

# Human Resource Planning and Gender Mainstreaming In the Sugar Sector: A Survey of Sugar Firms In Nyanza Sugar Belt, Kenya

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**Abstract:** The past decades have seen an increasing number of women in the workplace. Perhaps, this has led to a change in gender roles. While there is more openness to women joining the workforce, there is still gender inequality in the workplace. This is in contrast with the fact that women population numbers has surpassed men according to latest population statistics. The number of women seeking higher education has also doubled in recent years. Research has shown that approaches to human resources lack any reference to gender issues in organisation. The study sought to identify the relationship between human resource planning and gender mainstreaming in the sugar sector. The objectives of the study were; to evaluate the integration of gender mainstreaming in the sugar sector, to establish the influence of gender mainstreaming in human resource planning, to examine the relationship between gender mainstreaming practices and human resource planning and to identify challenges faced in integrating gender mainstreaming practices in the sugar sector. The theoretical framework for the study was based on theory of justice that advocates the principle of fairness through the process of social transformation. The study was conducted on three sugar firms within Nyanza Province (Chemelil, Muhoroni and Sony). The study population comprised of senior administrators and employees working in various departments within Muhoroni, Chemelil and Sony sugar firms. A total of 4709 respondents formed the study population where a sample size of 357 respondents was chosen. Purposive and convenience sampling techniques were applied. Questionnaires, interview guides and documents analysis acted as instruments of data collection. Data collected was arranged, sorted out to remove errors, coded, entered and analysed using descriptive statistics, inferential analysis and content analysis. The presentation of results was made in tables, pie charts, graphs and narrative forms. The result shows that gender mainstreaming policy has not been implemented in the sugar sector. Independent sample t-test showed that there existed no significant difference ( $p > 0.05$ ) between gender of respondents and gender mainstreaming policies in the human resource planning in the three sugar industries. The three organisations have not yet achieved gender rule. A glass ceiling approach has been observed in the three sugar industry where the top positions are mainly occupied by men. The study recommends that the sugar industry should ensure full integration of gender mainstreaming policies in their human resource planning. Gender mainstreaming practices needs to be promoted in the sugar industry and training is needed for employees working in organisations to create awareness on gender issues.

**Keywords:** gender, mainstreaming, human resource planning.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

The Platform for Action, commonly identified as the international agreement launching gender mainstreaming, was produced at the Fourth World Conference on Women, in Beijing, in 1995 and has since been adopted by the African Union, and by all member states of the Union (Verloo, 2001). Gender mainstreaming is identified as a policy initiative arising from the World Conferences on Women beginning in Mexico City in 1975 and culminating in the Fourth World

Conference in Beijing, 1995. The *Platform for Action* agreed at Beijing, to which the Kenyan government is one of 189 signatories (Platform for Action, 1996), articulates gender mainstreaming in the following terms:

Governments and other actors should promote an active and visible policy of mainstreaming a gender perspective in all policies and programmes so that, before decisions are taken, an analysis is made of the effects on women and men, respectively' (United Nations, 1996: 11).

In terms of implementation, gender mainstreaming involves the re-organisation of policy processes as it moves gender equality concerns into everyday policies and into the activities of the actors ordinarily involved in policy-making. Gender mainstreaming bureaucracies, established in over one hundred countries, now represent a significant challenge to traditional policy-making worldwide (True & Mintrom, 2001). Gender mainstreaming is a culmination of this process in policy-making terms. It was through its beginnings in development projects that the policy became clearly results focused and specifically designed to redress the inequalities that result from the social construction of gender (Jahan, 1995). An investigation into the theoretical and conceptual origins of the mainstreaming process, undertaken in the by other researchers in other countries reveals it as a clearly feminist agenda. This is evident in that mainstreaming seeks not just to emancipate women, but rather to change the existing social structure, which is gendered, to one which does not disadvantage anyone, male or female (True & Mintrom, 2001). The success of gender mainstreaming in achieving gender equality is largely dependent on its ability to influence domestic level policy-making. This applies also to organisations planning of human resource policies. As such, the policy environment into which gender mainstreaming must integrate is an important consideration (True & Mintrom, 2001).

