

**GENDER ROLES IN TEA FARMING AND ITS EFFECT ON GENDER EQUITY IN  
SINGORWET WARD, BOMET COUNTY, KENYA**

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**A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate School in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of Master of Arts in Gender, Women, and Development Studies of  
Egerton University**

**EGERTON UNIVERSITY**

**OCTOBER 2024**

## DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATION

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This thesis is my original work and has not been presented in this university or any other for the award of a degree.

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to my husband, Kenneth Lang'at, my parents, Mr. and Mrs. Koech, Mr. and Mrs. Chepkwony's family, and my siblings for their motivation and guidance in the proposal preparation.

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

I thank the Egerton University staff in their entirety, those within Njoro campus and Nakuru town campus who called to encourage me during proposal and thesis writing. Special recognition to the Institute of Gender staff at the Njoro campus, you are great people, thanks for your unending support. I would like to express my gratitude to the very able supervisors Dr. Damaris Seleina Parsitau and Dr. Diana Alaka Opollo for the great guidance, responses and engagement during the whole process of the thesis. I am also grateful to Dr Sally Bukachi and Mary Goretti who gave me great guidance and support during topic selection and proposal development. I am greatly indebted to all my lecturers at the Egerton University Nairobi campus for being close all the way. I would also like to thank the tea farmers, the tea buying centre committee members, tea farm labourers, tea area directors and staff of Tirgaga tea factory for their immense support in the data collection process. I am forever grateful to my family; both nuclear and extended for continually supporting me, travelling with me to meet my supervisors and giving me the peace of mind throughout the study period. I will always remember your love.

## ABSTRACT

Studies in various parts of the world inclusive of Vietnam, India, and China indicate that men and women have certain roles in agriculture. In many developing countries assignment of these responsibilities in agriculture are based on social and cultural norms. In Africa and Kenya women take most of the roles that involve spending long hours and using a lot of energy. Their work receives less recognition and value. The main objective of the study was to examine gender roles in tea farming and its effect on gender equity. The specific objectives were to examine the effect of access and control over land, assess the effect of access to financial services, analyse the effect of traditional division of labour and evaluate the effect of access to agricultural extension services in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward, Bomet County. The study was based on the theories of social change. A cross-sectional study design was used since it enables the understanding of the prevalence of gender inequity issues through a study of a large group of people at the same period. A sample size of 532 tea farmers' respondents (comprising of 431 male tea farmers and 101 female tea farmers), 2 directors and 10 farm labourers were involved in this study. Purposive, stratified and simple random sampling was employed to get five zones based on sub-locations within two director zones in Singorwet ward and then tea buying centres were randomly selected within the two zones- Singorwet Zone and Mugango Zone. The two Zones were used because of their existence within Singorwet Ward, the area covered by the study. A pilot study was done in one tea buying centre in every sub location, and the centres were picked purposively- those that have the largest number of registered tea farmers. This was to get variety of respondents in terms of educational level, age, marital status among other factors. A combination of these sampling techniques was employed due to the segregated respondents to allow for an understanding of each case per gender and age among other demographics. Questionnaire, interviews and observation schedule were used for data collection. Data analysis was done using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS V.25) for quantitative data and QDA Miner lite for qualitative data. All major decisions on tea farming rest with the men, as well as all gender equity indices and access to and control of financial services in tea farming. The overall gender parity ratio stood at 0.2 which was in favor of men. The study recommends to all tea farming stakeholders to invest in programs to reduce time pressures for women and support joint decision making and ownership of income and resources at the community and household level to attain gender equity.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

<b>ADA:</b>	American Dietetic Association.
<b>AFDB:</b>	African Development Bank
<b>CGD:</b>	Centre for Governance and Development
<b>FAO:</b>	Food Agricultural Organization
<b>FHH:</b>	Female-Headed Households
<b>G.O.K:</b>	Government of Kenya
<b>ICRISAT:</b>	International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics
<b>IFAD:</b>	International Fund for Agricultural Development
<b>ILO:</b>	International Labour Organization
<b>KHRC:</b>	Kenya Human Rights Commission
<b>KTDA:</b>	Kenya Tea Development Agency
<b>KTGA:</b>	Kenya Tea Growers Association
<b>MDG:</b>	Millennium Development Goals
<b>MHH:</b>	Male Headed Households
<b>TBK:</b>	Tea Board of Kenya
<b>TRFK:</b>	Tea Research Foundation of Kenya
<b>USAID:</b>	United States Agency for International Development

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background of the Study

Agriculture is a very critical sector of the economy of Kenya. The reason for this is threefold; it is a source of food for the country, it is a major employer and it brings in foreign exchange earnings through the sale of agricultural products to the export market (Makone et al., 2017). Tea is currently one of the very important agricultural products due to its rating as one of the major cash crops and the 3rd major foreign exchange earner in Kenya ( (Bore & Nyakundi, 2016). The tea industry in the country has added to the economic growth with a contribution of 4% of the Gross Domestic Product and 10% of the Agricultural Gross Domestic Product. The tea sector has, therefore, been listed as one of the main agricultural sectors that will facilitate and contribute to the achievement of the Kenya Vision 2030 (Anderson et al., 2021; FAO, 2020; (KNBS, 2019). Concisely, the tea industry plays an important roles role in Kenya's economic growth and long-term development. Justify the whole document as requitred

Kenya practices two agricultural systems, namely small-scale and large-scale agriculture, of which small-scale farming is predominant, accounting for 75% of total agricultural output. (Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries and Cooperatives, 2021). In the tea growing areas, most small-scale farmers engage in tea farming which is their major cash crop. However, with all the work within the agricultural process, farmers still use human labor. Medium-scale farming and large-scale farming are practiced, too, but account for a smaller percentage of total agricultural output.

Women have a big role in various agricultural sectors - they perform either as farmers, laborers, or entrepreneurs. These roles are visible within the family land and in other farms to earn wages. Their tasks in agriculture range from producing crops, taking care of animals, processing and producing food, working for wages in other agricultural farms, and marketing products. Despite all these roles that women play, they experience constraints related to valuing, balancing, recognizing, and rewarding their work (Gupta et al., 2019; International Coffee Organization, 2019; Komatsu et al., 2018) Men too have roles within agriculture but mostly their roles are in management. According to FAO (2020), men's work receives recognition and value; they are appreciated for what they do. Moreover, according to FAO (2020), men work on maintaining their power in society by undermining women and hence affecting women's productivity by denying them the freedom to play their roles effectively.

Moreover, the various roles of women in agriculture arise out of a belief that men are the ones supposed to run commercial farming. The men engage in activities like preparing the land, irrigating, harvesting, and transporting crops to the market, and collecting the resultant revenues. These roles possess a gender aspect in it in that the distribution is done based on the sex of individuals. In South East Asia for example women make up 90% of the labor force in agriculture, while in Pakistan 80% of the women are engaged in taking care of livestock (UN Women, 2015). In Tanzania, women do most of the unpaid work in agriculture accounting for 80 % while in Kenya women's representation within the labor force in agriculture range between 75- 89% ( KIPPRA, 2017) This communicates a form of feminization in agriculture which in some studies is said to be a result of men moving away from agriculture to other lucrative activities (Makone et al., 2017). These figures confirm that women spend so much time in agricultural activities, unlike men which is not consistent with the benefits they (women) derive from it.

The gendered aspect in the assignment of tasks comes in the form of gender roles and relations. Gender roles are more pronounced in male-headed households (MHH) than female-headed households (FHH), especially in subsistence economies (Nguyen, 2019). Societal gender norms are thought to have an impact on gender role allocation. These norms are complex to change and many times are disadvantageous to women particularly in limiting women's access to decent work as compared to men. From it, women experience discrimination in terms of access to secure tenure, credit markets, extension services, and other social and cultural discriminations. However, such norms can be changed through policies at various levels including macro, meso, and micro levels to enhance gender equity (Sexsmith, 2017). But women end up either living with inequities and discrimination believing that they cannot do anything or strive for change in the community (FAO, 2020; Johnson et al., 2018; Kawarazuka, et al., 2018; Valencia et al., 2021). In conclusion, deeply ingrained gender norms continue to limit women's access to opportunities and resources.

Gender gaps have been created because of these roles, and to handle these gaps, policies and programs brought into agriculture should consider the different roles, needs, and perceptions of men and women in agriculture and tea farming. This argued, will allow cooperation in agricultural activities leading to high productivity and equitable benefits to both men and women. In addition, it has been suggested that policies should be formulated concerning women's access to jobs, level, and regularity of earnings, opportunities for mobilizing and organizing, and the coordination of productive and reproductive roles for men and women in societies (Acosta et al., 2019; Butto, 2017; UN Women, 2020).

Gender equity programs among others including microfinancing, cash transfers and boosting rural employment can help in alleviating burdens placed on one gender over another (Singh & Chudasama, 2020). To achieve such equity the socially accepted roles for men and women must be changed. To ensure equity in the employment of men and women in agriculture in rural areas, the decent work policy must be integrated within the agricultural sector. This approach achieves equity by creating better jobs for men and women through sustainable agriculture, enhancing social protection for all categories of rural workers, ensuring awareness of rights by men and women, and promoting rural institutions that represent the interest of men and women as well as other stakeholders (Chin, 2017; Dos Santos et al., 2018; Harris, 2017)

Strategies that have been utilized this far on gender discrimination in agriculture include increasing women's access to land, education, credit facilities, extension, and technology (FAO, 2020; UN Women, 2020; (Valencia et al., 2021). Many organizations confirm that there is a need for inclusive approaches to covering up gender gaps. Basanta et al. (2020) suggests the utilization of both economic improvements in societies and the adoption of policies geared towards the change of specific gender issues. However, such strategies work on all other aspects and not the gender dimension regulating the division of tasks from the core. Thus, the issue is only suppressed for a while and then it comes up again to affect the lives of women. It does so by reinforcing the subordinate status of women and leaving them with no voice in decision-making activities. This is because rural women have an increased burden in household tasks which leaves them with no time to explore outside the home. It is considering these persisting effects on women and the inability of the strategies that have been suggested before to fully eliminate discriminative gender division of labor in agriculture in general and small-scale tea farming that the study sought to shed more light on gender roles in tea farming to gender equity with a focus on Singorwet Ward of Bomet central constituency in the South Rift region of Kenya.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Few studies have been done about tea farming in South Rift Region, those done have focused on tea estate plantations and smallholder tea farming in Kericho. This was observed by the researcher in the various literature reviewed. Bomet as a region within South Rift Region has been left out with no study about tea and gender dimensions having been done. The KTDA factory on spot- Tirgaga Tea Factory has not been studied with focus on gender

relations and so is Singorwet Ward. This, therefore, was the push for the researcher to examine gender roles in tea farming and their effect on gender equity.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

#### **1.3.1 General Objectives of the Study**

The main objective of the study was to examine gender roles in tea farming and their effect on gender equity in Singorwet Ward of Bomet County.

#### **1.3.2 Specific Objectives of the Study**

The specific objectives of the study were:

- i. To examine the effect of restricted access and land control in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward of Bomet County.
- ii. To assess the effect of access to financial services in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward, Bomet County.
- iii. To analyze the effect of the traditional division of labor in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward, Bomet County.
- iv. To evaluate the effect of access to agricultural extension services in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward, Bomet County.

### **1.4 Research Questions**

This study was guided by the following questions:

- i. What is the effect of restricted access and land control in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward, Bomet County?
- ii. What is the effect of access to financial services in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward, Bomet County?
- iii. What is the effect of the traditional division of labor in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward, Bomet County?
- iv. What is the effect of access to agricultural extension services in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward, Bomet County?

### **1.5 Justification and Significance of the Study**

#### **1.5.1 Justification of the Study**

A review of the literature indicates the presence of a gap in the studies of gender with a connection to smallholder tea farming. Makone et al. (2017), for instance, investigated the roles of women in Embu and Murang'a Counties and especially in areas where smallholder tea farming is practiced. Another study by Ongile (1999) was done and this investigated the relationship between structural adjustment programs and gender in smallholder tea farming.

These studies were done in Kericho District which in those years housed Bomet District. The studies are now fifteen and ten years old respectively and thus the current study will help provide findings for comparison purposes and reveal the changes if any with time. Besides the above, some recent studies (KHRC, 2008) have investigated the large-scale tea sector in Kenya with a focus on the kinds of discrimination that women face as they undertake their roles in the tea sector; smallholder tea farming has been neglected. A study by (Kibere et al., 2018) adds that certain gender aspects limit women's ability to access and control benefits from tea. Further other studies on gender roles have tried to link it with service providers and benefits from the same. This has caused the relating of gender roles with services within education, health, and food security among others (Ikutwa & Magani, 2020). Indeed, it even looks at how gender roles affect women's power to decide and participate in various life processes and development without realizing that men and women can be affected in one way or another by these roles (Musangi, 2017). With all this noted the Kenyan agricultural sector is guided by an agricultural policy that focuses on areas including boosting agricultural productivity, reducing reliance on rain-based agriculture, and ensuring continuous availability of food, among others (Njuki et al., 2016). This policy does not emphasize the gender aspects within agriculture and so this study identified ways of formulating a gender policy in tea farming. This current study, therefore, tried to see gender roles from a bigger perspective as affecting both men and women in areas of access to opportunities, participation, and resources. It sought to open the impact that gender roles have on ensuring gender equity or inequity.

### **1.5.2 Significance of the Study**

The findings of the study were of importance to agricultural organizations, agricultural extension officers, departments, and micro-finance institutions as they revealed the areas of inequity and the gender-responsive strategies that they can employ. This then helped them to ensure that agricultural activities brought on board men's and women's skills and expertise and that equal participation of men and women was realized. In addition, the findings helped in establishing solid foundations for the integration of gender issues by the Tea farming regulating bodies and other stakeholders in the tea sector. This ensures that men and women participate and benefit equally from the small-scale tea sector. It also brought forth issues that the policymakers should consider in developing gendered agricultural policies that reflect the needs, interests, and concerns of both men and women. This enables the mainstreaming of gender issues in agriculture, tea farms included, from the design stages,

thus directing each policy and project to appreciate the different gender concerns. Findings from this study can also be used in the re-evaluation of mid-term and long-term strategies like Vision 2030, among others, to ensure that the long-term positive effects are felt by both men and women. In academics, this study provides valuable information relating to tea farming from a gender perspective. This adds to the body of knowledge in the area and reveals the gaps that can form the basis of further research.

## **1.6 Scope and Limitation of the Study**

### **1.6.1 Scope of the Study**

Although tea farming is carried out in many parts of the South Rift Valley region, the study covered Singorwet Ward in Bomet Central Constituency with a specific focus on smallholder tea farmers who give their tea to KTDA Tirgaga Tea Factory. The study's main objective was to examine gender roles in tea farming and their effect on gender equity. The specific objectives are to examine the effect of restricted access and land control in tea farming, assess the effect of access to financial services in tea farming, analyze the effect of the traditional division of labor in tea farming and evaluate the effect of access to agricultural extension services in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward, Bomet County. The area of the study has tea farmers with varying levels of education ranging from those that have primary education only to those that have college certificates. Among the respondents, you will find married, single and the widows/widowers. Some are receptive of changes as per the Kenya Constitution 2010 while some are still stuck to culture on matters concerning the rights accorded to men and women and gender equity issues. The findings and conclusion of this study could be applied to other tea-growing regions within Kenya, but this should be done with care because each region has unique characteristics in terms of culture, level of education, and economic status.

