

**THE INFLUENCE OF WOMEN'S FORMAL EMPLOYMENT ON CHANGING
GENDER ROLES IN KENYA REINSURANCE (KENYA RE) ESTATE KISUMU
COUNTY**

BY

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**A RESEARCH PROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF ARTS IN SOCIAL
DEVELOPMENT AND MANAGEMENT**

SCHOOL OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

MASENO UNIVERSITY

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DECLARATION

I, Makabong'o Pamela Akinyi declare that this project is my original work and has not been submitted to any other University for any award.

Sign.....

Date.....,

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Declaration by Supervisor

This report has been submitted for examination with my approval as the departmental supervisor.

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Sign.....

Date.....

DEDICATION

This project is dedicated to my family for their continuous moral support and encouragement.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I appreciate the individuals and institutions that have helped me to reach this far. I am mostly grateful to God for giving me the opportunity to undertake this degree. Secondly, I thank my family for without their financial support I would not have submitted this report. A myriad thanks to my supervisor Dr. Omondi Ahawo for his unlimited dedication of time, guidance and interest on this project. I thank the department of Sociology and Anthropology for their helpful input on the project proposal. I also thank the participants who gave me their trust and willingly responded to the questions. Thank you all and may God bless you.

ABSTRACT

The present lifestyle calls for both gender in a household to work in order to lessen the burden of high cost of living. In Africa, massive increase of women in labour force has led to the neglect of unpaid household chores to full time employment. Traditionally, house work usually falls to the women who struggle to fend for the family. It was however not known how their commitment to work had impacted on their multiple household roles. This study's objectives assessed the influence of women's formal employment on their household responsibilities; identified the influence of women's type of employment to their responsibility to the family and determined the influence of women's income on their family responsibility. This study was guided by Social role theory by Alice Eagly (1987) which recognizes the historical division in labor. As a consequence of the concomitant sex differences in social behavior, the expectancies of men and women began to diverge. These expectancies are transmitted to future generations and, in turn, impinge on the social behavior of each gender. To sample respondents, the employment sectors were stratified. Simple random sampling technique was used to select females in different households. The study used Israel's formula (1992) to sample 75 respondents from 299 households. Questionnaires were the main tool for collection of primary data. The reliability and validity of data was ensured through securing expert opinion. Quantitative data was coded and entered to an excel spreadsheet. From the quantitative data, the study found that: 82.5% of the respondents on formal employment still had to carry out their multiple household responsibilities. 62% were found returning home in later hours and thereby were not able to carry out some of their household tasks on daily basis. The research discovered that women employed in junior positions took more time at work yet did not have enough money to pay house helps. For those employed in senior positions, most household roles were done by house helps or the dependents. Additionally, results showed that most women contribute to the household expenses in all dimensions ranging from house rents to water bills, school fees payment for both their own children and other siblings. 28.6% of the respondent who did not pay rent owned the houses in partnership with their spouses or siblings. All the participants whose employment influenced what roles they did confirmed that they did not get enough time to carry out their roles effectively at home, hence they ended up choosing what to do and left some work unattended. The study therefore, recommends that future studies on formal employment and gender roles should focus on how gender roles are distributed in relation to family size. It appears that the redistribution of roles within the family to match increased role responsibilities outside the home has not yet occurred.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

APA	-	American Psychological Association
EASSRR	-	East Africa Social Science Research Review
GEWE	-	Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment
NGO	-	Non Governmental Organization
N.P.G.D	-	National Policy on Gender and Development
RFS.L.	-	Riley Falcon Security Limited
SSE	-	Small Scale Enterprises
UNICEF	-	United Nations Children's Fund

OPERATIONAL TERMS OF DEFINITION

- Change** The difference in responsibilities done in the traditional days as compared to the modern society
- Influence** The ability to cause a change in routine of activities.
- Formal employment** continuous occupation that engages an individual on frequent basis during agreed upon hours with benefit of weekly, monthly or bi annual payments.
- Gender roles** activities set aside to be done particularly by female or male in the house.
- Type of employment** formal employment could be offered by various agencies i.e. the government, parastatals, Non-governmental institutions, private firms like banks, Safaricom; therefore employment would be on permanent or temporary basis.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with background of the study, problem study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study and scope of the study.

1.1 Background to the Study

According to Louw and Viviers (2010) generally, both work and family are central to one's life but these roles do not always readily reconcile, in particular when workers are faced with stress in the workplace and long working hours, such as in the police service. Work-family conflict has a significant influence on family distress, which is the experience of stress associated with one's family role. The work family conflict is an interesting subject of study all over the world though it is common mainly in the developed countries.

According to Mostert and Joubert (2005) balancing work and family life has become an increasing challenge for working individuals. Much as that was the case, organizations continue to foster a high level of cognitive and emotional commitment amongst employees Rothman and Rothman (2010) resulting in employees working extra or longer hours due to work demands Lewis and Cooper (2005). This leads to stress which gets exacerbated by their family roles. As work-family conflict increases, so does the level of family distress. As a person experiences conflict between work and family roles, she is likely to have more distress at home, in trying to deal with the conflict that has arisen from any of the two roles (work or family). Police officers in South Africa deal with high stress levels, brutality, corruption and risk of suicide Young et al.(2012) so it is imperative that their stressors be effectively managed. With the development of industries and modernization in Africa, gender roles have been found to be moderated by factors such as age according to Malcolm(2003) and self-stereotyping according to Gallacher and Klieger(2001), suggesting that gender is dynamic and can depend on things such as age, life situation, or race. The moderation of gender roles had been promoted by the ability of women to perform almost similar work to the ones that were initially preserved for men. The capability of women to seek and successfully take part in formal employment sector is as a result of the continuous women empowerment campaign, a situation which paints a picture of a society where some gender roles remain entrenched, although others appear to be shifting, at least at certain times or in particular contexts (Gyan, A. 2014).

The other research which highlights factors that influence gender roles of women was carried out in Tanzania. The research showed that women had lost their female identity; and taking on a different role. It also proved that formal employment had created a sense of empowerment to women by running errands, making decisions, and doing paid work. Women's extended role led to them having more influence over household decisions according to the state of the world's children report (UNICEF 2007). However, men still wield more power in the household and, some men have reacted to the threat to their traditional gender role in negative and damaging ways, like violence and divorce in order to reassert their power (Omari, 1993).

Gender roles, in effect, had been found to play a major role in the quality of a marriage and how people want their ideal marriage to be. A study conducted in Kenya by Wainaina (2011) showed that as a result of development and access to education, there had been egalitarian marriages, where everything was equal, this was contrary to traditional marriages, where the husband used to take on the role as breadwinner and the wife fulfilling the role of homemaker and does not do work outside home. Without women empowerment and involvement in development, sustainable development is not possible. In fact, several studies show that excluding women's input into development by inhibiting their involvement in education, leadership, finance, and social improvement has a negative impact on development (Lucas, 2001; Okojie, 1996). This only further reinforces women's dependence on men rather than promoting them as equals.

According to research by Stickney and Konrad, (2007), "house work usually falls to the partner who had fewer competing time commitments so that if women work fewer paid hours than men do, women do more house work and when a wife clocks long hours in the workplace, her husband pitches in more around the house." This is a great debate considering that women were usually associated with house chores. It therefore makes it difficult for them to undertake house chores considering that they also spend more hours at work.

Zosuls, Miller, Ruble, Martin and Fabes (2011) also did a study which relates to the situation in Kenyan culture where gender equity in the work place is increasing; employed women take on a "second shift" of domestic work after returning home. In some homes, the male usually ask women to leave employment so that they can accomplish the house chores.

1.1.1 Global Perspective

At the global level China and Taiwan have all experienced rapid social change since 1950s. The stage and pattern of economic development between them is much different. Export-led industrialization and the development of family enterprise increased women's labor force participation in Taiwan. However, since women mostly participated in family enterprises and thus were defined as labor force in the informal sector. It was until the 1990's that women's employment was formally recognized.

By contrast, socialist reform in China since the mid-1950's had radically increased women's employment rate and female workers were employed primarily by state and collective firms. The economic reform in China, since the late 1970's had been characterized in part by the emergence of family businesses. However, most of the employees were still working in non-family large firms and women's employment rate was especially high in large urban areas. For example, women's employment rate was 91% in Shanghai according to the census data in 1990 (Lu 1999; Abbott et al.1995; Fei and Sue 1995).

In light of the different structural process of social and economic development and its impact on women's employment in both societies, the following questions were of interest. How does the social and economic change introduce new values for the societies and shape people's beliefs? How does the increase of women's employment affect women and men's gender-role attitudes? As suggested in the previous studies, industrialization plays an important role in shifting a society from the familial toward the non- familial modes of organization. The shift of familial modes happens even in the same cultural setting with different political and economic changes. Furthermore, the shift of familial modes reflects a normative change that implies a modification of the gender ideology. The results of the normative change are family and individual behaviors and beliefs such as the increase in age at marriage and the growing proportion of nuclear families, the decrease in arranged marriages, and the change of family relationship and gender role perceptions (Thornton and Lin 1994, Tiano 1994).

1.1.2 African Perspective

In Africa, women and girls are disproportionately affected by poverty and discrimination. Women often end up in insecure, low-wage jobs, and have limited access to the educational resources and financial tools they need to succeed. Women's leadership and participation in politics, civil society, and the private sector is limited on local, national, and global levels. Adolescent girls face particular challenges, including lower education outcomes and traditional harmful practices.

