GENDER DISPARITIES AMONG THE ACADEMIC STAFF
IN TEACHING AND ADMINISTRATION IN KENYAN
PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES

BY:

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Gender disparities among the academic
DECLARATION

This is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my dear son Eric Muthomi for the loneliness he suffered while I was out for this study. His existence was an invaluable source of encouragement to me.

To my husband E.K. Kobiah for his deep concern, moral support and encouragement he provided during my pursuit for higher education.
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ABSTRACT

This purpose of this study was to investigate gender disparities among the academic staff in teaching and administration in Kenyan public universities and to consider whether rewards in the profession in terms of appointments and promotions to various academic ranks were distributed to both men and women teachers equitably, if they had similar qualifications. Where differences emerged, the study attempted to investigate their causes with a view to suggesting some steps that could be taken to improve the situation.

The study was conducted in two of the five Kenyan public universities namely, the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University. The data were collected from sampled members of academic staff and from various published and unpublished official documents from the two public universities by means of a documentary (content) analysis and interview schedules.

The study is mainly qualitative although quantitative statistics such as percentages have also been used to analyse and present the data.

The findings from the study revealed that women form a small proportion of University teachers in Kenyan public universities. They were concentrated in the Faculties of Arts and Social Sciences and Education. They were however very much under-represented in most science orientated disciplines.
Women academics obtained promotions much less frequently compared with their male colleagues. Women's representation was especially low in the ranks of professors (5.1 percent) at the University of Nairobi and none at Kenyatta University. Most women academics were clustered in the ranks of lecturers and tutorial fellows.

The top administrative posts in the public universities were dominated by men with only a few women appearing as departmental heads.

Although subtle means of discrimination cannot be ruled out, no overt gender discrimination was detected by the study. Instead, the study revealed that socio-cultural factors, the economic value of education and gender disparities at the lower levels of education seemed to contribute to a greater extent to the under-representation of women in teaching, in senior professional ranks and in administration. Other important factors contributing to female under-representation were lack of professional commitment on the part of female academics, the attraction to Non-governmental Organisation (NGO) and political considerations in appointments.

The findings also showed that the promotion and appointment criteria is well documented but was not properly followed and was frequently changed. No criteria however existed for appointments of Vice-chancellors and their deputies. Loyalty to the government, closeness to the chancellor and sometimes the need to reward were some of the important factors considered.
Other set of factors besides the promotion and appointment criteria existed in Kenyan public universities and very much influenced the promotions or appointments of academic staff. These factors included ethnicity, nepotism, political affiliation and personal relationships. These factors however are not gender sensitive.

Several measures were advanced by the respondents to help improve the female representation. These included long-term, medium-term and short-term measures.
LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Respondents Who participated from the University of Nairobi</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Number of Respondents Who Participated from Kenyatta University</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>The Distribution of Academic Staff at Kenyatta University by Gender - 1995</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>The Distribution of Academic staff at the University of Nairobi by gender - 1995</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>Professional Ranks by Gender and Institution - 1995</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Instances of Promotion of Academic Staff at the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>Number of Years served by the Male and Female Academic Staff of the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University before promotion</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Declaration</td>
<td>(ii)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedication</td>
<td>(iii)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>(iv)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract</td>
<td>(vi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Tables</td>
<td>(ix)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### CHAPTER ONE

**BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM**

1. Statement of the Problem
2. The purpose of the Study
3. The Specific Objectives of the Study
4. The Significance of the Study
5. The Scope and the delimitations of the Study
6. Definition of Terms
7. Theoretical Framework Guiding the Study
   - Patriarchal Ideology
8. Organisation of the Study
9. 11
CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
Introduction
Gender Disparities in University Teaching
Gender Imbalances in University Administration
Summary of Reviewed Literature

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY
Introduction
Research Design
Sampling
Selection of Research Sites
The Respondents
Development of Research Instruments
Interview Schedule
Documentary (Content) Analysis
Procedures of Data Collection
Strategies of Data Analysis
Documentary Analysis
Qualitative Analysis
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

The Distribution of Academic staff in Teaching and Administration

Academic Staff with Administrative Responsibilities

Causes of Women Under-representation in University Teaching and Administration

Socio-cultural Constraints

Economic Value of Education

Societal Attitudes Towards Higher Education for Women in Kenya

Historical Factors

Gender Disparities at Lower Levels of Education

Lack of Professional Commitment by Women Academics

The Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) Factor

Political Appointments

Distribution of Academic Staff by Gender and Rank
Factors that Influence Promotions and Appointments of

Academic Staff

Problems Related to the University Establishment

Uncertain Promotion Criteria

‘Campus Politics’ and Personal Relationships

Critical Shortage of Staff

Suggested Measures to Improve the Representation of

Women in Teaching and Administration

Long-term measures

Medium-term and Short-term measures

Overview

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Conclusions

Recommendations of the Study

Suggestions for Further Research

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Appendix I: Teaching Staff Distribution Across Gender

for Makerere University and

the University of Swaziland
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appendix</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ii</td>
<td>Kenyatta University Faculty Members</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii</td>
<td>Report on Criteria for Appointments and Promotion of Academic Staff in Kenyatta University</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv</td>
<td>An Interview Schedule for the Academic Staff of the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

During the last two decades, African higher education has witnessed an increase in student enrolments. To ensure adequate staffing, more teachers have been recruited. Similarly, there has been an increase in the number of administrative and managerial personnel at the same level.

The number of women in higher education has generally increased as women's participation in activities outside the home has widened in scope, especially in the world of organised and paid labour. Today, women are climbing higher and higher up the academic ladder although it is still very difficult for them to gain a foothold in those professions which bestow recognition and influence, especially when they are highly rewarding.

The problem of gender inequality is not peculiar to Kenya alone but is a world-wide problem. In both the United States and Britain, women form a small minority of university teachers (Blackstone and Fulton, 1975). Far fewer women hold university posts than men. Acker (1984) observes that in 1982, women in Britain constituted only a small minority of full-time university staff and were very scarce at higher levels.

There were no women Chancellors. In 1980 - 81, there were 119 women professors, (27 percent of the total professorate). Women are better represented in the less secure posts in universities...(Acker, 1984:21).

Similarly, only 5 percent of full professors and 10 percent of associate professors were women in the United States in 1969, whereas among the lowly and impermanent grades of instructor and lecturer, the proportions rose to 28 percent and 25 percent respectively (Blackstone and Fulton, 1975). Although Blackstone and Fulton's evidence is now somewhat out-dated, more recent studies suggest that the trends observed by these authors are still
continuing (Deem, 1978). Women teachers have fewer chances of promotion than their male counterparts and are particularly non-existent in top academic administrative positions (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1974; Deem, 1978).

The countries of the former Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia provide a better record when compared to the United States and Britain. Yet, despite these improvements, men continue to dominate the upper academic ranks while only a small proportion of women occupy top-level administrative positions (Atkinson, 1978 and Hertilinger 1979).

As is the case throughout the Western Europe and the former Eastern Europe, gender imbalances are well pronounced within the academic staff of African universities. On the average, based on 25 universities for which information is available, women make up roughly 12 percent of teaching staff in African universities. Their participation ranges from:

Four to seven percent at the universities of Burkina Faso, Chad, Ethiopia, Guinea, Rwanda, Tanzania and a high rate of around 26 percent in Madagascar and Mozambique. At the highest level of Management, women serve as chief executives in 4 of Africa's 97 universities (University of Benin and Lagos, State of Nigeria, University of Swaziland and University of Burea, Cameroon (Saint, 1992:29).
The situation in Kenya is similar to that of many other countries. Even though there are no discriminatory laws in Kenyan public universities, general observation shows that there are gender inequalities among the academic staff in teaching and in administration. The result of this inequality is that fewer women obtain top level academic posts in Kenyan public universities. Pala (1978) notes that the proportion of women in the teaching profession declines at higher levels. At the university level, the proportion of women teachers is very low indeed. In addition to this, there is a large disparity in the number of men and women in the public universities who are full Professors, Faculty Deans and Directors of Institutes.

Going by the above discussion, one can argue that although the presence of women in higher education has generally increased in the last decade (UNESCO 1987), their participation remains within marked boundaries as they are less likely to be promoted to higher academic ranks or be appointed to take up administrative responsibilities. Such a situation implies that the talents and intelligence of many women are grossly under-used because they are not given equal chances with their male colleagues (Op. cit). Consequently, research was necessary to investigate some of the factors that may have contributed to gender imbalances among the academic staff in teaching and administration, and reduced promotion prospects for women, with a view to suggesting some steps that could be taken to ameliorate the situation.

Statement of the Problem

Although the Kenyan government has expressed concern about the opportunities for women in formal education at all levels, general observation shows that their representation among the academic staff with senior grades and those with administrative responsibilities has not changed much. The few women who are successful in obtaining academic posts in the public
universities further face discrimination in the form of fewer chances of promotion to various academic ranks, and appointments to administrative responsibilities than their male colleagues. The majority of them have thus tended to remain in the lower and less prestigious ranks/grades among their well ranked male colleagues (UNESCO 1987). Due to this, women teachers do not have a very significant role in decision making processes in Kenyan public universities. Such a situation implies that women's chances of influencing important decisions (whether these refer to matters of curriculum, admission policies, promotions or appointments) are only good if they are prepared to acquiesce to the decisions of their male colleagues. This is a problematic situation because it implies that women's problems or interests and needs may not be considered during the decision making processes. Women have thus tended to be invisible, which through ages has caused their subordination and their presence in Kenyan public universities to be ignored or dismissed. In view of this, a study was necessary to address gender disparities among the academic staff in teaching and administration in Kenyan public universities. This study also sought to find out whether rewards in the profession in terms of appointments and promotions to various academic grades are distributed to both men and women teachers equally if they have similar qualifications.

The Purposes of the Study.

The purpose of this study was to investigate gender disparities among the academic staff in teaching and administration in Kenyan public universities, and to consider whether rewards in the profession in terms of appointments and promotions to various academic ranks/grades were distributed to both men and women teachers equitably if they had similar qualifications. Where differences emerged, this study attempted to investigate their causes with a view to suggesting some steps that could be taken to improve the situation.
The specific objectives of the study.

The specific objectives that were formulated for this study were to:

(i) establish the distribution of the university academic staff in teaching and administration by gender;

(ii) find out how promotions to higher academic ranks and appointments to administrative responsibilities were distributed across gender;

(iii) determine the factors that influence promotions and administrative appointments of academic staff by gender; and

(iv) suggest some steps that could be taken to improve gender representation among the academic staff in teaching and administration in Kenyan public universities.

The Significance of the study

At the end of this study, the researcher hoped that it would be significant in that analysis of the distribution of the University academic staff across gender could shed some light on their representation in teaching and administration; and where discrepancies were found, reasons that accounted for such discrepancies could guide the Kenyan government and the university policy makers to take appropriate action to remedy the situation.

This study could also inspire women academics to reflect upon, and possibly act on some of the problems that hinder them from being promoted.

Since few studies have been conducted examining gender differences in terms of promotions and appointments of academic staff across gender, the current study is likely to add to the pool of academic knowledge in that area. The study could also act as a springboard for future
studies in the area of university education, particularly in relation to disparities in teaching and administration across gender, not only in Kenya but also in other developing countries.

The Scope and the delimitations of the Study.

