills improve the quality of decisions and 86.7% indicated that intuitive decision-making skills contribute to the quality of decisions made by women. 91.1% of the respondents indicated that the creative problem solving skills possessed by women contribute to the quality of decisions that they make. These findings are illustrated in table 4.20.

4.7 Government policy

The study investigated whether the respondents were aware of any government policies on gender equity in education and property ownership.

Table 4.21 Whether respondents knew of any government policies

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	29	64.4
No	16	35.5
Total	45	100

The study sought to if the respondents knew any government policies favor gender equity in education. 64.4% said yes and 35.6% said no. The results are summarized in table 4.2 1

Table 4.22 Extent to which various government policies favor gender equity in education

	Free Primary and Secondary Education		Education for all		HELB loans	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Excellent	27	60	14	31.1	2	4.4
Very Good	11	24.4	24	53.3	5	11.1
Good	5	11.1	6	13.3	10	22.2
Poor	5	4.4	1	2.2	28	62.2
Total	45	100	45	100	45	100

95.5% of the respondents indicated that free primary and secondary education favors gender equity in education, 97.7% indicated that education for all is a factor favoring gender equity in education, and only 37.7% indicated that access to HELB loans favors gender equity in education. This is illustrated in table 4.22.

Table 4.23 Responses on policies on inheritance

	Frequency	Percentage
International conventions	1	2.2
Law on land inheritance	9	20
n/a	35	77.8
Total	5	100

Only 2.2% of the respondents listed international conventions and 20% indicated the laws in the constitution on land inheritance by girls. This is summarized in table 4.23.

4.8 Participation of Women decision-making

The study explored the level of participation of women in decision-making.

Table 4.24 Level of participation in decision-making

	Frequency	Percentage
Very high	5	11.1
High	6	13.3
Low	16	35.6
Very Low	3	6.7
Non-existent	15	13.3
Total	45	100

Only 24.4% of the respondents indicated that women are involved in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. Table 4.24 summarizes these findings.

The 2007 survey is intended to provide an overview of the current status of water supply in Machakos central division. The survey was conducted in 2007 and the findings are presented in this report. The survey was conducted in 2007 and the findings are presented in this report. The survey was conducted in 2007 and the findings are presented in this report.

Water Point	No. of respondents	Gender		Age		Education		Occupation	
		Male	Female	18-24	25-34	Below primary	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
Water Point 1	100	50	50	20	80	10	90	10	90
Water Point 2	100	50	50	20	80	10	90	10	90
Water Point 3	100	50	50	20	80	10	90	10	90
Water Point 4	100	50	50	20	80	10	90	10	90

Table 4.24: Summary of the gender and age distribution of women in household.

Table 4.25 Factors that influence participation of women in decision-making.

	Gender		Age		Literacy level		Marital Status		Economic factors		Cultural factors	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Very large extent	25	55.6	19	42.2	20	44.4	23	21	47.7	51.1	16	36.4
Large extent	13	28.9	20	44.4	21	46.7	12	26.7	16	36.4	19	43.2
Small extent	4	8.9	6	13.3	2	4.4	6	13.3	4	9.1	4	9.1
Very small extent	3	6.7	-	-	2	4.4	4	8.9	3	6.7	5	11.4
Total	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100	45	100.0

The study sought to investigate the factors that influence the participation of women in decision-making. The factors investigated are gender, age, literacy level, marital status, economic factors and cultural factors. 84.5% of the respondents indicated gender as a factor, 86.6% indicated age, 91.1% indicated literacy levels, 77.8% of the respondents indicated marital status as a factor, 84.1% indicated economic factors, and 79.6% indicated that cultural factors influence the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division. Table 25, illustrates this.