Change in the last decade has been incremental and uneven at best despite an international trend toward the "mainstreaming" of gender equality, whereby the issue is built into all policies and administrative procedures rather than focused in a special-purpose program (Mackay & Bilton, 2000). Around the world and in most spheres of public sector activity, women remain seriously under-represented in positions of political and administrative authority (Borrelli 2002). Kenya statistics also shows that gender mainstreaming in employment has not yet been achieved (USAID, 2006). Benschop and Verloo (2006) assert that in Belgium, there was a classic pattern of sex segregation in the Ministry of the Flemish Community. The sex ratio of the Ministry showed 36% women and 64% men. The figures from the equal opportunity plans and the personnel report illustrate four-fold sex segregation. Vertical segregation found as 81.3% of the highest positions are held by men against 18.7% held by women. The Ministry does not have clear statistics on horizontal sex segregation, but the impression is that men are overrepresented in technical and management functions. The segregation in full-time positions is also extensive as 98.8% of men hold a full-time position, compared with 64% of women. Finally, the division of permanent appointments is gendered as well: 92.6% of men, compared with 71.9% of women hold permanent positions in the organization. This shows gender under-representation in human resource planning in European Countries (Benschop & Verloo, 2006).

UNDP (2002) note that the Government of Turkey has made tremendous progress during the past decades towards the achievement of gender equality in Turkey. A series of law reform packages to improve the protection and promotion of women's rights have been adopted mainly as a part of the EU accession process (Republic of Turkey, 2005). However, for a country, which was ahead of many European countries in giving voting rights to women in the 1930s, important challenges still remain for women in Turkey. Indeed, the 2005 MDG Report (2005) notes that "significant challenges and structural barriers" still remain including capacity and coordination shortcomings in Turkey's effort to overcome gender based inequalities. Women's participation in politics is still very low, with a representation of 9 % of women in the Parliament and only 1.5 % in the local councils; women literacy rate is increasing but not at a desired pace; violence against women is another crucial and urgent issue to address. In addition, extremely low levels of participation of women in paid labour market, with a rate of 24 % and even reaching only the 4% in the southeast Anatolia region is another important issue to tackle (UNDP, 2002).

Theobald, Tolhurst, Elsey and Standing (2006) reports that in Malawi, Mozambique, Uganda and Ghana, gender advocates from the bureaucracy have made significant achievements in developing specific gender policies and strategies, and in ensuring the visibility of gender considerations in general sector policies and strategic plans. Theobald *et al.*, (2006) argues that for instance, in Uganda the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development collaborated with the Ministry of Health to ensure that gender mainstreaming was included amongst the guiding principles for the National Health Policy (NHP) (Government of Uganda, 1999; Bakeera & Stroh, 2002).

Gender inequality in the Kenyan labour force has gained momentum in recent years. Kenya Ministry of Trade and Tourism said that gender inequality is a serious economic issue in Kenya stressing that addressing it will lead to improved outcomes not only for women themselves, but also for families and the society as a whole. In recent years, the Kenyan government has institutionalized its commitment to addressing gender inequalities by creating a National Commission on Gender and Development and a Ministry of Gender, Sports, Culture and Social Services in 2004, as well as initiating Gender Desks in various ministries. According to World Bank (2007), Kenya is today also one of only two African countries with an active local chapter of the Organization of Women in International Trade (OWIT) in the private sector. Indeed, encouragement from OWIT promoted the creation of the Gender Unit in the Ministry of Trade and Industry.

Women are of significant low percentage of the total number of employed persons in Kenya (IELRC). Between the years 1970 and 1983, the number of female employees increased from 14% to 20% of the total number of persons engaged in any form of employment. However, with the new developments aimed at mainstreaming gender participation in the economy, the labour market in Kenya is sex segregated—men and women are not distributed evenly across all sectors and occupations in proportion to their participation in the total labour force. The Duncan Index calculated for 3 sectors, and used to measure labour market segmentation by sex was 13 percent in 1990, indicating a moderate level of segmentation (USAID, 2006). According to SID (2004), in 2000, it had risen to 21 percent—registering a rise of 60 percent in sex segmentation over the decade of the 90s as indicated below.