However, it has become widely accepted that promoting gender equality and women's empowerment (GEWE) is essential to achieving sustainable human development, poverty eradication, and economic growth on the African continent. Despite many international agreements set to promote GEWE, women still lag behind men in education, employment, politics, health, and access to public services. According to the UNFPA (2014), gender equality implies a society in which women and men enjoy the same opportunities, outcomes, rights and obligations in all spheres of life. Equality between men and women exists when both sexes are able to share equally in the distribution of power and influence; have equal opportunities for financial independence through work or through setting up businesses; enjoy equal access to education and the opportunity to develop personal ambitions.

An important part of gender equality is empowerment for women, which focuses on power imbalances and giving women more control to manage their own lives. Without both, sustainable development is not possible. In fact, several studies show that excluding women's input into development by inhibiting their involvement in education, leadership, finance, and social improvement has a negative impact on development (Lucas, 2001; Okojie, 1996). This only further reinforces women's dependence on men rather than promoting them as equals.

It is important for women to take ownership over their own empowerment, and this has increasingly been occurring across the African continent, as seen through a growing number of women's movements and grassroots women's organizations. It is the local women that have the greatest understanding of the deficiencies that women and girls face, and essential knowledge of how to advance their rights. When women push for social change and accountability, they

develop leadership skills; some use these skills to transform their lives, their families, and their communities for the better.

Because gender roles are socially determined, it is equally important to approach GEWE in a culturally sensitive manner and to recognize that women, as a group, are diverse and have differing interests. This means that taking multi-pronged approaches to GEWE is necessary to meet the needs and concerns of even the most marginalized and vulnerable women. To create lasting change in GEWE, gender mainstreaming must occur throughout all sectors of society and women need to acquire the necessary leadership skills that lead to true transformation.

1.1.3 Kenyan Perspective

In the introduction to her book on *Women, Politics, and Change*, Lenore Manderson (1980) said that the inspiration for her study was the comment by a journalist that the participation of Kenyan women in rallies, demonstrations, and the nationalist movement during the late 1940s was the most remarkable feature of post-World War II Kenyan politics. The journalist described the role of Kenyan women in the nationalist movement as “challenging, dominant, and vehement in their emergence from meek, quiet roles in the kampongs, rice fields, the kitchens, and nurseries” (Miller, 1982).

The surprise that observers expressed with seeing outspoken and politically active Kenyan women could be attributed to the naiveté and cloistered mentality of the colonial rulers. However, Miller’s views about Kenyan women and their cultural world might well be more widely held (both during the colonial era, and even in contemporary Kenya). Although scientific evidence about popular attitudes is lacking, the impression is that many Kenyans, including academic scholars, share the belief that traditional cultural values about women’s roles in society, including patriarchy, are widespread in Kenya (O’Brien, 1983, p. 213, Jamilah 1992, p. 3; Ng & Chee, 1999, p. 176). This view was noted in a recent publication on the continued prevalence of traditional attitudes on gender roles in Kenya:

“Women’s role is oriented more towards family matters rather than self-fulfilment implying that when faced with having to make a choice between career and family, family is always given priority. In a way, the present Kenyan women are caught in a dilemma between the modern challenges of life and traditions. While many are now employed, they are still expected to be

responsible for the family and to maintain the traditional perception of a woman” (Kalthom, Noor, & Wok, 2008).

This interpretation is reinforced with the poor showing of Kenyan women in a recent report on international gender equality. According to the World Economic Forum (2013, Table 3b, pp. 12-13), Kenya ranked extremely low (102 of the 136 countries) in the Global Gender Gap Index based on statistical data on male-female gaps in education, economic mobility, health, and participation in political roles.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The UN Sustainable Development Goal number five aims to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls by the year 2030. Traditionally, house work usually falls to the women who struggle to fend for the family.

It was however not known how their commitment to work had impacted on their multiple household roles. In the case of Kenya-Re estate in Kisumu, most women were formally employed. There was difference in responsibilities as the women in the lower cadre were not likely to get equal treatment as those in the higher status; there were various challenges they faced depending on their designations. For instance a woman in a position of a secretary would have to report to work earlier than her boss and leave later than her boss who may also be a fellow woman. The woman in the lower position will not have enough money to afford a house help while her boss will be earning higher and still has a vehicle to take her home while the junior officer will have to pay for her transport home. The women in junior positions were not knowledgeable on social health issues like family planning hence having larger families leading to greater responsibilities.

Women in formal employment had little time to do multiple house chores. Most of them delegate some of their roles to other people, like house helps, who come to assist them. These house helps were not always available as they sometimes left without notice making some duties unattended to. Some duties have to be done by the women themselves therefore forcing them to be absent from work. Women may underperform at work due to absenteeism. This may lead to not being promoted.

It was important to understand what was manageable in terms of multiple roles that women in formal employment got involved in apart from their traditional roles.

1.3 Research Objectives

1.3.1 General objective

The main objective of the study was to assess the influence of women's formal employment on changing gender roles in Kenya Re Estate Kisumu County and integrate them in policy formulation.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific research objectives were:

1. To assess the influence of women's formal employment on their household responsibilities.
2. To identify the influence of women's type of employment to their responsibility to the family.
3. To determine the influence of women's income on to their responsibility in the family.

1.4 Research Questions

The main question of this study was to examine how women's formal employment influence their responsibility to the family?

The research specific questions were:

1. To what extent does women's formal employment influence their household responsibilities in Kenya-Re Estate, Kisumu County?
2. How does women's type of employment influence their family responsibility in Kenya-Re Estate, Kisumu County?
3. How does women's income influence their responsibility to their family in Kenya-Re Estate, Kisumu County?

1.5 Scope and Limitation

1.5.1 Scope

The study targeted women on multispectral formal employment who live within Kenya Re estate in Kisumu town Kisumu County. The study focused on effect of change in women's house hold roles on the prosperity of families in Kenya-Re Estate, Kisumu County .The study confined itself to Kenya Re estate, Kisumu County as justified in the sampling section. The study had three independent variables that would influence on the dependent variable such as women's formal employment, women's designation, and women's income on to their responsibility in the family.

1.5.2 Limitations

Respondents were not willing to give confidential information which was sufficient to the researcher. However, the researcher convinced them that research was intended to help them improve on their problems.

1.6significance of the study

It was always presumed that gains in gender equality untied women from traditional household activities, setting them free to participate in greater rates in civic activities such as petitions. This study was therefore important to different stakeholders. The study was of significance to management of various sectors since it was used to evaluate the performance of women and ensuring gender mainstreaming. It was also beneficial the management of Kisumu county to review their internal procedures where need be. The study was of great significance to future researchers since it acted as a source of information on evaluation performance of women as players in development process and also a source of ready and reliable literature that will be used for future studies. The study was of significance to the researcher since it was a requirement for the award of a master's degree.

1.7 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by Social role theory which recognizes the historical division in labour between women, who often assumed responsibilities at home, and men, who often assumed responsibilities outside the home (Eagly, 1987). As a consequence of the concomitant sex differences in social behavior, the expectancies of men and women began to diverge (Eagly, 1987). These expectancies are transmitted to future generations and, in turn, impinge on the social behavior of each gender (Eagly, 1987, 1997 & Eagly, Wood, & Diekmann, 2000) and represent sexual stereotypes (Williams & Best, 1982). Accordingly, the behavior of men and women is governed by the stereotypes of their social roles. For example, to conform to these expectations, males developed traits that manifest agency. Agency relates to traits such as the inclination to be independent, assertive, and competent (Eagly & Wood, 1991). Boys, for example, learn to be more aggressive, which aligns with their more instrumental role. In contrast, females develop traits that manifest communal or expressive behaviour, which inhibits their aggression. Communal traits entail the tendency to be friendly, unselfish, and expressive (Eagly & Wood, 1991).

Two processes underpin the connection between expectancies and behaviour. First, through socialization processes, each gender learns different skills or acquires disparate qualities through socialization processes. That is, authority figures, such as teachers and parents, encourage individuals to develop the skills and qualities that will facilitate their social roles. Second, gender roles might more directly affect the courses of action that individuals choose in a specific setting. This theory does imply, however, that gender differences are flexible, because they are dependent on the immediate social role of individuals. For example, individuals occupy many roles simultaneously, all of which impinge on their behaviour. Work roles, such as leadership

positions for instance, might override their gender roles and reduce gender differences (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Likewise, social role theory implies that parenting role, and not only gender, will affect judgments of mothers and fathers. In a study conducted by Fuegen, Biernat, Haines, & Deaux (2004), for example, showed that parents were judged to be less agentic than were other employees. Nevertheless, this judgment was not as harsh for fathers.

Social role theory implies that individuals might question the capacity of women in particular positions, such as leadership roles. That is, men--who are regarded as agentic--often occupy leadership roles. As a consequence, individuals often assume that leadership demands these manifestations of an assertive, agentic personality. Hence, the leadership role is assumed to align the male temperament (see Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995 & Peters, Kinsey, & Malloy, 2004). Gender differences in power are perceived to be eroding. As women gain more access to positions typically associated with power, their social role seems to be changing (see Diekmann, Goodfriend, & Goodwin, 2004).

Perhaps the most telling implication of social role theory, however, is that individuals who violate gender stereotypes are often perceived unfavorably (e.g., Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004). That is, gender stereotypes are regarded as prescriptive not only descriptive (e.g., Rudman & Glick, 2001), delineating how males and females should behave. For example, women who show agentic traits are often regarded as less appealing (Rudman, 1998). Likewise, competence in women--an agentic trait--increases the likelihood they are perceived as cold (Wiley & Eskilson, 1985). Both men and women demonstrate these biases against females who violate social stereotypes (Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004).