Table 4.26 Extent to which various forms of discrimination influence participation of women in decision-making

	Lack of support by men		Men's Lack of confidence in women's decisions		Assumption that women's place is in the kitchen		Assumption that women are to be seen and not heard		Men's discomfort in women's presence		Hostility by men		Sexual innuendos	
	Frequency	%	frequency	%	frequency	%	frequency	%	frequency	%	frequency	%	frequency	%
Very large extent	25	56.8	24	53.3	25	55.6	23	52.3	25	55.6	24	54.5	23	51.1
Large extent	12	27.3	11	24.4	11	24.4	11	25.0	8	17.8	9	20.5	9	20.0
Small extent	5	9.1	6	13.3	5	11.1	6	13.6	8	17.8	7	13.6	5	11.1
Very small extent	3	6.8	4	8.9	4	8.9	4	9.1	4	8.9	5	11.4	8	17.8
Total	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0	45	100.0

The study also sought to investigate the extent to which discrimination by men influences the participation of women in decision –making in water projects in Machakos district. The factors investigated are lack support by men, men's lack of confidence in women's decisions, assumption that women's place is in the kitchen, assumption that women are to be seen and not heard, men's discomfort in women's presence, hostility by men and sexual innuendos. 84.1% of the respondents indicated that women lack support from men, 77.7% indicated that men have no confidence in decisions made by women, 80% indicated that there is an assumption that the place of women is in the kitchen, 77.3% indicated that women are there to be seen and not heard, 73.4% indicated that men experience discomfort in the presence of women, 75% indicated that women face hostility from men and 71.1% sited sexual innuendos as a form of discrimination against women. This is summarized in table 4.26

Table 4.27 Regression table

Model	Un-standardized coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Significance
	B	Std error	Beta	t	
1 (constant)					
Demographic factors	.238	.036	.708	6.567	0.00
Educational factors	.321	.045	.734	7.082	0.00
Cultural factors	.273	.032	.793	8.545	0.00
Economic factors	.305	.037	.784	8.271	0.00
Women's concern for people	.441	.077	.660	5.756	0.00
Women's interpersonal skills	.324	.074	.554	4.365	0.00
Women's creative problem solving skills	.323	.043	.753	7.498	0.00

The analyzed data shows that taking all other independent variables at zero, a unit change in demographic characteristics will lead to a 0.238 increase in the participation of women in the management of community-based water projects in Machakos central division. A unit increase in educational factors leads to a 0.321 increase in the participation of women in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. A unit change in cultural factors will lead to a 0.273 increase in the participation of women in the management of community-based water projects in Machakos central division. A unit improvement in economic factors leads to a 0.305 improvement in the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. A unit increase in women's concern for people leads to a 0.441 improvement in the quality of the decisions they make. A unit improvement in women's interpersonal skills leads to a 0.324 improvement in the quality of the decisions they make. A unit improvement in women's problem-solving skills leads to a 0.0323 improvement in the quality of decisions made by women in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. The t-value and significance (p) values give a rough indication of the impact of each independent variable on the dependent variable.

A big t-value and a small p value suggest that an independent variable is having a large impact on a dependent variable. A t-value 6.657 for demographic factors indicate that demographic factors have a large impact on the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. A t-value of 7.082 for educational factors depicts a very large impact on decision-making by women, while a t-value of 8.545 for culture also depicts that culture has a very large impact on participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects. A t-value of 8.271 for economic factors shows that economic factors have a very large impact on the participation of women in decision-making in water projects, while t-value of 5.756 for women's concern for people indicates that women's concern for people has a moderate impact on the quality of decisions made by women on community-based water projects in Machakos central division. A t-value of 4.365 for women's interpersonal skills indicates that women's interpersonal skills have a weak impact on the quality of decisions made by women. A t-value of 7.498 for women's creative solving skills show that women's problem solving skills have a very large impact on the quality of decisions made by women in

community-based water projects in Machakos central division. Table 4.35 illustrates this information.

Table 4.28-Correlations table factor

Factor	Pearson correlation-significance(1-tail)
Demographic	0.834
Educational	0.734
Cultural	0.793
Economic	0.784
Women's natural abilities	0.738

** Correlations significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

N=45

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between demographic factors and participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos Central division. A correlation coefficient of 0.834 was obtained. This is an indication that there was a positive correlation between the two variables.

A Pearson product –moment of correlation was also computed to assess the relationship between Educational factors and participation of women in decision-making in Machakos central division. There is a strong positive correlation between educational factors and the participation of women I decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division as indicated by a correlation coefficient of 0.734.

A correlation coefficient of 0.793 was obtained between cultural factors and participation of women in decision-making. There is therefore a strong positive correlation between cultural factors and the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. The Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient computed to assess the relationship between economic factors and the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos Central division was 0.784.

