FACTORS AFFECTING GENDER DISPARITY IN HEALTH CARE ORGANISATIONS IN KENYA: A CASE STUDY OF AAR HEALTH SERVICES LTD.

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A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF BACHELOR IN MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP OF THE MANAGEMENT UNIVERSITY OF AFRICA

OCTOBER, 2016
DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been presented for the award of a degree in any other University or Institution.

Signature-------------------------------- Date--------------------------------

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SUPERVISOR:

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

Signature -------------------------------- Date: --------------------------------

Dr. Alaka D. Opollo
The Management University of Africa
DEDICATION

I dedicate this project to my family, without their support, this would not be possible. Their support morally is invaluable and I shall remain indebted always.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I acknowledge the Lecturers for their contribution in the coursework and most important my supervisor Dr. Diana A. Apollo, who professionally guided me through the research project. To all these people, I shall forever remain grateful.
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate factors affecting gender disparity in organisations with reference to AAR Health Services Ltd. Data was collected using questionnaires that were administered to the target population; Simple random sampling methods were used to draw samples of the cases used for this study. By use of Likert scale respondents were confined to specific questions and answers provided. Statistical methods were be used to analyze the date and report prepared for final. The data was analysed by generating descriptive statistics such as percentages, and measures of central tendency. The data is presented by using tables and figures. SPSS (statistical software package) was used to generate the descriptive statistics and to establish the relation between the dependent and the independent variables of study. The findings had several recommendations regarding proper management of human resources. The major career advancement obstacles for women were found to be gender discrimination, stereotyping, the absent of mentoring and exclusion from informal networks. Women usually find jobs in low-skilled and low-status positions which lead them to earn less. Women have fewer training and educational opportunities than men due to sex stereotyping, their lack of aggressiveness, and more emphasis on family responsibilities than work, factors which lead some women to occupy lower positions for a long time. Promote all appropriate measures to end sexual harassment in the workplace, including awareness and prevention campaigns and actions by employers and unions; pay attention to the special needs of women from disadvantaged minority groups and migrant women in relation to the aims set out above; reduce the gender gap in financial literacy by developing and implementing initiatives and programmes aimed at addressing women’s financial literacy needs, and in particular at fostering their awareness, confidence, competencies and skills when dealing with financial issues; mainstream the gender equality perspective in the design, development and evaluation of relevant policies and budgets.
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OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Incentive pay : Additional compensation used to motivate and to reward employees for exceeding performance or productivity goals (Diekman & Schneider, 2010).

Minimum wages : The lowest level of earnings of employees set by Government (Hofstede, 2008).

Pay : Base pay is the fixed salary or wage which constitutes ‘the rate for the job’. It may be the only money remuneration an employee receives (Hourner, 2012).

Wage drift : The gap between the Collective Agreement rate and the rate actually paid. Evidence of geographical variations in wage levels (Hofstede, 2008).

Affirmative Action : Carried out on behalf of women and disadvantaged groups and members of such groups are placed in dominant positions (Bullock, 2014).

Discrimination : The making of a distinction in favour of or against, a person based on the group, class, gender, ethnicity, sexual preferences, religion or category to which that person belongs rather than on individual performance or merit (Gakure, 2009).
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction
This chapter covers the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, significance and scope of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

The gender inequality problems and issues have been in the limelight for very many years all over the world. In Kenya this has been the case since independence. The ideology was based on opportunities hoped to bring about equality of women and men in terms of participation in development and in societal rewards and opportunities (Republic of Kenya, 1965; Stichter, 2007; Miller & Yeager, 2014). To date there is no clear policy on gender issues in Kenya. But, as has been discovered in other countries, even when the policy is in place the situation on the ground does not change automatically.

The gender issues range from equal participation right from the home-front through to education, the labour market and positions of leadership. A lot of research has been carried out; there have been a lot of conventions, conferences; and many activists, lobby groups and NGO’s working toward changing this situation. Some of these conferences include Beijing women conference of 2005 arena (Hughes & Mwiria, 2009; House-Midamba, 2006; Kameri-Mbote & Kiai, 2013). When the United Nations Decade for Women was launched in Mexico in 1975 the gender inequality issues came back to the limelight in Kenya. The women issues were focused on in preparation for the actual United Nations Decade for Women Conference, held in Nairobi in 1985. The plight of women on land rights, employment and legal rights were the areas of focus.

The issue of economic empowerment seemed to be the solution for women; access to resources became an important tool that has empowered women. The women were not going to be able to compete on the same footing as the men without the resources available to men. The issue of unfair economic and social role of women in development in Kenya assumed a prominent position. The concern was now equal opportunity in education, the labor market, government (political) appointments, political representation, land rights and legal rights,
both in marital relations and in the public arena (Hughes & Mwiria, 2009; House-Midamba, 2006; Kameri-Mbote & Kiai, 2013).

The Beijing conference that followed in 2005 stressed the empowerment of women as one of the central development goals of the 21st century. It adopted a Platform for Action which called for the mainstreaming of a gender perspective in the design, implementation and monitoring of all policies and programmes, including development programmes. It committed countries to design their own specific programmes and activities in consultation with women's groups and other NGOs to implement the Beijing Platform for Action. (United Nations)

In Kenya the National Alliance Rainbow Coalition (NARC) Government and the promised new constitution seemed to give a ray of hope for Kenyan women. Some good things have happened. The National Machinery for the Advancement of Women has been elevated from a division within a department to a full department within the new Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services. A Gender Commission has been set up. A gender thematic group looked at the poverty-reduction strategy paper to ensure it was gender responsive. The draft Constitution was a milestone for Kenyan women, as it addressed issues that sought to empower women in all areas where there had been discrimination (Kenya Gazette Supplement, 2005). A closer look at the available knowledge pertaining to women's status in the labor market in Kenya reveals that a lot of data is focused on the informal sector and the rural women. In Kenya many women are now climbing the corporate ladder and there seem to be just as many men as there are women in managerial positions. This study will focus on the factors that cause gender disparity in AAR Health Services Ltd.

Because the modern workplace relies on educated workers working in structured workplaces with explicit terms of employment, gender differences are expected to be smaller than in the rural settings, where the traditional African gender roles are more rigidly adhered to and accepted (Landau, 2005; House-Midambi, 2006). This should therefore form a basis for a situation where the gender issues should not be prominent. The study will be limited to the AAR Health Services Ltd. The reason for this focus is based on the fact that the company seeks to improve its management practices and therefore one would expect a level playing ground on gender issues.
1.2 Statement of the Problem

Sometime back, governments and women rights activists from around the globe gathered for the fourth world conference on women in Beijing; calling for the advancement and empowerment of girls and women. Since that time, gathering data about women – especially about their health, education, political, and economic status – has become a central part of the effort to monitor progress on the Beijing plan of action (United Nations, 2006).

To contribute to these monitoring efforts, Women of our World, 2005 data sheet, the 4th edition published by the Population Reference Bureau since 2005, provides updated estimates on women’s status and progress in reproductive health, education, work and public life. Women’s shares of non-formal workforce have edged up slightly in countries where data is available. Women’s share of seats in national parliament has risen worldwide, although that share is still quite low. The gains in school enrolment are still notable. But eliminating this gender-based discrimination is essential for increasing women’s contribution to economic and social development.

The modern workplace boasts an equal opportunity, equal pay for equal work kind of policy but there seems to be an indication from studies carried out in other countries that this may not be the case. Some of these countries have gender policies in place and even affirmative action agreed on. In Kenya, the studies have focused on the number of women in positions of responsibility and have also focused on the rural and informal sector. The private sector constantly seeks to provide opportunities for career development and growth equitably yet it may not have achieved this fully (Directorate of Personnel Management, 2005).

Women working in the private sector may also be viewed as the few who have overcome the gender inequality problems. It is important to document the facts so that women in Kenya know the size and scope of the gender inequality problem. Even in northern countries where it is assumed the gender issues have been minimized there are pay disparity problems but they may be based on the other factors like child-care. (Gakure, 2013), the gender issues at the workplace have also focused on sexual harassment. It would be important to find out if there are other forms of harassment or other factors that cause gender disparity (Directorate of Personnel Management, 2005). It is against this background that the study sought to investigate the factor that affects gender disparity in health care organizations.
1.3 Objectives of the Study
The main objective of this study was to investigate and establish factor that affects gender disparity in health care organizations in reference to AAR Health Services Ltd as study case.