The focus of this study was on two of the five Kenyan public universities namely, the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University. The researcher selected these two universities purposively because in addition to being the largest public universities in Kenya, the two offer a variety of disciplines in both the sciences and the humanities. In view of this, a large number of both men and women academics were likely to be found in these two universities.

The university of Nairobi and Kenyatta University were also found suitable because this study employed the qualitative approach in data collection, which involved participation, by the selected respondents in actual discussions/interviews. Since the two universities are situated close to each other, the researcher found them to be appropriate for this type of study.

On the other hand, Moi University, Egerton University and Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology offer more of science and technical oriented subjects in addition to having fewer academic staff members. Since general observation has shown that few women train in these disciplines, the above named universities have even fewer women academics, which might exaggerate the disparities. These universities were therefore left out.

This study did not focus on Kenyan private universities. This is because, unlike Kenyan public universities, most of the private universities in Kenya follow rather narrow, and in most cases religious curricula. Most of them are also based on particular denominations and may show
bias against other denominational groups. Private universities do not therefore provide a diversified curriculum where academic staff from various backgrounds have an equal chance of participating. However, they could form a subject of another study, as recommended in chapter five of this report.

The study also limited itself to a small sample of respondents. In certain respects, e.g., promotions, this may restrict the generalisation of findings to only those institutions participating in the study and may therefore not be applicable to all the public universities.

In addition, the study did not cover the professionally trained administrators working in the public universities such as accountants, clerks, and librarians. This is because they are not involved in teaching and their promotion is based on different criteria.
Definition of significant terms

1. Public Universities

They are also referred to as national universities. They are government established universities and are open to all citizens who meet certain minimum entry requirements.

They depend on government coffers for most of their funding.

2. Academic Staff

Include professors, Associate Professors, Senior Lecturers, Lecturers, Tutorial Fellows and their equivalent.

3. Academic Rank/Grade

Professional position in the University such as Professors, Associate Professors, Senior Lecturers etc which reflect differences in professional attainment.

4. Administration

Management roles such as Heads of Departments, Directors of Institutes or Programmes, Deans of Faculties and Principals of constituent colleges. Administrative Personnel therefore refer to academic staff who also have administrative duties.


It is used in this study to refer to the reference book already quoted in a particular paragraph.
Theoritical framework guiding the study

Partriarchal Ideology

The theoritical framework which guided this study was based on partriachal Ideology and the implied gender-based division of labour as causes of women's absence at top levels of educational teaching and management. The concern of womens status vis a vis that of men is built on the realisation that women remain subordinate to men. This is attributed to patriarchal structures dominant in the majority of cultures globally.

Partriarchy concentrates power in the hands of men by allowing them to own and control property, make major decisions for the family and society. It allows them more social priveledges such as education leadership, and gives them more chances for leisure. From this power base, men systematically keep women out of prominence in most of the influential sectors of the society.

Partriarchy has its roots in often long established traditions of male dominance which made the male perceptive, the social perspective. In some communities, women are not even allowed to speak in public. They are supposed to have men pre-ferably their fathers, brothers or husbands speak for them. In the majority of cultures, the socialisation process instills a lot of male ideology in growing up children. Boys are made to learn and internalise that they will be leaders when they grow up. Conversely, girls are brought up to be submissive and passive, especially in the presence of men. They are socialised to believe that it is more ladylike to be soft spoken, not assertive and polite. Women are discouraged from acquiring qualities and attributes that would prepare them to become administrators. If a woman is achievement oriented, assertive, ambitious and aggressive, she is considered unfeminine. However, if a man has all these
qualities, he is considered to be a real man.

Several myths and stereotypes which affect peoples perceptions and reactions to women and men support the patriarchal ideology. In this context, men are assumed to be intellectually superior to women and therefore fit to hold top administrative positions. Women’s attempt to the top are often frustrated and met with a lot of resistance. According to Clark (1990), women’s basic problem is that the society has not changed its thinking and expectations of women despite the fact that times have changed.

Patriarchy is therefore an important dimension of the restructuring of modern societies. It is a living reality, a system that quite observably shapes the lives and differentiates the chances of women and of men.

This theory provided the framework for the researcher to analyse her data as it contained the concepts that harmonised the findings of the study.
Organisation of the Study

The study consists of five chapters. Chapter one covers the introductory part of the study, giving a statement of the problem of the study and defining the study in terms of purpose and objectives. The significance and scope of the study are also given. Chapter two provides a review of the literature related to the research problem, thus indicating the academic context of the study. Chapter three presents the methodology used in this study. The study design and research sites, the sample selection, research instruments, data collection and analysis procedures are included. Chapter four presents the study results and their interpretations. Finally, chapter five takes an overview of the whole study and arrives at certain conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

A review of educational research in Kenya shows that hardly any research has been carried out on gender disparities in teaching and administration among the academic staff in Kenyan public universities. A lot of work on education has tended to cover issues across the three-main levels of formal education, namely, primary, secondary and tertiary education (Riria, 1986). No serious attention has been given to university education in general, and particularly on gender disparities in teaching and administration among the academic staff in Kenyan public universities which, seems to be a forgotten area.

Much of the literature reviewed in this chapter therefore, is mainly from foreign countries. The review was found necessary because it not only helped the researcher to establish the objectives of this study but also served as a link between the present study and those previously done in the same or related areas. The literature is reviewed under two major headings:

1. gender disparities in university teaching and

2. gender disparities in university administration. A summary of the literature reviewed is given at the end of the chapter.

Gender disparities in university teaching

Imbalances in gender representation in the field of teaching is a problem for both developed and developing countries. According to a study released in 1973 by the American Council on Education, women made up only 20 percent of the faculty members in the American
Colleges and University Campuses during the 1972/73 academic year. The Council further noted that even among those women who gained employment in higher education, the comparison with their male colleagues at this level were revealing. Of all college and university instructors, 32 percent were women but only 8 percent of all full professors were women (Abramson, 1975).

Deem (1978) notes that in 1978, only 10 percent of ordinary lecturers were women in British universities, less than 6 percent readers and senior lecturers and under 2 percent professors. She further argues that even those women who managed to get positions in the universities, further faced discrimination and had fewer chances of promotion than their male colleagues. Deem (Op. cit:92) quotes a female lecturer at a university in South-West England saying this of her institution:

I find there are no women professors at all... At a rough estimate, there are eight women readers or senior lecturers out of 195 and 48 women lecturers out of 502.

On the same subject, Allen (1990) observed that of 1181 professors in Australian universities, only 3.7 percent were women in 1987. Of 3141 female academics, 1059 (33.7 percent) were tutors. More than half of the women (53.7 percent) were in the sub-lecturing ranks. The most common academic rank held by men was senior lecturer (30.3 percent) and nearly a quarter of the males (23.3 percent) were either professors or readers. Therefore, while more than half of the male academics were above the rank of lecturer, less than half of the women were above this rank.

The scarcity of senior women in the academic field has been attributed to career interruptions while their children are small and high drop-out rates of women from academic life after undergraduate study, which reduces the pool of women from which potential academics are
likely to emerge (Deem, 1978; Allen, 1990; Lamptey, 1992).

UNESCO (1987) observes that among the Latin American and the Caribbean countries, women represented on average 34 percent of the teaching staff in 17 countries in 1983. The figure rose to 25 percent and higher in 11 countries, with relatively high percentages in some of them, such as Brazil and the American Virgin Islands (43 percent), Cuba (40 percent) and Nicaragua (34 percent) Argentina and Panama (32 percent) and Uruguay (30 percent). These high percentages at the university level could, however, be found only in exceptional cases in other regions of the world.

In the 19 countries for which information concerning the whole of higher education in Africa was available, women were very much under-represented when compared to men. Indeed, they did not even constitute, on average, one-sixth of the total number of teachers, except in Mozambique (21 percent) and in Swaziland (40 percent) (UNESCO, 1987). In 1973, there were 189 male university lecturers in Ghana as compared to 40 females (7.4 percent) (Date-Bah, 1986).

Muli (1995) quotes a 1989 survey by Kunene and Mascarenhas in which women comprised 17 percent of the total of both teaching and administrative staff at Makerere University, 26 percent of teaching staff at the University of Zimbambwe (31st December, 1988) and 32 percent of both teaching and administrative staff at the University of Swaziland. This situation has not changed significantly in the last few years. Muli (1995:3) observed that:

Women are seriously under-represented in Universities in Africa, both as students and staff members particularly at a more senior level...Statistics suggest that on average, women constitute between 15 percent and 30 percent of the academic staff at most universities in Africa... [and are] virtually absent from the most senior positions.
In addition to this, gender disparity patterns in faculty positions is manifested in two ways: firstly, the concentration in some particular disciplines which are related to Arts or Education and secondly, a pyramidal pattern where there are more females at the bottom ranks, less in the middle ranks and a negligible few at the top. Table 2.1a in appendix i provides a good example of these two patterns.

The situation in Kenya is very similar to that of many other countries. Even though there are no discriminatory laws at the universities, there are still large disparities in the numbers of men and women who are senior lecturers, associate professors and professors. The gains of women in Kenyan public universities are extremely low in relation to those of men, particularly at the full professor level. As already noted, the general observation in university teaching is that the proportion of women declines at higher levels. At these levels, the proportion of women teachers is very low indeed (Pala, 1978). Table 2.1b in appendix ii supports Pala's observations.

On the other hand, Njenga (1986) notes that unlike men, very few women are promoted. When the experiences of Kenyan agriculturists and veterinarians were examined, only 29.4 percent of the women reported being promoted compared with 51.9 percent of the men. This observation supports Date-Bah's study of 1979 in Ghana, Accra-Tema. In the latter study, it was found that 59 percent of all male employees interviewed had been promoted compared with only 35 percent of the women (Date-Bah's, 1986).

Imbalances in promotion to higher academic ranks is further illustrated by the recent promotions carried out by the Kenyatta University administration. Out of the five associate professors promoted to full professorship, none of them was a woman, while only two of the
twenty senior lecturers promoted to the rank of associate professor were women (Kenyatta University Newsletter, 1994). Going by the above discussion, one can conclude that although the presence of women in higher education has generally increased in the last decade, their participation remains within marked boundaries as they are less likely to be promoted to higher academic ranks. It was the intent of this study therefore to investigate some of the factors that may have contributed to gender imbalances in teaching as well as reduced the promotion prospects for women with a view to suggesting some steps that could be taken to improve gender representation in teaching.

Namuddu (1992:29) found that there was little data on the levels and quality of employment undertaken by females who had access to higher education. She further observes that women form a small number of academicians at university, although recognisable achievements have been recorded in arts faculties. Graduate women lack options in employment, promotions and upward mobility because of discrimination and their roles as housewives. Such a situation calls for change both in the cultural attitudes towards women and sex-stereotyping of jobs to improve academic women representation in the public universities.
Gender Imbalances in University Administration

Women in administrative and managerial posts are very rare in all regions of the world, in developing countries as well as developed countries. According to Anker and Hein (1986), 28.3 percent of the administrators and managers in the United States were women in 1982 and 11.3 percent in Europe around 1970. The two scholars further argue that women's share of administrative jobs is extremely low, being

Less than 5 percent in most countries of Middle East and North Africa (exception being Egypt and Cyprus) as well as in some countries of Asia - India, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Republic of Korea and Afghanistan (Ibid: 84).