Because women are often perceived as caregivers at home, managers often assume that female employees are more likely to experience a conflict between their work and family lives. Because of this assumption, managers assume these women do not align to the organization or perform

well. Consequently, women are not as likely to be promoted. Hoobler, Wayne, and Lemmon (2009) collected some data that vindicate this argument. That is, managers rated the extent to which their employees experience this conflict between their work and family lives. Typical items included "The time he/she spends on family responsibilities often interferes with his/her work responsibilities". They also rated the extent to which these individuals align to the values of this organization, called person-organization fit, have developed the skills that are needed to complete the job, , and will be nominated for a promotion in the near future.

Women were not as likely to be nominated for a promotion as men, and this relationship was mediated by perceived conflict between their work and family lives. Furthermore, the association between this conflict and promotions was mediated by fit with the organization and job. Interestingly, these relationships were observed even after number of children and dependents were controlled.

Aydin, Graupmann, Fischer, Frey, and Fischer (2011) conducted some research that corroborates this possibility. In the first study, female participants reflected upon either a time in which they felt excluded or included. In addition, they read an article that maintains that many educated women, over recent years, have decided to prioritize family over work. Finally, they were asked questions that gauge their attitudes towards this trend. If these participants had reflected upon a time in which they felt excluded, they were subsequently more likely to endorse the trend of valuing family over work.

The second study was similar, apart from two key amendments. First, a more subtle measure was utilized to assess these traditional values. Participants completed a word completion task. A series of words was presented, each with some letters missing. The task of participants was to

identify the words, some of which related to family, such as "mother". Second, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they are seeking meaning in life. If participants had reflected upon a time in which they felt excluded, they were especially likely to recognize words that correspond to family. Furthermore, the search for meaning mediated this association between social exclusion and recognition of words that relate to family.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter covers the literature work reviewed and the theoretical tools employed in relation to the influence of women's formal employment on changing gender roles of women in Kenya Re-estate, Kisumu County. In addition, it will show the existing gaps from the reviewed literatures for the purpose of the study. It elaborates on the methodology and data analysis design that were used during the research, analysis presentation of the results in the various literature works reviewed.

2.1 Women's Formal Employment and House Hold Responsibilities.

One of the reviewed literatures for the purpose of this study was the study on Job, Family and Individual Factors as Predictors of Work-Family Conflict. The research was conducted by Aminah Ahmad (2009) in Kenya. Her objective was to determine the growing interest in understanding fully the interface of work and family roles. The backgrounds of her study showed the development of a predictive model of work-family conflict. (A model was developed on predictors of work-family conflict which suggested that the cause of conflict could be job-related such as job type, work time commitment, job involvement, role overload, job flexibility). They also predicted that the gender roles and work conflict could be as a result of family-related factors which include number of children, life-cycle stage, family involvement, child care arrangements. Furthermore, individual-related factors such as life role values, gender role orientation, locus of control, perfectionism also came into the picture. It was based on the stress-strain model (Dunham, 1984) whereby the predictors are referred to as stressors, and the conflict as strain.

Furthermore, other researches unanimously conclude that even in the cultures where gender equity in the workplace is high, employed women globally take on a "second shift" of domestic work after returning home, (Zosulz et al.2011). They are principally perceived as the people in-charge of the household chores and all the household responsibility are squarely laid on them. On the contrary, men seem just to be relaxed especially after job since no make shift jobs await for them. The study dwelt more on the conflicting roles of women all over the world, yet my study mainly focused on the factors influencing gender roles among the women in Kenya-re estate.

Researches proved that housework initially used to be a responsibility of the partner who had fewer competing time commitments so that if women work fewer paid hours than men do, women do more housework and when a wife clocks long hours in the workplace, her husband pitches in more around the house (Stickney and Konrad, 2007). This situation was found to be more common in Africa than the other parts of the world. However, even self-sufficient individuals and egalitarian couples often fell back on more traditional gender arrangements especially, when they moved in together, get married, or had a child. Living together, women tend to do and men eschew (deliberately avoid) housework. Whether it was realized or not, it had to resist showing off how “feminine” or “masculine” really were to a heterosexual audience in the home. Sociologists as a result had a term for this performance “doing gender” (Treas 2011).

Furthermore, in Africa increased responsibility for family attention could provide some explanation for the lower profitability of women’s in their work places (Longstreth et al., 1987). By the end of the 1980s, researches showed that women engaging in formal employment sectors were increasing in numbers but, for the most part, they chose traditionally female industry sectors and aspired to smaller than average business size (Evans & Leighton, 1987). Aldrich (1989) also postulated that researchers in the field of formal employment sectors raised many questions about gender differences, but, there still existed a gap as to what could be the cause of low success in women working environment. In line with the objective of my study, the literature reviewed created a gap that my study on influence of women’s formal employment on changing gender roles in Kenya-re estate focused on.

Betler (1991) also did a study in Africa and found that the traditional socialization of women influenced the type of jobs they engaged in, the availability of the opportunity, and the management skills and experiences of the woman had. But the question still remained as to why women were motivated to seek for formal employment among the family responsibilities. The research also showed the effect of family characteristics and responsibilities to the performance of women in their working places with regard to the family responsibilities. In line with the objective of my study, the literature reviewed traditional socialization of women created a gap that my study on influence of women’s formal employment on changing gender roles in Kenya-re estate focused on.

Hannah Bula (2012) also did a study on the performance of Women in Small Scale Enterprises (SSEs) and their marital status and family characteristics. Her study discussed the family characteristics and marital status of women entrepreneurs and suggests policy options to improve performance of women operated SSEs in Kenya. It also examined the family responsibilities of the women entrepreneurs to determine if there is a correlation between the family responsibilities and the performance of women owners and or managers of SSEs. It made an immense contribution to the literature by evaluating the direction and significance of the relationship of family characteristics and responsibilities of women in SSEs to performance of their enterprises. The findings showed that family characteristics and responsibilities independently have no significant relationship to performance. Marital status of the women owners and managers of SSEs in Kenya are not significant to performance. This study was carried out on small scale women entrepreneurs but not the formally employed women. It thus created a research gap that my study on influence of women's formal employment on changing gender roles the filled.

2.2 Influence of Women's Type of Employment to their Responsibility

Research showed that when women have young children and heavy household demands, more women opt to stay home or to work only part-time. In some countries such as the Netherlands, Germany and Great Britain, part-time work is a popular adaptation. Short work hours make it easier for women to balance the house, work and family. In Southern Europe and the formerly socialist states where most jobs are full-time, women don't have the option of working part-time. Women there opt to take an extended break from employment when children are born. Not surprisingly, where women stay home or work fewer hours, they do a bigger share of the housework. American women, even the mothers of preschoolers, have comparatively high rates of full-time labor force participation. American women don't have the government child allowance payments that permit mothers elsewhere to stay home. Many American women have little choice but to work to support their families. Housework falls to women in the U.S., but the demands of their employment mean that husbands are called on to do a bigger share of housework than in places where women do less paid work (Treas, 2011). This reviewed literature was carried out in order to compare the responsibility of women among the formally employed women in the developed countries thus it created a gap that the study on the influential factors on gender role conflicts among Kenya-re estate women focused on.

In Britain, the researches on heterosexual couples where both partners had paid jobs, showed that women often spend significantly more time on household chores and caring work, such as childrearing or caring for the sick, than men. This outcome was discovered to be determined in large part by traditional gender roles that have been accepted by society over time. Labour market constraints also play a role in determining who does the bulk of unpaid work which without any doubt were found to be the working women. The research reviewed principally dwelt on remuneration thus it created a research gap which my study on the influence of factors on women gender role conflicts filled.

A variety of explanations of gender inequality in the workplace in the developed nations have been advanced by social scientists. These include cultural beliefs, men's actions, employers' actions, human capital differences, women's own preferences and sex segregation in the workplace (Becker 1964; Reskin and Hartmann 1986; Reskin and Padavic 1994). Concerning cultural beliefs, it is argued that empowering women promote conflict in families since majority tend to become defiant when they can support themselves. Three types of beliefs are particularly important for the understanding of women's exclusion from the workplace, their restriction to certain occupations and their inferior earnings. That is, beliefs related to women's role in the home, those related to male-female relationships and those related to the differences between men and women (Crampton 1997). In this research paper, emphasis was laid on gender inequality but not the influence of women's formal employment on changing gender roles. This study therefore, focused on the gap created.

Moreover, the assumption from other studies separate spheres for women and men by prescribing the home for women and the workplace for men in Canada. This legitimates their exclusion from the public sphere including the workplace. The second type of beliefs assumes that women are nurturing, lack reason (are irrational) and are governed by emotions. The third type of beliefs assigns inferior status to women relative to men, arguing that women lack aggressiveness, strength, endurance and tolerance while men are competitive and assertive. As such women require men's care. Such beliefs shape women's occupational outcomes by excluding women from positions of authority, encouraging segregation in the workplace and justifying their lower pay. Gender-role socialization also contributes to inequality in the workplace because 'it might lead women to be oriented more to their families and men more to

their jobs' (Reskin and Padavic 1994:41-42). The study was conducted in Europe but not in Kenya, thus it created research gap that this research on the conflicting gender roles among the formally employed women in Kenya-re estate filled.