**Table 1 Gender demographics in Kenya**

Sector	Percent of Each Sector		Percent of Labour Force		Total (1000s)
	Women	Men	Women	Men	
Agriculture	25	75	15	19	321
Manufacturing	15	85	10	24	346
Services	35	65	75	57	1,097
<b>Total</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>1,764</b>

Source: Kenya Economic Survey (2006).

Between 1994 and 1999, income inequality in Kenya grew worse. In 1999, Kenya ranked among the five most unequal countries in the world, with the wealthiest 10 percent controlling approximately 42 percent of the total income and the poorest 20 percent controlling only 1.5 percent (SID, 2004). Although notable gender wage gaps remain, the ratio of urban women's wages to those of urban men has improved. In 1990, urban women earned approximately 49 percent as much as urban men; by 2000, women's wages had risen to 68 percent of men's wages. The male literacy rate has increased from 81% to 91% in recent years while female literacy population has risen steadily from 61% in 1990's to 79% in 2003. Projections difference shows that female literacy rate is higher (30%) as compared to males (11%) (Economic Survey, 2006).

The population of female in Kenya as per 2009 was 19,417,639 compared to 19,192,458 males (KNBS, 2010). There has also been a sharp increase in number of females joining schools; it has also been evident above that female literacy rate has been increasing over the past 2 decades (USAID, 2006). The increased number of women across the world calls for amendment of labour laws. For example, the Kenyan constitution adopted in August 2010 provides that 30% of public jobs be allocated to women; there has also been an increased pressure for women empowerment in Kenya and developing countries at large. Countries like Rwanda and Tanzania are ahead of Kenya in increasing women representation in employment. However, with the increased number of female population across the world and Kenya included calls for revision of human planning policies with regard to employment. This formed the basis for the conceptualization of this work.

From the observations made above it is clear that planning tends to have a sectoral bias that results in a fragmented, compartmentalised approach and ignores crosscutting gender needs and concerns in human resource planning in organisations. This problem is compounded in many countries where no single authority or agency takes the responsibility for implementing the country's overall development programme. As a result, the failure to meet the needs of women in the different sectors is not evaluated. It may be picked up in gender-aware budget reviews and examinations of the extent to which monies have been used. Nevertheless, without a gender aware evaluation of the impact on expected

beneficiaries, the failure to meet women's needs remains hidden. Therefore the study investigated the influence of human resource planning on gender mainstreaming in Kenya sugar sector, a survey of Nyanza Sugar Belt.

## 2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Gender mainstreaming has become part and parcel of human resource planning to an extent that its integration is now legalized. As noted by Hannan (2001), gender mainstreaming involves identifying and addressing relevant gender perspectives in data collection and research, analysis, legislation, policy development, development of projects and programmes, as well as in training and other institutional development activities." In order to effectively mainstream gender, however, much more is involved than increasing women's participation; it involves identification of the linkages between gender and different sectors. However, few studies have been done to assess the extent to which human resource planning approaches; recruitment, promotion, training, continuous professional development among others has ensured gender equity for all. Standing (2006) observed that women are disadvantaged in accessing labour markets and productive resources in majority of sub Saharan African countries. The challenge is to correct the glaring gender gaps in access to and control of resources, economic opportunities and in power and political voice. What is not clear is that do these sugar firms have initiated strategies for gender mainstreaming. From studies available, today no organisation can be operated without considering issues of gender. Although this has been the case, little information exists as to whether all the gender mainstreaming policies are applied in the sugar industry human resource planning activities. Therefore this study sought to identify the relationship between human resource planning issues and gender mainstreaming in the Kenya sugar industry by focusing on three sugar industries within Nyanza Sugar belt; Chemelil, Muhoroni and Sony.