In a few African countries for which there is data, women constitute only 6 (six) percent of the administrative and management workers (Op.Cit). This low representation of women among administrators means that women do not have a very significant role in decision making processes.

Papola's study (1986) indicates that women in India also have less access to top positions in higher education. In addition, women who apply for jobs have less chances of being selected to administrative positions than male applicants. Similarly, Hertilinger (1979) observes that the proportion of women in high-ranking jobs in the former Soviet Union is significantly low and declines sharply the nearer one gets to the top. He further notes that in the teaching profession, women make up 70 percent of the entire teaching force, with a big majority in every category of the classroom teacher. However, when it comes to promotion to school headships, they do much less well than their number might lead one to expect. What this means is that many children grow up in a school where they are taught mainly by women under the direction of men. This situation may well reinforce traditional attitudes towards sex-roles. Being used to seeing man in largely
feminised profession, children (especially girls) experience a graphic demonstration of the idea of the man as the final figure of authority. This is likely to reduce their aspirations for administrative positions.

Date-Bah's study (1986: 190), found that three quarters of male employees interviewed preferred a male supervisor. Very few male and fewer than one-third of the female employees preferred a female supervisor. Even where women have been appointed bosses, they are resisted not only by men alone but more strongly by women.

Generally, women in management (administration) are often accused of being soft, yielding and dependent on intuition (in the female sense) whereas academic values entail logical and balanced thinking and action (Lamptey, 1992). It is said that women shy away from hard decision making and tend often to overreact emotionally. Their leadership capabilities are sometimes questioned, as they are seen not to be capable of withstanding much pressure. It is often anticipated that women cannot be firm enough when dealing with some sections of the university community, in particular, with students (Lamptey, 1992). In many parts of Africa, such stereotypes remain strong enough to constitute barriers to female participation in university administration.

According to Pala (1978), men tend to hold most of the leading positions in the educational sector in Kenya. She argues that it is only recently that women have had the privilege of holding managerial positions, something that was unheard of in Kenya before independence. She further notes that most employers are reluctant to place women in highly responsible positions, arguing that women are unreliable because of husband transfer and maternity leave, which put tremendous psychological pressures on the females. This makes women, who prefer
not to have to choose between their families and their professions, opt for service jobs and avoid higher level professional choices. This can perhaps explain why women tend to be concentrated in lower positions in our public universities.

However, Butterfield (1977) in her survey of the Kenyan financial sector, found that women did not even apply in sufficient numbers for clerical supervisory and management jobs. Both men and women in Kenya have been socialised to perceive men in positions of leadership as normal. This could be one of the main reasons that tend to keep academic women out of administrative positions in Kenyan Public Universities. This is especially so when Africans argue that:

Women cannot supervise men; hence women are passed over in internal training programmes which prepare employees for advancement (UNICEF 1984:84).

Gacheru (1995) observes that there is no documented evidence of discrimination against women in Kenyan public universities. However, she quoted a female lecturer saying this of her institution:

The discrimination is extremely subtle. You may feel that you are qualified for promotion but for unexplained reasons, the system simply doesn't seem to move (Gacheru, 1995 Life style 4).

It was the aim of this study therefore to attempt to investigate some of the reasons that hinder women teachers from rising up to administrative positions in Kenyan public universities.
Summary of the Reviewed Literature

In conclusion, the literature reviewed above indicates that there are huge disparities among the academic staff in teaching and administration both in the developed and developing countries. It also indicates that women academics are not only few in higher education but they also face discrimination in the form of fewer chances of promotion and appointments to administrative responsibilities.

However, much of this literature covers the countries of Britain and America, while very little of it covers India, Africa in general and the countries of the former Soviet Union. Eshiwani (1984) observes that even by 1984, hardly any research in Kenya had dealt directly with the inequalities among the academic staff in Kenyan public universities. His studies focused on women's access to higher education and their opportunities in science and mathematics (Eshiwani 1983, 1985). In these studies, Eshiwani limited himself to undergraduate students and found that women were poorly represented not only in the public universities but also in science and mathematics. However, while Eshiwani's studies were based on university students, there seemed to be little research if any that had been conducted dealing with the academic staff in Kenyan public universities, especially in the area of disparities in teaching and administration. There also seemed to be no research conducted dealing with the distribution of academic rewards in terms of promotions and appointments across gender. Hence the need for this study.

Lamptey (1992) carried out a study that resembles the present one. Her study is entitled "Promoting Women's participation in teaching, Research and Management in African Universities". She found out that women are not only under-represented in teaching but they are almost non-existent in top administrative positions in African universities. Lamptey restricted
herself to women academics and looked at African universities in general. However, no known study of a similar nature has been conducted in Kenya to show evidence of disparities among the academic staff in teaching and administration in the public universities or to try to unearth the causes of these disparities.

Moreover, a review of women's conditions of work and access to senior position within the academic employment in the university sector of Kenya shows that women are less likely to reach senior academic ranks than men. This situation has either been ignored or explained away as due to causes beyond the universities' control. What is lacking is some concerted attempt to determine the conditions preventing women's success and then try to change them. It was out of these short-comings that the researcher found it necessary to conduct this study.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In this chapter, procedures and strategies used in this study are described. This chapter particularly focuses on the research design, the sample and the sampling procedures, the development of the research instruments and their administration. Finally, an outline of the methods used in the analysis and presentation of data is presented.

Research Design

This study was designed to investigate gender disparities among the academic staff in teaching and administration in Kenyan public universities. It also considered whether rewards in the profession, in terms of appointments and promotions to various academic ranks were distributed to both men and women teachers equitably if they had similar qualifications. The design was therefore mainly descriptive, employing oral interviews and documentary (content) analysis. The participants were drawn from two public universities: the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University. These two universities were purposively selected for the study.

Sampling

Sampling included determining the area to be covered by the study and selecting the respondents.

Selection of Research Sites

It was first of all necessary to narrow down the research locale into manageable research sites. Thus, out of the five public universities, the researcher selected only two of them, namely,
the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University. The main reason for selecting the two is that in addition to being the largest public universities in Kenya, the two universities offer a variety of disciplines in both the sciences and the humanities. As such, a large population of both men and women academics were likely to be found in these two universities. In addition to this, the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University are situated close to each other which was quite convenient for the researcher conducting this type of study.

The Respondents

The target population for this study was the academic staff from the Kenyan public universities. Initially, the researcher intended to sample 76 members of academic staff from the two selected universities. Of these, 38 members (19 male and 19 females) were to come from the University of Nairobi. A similar number was to be sampled from Kenyatta University. The members of academic staff were to be categorised into various academic ranks: professors, associate professors, senior lecturers, lecturers, tutorial fellows (and its equivalent rank).

As the review of the academic staff lists for the two selected universities (which had been done separately) revealed the numerical rarity of women in various academic ranks, the researcher employed stratified random sampling procedures to ensure fair representation of the study population. Sub-groups (strata) were formed for both male and female teachers of various academic ranks in each of the selected university. From the sub-groups with higher numbers of academic staff, the researcher employed random sampling procedures to get the required number. However, for the strata with fewer members, the researcher selected them purposively.
Since general observation from the academic staff lists of the two selected universities showed that the ranks of professor and associate professor had fewer members of academic staff, especially women, the researcher selected two male and two female academics from each of these ranks in the two selected universities. Such a small number was arrived at in an attempt to ensure that Kenyatta University (which by then had no female full professors and only three female associate professors) is at least fairly represented. The researcher further randomly selected five female and five male academics from the sub-groups of senior lecturers, lecturers and tutorial fellows from each of the two selected universities. The total expected sample for professors and associate professors was 16. Other categories of academic staff had an expected sample size of 60 members. This gave an intended total sample of 76 academics. This number was chosen on the consideration that the researcher intended to carry out in-depth interviews, which are time consuming, in addition to financial constraints. A larger sample would have thus inhibited the thoroughness of the interviews. This study also called for fair representation and thus involved equal samples of both men and women academics from the two public universities.

In the field, the researcher did not, however, get the expected sample due to unavoidable circumstances. Of the 38 members approached from the University of Nairobi, only 29 gave their consent (15 males and 14 females) while at Kenyatta University, out of the 36 members approached, 31 gave their consent (18 males and 13 females).
Table 3.1 and 3.2 carry a breakdown of the respondents who participated in the study from each of the two universities.

**Table 3.1: Respondents from the University of Nairobi**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RANK</th>
<th>NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutorial Fellow</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grand Total 29 respondents.

**Table 3.2: Number of respondents from Kenyatta University.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RANK</th>
<th>NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associated professor</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutorial Fellow</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>18</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grand total 31 respondents.
A total number of 60 respondents therefore participated in the interviews. This enabled the researcher to collect more detailed information as opposed to having a larger number where only questionnaires would have been used. Questionnaire surveys do not elicit as detailed information as that obtained from interviews (Kerlinger, 1977).

Respondents who failed to take part in the interviews gave several excuses some of which are explained below:

- Some of the respondents claimed that they were too busy to spare time for the study while others kept on postponing the dates for the interviews.
- Others claimed that their main interest was teaching; that they were not interested in university promotions or having any administrative duties, and so they would not give the right information. These therefore declined to participate.
- In addition, Kenyatta University did not have any full women professors. Since the researcher expected to interview two female professors from this university, her sample for the rank of professors was less by two respondents.

In addition, available documents relevant to this study were purposively selected for examination. They included:

- The universities’ statistical record data for 1995
- The university calendars
- Promotion and appointment criteria documents for the two public universities.
Development of Research Instruments

The aim of this study was to investigate gender disparities among the academic staff in teaching and administration in Kenyan public universities. Initially, library reading of the literature related to the study was carried out to assist in the development of the research instruments. From the reading, the researcher found that both documentary analysis and an interview schedule were important data gathering devices for this study.

Interview Schedule

The interview schedule, which was specially prepared for use with the academic staff of the selected universities, was the major data gathering tool for this study. It was divided into two sections: section A consisted of guidelines that helped the researcher to request for information on promotions of academic staff, and on some of the factors that might have contributed to disparities in teaching and in senior professional ranks. On the other hand, section B requested for information on appointments of academic staff to administrative responsibilities and measures that could be taken to improve gender representation.

The researcher found an interview schedule to be an important data gathering device for this study because the interview situation permits much greater depth than other methods of data collection (Borg and Gall, 1979). It also attempts to provide a true picture of opinions and feelings. The researcher used open-ended questions to elicit verbal responses from the respondents. These types of questions were useful to this study because they allow the respondents to express themselves more freely (Kerlinger, 1977). They also avail the researcher with an opportunity to probe, and give explanations and clarifications where necessary, bearing in mind the sensitive nature of information which the researcher required, particularly information about promotions and appointments to
administrative duties. The use of open-ended questions therefore helped the researcher to establish clearly the present situation in Kenyan public universities with regard to gender disparities.

After developing the interview schedule, the researcher passed it over to her supervisors who acted as experts in finding out whether the questions asked were logical and whether, they would provide the needed information. A few other members of academic staff were interviewed in order to give more weight to the validity of the research instrument. Through the supervisors' careful scrutiny, discussions and suggestions, alterations were made where necessary and a final copy of the interview schedule was typed. The supervisors and the few members of teaching staff who participated in the pilot study were not included in the sample.