The fact that traditional gender role attitudes still influence behaviour has important consequences on the working women in Uganda and Kenya. Over the last half a century, women experienced substantial labor market gains; the gender gap in labor force participation and the gender gap in earnings have both declined. Despite these gains, substantial gender gaps remain, both in labor force participation and in earnings. Female labor force participation appeared to have plateaued since the early to mid-1990s (Blau and Kahn 2006). Among fulltime, full-year workers, the gender gap in earnings remained at 25 percent thus creating gender role differences. This halted progress has led researchers to consider less traditional factors that might influence the gender gap in labor market outcomes (Bertrand 2010). My study on the influence of women's formal employment on changing gender roles focused on the identified gaps that occurred as a result of traditional gender role attitude.

Consequently, in Kenya the economics literature on marriage markets is vast; little of it examines the role of gender identity. A few papers (Fernandez, Fogli, and Olivetti 2004; Fortin 2005, 2009) examined how the variation in gender attitudes (across countries, across time, or across couples) correlates with women's labor force participation. In contrast, this article examined the extent to which the overall prevalence of traditional attitudes affects a wide range of outcomes. In addition to women's labor force participation and the gender gap in 5. Several factors have been identified as contributing to these gains. Reviewed article was only limited to marriage markets but not the influential factors on gender roles among formally employed women. It thus created a gap filled by my research.

Generally due to an increase in the number of women participating in the labour market, efforts made show the effects of this double burden on couples placed in such situations Hoch child, Arlie and Anne Machung (1990).

2.3 influence of women's income on to their responsibility in the family.

Eagly and Karau (1991) did a research on gender roles among the women in Kenya. From their study, they found out that formally employed women are sometimes subjected to low pay and

poor working conditions due to inadequate sharing of family responsibilities, besides other obstacles. These factors restrict women's economic opportunities and economic autonomy, thus it caused them to stagnate. The literature reviewed concentrated only on the pay or wages offered to the formally employed women but not the conflicting situation that formally employed women had in relation to household chores which were basically presumed as their primary responsibility.

Blossfeld and Hakim (1997) also expanded the typology of welfare regimes identified by identifying two additional groups of countries: the formerly socialist states, and the south-European states. Whereas the formerly socialist countries promoted women's full-time employment, the south European countries encouraged married women to stay at home. A cross-national study of 23 countries, including several eastern European countries, concluded that there are three clusters of countries, which represent three distinct patterns of attitudes towards women's employment: the work-oriented countries, the family accommodating countries and the motherhood centered countries (Treas and Widmer 2000). The Eastern European countries that were included (Hungary, Poland, Slovenia, Bulgaria, and the Czech Republic) were grouped together with Spain and Ireland in the motherhood-centered cluster. In these countries, "comparatively strong support for mother's full-time employment is combined with even stronger preferences that women with children stay at home" (Treas and Widmer 2000:1425). To a certain extent, this apparent ambivalence/contradiction between liberal attitudes toward women's employment and traditional attitudes toward mothers as the primary care givers can also be found in other countries. For instance, the Scandinavian countries have a high level of female employment, including a high level of labor market participation also among mothers of young children, yet the attitudes towards the domestic division of labor are still surprisingly traditional (Sundström 2000:202). The study reviewed was a comparative assessment of the traditional perception of the responsibilities of married mothers in the European countries. It thus created gaps that the study on the influential factors on women gender role conflicts among Kenya-re women filled.

Under socialism, employment was regarded as a civic duty and the socialist ideology also had gender equality as a political goal (Drobnic, 1997). Treas and Widmer (2000) refer a study that documented a surprisingly high degree of gender conservativeness in Hungary. The

interpretation was that this was evidence of a “public reaction against the sweeping socialist reforms that subjected women to burdensome labor in the workplace, the informal economy, and the household” (Treas and Widmer 2000:1414). They argue that the need for two household incomes, not favorable work attitudes, fostered high levels of female labor force participation in former socialist countries. In a comparative study of Britain, Norway and the Czech Republic on women’s employment and gender attitudes, an East-West differentiation was found: “Compared with Norway and Britain, men and women of the Czech Republic appeared to be more conservative in their attitudes in respect of both the effects of women’s employment on children and family life as well as on gender roles more generally” (Crompton and Harris 1997: 186). This reviewed study focused on the campaign for gender equality but not gender role conflicts among the working women. It thus created a gap that my study filled.

The gendered division of household labor did not translate to significant wage reductions for employed women outside the home or reduced in-home responsibilities (Tichenor, 2005; Lincoln, 2008). In the former Soviet Union women had the highest levels of paid employment in the world, but retained more household responsibilities than comparable women in other countries, and earned two-thirds of the average male income. In post-Communist Russia, there is no change in women’s domestic work, but women earned less than half of men’s average earnings (Crossman A. 2014).

In Africa, men generally retain control over household income, and as the head of household are often the primary recipients of income-generating activities or cash transfers (Harvey& Garwood 2013). A number of studies show that men play a vital role in deciding how cash is spent, although women are often responsible for receiving distributions of food or other (e.g. blankets, jerry cans etc.) items. Widowed and other women on their own frequently lose out, and are often excluded from receiving aid as there is no male member of the household to be registered with humanitarian agencies and cultural norms often prevent them from going to register by themselves (Harvey and Garwood 2013). This literature reviewed focused principally on the responsibility of men in the house but not on the conflicting gender roles among the formally employed women. My study therefore, focused on the identified gap.

There had been some change but Kenya is long way from full gender equality. According to the playbook on marital power, the partner who brings more resources to a marriage should have the

clout to bargain out of doing unpleasant chores. Surprisingly, wives who bring home bigger paychecks than their husbands aren't very successful in leveraging on their advantage. They often wind up doing a bigger share of the housework! These domestic superwomen may be compensating for an awkward violation of the old-fashioned gender norms that assign primary breadwinning responsibilities to men (*Treas*, 2011). The literature gave more emphasis on gender equality which was not the case in this study area.

Nevertheless, the male breadwinner model still dominates the social policies in most countries (O'Connor 1996), although people's attitudes towards this traditional division of labor have been changing. In Kenya, people are increasingly more positive to women's labor market participation (Hakim 1996), and this documented turn in people's attitudes is usually explained by the raising level of education for women, better possibilities for career development for women, and also the increasing number of families that are dependent on two incomes for their level of living (Sundstrøm 2000). Recently, increased attention was directed towards the gender equality in the employment of women in the job market, and the question was raised as to whether this attempt – which often has a history of high levels of female employment – differ from the western European countries, in particular in their attitudes towards mothers employment. The study reviewed focused on men as breadwinners of the house but not on the conflicting gender roles among the formally employed women, thus this study focused on the identified gap.

Other researches show that in Africa, the differences in socialization for males and females are considered to incline them to seek only those jobs that society has deemed acceptable for their sex. Gendered socialization may also encourage a sexual division of labor that reserves certain jobs and positions for males, rewards them for their work and frees them from domestic chores. By orienting women to the home and family, gender-role socialization pushes them to choose jobs that may combine easily with their domestic/family responsibilities. This is a situation that overtime had promoted misunderstanding among family members thus creating family conflict. Human capital differences between men and women provide a third important explanation of gender inequalities in the labor market. It views women's exclusion from the labor market and their disadvantaged position in the workplace in terms of their inferior education, training/skills and experience (Becker 1964; Jacobs 1989).

In Tanzania, a sex inequality in the workplace was a consequence of men's desire to preserve their privileged position in the labor market (Anderson 1982). The fear among men that women may outperform them, lower the prestige of their work, or undermine their (men's) privileges in other realms such as the 54 *Eastern Africa Social Science Research Review* (EASSRR), vol. XVII, no. 1 (January 2001) family, community and national political life is said to push men to discriminate against women in the workplace. Women were excluded from certain jobs, denied opportunity for certain skills and training, offered low wages and denied access to positions of authority, among other forms of discrimination. Employers' actions also contributed to sex inequality in the workplace. Employers, for example, preferred males to females for certain positions or types of work when recruiting or during job assignments (Reskin and Padavic 1994; Reskin and Hartmann 1986).

Advocates argued that gender role ambiguity regarding instrumental and expressive roles was a major factor in divorce (Hacker, 2003). Research also shows that specialization of household tasks by gender in contemporary families was more dysfunctional than functional (Crossman A. 2014). Women relegated to family roles that they saw as restrictive, for example, were unhappier in their marriages and more likely opted out of them. Despite tension associated with multiple roles and role overlap, couples report high levels of gratification, self-esteem, status security, and personally enriched lives. Women are denied opportunities to expand instrumental roles offering economic parity with men outside the home; men are denied opportunities for expanding expressive and nurturing roles inside the home hence power and privilege can result in a patriarchal family regardless of a couple's desire for a more egalitarian arrangement (Smith, 2005).

Although there were policies intended to reduce work-family conflict among the working Sweden women, comparing countries with and without "family-friendly" policies showed that these arrangements had unforeseen effects. They can actually promote a less equal division of household labor. By making it easier for women to meet household responsibilities, they lessen the need for couples to negotiate a more egalitarian domestic arrangement. And, they can entrench the cultural notion that the household is women's responsibility. In some Eastern European countries under socialism, women workers and only women workers got a regular day off every so often to catch up on housework. Lengthy maternity leaves may discourage a

mother's return to the labor force. Or, a long maternity leave steered her into a marginal, dead-end job; if her pay will never rival her husband's, it makes sense for the husband to spend time breadwinning while the housewife handles the housekeeping. Family friendly policies usually took it for granted that housework and childcare was mainly women's work. A rare exception was gender egalitarian Sweden. There, "Daddy" Leave was pressed on each new father. The idea was to encourage him to bond with infants before the mother can become the designated childcare expert in the family (Treas, 2011).