## 3. OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this research was to establish the relationship between human resource planning and gender mainstreaming in sugar sector industry in Kenya. The specific objectives of the research were;

- (i) To evaluate the integration of gender mainstreaming policies in the sugar sector
- (ii) To establish the influence of gender mainstreaming in human resource planning practices in sugar sector
- (iii) To examine the relationship between human resource planning and gender mainstreaming in sugar sector
- (iv) To identify challenges faced in integration of gender mainstreaming policies in the sugar sector

## 4. LITERATURE REVIEW

### Human Resource Planning and Gender Mainstreaming:

Standing (2006) emphasizes the importance of gender awareness in HRP can be understood in relation to three levels of institutional practice: It refers to an understanding of the significance of gender in the positioning of people in the health sector workforce, and a recognition that gender affects occupational choices, career patterns and working practices. It therefore indicates a practical need to consider the relationship between the gender composition of the health workforce and the kinds of recruitment strategy, terms, conditions and contracts which will make the most effective use of health human resources, it relates to the need to provide more gender sensitive health care services, particularly in the area of reproductive health. The more encompassing understanding of reproductive health which came out of the Cairo Declaration emphasizes the importance of involving men in reproductive health matters, and of taking into account the context and constraints within which women make health choices. There is also the important issue of provider-client relations and the sensitivity of providers, particularly to female clients. This implies the need for gender issues to be incorporated into health worker training and it relates to the low representation of women in decision making in health care (Van Wijk, 1996). This is both in the context of the low numbers of women at senior levels in the professions and in policy roles, and in the context of the absence of women's voices as stakeholders in the services which are provided.

A UK study Halford and Witz, (1997) provides an illuminating account of the ways in which the restructuring of a profession dominated by women, without regard to possible gender implications, can operate to disadvantage them. In Britain, nursing historically was not a linear, bureaucratic ladder of opportunity, but a command hierarchy presided over by a (female) matron. This was essentially a female chain of command within the (male) doctor dominated institution of

the hospital, which gave the matron sole jurisdiction over her staff of ward sisters and staff nurses. While the contextual details are obviously specific to the UK case, these examples do indicate significant ways in which women can be disadvantaged by ostensibly neutral occupational restructuring. In both the Sudanese and the UK case, family responsibilities constrained women's options in furthering their careers. Both cases also demonstrate the significance of stereotypical assumptions about women's capacities or motivation in perpetuating discrimination. They underline the inefficiency of discrimination. In the UK, a serious shortage of nurses has developed in recent years, as young women look elsewhere for careers and older staff leaves the service for better-remunerated jobs with better career options. In the Sudan, there is a high rate of exit from medicine by women graduates.

For example in Zimbabwe, Standing (2006) pinpoints that there is a very high dropout rate from nursing among women staff with over 15 years experience. This represents a serious loss of experience and expertise. HRP needs to examine (a) the reasons for this high exit rate and (b) what might be needed to be redeploying such staff so that their skills are not lost to the sector. The structural crisis in public sector employment in much of sub-Saharan Africa affords an opportunity to think more imaginatively about the deployment of health human resources in ways that might begin to satisfy equal opportunities and optimize the contribution of female health staff. This means looking critically at existing working practices, contracts, incentive structures and stereotypical assumptions about how health care tasks should be divided. Policy makers also need to pay the same attention to nursing stakeholders as they do to other powerful medical stakeholders.

Benschop and Verloo (2006) asserts that in Belgium, research results on the incorporation of human resource planning in gender mainstreaming in government departments observed that at the start of the project, underlining its importance, there was a classic pattern of sex segregation in the Ministry of the Flemish Community. The sex ratio of the Ministry showed 36% women and 64% men. The figures from the equal opportunity plans and the personnel report (statistics available at the start of the project were from 1997) illustrate four-fold sex segregation. Vertical segregation is found as 81.3% of the highest positions are held by men against 18.7% held by women. The Ministry does not have clear statistics on horizontal sex segregation, but the impression is that men are overrepresented in technical and management functions. The segregation in full-time positions is also extensive as 98.8% of men hold a full-time position, compared with 64% of women. Finally, the division of permanent appointments is gendered as well: 92.6% of men, compared with 71.9% of women hold permanent positions in the organization.