-Documentary(Content)Analysis

The researcher examined data from published and unpublished official documents that already existed in the two public universities or elsewhere. For the purpose of this study, the following documents were important:

- Senate documents outlining the promotions and appointments' criteria.
- University statistical records showing the number of academic staff by gender and professional rank/grade in each of the selected universities.
- The most recent university calendars, especially the 1995 calendars.

An examination of these documents was important to this study because it helped the researcher to make a survey of the situation in the selected universities as was reported in written or printed materials. The documentary analysis was thus meant to provide information related to:

- The number of academic staff both males and females in each of the selected universities;
• the numbers of academic staff with top administrative posts by gender;
• the proportions of those promoted to various academic ranks/grades and
• appointments and promotions procedures.

Procedures of Data Collection

At the beginning of this study, a research permit was obtained from the office of the President to enable the researcher carry out her study. She also obtained permission from the Vice-chancellors of the universities to conduct research in their respective universities. When permission was granted, the researcher visited the selected universities and requested for the documents relevant to this study for examination. However, the researcher was not allowed access to all the documents herself. At the University of Nairobi, the researcher was given a guide who helped her to extract data on the academic staff from the computer list. The university statistician was also directed to help the researcher extract data on the academic staff with administrative positions across gender, from several documents and files.

At Kenyatta University, the researcher went through the academic staff records with the help of the university statistician to collect the needed information. The information so collected was compared and supplemented with the information from the Kenyatta University calendar 1995/1996, which had just been published. The calendar gave recent promotions which had not been entered into the university records file.

While examining the documents, the researcher also visited the selected members of academic staff and explained the purpose of the visit. Often, this was either followed by consent, upon which the members of teaching staff gave an appointment to the researcher, or by refusal by some members.
who claimed that they were not the best respondents for my study topic or that they were too busy to spare any of their time for my study. For the members of academic staff who gave the researcher appointments, she had to revisit them on the agreed dates for the purpose of the interview. The use of the open-ended questions that require in-depth probing, the high degree of rapport that must be established during this kind of an interview ruled out the use of research assistants. The researcher was therefore the only interviewer.

The interview schedule helped the researcher get information related to:

- Some factors that have contributed to gender disparities in teaching and administration, and reduced promotion and appointment prospects for women.
- The most important criteria considered during the promotions and appointments and whether there are other factors besides the promotion criteria that may influence one’s promotion.
- Feelings and opinions of academic staff of various ranks on the issue of appointments to administrative positions;
- Measures that should be taken to improve gender representation in the public universities.

All interviews with the respondents were taped. This helped the researcher spend less time writing while at the same time trying to listen. Minimal notes were taken during interviews while detailed notes were made at the end of each interview day. This helped the researcher write detailed notes, while the information was still fresh in her mind.
Strategies of Data Analysis

Research data fell into two broad categories, each of which called for a different analysis strategy. The two data categories are the academic staff records data (documentary data analysis) and the qualitative data derived from the interview schedules.

Documentary Data Analysis

This involved examination and organisation of the information collected from the selected documents of the two public universities. Descriptive statistics such as frequency counts of academic staff were done using the statistical records of the two selected universities. This helped the researcher to identify which gender was represented most in teaching and administration. The percentages of members of academic staff in various ranks/grades were also calculated. The data was organised and presented in the form of tables and a summary of the findings was indicated after each table. Tabular layouts were important especially for the first two objectives of this study. Harper (1988) observed that the use of a tabular layout would enable any desired figures to be located more quickly and would make comparisons between different categories to be made more easily. The layout makes it possible to reveal patterns within figures which cannot be seen in the narrative form.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Much of the information that was elicited through the interviews was transcribed into written texts by merging the notes taken and the recordings made during the interviews into a single coherent description of the discussions. These data were then organised, examined for completeness and relevancy, and then analysed qualitatively. Qualitative procedures are important to this study because as Bogdan (1992) notes, qualitative research is descriptive. The data collected are in the form of words or pictures rather than numbers. The written results of the research contain quotations from
the data to illustrate and substantiate the presentation. Qualitative analysis therefore provides a means of accessing unquantifiable facts about the actual people interviewed. An attempt was made to analyse the data with all of their richness as closely as possible to the form in which were recorded or transcribed. Such data were presented in narrative form.

However, in some instances, the researcher found it necessary to blend both qualitative and quantitative analysis together. Berg (1989) notes that the most obvious way to analyse interview data is content analysis. He further suggests that some blend of both quantitative and qualitative analyses should be used. The approach suggested by Berg was useful to this study because it helped the researcher create tally sheets in order to determine specific frequencies of relevant categories where it was found necessary. On the other hand, the qualitative procedures helped the researcher to examine various ideological mindsets and themes that were covered by the study.

Problems Experienced in the Field

There were some constraints and challenges that the researcher had to face. Some of the respondents did not avail themselves when they were requested to do so. This forced the researcher to revisit their institutions again and again, which led to more expenses which had not been anticipated. For those who turned up for the appointments, most of them did not keep the time. The researcher had to contend with long hours of waiting (sometimes standing) and other times disruptions during the interview sessions by the visiting members of staff. This sometimes forced the researcher to wait for even more than 30 minutes putting up with discussions she was not part of. The long hours of waiting usually disrupted other schedules for the day and it became increasingly difficult to make more than two appointments per day. In the long run, the study took longer than anticipated.
Though the researcher had the list of names for her sample, she did not know all of them personally (especially those from the University of Nairobi). It was therefore difficult to identify them for appointments if they were out of their offices. In addition, most of the female academics were rarely in their offices. It took a long time to trace them. Accordingly, the researcher was left chasing female respondents long after she had completed interviewing her male respondents. Eventually, she had be content with fewer female respondents.

Some of the respondents were just arrogant and refused to participate in the interview. This turned out to be somewhat of a surprise, considering that University academic staff are themselves (or most of them should be, anyway) scholars, who ought to be appreciative and more supportive of research efforts. The following are some of the reactions received from such respondents:

I am not the right person for your study. There are many other people you could interview in this university. Why did you pick on me anyway? What yardstick did you use to get me into your sample? How do you know I am the right person for the kind of information you are asking for?

Several male respondents also seemed to understand the term ‘gender’ as meaning women and usually told the researcher to go and interview women. When some of this group eventually agreed to participate (usually after a long debate), they only did so half-heartedly, hence not all items where responded to fully.

Some other respondents claimed they were too busy to spare time for the study while others kept on giving new dates for appointments which they never honoured. The researcher had to give up on them.
Initially, the researcher did not know the exact way to behave in the presence of some of the academics who were thoroughly polished in speech, dress and personal bearing.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

In this chapter, data gathered in the field are presented and discussed. The data analysed were gathered by employing documentary analysis and an interview schedule. The presentation is done thematically according to the objectives of this study, which were to:

(i) establish the distribution of the University academic staff in teaching and administration by gender;

(ii) find out how promotions to higher academic ranks and appointments to administrative responsibilities were distributed across gender;

(iii) determine the factors that influenced promotions and administrative appointments of academic staff; and

(iv) suggest some steps that could be taken to improve gender representation among the academic staff in teaching and administration in Kenyan public universities.

Data gathered from the documents are mainly presented quantitatively in the form of tables of absolute numbers and percentages. The information elicited through interviews regarding the disparities in university teaching and administration and on measures that could be taken to improve the situation is presented qualitatively.
The Distribution of Academic Staff in Teaching and Administration

The first objective of this study was to establish the distribution of the university academic staff in teaching and administration by gender. The researcher covered the year 1995 only because data for previous years in the two universities did not show the distribution across gender. In the following paragraphs, the findings on this objective are presented and discussed.

Tables 4.1 and 4.2 show the distribution of the academic staff for Kenyatta University and the University of Nairobi.

Table 4.1: The Distribution of Academic Staff at Kenyatta University by gender - 1995

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACULTY</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>TOTAL(N)</th>
<th>% OF TOTAL POPULATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ARTS</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDUCATION</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>66.5</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>33.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCIENCE</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>86.6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMERCE</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENVIRONMENTAL</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STUDIES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>446</td>
<td>71.8</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>621</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Personnel Data Office - Kenyatta University - 1995.
Table 4.2: The distribution of academic staff at the University of Nairobi by gender - 1995

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACULTY</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>TOTAL (N)</th>
<th>% TOTAL OF POP*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>81.9</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veterinary Medicine</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>89.9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADD*</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>90.3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>97.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts and Social Sc.</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>78.9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Studies</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>85.7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dental Science</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>78.9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacy</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>72.3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td><strong>982</strong></td>
<td><strong>82.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>215</strong></td>
<td><strong>18.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>1197</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.2</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

University of Nairobi Computer list - 1995

*ADD: Architecture, Design and Development.

*POP: Population

The findings show that women form a small proportion of university teachers. At the University of Nairobi alone, only 18 percent of the academic staff were women in 1995, while at
Kenyatta University, 28.8 percent were women during the same period. With the exception of the Faculty of Environmental Studies at Kenyatta University, where women constituted 50 percent, and the Faculty of Education at the University of Nairobi 41.3 percent, women teachers make up less than 40 percent in all other faculties in the two universities studied. The situation is even worse at the University of Nairobi where we have more professional courses. Women are heavily under-represented in the faculties of Engineering (2.3 percent); Architecture, Design and Development (9.7 percent); Veterinary Medicine (10.2 percent); Pharmacy (11.1 percent) and Science (12.1 percent).

When the respondents were asked to give their views on such a pattern, one male respondent had this to say:

Obviously, I would not say this pattern is as a result of gender discrimination at the university level. I would be more comfortable in saying that such a development is a result of differential treatments of genders either in secondary schools or even earlier and consequently, different subject choices once at the university.

This argument was supported by several other respondents (21.7 percent) who pointed out that in the past, women have not been taking science subjects and mathematics seriously. A female respondent noted that women have all along been made to believe that science and mathematics are difficult subjects, suitable only for men. She further observed that even when some girls have had a chance to attend science classes, they put very little effort because they have accepted the popular myth that science is for men. Their teachers help them to believe so. She gave her own experience in the following words.

My school was well equipped with science laboratories. I had high hopes of becoming a dentist but my career master (a male) misled me. He scared us all that if we wanted to pass and join the university, we should leave science alone. I chose to pursue history and religion because he made us feel that these subjects were quite easy and could easily enable us pass our exams. I really wanted to pass.
The above arguments seem to be in line with Trow's (1975) observation that discrimination usually starts at the earliest moment the relevant characteristics can be detected for women. Trow (1975:200) notes:

Long before they become undergraduate students (and certainly before they enter job markets if they do), women as a whole have been so affected by cultural expectations of their society as well as its frequently outright rejection of their ambitions; that they have been subjected to a kind of selective attrition.

The researcher therefore noted that even where girls are encouraged to pursue formal education, the society's expectations have been such that they are expected to take certain careers which are considered feminine and thus acceptable. This therefore partly explains why women academics are to be found clustered in a narrow range of disciplines such as Education, Arts and Social Sciences, Medicine etc., while being conspicuously absent in others such as Engineering and Veterinary Medicine, which, as Boserup (1970) observes, are still patronised by men.

**Academic Staff with Administrative Responsibilities**

This study also attempted to answer the question: What is the distribution of academic staff with administrative responsibilities by gender? To do this, the study considered top administrative posts at the university where important decisions are made and implemented. They include the posts of the Vice-chancellor and their deputies; the Principals of constituent colleges, Directors of Institutes or Programmes; Deans of Faculties and Heads of departments.