This indicates that there is a strong positive correlation between the two variables. There is a strong positive correlation between women's natural abilities and the quality of decisions made by women in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. A correlation coefficient of 0.738 was obtained between the two variables. This is illustrated in table 4.3.6.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.1 Introduction.

This chapter presents the discussion of key data findings, conclusions drawn from the findings highlighted and the recommendations made. The conclusions and recommendations drawn were focused on addressing the objectives of this study and answering the research questions which were:

- 1) To what extent do demographic factors influence the participation of women in decision-making in Water projects in Machakos central division?
- 2) To what extent do the necessary skills contribute to the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division?
- 3) To what extent do cultural factors influence the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division?
- 4) To what extent are economic factors responsible for the low participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division?
- 5) To what extent do women's natural abilities improve the quality of decisions made by women in water projects in Machakos central division?

5.2 Summary of findings

From the findings the study established that the majority of the respondents were females. Majority of the respondents had a primary level of education.

5.2.1 Effect of Demographic factors on participation of women on decision-making

The study has established that demographic factors have a large impact on the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division. On the extent to which the various demographic factors affect participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division, the study found that age, marital status and gender affected the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division.

5.2.2 Effect of Educational factors on participation of women in decision-making.

The study revealed that educational factors have a very large impact on the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. The study found out that girls enrolled in primary schools in large numbers. This was attributed to free primary education. However, the numbers started dropping as the girls went into secondary school and middle level colleges. The numbers dwindled even further at University level. This was attributed to poverty, early marriages, peer pressure and lack of role models.

5.2.3 Effect of cultural factors on participation of women in decision-making.

The study established that cultural factors have a very large impact on the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects. The study found out that early marriages prevented women from participating in decision-making because they did not have the required level of education. The early marriages were found to be caused by cultural factors, poverty and low education levels. The study also revealed that women do not own property. This was indicated by poor representation in land committees and lack of any say in transfer of matrimonial property.

5.2.4 Effect of economic factors on participation of women on decision-making.

The study revealed that economic factors largely impact on the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. For example the study found out that women have very low access to credit facilities.

This is due to lack of information and lack of collateral since they do not own any property. Whenever women own enterprises, they are small scale which can only guarantee small loans and hence women cannot advance themselves. It has been revealed in this study that the factors contributing to women's ownership of small scale businesses are educational factors, not being members of self-help groups and lack of availability of market for their products. The study also established that very few have access to salaried employment. A large number of the women are housewives and a majority of the others work as house helps. Few women work as teachers, and very few are engaged as mechanics or engineers. This is due to lack of relevant skills, cultural factors, marital status, peer pressure and the view that certain jobs belong to men.

5.2.5 Effect of Women's natural abilities on quality of decisions they make

This study found out that women's natural abilities influence the quality of decisions made by women in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. These natural abilities include concern for people, interpersonal skills, intuitive decision-making and creative problem solving skills.

5.3 Discussion of findings.

5.3.1 Demographic Factors

The study has established that demographic factors such as gender, age and marital status, have a large impact on the participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division. These findings are consistent with what Edgar & Geare (2004) found in their study on demographics which indicates that demographic factors, especially gender, ethnicity and employment sector, does influence women's attitudes towards decision-making. Mor Barak et al. (1998) alludes that gender differences exist in attitudes of males and females. There is some evidence that older people face greater recruitment and selection barriers than younger people. (McKay, 1998) found that employers considered a person aged over 50 too old to recruit. This works against women because most of the times they venture into employment at an older age due to domestic commitments. Kirton and Greene (2000) also claimed that older employees received less training and development in the workplace, because employers thought they did not want it, and because older employees are seen as less of an investment.

5.3.2 Educational factors.

The study established that educational factors contribute a great deal to the level of participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos Central division. This is in agreement with the findings of Manuh (1998) that female illiteracy rates were over 60 per cent in 1996, compared to 41 per cent for men. This is because in many African countries, parents still prefer to send boys to school, seeing little need for education for girls. In addition, factors such as adolescent pregnancy, early marriage and girls' greater burden of household labour act as obstacles to their schooling. While most girls do not go beyond primary education, school curricula have not been guided by this reality and their content is not geared to helping girls acquire basic life skills. The curriculum also is suffused with gender biases and leads girls into stereotypical "feminine" jobs in teaching, nursing and clerical work. Few women are found in scientific or technical education where they could develop better skills to secure better paying jobs. The provision of education and training to all Kenyans is fundamental to government overall strategy (MOES&T, 2004).