In Africa, we thought of ourselves as choosing how we organized our family lives. The truth was that we did not invent our routines from scratch. Usually, it's more convenient to fall back on one of the old cultural models that we see around us. Our household routines are shaped by cultural values that were consistent with, say, a male-breadwinner-and-female-homemaker arrangement or a dual-earners-sharing-housework pattern. Swedish society, for example, placed an exceptionally strong value on gender equality. This provided the ideological underpinning for the idea that partners should share the household chores. Societal notions about marital relationships also influenced who mopped the floor and who packed the children's lunches (Smith, 2005). Where the culture held that the basis for marriage was a need for economic security and children, the men stick to "men's work" and the women to "women's work." In many countries, however, the reason for marriage is increasingly defined as intimacy, not functional needs (Kidder, 2002). As the product of on-going negotiation between equals, a good family means personal development, communication, and reciprocity.

During the last 25 years, divorce laws became more liberalized, and the greater number of couples divorcing guaranteed that more women must sought employment outside the home to provide for themselves and their children (Connell, 2005). All of these events resulted in a more complex family life for dual-earner and single-parent families. They faced the challenge of balancing responsibilities in both the family and work areas (Stickney, 2007). Most people agreed it became more difficult to achieve this balance. Nearly half (48 percent) believed they were somewhat successful at the juggling act, and an additional 31 percent believed they were very successful. The number of people who felt they were not very successful in balancing family and work was highest between the ages of 30 to 39. This is also the age group which formed majority of women on formal employment (Stickney, 2007).

Conflict between family and work responsibilities often caused stress (Palapattu, 2006). When conflict resulted, both the family and work suffered. Family and work settings have a built-in potential for conflict. People felt overwhelmed with the demands at work and at home. They had little energy or time to do all the things required to do as a parent and an employee, and still have time for themselves (Kidder, 2002)

Balancing family and work was a challenge for contemporary families. There was need for helpful information on how dual-earner and single-parent families could balance the competing needs of both family and work particularly in Kenya. Keeping these areas in balance would help to reduce stress and have a healthy family life, healthy relationships at work, and a sense of satisfaction (Martell, 1996). In general, many females in Kenya and across the world enjoyed the sense of competence they felt when they discovered that they could work and contribute financially to their families. Men often experienced less stress when not pressured to be the family's sole provider (Morlgard, 1995).

2.5 Critique of Literature

This section discusses the critique of theoretical and empirical literature. It reviews previous studies on the discourse of changes of gender roles in the families of women in formal employment in Kenya-Re Estate in Kisumu County. Studies on this area will be compared and contrasted in terms of methodology, objectives, variables, conclusions and research gaps.

Contrary to social role theory, gender differences in personality, self-construal, values, and emotions is more pronounced in North American or European nations relative to Asian and African countries (Guimond, 2008). Furthermore, social role theory cannot explain all gender differences, especially in relation to mate choice and sexual jealousy. For example, unlike men, women tend to prefer mates who demonstrate the potential to earn some considerable amount of money (Wiederman & Allgeier, 1992). Social role theory might predict that women who assume a low status role might exhibit this preference, perhaps to overcome her own limitations in power. However this preference persists even when the women themselves earn hefty wages (Wiederman & Allgeier, 1992). Instead, some of these findings are more aligned with sexual selection theory (e.g., Trivers, 1972). That is, women need to be more discriminating with partners because of the limited number of potential offspring she can raise. Furthermore, Sczesny and Kuhn (2004) showed that social stereotypes do not always affect the decisions and behaviour of individuals. For example, when recruiters and managers consider their decision carefully and methodically, they become more inclined to correct or adjust these stereotypes. In other words, cautious, systematic recruiters and managers do not perceive males as more suitable leaders than females.

Given the increasing importance of non-marital cohabitation and a growing proportion of children being born outside marriage, the concept and idea of the "marriage squeeze" should be

broadened to include the effects of age-specific sex ratio imbalances on the "mating market" rather than on the marriage market only. Also, education should be added to the dimensions of age and sex (Lutz et al., 1998) to quantify the mating squeeze in a more meaningful way. The expansion of higher education among women implies that women who want to find a male partner with the same or a higher level of educational attainment would increasingly suffer an education specific mating squeeze. From the perspective of gender roles and the division of labour in the male breadwinner-female homemaker family model, it has been argued that highly educated women would be less prone to form a partnership because their education has given them the human capital resources to be independent. Also, they may be considered less attractive for (some) men because of being less inclined to abide by the role expectations for female homemakers. This has been the classic rationale for expecting lower marriage rates for highly educated women (Blossfeld, 2009). On similar vein, low-educated and less well-off men will also be affected, having difficulties to find enough women with the same or lower level of education than themselves, to form a family with (van Bavel, 2012).

Most research focusing on the relationship between educational attainment and fertility considers the New Home Economics in some form or other as a starting point (Becker, 1991; Cigno, 1994; Hotz et al., 1997). The micro-economic theory posits that as women receive more education and gain access to better positions in the labour market, the costs of child bearing may increase. This primarily relates to opportunity costs, in the form of foregone earnings, slower human capital accumulation and depreciation of professional skills, because raising children requires considerable parental and especially maternal time and may force women to take time away from employment. The scale of opportunity costs is revealed by studies on the motherhood wage penalty (Kühhirt & Ludwig, 2012; Gough & Noonan, 2013).

2.6 Research Gaps

The foregoing literature reveals a notable insufficient of literature, either globally or regionally on the changes of gender roles in the families of women in formal employment. Further, even with the myriad studies on changes in gender roles, empirical findings from past research show mixed results. Positive, negative and non-significant co-variation between change in gender roles and well-being of families has been observed.

Concerning family level of income, most research confirms that men with higher socio-economic status exhibit higher marriage rates than men with lower status, in line with theoretical expectations (Jalovaara, 2012). Unexpected and remarkable, however, was the very recent finding that university-educated men in the Netherlands are more likely to remain single than men with less education (Dykstra & Poortman, 2010). Research results about the marriage prospects of recent cohorts of women, differentiated by level of education and income, are even more mixed. A number of studies do not find the expected negative effect of women's socioeconomic status on marriage rates (Dykstra & Poortman, 2010; Jalovaara, 2012). In the US, the increased earning potential of more highly educated women is associated with later ages at marriage, but not with lower marriage chances compared to the less educated (Goldstein & Kenney, 2001; Isen & Stevenson, 2010). Overall, the recent literature about the educational gradient in partnership formation has reported inconsistent and unexpected findings, particularly for women.

An important shortcoming of existing research regarding transitions over the family life course is the relatively limited attention paid to men, even though it has been argued that the mechanisms concerning men are quite different from those concerning women (Forste, 2002; Oppenheimer, 2000, 2003). In contrast to the rather unilateral focus on women both in economic theories and in the Second Demographic Transition theory, Oppenheimer (2000, 2003) offered another

important dimension for understanding the decline of marriage, by bringing men back into the debate. She pointed out that in times with poor and uncertain economic prospects, men who are unable to fulfil the role of the breadwinner will not be attractive marriage partners and/or fathers. She also argued that employment uncertainty for men impedes assortative mating and may therefore delay marriage (Oppenheimer, 1988). In such times, cohabitation becomes a less binding living arrangement, more suitable to the uncertain times (Mills et al., 2005). The effect of men's economic resources on the timing of marriage and parenthood has only been studied in a few West-European countries (Blossfeld et al., 2005; Kalmijn, 2012), but rarely in Eastern Europe.

There is a huge literature examining women's level of commitment trends and their determinants in well-being of families but studies on men are rare (Balbo et al., 2013) even if there is a general acceptance that the de-standardization of family life especially concerns men (Widmer & Ritschard, 2009). Existing research on men indicates that disadvantaged men have little chance to become fathers and to have multiple children in stable unions (Lappegård & Rønsen, 2013) or as

single fathers (Guzzo & Hayford, 2010). It is against this backdrop that the study was set out to highlight the influence of women's formal employment on changing gender roles in Kenya-Reserve Estate in Kisumu County.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents detailed descriptions of the methodology that the researcher used to carry out the study, collection and analysis of data. It discusses the research design employed, the study population, sampling technique used, data collection instruments, analysis and presentation of data

3.2 Research Design

This research was basically descriptive study to explore the influence of women's formal employment on changing gender roles in Kenya-Re Estate. The design was chosen because of the large amount of data that would involve research to be carried out. This Kenya-Re which was chosen represented other estates with similar geographical situation thus acting as a model pilot usable elsewhere within or outside Kenya.

3.3 Study Area

This study was conducted in Kenya-Re estate in Migosi sub location, Manyatta location in Winam division within Kisumu County. Residents of the 185 compounds access their houses through a common entry, which ensures security. Within these compounds, there are additional 114 houses (KNBS 2009). Being a cosmopolitan, Kenya-Re was specifically sampled due to the fact that it is densely populated by people from different tribes of Kenya, who work in different professions. In addition, no such study in the knowledge of the researcher had been carried out in this area.

3.4 Study Population

The study population targeted formally employed women in 75 households within Kenya-Re estate in Kisumu County. The sampled women were from various professions; these include university lecturers, lawyers, doctors, engineers among others drawn from different sectors such as the public, private and NGOs. The sampled respondents were all females living in the study area.

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

Data was collected using questionnaires and interview schedules.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

There was a questionnaire for individual interviews (Appendix 1). The questionnaire was administered personally by the researcher. This questionnaire comprised of closed-ended questions sub-divided into parts i.e., A, B, C, D and E.

3.6.2 Interview Schedules

The questionnaire comprised closed-ended questions and open ended questions so as to allow the researcher gather more data on the research questions. The researcher recorded the responses with permission from the respondents.