The findings revealed that very few women academics are appointed to administrative positions compared to their male colleagues. Of the total number of 118 senior administrators found at the University of Nairobi, only 7.6 percent were women in 1995. Of these, 4.2 percent were heads of departments (the lowest rank on the ladder according to this study). There were
92.9 percent male deans compared with 7.1 percent females; 90.9 percent male directors compared with 9.1 percent females and 83.3 percent male principals compared with 16.7 percent female principals.

At Kenyatta University, there were 53 senior administrators (1995) out of which 9.4 percent were females. However, all of them were heads of departments. Commenting on the situation, One female respondent had this to say:

We are simply locked out of the 'high table' where important decisions that later affect us are made. All we have to do is to accept whatever is passed to us whether we want it or not.

However, a male professor from the University of Nairobi did not agree with the above respondent. He defended the male gender and the university administration by advancing the following argument:

We have done our best. We find no women who are qualified for senior administrative posts. Those who are qualified have already been appointed. Look at Professor 'A' and professor 'B', they all have good posts. What else do women want?

From the above discussion, the researcher noted that while there may be subtle means of discrimination at the university preventing women academics from rising up to positions of power and authority, their small numbers at the university could to a large extent have affected their share of administrative responsibilities. The pool of men from which the administrators are drawn is more than twice that of females at Kenyatta University and more than 4 times at the University of Nairobi. The result of this imbalance is that women teachers do not play a very significant role in the decision-making processes in Kenyan public universities. To investigate further the cause of the differences thus far observed between male and female academics, the researcher sought the views of the respondents from the two public universities studied.
Causes of Women Under-representation in University Teaching and Administration

Responding to the question on the factors that contribute to women under-representation, the respondents pointed out several factors during the interviews. As far as possible then, responses were scrutinised for emerging patterns for the purpose of forming suitable conceptual categories that would facilitate discussion. Those responses that could not fit in any of the categories but found to be important to this study were presented independently.

From the interviews conducted, it emerges that socio-cultural constraints, economic value of education, societal attitudes towards higher education for women, and historical factors are some of the main factors contributing to women under-representation in university teaching and administration. Following closely on this is the blame on female academics themselves, the Non-governmental Organisation (NGO) factor and political appointments. Each of these is discussed in turn in the following sub-sections.

Socio-cultural Constraints

There seemed to be a general consensus among the respondents that gender imbalances at the university in teaching and administration had nothing to do with discrimination but was mainly as a result of socio-cultural norms and values of the Kenyan society, which is predominantly patriarchal. A male respondent defined patriarchy as a deliberate organisation of society's social, economic and political affairs to cater for and sustain the male supremacy over women. He continued to argue thus:

Look at the Kenya government today. How many women are cabinet Ministers? How many women own big plantations or important businesses? If their number is negligible in almost all sectors, why should you expect more of them in our public universities?
A female senior lecturer at Kenyatta University was even more emphatic.

Men make laws and women obey them. They have used their position to favour themselves. They have made traditional myths 'divine' laws and have employed the same to exempt themselves from the burden of household chores,... Women have thus been made to believe and accept for a long time that their place is in the kitchen, that they are child minders, nurses for the sick and old, home-makers in general. What do you expect from such a situation? All the so called home responsibilities are heaped on women. We at the university are not different in any way when it comes to caring for the children or feeding the family. We have to combine these role with our academic work. In contrast, men do very little house-work and sometimes none at all. They continue to behave as if 'we' are still housewives and they are the sole bread winners of the family.

Her colleague, who was present during the interview, (though she was not part of my sample) chipped in:

My husband will not take food prepared by a house girl. I have to be home early to prepare supper and ensure that the young ones eat their meals. Unlike us, men have a lot of free time to pursue their academic work. But when it comes to promotions, the same criteria are applied for both men and women. It is obvious even to the promotions Committee that men will bring in more publications, will have had time to attend conferences and more of them will have completed their Ph.D. studies. More men become easily eligible for promotions and appointments and 'we' (women) are sometimes accused of not applying. Some of us are also accused of refusing administrative responsibilities. How does one apply when she has had no chance to fulfil the required qualifications? We need a break; otherwise sometimes we really feel worked up.

A male respondent at Kenyatta University seemed to agree with this respondent. He pointed out that the nature of women as mothers and home-makers requires them to be home early and to spend more time with their families. "For this reason, most administrative responsibilities would be unsuitable for women especially those with young families."
In support of this, another male lecturer said: "From the African set up, women take the upper hand in family responsibilities. They are the first to be called when there is a problem at home. I don't know how one would survive if she was appointed a Vice-Chancellor."

It was thus noted that even when a woman is employed, household chores remain her primary responsibility - a function assigned to her by the society and which she must be seen to be fulfilling. This means the academic woman has to stay closer home most of the time, a requirement that has led to many of them specialising in the household tasks while doing very little to advance themselves academically. Child-care and other family responsibilities seem to be a significant drain on the time and energy on part of women academics and often inhibit their undertaking of professional advancement activities. This, the researcher noted, has to a large extent contributed to women under-representation especially in senior grades and in administration as a majority of them do not conduct research or publish, which are very important undertakings for promotion to senior grades and appointments to administrative posts. The above findings are in line with those by UNESCO, (1987) and Lamptey, (1992) that the dual responsibility of household drudgery and work are often difficult to combine and are a major constraint on women's work and productivity, especially for those who are married.

**Economic Value of Education**

The findings also revealed that the economic value of education among the various Kenyan communities was another important factor contributing to women under-representation. A relatively large number of respondents (20 percent) expressed this view. The general argument was that due to the patriarchal nature of the Kenyan society (as already discussed above), women have generally been accorded a low economic status and many parents find it less worthwhile to
educate girls. One female respondent noted that in some communities, many parents felt they had more to lose than gain by educating girls because they were expected to get married - in which case the benefits of education would go to another family. She further noted:

After all, girls could get married and dowry paid whether they were educated or not.

This respondent however pointed out that boys' education was seen to be more important economically because they would remain in their fathers' lineage and take care of their parents as well as younger brothers and sisters. She further observed:

When such parents are faced with fees problems, most of them choose to educate boys while they marry off their daughters to provide the school fees.

In support of this, a male respondent admitted having been a beneficiary of such practices:

My old man married off my younger sister to a rich man, far much older than she was, so that her dowry could meet my fee expenses. The husband is now dead and my sister lives miserably. I look at the whole situation and I am filled with pity.

Such practices, it was noted, decrease the number of girls entering the education system, who would eventually become eligible for university teaching and administration.

From the foregoing, it appears that the assessment of the parents regarding the returns from their children's education has a considerable influence on who they should educate and to what level. Usually, girls are disadvantaged because they can get married with little education or none at all, and to many parents, girls' education only enriches the husbands families. For these reasons, most of them, especially those from poor families have had their education terminated at lower levels so that once married, their dowry can enable their more productive brothers to
continue with their education. The findings supports Wanjama and Kimani’s study of 1995 where they note that girls sometimes offer to work as maids so that they can raise money for their brothers education. This has considerably reduced the numbers of girls who join the school system and more so, those who join the university from where the university teachers are recruited.
Societal Attitudes towards Higher Education for Women in Kenya

A notion that came up in several interviews was that although the opportunities for higher education for women are open, few women avail themselves of these opportunities because of the negative social attitudes towards higher education for women. African men tend to shun highly educated girls especially where candidacy for marriage is concerned. Most of them view highly educated women as rude and uncooperative, unable to manage housework. Such a notion was clearly illustrated by a female lecturer from the University of Nairobi in the following words:

I got my Ph.D. and now my husband and I are separated. Things went on smoothly before I left for studies. When I came back, my husband started complaining that I was not taking good care of our children, that I spent most of my time in my academic work. His parents said I would be unfaithful. Perhaps it was because I had a Ph.D. and he did not.

Another female respondent, who was elderly and single, had her side of the story:

I don't regret having remained single. I have my Ph.D. I would perhaps never have advanced if I got married. You are lucky (referring to this researcher) your husband does not cause problems for you. I have sisters who want to go for further studies but they have had a lot of problems with their husbands who tell them "you cannot go for further studies. That university does not know someone's wife unless we are no longer married.

The above argument seems to support Chabaud’s 1970 observation that a male respondent observed further that even for those women who work hard enough to join the university, most of them rarely get a chance to register for second and third degrees.

They want to capture their Mr. 'Right' early enough before the end of the first degree. Many of them fear to pursue education further as this could easily lead to the breakdown of their marriage unless their spouses are far more educated than they are.

It should therefore, come as no surprise that, for many women who hope to get married
(and a majority of them do, anyway) the motivation to be educated beyond secondary levels tends to be low. The fear of missing a marriage partner or of separation and divorce often reduces the aspiration of women and many of them prefer to have little education but be happily married. This has greatly reduced the numbers of women who pursue higher education in Kenya. Hence the marked under-representation in teaching and administration in our public universities. The above findings are in line with those of Chabaud, 1970, and Lamptey 1992, that men are sometimes afraid of marrying women who are too learned and it is this fear that often impedes the access of girls to higher education and scientific studies.

**Historical Factors**

The introduction of Western education in Kenya is also blamed for the under-representation of women in university teaching and administration. A female professor at the University of Nairobi argued that the colonial and missionary education which was meant to 'civilise' the Africans was offered mostly to men. She continued thus:

> Men were useful to the Europeans at the time. They served as clerks, messengers and cooks. However, this was later to form the basis of inequality in the distribution of education services in our country because Kenyans inherited such a system and continued favouring boys. When there was only one girls' school in my province, there were six boys' schools. Even then girls who attended this school were taught different things from those of boys.

The foregoing discussion suggests that women have been disadvantaged from the very beginning while all along their male counterparts have been enjoying education services during both the colonial and post-colonial eras. It was also noted that even when girls were allowed to go to school, they were usually subjected to a different type of curriculum from that of boys. The inheritance of such a system by Kenyans greatly shaped the education of girls/women as it is today. Few parents continue taking girls to school and for those who are lucky to join school,
they are taught a different curriculum from that of boys (Bennas, 1995). The result of this has been disproportionate representation in university teaching and administration, as few women make it to the university.

The findings also explain further why women academics seem to cluster in a narrow range of subjects and why other disciplines are dominated by males. This seems to support Boserup's observation that women continue to be under-represented at the university level and they continue to cluster in a narrow range of disciplines leading to traditionally favoured professions, the so-called 'caring professions' (Boserup, 1970).

Gender Disparities at the Lower Levels of Education

A notable argument that was constantly echoed during the interviews is that the problem of gender disparities at the university stems from the lower levels of education (primary and secondary), where high rates of women drop-outs occur due to unwanted pregnancies and early marriages. A majority of the respondents (43.3 percent) argued that such a problem rarely affects boys most of whom are able to continue with education. They felt that, this leads to unequal participation in university teaching and administration as only a small number of women manage to enter the universities for higher education.

In support of this, a male professor at the University of Nairobi noted that since there are fewer entries at the university teaching, the pool of men from which administrators are drawn is larger than that of women. "We have more men and so more of them are appointed."
The findings showed that girls meet many obstacles on the education ladder, which impede the majority of them from reaching the apex. However, boys are not affected by these obstacles and therefore, most of them who perform well at the lower levels join the university while only a small number of girls manage to do so. It was thus noted that whatever action women academics take at present, their numbers still remain small both in senior ranks and in administration because their total number at the university is far much smaller compared with that of male academics.