The gross primary enrolment rate has fallen as low as 86.9 percent in 1999 after attaining a peak of 105.4 percent in 1989. The secondary enrolment rate also declined from 29.4 percent in 1990 to 21.5 percent in 1999. There are also large regional disparities in primary school enrolment and, by 1999 all North-eastern districts had gross enrolment rates less than 30 percent while Machakos, Embu, and Nyandarua districts enjoyed universal primary enrolment of more than 100 percent. Transition rate from primary to secondary school has been declining – an indication of increase in wastage and inefficiency in the education system. The transition rate declined from 44.60 in 1990 to 39.90 percent in 1998. There have been improvements in the net enrolment of girls at primary levels, but disparities persist in comparison with the enrolment of boys. Female enrolment numbers decrease as girls move up the education ladder. Kenya is committed to achieving gender parity by 2005 as articulated in national policies and plans. To address gender concerns in education the government is promoting friendly learning environment in schools with special focus to provision of water and sanitation. To improve participation of girls at the University, the government has lowered the entry points for girls by one point.

The Children's Act of 2001 provides for education as a right to all children has given a further impetus for girls' education. The free primary education and expansion of secondary education have created more educational opportunities which indirectly will promote girls' education.

5.3.3 Cultural Factors

The study found out that cultural factors have a large impact on the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. These findings are in agreement with Charvet (1982), who holds the view that society sees women as sexual beings and not as human beings. Women are not only constantly defined in relation to men but are defined as dependent and subordinate to them all (MC Dowell and Pringle, 1992). Women are therefore socialized to acquire those qualities which fit them into a relationship of dependence on men. These qualities include gentleness, passivity, submission and striving to please men always. Once a girl reaches puberty, all teachings are directed towards pleasing one's future husband as well as being a gentle and obedient wife. She is taught how to use her body for the benefit of the male race.

5.3.4 Economic factors

According to the findings of the study, economic factors contribute to a large extent to the low participation of women in decision-making in water projects in Machakos central division. These findings are in consistent with a FAO "synthesis report" on nine countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Congo, Mauritania, Morocco, Namibia, Sudan, Tanzania and Zimbabwe) showed that women rarely own land and when they do, their holdings tend to be smaller and less fertile than those of men. According to World Bank (2004), only 1% of land titles in Kenya are held by women while 5-6% are held jointly (Institute of Economic Affairs-Kenya, June 2008). Without control on property, women are therefore vulnerable to dispossession, and thus constrained from initiating long term projects. The bodies that govern land lack adequate procedural safeguards to protect the rights of women because: women are nearly absent from land bodies; the land disputes procedures remain biased against women; and husbands may sell matrimonial land without their wife's consent (FIDA-Kenya, 2008). Married women rarely enjoy equal rights to control, alienate, or transfer matrimonial property.

At separation or divorce, women are often unable to take away an adequate share of their matrimonial property, and are often forced to leave the matrimonial home with little more than personal effects.

It is also supported by the ILO study carried out by Stevenson and St-Onge (2005), which documented that there are three profiles of women entrepreneurs operating MSEs in Kenya, namely those in Jua Kali micro-enterprises, "very small" micro-enterprises and "small-scale" enterprises. Stevenson & St-Onge (2005) also found out that Occasionally, women "Small-scale" entrepreneurs are constrained by lack of access to finance for various reasons, including having no land/property title deeds to be used as collateral for large loans. Access to financial services is critical for economic empowerment of any population and it varies across gender. This is alluded by the population census (1999), which indicates that although women form the majority of the population in most countries they are not equitably represented in economic activities, either as employees or owner managers of businesses. This is because of their relative lack of education and training, the tendency to channel women into certain occupations, and the continuous heavy burdens of unpaid domestic work, child-bearing and child-care, which restrict the time and energy available for income-earning activities.