### **1.6.2 Limitations of the Study**

Some of the challenges the researcher faced during the study included inaccessibility of some areas due to poor road networks considering that the area of the study is relatively expansive and with heavy rains during certain seasons. This was addressed by the utilization of locally available transport means and proper planning on time. Another challenge was the difficulty of some respondents opening to share their opinions due to the reserved culture of the people in the area which made it complex to get adequate information from some respondents. To overcome this challenge, the researcher worked closely with the tea farmers' representatives within the tea buying centers, staff in the tea factory and Tea area directors

who served within the period the research was being done. The researcher also explained clearly the purpose of the study and informed the respondents that confidentiality will strictly be observed.

### **1.7 Definition of Terms**

**Access to and control over land:** Use, ability to transfer and make decisions on a tea farmland

**Gender equity:** Access by men and women to resources, power to choose, good policies and supportive institutions with consideration unto the unique qualities of men and women

**Tea farmer:** A man or woman with a tea leaf number

**Tea buying centre committee members:** A registered tea farmer picked in a specific tea buying centre to represent the others on issues of tea

**Gender roles:** Aspects concerning access to and control over land, access to financial services, access to extension services and a traditional division of labour in tea farming

**Tea directorial zone:** A geographical area demarcated by administrative boundaries and natural features that holds two locations, in this study, for example, Singorwet zone has Township and Singorwet locations and ends at the edge of Balek.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents literature reviewed from journal articles, books, reports, and conference proceedings, among others, and presented under subtitles of tea farming and production, gender role aspects that affect gender equity, summary, and research gaps, and theoretical and conceptual frameworks.

#### **2.2 Tea Farming and Production**

Several countries in the world engage in tea farming. China is one of these countries and is the world's largest tea-producing area. India comes second followed by other countries including Kenya and Sri Lanka. Even though China's production capacity is high, most of its tea products are consumed within the country. China's tea sector employs up to 80 million people either as farmers, workers, or salespeople (Yan et al., 2020). In Assam India, tea farms comprising large-scale sectors are known to utilize migrant workers as laborers in their farms. These laborers comprise of both men and women, but roles in the farms are divided along gender lines such that women are placed within the tea plucking positions. The tea plucking activity is labor intensive and time-consuming yet the lowly paid jobs within the farms. The logic of the management is to maintain the subordinate position of women (Hook & Li, 2020; Ikutwa & Magani, 2020) The same women workers who are said to be half of the laborers in the tea farms have other limitations in terms of participation in Trade Union activities either rallies or demonstrations. Doing so would be interpreted as misbehavior. With such considerations where women's plights for equity are taken as odd, the study reveals the strategies that women have adopted over time to maintain the status quo in terms of gender relations.

Men and children in Assam tea farms undertake roles that are also gender fitting including taking care of the tea plantations through weeding and pruning, supervisory and clerkship roles in the factory, and spraying of the tea plants. These men and children are usually husbands or relatives to the women laborers and on those days of receiving a salary, a male person receives it on behalf of the female laborer. This means that the women do not have any control over the finances obtained from their labor on tea farms. Further, for the men at least their roles end on the farms, but for the women, their roles start in the home and end in the home, since they have other household chores that they must handle without male assistance. As such women are so busy that they cannot attend the trade unions meetings and thus have no chance of raising issues concerning flexible time to pick tea, provision of better

necessities, and work conditions that cater to their characteristics (Isinta & Flitner, 2018). This study tried and answered certain questions involving are roles promoting equity or inequity for men and women? and how are each of them handling the two gender aspects?

In Kenya, the tea sector is under the docket of the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock, and Fisheries. Its existence and success are placed within a well-organized hierarchy of organizations involving the Tea Board of Kenya, the Tea Research Foundation, the producers, tea processing factories, and the Trade and Blending Enterprises. The main outlets for selling tea as of now include; Mombasa Auction which takes about 75% of the tea, Kenya Tea Pickers taking a total of 7%, direct sales made to the overseas and local markets making a total of 15% and factory sales making up to 3% (KIPPRA, 2018; KTDA, 2020)

Tea farming activities in Kenya are controlled by the provisions within The Crops (Tea Industry Regulations, 2020), Tea Act, the Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries, and Food Authority Act (2012 and the Kenya Agriculture and Livestock Research Act 2012 of the laws of Kenya. Tea growing is carried out in two different sectors; the large-scale sector handled by multinational companies and the small-scale sector controlled and managed by the small-scale farmers spread across tea-growing zones in rural Kenya. The small-scale tea farming sector takes the highest percentage in tea production with a total number of about half a million tea growers in the country with women providing much of the labor required in the sector. The small-scale tea farmers spread across the tea-growing regions of the country take their tea to factories which are run by the Kenya Tea Development Agency Limited (KTDA, 2020). Based on the legislative institutional framework which has been put in place, it leaves no doubt that the tea sector in Kenya is highly valued. However, the aspect of gender and equality policies have not been entrenched in the sector hence the need to point out these issues so that corrective measures can be undertaken by the relevant authorities and stakeholders.

Labour provision in smallholder tea farms is at the discretion of the family heads. The heads, therefore, have a choice of employing adult males or females since child labor is not accepted in the country. There are exceptions though in some farms that prefer women laborers to men due to the thought that they can easily be directed (Baishya, 2016; Hook & Li, 2020; Makone et al., 2017; Mitra, 2018). In Kenya the tea farms present several roles for men and women including land preparation, weeding, pruning, mulching for young tea plants, plucking, applying fertilizer, transportation to the tea buying centers, and spraying of the tea plants. These roles are portioned to men and women depending on the social and cultural norms within the different tea-growing regions in Kenya (Glazebrook & Emmanuela,

2020). This said the study explored the roles within the area of study to expose the roles of men and women in tea farms and the kinds of strategies that they have adopted to help them perform those roles or to question and change the roles.

### **2.3 Gender Roles Aspects that Affect Gender Equity**

Both men and women have crucial roles within the agricultural sector, with either of them complementing the other in accomplishing the roles within the farm. The performance of roles within agriculture is dictated by certain societal standards of who between men and women should do what, earn what, control what, decide what and access what. These societal standards can be termed as gender. Gender refers to the social agreements among the community members that distinguish men and women beyond the biological characteristics that they possess and thus determining the kind of roles that either can play, the constraints they might face, the opportunities they are likely to get, and the extent to which they access and control resources and benefits from any gainful activity (Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018). This study analyzed these gender roles in smallholder tea farming to determine the men's and women's roles in the different stages of tea farming.

#### **2.3.1 Land Ownership and Control**

The land is one of the important assets that communities possess. It is considered a pillar in the economic growth of any country. It holds and lifts businesses, livelihoods and investments. Furthermore, it is considered a sign/object of personal empowerment (IOM, 2016; Mishra & Sam, 2016). Land is a major property that is key to sustainable agriculture. This is because its purpose runs across crop growing, livestock management, fishing on it, tea growing, and hunting grounds (Meinzen-Dick et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). Societies in different parts of the world have certain lifestyles that perpetuate gender relations in agriculture such that one kind of gender may benefit over another. For example, in Vietnam, unequal gender relations are witnessed through access to land, land size, cultivated land, and irrigated land. Males have up to 91% of commercial agricultural farms under them and only 9% are owned by females (Alvarado et al., 2015; Mohan, 2017). In terms of land size, female households can access sizes that are 27% smaller than what men can get (Azumah et al., 2018). Due to the disadvantages that a gender encounters because of gender roles, the study explored the constraints that the roles place on men and women and how each of them has been copied under these roles.

Men and women participate in agricultural activities. Many studies that have been done in Africa, Asia, and the Pacific contend that women spend more time working than men accounting for twelve hours more than men. Women-based labor is sought out more than

male-based labor. Mitra (2018) observes that 80% of tea plantation workers involved in tea plucking in India are women. This duty of tea plucking is the kind of work that takes a lot of time and climaxes in the transportation of heavy loads of tea to the tea weighing center. Even with these many working hours, women have limited access to resources and services which affect their productivity and earnings and do not help in any way to reduce their burden of responsibility (Bose & Das, 2017; Martinez, 2017) remarks that ownership of land is mostly under a male in the household with the title deed registered in the male's name. This leaves the women in families with few chances of owning the land limiting it to periods of joint ownership or when the male head of the household has passed on and so the ownership passes on to the woman by extension. Bose and Das (2017) claim that because of cash crops, tea being one of them, women have lost some level of ownership of productive land instead they have been driven to unproductive lands. Mohan (2017) points out that male dominance in land ownership started with the establishment of customary laws during the colonial era. This gave men at the time an opportunity to create a defensive wall around the traditions of the community which gave way to the strengthening of African patriarchy. This placed women in a subordinate position where men had an upper hand in decisions and women were reduced to respecting what men passed. This has given rise to men being in control and accessing benefits from the land they own while women can only receive the benefits when men say so. This, therefore, explains why most women's work is unpaid, unrecognized, and not valued. In most cases, women's roles in agriculture build on the financial benefits of the male owners and farmers. Women end up in a disadvantaged position than men (Martinez, 2017). The study opened the land ownership issue vis-à-vis men and women and revealed a connection between ownership and benefits.

In many studies, therefore, the woman factor appears as the drive to inequality issues concerning land rights. There are many issues at local, national, and international levels of society that limit women's access to and control over land. The main issue is the thought that since men head households so should they own land among others (Anderson et al., 2021; KLA, 2018; Mishra & Sam, 2016). This is well explained as customary law and practice.

Though many strides have been made by various countries to enable equal rights in land access and control, more needs to be investigated. The various laws in the constitutions of some countries have embraced equality to be in tandem with international human rights standards and obligations for instance CEDAW. In Nepal, there is a great improvement in terms of the achievement of gender equality and women empowerment. Its government ratified in 1991 the UN Convention on Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against

Women (CEDAW). This for them has led to improved access to education, health, and employment by their women folk. But with all these efforts limited access to resources seems to persist due to sociocultural practices (Anderson et al., 2021; Dworkin & Gandhi, 2017; Schwab et al., 2019; USAID, 2019).

Other countries like South Africa, Mozambique, Uganda, and Kenya among others have introduced articles into their constitutions that prohibit discrimination. The issue then becomes the ill-informed/little-informed women population on the available provisions that protect them. They then still stick to traditional practices where women are in the back seat (Dworkin & Gandhi, 2017; UN, 2019). In Ghana, for instance, land customarily was an asset owned by all community members but in its real sense, women are secondary in terms of ownership. There are customary laws that restrict full utilization of the asset for example the law of passing the property through the male descendants (Doghle et al., 2019). Indeed, land is tied to society, (Dworkin & Gandhi, 2017) which has norms. These norms mostly traditional regulate the assignment and ownership procedures of land (Ayano, 2018; Chimhowu, 2019; Hasanbari et al., 2021).

Suggestions have been made and adopted by countries on ways to boost women's access to land. The first is to include women in decision-making, especially concerning the law, policy, and program development. For instance, the Botswana government developed an Agricultural Sector Gender Policy Framework with the main goal of promoting equality and equity in agricultural development processes. This led to improved women's participation in agriculture. Uganda on the other hand adopted the Uganda National Land Policy Final Draft in 2011. This was with a focus on addressing pertinent women's issues and ensuring the development of gender-sensitive land laws (Doss et al., 2020; Hasanbari et al., 2021)

Moreover, boost enforcement and implementation of existing laws and policies to enable justice for all. It is worth noting even from most literature that countries have laws but the law is nothing without practice. Some studies, therefore, suggest the development of specialized courts, putting more funds into women's courses, and ensuring that judicial decisions are not gender-biased. In Kenya for example, leaders at the local level are expected to uphold non-discriminatory law and are held responsible to ensure they defend women's land rights at the grassroots. There are programs in Sub-Saharan Africa managed by UN Women tasked with awareness creation in communities about land rights and inheritance (UN Human Rights & UN Women, 2020). Thirdly, is about ensuring that various laws and policies on land are well explained and harmonized (Ziljstra, 2018). This will allow the zipping of gaps that may be reasons for injustice to women.

### **2.3.2 Access to Extension Services**

Extension or advisory services can be defined as supportive programs meant to build farmers' capabilities as well as other participants in agriculture. The services range from ensuring farmers get information about agricultural inputs, processes, and outputs; innovation options; skill development and practices; best management and techniques that lead to improved yields and profits (Danso-Abbeam et al., 2018; FAO, 2019). According to Mwololo et al., (2019), these services are the biggest and most effective ways of touching and changing farmers' lives. Women and men are great forces behind better agricultural development in any economy. But according to Ngombe et al. (2017) in matters of extension, the male person is more profound in the design, planning, and implementation. Many economies ignore the fact that women have an active role in agriculture. It is reported that in Latin America, South Asia, and Africa, women face more limitations in accessing extension training compared to men (Haile, 2016; Rashid et al., 2017). Because of these few opportunities to learn, women use less improved technologies in their farms (Atsbeha & Gebre, 2021). To achieve inclusive agricultural development, it is crucial to address the gender disparities in access to extension services, ensuring that women receive equal opportunities as their male counterparts.

ICT is a necessity for farming activities in extension training as it helps in the transfer of information by the extension officers to farmer even in the remotest parts. This has not been fully utilized though in smallholder farming because the same farmers do not have the technical know-how on the available technologies. Most of the statistics available point to a low percentage of literate farmers accounting for 70% of women and 79% of men in Africa (Lamontagne-Godwin et al., 2017). And though sometimes women may know ICT, some norms do not let women freely use the technology, control the technical aspects and get finances to employ the needed farm technology. These women seem to be in a subordinate position that they must obtain the men's permission to use the available technology and since sometimes these men do not have any information about the usefulness of technology, the same ends up being ignored (Lemma et al., 2020). Since constraints can affect both men and women, the study reveals the constraints specific to each gender and how each constraint affects them.

Few female extension officers are also a constraint affecting women in their engagement in farm activities. Studies reveal that more impact is likely to be felt if extension officers handling females were females too. For example, in Mali out of 302 extension officers, there is only one female officer at the higher level (Adebayo & Worth, 2022). Another study done in Ghana concurs with this presenting statistic of 10 female officers out

of 70 existing extension officers (FAO, 2020). A study in India offers the same claim indicating that there were no female extension officers out of the 41 who were available (Nandi & Nedumaran, 2019). The same unequal gender representation was also observed in Ethiopia. This reduced and sometimes total lack of female extension officers creates an environment with no much morale for women in farming and non-appreciation of their skills and abilities in the farm process. It also may lead to the inability to use information about farming since men and women relate at certain levels as per community standards. However, farmers in the studied areas communicated that they can relate with an extension officer of whatever gender so long as the officer understands the gender issues (Lemma et al., 2020; Rashid et al., 2017). The study exposes whether this has been a constraint to women in tea farming too and how they have managed it.

Other constraints reported affecting women include their limited participation in agricultural education and training needed to give them the basic information and expertise to work out their activities with ease. This could be because of certain biases within institutions that men are to pursue agricultural subjects and sciences and not women (Khursheed et al., 2020). Studies run through some countries, including The Philippines, Nigeria, and Jordan, confirmed the revelations, indicating that time constraints, financial constraints, and societal beliefs prevent women and girls from benefitting from agricultural studies (Anderson et al., 2021). Other constraints come from social and cultural barriers, religious barriers, and time limitations. The study brought out all the constraints known to affect men and women as they engage in tea farming.