Lack of Professional Commitment by Women Academics

Some respondents (26.7 percent) blamed female academics for under-representation especially in senior professional ranks and in administration. They noted that women academics do not concentrate very much on their work. A male lecturer at Kenyatta University was more categorical:

Women are scared to venture into new fields. They are not aggressive and some of them are very lazy. Their permanence on a given assignment especially research is lacking or very low. You will hear someone complaining of a headache, disappearance of a house-girl or of a sick child once the work is started. If such a woman is an administrator, it means she will be out of office most of the time.

In support of this, a male surveyor at the University of Nairobi observed:

Most women prefer to concentrate in teaching and home management, doing very little to acquire the qualifications needed for promotions and appointments. During their free time, you will find them gossiping.

He continued to argue that in the end, only a few women apply for promotions. Hence the marked under-representation in senior professional ranks and in administration.

However, some female academics did not agree with this view. They argued that the male
gender seems to have an edge as regards higher output in terms of research since they have relatively more free time to work on it while the female gender is handicapped with multiple responsibilities heaped on them by the society. A female tutorial fellow at Kenyatta University observed:

If we are seen to be concentrating on teaching and home management, it is because the society requires us and not men to perform multiple roles and house girls are not dependable enough to do our work. My husband is a lecturer at the University of Nairobi. We sometimes arrive home in the evenings. I go straight to the kitchen while he sits at the table room to relax, read a newspaper or watch the television. When he is busy, he locks himself in the study room so that he is not disturbed. How can I be compared with him? It is very difficult for us to pursue a Ph.D. course or get fully involved in research especially when one has a young family.

The findings revealed that women academics are aware that they do not concentrate very much on their academic work. However, they attribute this to the multiple roles they are expected to perform and sometimes lack of dependable house servants. Female academics feel that their male colleagues have an upper hand over them especially in terms of research activities and publications because they relatively have more free time to participate in these activities if they so wish. This situation, the researcher noted, puts women at a disadvantage when it comes to promotions and appointments as few of them qualify compared with men.

The Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) Factor

Some 20 percent respondents viewed the Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) factor as important in contributing to women under-representation, especially in senior professional ranks and in administration. They observed that the senior academic women (especially those with Ph.D.) are very marketable with national and international NGOs, especially those dealing with women affairs and the environment. A female Associate Professor at Kenyatta University pointed out that many of the female academics who would be in very senior positions by now
usually terminate their services at the university to join these NGOs, where they are not only well paid but also act as directors and managers.

It can therefore be said that due to poor remuneration in our public universities, many women academics are attracted by the NGOs, where they not only get better pay but they are also given a chance to exercise their leadership skills. This, the researcher noted, reduces the number of female academics who would be professors and senior administrators, hence the under-representation in these spheres.

Political Appointments

Some respondents observed that appointments to senior posts are political and very few women feature in the political arena. A male professor at the University of Nairobi observed that appointments to posts such as those of the vice-chancellors and their deputies and those of principals of constituent colleges in Kenya are very political.

Appointments are usually done by the Chancellor of the Universities who is also the President of the country. This is done informally with search and selection of a candidate being done by the male clique surrounding the Chancellor. " We don't really have open criteria but from what we see, the person selected is in most cases known or close to the President and strongly supports his political ideas" observed a respondent.

He further observed that the appointment of a person to such posts is sometimes viewed as a reward to him as a person or to his community for the loyalty or support they have shown to the President.
Another male respondent noted that those who are appointed turn out to be males in most cases. "So they also appoint those close to them and those who agree with them. Unfortunately majority of these also happen to be men...it seems women are attempting to enter and operate in a world and a system created and controlled by men without much success."

Asked why females do not feature in the political arena, a male respondent said, "politics have never been meant for women."

However, some 3.3 percent males and 11.7 percent females indicated that there are strong negative social attitudes towards women who work hard and become close associates with the male clique in power not only in politics but also in other sectors. A female respondent in one of the universities noted:

Women are usually accused of having secret love affairs with their male superiors. When I was promoted to the rank of an Associate Professor, rumours went round that I was a secret girlfriend of the Vice-chancellor... That I was going to be appointed the next Chairperson of my department. This is very dangerous and disturbing especially to a married woman.

She further observed that since most women do not want to be viewed this way, they try to keep off any relationships and interactions that might make other colleagues speak negatively about them.

The foregoing discussion shows that the political system in Kenya has not been in favour of women for a long time and very few women academics have taken part in it. The result of this has been that even those women who are qualified have not had a chance to compete for certain posts because they might not be known to the President or those around him. Since women are very few at the top, they are also unlikely to make much influence during such appointments or in
other decisions made.

It is also evident from the study findings that no open criteria exist for the appointment of top administrators. Loyalty to the government, closeness to the Chancellor and the need to reward are some of the criteria considered. It can therefore be said that subjectivity in such a system is the order of the day and that women are disadvantaged because few of them participate in politics either to compete for these posts or to influence the appointments of fellow women.

Distribution of Academic Staff by Gender and Rank

Another objective of this study was to find out how promotions to higher academic ranks/grades and appointments to administrative responsibilities were distributed across gender.

Table 4.3 shows the proportions of the academic staff promoted to various ranks for both Kenyatta University and the University of Nairobi.

Table 4.3: Professional Ranks by Gender and Institution - 1995

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>University of Nairobi</th>
<th>Kenyatta University</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>94.9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>88.6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>90.3</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>506</td>
<td>82.0</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF/GA*</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>982</td>
<td>82.0</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of the study confirm that women not only enter the teaching profession at the university in smaller numbers but in both universities, they obtain promotion much less frequently. Only a handful of female academics have been promoted to higher academic ranks compared with their male colleagues. In no rank in the two universities studied does the proportion of women come nearer 50 percent (37.0 percent) among the tutorial fellows, and Graduate Assistants at Kenyatta University is the highest of the total number of academic staff.

Women's representation is especially low in the ranks of professor (5.1 percent) at the University of Nairobi and none at Kenyatta University. Even where women seem to be doing well, for instance in the ranks of lecturer and tutorial fellows, the proportions are much lower compared to those of their male counterparts - (18 percent and 30.3 percent for the ranks of lecturer at the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University, 33.3 and 37.0 percent for the ranks of tutorial fellows at the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University respectively).

To get more information on the pattern of promotions, the respondents were asked to give the number of promotions they had been awarded during their years of service at the university. Table 4.4 presents the findings.
Table 4.4: Instances of promotion of Academic Staff at the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Promotion(s)</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>60.6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over three</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings show that a majority of the respondents had received a promotion once. The most interesting finding is that female academics seem to have received more promotions than men as 44.4 percent males had been promoted two times compared to 55.6 percent females; 40.0 percent males were promoted three times compared with 60 percent females and no males were promoted more than three times. In addition 63.6 percent males had not been awarded any promotion in their present institutions compared with 36.4 percent females.

Asked whether they thought the female gender had been favoured, a female professor at the University of Nairobi said:

That is not true. The only reason why we (women) seem to have received more promotions is that we are handicapped. We are not able to move to other universities like men. Men transfer to Moi, Egerton and other Universities where they get promotions and then go back to their old institutions for a second one. As for me, I got all my promotions from here and I think this also applies to many other women academics.

In support of this, 36.4 percent of the male respondents admitted having transferred from other universities for the purpose of promotion while all the female respondents had served only
in their present institution.

Asked for views on why the female gender was not able to move more often like their male colleagues, a majority of the respondents (71.1 percent) argued that the female gender was bound by socio-cultural customs and women prefer a job or a promotion that will not take them away from their families. One female respondent put this more precisely:

However much as I would like to move, I cannot even if I am promised a promotion in another university outside Nairobi. My husband works here in the city and my children attend different primary schools here. I cannot disturb them. My husband won't even allow it.

A similar response was registered from a Kenyatta University female Associate Professor:

I entered Kenyatta University as a Graduate Assistant. All along, I knew other universities especially Moi and Egerton were attracting members of academic staff for promotion because Kenyatta University requires higher standards for promotion. I wanted to go but could not because my family is here. I decided to wait for a promotion here however long it took so as to be close to my family.

The foregoing shows that female academics are aware that most of their male colleagues transferred to other universities mainly for the purpose of promotion. It was however noted that most female academics were not able to transfer very often like their male counterparts because of family responsibilities. The society expects the woman more than the man to be close to her family most of the time. At other times, the researcher noted, females transfer from one institution to another may be restricted by their spouses' location of work place. This supports earlier studies (e.g Tobin, 1980; Allen 1990) that once married, many women operate under the handicap of 'contingent mobility' with their movements being limited by the location of their husbands' job location. What this means is that women (especially the married ones) are of necessity less mobile and are likely to miss the opportunities such as promotions and
appointments that arise as a result of changing the institutions and the benefits that accrue to such movements, for instance, higher salary and better working conditions.

To show the experience of male and female academic staff with regard to promotion, it was necessary to find out the number of years they had served before they were promoted. This also helped the researcher to establish whether there is any gender that took a longer time than the other in getting promotion. Table 4.5 presents the findings.

Table 4.5: Number of Years served by the Male and Female Academic staff of the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University before promotion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of years</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 2 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 4.5 above, male academics served for fewer years before they were promoted. Some 16.0 percent of male respondents had served for a period of less than two years before they were promoted compared with 8.7 percent of female respondents. Similarly, only 8.0 percent of male respondents had served for over ten years without a promotion compared with 26.1 percent female respondents.
As asked to comment on the situation, the Chairman of Promotions and Appraisal Committee, Kenyatta University, had this to say:

This has nothing to do with gender discrimination. If it is there, it does not take place in my office. It could be at the departments where these files (referring to files of academic staff who had applied for promotion to various ranks) come from. Once here, I do not separate files of males and females. I go through them as they come. My observation is that more men qualify for promotions and we give them what they deserve. Several ladies have come to me complaining of not being promoted. For those who do come, I pick their files and we go through them together. One particular lady came complaining that she had taught for six years without even being considered for an interview. But she had not published anything! Many of them want promotions while they hardly go out for research. Teaching alone cannot earn one a promotion at the university.

The above observation was supported by the evidence from a number of interviews.

Several female respondents, 36.4 percent admitted they had stayed for a long time without applying for a promotion because they had not completed their Ph.D. Another 18.5 percent of female respondents said they were not ready for a promotion in terms of publications needed for various ranks. In contrast, 30.3 percent of male respondents had not completed their Ph.D and only 3.0 percent of them did not have publications needed for various ranks.

Many female academics complained of housework and child care which claimed much of their time. A female lecturer at Kenyatta University put it this way:

No one has discriminated against me. It is all my fault. I have taken along time to write my Ph.D proposal. It was read sometime ago but still I have not applied for research funds. I need some time for my young girl because I intend to travel to Machakos for field work and I cannot travel with her.

From the foregoing discussion, it is apparent that female academics take a longer time to get a promotion than their male colleagues. This, however, has nothing to do with discrimination.
against women, contrary to popular belief. Female academics take a long time to achieve the required qualifications such as publications and participation in research activities and hence many of them delay in applying for promotion. This is due to factors outside the university control, such as house work and child care which, as reported by some respondents, seem to claim much of their time. As a result, the numbers of female academics with senior grades continue to be small compared with those of men. This in turn affects their share of administrative responsibilities since senior administrators are drawn from the ranks of professors, associate professors and senior lecturers, and only a few women qualify for these positions.