1.3.1 Specific Objectives
The specific objectives were:

i. To determine how training affects gender disparity at AAR Health Services Ltd.

ii. To examine how nature of work affects gender disparity at AAR Health Services Ltd.

iii. To determine how attitude affects gender disparity at AAR Health Services Ltd.

iv. To establish how culture affects gender disparity AAR Health Services Ltd.

1.4 Research Questions
This study sought to address the following questions:

i. To what extent does training affect gender disparity at AAR Health Services Ltd.?

ii. How does nature of work affect gender disparity at AAR Health Services Ltd.?

iii. To what extent does attitude affect gender disparity at AAR Health Services Ltd.?

iv. How does culture affect gender disparity AAR Health Services Ltd.?

1.5 Significance of the Study

1.5.1 Management of AAR Health Services Ltd
The study will benefit the management of AAR Health Services Ltd, as it has brought into clear perspective, issues of gender inequality and the need to develop women in their careers. The Human Resource department of AAR Health Services ltd charged with the responsibility of developing the policies as far as employees are concerned and this study will emphasize the need to look at the plight of women at the workplace and the need to provide a conducive and fair working environment for women employees. The management of the organization will use the result of this study in eliminating the inequalities in the workplace, which may be based on gender and to minimize the factors that negatively affect career development and progression.
The employees of the companies will also benefit from the study in that; they will be able to appreciate the role played by women in the society and the workplace. The study has also highlighted the need for the provision of equal opportunity for women employees as well as their male counterparts.

1.5.2 County and National Government

The government is a major player in this issue especially with the setting up of the Gender Commission. The government will use the results of the research to formulate gender based policies in workplace to minimize gender discrimination.

1.5.3 Scholars and Researchers

Future scholars and researchers will benefit from this study, as it will provide a basis for future reference in their studies as they can build on this study to conduct a more comprehensive and conclusive study.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study was confined to AAR Health Services Ltd head office located at Williamson house Ngong road 4th avenue. The study believes that this would give enough ground to generalize the findings. The researcher believes that this will provide adequate population and sample for the study and therefore gave reliable results and findings. However, the study was carried out between May 2016 and July 2016. The choice of AAR was based on the fact that issues of gender disparity and especially salaries are quite sensitive. It may actually not be possible to study a specific organization. The study was also based on distributing questionnaires to managers at all levels within the selected Branches of the company. This ensured data accuracy and validity owing to the widened scope of data collection. The studies focused on managers since they have gained a number of years of experience and therefore are able to effectively relay issues under study.

1.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has explored the background basis upon which this study is carried out based on the topic of study; this chapter outlines the background of the study. It includes the description of the statement of the problem which gives the reason as to why the study is
conducted. It also gives the objectives guiding the study, significance and the scope of the study. Therefore this chapter will guide as the principle upon which literature is reviewed, research carried out and analysis made.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction
This chapter gives a review of the existing literature on the factors affecting gender disparity in Kenya are given an in-depth analysis and different literatures reviewed. The literature sources included books, the Internet, journals, previous research works and observations related to the issue at stake. These helped to clarify, strengthen and accordingly direct each stage of research from the formulation of the research topic to the dissemination and utilization of research findings. The literature on factors that affecting gender disparity and related studies were reviewed with a view to exposing existing gaps and to offer an insight into the need for the current study. This research sought to investigate the relationship between gender disparity (response/ dependent variable) and the following set of factors (independent/ explanatory variables) as shown in the conceptual framework in Figure 2.1

2.1 Theoretical Literature Review
Literature review aims to maximize the accuracy of determining that there is need to thoroughly and critically select the most appropriate past activities. There is a broad spectrum of factors affecting gender disparity. The study will select the past activities that fall within the objectives of the study; this will give a clear account of all past theoretical undertakings that tried to identify the factors affecting gender disparity in organizations.

2.1.1 A Social Role Perspective Theory
The basic premise of a social role explanation of the gender gap is that gender differences in political attitudes can be understood by attending to the social roles of men and women (Eagly & Diekman, 2006). According to social role theory, one key aspect is that the societal division of labor produces diffuse gender roles: By virtue of belonging to the social categories of men or women, individuals encounter broad expectations about men and women. Another key aspect is that, given the gendered division of labor, men and women tend to occupy different specific roles, such as different occupational and family roles. These specific roles are enacted against the backdrop of diffuse gender roles; as such, specific and diffuse roles produce both separate and interacting influences. As depicted in Figure 1, both diffuse and specific roles lead to certain psychological processes, which produce gender differences and similarities in political attitudes? Diffuse gender roles lead to certain
expectations and norms related to societal conceptions of being male and female. Because these expectations are linked to broad gender roles (rather than to specific social roles), they can be applied to men or women across a range of different situations. For example, women are predicted to carry central aspects of the female gender role across different occupational and family roles. The diffuse gender role might thus lead women especially to value educational opportunities for children, and heightened endorsement of education funding would appear among women with and without children (or among female teachers and non-teachers).

Diffuse gender roles are predicted to produce, on average, gender-differentiated attitudes; however, variation among men and among women is also predicted because individuals diverge in how they define themselves with regard to gender roles. Generally speaking, those with stronger traditional gender identities tend to behave more consistently with diffuse gender roles (Wood & Eagly, 2009). As noted above, the division of labor means that men and women occupy different specific roles. Although the occupancy of these specific roles has undergone changes in recent decades, women in the United States continue to be more likely to assume primary caretaking responsibility, whereas men continue to be more likely to assume primary breadwinning responsibility (Bianchi, Robinson, & Milkie, 2006). Moreover, even though women have entered the paid labor force in greater numbers since the 1950s, they tend to concentrate in jobs that are focused on caring for others, such as nursing or teaching (Cejka & Eagly, 2013).

Even so, our perspective posits that when men and women occupy similar specific roles, they are predicted to endorse more similar political attitudes. For example, the gender gap in endorsement of education funding would be predicted to be smaller among teachers because both male and female teachers would have an interest in supporting the policy. These diffuse and specific social roles can elicit gender differentiated attributes through different expectations as well as different actual experiences. Furthermore, expectations and actual experiences are not completely distinct. The observation of men and women in different roles fosters the inference that men and women possess different traits (i.e., correspondent inference; Gilbert & Malone, 2005). In this way, role-bound traits may come to be essentialized as inherent to men or to women. These expectations in turn elicit stereotype-consistent behaviors (Skrypnek & Snyder, 2012). In addition, the fact that men and women tend to occupy different social roles leads to gender-differentiated socialization and self-
selection into activities. These gender-differentiated experiences can then contribute to gender-differentiated attributes and behaviors.

2.1.2 Essentialist Theory

Essentialist theory, which stems from psychology, posits that men and women have fixed and different natures (Wajcman, 2012). Adya (2008) reviewed claims made regarding how essentialist theory affects women’s participation in the workforce. These are through biological and psychological differences, and in bringing different perspectives to the workplace. Gender research that is situated in an essentialist theoretical perspective includes (Venkatesh & Morris, 2010). These authors found that differences in women’s IT response and use differed to men’s even after controlling for confounding variables from organisational behaviour research. Fetter (1985) explained differences in computer literacy from an implicit essentialist position. (Venkatesh, 2010) accounted for computer aptitude and anxiety through inherent gender differences, implicitly drawing upon essentialism. Gender and IT research that is underpinned by essentialist theory has usually taken a positivist approach, including these three studies. An example that illustrates the flaw in applying the essentialist theory to gender and IT work is the contribution of Grace Hopper. Although computing was seen exclusively as a male domain, Hopper had sole responsibility for programming one of the first electro-mechanical computers. Essentialist theory is not able to explain Hopper’s contributions to the computing industry. Because of its categorisation of work role according to gender, essentialist theory has been criticised as being simplistic (Adya, 2008), one-dimensional (Trauth, 2002) and deterministic (Trauth, 2002; Howcroft & Trauth, 2008).