### **2.3.3 Access to Financial Services**

The World Economic Forum's Global Gender Gap Report states that there is a big relationship between gender equality, prosperity in a country, and economic growth (Demirguc-Kunt et al., 2015). It thus is so important to ensure that gender mainstreaming is done in policy-making and financial inclusion programs. In many countries, women are marginalized, set aside, and assumed and their contributions not recognized. They are still considered as a group that runs the home and is not financially active. These perceptions promote their limited access to finance among other assets in agriculture (Dietz et al., 2018; Zhang & Xiong, 2018). Statistics presented by The Global Findex Database (2014), show an unchanging gender gap in developing countries at 9%. On its part, UNCTAD (2021) report on economic development in Africa, suggests the idea of building women as a way of building the economy. It states that investment opportunities can best work in areas where women are the custodians of finance. It shows that empowering women financially is

changing family welfare as it increases women's bargaining power. Indeed, this is a sign of better living standards and growing economies with gender equity as its foundation. Even with the above realization, women face challenges in accessing finance. They include:

**i. Legal-related barriers**

In many countries, the legal regulations seem to favor men over women in terms of owning assets and property. Also, there appear to be legal gaps that restrict women from participating in the labor force as well as in owning large firms. Such limitations mean fewer income opportunities, lower bargaining power, and limited options for accessing credit due to a lack of collaterals (Islam et al., 2019; UNCTAD, 2021; World Bank, 2019).

**ii. Lack of awareness of financial assistance**

Even though there are many lending institutions, women seem to be disadvantaged because of their literacy levels. Women compared to men in developing countries are less educated and less aware of existing financial services, financial policies, processes of getting loans, repayments, securities on loan, and utilization of loans for purposes borrowed for. Because of these, they are unlikely to benefit from the available financial options (KIPPRA, 2019; World Bank, 2018). In fact, glaring statistics presented by World Bank's Global Findex report indicate a higher percentage of men having an account with recognized financial institutions compared to a lower percentage of women (72% men and 65% women) (FAO, 2020).

**iii. Cultural Practices**

In most cultures, women have a huge responsibility within the home. Their main duties- unpaid- are the running of the home and child upbringing. These duties are so overwhelming, exhaustive, and time-consuming and thus limit the chances of women moving out of the home to look for paying jobs (Anugwa et al., 2020). Moreover, such in-home busy schedules are likely to limit women from attending training, furthering their studies, and accessing information. This then reduces their awareness and understanding of available financial institutions and services. And of course, they will not utilize what they are not aware of (FAO, 2020; Lewis et al., 2018; World Bank, 2018)

**iv. Discriminatory practices**

Women face the challenge of gender-biased policies which include the perception that women are riskier borrowers, the decision by institutions to lend to large

businesses and farms rarely owned by women, and sometimes the lack of financial products that match women's needs and ideas. Additionally, there are thoughts that women should focus on primary responsibility of caregiving because they may not balance other engagements with caregiving. In some other countries, especially the Middle East categories, women cannot have an account with a financial institution without an approval by a male authority.

#### **2.3.4 Traditional Division of Labour**

Division of labor has been in existence for a long time in most societies. It is considered as old as culture. The reason for this kind of division varies with societies. Some especially believers of structuralism theory trace it to biological differences. In this case, men and women possess different characteristics and behaviors which make them be classified into specific roles (Alahira, 2014; Rizavi & Sofer, 2009). The other supporting factor is the idea that they arise due to interaction between biological characteristics and sociocultural norms. This reasoning shows that sexual differences are used as a basis to teach and train society members on what is traditionally acceptable. Men are given supervisory, headship, and dominant roles because it is believed that their bodies are built for it. Women then take subordinate, less risky, and easier roles (Kabeer, 2016). In summary, the division of labor has its roots in both biological differences and sociocultural norms, hence making it a traditional mainstay of gender roles that have reinforced unequal power dynamics between men and women.

Gender roles are then borne out of the focus on different gender and this refers to the kinds of roles, duties, and behaviors that are expected of a gender to match society's standards. These roles then make men and women take different positions within agricultural activities and thus fall into certain scenarios that can be beneficial to them or burdening (FAO, 2020; World Bank, 2018). The same roles dictate the way men and women socialize with one another in a bid to maintain the power of men and subordination to women as society desires. In line with these many studies suggest that women are more likely to handle the larger part of responsibilities in agriculture than men, which in many instances may be categorized as domestic work or unpaid work and thus rarely recognized. These responsibilities add up to the many other roles that women have within the household including household roles and reproductive roles. As such their burden is tripled as they are expected to accomplish all these roles in good time (Takashi et al., 2013). This said the study exposed the various challenges that men and women face as they perform their roles and from it drew conclusions about who has more to handle than the other.

Similarly, there are large numbers of female workers in exhaustive agricultural activities which communicates the existence of gender roles. These roles are even more evident in South Asia than in parts of Africa and South East Asia. These tasks that women perform are associated with harsh working conditions and pay that do not match their various efforts. A study done in Kenya by Feed the Future USA communicates information that concurs with the studies from the above countries, that women have a big role in agriculture by the provision of labor and supervising the farm activities. The study even asserts that though women are the backbone of agriculture, the rewards they get are far too low that they are not encouraged to maintain and even increase productivity. Its conclusion on the study is that gender discrimination hinders women from adding their skills and expertise and thus limits their mobility to higher agricultural ventures (Contzen & Forney, 2017). The study reveals issues on whether there are constraints that men are exposed to as they participate in the gender roles assigned to them and compare the same with the constraints that women face.

In every society, there are three categories of roles namely reproductive, productive, and community roles that men and women are supposed to engage in their everyday lives. Out of these roles, society expects women to accomplish all three while men are supposed to be undertaking productive and community politics roles. The Reproductive roles comprise activities like maintaining the home and care of family members, the birth of children, and upbringing. The productive roles include the production of goods and services within crop and livestock production (Meinzen-Dick et al., 2019; Wong, et al., 2016). The community roles on the other hand include activities that enable community change and attendance of events and projects in the community, politics included. With these roles, women are too busy trying to gain a balance of them all and most times must be confined within the home. Moreover, with the expectation that women must work in the tea farms and yet maintain their roles in the home and community, then their strategic and gender needs may not be met and the reward system may not get to the point of accommodating all the efforts they place in farming and tea (INE, 2018; Onyalo, 2019). As such women lack extra time to build on income-generating activities and eventually become dependent on men. The beginning of dependence comes with the loss of the ability to decide and control or access benefits from farming (Adnane, 2018). Based on this, the study brings out the coping strategies that women have adopted in acceptance of the many roles without much recognition or value.

The roles that society has placed on men's shoulders involve the productive roles and the community roles which the roles in the community are basic leadership in the political

sphere. These roles are rewarding and bring with them some value and recognition to the men. It exposes them to the larger society and in a way gives them an upper hand in access and control of resources within the society. Indeed, these roles though involve women, men are in the decision-making capacities determining the direction to be taken in the performance of each of the roles. From this, the men own and control land, finances, can easily access health services, are not so much into dirty and dusty work, and spent more time in supervisory positions. This said and the same roles rolled over to tea farming, the men will not be in exhaustive roles and are likely to be better rewarded for every effort they place into the sector. The study thus worked on looking at all the roles that men are engaged in tea farming from the farm to the factory and then the earning of benefits and looked at them because of the chances and benefits of women in the same sector.

## **2.4 Summary and Research Gaps**

This chapter has presented the tea farming sector concerning gender issues, especially gender equity. It has explained using many studies how access to land, access to extension services, access to financial services, and a traditional division of labor create situations that affect gender equity. From the studies, it is evident that wholesome solutions are needed to ensure that men and women benefit from agricultural activities.

Studies have been done concerning the role of women in tea farming in Tigania, Meru County (Thinkii, 2012), gender equality and tea quality (Machira, 2015), women's role in family tea farms, Women's role in smallholder tea farming (Ongile, 1999) and Gender dynamics in accessing benefits from tea. No study has focused on relating gender roles and gender equity and that is the push for the researcher, to bring in information about the relations in Bomet County.

## **2.5 Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks**

### **2.5.1 Theoretical Framework**

#### **2.5.1.1 Karl Marx Social Change Theory**

The study is based on Karl Marx Social change theory. According to him, societies are unequal due to the gaps that come about because of wealth status between the rich and the poor. In terms of division of labour, Karl Marx mentions that societies had ways of dividing roles and that these patterns become entrenched and even more complex as societies grow. The belief systems were passed from one group to the other. Societies, he says continuously interacts with nature. Positive changes in nature cause development in society while negative changes is associated with backwardness (Marx & Engels, 1968).

In his theory, there exists two main classes of people, those that can access and possess the resources needed for improvement and those that lack. The people with means controls society, they are employers, they are the main decision makers and are better placed or per se the crème del a crème of society. The other group are poor and at the mercy of the able. To Karl Marx, the lowly will eventually revolt and want change. This in the modern society is the product of things like demonstrations, strikes, existence of unions or workers welfare (Rashid, 2017).

For change to happen in society, then it starts with economic improvement. Betterment in economy is measurable and is likely to trigger change in infrastructural and cultural areas. Societies must have a past to learn from, to improve on and one that is a foundation for the future. He also believed that social change is brought about choice of individuals who are controlled by laws within economic sector (Marx & Engels, 1968).

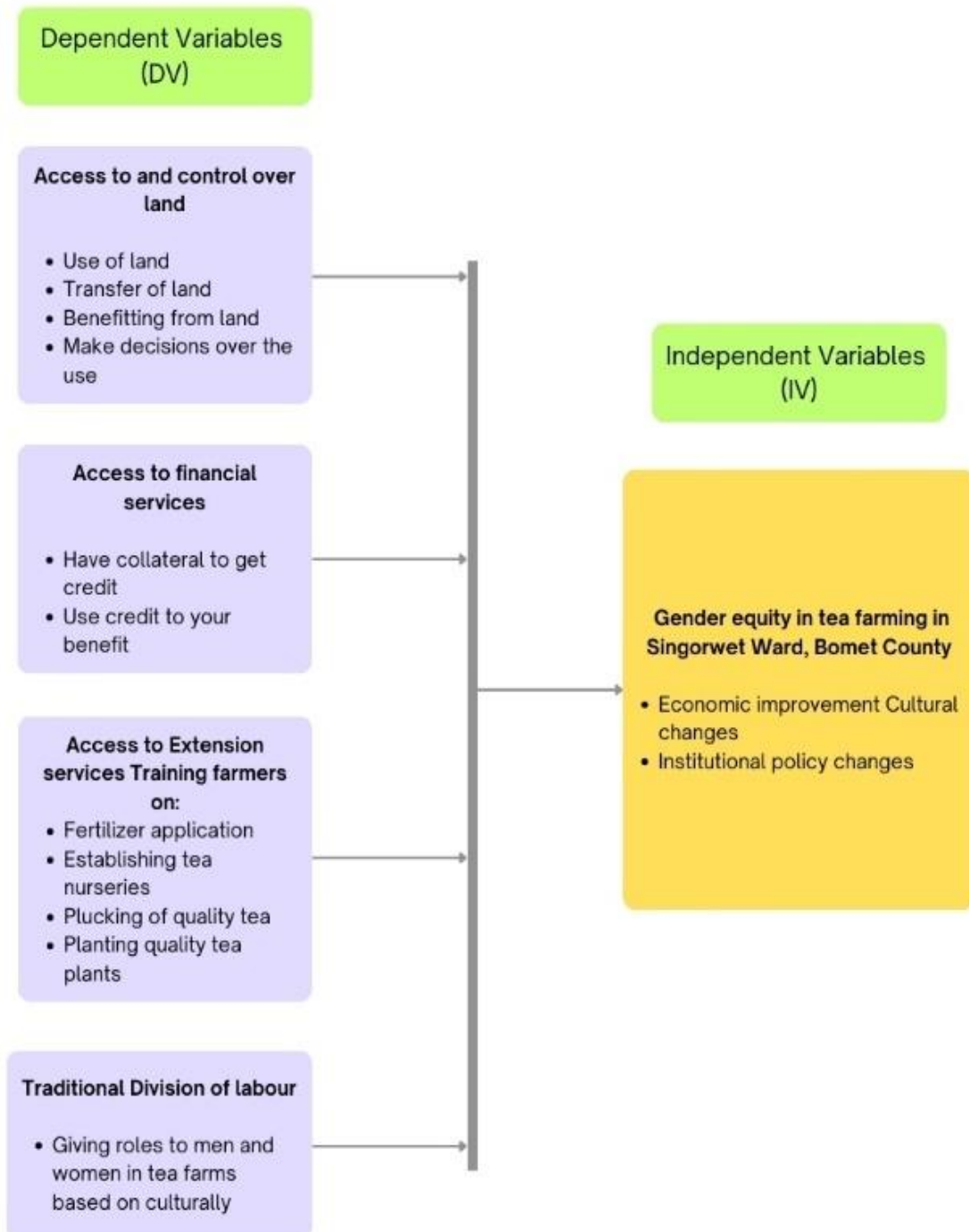
#### **2.5.1.2 Relevance of the Framework to the Study**

The theory explains the things that hold societies back among them is division of labour. It shows that societies still hold on to belief systems they had even as time changes. It also shows that change happens in society when individuals decide. Gender inequities existed and somehow lasted if the society members allowed it. The members get tired of inequities with time and this drives them to look for change. When members revolt, changes happen in education, economy, and culture.

#### **2.5.2 Conceptual Framework**

From the framework, there are gender role aspects including access to and control over land, access to financial services, access to extension services, and a traditional division of labor. These aspects in their lack or presence led to gender inequality or gender equity.

## Conceptual Framework



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the research design, description of the research location, sample size, and technique. It also details the methods used for data collection and analysis.

#### **3.2 Research Design**

The researcher used a cross-sectional mixed method study design which allows a collection of information using both quantitative and qualitative methods. This design allows the understanding of the prevalence of gender inequity issues and its link to the gender roles, practices, attitudes, knowledge, and beliefs of certain groups of people that could be related to the issue being handled (Rohr, 2022). This was also identified as the best design for this research because the population of the Ward is a bit large and the design will allow a collection of information from a large group of people within a similar point in time. This design allows a focus on the source population that has the characteristics that are being observed or studied.

#### **3.3 Description of the Research Location**

The study was done within Singorwet Ward of Bomet Central Constituency in Bomet County. The ward has most of its population engaged in smallholder tea farming. The road network in the area is mainly composed of murram roads which are impassable during the rainy seasons. This has caused the factory vehicles to come either so early or so late to collect tea from the tea-buying centers. The area normally receives heavy rains in three seasons within the year April, August, and December. The area is occupied by the Kipsigis community, a sub-tribe of the larger Kalenjin community, still attached to the traditional cultural norms and values. In this community, men are considered in control of many decisions such that family disputes, land ownership, and any other property is deemed appropriate to be transferred to men rather than women. The KTDA management has Tea buying centres situated at almost a distance of one Kilometre apart and thus accessible to the farmers.

#### **3.4 Target Population**

The study targeted a population of 21, 795 people spread within 43.60 Square Kilometres (CBS, 2008). The target tea farmers' population is based on registered tea grower suppliers' number to Tirgaga Tea Factory as of 1st August 2020 where 5,320 were residents of Singorwet Ward.

### 3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

The selection of sample size was based on (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003) that suggested a sample size of between 10 – 30% of the targeted population for a descriptive study. For populations below 1000, Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) suggested 30%, while those above 1000 suggested 10%, respectively. The tea farmers' sample size calculation was done as follows:

$$n = \frac{10}{100} N$$

Where:  $N$  is the target household population and  $n$  is the sample size.

$$n = \frac{10}{100} \times 5320 = 532$$

Therefore, the sample size for the study was 532 tea farmers.