Factors that Influence Promotions and Appointments of Academic Staff

One other objective of this study was to determine the factors that influenced the promotions and administrative appointments of academic staff. From the documents examined and the interviews conducted, it was found that the Promotion and Appointment criteria are well documented to guide in the promotions and appointments of academic staff. A summary of these Criteria is presented below:

For one to be employed as a graduate assistant at the university, he/she should have at least an upper second class honours degree. Tutorial fellows and assistant lecturers should have at least a masters degree.

To be promoted to the rank of lecturer, one should have at least a masters degree and one year experience, or a Ph.D. To move to the rank of senior lecturer, one should have a Ph.D., 3 years experience, 3 articles in refereed journals, be able to supervise postgraduate students, contribute in learned conferences and posses good leadership qualities.
As for the ranks of associate professor and professor, one should have a Ph.D., show evidence of good quality teaching at undergraduate and postgraduate levels, have at least five years teaching and research experience since being appointed a senior lecturer (for associate professors) and 5 years experience in teaching and research since being appointed as Associate professor (for professors).

In addition, associate professors should have at least 4 articles in a refereed journal since being appointed senior lecturer or at least 2 refereed books, while professors should have at least 6 articles since being appointed associate professors or published at least 3 refereed books. Both associate professor and professors should contribute in learned conferences/seminars, have administrative experience, where necessary, and participate in departmental activities. The detailed document of this criteria is attached as appendix iii.

The researcher, however, went further to investigate whether the laid down criteria are properly followed and whether there were other factors besides the laid down criteria that influenced one's appointment or promotion. This was done by seeking the views of the respondents.

From the interviews conducted, only 10 percent of the respondents believed that the criteria were properly followed. Their main argument was that they had successfully applied for promotions to various ranks, having attained the required qualifications. This was, however, contradicted by 18.3 percent of respondents comprising of 11.7 percent males and 6.7 percent females who complained that they had attained all the qualifications needed yet they had not been promoted.
A majority of the respondents pointed out that there were other underlying factors that influenced promotions and appointments. They include: problems related to the university establishment, uncertain promotion criteria, critical shortage of staff, campus politics, and interpersonal relationships. Each of these is discussed below.

**Problems related to the University Establishment**

A relatively large number of respondents argued that the universities sometimes employ delaying tactics so as not to promote their staff members. On this, several respondents agreed. A male Assistant lecturer at the University of Nairobi said:

> Sometimes interviews are not called, are cancelled the last minute or the promotion committee fails to meet.

A female lecturer from the same university who narrated how she had missed the promotion twice due to cancellation of interview dates had this to say:

> When one complains, the administration suggests that those who feel are qualified can gather their documents and push for a promotion, which I am not ready to do... I have already entered the salary scale of senior lecturer and far much ahead than many salary wise. How will the promotion help me?... I am not interested any more.

A male lecturer from Kenyatta University:

> The first time, the administration gave the excuse that I was on study leave. But last time I was here and yet not promoted. The truth is I am very productive and certain people in administration are not happy with my work.

On a different point, some respondents argued that the staff establishment and its financial implications was an important factor influencing the promotions and appointment of academic staff. They pointed out that the university administration has the power to create vacancies for various ranks at the departments. However, as a male respondent at the University of Nairobi
noted, the administration sometimes fails to create these vacancies to enable one to apply and get promoted. As you know, professors need personal secretaries. This means coughing more money by the university to employ more secretaries. Few vacancies are thus created at the top and most of us mark time in one rank because those above us are not moving up. There is no outlet for them.

Another male respondent at Kenyatta University said:

Sometime you find Chairmen of departments, Directors and other appointed administrators staying in office for a long time with their terms being renewed instead of giving others a chance to get appointed. Some of these are immediately transferred to other departments once their term has expired in others and they continue gaining more administrative experience. It is just unfair. We also need similar experiences.

Uncertain Promotion Criteria

Some respondents observed that the University Promotion and Appointment Criteria keep on changing and are not followed in most cases. They argued that this creates confusion as different criteria apply to different members of academic staff. A male respondent who revealed that he had already received a promotion in another university and was about to leave his present institution stated that:

When I was turned down for the post of associate professor, the Promotion Committee said I had not served for five years (I had served for more than four and a half years) but the following month, the same Committee interviewed and promoted members who had served for three years only.

On the same issue, a female senior lecturer at Kenyatta University had this to say:

There is a lot of inconsistency in the Promotion procedures especially at Kenyatta University. You really don't know what to expect. I had applied for the promotion two years ago having attained all the qualifications needed. I was not promoted and I never applied again. In January this year (1995), I just entered the department one morning and the Chairman was there stretching his hand. 'Congratulations Dr, so and so' you have been promoted to the rank of a senior lecturer. I
could not understand. I had not been called for the interview. I had already done so much within the two years and my curriculum vitae was much richer than when I had applied. All the same, I had been promoted.

'A campus Politics and Personal Relationships

A majority of the respondents (56.6 percent) indicated campus politics and personal relationships as the most prevalent factors influencing promotions and appointments of academic staff in Kenyan Public Universities. Asked what campus politics means, a male respondent at Kenyatta University said it was a combination of several factors, the most important among them being "nepotism, tribalism/ethnicity, club systems, political affiliation and the degree of loyalty to those in power..."

Another male respondent at the University of Nairobi observed:

When campus politics are in operation, it depends on where one comes from (the region of origin) who you know in administration ('godfather') and your relationship with them, how loyal you are to the Vice-chancellor and the government to get a promotion or be appointed especially to senior administrative position... This is what is happening in our Universities today. The administration is even creating some posts in order to enable certain characters to get appointed as a form of a reward.

He further observed that this was a disadvantage to many who did not have 'tall relatives' or were not in good terms with the Vice-Chancellor or the Chancellor.

In support of this a colleague at the same university expressed the view that our universities are ruled through a club system. "The university is based on social groups (clubs) and members try to join the clubs of important people like the Vice-Chancellors, the Deans and Heads of Departments in order to create good relationships with them in the hope that when it comes to
promotions or appointments, they will get good recommendations." He further noted that staff members who do not belong to these clubs or who may pull out because of disagreement of some kind may not get the promotion or appointment even when they are qualified.

A male respondent in one of the universities seemed to agree with this respondent when he explained why he was not promoted. Part of his story was:

A major reason why I am not a professor today is because of academic jealousy. I have been a Director for six years. I have been very active in teaching and research work even with international agencies. I have presented many papers in various conferences worldwide and have supervised many postgraduate students. At one point, I disagreed with the 'big person' over a research project. He did not take this kindly and I later pulled out of the club where he was a member. I have constantly suffered because of this.

Some respondents also observed that the report from the departmental heads influenced one's promotion or appointment. A female respondent from the University of Nairobi argued that the head of the department may give the recommendations not on the basis of the candidate's abilities and achievements but on the basis of the candidate's region of origin and his/her relationship with that particular candidate.

Critical Shortage of Staff

Some (18.9 percent) respondents expressed the view that a critical shortage of staff in senior positions in various departments who can be assigned administrative duties or in situations where the university wants to retain certain members of staff who have been lured to another university with a promotion was another factor influencing promotions and appointments of academic staff. A male respondent observed:

This is what happened in the 1980s after the expansion of Public Universities. Many senior members of staff transferred to newly created universities to take administrative responsibilities. Before long
there was shortage of senior academic staff especially in the 'old universities'. There was need to appoint some more to senior positions and thus the criteria were done away with.

In support of this, another male respondent at Kenyatta University noted:

This is exactly what happened during the time of U.A.S.U. (University Academic Staff Union) in 1993. The university administration felt threatened by the striking lecturers who wanted to be allowed to form their own union. They therefore sent out secret promotion letters to various members of staff some of whom had not qualified to prevent them from joining the union of striking lecturers. Appointments were also made secretly and hurriedly to reward those who left the strike.

Asked whether the factors mentioned above inhibit any gender from being promoted or appointed, 73.3 percent respondents stated that the factors discussed are not gender sensitive. They may affect both genders negatively or positively depending on the side one falls in. However, 3.3 percent respondents felt that these factors may inhibit the female gender considering that relationships are struck in social places after work when many of them have left for home.

From the foregoing discussion, it is evident that though the promotions and appointments criteria are well documented, they are not properly followed and keep on being changed to suit different situations. When there is need to promote or reward, a clause may be added, in most cases verbally, that will necessitate the promotion of certain members while leaving out others. This is what happens especially when there is a critical shortage of staff in senior positions at various departments or when important members of staff have been lured to another university with a promotion. Rather than let such members go, the university administration may decide to give the same promotion even when the members concerned do not meet the required qualifications.
From the study findings, it is also apparent that the criteria are not honoured as some members of academic staff had attained the required qualifications, yet they had not been promoted. The university administration sometimes fails to create vacancies at the top ranks so that those in the lower ranks can be promoted. At other times, interviews are cancelled the last minute, not called at all or the promotion committee fails to meet. It was further noted that some administrators stay in office for a long time with their terms being renewed after they expire thus denying others a chance of getting appointed. This means that some members of academic staff mark-time in one rank for a long time even when they are ready for a promotion. The researcher noted that this creates confusion, discontentment and frustration among the academics as there seems to be very little to expect for hard work.

It can therefore be said that the academic staff in Kenyan public universities lack proper incentives to motivate them, more especially so since promotions and appointments are taken as a symbol of acknowledgement for hard work which should help in boosting the morale of the university teachers.

The study findings also reveal that 'campus politics' such as ethnicity, nepotism, political affiliations and other personal relationships are some of the most important factors that influence one's promotion or appointment. It appears that in most cases, a promotion or an appointment depends on one's area of origin, political affiliation and one's relationship with those in power. When such factors are in operation, scholarship no longer counts as there is usually need to give favours or rewards to relatives and friends, tribemates and those who support the government.
In such a system therefore, it is no surprise that the departmental head may give recommendations not based on the basis of one's abilities and achievements but on the basis of the candidate's origin, the club he/she belongs to or the relationship of that particular candidate with the head of the department.

Suggested Measures to Improve the Representation of Women in Teaching and Administration

Respondents were asked for views on what measures they thought could be taken to improve women representation in teaching and in administration. Several measures were advanced during the interviews. These measures, which are both long term and short-term, focus on the society, the school, the university and its academic staff. Put into action, these corrective measures may not only help improve the representation of women in teaching and administration but may also improve the welfare of all members of academic staff in Kenyan Public Universities. The following sub-sections discuss some long and short-term measures suggested.

Long-term Measures

Most respondents called for the reconstruction of the Kenyan society in terms of the institution of the family, the school curriculum and political institutions with a view to creating a new image for the female gender in the society. A female Associate Professor at the University of Nairobi observed that gender roles are socially constructed and can be reconstructed. She therefore called for a change in the Kenyan society to deal with out-dated customs and beliefs that oppress women. Such a change, it was observed, could also deal with the division of labour in the home so that it is no longer assigned on the basis of 'sex' but of who is most capable and has the time.
Another female respondent at Kenyatta University expressed the opinion that through media, conferences and workshops, married men and women could be sensitised to share family responsibilities instead of burdening women alone. She further observed that parents could be sensitised to bring up their children equally regardless of gender.