3.7 Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

3.7.1 Validity

To ensure face validity, the instruments were given to three experts on the topic of study from Maseno University. Their suggestions were incorporated in the revised instruments which were used in the actual study.

3.7.2 Reliability

To ensure reliability of the questionnaire, a pilot study was carried out for the purpose of pre-testing it and to determine; if it would provide the data necessary for this study, if it would identify any problems respondents could encounter in completing the questionnaire and the clarity of the questionnaire to the respondents. The results of the pilot study gave rise to suggestions which were included on the revised final questionnaire.

3.8 Data Analysis

The women's background in terms of income levels was analyzed using descriptive statistics and presented using frequency distribution, charts. Data analysis involved editing, coding, tabulating and summarizing raw data. The pieces of information gathered from the investigations were put together and analyzed (interpreted) and put in meaningful and intelligible. Descriptive statistics and synthesize data averages and percentages. The following parameters were used to take reference or draw conclusion about the data collected, frequency distribution, pie chart, coding, percentages and tables.

3.9 Data Presentation

After analysis, the results were presented by use of descriptive statistics such as, percentages, charts, graphs and tables.

3.10 Research Ethics

The researcher followed standards of research ethics. These include requiring respondents to voluntary accept to participate in the research; ensuring participants are informed about the risks involved in the research of which they must consent and assure participants of confidentiality of the information they give.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter reports study findings by presenting a comprehensive analysis collected. This study sought to assess the influence of women's formal employment on changing Gender roles in Kenya-Re Estate within Kisumu. A total of 75 questionnaires were administered to the respondents of the study area. Microsoft Excel (Ms-Excel) for windows software was used in computing the results.

4.2 Presentation of findings

75 questionnaires were collected, fully completed with few difficulties experienced here and there and finally collected by the researcher for data analysis. This gave a response rate of 100% from the respondents.

4.2.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Table 1: Ages of the respondents

Ages	Frequency	Percentage (%)
21-30	40	53
31-40	18	24
41-50	12	16
51-60	5	7
Total	75	100

Source: Research Data (2014)

A question was asked on the possible ages of the respondents in Kenya-Re and 53% of the respondents said they were between 21-30 years old. 24% were 31-40 years, 16% represented 41-50 years while 7% of the elderly women were found to be 51-60 years.

(a) Marital Status

Table 2: Marital status of the respondents

Marital status	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Married Monogamous	42	54.8
Married Polygamous	7	11.3
Single	15	24.2
Widowed	3	4.8
Divorced	5	3.2
Separated	3	1.6

Source: Research Data (2014)

Table 2 above shows the marital status of the respondents whereby 54.8% were married in monogamous family, 24.2% were single parents, 11.3% in polygamous marriage, widows stood at 4.8%, divorced were 3.2% while separated women were 1.6%.

(b) Education Level

Table 3: Level of education for the respondents

Education level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Doctoral	2	4
Postgraduate	10	13
Undergraduate	44	58
College	12	16
Secondary	7	9
Primary	0	0
Total	75	100

Source: Research Data (2014)

From table 3 above, most respondents were undergraduates (58%), followed by 16% who completed or were still in colleges, postgraduates (13%), doctors were 4% and finally secondary leavers (9%).

(c) Religion background of the respondents

Table 4: Religion background of the respondents

Religion	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Christian	63	82.3
Hindu	1	1.6
Islam	4	6.5
None	7	9.6
Total	75	100

Source: Research Data (2014)

Most of the respondents were Christians representing 82.3%. Muslims were 6.5% followed by Hindu at 1.6% while the remaining 7 participants did not mention their religions.

(d) Occupation sectors for the respondents

Table 5: Occupation sectors for the respondents

Occupation	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Private Sector	14	18.7
Public Sector	23	30.6
Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)	38	50.7
Total	75	100

Source: Research Data (2014)

With regards to the occupation, majority of the respondents (50.7%) were working with NGOs, followed closely by those in the public sectors (30.6%) and lastly the private sectors at 18.7%.

(e) Conflict of roles with work demands

Table 6: Conflict of roles with work demands

Activities done before work	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Washing utensils	27	36
Prepare meals	23	30.6
Do laundry	11	14.7
Clean the house	34	45.3
Care for children	31	41.3
Feed the chicken	4	5.3
Ironing cloths	27	36

Source: Research Data (2014)

On the open ended questions the household roles that took time of most women was house cleaning with 45.3%, followed with almost the same percentage as that of caring for children which stood at 41.3% and washing utensils (36%) women in junior positions did most of the domestic chores on their own, except for those who lived with their siblings who assisted. In an open ended question one of the respondent said *“I am the eldest and provide everything”*, some said *“my brothers have to assist in washing dishes when I go to work”* when she was asked how her income related to her household roles

4.3 Influence of income in gender role distribution

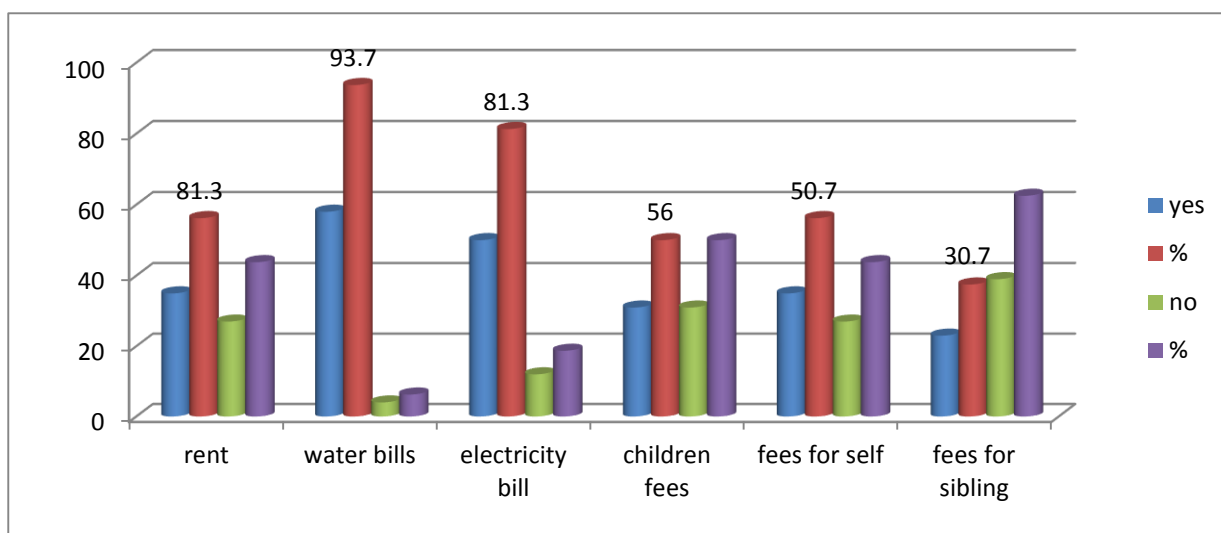
Table 7: Influence of income in gender role distribution

Expenditure	Yes	%	No	%
Rent	61	81.3	14	18.7
Water Bills	70	93.7	5	6.25
Electricity Bills	61	81.3	14	18.7
Children Fees	42	56	33	44
Fees for self	38	50.7	37	49.3
Fees for siblings	23	30.7	39	69.3

Source: Research Data (2014)

Table.7 above indicates that the women paid bills, school fees rent. Their employment helps in settling the bills. Therefore it is important that they could get assistance in the house work so that they also get income to settles house expenses. Some of the participants who did not pay rent lived in their own houses that are not rented. This could be the reason some of them did not do some chores.

This can also be represented in Figure 1 shown below.



Source: Research Data (2014)

Figure 1: Influence of income in gender role distribution

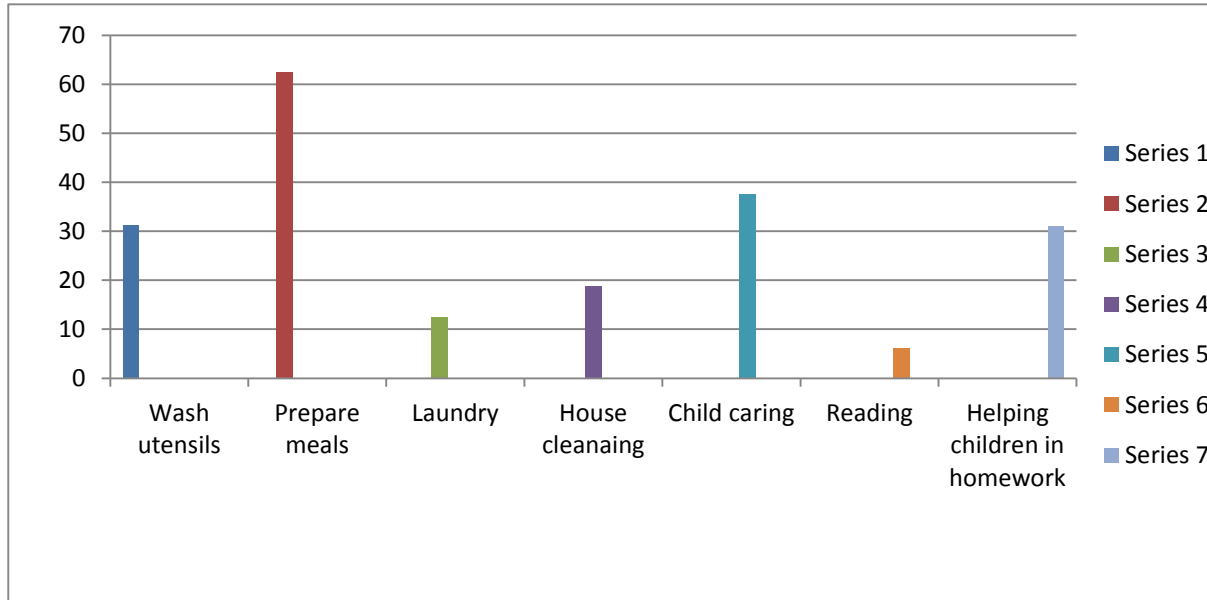
4.4 Formal employed women household roles in Kenya-Re

Table 8: Employment influence on Division of labour

Specific roles of women	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Wash utensils	19	31.2
Prepare meals	39	62.5
Do laundry	8	12.5
Clean the house	12	18.7
Care for children	23	37.5
Read	4	6.2
Help children with the homework.	19	31

Table 8 shown above depicts that most respondents (62.5%) prepare meals for their families, 37.5% take care of their children, 31.2% normally wash utensils, 31% help children in doing their homework, and 18.7% clean their houses, 12.5% for laundry while 6.2% were reading.