*Table 1: Sampling Matrix*

Target population	Data Collection tool	Sampling design	Tea Buying Centre's (One per Sub-location in Singorwet Ward)					Total Target Sample size
			Stratified random	KP19	KP119	KP25	KP29	
Directors (2)	Interview	Purposive						2
Tea farmers (5,320)	Questionnaire	Simple Random	106	107	106	107	106	532
Tea farm laborers	Interview	Purposive	2	2	2	2	2	10
Factory Managers/ Assistants (5)	Questionnaire	Purposive						5
Factory staff (145)	Questionnaire	Simple Random						40

*Key: KP19: Kamasega TBC (Singorwet Sub-Location), KP119: Chepkitach TBC (Kabungut Sub-Location), KP25: Aisaik TBC (Aisaik Sub-Location), KP29: Semoi TBC (Mugango Sub-Location) and KP40: Kitoben TBC (Kitoben Sub-Location).*

Purposive stratified random sampling was employed to get five zones based on sub-locations within two director zones in Singorwet ward and then tea buying centres were

randomly selected within the zones. The target sample size was finally proportioned equally among the four-tea buying centres. Since there were no specific figures for the farm laborers in the study area, the study opted to conduct an interview on this group, purposively picking two from each buying Centre selected.

The factory staff (including managers) sample size calculation was as outlined:

$$n = \frac{30}{100}N$$

Where:  $N$  is the factory staff population and  $n$  is the sample size.

$$n = \frac{30}{100} \times 150 = 45$$

Therefore, the number of factory staff targeted for this study was 45. Notably, all five managers were targeted while the remaining forty were randomly selected to fill the questionnaires. The two directors were targeted and interviewed in Singorwet ward.

### **3.6 Data Collection**

Primary and secondary methods of data collection were used. Questionnaire and interviews were used during primary data collection. The tools that were used in the study include:

#### **3.6.1 Questionnaire**

The questionnaire had both open and close ended questions and were directed to the tea farmers both men and women, factory workers and the tea buying centre committee members. This helped obtain information about the roles of men and women in the various tea farming activities, effect of restricted access and land control; access to finance and extension services in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward of Bomet County.

#### **3.6.2 Interviews**

Interview guides were used with the tea farm labourers and Tea Area directors to collect information about roles of men and women in tea farming, the effect of access to extension services and finance on gender equity in tea farming in Singorwet Ward of Bomet County.

#### **3.6.3 Observation Schedule**

The observation method involved directly looking at activities in tea farming to ascertain gender roles. Direct field observations were carried out with the aid of observation schedule (Appendix II). Use of an observation schedule was appropriate for this research as it allowed capturing of information that would otherwise not be captured using interview schedules or questionnaires.

### **3.6.4 Pilot Study**

Pilot study is necessary to put a check on the research instruments, to identify the ambiguous questions or those that are not clear enough or complicated for the respondents (Baker, 1994). Additionally, the pilot study help checks the relevance of the selected tools in providing the needed information. It also helps in checking how long a tool takes to be completed and who are the reliable sample size (Morris & Rosenbloom, 2017).

A pilot study was done in one tea buying centre in every sub location, and the centres were picked purposively- those that have the largest number of registered tea farmers. This was to get variety of respondents in terms of educational level, age, marital status among other factors. The small-scale study helped the researcher edit the research questions and group some questions that provide answers on a specific objective.

### **3.7 Data Collection Procedure**

The researcher first obtained an introductory letter and a letter to proceed on data collection from Egerton University. She then proceeded to the area of the study and met the area administration about the study to be conducted. Permission was also obtained from the Tirgaga Tea Factory management, Tea buying centre management and the tea farmers before a collection of information from them. The questionnaire was taken by the researcher to the respondents concerned in the factory, tea buying centres and places of residence. The questionnaire was semi structured to allow for an opportunity to explain to the respondents if they do not understand how to answer the questions. They were given out and the researcher did wait for the respondents to fill them before collecting them. All the sampled tea labourers were met in their respective tea buying centres. Observation of some activities in tea Farming was done at various times and photos taken by the researcher.

### **3.8 Data Analysis**

Data collected was then edited to check for any incomplete questions and presentation of inconsistent answers. After this, data was coded and summarized and then the analysis of the data was undertaken. Analysis was done using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 25 for quantitative data analysis and QDA Miner Lite version 1.4.1 for qualitative data analysis. This was chosen because of the ability of the programme to process a large amount of data easily, takes a shorter period to work on the data and allows for the highest efficiency. Interpretations can also be made easily based on the presentations of the data.

### **3.9 Ethical Considerations**

The researcher clearly explained to the respondents the purpose of the study, so that they were aware of what was expected of them. The researcher visited the select tea buying

centres and met with the tea buying centre committee members as well as tea area directors and comprehensively explained to each of them the details needed in the questions. This helped in ensuring informed consent. For the photos shared, each participant was fully informed and requested before posting them in the research. Besides this voluntary participation was encouraged. The respondents were not forced to be part of the research; rather they were given questions to answer and at the first page of each paper, the researcher indicated that they to participate without any form of coercion from anyone.

Privacy was adhered to, the researcher met the tea area directors at their choice of venue, mostly their residential homes to ensure they are free while answering questions. Time of meeting was also discussed and agreed on jointly. Anonymity was also observed, some tea farm labourers and tea farmers were involved in the study through the tea buying centre committee members. This was to minimize the direct contact between the researcher and the participants and thus allow free sharing of information without the fear of being branded.

Finally, confidentiality was adhered to, such that the information given out by the respondents will only be released with their awareness. In fact, the researcher, signed a consent form with Management of Tirgaga Tea Factory indicating that after completion of research, findings will be shared with the factory management. The same confidentiality applied to other participants, since their names were not indicated in the research tools used.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter first presents the demographic characteristics of the respondents involved in this study. It also captures the results based on the study objectives; their discussions and interpretations. The results presented here include findings related to Gender Roles in Tea Farming objectively on: the effect of restricted access and land control in tea farming on gender equity; the effect of access to financial services in tea farming on gender equity; the effect of traditional division of labour in tea farming on gender equity and finally the effect of access to agricultural extension services in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward.

#### 4.2 Response Rate

This study gives an account of returned data collection tools. It answers whether interviews and questionnaires used produced representative data to make informed conclusions for the study. The results were as summarized in Table 2.

*Table 2: Response Rate*

<b>Target population</b>	<b>Data Collection tool</b>	<b>Total Target Sample size</b>	<b>Return Sample Rate</b>	<b>Return Rate (%)</b>
Directors (2)	Interview	2	2	100.0%
Tea farmers (5,320)	Questionnaire	532	510	95.9%
Tea farm laborers	Interview	10	10	100.0%
Factory staff (150)	Questionnaire	45	43	95.6%

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), a response rate below 40% is unreliable, a response rate of 40% - 50% is poor, a response rate of 50% - 60% is acceptable for analysis and reporting, a response rate of 60% - 70% is fair, 70% - 80% is good and above 80% is excellent. The interviews return rate was 100% since all the two Tea Area Directors and ten sampled Farm laborers who were the key informants were interviewed. Both questionnaire and interview response rates for this study fall above 80% and, therefore, excellent to be relied upon.

### 4.3 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Demographic profiles discussed in this section included; gender, age, marital status, level of education, main occupation and level of household income from tea of the respondents.

#### 4.3.1 Gender of the Respondents

The study established that the gender of the respondents was as shown in Figure 1.



Figure 1: Gender of the Respondents

The study comprised of only male directors, among tea farmers 81.0% were males and 19.0% were females, with factory staff 48.8% were males whereas 51.2% were females, and among farm laborers 20.0% were males and 80.0% were females. From this finding, it shows that the information collected was representative especially among factory staff, with a ratio of 1:1 since both had equal chance to air their views on examining the gender roles in tea farming and its effect on gender equity in Singorwet Ward of Bomet County. Contrary among directors 100.0% and tea farmers having 80.0 % being male shows opinion disparity which is also evident among farm laborers with majority, 80.0% being women. The findings of the study concur with what is presented by Koyenikan and Ikharea (2014) who state that women are the majority in the agriculture labour force.

#### 4.3.2 Age of the Respondents

The study established that the age of the respondents was as summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Age of the Respondents

Age (Years)	Tea Farmers		Factory Staff		Directors		Farm Laborers	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%

28 – 37	66	12.9	12	27.9	0	0	6	60.0
38 – 47	299	58.6	15	34.9	1	50.0	3	30.0
48 - 59	98	19.2	16	37.2	1	50.0	1	10.0
Over 60	47	9.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>510</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Among tea farmers, 58.6% of the respondents were aged from 38–47 years old, followed by 48– 59 years old at 19.2%, while those within 28-37 years were 12.9% and over 60 years old were 9.2%. Factory staff had 37.2% at 48-59 years, followed by 34.9% with 38-47 years then the remaining 27.9% within 28-37 years. Directors were distributed within 38-59 years of age whereas farm laborers had majority 60.0% at a younger age. These findings show that most of the respondents interviewed were old enough to have some information on their experience with gender roles. These findings confirm what was presented by Jayne et al., (2019), stressing that a higher percentage of those engaged in farming are below age 50.

#### 4.3.3 Marital Status of the Respondents

The study sought to find out the marital status of the respondents, the results were as presented in Figure 2.

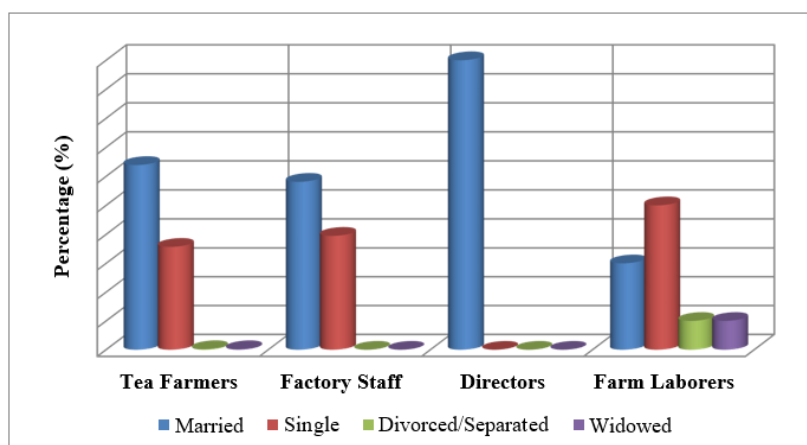


Figure 2: Marital status of the Respondents

Marital status results show that 63.9% tea farmers, 58.1% factory staff and all directors were married. 50.0% of farm laborers were single with 30.0% single. These findings were important because it meant that all the views of the different categories of the respondents were captured. The dominant married on all categories except farm laborers was deemed better placed to outline gender roles. The findings agree with those presented by Muhamadi and Boz (2021) indicating that most farmers are married and engage together in the farming

activities.

#### 4.3.4 Education Level of the Respondents

The level of education of the respondents was very important in the study as it determines the community members' perspective on the gender roles in tea farming and its effect on gender equity. The results were as presented in Table 4.3 With regard to tea farmers' level of education, 45.9% attained their highest education in tertiary colleges followed by primary carder 25.7%, secondary 21.6%, university level 3.7% and lastly with no formal education 3.1%. Among factory staff many had secondary level education 46.5%, 39.5% with tertiary education and 14.0% with university degree. Farm laborers had no one with university degree and majority were with primary (30.0%) and secondary (30.0%) education. Those with no formal education were 20.0% and the remaining 20.0% had attained tertiary education.

*Table 4.3: Education Level of the Respondents*

*Table 4: Education Level of the Respondents*

Education Level	Tea Farmers		Factory Staffs		Directors		Farm Laborers	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
No formal education	16	3.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	20.0
Primary	131	25.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	30.0
Secondary	110	21.6	20	46.5	0	0.0	3	30.0
Tertiary College	234	45.9	17	39.5	2	100.0	2	20.0
University	19	3.7	6	14.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>510</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100.0</b>

From education level findings of the study, it can be said that most of the respondents interviewed had basic primary or secondary education. As the literacy can be linked with the level of awareness of gender roles and stereotypes associated. The findings above concur with Fahad et al. (2018) that education level of the farmer affects their perception on various things, gender equity included.

#### 4.3.5 Household Tea Income of the Respondents

The level of tea income of a population is an important aspect in ascertaining the effects of gender roles in tea farming. To establish this, the respondents were asked to indicate their monthly tea proceeds. The Household's monthly income results were as summarized in Table 5.

Table 5: Monthly Tea Income of the Respondents

Monthly Tea Income (Shillings)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Less than 5,000	294	57.6
5,001 - 10,000	103	20.2
10,001 - 15,000	84	16.5
15,001 - 20,000	2	.4
More than 20,000	27	5.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>510</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Majority of the Households 57.6% (294) earn less than Kshs. 5,000, followed by 20.2% (103) earning Kshs. 5,001 – 10,000 and 16.5% (84) who earned Kshs. 10,001 – 15,000. Furthermore, 5.3% (27) earned between Kshs. 15,001 – 20,000 and only 2 (0.4%) earned more than Kshs. 20,000. The fact of the findings show that majority of the respondent were small scale farmers and was the targeted group. The above findings concur with what Nguyen et al. (2018) presents indicating that farming done efficiently can bring in good income.

#### 4.4 The Effect of Restricted Access and Land Control in Tea Farming on Gender Equity

The first objective of the study was to examine the effect of restricted access and land control in tea farming on gender equity in Singorwet Ward of Bomet County. This objective was handled based on; land ownership and size, land accessibility and control in relation to gender equity.

##### 4.4.1 Land Ownership Size Per Gender

The study utilized tea farmers' questionnaire to seek their views concerning the land ownership and size per gender. The results were as summarized in Table 6.

Table 6: Land Ownership Size Per Gender

Gender	Size of land owned						Total	
	Less than 1 acre		(1 - 5) Acres		More than 5 Acres		F	%
	F	%	F	%	F	%		
Male	288	99.3	66	41.0	59	100.0	413	81.0
Female	2	0.7	95	59.0	0	0.0	97	19.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>290</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>161</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>510</b>	<b>100.0</b>

It was noted that majority (99.3%) of men owned land less than one acre followed by the group with more than five acres then the group with 1-5 acres. On the other hand, there was no woman who owned more than five acres of land, 59.0% owned 1-5 acres with a

handful (0.7%) who owned less than one acre. The findings above are in line with what Doss et al. (2015); it indicates that most women in developing countries have small pieces of land, most not owned and have limited power in utilizing it.

#### 4.4.2 Land Acquisition per Gender

Although all respondents indicated that they were farmers and owned land under their extended families, the study further interrogated how they acquired the land. Land acquisition helps know the genesis of the land. Figure 3 gives a detailed overview of the results.