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Theobald, *et al.*, (2005) reports that in Malawi, Mozambique, Uganda and Ghana, gender advocates from the bureaucracy have made significant achievements in developing specific gender policies and strategies, and in ensuring the visibility of gender considerations in general sector policies and strategic plans. At a health sector level, gender mainstreaming is discussed as the norm. Theobald *et al.*, (2006) argues that for instance, in Uganda the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development collaborated with the Ministry of Health to ensure that gender mainstreaming was included amongst the guiding principles for the National Health Policy (NHP) (Government of Uganda 1999: Bakeera and Stroh 2002). On this basis, the Ministry of Health and development partners agreed at the second Joint Review Mission to incorporate a commitment to the integration of gender issues in policies, planning, service delivery and evaluation in the Health Sector Strategic Plan (HSSP) and in the Memorandum of Understanding between the Government of Uganda and development partners (Bakeera & Stroh, 2002).

A survey conducted by European Union in Jordan (2006) found out that despite relative gender balance in education has not been translated into a similar equality in the labour market. Women's participation in the labour market is surprisingly low. ILO (2004) found out that equality laws in the field of labour are overruled by the various legal codes that deny women full legal competence, women suffer more from the economic crisis than men, informal activities are common for women, but hardly provide a living and women are not fully taken into account in economic reform plans or social productivity plans.

Verloo (2006) reports that in the Middle East and North African (MENA) region stands out in general for its low rate of women's participation in the economy (Moghadam, 2002). In Morocco, women's participation in the labour market is not high but is better than that in some other Arab countries. Female unemployment, although high, is similarly less gender-skewed. In Morocco, an average of 35% of the women of working age is employed. Cairoli (1999) describes how garment manufacturing flourished particularly since 1980, offering work in the mid 1990s to 25% of the manufacturing labour force, most of them young, unmarried.

In Turkey EU (2006) reports that only a quarter of women in Turkey participate in the labour market, their massive withdrawal from economic life has been evaluated as 'an alarming indication' of a condition that has far-reaching negative implications not only for women's empowerment and gender equality but also for the economy and society in general (Ecevit, 2003). Integrating a gender perspective into the design and implementation of all macroeconomic and social policies is imperative in order to reverse this current trend. Despite the overall reduction in the rural labour force in Turkey, 50% of women workers (compared to 28% of men) are still working in agriculture; 14.8% and 35.1% of women workers are employed in industry and the services sector, respectively (compared to 19.8% in industry and 46.6% in services for men). The persistence of such a high share of agriculture in female employment, despite a large movement of rural populations to the cities, has been explained by the fact that most urban women are housewives, whereas nearly all rural women also work outside the home in agriculture. However, most women workers in the agricultural sector (74%) are 'unpaid family workers' (DPT, 2006).

Schneider-Ross (2002) research despite focusing on diversity and equality, it observed that Procter and Gamble examined the disproportionate loss of women on the way up the corporate ladder, despite recruiting equal numbers of male and female graduates. The company decided to introduce measures such as home-working and career breaks, and to seek to effect culture change in an organisation where work had always been expected to take precedence in an employee's life. As a result, it now has employees at director level who work part-time or job-share. As well as seeing a rise in the number of female managers, over the past five years productivity has increased by more than 30% - an increase that is most consistently attributed to the organisation's increased percentage of female managers at group manager level from 25 to 42%. Moreover, the 'business case' has moved on to consider the recruitment and retention of ethnic minorities, and more recently has included disability, age and sexuality.

## 5. MATERIALS AND METHODS

In Kenya, sugarcane is grown on fairly flat regions in the Western, Nyanza and Coast Provinces. About 85% of the total cane supply is from small-scale growers whilst the remaining is from the nucleus estates of the sugar factories. The study was carried out on three sugar factories within Nyanza Sugar belt; Chemelil, Muhoroni and Sony. The research design adopted in this research was a cross-sectional survey. According to Welmann and Kruger (2001), this is a research method often used in developmental psychology, but also utilized in many other areas including social science and education. This type of study utilizes different groups of people who differ in the variable of interest, but share other characteristics such as socioeconomic status, educational background and ethnicity. The advantage of survey is that its research involves collecting data from the same sample of individuals or organisations on difference settings (sectors, locations). The study concentrated on the identified three public sugar factories; Muhoroni, Chemelil and Sony. Information from the Kenya Sugar Board shows that these three public companies have approximately 4709 workers (Chemelil = 1,854, Sony = 1,533 and Muhoroni = 1,322). The study employed structured questionnaires, interview guides and document analysis as instruments for data collection. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the basic features of the data in a study. Descriptive statistics provided simple summaries about the sample and the measures, they include; measures of central tendency, percentages and correlations.