According to UNDP, women are two-thirds less likely than men to get waged employment, while only 3 out of 10 women in the labor force in sub-Saharan Africa are paid employees. In 1990, about 5 per cent of the female labor force worked in industry, 20 per cent in services, 23 per cent in sales, and only 6 per cent in professional, technical, administrative or managerial positions. In 2002, women formed 69 % or more of administrative & secretarial, personal service, and sales & customer service occupations. Men made up 69 % or more of managers & senior officials, skilled trades, and process, plant & machine operatives (EOC, 2003a: 1). Women's jobs often command lower wages than 'men's work,' leading to inequalities in pay and income. (EOC, 2001c: 1). Even with relative equality in levels of qualification, the gender pay gap is still in existence; female employees working full time earn on average nineteen per cent less than the average hourly earnings of male full-time employees (EOC, 2003a: 1).

5.3.5 Women's natural abilities.

According to the findings of this study, natural abilities contribute to the quality of decisions made by women in water projects in Machakos central division. These findings concur with Charlene Mitchell's *et al* (1985) review of contemporary organizational literature, in which she observes that among the characteristics that are becoming increasingly important to the success of management is women's concern for people, interpersonal skills, intuitive management and creative problem solving. Women managers may be in a better position to use the tools than men. The skills which women are expected to leave behind when they enter the field of management are finally being recognized as critical to organizational stress, long term health and viability. Feminine leaders see the world through two different lenses concurrently; hence respond to situations on both the thinking and feeling level (Shwartz, 1989). Relative to the traditional male managers, the female managers behave differently in problem solving and managing relationships. According to Morrison (1987), the feminine approach is characterized by a co-operative operating style as compared to a far more competitive masculine style of management. The feminine model proposes teamwork, approach with emphasis on quality outcome. This is in contrast to the common hierarchical, win-lose and authoritarian approach. The feminine model is premised on a marriage of rational and intuitive problem solving style, while the masculine model emphasizes exclusive reliance on a rational view of the problem. The feminine leadership model accents empathy, collaboration and high performance standards.

5.4 Conclusion

The study concludes that there is a strong positive correlation between demographic factors and participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. Demographic factors such as age, gender and marital status influence the participation of women in decision-making in Machakos central division. This is because younger women are busy with childbearing and rearing, as well as household chores. Married women are also subject to the authority of their husbands, most of whom will not allow them to participate in any activities outside the home.

There is a strong positive correlation between Educational factors and the participation of women in decision-making in Machakos central division. School attendance by girls decreases as the girls move up the education ladder. It is highest in primary school and it decreases in secondary school. In college the attendance is fair, while it is poor at the university level. The school drop-out rate for girls is high due to poverty, early marriage, adolescent pregnancy, peer pressure, and lack of role models.

According to the findings of the study, there is a strong correlation between cultural factors and the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. It has been established that the average age of marriage for most girls is between 16-25 years. This is due to cultural factors and pressure from parents for girls to get married and dowry paid on them used for educating their brothers. The level of education also influences the age at which girls get married. Poverty also pushes girls into early marriage in the hope that the new home will be better than their parents' home. Peer pressure, as well as poor parental guidance also influence the age at which girls get married.

The study also concludes that there is a strong positive correlation between economic factors and the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos central division. Property ownership by women is low and in some cases non-existent. Women have little say in the transfer of matrimonial property and even their representation in land bodies is very low due to cultural factors as well as their level of education. The types of enterprises owned by women are small scale and in some cases they are non-existent. This is because of their level of education, poverty, not being members of self-help groups and unavailability of markets for their products. Women also have poor access to credit facilities, due to lack of information, lack of collateral, ignorance, ownership of small scale businesses which cannot guarantee big loans, and unemployment which means that they have no security. The study also concludes that most women are not involved in salaried employment. Majority of them are housewives, and those who are employed mainly work as house-helpers. Very few women are involved in professions such as nursing, teaching, engineering and mechanics. This is because they lack the relevant skills, cultural factors, marital status, peer pressure, and the view that certain jobs belong to men.

It has also established that HIV/AIDS influences the participation of women in decision-making. This is because they are not only the most infected, but are also the ones who take care of the sick. According to the study there is a strong positive correlation between women's natural abilities and the quality of decisions made by women. Women have natural abilities that improve the quality of decision-making by women. These include concern for people, interpersonal skills, intuitive management and creative problem solving. These natural abilities can be harnessed to improve the management of community-based water projects in Machakos Central division and elsewhere.