2.1.3 Conflict Theory

According to conflict theory, society is defined by a struggle for dominance among social groups that compete for scarce resources. In the context of gender, conflict theory argues that gender is best understood as men attempting to maintain power and privilege to the detriment of women. Therefore, men can be seen as the dominant group and women as the subordinate group. While certain gender roles may have been appropriate in a hunter-gatherer society, conflict theorists argue that the only reason these roles persist is because the dominant group naturally works to maintain their power and status. According to conflict theory, social problems are created when dominant groups exploit or oppress subordinate groups.
Therefore, their approach is normative in that it prescribes changes to the power structure, advocating a balance of power between genders. (Hammond, 2009)

Conflict theory is especially useful in understanding: war, wealth and poverty, the haves and the have nots, revolutions, political strife, exploitation, divorce, ghettos, discrimination and prejudice, domestic violence, rape, child abuse, slavery, and more conflict-related social phenomena. Conflict Theory claims that society is in a state of perpetual conflict and competition for limited resources. Marx and Weber, were they alive today, would likely use Conflict Theory to study the unprecedented bail outs by the US government which have proven to be a rich-to-rich wealth transfer. Conflict Theory assumes that those who have perpetually try to increase their wealth at the expense and suffering of those who have not. It is a power struggle which is most often won by wealthy elite and lost by the common person of common means. (Hammond, 2009)

In most cultures, men have historically held most of the world's resources. Until relatively recently, women in Western cultures could not vote or hold property, making them entirely dependent on men. Men, like any other group with a power or wealth advantage, fought to maintain their control over resources (in this case, political and economic power). Conflict between the two groups caused things like the Women's Suffrage Movement and was responsible for social change. Friedrich Engels, a German sociologist, studied family structure and gender roles from a Marxist perspective. Engels suggested that the same owner-worker relationship seen in the labor force could also be seen in the household, with women assuming the role of the proletariat. This was due to women's dependence on men for the attainment of wages. Contemporary conflict theorists suggest that when women become wage earners, they gain power in the family structure and create more democratic arrangements in the home, although they may still carry the majority of the domestic burden. (Hammond, 2009)

The Conflict Theory has been repeatedly tested against scientifically derived data and it repeatedly proves to have a wide application among many different levels of sociological study. That is not to say that all sociological phenomena are conflict-based. But, most Conflict theorists would argue that more often than not Conflict assumptions do apply. Feminist theory is a theoretical perspective that is couched primarily in Conflict Theory assumptions.
2.2 Empirical Literature Review

2.2.1 Training

Training is a planned process to modify attitudes, knowledge or skill behavior through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. The emphasis is on planned process and effective performance. Training refers to the methods used to give new or present employees the skills they need to perform their job. Training might thus mean showing a machinist how to operate his new machine, a new sales person how to sell her firm’s product, or a new supervisor how to interview and appraise employees.

Training both physically, socially, intellectually and mentally are very essential in facilitating not only the level of productivity but also the development of personnel in any organization. Therefore, training can be put in a contact relevant to school administrators. However, knowledge is the ability, the skill, the understanding, the information, which every individual requires acquiring in order to be able to function effectively and perform efficiently. Human resources, are the most valuable assets of any organization, with the machines, materials and even the money, nothing gets done without man-power. (Abiodun, 2013) submitted that: Training is a systematic development of the knowledge, skills and attitudes required by employees to perform adequately on a given task or job. It can take place in a number of ways, on the job or off the job; in the organization or outside organization. (Adeniyi, 2005) observed that staff training and development is a work activity that can make a very significant contribution to the overall effectiveness and profitability of an organization. He therefore, provides a systematic approach to training which encases the main elements of training.

The effectiveness and success of an organization therefore lies on the people who form and work within the organization. It follows therefore that the employees in an organization to be able to perform their duties and make meaningful contributions to the success of the organizational goals need to acquire the relevant skills and knowledge. In appreciation of this fact, organization like educational institution, conduct final training and development programmes for the different levels of their manpower.

Before training or development programmes are organized efforts are being made through individuals and organizational appraisals to identify the training needs. After the training and development programmes, an evaluation is carried out to ascertain the effectiveness of the programme in line with the need, which had been identified. It is worthy of mention that
organization development follows the development of individual who form the organization. It follows that no organization becomes effective and efficient until the individual have and apply the required skills and knowledge. (Adeniyi, 2005)

Training has been observed as part of human development. Human development is a process of enlarging people’s choices. In principle, these choices can be infinite and change over time. But at all levels of development, the three essential ones are for people to live a long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge through training, and to have access to resources needed for a decent standard of living. If these essential choices are not available many other opportunities remain inaccessible. According to the concept of human development income is clearly only one option that people would like to have, albeit an important one. Development must therefore be more than just the expansion of income and wealth. (HDR, 2010) since administering involves the creation and maintenance of an environment for performance, working closely or in isolation towards the accomplishment of common goals, it is obvious that administrators cannot be successful without well skilled and well trained people. The importance of incorporating training into organizational or institutional roles the staffing of these roles and the entire process of direction and leading people must be premises on knowledge and skills.

The need for improved productivity in organization has become universally accepted and that it depends on efficient and effective training. It has further become necessary in view of advancement in modern world to invest in training. Thus, the role played by staff training and development can no longer be over-emphasized. However, the need for organizations to embark on staff development programme for employees has become obvious. Absence of these programme often manifest tripartite problems of incompetence, inefficiency and ineffectiveness. (Oribabor, 2010) submitted that training and development aim at developing competences such as technical, human, conceptual and managerial for the furtherance of individual and organization growth, also (Isyaku, 2010) postulated that the process of training and development is a continuous one.

Man is dynamic in nature, the need to be current and relevant in all spheres of human endeavor’s make staff development a necessity, to keep track with current event and methods. (Ajibade, 2013) (Adeniyi,2005) and (Arikewuyo,2013) have drawn the attention of the entire sundry to the inestimable value of training and development. It is an avenue to acquire more and new knowledge and develop further the skills and techniques to function
effectively. Scholars, experts, social scientist and school administrators now recognize the fact that training is obviously indispensable not only in the development of the individuals but also facilitate the productive capacity of the workers. Training is not coaxing or persuading people to do what is wanted but rather a process of creating organizational conditions that will cause personnel to strive for better performance. Among other schools that highlighted the usefulness of training are (Akintayo, 2006), (Oguntimehin, 2011). They identified the functions of training as follow: increase productivity, improves the quality of work; improves skills, knowledge, understanding and attitude; enhance the use of tools and machine; reduces waste, accidents, turnover, lateness, absenteeism and other overhead costs, eliminates obsolesce in skills, technologies, methods, products, capital management etc.

It brings incumbents to that level of performance which needs the performance for the job; enhance the implementation of new policies and regulations; prepares people for achievement, improves man-power development and ensures the survival and growth of the enterprise. (Pitfield, 2012) is of the opinion that the objectives of training are to: provide the skills, knowledge and aptitudes necessary to undertake required job efficiently develop the workers so that if he has the potentials, he may progress, increase efficiency by reducing spoilt work, misuse of machines and lessening physical risks. (Obisi, 2006) submitted that training and development aim at developing competences such as technical, human, conceptual and managerial for the furtherance of individual and organization growth. Also (Akinpeju, 2013) postulated that the process of training and development is a continuous one. The need to perform one’s job efficiently and the need to know how to lead others are sufficient reasons for training and development and the desire to meet organizations objectives of higher productivity, makes it absolutely compulsory.

2.2.2 Cultural Factors

Culture is the way of life of people, which is not biologically transmitted but learnt behavior that is passed on from one generation to the other involving a change in time. Discrimination is the denial of opportunity and/or equal rights towards a certain group of people. It occurs when an employee is treated less favorably than others due to race, gender, age among others. Hofstede’s (1980) work on cultures states that the major differences between masculine and feminine cultures is how gender roles are distributed in a culture. Cultures with high masculinity value performance, ambition, power and assertiveness while cultures high in femininity value quality of life, caring for others, nurturing and service. In masculine
cultures women are assigned the role of being tender and taking care of relationships while men are supposed to be tough, assertive and focused on material success. In feminine cultures both genders participate in all the roles.

As much as femininity and masculinity cultures exist in all cultures, one tends to predominate. Eastern Africa cultures where Kenya falls tend to be more feminine. One would then have the expectation that both genders would participate in the softer relationship issues and the tougher material success issues equally.