## 6. RESULTS

### Extent of Gender Mainstreaming in the Sugar Sector:

Following the first objective of the study, the study sought to investigate how gender mainstreaming had been integrated in the sugar sector. The employees working the three sugar factories were asked to indicate if they were treated equally regardless of gender in their organisations. Their responses are presented in Figure 1.

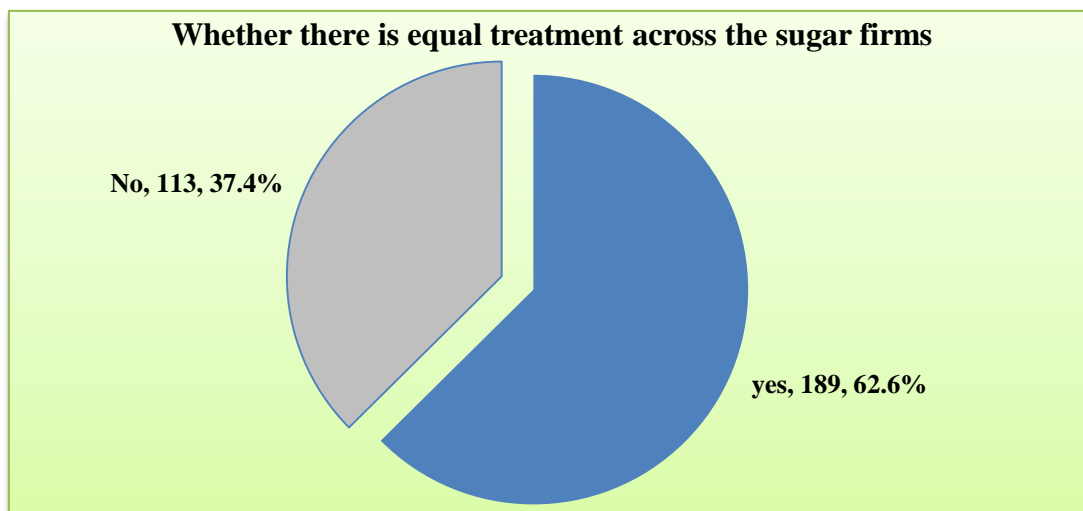


Figure 1 Existence of Equal treatment in firms

From Figure 1, majority 189 (62.6%) of the respondents were found to agree that there was equal treatment while 113 (37.4%) said there was no equal treatment. It was found out that the respondents showed a mixed reaction when asked if there was equality in treatment in their organisations. Furthermore, the study sought to determine the interest that members of staff had on gender issues in their organisation. The study results show that more than a half 180 (58.1%) of respondents showed little interest in gender issues in their organisation, 55 (17.7%) were found to be very much interested, 33 (10.6%) said that they were not at all interested while 42 (13.5%) did not know have clue on gender issues. The findings indicated that majority of staff were interested in gender issues although the applicability of gender issues seems not to be common in the three sugar industries. Most 68.6% felt that gender was not adequately incorporated in their organization.

Table 1 Ways in which gender was incorporated in sugar sector

	Yes		No		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Work coordination	26	8.4	284	91.6	310	100.0
Gender balance	27	8.7	283	91.3	310	100.0
Both gender equally treated	4	1.3	306	98.7	310	100.0

The study found out that 26 (8.4%) of the respondents said there was work coordination while 27 (8.7%) others mentioned gender balance at work place while 4 (1.3%) respondents talked about gender being treated equally. The research concluded that gender was not adequately incorporated in the sugar industry within the Nyanza sugar belt. The result shows that the gender mainstreaming aspects are rarely incorporated in the sugar industry as envisaged by respondents. the respondents were further asked to indicate the extent to which their organisation policy incorporated gender mainstreaming aspects. Table 2 gives the results.