It can also be concluded that respondents are aware of government policies that favor gender equity in education. It concludes that the free primary education policy favors gender equity in education. Education for all also favors gender equity in education. However, most of the respondents were not aware of the HELB loans. Very few of the respondents knew of any government policies that encourage property ownership by girls. The few who were aware knew of international conventions, as well as the law providing for inheritance by girls in the new constitution.

The study concludes that there is low participation of women in decision-making in water projects. This is due to cultural factors, demographic factors such as gender issues, marital status and age, literacy level, economic factors, and discrimination. Forms of discrimination include lack of support by men, lack of confidence in their decisions by men, assumption that their place is in the kitchen, assumption that women are there to be seen and not heard, hostility by men, discomfort by men when a woman is speaking, and sexual innuendos.

5.5 Recommendations

The study recommends that the government should look into the education of girls and provide incentives such as bursaries to the needy to ensure that girls go up to college and university levels. Government policies should also be enforced to tackle the drop-out rate of girls from school. Counseling should be adopted by schools to mitigate peer pressure, teenage pregnancies and early marriages. Girls should be properly guided on career choices to ensure that they pursue well paying careers such as medicine, engineering, law and teaching.

Cultural practices that encourage early marriage for girls should be abolished, and the parents educated on the importance of guiding their daughters. Policies that encourage gender equity in education as well as in property ownership should be adopted. The Government of Kenya, the civil society, human rights bodies and all stakeholders should embrace a policy of co-ownership of all the properties acquired by a married couple including the land, during their marriage. Co-ownership arrangements will not only enhance the family unit ensuring stability and productivity but it will also economically and socially empower women and earn them some sense of respect and confidence required for any human being to normally progress and contribute to productivity. This will also ensure women have access to some form of security in the event of accessing financial services such as loans. All partners should have equal say in the transfer of matrimonial property. Affirmative action and economic empowerment should be adopted to ensure that women are well represented in land bodies and committees governing water projects.

Women should be encouraged to participate in various economic activities in order to improve their livelihoods. These include enrolment in post-primary education, observing individual health needs and accessing productive income generating activities and/or well paying employment. They should also be sensitized on the importance of forming self help groups in order to benefit from government initiatives such as the women's fund, as well as from other organizations such as equity bank, Kenya women finance trust and Faulu Kenya.

Programmes should be designed and implemented to transform Gender Related Norms and Behaviour in Relation to Care, Work and Responsibilities. For example emphasis should be laid on methods of allocation of duties to male and female children such that from the early ages, the children are taught not to discriminate based on sex.

Awareness Campaigns and Affirmative Action should be stepped up on rights for women and policy interventions already in place targeting women. This would enhance their effective participation in the social, economic and political systems. Pro-poor policies and interventions should also target women especially in rural and marginalized areas as appropriate

5.6 Suggestions for further research

This study has reviewed the study on the factors influencing the participation of women in decision-making in community-based water projects in Machakos County. It recommends that a similar study should be carried out in other counties to establish if the same findings will be obtained. Further research is also recommended on women's natural abilities and how they can be used to improve decision-making in other projects and in management practices in general.

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APPENDIX 1: LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

Annastacia K. Kavita

P.O Box 187-90100

Machakos.

6th July 2012

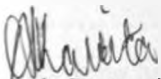
To

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

RE: Letter of Transmittal of data collection

My name is Annastacia Katumbi Kavita. I am a Master of Arts student at University of Nairobi, undertaking a research on the factors influencing the participation of women in decision-making in community-based projects. I kindly request you to provide the required information by filling the gaps and ticking as appropriate. The information you provide will be strictly for academic purposes and will be treated in confidence.

Yours faithfully,



Annastacia Katumbi Kavita.

APPENDIX 2: SAMPLE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PROJECT IMPLEMENTERS (those in charge of the community-based water projects)

Section A: Respondents' Details

(Tick appropriate box)

1. Gender: Male Female

- 2. Age group
 - 15-25 years
 - 26-35 years
 - 36-45 years
 - 46-55 years
 - Over 56 years

3. Level of education

- Primary
- Secondary
- College
- University

Others
specify.....
.....
.....