This was also represented in the figure 2 below.



Source: Research Data (2014)

Figure 2: Nature of work demand and household Roles

Table 9: Time the respondents wake up for household roles

Wake Up Time	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Between 4-5	15	25
Between 5-6am	39	62.5
Between 6-7am	8	12.5

Source: Research Data (2014)

The table above shows that majority of the respondents of 62.5% wake up between 5am to 6am, 25% wake up 4-5am while the rest of 12.5% were found to be 6-7am.

Table 10(a): Employment period

Duration employed	Frequency	Percentage (%)
0 – 5 years	47	62.7
6 – 10 years	11	14.6
11 – 15 years	15	20
15 years and above	2	2.7
Total	75	100

Table 10(a) shows that most respondents interviewed have been employed within a period of 5 years standing at 62.7% followed by 20% of between 11-15 years, 14.6% for 6-10 years and the rest 2.7%. The women who were employed for a longer period did fewer chores. It shows that women who have consistent income got a more reliable aid to assist in house chores to assist than those who were previously employed.

Table 10(b): Salary Scale

Salary	Frequency	Percentage (%)
<25,000	19	25.2
25,001-50,000	46	61.3
51,001-75,000	7	9.5
76,001-100,000	3	4
Total	75	100

Source: Research Data (2014)

Most participants earned between 25,000/= to 50,000 /=. The distribution of household chores among this group varied in relation to the length of employment as stated in Table 10(a).

Table 11: Mandatory roles among women

Marital status /Roles	Cook	Laundry	Wash utensils	Clean the house
Single	3 (8.7%)	0	7(20.3%)	2(5.8%)
Widowed	1 (2.9%)	0	0	0
Married	17(49.3%)	12 (34.8%)	2(5.8%)	8(23.2%)
Divorced	0	0	0	0
Separated	0	0	0	0

Source: Research Data (2014)

In response to marital status regarding household roles, married women found to be 49.3% (cooking), 34.8% (laundry) and 23.2% for house cleaning. Single women were 8.7% (cooking), 20.3% (washing utensils) while 5.8% (house cleaning). The widowed was carrying out cooking only while both divorced and separated were doing no work at all. Women not doing mandatory roles assigned to them seem to opt for divorce to avoid conflict.

Those who felt that household roles prevented them from getting promotions (31) were the same people (31) who felt household roles prevented them from salary increase. They said that when your boss sees you coming late they think of you as incompetent and not dependable therefore you do not get an opportunity for a superior position.

Generally, this research only found out the roles women played on the working days. This may limit the knowledge on whether the female also performed more chores on the days out of work. But study objective of whether gender roles conflicted with work demands was achieved.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed summary of findings of the study. It also gives the limitations of the study and suggestions for further analysis.

5.1 Summary of Findings

5.1.1: influence of women's formal employment on households responsibility.

The study found that 82.5% of the respondents on formal employment were waking up on average two hours earlier in order to accomplish their household roles before reporting to work. 62% were found returning home in later hours and thereby were not able to carry out some of their household tasks on a daily basis. Some respondents who left work early due to household roles were seen as incompetent by their bosses at work places therefore prevented them from both promotions and salary increments.

The study found that when there were strict guidelines on what activities should be done; women had to ensure peace by carrying out their responsibilities meaning they need more hours awake. Most respondents recommended that both physical and financial gender roles should be equally distributed among household genders. Elderly women on the contrary opinion felt that traditional roles should be continued in families by employing house helps if anyone able to but not leave all household roles to such house helpers. However, married couples should support each other on financial issues to eliminate laziness among women. Care giving meant to ensure that the family is well met. In a family of the orphans or siblings who lived together, the responsibilities were rested on the eldest siblings.

Women were care givers because they had to multitask both at their work places and at home for everything to be more organized. Women did most of the household roles and at the same time seen as decision-makers. Despite for their multitasking, they were mostly available for their children who asked them about everything. Such women at the same time were seen as mentors for the children's values.

5.1.2: Contributions of women's level of commitment

The research discovered that Single women did most of the domestic chores on their own than those who lived with their siblings. Most household roles were done by the dependants, while the decision making mainly lied on the family's bread winner who were women.

5.1.3: Influence of women's income

The study results showed that most women contribute to the household expenses in all dimensions ranging from house rents to water bills, school fees payment for both their own children and other siblings. 28.6% of the respondent who did not pay rent owned the houses in partnership with their spouses or siblings.

5.1.4 Contributions of women's formal employment

The study found that all the participants whose work influenced what roles they did confirmed that they did not get enough time to carry out their roles effectively at home hence they ended up choosing what to do and left some work unattended. This caused family conflicts in 20.9% of the participants where 3% represented physical conflicts and 14.5% were family quarrels. The study also showed that 56% of the respondents had mandatory roles assigned specifically to them with 60.9% of the roles being done after the work. Cooking supper was the greatest role that caused conflict among the married couples standing at 49%. Women who had lived in such families for not less than five years constituted 36% of families with conflicts.

Additionally, the researcher found that most employed women should get house helps to assist them. They should also report to work than carrying out household roles since they can't be paid if they don't go to work, neither will they get money to cater for their family needs. It was difficult to care for the family, to multitask both at work place and at home, making sure that everything is in order, counsel children and guide them to lead Christian life, provide guidance and at the same time make provisions for family monetary demands.

5.2 Conclusion of the Study

The examination of the influence of pay levels and changes in pay leads to my third conclusion: both pay increases and pay levels are consequential for change in women's gender-role attitudes.

Women who began the study period with modest or low wages (up to \$5.19 per hour) developed more non-traditional attitudes over time if they also experienced fairly large percentage increases in hourly pay (at least 25 per cent). In contrast, pay increases do not appear to produce more gender egalitarian views among women who began the study's time frame in fairly well-paid jobs (at least \$5.20 per hour). The interpretation of these patterns is that gender-role attitudes are influenced by the perception of "making it" in the labor market. Higher initial wages or sizable wage increases over time might serve to bolster a sense of progress and accomplishment that in turn leads to more egalitarian gender-role attitudes. As with other analyses, especially the analysis of employment duration and continuity, the analyses of pay levels and pay increases point to the need to be sensitive to the dynamics of women's employment experiences rather than attending solely to static measures of employment experiences. Results of the pay analysis are thus broadly consistent with those offered by Tallichet and Willits (1986) and Spitze and Waite (1980). Those studies found that a static measure of income was positively associated with a shift toward more egalitarian gender-role attitudes. These results differ in that we draw out the importance of changes in pay levels, not just levels at one point time, for changes in gender-role attitudes over time. The study, unfortunately, does little to illuminate exactly why some categories of employed women developed less traditional gender-role attitudes over time. We hope that our efforts to document which employment experiences prompt change in gender role attitudes can serve as a springboard for additional investigations into the precise causal mechanisms that link the social context and rewards of employment to changes in attitudes.

5.2.1: influence of women's formal employment

It can be concluded that gender roles among formal employed women are hinged on very many factors affecting them. Multitasking on both employed duties and doing household roles have been the biggest challenge affecting gender roles among formally employed women. Other factors like lateness for work that may not lead to promotions or salary increments, or may as well result to work dismissal or family conflicts among the formal employed women.

5.2.3: Challenges facing formal employed women

Factors like reporting time, finance management (on school fees, food, clothing etc), family conflicts, multitasking roles, parenting among others have been found to have an adverse effect on gender roles among formal employed women. This means these factors are inversely related

meaning that increase of lateness at work, for example, may increase lack of trust and inefficiency between the managers and their female employees leading to no promotions and salary reductions.

5.3 Recommendations of the Study

Firstly, the study recommends that for efficient and effective maintenance of employed female gender roles, there should be other individuals (e.g. house helps, other siblings etc) in order to provide relevant domestic chores on behalf of such women. These employed women should also share problems they are facing at their work places in order to maintain their formal employment hence continuous circulation of finance in the family.

It appears that the redistribution of roles within the family to match increased role responsibilities outside the home needs to be considered. Male gender should also be studied, so that a comparison can be made if there is really no change among couples in dual employment. Formal employment has both positive and negative consequences on family well-being. Particular improvements in family life are needed to prevent problems at work. To have a longitudinal survey so that we understand if this roles change with time that a salary increase, or at the on start of joining a family. Women however appreciate urbanization that has been experienced in the modern world for it helps those living in urban centre by saving time, rather than going to fetch water from the river, fetch firewood, etc. The general finding adopted here, is that employment will prompt women to adopt more egalitarian attitudes and that more recent and longer employment spells lead to greater gender-role egalitarianism.