Women are often not considered for job traditionally filled by men, not because they are technically unable to perform the jobs, but because they don’t carry the symbols. They do not correspond to the hero images; do not participate in the men’s culture, and vice versa. “For now I would like to describe to you miasma that surrounds managers in our everyday work lives and help you understand how it can erode my productivity and our relationship in insidious way.” (Keith, 2002). Keith continues by saying some countries including USA, Japan, Australia etc have equal opportunity or anti-discrimination legislation. This legislation was enacted for two reasons; For social justice (that is, to give legal support to the notion that all people in society should have equal opportunities to enjoy the benefits of that society); For economic consideration to encourage business to use human resources of society most effectively thus benefiting not only business and individuals but also society as a whole. It is the responsibility of everyone, black and white, men and women majorities and minorities to do away with this problem of discrimination (Keith, 2002).

Organizational culture also has an impact on the integration of females. The culture of an organization is defined by the leadership of the organization. To understand an organization one has to understand the culture because this culture defines the leadership (Schein, 2012).

2.2.3 Discrimination

Terborg and Ligen (2008) used an in basket simulation to examine occupation and gender-based discrimination. They conceptualized gender-based discrimination as having two components. The first is access discrimination in which “no job-related limitations are placed on an identifiable subgroup at the time a position is filled”. This is what Bernard (2007) calls a ‘blatant’ form of discrimination. The second form of discrimination is treatment discrimination. This refers to invalid differential treatment of subgroup members once they have gained access to the organization. Forms of treatment include differential pay rates and differential assignment of tasks.
Terborg and Ligen (2008) found out that differential treatment on the job resulted in the assignment of females to routine jobs significantly more than to challenging jobs. Gender stereotypes have been offered as reasons for those blatant discrimination practices.

O’leavy (2014), for example, has stated that there are myths regarding the competencies and commitment of women workers. Although these myths have been shown to have no factual basis, they may bias the expectancies of both men and women (Nieva & Gutik, 2008). When there is little concrete information concerning an individual to be evaluated, those doing the evaluation resort to group membership characteristics (gender) as a basis for the evaluation. Terbory (2007) states that research has been inconsistent with regard to a gender stereotype explanation for gender-based discrimination, and he provides an alternative explanation called subtle discrimination.

Bernard’s (2007) elaboration on subtle forms of discrimination states that it can be more damaging than access discrimination or other forms of blatant discrimination practices. Subtle treatment discrimination would affect female efficiency expectations through the more patent sources of induction of self-efficiency. Bernard (2007) distinguishes between two general categories of subtle discriminating behavior based on her and other’s performance observation.

The stay effect involves avoidance of females or the isolation of females from the same attention received by males from important others. A female may encounter difficulties finding a mentor, and if she does, she may be assigned to tasks that are different from those assigned to male protégés. In this case, dysfunction expectancy learning will occur for the female because she does not acquire skills necessary for performance of professional duties (Good, 1933).

The put down effect includes ‘belittling’ comments made by males about females are not included as social peers in the informal structure. This exclusion prevents females from observing behavior that may be of use to them. Bernard (2007) states that this discriminating behavior can have damaging consequences. They can interfere with women’s positioning in the communication system. Terborg’s (2008) view of women in management also addresses the effects of more subtle forms of treatment discrimination. He states that “not having access to the informal network of liaison and contacts represent a subtle but perhaps effective method of discrimination” (Holloway, 2008).
2.2.4 Attitude

There is no doubt that a complex set of actors including social, cultural and behavioral expectations as well as organizational policies and practices do influence women’s opportunity to move into decision making management positions and affect how they adapt and perform once in those positions. To this end, factors that are considered critical in addressing the under representation of women in managerial positions have been identified by Kingori (2003) as family friendly policies, family responsibilities, career opportunities and training, role models, career breaks, and equal employment opportunities and grievance processes.

Hourner (2008) using a projective technique found out that the women who seek success in achievement oriented situations worry not only about failure but also about success. If she succeeds she isn’t living up to societal expectations about the female role and thus experiences negative consequences such as unpopularity and loss of femininity. This motive to avoid success often results in the failure of women to succeed in professions that are typically filled by men (Brenner, et al 2013). According to research carried females experience greater fear of success and greater fears of appearing incompetent than do males and that these constructs are positively correlated.

Literature indicates that (Republic of Kenya, 2007) 110,500 women compared to 166,400 men were employed in education Sector. This was followed by agriculture in which 76,000 (or 10.9%) of the total population of women in wage employment were engaged. Until recently, equal opportunities initiatives concentrated on gaining acceptance for women and emphasized to work just like men do. A moderate level of success in this direction has been achieved. Yet despite these apparent gains, gender discrimination remains a formidable barrier to women’s full participation in formal decision making processes and their control of resources. Women still do not enjoy the same access or influence equal to that of men. Significant inequalities continue to exist between men and women in education, employment, and economic and political decision making processes. These inequalities are rooted in social and cultural norms that have prescribed gender roles. The inequalities are manifested in a wide range of discriminatory practices. These social and cultural norms have contributed to the traditional attitudes, which are used to justify subordination of women to men (Gakure, 2013).
Additionally, such attitudes are used to associate women to stereotyped female traditional roles. Although women continue to join the mainstream of the paid workforce, issues of stereotyped roles, such as sexual division of labour, gender segregation have not been renegotiated. Women therefore continue to work in environments with organizational culture that are dominated by male values. Studies (Holloway, 2012) indicate that women operate from values, assumptions and perspectives which reflect female grounding but which are not widely represented or accepted in organizational life.

In addition, women’s career prospects are continually affected by inequalities in social power. This becomes apparent where women are placed in ‘one-down’ positions because of their gender. The society rejects their ownership of authority and power because it contravenes stereotypes types of femininity. Consequently, women are passed over for promotion despite appropriate qualifications and experience.

2.2.5 Gender Segregation
For employees to progress in their career an enabling environment has to be created for them to discharge their duties well. Deprivation of fair, equal and environmentally friendly work conditions leads to serious dissatisfaction and hence poor performance. The management should ensure that there is fairness and provision of equal opportunities for both men and women. Gender segregation refers to the under representation of men or women in certain sectors, industries and occupation. This may take two forms. Horizontal gender segregation where men and women work in different types of jobs and vertical gender segregation where men are commonly found in higher grade positions and women in lower grade position (Holloway, 2008).

Horizontal Gender Segregation; This is a tendency all over the world for employed women to be concentrated in certain sectors and occupations for example at the end of 1980, between 75-80% of women in organization for economic cooperation and development (OECD) countries were employed in the service sector, 5% in agriculture, and 15-20% in industry. It should be noted that women were concentrated in female dominated industries such as footwear, textiles, and food processing among others. The bulk (110, 600 out of 459, 300 or 24%) of women in wage employment was engaged in educational services. This was followed by agricultural sector with 76,600 (constituting 16%). Community, social and personal services, which comprises public administration, educational services, domestic
services and others, employed 264,500 women, or 58% of all women wage employment in Kenya in 2006.

The Kenyan Economic survey (2008) indicates that the scenario in Kenya corresponds with the above observation. The Kenyan Economic survey, (2008) indicates that women form 29% of administrative, managerial and clerical positions with a predominance of secretarial services. There is an indication that women are concentrated in the service sector as housekeepers, cooks, waiters, and maids. They also appear to occupy professional, technical and related work, which mainly comprise teaching and nursing jobs.

Vertical Gender segregation: As women enter the business world, they have tended to find themselves in positions consistent with the roles they played at home; in staff positions rather than in line positions; supporting the work of others, and in function like communication or human resources where they have relatively small budget. Additionally, very few people report directly to them (Brichta, 2006). In addition, promotional opportunities for women relative to men are defined not by ability but by the constitution of separate lines of advancement for them and the very limited number of higher-grade occupations available. Women are recruited to lower grade/level or jobs/positions and they tend to stay there, irrespective of the length of their employment. Some jobs don’t even allow for upward mobility. Men experience quite a different career profile. They are recruited to higher-grade jobs directly, and when recruited into lower grade jobs, they stay for shorter periods, either obtaining promotion or by leaving the organization altogether.

Vertical gender segregation assures that men continue to wield social power over women hence creating a hostile environment for women to work in. In her study of the Tanzanian civil service, Holloway (2012) gives an account of a female officer who was given a work schedule that involved taking minutes in meetings. This female officer had a degree in public administration. When she questioned the relevance of the duties she was assigned in relation to her qualifications, the schedule was given a male officer with increased responsibility and an increased budget, which he controlled. The job title was no longer secretary but protocol officer. Holloway (2012) noted that the discrimination, which exists with regard to promotion of women into senior most positions, is one of the most obdurate worldwide.
The gender regime i.e. the historically produced state of play in gender relations within an institution which can be analyzed by taking a structural inventory can tolerate integration lower in the hierarchy; but top positions are still firmly based on the principle of separation (Holloway, 2012).