**Table 2. Influence on human resource planning**

	Disagree		Neutral		Agree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Promotion is based on merit	223	71.9	26	8.4	61	19.6
There are equal opportunities on training and development	214	69	26	8.4	62	20
There are equal opportunities on promotion	201	64.8	35	11.3	63	20.3
There is equal participation in development issues	193	62.3	46	14.8	71	22.9
There exist equal benefits	179	57.7	48	15.5	73	23.5
Equal treatment on wages and salaries	175	56.5	31	10.0	104	33.5
There is equal treatment in social welfare	174	56.1	41	13.2	78	25.1
We are given opportunities in participation in recreation activities	173	55.9	39	12.6	87	28
There are equal treatment on disciplinary actions and grievance handling procedures	155	50	29	9.4	126	40.6
Everyone is compensated fairly	144	46.4	72	23.2	91	29.3
There exist equal treatment during leaves and off-times	59	19.1	41	13.2	207	66.8
There is no discrimination in departure and arrival time	56	18	54	17.4	198	63.8
There exist equal working hours	38	12.3	40	12.9	231	74.6

The respondents were asked whether there were equal opportunities on promotion, 201 (64.8%) disagreed, 63 (20.3%) agree. The respondents were further asked if there was equal opportunity on training and development, 214 (69.0%) disagreed and 62 (20.0%) strongly agreed. On the issue of equal treatment on disciplinary actions and grievance handling procedure 155 (50.0%) of the respondents disagreed while 126 (40.6%) respondents strongly agreeing. Asked if there existed equal treatment on wages and salaries, 175 (56.5%) respondents disagreed while 104 (33.5%) agreed with the statement. The respondents were further asked if there existed equal treatment during leaves, 207 (66.8%) respondents agreed and 59 (19.1%) respondents disagreed. On the issue of working hours 231 (74.6%) respondents agreed with while another 38 (12.3%) disagreed. Told that there was no discrimination on departure and arrival time 198 (63.8%) respondents agreed and 56 (18.0%) disagreed.

It was also sought from the respondents if there existed equal benefits and 179 (57.7%) of the respondents disagreed and only (23.5%) agreed. Asked if there was equal treatment in social 174 (56.1%) respondents disagreed and 78 (25.1%) agreed. About equal opportunities in participation of recreation activities, 173 (55.9%) respondents disagreed and 87 (28.0%) agreed and 39 (12.6%) were found to be neutral. The respondents were also asked if compensation was done fairly, 144 (46.4%) disagreed, 91 (29.3%) agreed while 73 (23.2%) remained neutral. The research enquired from the respondents if there was equal participation in development issues, 193 (62.3%) disagreed, 71 (22.9%) agreed while 46 (14.8%) respondents remained neutral. The respondents were asked if promotion was done on merit, 223 (71.9%) disagreed while 61 (19.6%) respondents disagreeing.

The findings indicated that the majority of the respondents disagreed with the statements presented. Most respondents disagreed on equal opportunities for promotion, equal opportunities on training, existence of equal benefits and equal treatment on wages. Most respondents also disagreed that promotion was based on merit and that there was equal participation in development issues. Mixed reaction was observed when the respondents were asked if compensation was fairly done. Majority of respondents agreed that there existed equal treatment during leaves and off-times, there existed equal working hours and that there was no discrimination on arrival and departure times. The research concluded that most of the aspects of equality were not observed in the respondents' organisations.

#### **Respondents' familiarity with gender programming documents:**

The respondents were asked if they were familiar with the gender programming documents available in their sugar firms.