Lastly, the formal employed women should follow human virtues as guidelines and principles governing their families and work ethics. This will help them in solving family conflicts as well as maintaining employment thereby enhances continuity of the families in all aspects. It will also be important to have a longitudinal survey so that people can understand if these roles can change with time, at salary increase or at the commencement of the family.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

The study should have involved a larger study area especially in other surrounding locations within Kisumu County but due to finance and time constraints, the research was limited only to Kenya-Re Estate in Kisumu.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

- Other research could be conducted on categories of demographic characteristics based on various geographical areas since such areas have variations and comparisons which could be done to check on the similarity of the results or if there are any variations.
- Further research could be done on other sectors of the economy in order to make a comparison of the results since the study tested only gender roles on formally employed women.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for individual interviews

Questionnaire for individual interviews.

THE INFLUENCE OF WOMEN'S FORMAL EMPLOYMENT ON CHANGING GENDER ROLES.

Date _____

Participant Number _____

Dear Respondent,

Thank you for agreeing to participate, no names or identifying information will be in the final analysis of the interview, and the records themselves will be destroyed when the study is done.

My name is Pamela Akinyi, I am a student at Maseno University. I am conducting a study on the Gender roles of women in formal employment in Kisumu County, for the award of a degree in Masters of Arts in Social Development and Management. This study will examine the influence of women's formal employment on changing gender roles , with hope that we get to understand how responsibility has changed for women on formal employment like you. Your views are crucial for the success of this study.

Socio-Demographic Data

Indicate the following information about yourself. Please, tick (✓) the appropriate choice or fill in the blanks accordingly).

1. How old are you?

a)20-30yrs b)31-40yrs c)41-50yrs d)50yrs

2. What is your religion?

a)Christian b)Hindu c)Muslim any other.....

3. What is your marital status?

a) Married b) Single c) Widowed d) Divorced e) Separated

4. If married is it a) polygamous? b) monogamous?

5. What is your level of education?

- a) Doctoral b) post-graduate undergraduate d) college e) secondary

6. What is your occupation?

B. To assess the influence of women's formal employment on their household responsibilities.

7. What time do you wake up?.....

8. What time do you leave for work.....

9. What activities do you do from the time you wake to the time you leave the house?

- i. Wash utensils a) Yes b) No
- ii. Prepare meals a) Yes b) No
- iii. Do laundry a) Yes b) No
- iv. Clean the house a) Yes b) No
- v. Care for children a) Yes b) No
- vi. Any other

10. What time do you report to work?.....

11. Have you ever reported to work late due to your family responsibility?

- a) Yes b) No

probe: If yes, how often per week?

12. Do you think household responsibilities prevent you from getting:

- a) Promoted yes no
- b) Salary increase yes no

C. How women's type of employment influence their family responsibility

13. What is your designation?.....

14. Does your position of employment influence the roles you have at home?

- a) Yes b) No

15. If yes, how does it influence your roles?

.....
16. How long are your working hours?.....

17. What time do you leave work?.....

18. What time do you arrive at home.....

19. What time do you go to bed?.....

20. What activities do you do from the time you arrive at home and go to bed?

i. Wash utensils a)Yes b)No

ii. Prepare meals a)Yes b)No

iii. Do laundry a)Yes b)No

iv. Clean the house a)Yes b)No

v. Care for children a)Yes b)No

vi. Any other.....

21. How many days do you work in a week?.....

D. To determine the influence of women's income on to their responsibility in the family

22. How long have you been in this employment?

a) < 5yrs b)5-10yrs c)11-20yrs d) >20yrs

23. What is your salary scale in thousands?

a)Kshs<25 b)Kshs 25-50 c)Kshs 51-75 Kshs 76-100 e)Kshs>100

24. Does your income relate to your household responsibility?

a) Yes b) No

If yes, how does it relate to your responsibilities?.....

Probe: do you do more household roles with less income? a) Yes b) No

Do you do less household roles with more income? a) Yes b) No

25. Do you also contribute in payment of?

a) House rent Yes No

B) Bills i) Water Yes No

ii) Electricity Yes No

C) School Fees i) Children Yes No

ii) Yourself Yes No

iii) Siblings Yes No

26. How long have you been in this family?

a) <5yrs b) 5-10yrs c) 11-20yrs d) 20yrs

27. What is gender role in your opinion?

.....

28. Do gender roles exist in your house? Yes No

29. Are there family roles that you have to do by yourself? Yes No

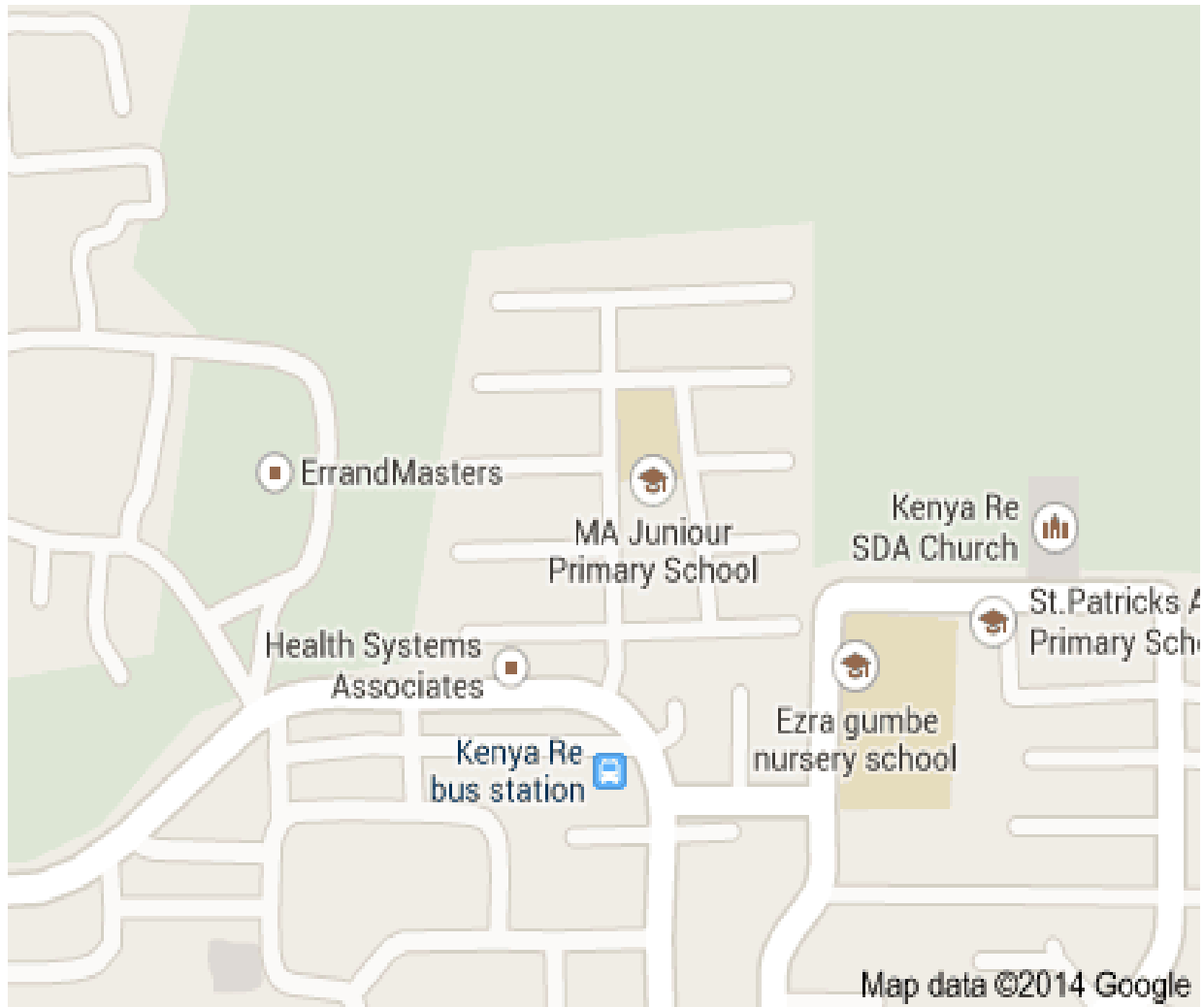
If yes, which roles.....

30. How happy are you with the current role distribution in your house

a) Very Happy b) happy C) not happy

End!!! Thank You

Appendix 2 ; Location of Kenya-Re Estate



Appendix 3; Work Plan

S/No	Activity	Time (Weeks)	Month and year
1	Development of proposal	12	January- March(2014)
2	Proposal approval and Improvement of Instruments, piloting and quality control.	4	April- May.
3	Data collection	2	June
4	Data Organization, Analysis and Interpretation.	3	July-August
5	Report Writing.	3	August -September
6	Report Submission		September

Appendix 4: Budget

S/No	Item	Description	Estimated Cost (KES)
1	Stationery	5 Reams of photocopy papers @ 450.00	2,250.00
		Computer accessories & other writing materials.	3,000.00
		Sub Total 1	4,350.00
2	Referencing	Internet	4,000.00
		Books	7,000.00
3	Support Services	Secretarial and binding services.	3,000.00
		Consultations.	19,000
		Sub Total 4	21,000.00
4	Administration	12 percent of the total cost	7,516.00
		Sub Total 5	
5	Contingency	10 percent of the total cost	5,220.00
		Sub Total 6	5,220.00
		Grand Total	28,086.00