4. What is your job designation?

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

5. How long have you worked on the project

- Below 3 years
- Between 3 and 6 years
- Between 6 and 10 years
- Over 10 years

6. Do you involve women in the decision-making committees.

Yes [] No []

7. How many women are in decision-making

positions.....

.....

.....

.....

8. To what extent do women face the following forms of discrimination in their decision-making positions?

	Very large extent	Large extent	Small extent	Very small extent
Lack of support by men				
Men's lack of confidence in their abilities				
Assumptions that their place is in the kitchen				
Assumptions that they are there to be seen not heard				
Expression of discomfort by men when women contribute e.g clearing throats, fidgeting				
Hostility disguised as teasing, making belittling remarks				
Sexual innuendos				

Section B: Educational Factors

9. Are you aware of any policies that encourage gender parity in education

Yes [] No []

If yes please list them.

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

10 What do you think is the representation of girls in all levels of education? (*Tick the appropriate box*)

	Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair	Poor
University					
college					
secondary					
primary					

What factors do you think influence attainment of the college and University levels

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

11. What do you think is the drop-out rate of girls from the school system.

- Very high []
- High []
- Moderate []
- Low []
- Very low []

Section C: Cultural Factors

12. What do you think is the average age at which girls in this area get married?

- 1. Above 35 years []
- 2. 26-35 years []
- 3. 16-25 years []
- 4. 9-15 years []

What factors do you think influence the average age at which girls married? List them on a scale of 1-5 with 1 being the most affecting and 5 the least affecting.

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

13. To what extent do girls and married women face discrimination in property ownership in the following areas.

	Very large extent	Large extent	Small extent	Very small extent
Land ownership ie holding title deed				
Transfer of matrimonial property				
Representation in land bodies				
Say in sale of matrimonial properties				

List other forms of discrimination that women face in their quest to share in the family property, on a scale of 1-5 with 1 being the most common and 5 the least common.

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

14. To what extent do you think the following factors affect the participation of women in decision-making projects in Machakos central division?

	Very large extent	Large extent	Small extent	Very small extent
Inadequate clean water				
Malaria				
Respiratory diseases				
Maternal and infant mortality				
Female genital mutilation				
HIV/AIDS				
Infertility				

Section D: Economic Factors

16. What type of houses are prevalent in this region?

1. Stone houses []
2. Brick houses []
3. Mud houses []
4. Grass thatched houses []

What factors do you think influence the type of houses that are most prevalent in the region?

Please list on a scale of 1-5 with 1 being the strongest reason and 5 the weakest reason.

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

17. What do you think is the level of access to credit facilities by women in the region (*Tick the appropriate box*).

- Very high []
- High []
- Moderate []
- Low []
- Very low []

What factors do you think influence the access to credit facilities in this region? List them on a scale of 1-5 with 1 being the strongest reason and 5 the weakest.

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

18. What type of enterprises do women in this community engage in?

- Large scale []
- Medium []
- Small []

What factors do you think influence the type of enterprises owned by women? List them on a scale of 1-5 with 1 being the strongest reason and 5 the weakest reason.

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

19. To what extent do you think women participate in salaried employment in this region?

Very large extent []

Large extent []

Small extent []

Very small extent []

What factors do you think influence the participation of women in salaried employment? List them on a scale of 1-5 with 1 being the most affecting and 5 the least affecting.

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

Section E: Women's natural factors

To what extent do the following factors influence the quality of decisions made by women in the water-based projects?

	Very large extent	Large extent	Small extent	Very small extent
Concern for people				
Interpersonal skills				
Intuitive Management				
Creative problem solving				

Section F: Government policy

20. Are you aware of any policies that encourage gender equity in education?

Yes [] No []

If yes list some

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

21. Are you aware of any policies that improve access of women to credit facilities?

Yes [] No []

If yes list them

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

22. Are you aware of any policies on inheritance and property ownership by women

Yes [] No []

If yes list them

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

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Section G: Participation of women in decision-making in community-based projects.

23. To what extent do you involve women in decision-making committees

Very large extent []

Large extent []

Small extent []

Very small extent []

24. To what extent do the following factors influence the participation of women in decision-making .

	Very large extent	Large extent	Small extent	Very small extent
Educational factors				
Cultural factors				
Economic factors				
Demographic factors				

APPENDIX 3: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR BENEFICIARIES OF WATER PROJECTS.