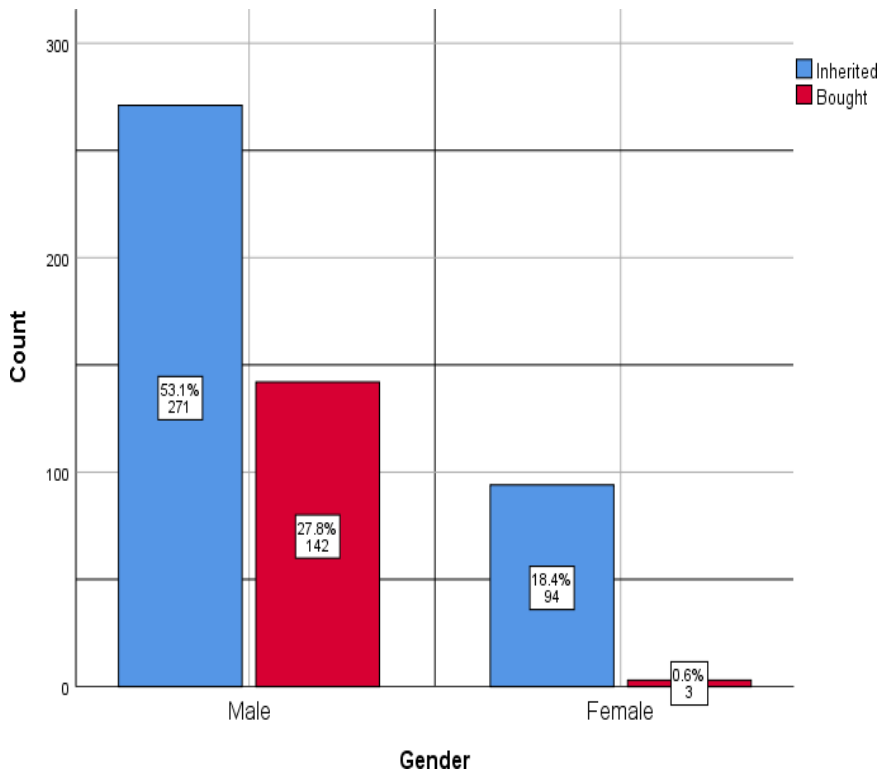


Figure 3: Land Acquisition Statuses of the Respondents

Majority of men and women inherited land from their parents which was admitted by 53.1% and 18.4% respectively. 27.8% of men and 0.35% of women bought their lands. Culture influences this as parents pass their land to their children especially boy-child. The findings are consistent with what was unveiled by Doss et al. (2020) that displayed inequalities in the ownership of land between men and women. According to the researcher's women record slow progress in farming due to such inequality.

#### 4.4.3 Distribution of Respondents per Years in Tea Farming

Majority (61.2%) were men who had been in tea farming for less than 5 years, 11.25% registered 6-10 Years, 6.3% reported 11-15 years and the remaining 2.4% had been in tea farming for over 15 years. On the other hand, many (18.4%) were women who admitted to have been in tea farming for 11-15 years and findings from the open-ended question shows

majority of this group were widows who inherited the farm from their late husbands. The findings are consistent with the observations by Maina et al. (2015) who noted that men compared to women take the upper hand in tea. Men engage more in Annual General Meetings with KTDA because they have a grower number and the necessary kilograms to influence decisions.

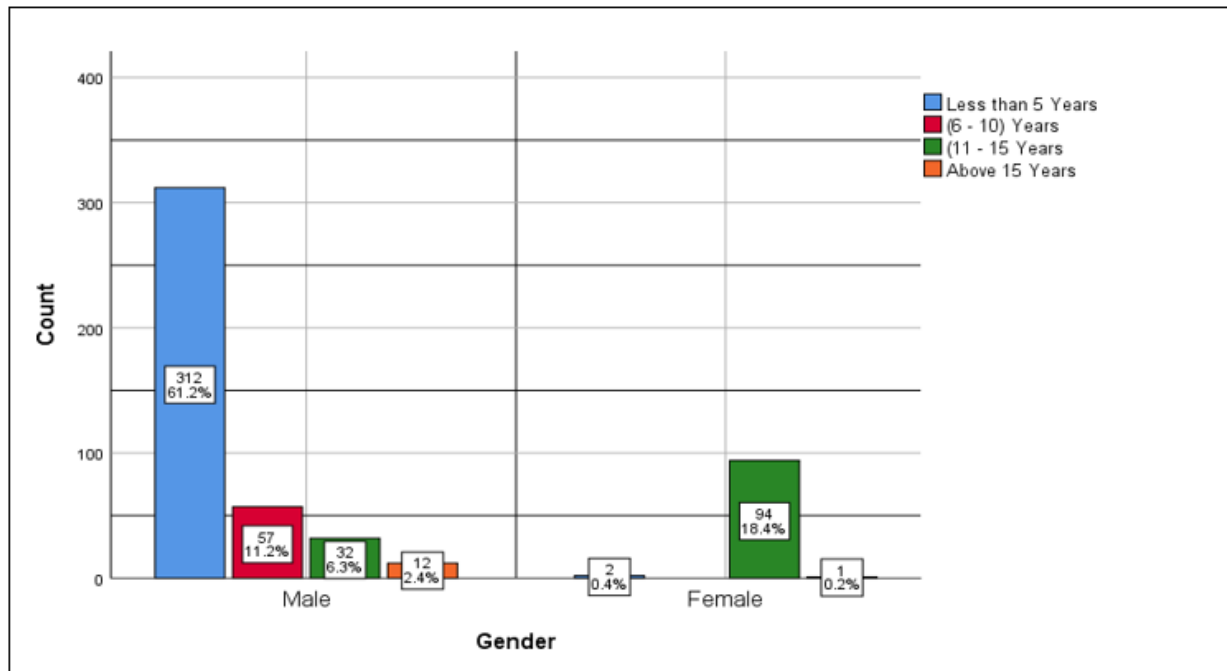


Figure 4: Gender Distributions Per Years in Tea Farming

#### 4.4.4 Evidence on Restricted Access and Land Control on Tea Farming

Results captured from the tea farmers questionnaires soundly indicated that men (80.4%) were the decision makers because they were the owners of those lands. The few (19.6%) women who owned land were either those who inherited from their late husbands or those who bought. According to FAO (2009), women who were displayed to have power to utilize the land and benefit from tea income are those who are widows or single. The women who are married participate in tea farm activities but do not have a tea grower right to earn income directly to their accounts, rather they earn through their husbands accounts. The results were as summarized in Figure 5.

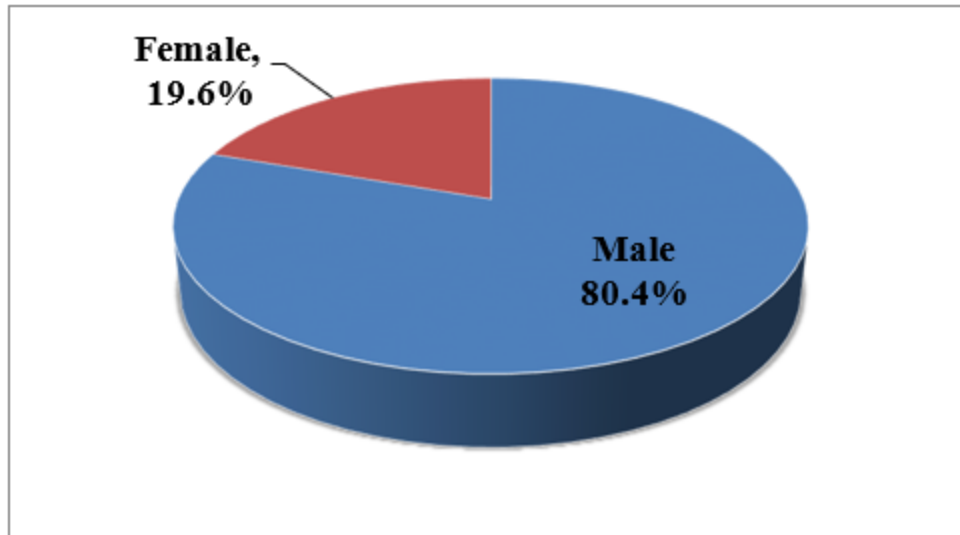


Figure 5: Rate of Decision-Making Per Gender

#### 4.4.5 Effect of Gender Based Restricted Access and Land Control in Tea Farming

The study further sought the effect of gender based restricted access and land control. The tea farmers respondents were asked to rate their views based on five-point likert scale ranging from no extent to very large extent on men own land and all major decisions on tea farming rest with them. The observations above concur with Bose and Das (2017) that gender differences are still existing in terms of inheritance. Laws within cultures and religion encourage the support of one gender over another (Mohan, 2017). Results were as tabulated in Table 7.

Table 7: Statistics on Land and Access Control in Tea Farming

		Men own land and major decisions makers				
		Small Extent	Large Extent	Very Large Extent	Total	
Generally, there is gender equity	Yes	Count	1	242	173	416
		% within gender equity	0.2%	58.2%	41.6%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.2%	47.5%	33.9%	81.6%
No	Count	0	93	1	94	

		<b>Men own land and major decisions makers</b>					
		<b>Small Extent</b>	<b>Large Extent</b>	<b>Very Large Extent</b>	<b>Total</b>		
Generally, there is gender equity	Yes	Count	1	242	173	416	
		% within gender equity	0.2%	58.2%	41.6%	100.0%	
		% of Total	0.2%	47.5%	33.9%	81.6%	
	No	Count	0	93	1	94	
			% within gender equity	0.0%	98.9%	1.1%	100.0%
			% of Total	0.0%	18.2%	0.2%	18.4%
Total	Count	1	335	174	510		
		% within gender equity	0.2%	65.7%	34.1%	100.0%	
		% of Total	0.2%	65.7%	34.1%	100.0%	

Majority though said there were gender equity rated to a large extent 47.5% (n=242), to a very large extent 33.9% (n=173) that men owned land and all major decisions on tea farming rest with them. The few with the opinion that there was no gender equity still rated to a large extent 18.2% (n=93) that men owned land and all major decisions on tea farming rest with them.

#### **4.5 The effect of Access to Financial Services in Tea Farming on Gender Equity**

The second objective of the study was to ascertain the effect of access to financial services in tea farming on gender equity. This part deals with access to financial and allied services then their effect in tea farming on gender equity.

##### **4.5.1 Access to Financial and Allied Services in Tea Farming**

The findings are presented following the research questions. The summaries of the findings were as summarized in Table 8.

*Table 8: Access to and Control over Financial Services in Tea Farming*

<b>Benefits accrued from tea</b>	<b>Men</b>		<b>Women</b>		<b>Both</b>	
	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>%</b>
1) Access to fertilizers	182	35.7	154	30.2	174	34.1
2) Access to finances	174	34.1	0	0.0	336	65.9
3) Access to processed tea leaves	0	0.0	0	0.0	510	100.0
4) Control over fertilizers	356	69.8	0	0.0	154	30.2
5) Control over finances	359	70.4	0	0.0	151	29.6
6) Control over processed tea leaves	185	36.3	325	63.7	0	0.0

Results from tea farmers questionnaire shows men were largely in access of fertilizers and finances with a proportion of 35.7% and 34.1% respectively whereas 30.2% were women who had access to fertilizers and no woman solely accessed finances. Women were dominant 63.7% in control over processed tea leaves but on access both genders were evident. Men had control over fertilizers and finances with 69.8% and 70.4% respectively and this fact was largely reported by factory managers and directors who introduced social dynamics and financial literacy to curb this inequality. The findings confirm what was presented by Demirguc-Kunt et al. (2015) that women are still in their large numbers the unbanked groups. This is associated with a lack of the requisite to have an account which includes a national Identity among others.

Due to the realization by the Tirgaga Tea factory that women benefit minimally financially from tea, they have initiated a program to take women through financial literacy. The program is termed social dynamics and financial literacy. The focus of the trainings is access and control over family resources, development of budgets and importance of savings.

*Plate 1: Observed women receiving financial literacy*



*Time: 12.30 pm*

*Event: Training on Financial Literacy by Tirgaga Tea Factory extension staff Image Courtesy of: Tirgaga Tea Factory Extension Department.*

#### 4.5.2 Number of men and women who have tea proceeds bank account/ those who receive monthly tea earnings and bonuses.

Table 9: Bank account status/ those who receive monthly tea income and bonuses

Gender	Tea Farmers		Factory Staffs		Directors		Farm Laborers	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
With account	40	400	23	20	0	2	2	2
Without an account	57	13	0	0	0	0	6	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>97</b>	<b>413</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>2</b>

From the findings it is evident that women make the larger percentage among tea farmers and laborers in the unbanked category. Those women employed in tea factories have bank account since it is a requirement to allow one get their monthly salary. The respondents that have bank accounts enjoy the benefits of tea through their accounts. It is of importance to note that men take the larger share in monthly income from tea and other related benefits except tea leaves that has more women on the receiving end. The findings confirm what is presented by Lewis et al. (2016) that more women do not have bank accounts because they miss the requisite documents like national identity cards needed for account opening. The earnings by men is also evident in Mohan (2017) who states that farming is male headed, male controlled and decisions as well as income are largely male.

#### 4.6 The Effect of Traditional Division of Labour in Tea Farming on Gender Equity

The third objective of the study was to ascertain the effect of traditional division of labour in tea farming on gender equity. Both quantitative and qualitative data was carefully selected, categorized and summarized to reflect the situation as reported by the respondents.

##### 4.6.1 Quantitative Statistic on Traditional Division of Labour

The findings are presented following the farmers' questionnaire research question on traditional division of labour in tea farming. The results of the findings were as summarized in Table 10. The role of tea nursery establishment was reported by 63.7% of respondents to be men's duty and 36.3% cited women. Land preparation/Weeding and tea picking were the two roles that were noted absolutely to be done by both genders. Applying fertilizers/chemicals and planting of tea seedlings were alleged by 70.4% to be men's role with 29.6% citing both

genders. Tea pruning was amplified as the men's duty. The findings are consistent with Seghirate (2017) who notes that women still bear the burden of household responsibility which is unpaid and invisible and will still be expected to give their whole in the tea farms.

*Table 10: Gender Roles Status in Tea Farming*

Roles played in tea farming	Men		Women		Both/Equal	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
1) Nursery establishment of tea plant	325	63.7	185	36.3	0	0.0
2) Land preparation/Weeding	0	0.0	0	0.0	510	100.0
3) Applying fertilizers/chemicals	359	70.4	0	0.0	151	29.6
4) Planting of tea seedlings	359	70.4	0	0.0	151	29.6
5) Pruning of tea crop	510	100.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
6) Plucking of tea	0	0.0	0	0.0	510	100.0
7) Taking of green leaf to buying Centre	19	3.7	27	5.3	464	91.0
8) Collecting/receiving of pay slips	273	53.5	63	12.4	174	34.1
9) Goes to the bank to earn bonus and monthly payments	278	54.5	185	36.3	47	9.2
10) Attending AGMs or any meetings at the factory or buying Centre	426	83.5	84	16.5	0	0.0

Taking of green leaf to buying centre belonged to both genders as reported by 91.0% of respondents. Men were the majority in collecting/receiving of pay slips, going to the bank to earn bonus and monthly payments, attending AGMs or any meetings at the factory or buying centres with 53.5%, 54.5%, and 83.5% respectively. This confirms what is presented by Makone et al. (2017) that more male farmers are witnessed earning than women.

#### **4.6.2 Qualitative Statistics on Traditional Division of Labour**

The theme on traditional division of labour in tea farming was succinctly reported by tea farmers, farm laborers, tea area directors and direct observations. Code is a descriptor of data segment that assigns meaning (Fox et al., 2016) whereas a theme reflects significant of a pattern with the data about the research questions. It is derived from codes and more conceptual abstracts (Saldana, 2016). Figure 6 is an output of QDA miner lite which demonstrates to a large extent traditional division of labour by use of codes.

Majority (85.0%) of tea farming roles were reported to be performed by both gender which include but not limited to; land preparation, tea nursery, tea planting, weeding, tea picking, ferrying to TBC, tea weighing and processing at the factory. There were no distinct

women roles yet few men distinct roles which include tea pruning. The findings agree with those presented by ILO (2018) and Selvi and Subbulakshmi (2019) which indicate that women are engaged in a variety of activities within the farm but when it comes to men, there are specified roles. Men are appropriated roles that need muscle, more strength and resilience while women are left to perform the remaining many roles within the farm. Women are flexible beings to fit any role.