### 2.2.6 Wage Disparities

The Kenya law equal pay act of 1970 tries to eliminate inequalities of pay between men and women and also remove other inequalities on terms and conditions of employment. This act does act through the following ways: Establishing the right for the individual woman to equal treatment when employed to work on job of the similar nature to men jobs that have equal value by job evaluation. It also gives the men this right. Giving the central arbitration committee the role to remove discrimination in correcting agreements, statutory wage order and employment pay structures where provision for men and women only are contained.

There are other issues that affect the women in the paid labour force. Many women are not hired though because of their "role in the reproductive process". If a woman has many children, her parenting affects her work performance and advancement. Often women do not even attempt paid employment because they are already overburdened with unpaid domestic labour. More and more, women in Africa are moving to the cities to escape unpaid agricultural work and also due to the harsh economic times. There are also issues of training, areas of expertise and the type of work available.

Available data from other countries show the issues of reward disparities based on type of work, actual number of productive hours and training (Newsweek, Jan. 8, 2011). An organisation can actually explain the reward disparities through a number of these factors. Evidence from national surveys reveals pervasive wage differences between men and women workers in majority of countries. Most women earn less compared to their male counter parts in the same position even as evident in developed countries like Denmark and Israel.

The average pay for men is still higher than for women in the Danish labour market. According to a recent study from the Danish National Institute of Social Research (Gupta, 2013) Sector segregation and differences in occupation, educational level and work experience are determining factors but cannot explain the overall observed pay gap. Gupta’s study on Men and Women's pay was based on registered information from approximately one million employees in the period 2007-2011.
The study found that the wage disparity between men and women remains quite stable over the investigated period of time, with just a small increase observed at the end of the period. Whether the average pay calculations are based on earnings per actual performed working hours (working hours excluding hours of absenteeism) or earnings per paid working hours (including hours of absenteeism), the conclusion is the same: Danish men earn more than Danish women. On average, the pay gap is between 12% and 18%, depending on how the pay is calculated. When we talk of comparing women’s earnings with men’s earnings we find that no matter how we measure them, women earn less than men. Very often, men’s earnings are used as the “Yardstick” to measure women’s and we say women’s earnings are a percentage of men’s. The earning gap is the difference between this percentage ratio and 100%.

In 2002, for these receiving hourly rates, women’s median hourly earnings were 75.4% of men’s for full time wage and salary workers, women’s were 70.6% of men’s annual earnings in 2002, the most recent for which data are available of course, the earning gap for hourly earnings is 20.6%; for weekly earnings, 24.6% and for annual earnings; 29.4% (Hourner, 2002). When considering the earnings of full time year round women and men it should be noted that women are employed fewer hours in the week and fewer weeks in the year than their male counterparts. Less time on the job contributes to the earnings differences when women’s weekly and annual earnings are compared with men’s (Hourner, 2002). Female labour force in Kenya was estimated at 2 million or 35% of the total labour force in Kenya (Kingori, 2003). A significant decline was registered in 2010s due to world economic crisis and the resulting restructuring policies adopted by many government although there was a significant decline in female labour in the 1980’s an increase in women population of 3% was noted, while the female economically active population dropped from 16% to 14% as did female activity rates in overall economic activity from 27% to 23% (KGDRC, 2010). Despite the link between education and income, studies indicate that equal years of education between men and women do not translate to equality of job opportunities. Males everywhere tend to get better jobs than women with the same years of education (KGDRC, 2010).

2.3 Summary and Research Gaps
It is clear that from the literature review above that there are factors that affect and cause gender disparity. These factors include discrimination, cultural issues, wage disparities, training and promotion, sexual harassment, attitudes among others.
The research carried out has been mostly in isolation and in the private sector. The gap therefore that exists is in how these factors affect gender disparity for managers in the modern workplace. This study therefore selected the AAR Health Services Ltd and sought to carry out a survey within these ranks. The importance was to establish if these affect gender disparity at a level that seemingly may not suffer gender inequality problems.

2.4 Conceptual / Theoretical Frameworks

Figure 2.1 Diagram depicting the relationship between theory, independent and dependent variables

2.5 Operationalization of the Variables

2.5.1 Training

Training both physically, socially, intellectually and mentally are very essential in facilitating not only the level of productivity but also the development of personnel in any organization. Therefore, training can be put in a contact relevant to school administrators. However, knowledge is the ability, the skill, the understanding, the information, which every individual requires acquiring in order to be able to function effectively and perform efficiently.

2.5.2 Nature of Work

The issue of economic empowerment seemed to be the solution for women; access to resources became an important tool that has empowered women. The women were not going to be able to compete on the same footing as the men without the resources available to men.
The issue of unfair economic and social role of women in development in Kenya assumed a prominent position.

2.5.3 Cultural Factors

Cultures with high masculinity value performance, ambition, power and assertiveness while cultures high in femininity value quality of life, caring for others, nurturing and service. In masculine cultures women are assigned the role of being tender and taking care of relationships while men are supposed to be tough, assertive and focused on material success. In feminine cultures both genders participate in all the roles.

2.5.4 Attitudes

Attitudes are used to associate women to stereotyped female traditional roles. Although women continue to join the mainstream of the paid workforce, issues of stereotyped roles, such as sexual division of labour, gender segregation have not been renegotiated. Women therefore continue to work in environments with organizational culture that are dominated by male values.

2.6 Chapter Summary

Literature review aims to maximize the accuracy of determining that there is need to thoroughly and critically select the most appropriate past activities. The study has selected the past activities that fall within the objectives of the study; that gave a clear account of all past theoretical undertakings that tried to identify factors affecting gender disparity in health care organisations. This literature review sets out to explore and critically analyse the concept of gender disparity and the challenges that come with it. It is aimed at providing a theoretical and conceptual basing from which a methodology for research was developed, an analytical framework chosen, relevant data collected and consequent analyses carried out towards drawing conclusions on factors affecting gender disparity in health care organisations.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction
This chapter outlines the research methodology which offers an explanation into what type of research this study will be. It also defines the population of the study and the specific sampling technique to be used, methods of data collection and data analysis. This chapter is organized along the following subsection: research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedures, research instruments, data collection procedures and data design and data analysis procedure and methods.

3.1 Research Design
A research design is the plan on how to answer research questions (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2007). Research designs range from exploratory studies, descriptive studies, explanatory studies. This is a descriptive study and will be in form of case study of AAR Health Service Provider; Case studies are in depth Investigations resorting to a complete well organized feature for whatever is being studied. The purpose of the study is to investigate a certain aspect intensively and comprehensively so that one can get the background aspect and the current status. The survey method provides reliable valid and theoretically meaningful information.

The research was descriptive and took the form of case study of AAR Health Service Provider; Case studies are in depth Investigations resorting to a complete well organized feature for whatever is being studied. The purpose of the study is to investigate a certain aspect intensively and comprehensively so that one can get the background aspect and the current status. This idea was borrow from (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003) defined case study as an in-depth investigation of an individual, group, institution or phenomenon. This definition is based on the premise that a case can be located and that it is typical of many other cases. The study is viewed as an example of a class of events or group of individuals or institution. The purpose according to these authors is to determine factors and relationships among the factors that have resulted in the observed behavior under study. The above
definition and explanations are also reinforced by (Kothari, 2004), and (Borg, Gall & Gall, 2006) this study will therefore be an in-depth qualitative mode investigation.

According to (Cooper & Schindler, 2008), a descriptive study is concerned with finding out who, what, when and how a phenomenon is and reports the way things are. According to Grill and Johnson (2006), a descriptive design is concerned primarily with addressing the particular characteristics of a specific population of subjects. A cross-sectional descriptive study design will be adopted for this study and information will be collected using structured interviews and direct observation. Both qualitative and quantitative data will be collected. Quantitative data will be analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) while qualitative data will be analysed according to emerging issues and presented in direct quotes and anecdotes.

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), suggests that the descriptive design method is appropriate for studies that have specific issues where problems have been defined. factors affecting gender disparity in health care organisations are thus geared to address the essential why, who, when, what, and how questions in the research. The study seeks to describe a situation through the study of variable relationships.