Section A-Biodata

1. Gender

Male [] Female []

2. Age group (*Tick appropriate box*)

15-25 []

26-25 []

36-45 []

46-55 []

Over 56 years []

3. Level of education (*Tick appropriate box*)

Primary []

Secondary []

College []

University []

Other []

Section B - Educational factors

4. How is the school attendance by girls in the region (*Tick the appropriate box*)

Excellent [] Very good [] Good [] Poor []

5. On a scale of 1-5, with 1 being the most common factor and 5 being the least common factor, list the factors affecting the attendance of school by girls.

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

Section C - Cultural factors

6. What is the average age at which girls get married? (tick the appropriate box)

9-15 years []

16-25 years []

26-35 years []

Over 35 years []

7. What factors influence the average age at which girls get married? On a scale of 1-5, with 1 being the most common factor, and 5 the least common factor list them.

1.....

2.....

3.....

4.....

5.....

8. Do you have access to clean water?

Yes [] No []

If yes name the type of water sources and their location in the region

1.....

2.....

3.....

9. Are there adequate health facilities in the region?

Yes [] No []

How accessible are the facilities?

Very accessible [] Accessible [] Not accessible []

10. What do you think is the level of property ownership by women in the region i.e. Land, livestock and houses.

Very high []

High []

Low []

Very low []

What factors do you think influence property ownership by women in the region. Please list them on a scale of 1-5 with 1 being the strongest reason and 5 the weakest reason..

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

Section D - Economic factors

10. How can you rate the access of credit facilities by women in the region?

Excellent [] Very good [] Good [] poor [] Very poor []

What factors influence access to credit facilities by women? On a scale of 1-5 , with 1 being the strongest factor and 5 the weakest, list them.

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

11. What types of enterprises are owned by women?

Large scale [] Medium scale [] Small scale []

What factors influence the type of enterprises owned by women. On a scale of 1-5, with 1 being the strongest and 5 the weakest, list them.

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

12. To what extent do girls and women have access to salaried employment?

Very large extent [] Large extent [] Not very large extent []

13. To what extent are women involved in the following occupations?

	Very large extent	Large extent	Small extent	Very small extent
Housewife				
House help				
Nursing				
Teaching				
Engineering				
mechanics				

13. What factors influence the type of salaried jobs girls and women are involved in? List them starting with the strongest to the weakest.

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

Section E- Demographic factors

14. What do you think is the level of participation in decision-making by women in the family?

(Tick the appropriate box)

Very high [] High [] low [] Very high []

To what extent do the following demographic factors influence the participation of women in decision-making in the family.

	Very large extent	Large extent	Small extent	Very small extent
Gender				
Age				
Literacy level				
Marital status				
poverty				

Section F- Women's natural abilities

17. To what extent do the following natural abilities improve their quality of decision-making by women?

	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Concern for people				
Interpersonal skills				
Intuitive management				
Creative problem solving				

Section I - Government Policy

18. Do you know of any government policies that favor gender equity in education?

Yes [] No []

To what extent do the following factors favor gender equity in Education

	Excellent	Very good	Good	Poor
Free primary education				
Education for all policy				
Access to HELB loan				

19. To what extent do the following factors influence women's access to credit facilities

	Very large extent	Large extent	Moderate extent	Small extent	Very small extent
Lack of information					
Lack of collateral due to poverty					
Ignorance					
Small businesses that cannot service loans.					

20. Do you know of any policies that encourage ownership of property such as land by girls and women?

Yes [] No []

If yes list them

- 1.....
- 2.....
- 3.....
- 4.....
- 5.....

21 To what extent do the following factors influence the participation of women in decision-making in water projects?

	Very large extent	Large extent	Small extent	Very small extent
Educational factors				
Cultural factors				
Economic factors				
Demographic factors				

22. To what extent do women experience the following forms of discrimination during their participation in decision-making

	Very large extent	Large extent	Small extent	Very small extent
Lack of support by men				
Men's lack of confidence in their abilities				
Assumptions that their place is in the kitchen				
Assumptions that they are there to be seen not heard				
Expression of discomfort by men when women contribute e.g clearing throats, fidgeting				
Hostility disguised as teasing, making belittling remarks				
Sexual innuendos				