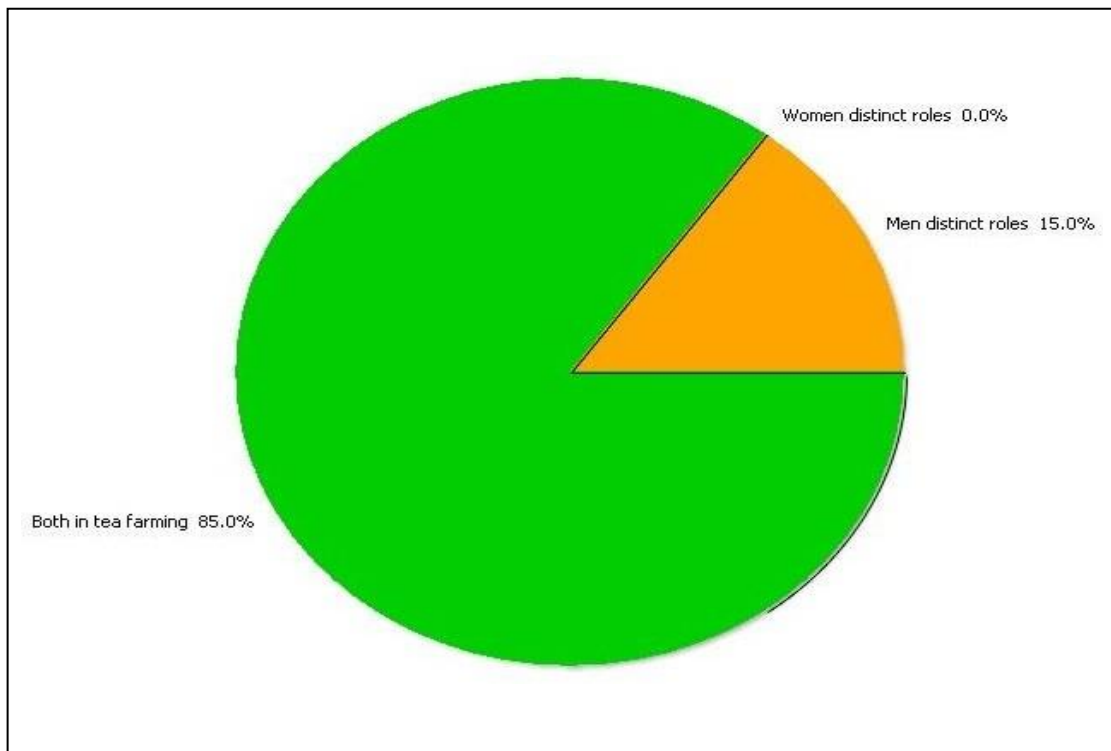


Figure 6: Qualitative Statistics on Gender Roles

#### 4.6.3 Observed Distinct Gender Roles in Tea Farming

To back up both qualitative and quantitative results on traditional division of labour on tea farming the study utilized

observational schedule. The three major distinct roles that were reported and observed to be reserved for men include tea pruning, vehicles-tyre replacement and boiler operations. Plate 4.2 presents observed distinct gender roles in tea farming.

On further interrogation it was noted that all roles which were considered tiresome or needs lots of energy were culturally reserved for men. Women were not allowed to do pruning just like fencing among the Kipsigis community which was the dominant community in the study area. In tea processing and support sections; replacement of vehicles' tyres and boiler operations were reserved for men due to heavy lifting and turning involved. This department involves stoking staff and firewood cutters. Their work is tedious, needs resilience and strength throughout the eight hours on duty. These observations are consistent with what

Alesina et al. (2013) and Qian (2008) found that women are given roles considered for delicate hands and men assigned roles termed physically engaging.

*Plate 2: Observed Distinct Men Roles in Tea Farming*

Picture	Remark
	<p>This picture on tea pruning was captured at KP25. Two men are handling the activity; pruning is considered a male duty for best results.</p>
	<p>The picture shows a technical staff changing a tyre for a Tirgaga Factory vehicle. Four men staff were handling this change of tyre.</p>
	<p>The picture displays the Boiler team staff- nine male staff.</p>

#### **4.6.4 Effect of Traditional Division of Labour in Tea Farming on Gender Equity**

In order to further ascertain effect of traditional division of labour in tea farming the study sought tea farmers' opinions on women taking major roles in domestic chores and

caregiving to the children which tend to hinder their involvement in tea farming. The results were as summarized in a two way contingency Table 11.

*Table 11: Statistics on Women Taking Major Domestic Roles*

		Women taking major roles in domestic chores and caregiving to the children.					Total	
		No Extent	Small Extent	Neutral	Large Extent	Very Large Extent		
Generally, there is gender equity	Yes	Count	158	242	2	10	4	416
		% within gender equity	38.0%	58.2%	0.5%	2.4%	1.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	31.0%	47.5%	0.4%	2.0%	0.8%	81.6%
No		Count	1	91	1	1	0	94
		% within gender equity	1.1%	96.8%	1.1%	1.1%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.2%	17.8%	0.2%	0.2%	0.0%	18.4%
Total		Count	159	333	3	11	4	510
		% within gender equity	31.2%	65.3%	0.6%	2.2%	0.8%	100.0%

Majority though said there were gender equity rated to a small extent 47.5% (n=242), to a no extent 31.0% (n=158) that women taking major roles in domestic chores and caregiving to the children tend to hinder their involvement in tea farming. The few with the opinion that there was no gender equity still rated to a small extent (17.8%, n=91) that women taking major roles in domestic chores and caregiving to the children tend to hinder their involvement in tea farming. According to ILO (2018), Women participation in the tea industry is not at its optimum because they are expected to handle other roles within the home. The roles take most of their time which could have been dedicated to fruitful farming.

#### **4.7 The Effect of Access to Agricultural Extension Services in Tea Farming on Gender Equity**

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the effect of agricultural extension services in tea farming on gender equity. This section is divided into two; assessment of

access to tea agricultural extension services and ascertaining their effect in tea farming on gender equity.

#### 4.7.1 Gender Status on Access to Tea Agricultural Extension Services

Qualitative data gathered through interview with area directors, farm laborers and direct observation was utilized to assess tea agricultural extension services. The results were as summarized in Figure 7 and Plate 3.

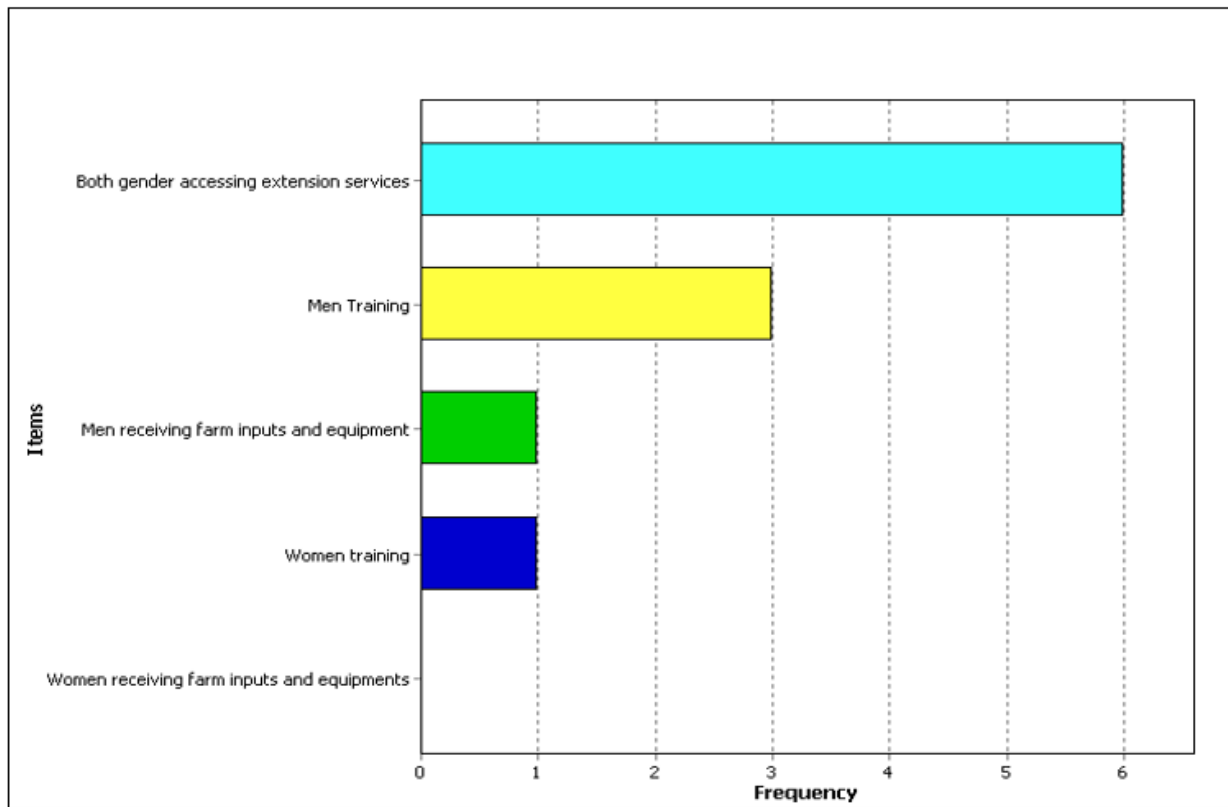


Figure 7: Gender Statuses on Access and Offering Extension Services

It is public knowledge that having full access to agricultural extension services tends to make one empowered and likely to prosper in tea farming just like other agricultural sectors. It is evident that both genders were noted to access tea agricultural extension services (n=6), men were involved more (n=3) in disseminating training as compared to women (n=1). Men were observed receiving tea baskets and women here seemed discriminated. Mengal et al. (2014) applauds the impact that extension services have on farming. According to him, extension trainings ensures an enlightened farmer who will utilize best practices in their activity for better yields. Although women are part of the extension activities, they are still seen as lagging, not incorporated in mainstream trainings and not benefitting fully from the trainings.

*Plate 3: Observed Distinct Statuses on Access and Offering Tea Extension Services*

	
<p>Farmers being trained on how to spread tea leaves at the tea buying centres to check on their quality and best ways of transporting tea from farm to tea buying centre</p>	<p>Factory Unit Manager taking tea farmers through how to prepare seedbeds, dig holes for planting tea, pruning time for tea and chemical application in tea farming- KTDA advocates non-spraying of a tea farm</p>
	
<p>Extension services and production manager taking both male and female farmers through best practices in tea management and production</p>	<p>Farmers being trained by the female manager in charge of extension services at Tirgaga Factory (In white coat with raised hand). Another female staff within extension services department standing with the farmers in white coat.</p>
	
<p>Extension services staff presenting tea baskets to farmers at a tea buying centre; farmers encouraged to use the baskets when picking tea for preservation of quality in tea picked</p>	

**4.7.2 Effect of Access to Management of Tea Farming on Gender Equity**

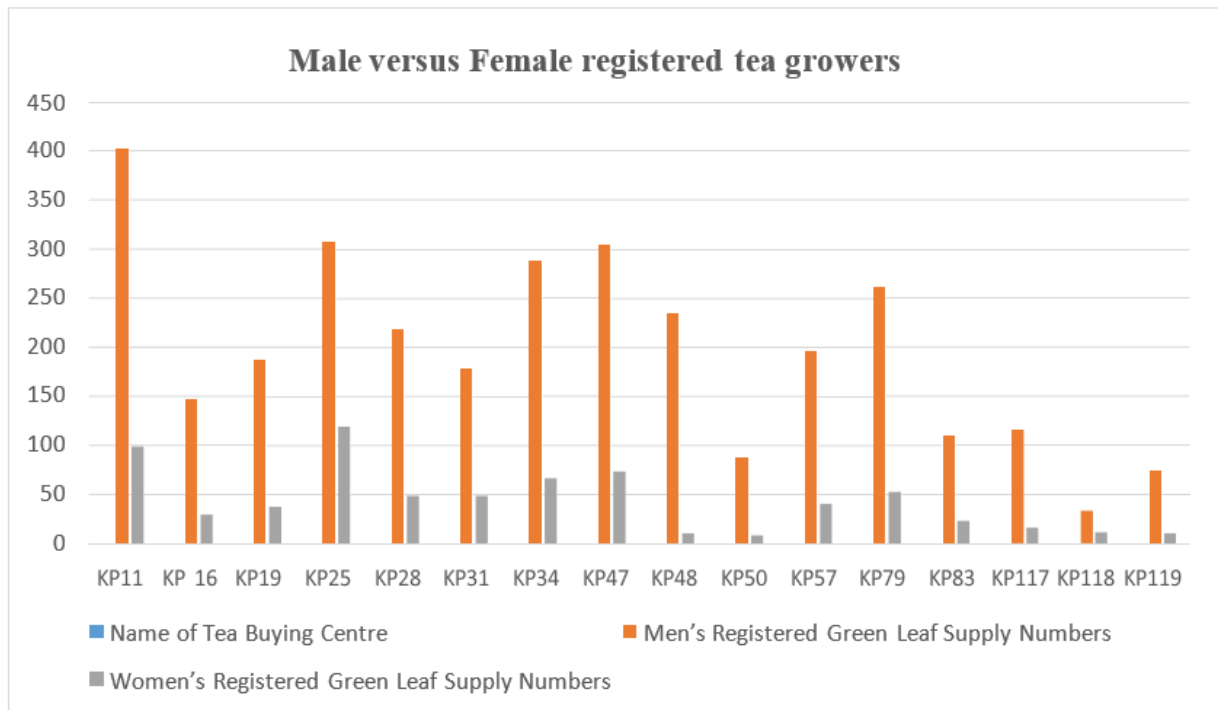
Gender roles ascribe domestic chores and childcare to women as reported by most of this study data collection tools the study further sought gender segregation statistic based on

registered green leaf supply numbers to Tirgaga Tea Factory. Directorship and TBC Committee leadership called for one to be a bonafide registered with green leaf supply number. Table 12, Figure 8, and Figure 9 respectively presents the summary of results.

*Table 12: Observed Distinct Statuses on Access and Offering Tea Extension Services*

S. No	Name of Tea Buying Centre	<u>Men's</u>	<u>Women's</u>	Gender Parity Ratio (Women:Men)	Gender Parity as Percentage (%)
		Registered Green Leaf Supply Numbers	Registered Green Leaf Supply Numbers		
KP11	Cheptuiyet	403	98	0.2	24.3
KP 16	Kapsimotwo	146	29	0.1	19.9
KP19	Kamasega	186	37	0.2	19.9
KP25	Aisaik	307	118	0.4	38.4
KP28	Kapsoiyo	218	48	0.2	22.0
KP31	Koma	178	48	0.2	27.0
KP34	Singorwet	288	66	0.2	22.9
KP47	Tirgaga	304	73	0.2	24.0
KP48	Kabungut	234	10	0.0	4.3
KP50	Silibwet	87	8	0.0	9.2
KP57	Chepkirib	195	40	0.2	20.5
KP79	Barbarek	261	52	0.2	19.9
KP83	Kipkebe	110	23	0.2	20.9
KP117	Reberwet	115	16	0.1	13.9
KP118	Chematich	33	11	0.3	33.3
KP119	Chepkitach	74	10	0.1	13.5
<b>Total</b>		<b>3139</b>	<b>687</b>	<b>0.2</b>	<b>21.8</b>

Source: Singorwet zone Tea Area Director Summary ( 2018)



*Figure 8: Registered Green Leaf Supply Numbers in Mugango Zone Per Gender*

Source: Mugango Zone Tea Area Director Summary (2018)

In both Mugango and Singorwet Zone the results shows men were the majority based on registered green leaf supply numbers in all TBC which was in accordance with what directors points out as the main hindrance to vie for elective positions. The overall gender parity ratio stood at 0.2 which was in favor of men. This was also evident in directorship where there was no director lady even beyond Singorwet ward that is the whole of Tirgaga Factory Catchment area. The findings are consistent with Makone et al. (2017) who assert that men are the majority in the numbers of the registered growers and thus have a say in the decision process in the tea industry.