3.2 Target Population

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) describes target population as a complete set of individual cases object with some common characteristics to which researchers want to generalize the results of the study. The target population of this study will be the staff of AAR Health Service Provider based in head office in Nairobi. 84 members of staffs will be given the questionnaires. Since this about 60% of the entire work force in management it will represent a reasonable size where conclusion can be deduced as shown in table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Table Showing Target population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Target Population</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior Management</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle level Management</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low level Management</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3 Sample and Sampling Design
A sample is defined as subject of a population that has been selected to reflect or represent characteristics of a population. A stratified proportion sampling was employed to obtain a suitable unit representative of analysis. This is because of the heterogeneity of the population and respondents all had equal opportunity of participation. Kothari (2004) argues that a stratified proportional sample increases a samples statistical efficiency and provides adequate data for analysing the various populations. This method was cost effective, fast track data collection, and access to the unit of analysis and elements of the study.

The researcher will use stratified random sampling technique to select the respondents. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), in stratified random sampling, subjects are selected in such a way that the existing sub-groups in the population are more or less reproduced in the sample. Kerlinger observed that sample drawn randomly is unbiased in a way that no number of populations has any chance of being selected more than the other. From each stratum, 30% respondents were drawn and used to gather the required information. The sample size was tabulated as follows:

Table 3.2: Table Showing Sample Size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Target Population</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior Management</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle level Management</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low level Management</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>84</strong></td>
<td><strong>42</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4 Data Collection Method and Research Procedures
The study used questionnaires to collect data; primary data was also collected through research tools as observations and brainstorming as outlined by (Kothari, 2004). Secondary data was collected from documented sources such as library books, magazines and newspapers and internet literature. For the main purpose of this research, the study collected primary data but will rely on the secondary data for the literature review.
The researcher used self-reporting questionnaire which are more efficient and economical tool for descriptive and preventive research for the sample size that will be chosen. This way was easier to identify the level by which the respondent will agree or disagree. The researcher will also apply the Licket scale to the self-reporting questionnaire. The study used this method with a view that it was appropriate to this study. Part one was used for collecting general data about the organization and staff. Part two was used to solicit the information on factors affecting gender disparity in organisations: a case study of AAR Health Services Ltd.

3.5 Pilot Study
A pilot study is a small experiment designed to test logistics and gather information prior to the larger and final study. It is aimed at improving the quality and efficiency of the research process. At the same time it reveals deficiencies in the design of a proposed experiment or procedure which require correction before time, money and other resources are committed to the effort. The pilot study will be taken with 10 respondents.

3.5.1 Validity
Validity is the degree to which a test measures what it purposes to measure. According to (Cook & Campbell, 2007), it is the best available approximation to the truth or falsity of a given inference, proposition or conclusion. In this case face validity which is commonly used in research of this nature will be applied to determine if the instrument will measure what it is supposed to measure. To establish face validity a panel of experts were asked to give their opinion as to whether or not the instrument will meet this criterion. According to (Carmine & Zeller, 2007), validity can be assessed using expert opinion and informed judgment.

3.5.2 Reliability
On the other hand, reliability refers to the ability of an instrument to produce similar results at different times with the same respondents (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 2007). The study used three step measure of reliability. First those items that had been tested for reliability by other researchers as cited in the previous section will adopted. Secondly the research used the most common measure of internal consistency known as Cronbach Alpha which indicates the extent to which a set of items can be treated as measuring a single latent variable. The recommended value of 0.7 will be used as cut off point since a Cronbach Alpha value of less
than 0.7 implies that internal consistency among items is weak (Nunnally, 2008). Thirdly the questionnaires were pre-tested with a sample of respondents in order to establish whether the questions therein measure the expected theorized variables in the conceptual framework. Permission was sought from the participating institutions, Management University of Africa and AAR Health Services Ltd. The sampling validity of the questionnaires was designed to represent the properties being investigated as argued by Nchamias (2006).

### 3.6 Data Analysis

The data was analyzed by use of descriptive statistics. Specifically, means, averages and percentages were employed by the researcher. The data analysis tools are simple tabulations and presentations of the report using spreadsheets such as excel and statistical packages for social sciences (SPSS). The data is presented using tables, charts and graphs.

### 3.7 Ethical Considerations

The researcher undertook various steps to ensure that the study adheres to research ethical standards. Research authorization permit was obtained from the participating institutions, Management University of Africa and AAR Health Services Ltd.

#### 3.7.1 Voluntary participation:

The researcher sought consent from the management of the organization before administering the questionnaires. Participants were asked to verbally consent to participate in the research, for which they will be free to participate or not to. The researcher explained to them that the information that they gave will be used only for the study. The researcher explained that meaningful data for this study was achieved if they contribute their views about to the gender disparity with reference to AAR Health Services Ltd.

#### 3.7.2 Informed Consent

Borrowing from Oliver (2004) the researcher ensured that through the principle of informed consent, complex as it is, and the respondents was devoid of hang-ups that come with lack of clear expectations of the research. As Oliver points out, some respondents may be impressed by the status of the researcher, or even by the word research has used and may agree to participate without having a good idea of what the research is all about.
3.7.3 **Privacy**

The potential respondents were not be identified by name. Confidentiality respondents were treated as a matter of priority. Further, the researcher used two methods in engaging these respondents before agreeing to answer the questions of this study.

3.7.4 **Confidentiality**

The researcher explained to the respondents that the data that was gathered in this study was treated in confidence and that the findings were meant for a project of Management University of Africa. The researcher explained to the respondents that the data was coded and no one, whatsoever, related the data to the respondents for both external and internal audiences of the thesis.

3.7.5 **Anonymity**

The researcher accorded the respondents their due respect while at the same time ensuring that they answer the questions to the expectations of the study, interjecting questions, intelligibly. The researcher picked some respondents without any discrimination. This helped the researcher to receive truly anonymized respondents even to the researcher himself. This was achieved through self-administered questionnaires with an anonymous method of return.

3.8 **Chapter Summary**

The study adapted a quantitative, descriptive survey design; questionnaires were administered by the researcher himself to collect the data from a convenient sample of respondents. The sample characteristics included all types of projects small, medium or large in scale. Research methodology offers explanation into what type of research this study was. This chapter described the research methodology, including the population, sample, data collection instruments as well as strategies used to ensure the ethical standards, reliability and validity of the study.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS PRESENTATION

4.0 Introduction
This chapter has presentation and discussion of the empirical results to investigate and establish factor that affects gender disparity in organizations. The data is interpreted in order to answer the research questions. In the results presentation, the tools highlighted earlier in the study are used to help discussion touching in all variables. The main data collection tool was a questionnaire. The purpose of the data analysis is to determine whether the presupposed factors that affects gender disparity in organizations in Kenya is supported by the views of the respondents. Data is presented in the form tables, pie charts, and percentages where applicable.

4.1 Presentations of Research Findings
4.1.1 Response Rate
The respondents were classified in three categories, the top level management, middle level management and low level management. The respondents profiles and demographic were highlighted, all respondents had secondary education or above. In total 42 questionnaires were sent out, 40 questionnaires were returned. This gives a 95% Response rate as shown Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1.

Table 4.1: Table showing Response Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Returned</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not returned</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.2 Level of Education

Table 4.2: Table Showing of Respondents Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary Education</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor Degree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s Degree and above</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Whereas 50% of the respondent had bachelor’s degree level education, 20% had diploma while 30% had master’s degree & above level of education respectively as tabulated in Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3. This show that the jobs in this organizations do require some level of intellect or professional input as a large percentage have bachelor’s degree or master’s degree & above qualification.
4.2.3 Duration of Working Period

Table 4.3 : Table Showing Duration of Working Period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- 10 years</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 years and Over</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents indicated that have been in the organizations for a period of less than one year were 15% as opposed to 40% of respondents who have been in the organizations for the period between 2-10 years, 45% had worked for a period of 11-20 years and non-had indicated to have worked 21 years and over as indicated in table 4.3 and figure 4.3 below.
4.2.4 Equal Opportunities in Terms of all Job Related Issues

Table 4.4 : Table Showing Equal Opportunities in Terms of all Job Related Issues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to indicate if men and women given equal opportunities in terms of all job related issues in the organization. 70 % indicated Yes while 30% indicated No. as tabulated in table 4.4 and figure 4.4 below.
4.2.5 Majority in the Levels of Management

Table 4.5: Table Showing Majority in the Levels of Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top senior manager’s</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle level manager’s</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower level manager’s</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked who the majority in the following levels of management were in top Senior managers is dominated by male managers at 73% while female managers polled 27% and in the middle level managers Female managers are 52% while their male counter parts are 48 while in lower level managers male represent 35% while female mangers were 65% as tabulated in table 4.5 Above.
4.2.5 Majority in Gender in terms of Employment

Table 4.6: Table Showing Majority in Gender in terms of Employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to indicate who the majority in terms employment in the organization are. 63% indicated Female while 37% indicated male as tabulated in Table 4.6 and figure 4.5 below.