**Table 3. Respondents familiarity with gender programming documents**

	Familiar		Somehow		Unfamiliar	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Government guidance policy on gender mainstreaming	77	24.8	98	31.6	125	40.3
Constitution gender policy	102	32.9	99	31.9	90	29.0
MDG 3 and gender issues in other MDGs	42	13.5	71	22.9	173	55.8
Resolution 1325 (Beijing)	38	12.3	87	28.1	171	55.2
The organisation strategic goal and service lines - gender linkage	35	11.3	89	28.7	172	55.5

The respondents who participated in the study were asked if they were familiar with government guidance policy on gender mainstreaming. Findings showed that 125 (40.3%) were unfamiliar and 98 (31.6%) respondents were found to be somehow familiar while 77 (24.8%) were familiar. With the constitution 102 (32.9%) respondents were familiar while 99 (31.9%) were somehow familiar with 90 (29.0%) being unfamiliar. On the issue of MDG3 and gender issues in other MDGs 173 (55.8%) were not familiar while 71 (22.9%) were somehow familiar and 42 (13.5%) were familiar. On the resolution 1325(Beijing) 171 (55.2%) respondents were unfamiliar while 87 (28.1%) were somehow familiar and 38 (12.3%) were found to be familiar. Asked if they were familiar with the organisation strategic goal and service lines - gender linkage 172 (55.5%) respondents said they were unfamiliar while 89 (28.7%) respondents were somehow familiar with 35 (11.3%) saying they were familiar. The research results suggested that most of the respondents lacked awareness on various programming documents. The findings showed that the level of applicability of gender programming documents was low. Most of the respondents said that they were no applicable at all.

#### **Challenges Faced in Integration of Gender Mainstreaming Policies:**

The study further investigated the challenges faced in integration of gender mainstreaming policies in the sugar sector. Table 4 presents the results.

**Table 4. Obstacles hindering incorporation of gender policies in HRPs**

Obstacles	Mean
Office culture/environment	4.1115
Lack of financial resources for gender programming	3.7077
Lack of staff training on gender	2.9190
Lack of gender analysis tools	3.4930
Lack of support from senior management	3.5106
Organisational priority for gender issues	3.0424

The findings showed the lack of staff training had a mean of 2.91 while organisational priority for gender issues followed with 3.04 and lack of gender analysis tools had a mean of 3.49. Lack of support from management had a mean of 3.5106 while lack of financial resources had a mean of 3.70 and office culture/environment had 4.11 mean. The study findings showed that lack of staff training was the most impeding obstacle followed by low organisational priority for gender issues and lack of gender analysis tools.

## **7. CONCLUSION**

The study concludes that HRP rarely addresses the needs of gender policies which relate to their different life cycle experiences in the sugar industry. Results of the study have shown that the three sugar industries rarely factor in the needs of women in ensuring gender mainstreaming policies are implemented in their organisations. The results of the study revealed that training, opportunities for promotion, disciplinary actions, benefits, social welfare, wages, salaries, participation in continual professional development were not equally provided to workers of all gender. The study also observed that majority of respondents had little interest in staff issues. For example, a glass ceiling approach was observed in one of the sugar industry whereby top management positions were occupied by men as opposed to female. Results of the study further revealed that a significant number of respondents were not aware of provisions on constitution on gender

policy, Beijing resolutions, and MDGs gender issues. This showed that majority of workers in the three sugar firms lack adequate knowledge, interest and capacity towards gender mainstreaming in their organisation. Independent sample t-test results showed that there existed no significant difference ( $p>0.05$ ) between male and female employees perception towards the integration of gender policies in human resource planning. They are involved in the process and determine its success although. Training of employees on gender issues in organisations was also found to lacking in the three sugar firms. Employees were not aware of polices applied in the organisation to achieve gender mainstreaming. They also failed to get to be familiar with gender programming documents available. The most notable challenges identified by the study to be influencing the integration of gender mainstreaming policies in the sugar industry were; office culture and environment, lack of financial resources for gender programming and lack of staff training on gender issues.

## 8. RECOMMENDATIONS

The study makes the following recommendations

1. Organisations should give more focus to training their employees on gender issues in the organisation. This is because the respondents were found to be unaware of the policies aimed at promoting equality of all in their organisations
2. Firms should come up with and strictly follow policies on gender mainstreaming. This will ensure that the sugar industry complies with the constitution, ILO and other international conventions advocating for gender mainstreaming in the labour market
3. Women issues should be incorporated into the organisation that will offer patterns of work relating to those issues.
4. Policy makers in the organisation should consider gender mainstreaming as a major factor while coming up with new policies.

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