Figure 9 shows the trend of TBC Committee leadership per gender in the sampled TBC. It is amplified that men were the majority with only Chepkitach and Semoi TBCs with 3 men to 2 women but generally it still dominated by men. It can be noted that there was no gender equity in Directorship and TBC Committee leadership.

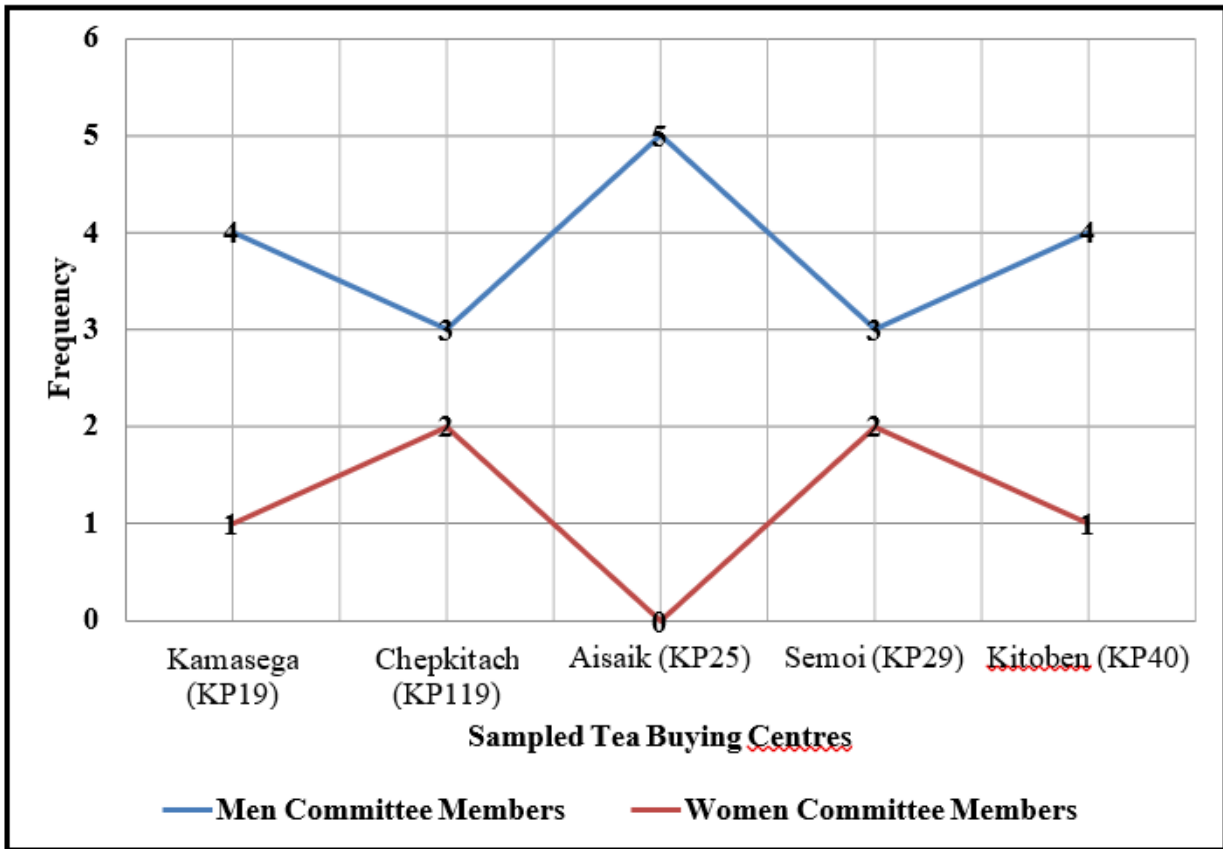


Figure 9: Trend of TBC Committee Leadership Per Gender

#### 4.7.3 Effect of Access to Tea Agricultural Extension Services on Gender Equity

The two-way contingency table was conducted to evaluate gender as associated with access to tea extension services based on whether women have access to training and extension services in tea farming. The gender equity had two levels (Yes and No) whereas if women have access to training and extension services in tea farming had five levels of rating (to no extent, to little extent, to moderate extent and to very large extent). Table 13 summarize the results on this subject. Essentially, women are not the majority in decision making tables yet a majority in the labour force. He notes that gender mainstreaming strategies be embraced to enable equal participation.

From the contingency table, women are cited to a large extent, 73.5% (n=375), to have access to training and extension services in tea farming by those who admit there was gender equity. On the other hand, to a large extent, 14.7% (n=75) were of the same opinion, though they reported no gender equity.

Table 13: Contingency Table on Women Extension Services Verses Gender Equity

		Women have access to training and Extension services in tea farming			Total		
		Small Extent	Large Extent	Very Large Extent			
Generally, there is gender equity	Yes	Count	2	375	39	416	
		% within gender equity	0.5%	90.1%	9.4%	100.0%	
		% of Total	0.4%	73.5%	7.6%	81.6%	
	No	Count	19	75	0	94	
			% within gender equity	20.2%	79.8%	0.0%	100.0%
			% of Total	3.7%	14.7%	0.0%	18.4%
Total	Count	21	450	39	510		
		% within gender equity	4.1%	88.2%	7.6%	100.0%	
		% of Total	4.1%	88.2%	7.6%	100.0%	

There was significant association between gender equity and women on tea extension services;  $X^2(4, N=510) = 82.246^a$ ,  $P=0.000$ .

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of the research project major findings, conclusions and recommendations. The conclusions arising from the summary of findings pave way for recommendations aimed at analyzing the gender roles in tea farming and its effect on gender equity in Singorwet Ward of Bomet County, Kenya and finally the suggestions for further research.

#### 5.2 Summary of the Findings

This study objectively examined the gender roles in tea farming and its effect on gender equity in Singorwet Ward of Bomet County. The interviews return rate was 100% since all the two Tea Area Directors and ten sampled Farm laborers who were the key informants were interviewed. Both questionnaires and interviews response rates for this study fall above 80% and therefore excellent to be relied upon.

On the first objective, it was noted that majority (99.3%) of men owned land less than one acre followed by the group with more than five acres then the group with 1-5 acres. On the other hand, there was no woman who owned more than five acres of land, 59.0% owned 1-5 acres with a handful (0.7%) who owned less than one acre. Majority of men and women inherited land from their parents which was admitted by 53.1% and 18.4% respectively. 27.8% of men and 0.35% of women bought their lands. Culture influences this as parents pass their land to their children especially boy-child.

On the second objective, results from tea farmers questionnaire shows men were largely in access of fertilizers and finances with a proportion of 35.7% and 34.1% respectively whereas 30.2% were women who had access to fertilizers and no woman solely accessed finances. Women were dominant 63.7% in control over processed tea leaves but on access both genders were evident. Men had control over fertilizers and finances with 69.8% and 70.4% respectively and this fact was largely reported by factory managers and directors who introduced social dynamics and financial literacy to curb this inequality.

On the third objective, the role of tea nursery establishment was reported by 63.7% of respondents to be men's duty and 36.3% cited women. Land preparation/Weeding and tea picking were the two roles that were noted absolutely to be done by both genders. Applying fertilizers/chemicals and planting of tea seedlings were alleged by 70.4% to be men's role with 29.6% citing both genders. Tea pruning was amplified as the men's duty.

On the fourth objective, it is evident that both genders were noted to access tea agricultural extension services (n=6), men were involved more (n=3) in disseminating training as compared to women (n=1). Men were observed receiving tea baskets and women here seemed discriminated.

### **5.3 Conclusions**

On restricted access and control over land, it was evident from the findings that culture influences this as parents pass their land to their children especially boy-child and to some extent own land through inheritance from their late husbands or bought small portions. Men were the majority land owners and dominant decision makers in tea farming.

On access to financial services, women were depicted significantly to lack access and control over finances accrued from tea farming. On traditional division of labour, there were no distinct women roles yet few men distinct roles which include tea pruning. The challenges of gender equity are a household and community issue which requires men and women working together to achieve different and better ways of relating to one another. Both qualitative and quantitative findings show significant association that women domestic chores have a major effect in tea farming roles especially in vying for elective positions.

On extension services access, women and men benefit from extension services from Tirgaga Tea Factory. In fact, some extension officers including the Extension manager is a female. It is encouraging to note the uptake of women in such services and attendance to benefit from the trainings.

### **5.4 Recommendations**

Based on the main findings of the study, the following recommendations can be made:

- i. Improve women's access to credit and assets like land. This can be done through trainings of community opinion leaders to ensure they embrace the constitutional right of women to be given land under inheritance. Owning land can then allow women use it as security to get credit.
- ii. Sensitize tea farmers to encourage more women participation in financial literacy programmes organized by the Tirgaga Tea Factory Extension department as well by banks within Bomet county. This will enlighten both men and women and encourage a culture of saving, opening of bank accounts and taking loans to boost productivity.
- iii. Invest in programs to reduce time pressures for women and support joint decision making and ownership of income and resources at the household level. This may

include having day care units within the Factory set up or flexible work schedule for women compared to men.

- iv. Achieve greater gender balance in leadership positions and develop a list of gender equity principles for tea to unite and galvanize the industry. This can be done by boosting the gender rule application in leadership positions to allow women be nominated unto directorship positions and even tea buying centre committees. It will even allow more women become a part of the extension team by embracing courses in Technical Institutes that deal with Agricultural education and extension. It should be made a gender-neutral course to allow gender balance in this.

### **5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies**

In view of the gaps identified by the study there is need to examine the following areas in detail:

- i. Gender-sensitive programmes that can allow women balance roles within the home and tea sector.
- ii. Explore how men and women in a family can co-own tea and a tea leaf number and have separate bank accounts.
- iii. Explore how gender-specific trainings can boost financial independence and utilization of resources in farm activities.

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[https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/2022-05/Gender\\_Fact\\_Sheet\\_-\\_Kenya\\_2019-final.pdf](https://www.usaid.gov/sites/default/files/2022-05/Gender_Fact_Sheet_-_Kenya_2019-final.pdf)
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## APPENDICES

### Appendix I: Questionnaire for Tea Farmers

#### Introduction

Questionnaire

No:

Village \_\_\_\_\_

Tea

Buying

Centre

This questionnaire is designed purposely for academic work to assess “**Gender Roles in Tea Farming and its Effect on Gender Equity in Singorwet ward, Bomet County.**” Kindly respond to **ALL** questions and the information you provide will be treated with confidentiality. Please tick in the appropriate boxes provided to indicate your choice. Where boxes are not provided use the blank spaces provided. The researcher is grateful for the time and effort you will put into responding to this questionnaire.

#### SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENT

1. What is your Gender

Male

Female

2. What age bracket do you fall in?

18 -27 Years

28-37 years

38-47 years

3. What is your marital status?

Married

Single

Widowed

Divorced/Separated

4. What is the highest level of education you have attained?

Primary

Secondary

Tertiary College

University

No formal education

Other (Specify): \_\_\_\_\_

5. What is your main occupation?

Farmer

Civil Servant/Employed

Student

Self-employed Business

Other (Specify): \_\_\_\_\_

6. What is your household tea Monthly income (in KES

Less than 5,000

5001-10,000

10,001-15,000

15,001-20,000  More than 20,000

**SECTION B: ACCESS TO CONTROL OVER LAND**

7. Do you own the land/portion of tea farm you hold?

Yes  No

8. If **No** in (Q7) above, what is the Land tenure status?

Lease  Partnership  Husband's

Other (Specify): \_\_\_\_\_

9. If **Yes** in (Q7) above, how did you acquire the land?

Inherited  Bought

10. Do you own a tea supply number to Tirgaga Factory/Other Tea Factories?

Yes  No

11. What is the approximate tea farm size

Less than an acre  1-5 acres  More than 5 acres

12. How many years have you been in tea farming?

Less than 5 Years  6-10 Years  11-15 Years  Above 15 Years

13. Who make decisions about activities within the land? Why?

Man  Woman

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

14. Which labour options are utilized in your tea farming activities?

Hired Workers  Family labour  Both

15. Which gender is the majority in your tea farming activities? and why

Male  Female

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

**SECTION C: ACCESS TO AND CONTROL OVER THE BENEFITS ACCRUED**

**FROMTEA FARMING**

Kindly fill the following access to and Control over the Benefits Accrued from Tea Farming to reflect the tea farming activities taking place in your farm.

**16. Access to and Control over the Benefits Accrued from Tea Farming Table**

Benefits accrued from tea	Access to			Access to		
	Men	Women	Both	Men	Women	Both
A. Fertilizers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B. Finances	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C. Processed tea leaves	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D. Other (specify): _____						

17. Are there committee members in your tea-buying centre?

Yes  No

18. If Yes in (17) above, what roles do they play?

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

19. Which role do you play in the management of small-scale tea farming

Farmer  Tea Buying Centre Representative/Committee

20. How are the directors/committee members elected in your tea-buying centre?

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

21. Have you participated in the election of tea area Directors?

Yes  No

22. Have you participated in the election of Tea-Buying centre Committee

Yes  No

23. If No in (Q21/Q22) explain why you did not participate?

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

24. Indicate the number of committee members as appropriate to your tea-buying centre.

Category	Men	Women	Total
Tea Buying Centre Committee			

**Section D: Traditional Division of Labour, Access to Extension Services and Management in Tea Farming**

Kindly tick the following gender roles survey table to reflect dominance in the tea farming activities taking place in your farm

**25. Gender Role Survey Table**

Roles played in tea farming	Men	Women	Both/Equal
A. Nursery establishment of tea plant	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B. Land preparation/Weeding	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
C. Applying fertilizers/chemicals	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
D. Planting of tea seedlings	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
E. Pruning of tea crop	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
F. Plucking of tea	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
G. Taking of green leaf to buying centre	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
H. Collecting/receiving of pay slips	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I. Goes to the bank to earn bonus and monthly payments	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
J. Attending AGMs or any meetings at the factory or buying centre	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
K. Other (specify): _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- The following are some of the traditional division of labour, access to extension services and management in tea farming. Please indicate the extent to which each has influence on gender equity
27. The following are some of the traditional division of labour, access to extension services and management in tea farming. Please indicate the extent to which each has influence on gender equity

<b>Traditional division of labour, access to extension services, and management</b>		<b>No extent</b>	<b>Small extent</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Large extent</b>	<b>Very large extent</b>
		<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>A.</b>	Women taking major roles in domestic chores and caregiving to the children tend to hinder their involvement in tea farming	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>B.</b>	Men own land and all major decisions on tea farming rest with them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>C.</b>	Women have access to financial services through tea farming	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>D.</b>	Women have access to training and Extension services in tea farming	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>E.</b>	Women has access to management of tea farming within their farms	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>F.</b>	Women has access to management of tea farming in tea Buying Centers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**28.** Have you benefitted from extension services for tea farmers

Yes  No

If yes in (Q27) how often

Monthly  Quarterly  Yearly

Other (specify): \_\_\_\_\_

**29.** Who usually conducts trainings

Men  Women  Both

.....  
 .....

.....  
**30.** Do you have access to financial services through tea farming?