Figure 4.6: Figure Showing Majority in Gender in terms of Employment
4.2.6 Equal Opportunity in Promotion and Training

Table 4.7: Table Showing Equal Opportunities in Promotion and Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to indicate if men and women given equal opportunities in terms of trainings and promotions in the organization. 70% indicated No while 30% indicated Yes as tabulated in table 4.7 and figure 4.6 below.

Figure 4.6: Figure Showing Equal Opportunities in Promotion and Training
4.2.7 Educational qualifications and training affects gender disparity

Table 4.8: Table Showing Educational qualifications and training affects gender disparity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked if they think that educational qualifications and training affects gender disparity in the organization. 60% indicated Yes it affects while 40% indicated No as shown in table 4.8 and figure 4.7 below.

Figure 4.8: Figure Showing Educational qualifications and training affects gender disparity
4.2.8 More Qualified or Trained Gender in the Organization

Table 4.9: Table Showing More Qualified or Trained Gender in the Organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to indicate which gender is more qualified or trained in the organization. 67% indicated male while 33% indicated female as tabulated in table 4.8 and figure 4.8 below.

Figure 4.9: Figure Showing More Qualified or Trained Gender in the Organization
4.2.9 Extent which Educational qualifications and training affects gender disparity

Table 4.10: Table Showing Extent which Educational qualifications and training affects gender disparity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very great extent</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great extent</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low extent</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low extent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to what extent they think that educational qualifications and training affects gender disparity in the organization. 25% indicated to very great extent, 30% indicated to great extent, 5% indicated to moderate extent while majority 40% indicated to very low extent as tabulated in table 4.10 and figure 4.9 below.

Figure 4.10: Figure Showing Extent which Educational qualifications and training affects gender disparity

[Bar chart showing frequency and percentage for each category]
4.2.10 Nature of Work Affect Gender Disparity

Table 4.11: Table Showing Nature of Work Affect Gender Disparity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to indicate if nature of work affects gender disparity in the organization. 80% indicated Yes it affects while 22% indicated No as tabulated in table 4.11 and figure 4.10 below.

**Figure 4.10 Figure Showing Nature of Work Affect Gender Disparity**
4.2.11 Extent which Nature of Work Affect Gender Disparity

Table 4.12: Table Showing Extent which Nature of Work Affect Gender Disparity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very great extent</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great extent</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate extent</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low extent</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low extent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to what extent they think that nature of work affects gender disparity in the organization. 25% indicated to very great extent, 40% indicated to great extent, 15% indicated to moderate extent while 17% indicated to very low extent and 3% indicated to very low extent as tabulated in table 4.12 and figure 4.11 below.

Figure 4.11: Figure Showing Extent which Nature of Work Affect Gender Disparity
4.2.13 Cultural Factors Affects Gender Disparity

Table 4.13: Table Showing Cultural Factors Affect Gender Disparity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to indicate if cultural factors affect gender disparity in the organization. 37% indicated Yes it affects while 63 % indicated No as tabulated in table 4.13

Table 4.14: Table Showing Extent which Cultural Factors Affect Gender Disparity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very great extent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great extent</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate extent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low extent</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low extent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to what extent they think that cultural factors affects gender disparity in the organization. 12% indicated to very great extent, 15% indicated to grate extent, 10% indicated to moderate extent while 25% indicated to very low extent and 12% indicated to very low extent as tabulated in table 4.14 and figure 4.12 below.
4.2.14 Attitude of each gender affects gender disparity in your organization

Table 4.14: Table Showing Attitude of each Gender Affect Gender Disparity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to indicate if attitude of men towards women and women towards themselves affects gender disparity in your organization. 63 % indicated Yes it affects while 37 % indicated No as tabulated in table 4.14
Table 4.1: Table Showing Extent which Attitude Affect Gender Disparity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very great extent</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great extent</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate extent</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low extent</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low extent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked to what extent they think that attitude causes of gender disparity in your organisation. 25% indicated to very great extent and to great extent, 30% indicated to moderate extent while 20% indicated to very low extent and none indicated to very low extent as tabulated in table 4.1 and figure 4.13 below.

Figure 4.13: Figure Showing Extent which Attitude Affect Gender Disparity
4.3 Limitations of Study

4.3.1 Confidentiality

The researcher was suspected of collecting information and leaking it to unauthorized persons, by the respondents. However, the researcher used the letter of introduction from Management University of Africa that inform the respondents that the information collected is for academic purposes only and was treated as very confidential.

4.3.2 Lack of Cooperation

The researcher encountered poor cooperation from respondents initially but after explaining to them the purpose of the study and showing them the letter of introduction, they accepted to volunteer information. However, the researcher assured the respondents on the importance of the study by citing the top beneficiaries.

4.3 Chapter Summary

This research report attempts to ease this dilemma by reporting the results of an exploratory study examining the factors that affect gender disparity in organizations in Kenya. The findings were therefore influenced by both males and females. These findings reveal the need of addressing gender disparity in Kenya at a prompt time. It is the expectation of this study that this research effort provides a methodological orientation and some preliminary findings that may be useful to others interested in learning gender disparity in organizations.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction
This chapter summarizes the research findings and relates them to the literature review in chapter two to draw some conclusions. It will also give recommendations and suggestions for further study.

5.1 Summary of the Findings
It is possible that differences existed in the respondents’ interpretations of the items. However, it is unlikely that this was a significant problem in the present study because the questionnaire deliberately utilized items that were easy to understand linguistically. Moreover, the sample was sufficiently large to neutralize any unsystematic misinterpretations.

According to results of data analysis the majority in terms employment in the organization are female at 63 % while male are at 37 %. Respondents indicated that men and women are not given equal opportunities in terms of trainings and promotions in the organization 70 % indicated No while 30% indicated Yes. Educational qualifications and training affects gender disparity in the organization yes it affects by 60% indicated while 40% indicated No it has no effect.

According to results of data analysis the gender that is more qualified or trained in the organization are male with 67% while female 33%. The extent that educational qualifications and training affects gender disparity in the organization. 25% indicated to very great extent, 30% indicated to grate extent, 5% indicated to moderate extent while majority 40% indicated to very low extent. This concurs with Adeniyi (2005) observed that staff training and development is a work activity that can make a very significant contribution to the overall effectiveness and profitability of an organization. He therefore, provides a systematic approach to training which encases the main elements of training.

Nature of work affects gender disparity in the organization. 80% believed so while 22% did not think so to the extent that nature of work affects gender disparity in the organization. 25% indicated to very great extent, 40% indicated to grate extent, 15% indicated to moderate
extent while 17% indicated to very low extent and 3% indicated to very low extent. Men and women are often assigned to different types of work, with women often being placed in lower paying positions and men being placed in higher paying jobs (Sparrowe & Iverson, 2013). Job choices and preferences of women is another issue. Women who choose to place higher priority on family than on work will usually take up the lower-level positions and receive lower salary (Higgins, 2004).

Cultural factors affect gender disparity in the organization. 12% indicated to very great extent, 15% indicated to great extent, 10% indicated to moderate extent while 25% indicated to very low extent and 12% indicated to very low extent. Respondents were asked to what extent they think that attitude causes of gender disparity in your organisation. 25% indicated to very great extent and to great extent, 30% indicated to moderate extent while 20% indicated to very low extent and none indicated to very low extent. This is in line with findings by (Schein, 2012). Organizational culture also has an impact on the integration of females. The culture of an organization is defined by the leadership of the organization. To understand an organization one has to understand the culture because this culture defines the leadership.