Yes                       No

**31.** In your opinion can you say gender equity seem to have been attained?

Yes                       No

**32.** Do you own an account with a Savings and Credit cooperative Society (SACCO)?

Yes                       No

**33.** What are some of the benefits you get from being a tea farmer in your SACCO?

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

**34.** What challenges prevent you from effectively participating in tea farming?

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

*Thank you for your time and cooperation*

## Appendix II: Questionnaire for Tea Factory Staff

Introduction Section

Questionnaire No: \_\_\_\_\_

---

This questionnaire is designed purposely for academic work to assess **Gender Roles in Tea Farming and its Effect on Gender Equity in Singorwet Ward, Bomet County**. Kindly respond to ALL questions and the information you provide will be treated with confidentiality. Please tick in the appropriate boxes provided to indicate your choice. Where boxes are not provided use the blank spaces provided. The researcher is grateful for the time and effort you will put into responding to this questionnaire.

---

### Part I: Demographic Profile of Respondent

1. What is your Gender

Male

Female

2. What age bracket do you fall in?

18-27 Years

28-37 years

38-47 years

48-59 years

Over 60 Years

3. What is your marital status?

Married

Single

Widowed

Divorced/Separated

4. What is the highest level of education you have attained?

Primary

Secondary

Tertiary College

University

No formal education

Other (Specify): \_\_\_\_\_

5. What is your designation?

Factory Manager

Supervisor

Office Clerk

Leave Clerk

Mechanic

Electrician

Security Officer

Tea Assistant General Worker

Other (Specify): \_\_\_\_\_

### Part II: Access to Work and Working Conditions as a Tea Factory Staff

6. Kindly give the number of staffs per gender to reflect the tea collection and processing activities taking place in your factory  
*(Note: Q6 and Q7 are meant for factory managers only)*

<b>Staff Survey Table</b>				
<b>Factory Staff</b>		<b>Men</b>	<b>Women</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>A.</b>	Leaf collection Clerks/Drivers (Logistic staff)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>B.</b>	Tea assistants involved in grower number processing and field extension services	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>C.</b>	Security officers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>D.</b>	Processing Supervisors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>E.</b>	Office assistants	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>F.</b>	Technical factory staffing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>F.</b>	Directors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>F.</b>	Managers and Management trainees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>G.</b>	General work staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>H.</b>	Other(specify): _____	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. As at now what is the number of registered Grower Numbers as per Gender in Singorwet Ward?

Men                       Women

8. What is the nature of your job?

Permanent and pensionable                       Contractual

Other (specify): \_\_\_\_\_

9. If contractual, explain its duration

.....  
 .....

10. How long is your working day/shift?

6 Hours                       8 Hours                       12 Hours

Above 12 Hours

11. Do you sometimes work overtime?

Yes  No

If yes, is the overtime remunerated

.....  
.....

12. Are you allowed any leave or off days?

.....

13. Do you feel there is gender discrimination in the allocation of tasks in this tea factory?

Explain.

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

14. What are the factors for the thinking that they are distinct roles based on gender? Please explain:

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

15. What is the criterion for recruitment of your present position in the factory?

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

16. What are the considerations used in promotion, placement and allocation of roles in your factory?

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

**Part III: Traditional Division of Labour, Access to Deliver Extension Services to Farmers and Receive Trainings**

17. Kindly tick the following access survey table to reflect gender dominance in delivering services to farmers and access to trainings.

<b>Access Survey Table</b>					
<b>Access item</b>		<b>Men</b>	<b>Women</b>	<b>Both/Equal</b>	
<b>A.</b>	Delivering extension services to farmers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
<b>B.</b>	Access to training pertaining your job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
<b>C.</b>	Access to promotions/pay rise	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
<b>D.</b>	Access to financial services	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
<b>E.</b>	Other(specify):	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

18. The following are some of the traditional division of labour, access to extension services and management in tea farming. Please indicate the extent to which each has influence on gender equity

<b>Traditional division of labour, access to extension services, and management</b>		<b>No extent</b>	<b>Small extent</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Large extent</b>	<b>Very large extent</b>
		<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>A.</b>	Women taking major roles in domestic chores and caregiving to the children tend to hinder their involvement in tea farming	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>B.</b>	Men own land and all major decisions on tea farming rest with them	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>C.</b>	Women have access to financial services through tea farming	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

<b>D.</b>	Women have access to training and Extension services in tea farming	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>E.</b>	Women has access to management of tea farming within their farms	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>F.</b>	Women has access to management of tea farming in tea tea-buying centers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**19.** What challenges prevent attainment of gender equity in your factory?

.....

.....

.....

.....

*Thank you for your time and cooperation*

### Appendix III: Interview Schedule for Tea Farm Labourers

#### Interview Questions with Tea Farm Laborers

---

It is important that interviewer translate the questions for those who don't understand English language. Ensure that the information provided reflects the situation in their tea farm.

---

1. Which age bracket do you fall into?

- 18-27 Years       28-37 years       38-47 years       48-59 years   
Over 60 Years

2. What made you choose this kind of work over others?

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

3. Do you feel there is gender discrimination in allocation of tasks in tea farms?

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

4. Explain the roles farm laborers are involved in tea farming and categorize based on gender?

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

5. What are the factors for the thinking that they are distinct roles based on gender? Please explain:

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

6. Have you ever received training about tea farming? If yes who did the training and what topics were touched on? Yes       No

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

7. Who allocates duties in the tea farm that you work in?

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

8. Who oversees paying tea farm workers in the farm that you work in?

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

9. How many men and women working in this farm as laborers? What would you recommend to be done to meet gender equity? Please explain:

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

*Thank you for your time and cooperation*

## Appendix IV: Interview Schedule for Directors

### Interview Questions with Directors

---

This interview schedule is addressed to Directors. It is important that they answer each question carefully so that the information provided reflects the situation in their tea Zone.

---

1. Which tea zone do you govern?

.....

2. Which age bracket do you fall into?

18-27 Years       28-37 years       38-47 years       48-59 years

Over 60 Years

3. How long have you been the Director of the zone?

.....

4. Kindly give an overview of zoning in Tirgaga Tea Factory in relation to gender equity?

.....

.....

.....

5. What are the key requirements for one to be a director? Please explain:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

6. How is tea area director elected to office? Please explain:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

8. What are your roles as a director in the management of tea farming? Explain:

.....

.....

.....  
.....  
9. If there is gender dominance among directors, what do you think cause this disparity?

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

10. In your zone which gender is dominant based on registered tea supply/grower numbers?

.....  
.....

11. Does Tirgaga Tea Factory meet gender equity in staffing? Explain, including if there is a plan for equality.

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

12. What would you recommend to be done to meet gender equity? Please explain:

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

*Thank you for your time and cooperation*

## Appendix V: Observation Schedule

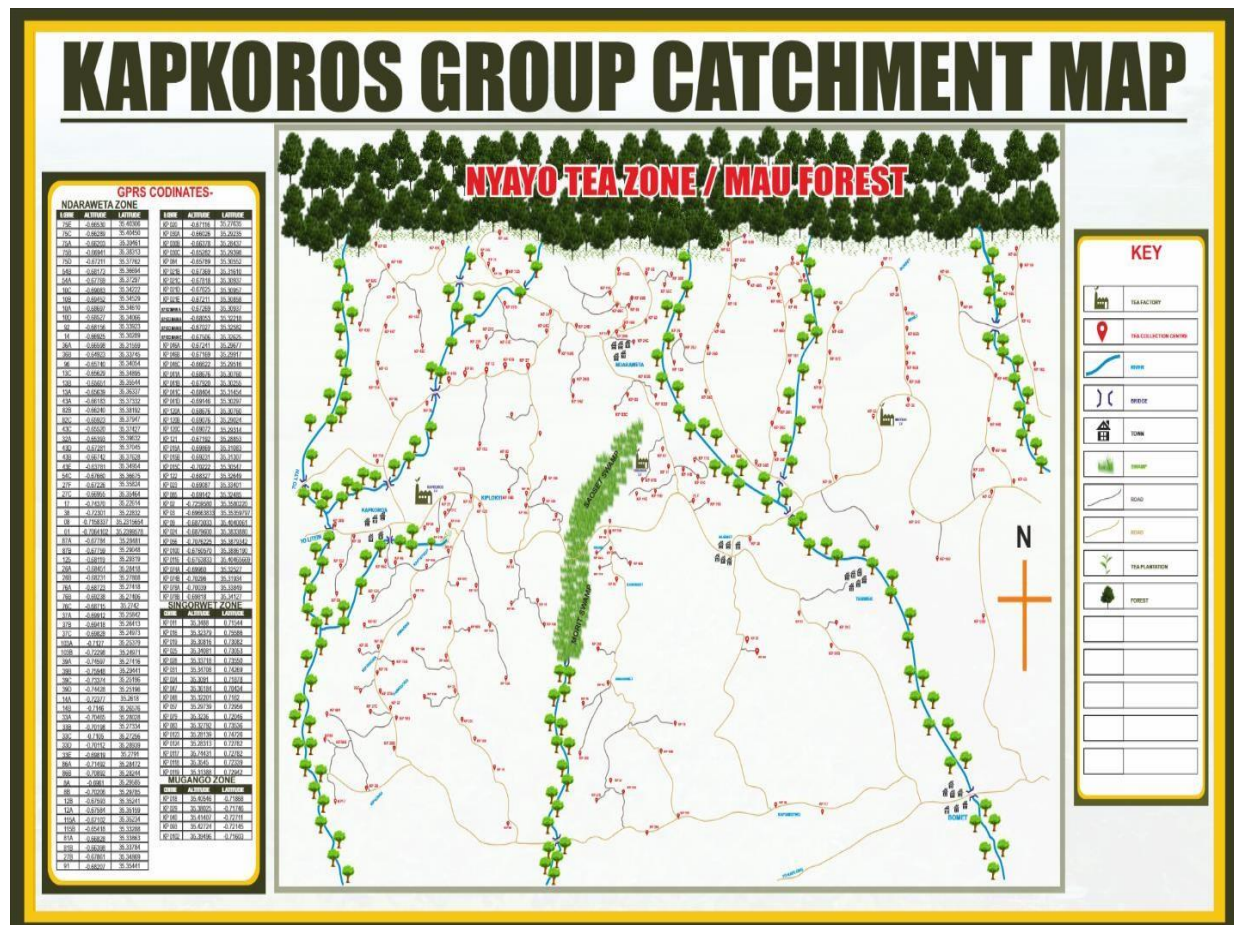
	Observation Item	Location	Status/Notes	Comment
1.	Restricted access and land control in tea farming on gender equity <i>(Capture pictures, video or takenotes on this subject while conducting interviews/ administering questionnaires at farms, TBC and Factory).</i>	KP19		
		KP119		
		KP25		
		KP29		
		KP40		
		Factory		
2.	Access to financial services in tea farming on gender equity <i>(Capture pictures, video or takenotes on this subject while conducting interviews/ administering questionnaires at farms, TBC and Factory)</i>	KP19		
		KP119		
		KP25		
		KP29		
		KP40		
		Factory		
3.	Effect of traditional division of labour in tea farming on gender equity <i>(Capture pictures, video or takenotes on this subject while conducting interviews/ administering questionnaires at farms, TBC and Factory)</i>	KP19		
		KP119		
		KP25		
		KP29		
		KP40		
		Factory		
4.	Effect of access to agricultural extension services in tea farming on gender equity.	KP19		
		KP119		
		KP25		

## Appendix VI: Research Budget

Item	Cost per unit	Total cost
Modem cost		4,000
Airtime costs		15,000
Laptop cost		35,000
Printer		20,000
Printing papers	5 reams @ 500	2,500
Other stationeries		3,000
Projector		30,000
Travelling expenses		30,000
Data collection charges		40,000
Tape recorder		20,000
Hiring costs of the venue of interview	5 days@ 4,500	22,500
Contingencies		22,000
<b>Totals</b>		<b>244,000</b>

Note: The researcher will fund all the research expenses.

## Appendix VII: Map of Tea Buying Centres under Tirgaga Factory



## Appendix VIII: Abstract of Published Journal Article on How Women’s Financial Exclusion is Affecting Gender Equity in Tea Farming in Singorwet Ward, Bomet County

5:19

← 1969-1975 (1).pdf

**How Women’s Financial Exclusion is Affecting Gender Equity in Tea Farming in Singorwet Ward, Bomet County**  
 Chepkirui Agnes<sup>1</sup>, Dr. D. S Parsitau, PhD<sup>2</sup>, Dr. Diana A. Opollo, PhD<sup>3</sup>  
<sup>1</sup>Masters Student Egerton University, P.O BOX 153, 20400 BOMET  
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 DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.47772/IJRISS.2024.803136>  
 Received: 02 March 2024; Accepted: 12 March 2024; Published: 16 April 2024

**ABSTRACT**

Access to finance by women within communities is key to ensuring improved economies and better livelihoods. Having money at hand means women can purchase/ access quality seeds, good farm equipment and efficient technologies. Indeed, money will help women improve their own life style and that of their families (FAO, 2019) The research objectives were to examine the extent of financial exclusion of women in tea farming from the farm all the way to accessing benefits from tea and how it’s affecting gender equity. A cross sectional study design was used and a sample size of 532 tea farmers’ respondents (comprising of 431 male tea farmers and 101 female tea farmers), 2 directors and 10 farm labourers were involved in this study. Purposive sampling was used to pick two director zones in Singorwet ward and stratified random sampling to pick five tea buying centres within Singorwet Zone and Mugango Zone. Questionnaire, interviews and observation schedule were used for data collection. From the findings, it is evident that women though the majority in the tea farming workforce; are the minority in tea farm monthly pay and bonuses. The study recommends a detailed and close to communities’ financial literacy that presents information on owning a tea farm, having a bank account, savings and getting credit from credible sources.

**Keywords:** Gendered tea farms, Financial exclusion, financial equity, financial prowess, Agricultural financing.

**INTRODUCTION**

Ensuring financial inclusion for all is an item of focus in the sustainable development goals. It is so because it will help in bringing down poverty rates. Financial inclusion involves ensuring that all adults have access to credits, savings, insurance and other payments in affordable and convenient way (DITC, TNCD, & UNCTAD, 2020). In fact goal number 5 of SDGs emphasize on gender equality and empowering of girls and women. Many institutions agree that financial inclusion of women will boost rural development. Even with this in mind, it has been found out that 1.1 billion women do not have formal bank accounts needed to spur their economic development (Kunt, Klapper, Singer, & Ousdheusden, 2015). Higher disparities are noted in the Middle East and North Africa, followed by the Sub Saharan Africa. These disparities reduce women’s chances of making agriculture an investment option. It also minimizes their participation in profitable agricultural markets, their utilization of best technologies and even accessing agricultural inputs (World Bank Group, 2018; FAO, IFAD, & WFP, 2020).The main objectives of the study is to examine the number of men and women who own tea farms, number of men and women who have bank accounts, number of men and women who receive tea monthly pay and bonuses and investigate the reasons for financial exclusion when it comes to earnings from tea The information gathered is meant to encourage all tea stakeholders to have more gender inclusive financial literacy programmes and develop regulations that

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**INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCH AND INNOVATION IN SOCIAL SCIENCE (IJRISS)**  
 ISSN No. 2454-6186 | DOI: 10.47772/IJRISS | Volume VIII Issue III March 2024

will not in any way drive women towards exclusion from benefits.

**Conceptual Framework**

```

    graph LR
      A["Financial exclusion areas  
• Ownership of land with title  
• Ownership of a bank account  
• Receiving of tea monthly pay and bonuses"] --> B["Gender equity in tea farming  
Singorwet Ward, Bomet Cou"]
      subgraph IV [Independent Variable]
        A
      end
      subgraph DV [Dependent Variable]
        B
      end
  
```

Agnes, C., Parsitau, D., & Opollo, D. (2024)