5.2 Recommendations
Considering that important steps have already been taken by governments, the private sector, social partners and non-governmental organisations to combat gender inequality in economic opportunities by introducing anti-discrimination laws in workplaces and society; legislating employment-protected parental, maternity and paternity leave; implementing family-friendly policies at work; and, tackling stereotyping in school through educational programmes; Considering that significant gender disparities and biases nevertheless remain in educational and occupational choices; earning levels; working conditions; career progression; representation in decision making positions; in the uptake of paid and unpaid work.

Recognising that strong and effective actions by all actors are needed in both the public and private sectors to remove the remaining persistent obstacles to gender equality in education and employment and to measure and monitor the progress in achieving this goal together, including by supporting the efforts of developing and emerging organizations; further commitment by organizations to improve gender equality in education, employment and entrepreneurship will contribute not only to greater equality of opportunities for men and women but also to strong and sustainable economic growth as the full potential of women
will be taken advantage of; adopt practices that promote gender equality in education and trainings by; ensuring that men and women have equal access to good-quality education, equal rights and opportunities to successfully complete trainings and in making educational choices.

Campaigning and raising awareness among young men and women, parents, teachers and employers about gender-stereotypical attitudes towards academic performances and the likely consequences of overall educational choices for employment and entrepreneurship opportunities, career progression and earnings; encouraging more women who have completed studies to pursue professional careers in these areas, for example by means of career counselling, adult education, internships, apprenticeships and targeted financial support; increase the representation of women in decision-making positions by: encouraging measures such as voluntary targets, disclosure requirements and private initiatives that enhance gender diversity on boards and in senior management of listed companies; complementing such efforts with other measures to support effective board participation by women and expand the pool of qualified candidates; continuing to monitor and analyse the costs and benefits of different approaches – including voluntary targets, disclosure requirements or boardroom quotas – to promote gender diversity in leadership positions in private companies.

Introducing mechanisms to improve the gender balance in leadership positions in the public sector, such as disclosure requirements, target setting or quotas for women in senior management positions; strengthening the flexibility, transparency and fairness of public sector employment systems and policies; and monitoring progress of female. eliminate the discriminatory gender wage gap by: strengthening the legal framework and its enforcement for combating all forms of discrimination in pay, recruitment, training and promotion; promoting pay transparency; ensuring that the principle of equal pay for equal work or for work of equal value is respected in collective bargaining and/or labour law and practice; tackling stereotypes, segregation and indirect discrimination in the labour market, notably against part-time workers; promoting the reconciliation of work and family life.

Promote all appropriate measures to end sexual harassment in the workplace, including awareness and prevention campaigns and actions by employers and unions; pay attention to the special needs of women from disadvantaged minority groups and migrant women in relation to the aims set out above; reduce the gender gap in financial literacy by developing
and implementing initiatives and programmes aimed at addressing women’s financial literacy needs, and in particular at fostering their awareness, confidence, competencies and skills when dealing with financial issues; mainstream the gender equality perspective in the design, development and evaluation of relevant policies and budgets, for example by conducting systematic gender-impact assessments and generating appropriate data and evidence to build a benchmark for future assessments as well as a compilation of best practices for governments and government agencies.

5.3 Suggestions for further Studies

The study has also helped identify an important area for future research in Gender disparity in organisations that merits added attention. A broad study on the effects of organizations’ employment practices on sex-based ascription in managerial jobs.

5.4 Conclusion

The major career advancement obstacles for women were found to be gender discrimination, stereotyping, the absent of mentoring and exclusion from informal networks. Women usually find jobs in low-skilled and low-status positions which leads them to earn less (Cave and Kilic, 2010) and difficult to catch up with men’s salary. Another barrier for women’s career advancement is their heavy reliance on the formal promotion channels. On the contrary, men tend to use the informal network for promotion (Lyness & Thompson, 2010).

In addition, several studies have discovered that women have fewer training and educational opportunities than men due to sex stereotyping, their lack of aggressiveness, and more emphasis on family responsibilities than work, factors which lead some women to occupy lower positions for a long time (Burgess, 2003). A majority of studies have shown that female workers earn considerably less than male workers, even when they occupy the same positions. Skalpe (2007) reported that male employees received 20 percent higher salary annually than female employees in the tourism industry. Some authors even argue that women in the most organizations have to work twice as hard as men to get promotion but still earn less salary (Blair, 2011). Pay inequalities can be partially explained by sex stereotypes and by the notion of occupation segregation (Sparrowe & Iverson, 2013).
Men and women are often assigned to different types of work, with women often being placed in lower paying positions and men being placed in higher paying jobs (Sparrowe & Iverson, 2013). Job choices and preferences of women is another issue. Women who choose to place higher priority on family than on work will usually take up the lower-level positions and receive lower salary (Higgins, 2004). Furthermore, women are found to have more difficulties than males in career promotion and advancement. In spite of women’s increased levels of educational attainment and labour market experience, women are underrepresented in holding the top executive positions (Costen, 2003). Garavan (2006) found that female hotel managers in Europe and Asia were often took up jobs at lower levels of management and had fewer salary increases than males. Brownell (2008) observed that men tended to follow the career ladder in an upward motion.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX I
LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Dear respondent,

I am a student at Management University of Africa pursuing Bachelors in Management and leadership. As part of partial fulfilment I am conducting a research project on: FACTORS AFFECTING GENDER DISPARITY IN ORGANISATIONS: A CASE STUDY OF AAR HEALTH SERVICES LTD. For this reason I would appreciate if you would kindly spare a few minutes of your time to fill in the blanks in the attached list of questions to the best of your knowledge as they apply to yourself.

The information in this questionnaire will be treated with confidentiality and in no instance will your name be mentioned in this research. Also, the information will not be used for any other purpose other than for this research.

Your assistance in facilitating the same is highly appreciated. A copy of this research paper will be available to you upon request.

Yours Sincerely,

Kiarie Christine Kaari

BML/00024/1/2013
APPENDIX II
RESEARCH STUDY QUESTIONNAIRES

PART A: PERSONAL DATA.
(Please tick in the spaces provided)
1. Gender (tick one) Male ( ) Female ( )
2. Please indicate your current position in your organization. ……………………………
3. What is your level of education? (tick one)
   College ( ) Graduate ( )
   Post graduate ( ) Doctorate ( )
4. How long have you been in the organization?
   0-1 Year ( ) 2-10 Years ( )
   11-20 Years ( ) 21 Years and above ( )

PART B:
GENDER DISPARITY

1. Are men and women given equal opportunities in terms of all job related issues in the organization? □ Yes ( ) □ No. ( )
2. Who are the majority in the following levels of management
   (a) Top senior manager’s □ Male ( ) □ Female ( )
   (b) Middle level manager’s □ Male ( ) □ Female ( )
   (c) Lower level manager’s □ Male ( ) □ Female ( )
3. In terms of employment, tick the group that is the majority: □ Male ( ) Female ( )
4. Is there equal opportunity in promotion and training for both men and women?
   □ Yes ( ) □ No. ( )

EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS/TRAINING

1. Do you think that educational qualifications and training affects gender disparity in the organization? □ Yes ( ) □ No. ( )
2. Which of the following groups is more qualified or trained in the organization?
   □ Men ( ) □ Women ( )
3. State the extent to which this can affect gender disparity:
   (a) Very great extent □
   (b) Great extent □
   (c) Moderate extent □
   (d) Low extent □
   (e) Very low extent □

NATURE OF WORK

1. Do you think the nature of work affects gender disparity?
   □ Yes ( ) □ No. ( )

2. To what extent do you think this is a cause?
   (a) Very great extent □
   (b) Great extent □
   (c) Moderate extent □
   (d) Low extent □
   (e) Very low extent □

CULTURAL FACTORS

1. Do you think that cultural factors affect gender disparity?
   □ Yes ( ) □ No. ( )

2. Do you think women are equal to men?
   □ Yes ( ) □ No. ( )

3. To what extent are cultural factors affect gender disparity in your organization.
   (f) Very great extent □
   (g) Great extent □
   (h) Moderate extent □
   (i) Low extent □
   (j) Very low extent □

4. In your community are women offered equal leadership positions as men? □
   Yes ( ) □ No. ( )
ATTITUDES

1. Do you think that the attitude of men towards women and women towards themselves affects gender disparity in your organization? □ Yes ( ) □ No. ( )

2. To what extent does attitude cause of gender disparity in your organisation?
   (a) Very great extent □
   (b) Great extent □
   (c) Moderate extent □
   (d) Low extent □
   (e) Very low extent □

Thank you for your time.