Women should be sensitised on their roles as mothers so that they bring up both boys and girls equally. The fathers should also be sensitised to accept the changed situation.

However, a male respondent observed that a change of this kind was not easy. His argument went thus:

Don't ever think that changing what people have always believed to be right is easy. Such a thing will not happen in the near future...No one wants to give up his/her freedom or power. For such a change to be effective, the government will need to step in and perhaps even put up supportive laws where necessary.

Twenty percent of the respondents called for gender sensitisation targeted at both genders in an attempt to eradicate the rampant misconceptions existing in the Kenyan society; for instance, that sciences are for men, that highly educated women may not make good wives, and that they are rude and unco-operative.

The majority of the respondents also called for the government to empower women with education. In the words of a male respondent at Kenyatta University, education would help women to gain "self-reliance, self-confidence and self-understanding of their potentials and abilities and to see a wider dimension of life instead of confining in a small range of life (family)".

A senior lecturer at Kenyatta University advised academic women to be more aggressive in the political field so that they participate in the decision making processes of the country. He
observed that:

such women, being close to the powers that be could easily influence the appointments of more women to the top administrative posts like those of the Vice-Chancellors and their deputies.

Medium-term and Short-term Measures

Some respondents called for intensive guidance and counselling campaigns to be conducted, beginning at lower levels of education through university, showing girls that they can do well just like boys, given more effort. A female respondent at the University of Nairobi pointed out that parents should be encouraged to get more involved in the counselling of their children. She noted that:

Through such counselling in addition to family planning services, girls should be made aware of the precautions they can take to avoid pregnancies.

In support of this, her colleague pointed out that during such campaigns, emphasis should be laid on the importance of higher education. "Female undergraduates should especially be encouraged to register for postgraduate studies."

Since the ratio of girls to boys at the lower levels of education has increased in the recent past, some respondents suggested that the government and the interested NGOs should make efforts to ensure that this ratio is maintained by providing scholarships and bursaries to more girls to avoid drop-outs due to lack of school fees. Some (6.7 percent) respondents called for the government to put up supportive laws such as those dealing with early marriages and circumcision of girls. In this regard, it is noteworthy that during the latter part of 1996, a Bill that would have outlawed female circumcision was rejected by the Kenyan Parliament. A female respondent observed that:

Once circumcised, young girls were married off in some communities
thus reducing their chances of continuing with their education.

She called for the government to put up laws to ensure that school girls are not married off prematurely.

Through workshops, conferences and seminars, the female gender (both students and lecturers) should be guided and counselled on how to recognise their family responsibilities and accept them. Several respondents (23.3 percent) expressed this view in various ways. One female respondent who is now a Professor and a Senior Administrator in one of the Universities argued:

I have a job, a husband and children. I have made it, why not others?

She suggested that:

Women should be sensitised to realise that responsibility has its costs, gender or no gender. Both men and women academics spend a lot of their time with their families and I don't see why women should make responsibility a special case for them.

In support of this, another senior female respondent noted:

Women academics should plan their time effectively and put their priorities right. For instance, as to when to get married or when to get a baby. To get my Ph.D., I had to stay for seven years without a baby... Women should be counselled and encouraged to work hard in order to advance themselves and to salvage the negative attitudes people have already formed about them.

Another important suggestion was that female academics who benefited earlier from education should act as good role models by making themselves known to other young women and girls and encouraging them to aim higher. A female senior lecturer at Kenyatta University expressed her view in the following words:

Instead of holding conferences and seminars in cities and in expensive hotels presenting papers which are of no use to rural women, the gender sensitive women could achieve more if they came down to
earth, use the money that could be used in such conferences to visit the rural women and enlighten them on gender equity. They could also visit schools throughout the country showing the girls that they can make it just like men have done. These women could be a source of inspiration for young girls and good role models to be emulated.

Some respondents advised academic women not only to apply for senior posts and to pick them when a chance shows up, but also view academic advancement in a more positive way. In the words of a male Associate Professor at the University of Nairobi:

Women should be more assertive and press for their rights. No one will give them what they want unless they fight for it...Women should pursue higher education (Ph.D.), conduct research and publish in order to compete favourably with men. This will see more of them in senior professional ranks and in administration.

Notably, 21.9 percent respondents advised women to encourage and stimulate one another without waiting for men to do it for them. They advised women to set up a forum through which they can share ideas and experiences in order to inspire one another.

Some other respondents suggested that teaching should be considered as an important activity for purposes of promotion since all academics cannot be talented in research, yet they actively take part in training students to become leaders of the nation. One female respondent had the view that:

Those talented in conducting research can have 25 percent of their time dedicated to teaching and 75 percent time spent on research, while those not well talented in research could have 75 percent of their time dedicated to teaching and 25 percent on research.
Overview

What has emerged from this chapter is that women form a small minority of university teachers in Kenyan Public Universities. Where they are to be found in large numbers, they are concentrated in the faculties of Arts, Social Sciences and Education. They are, however, very much under-represented in most of science oriented disciplines.

In addition, women academics obtain promotions much less frequently and only a handful of them are promoted compared with their male colleagues. Women's representation is especially low in the ranks of professors (5.1 percent) at the University of Nairobi and none at Kenyatta University. Most women academics are clustered in the ranks of lecturers and tutorial fellows. Even then, their proportions are much lower than those of their male colleagues.

The findings further revealed that most of the top administrative posts are dominated by men with only a few women appearing as departmental heads. From the two Universities studied, there were 7.1 percent female deans; 9.1 percent female directors and 16.7 percent female Principals.

Although subtle means of discrimination cannot be ruled out, no overt gender discrimination was noted by the study. Socio-cultural constraints coupled with historical factors, the economic value of education, and gender disparities at the lower levels of education seem to contribute largely to the under-representation of women in teaching, senior professional ranks and in administration. Other important factors include lack of professional commitment on the part of female academics, the attraction to Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and political considerations in appointments.
Evidence from the study shows that female academics are not able to transfer to other universities as often as their male colleagues. None of the female respondents had changed institutions, while 36.4% of the male respondents had done so. It was found that females' movements are often restricted by socio-cultural customs and they usually prefer a job that will not separate them from their families. At other times, husband location may restrict a wife's movements.

The findings also show that the promotion and appointments criteria are well documented. However, they are not consistently followed, but rather, keep on being changed to suit different situations. It was found that when it comes to appointments of top administrators like the Vice-Chancellors and their deputies, no open criterion exists in Kenyan public universities. Loyalty to the government, closeness to the Chancellor and the need to reward are some of the criteria followed. In addition to this, the findings also reveal that not infrequently, the universities' administration employs delaying tactics so as not to promote academic staff members. Sometimes interviews are cancelled at the last minute or are not called at all, or the promotion committee fails to meet.

There are other factors besides the promotion criteria which may influence one's promotion in Kenyan public universities. They include 'campus politics' such as ethnicity, nepotism, political affiliation and personal relationships. These factors are, however, not gender sensitive and affect both genders either positively or negatively.
Several measures were advanced by the respondents to help improve female representation in University teaching, senior grades and in administration. They include long term measures, medium-term and short-term measures.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate gender disparities among the academic staff in teaching and in administration in Kenyan public universities. The study also considered whether rewards in the profession in terms of appointments and promotions to various academic ranks/grades were equitably distributed to both men and women academics with similar qualifications. In order to do this, information was sought from the sampled academic staff of the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University. These two universities were purposively selected for the study.

The sample included 33 male academics, and 27 female academics of various academic ranks. The research instruments employed in this study were an interview schedule for the academic staff and a documentary analysis. The researcher used open-ended questions during the interview to elicit verbal responses from the respondents. The information elicited from oral interviews was organised and analysed qualitatively in narrative and discussion form. Documentary analysis, on the other hand, was employed to examine both published and unpublished official documents that were relevant to this study. Descriptive statistics such as frequency counts of academic staff were done using the statistical records of the two universities. Percentages of members of academic staff in various ranks were also calculated. The data from the documents was organised and presented in the form of tables of absolute numbers and percentages, where necessary, or simple descriptions were undertaken.
The data collected by means of the two instruments discussed above were analysed and presented in chapter four in relation to the objectives of the study. On the basis of the findings, various conclusions and recommendations were warranted.

Conclusions

Based on the data collected and analysed in this study, the researcher arrived at several conclusions, elaborated in the paragraphs that follow, concerning gender disparities in university teaching, senior professional ranks/grades and in administration.

Women not only enter into the teaching profession at the university in small numbers but they also obtain promotion much less frequently compared to their male colleagues. Even where they are found in large numbers, their proportions are much lower than those of male academics. In addition, female academics are usually clustered in the faculties of Arts, Social Sciences and in Education. The common factor among these disciplines is that they lead to careers which have traditionally been known to attract women (Boserup, 1970). Few women academics are to be found in programmes that have traditionally been known to be male dominated. Such programmes include Engineering, Veterinary Science and Agriculture, among others. The researcher thus concluded that differential treatments of the sexes in secondary schools or even earlier, and consequently different subject choices at the university, may have contributed to poor female representation in science-oriented disciplines and their clustering in the arts-based ones.

Compared with their male colleagues, very few women are in senior academic ranks of Professor and Associate Professor. Most women academics are clustered in the lower ranks of lecturer and tutorial fellow. The findings also revealed that few women academics have
administrative responsibilities. It was concluded that while subtle means of discrimination cannot
be ruled out as contributing to this situation, the small numbers of women teachers at the
university could have largely contributed to their proportionately small numbers in senior
professional ranks and in administration. No overt gender discrimination was, however, noted in
this study.

It also appears that female academics are less likely to reach higher professional ranks or
be appointed to top administrative posts because women generally suffer surplus repression in the
interests of male supremacy. Surplus repression is that portion which is the result of specific
societal conditions sustained in the interests of domination (Davies, 1987). Such a situation
persists because both men and women have accepted traditional stereotypes as divine laws and
have made them legitimate to the detriment of women. This, coupled with the economic value of
education among various African communities, and historical factors, through which females
were systematically kept out of the school, are the main sources of constraints which have
contributed to poor women representation in teaching, senior grades and in administration as well
as reducing their promotion and appointment prospects.

Evidence from the study revealed that female academics are not able to transfer to other
universities as often as their male colleagues. None of the female respondents had served in more
than one institution, while 36.4 percent of the male respondents had done so. Females'
movements seem to be restricted by socio-cultural norms. Women usually prefer a job that will
not separate them from their families. The researcher concluded that women (especially the
married ones) are of necessity less mobile and are likely to miss opportunities such as promotions
and appointments that arise as a result of changing institutions and the benefits that accrue to
such movements, for instance higher salary and better working conditions.

The promotion and appointments criteria based on merit are well documented. However, they are sometimes not followed and keep on being changed depending on the Vice-Chancellor in charge and the situation. Many respondents complained of the anomalies. Universities also employ delaying tactics so as not to promote academic staff members. At other times, some administrators are kept in office for a long time, with their terms being renewed after expiry, thus denying others a chance of getting appointed. Such a situation creates confusion, discontentment and frustration among the academics, as there seems to be very little to expect for hard work. It was thus concluded that the academic staff in Kenyan Public Universities lack proper incentives to motivate them, especially as promotions and appointments are taken as a symbol of acknowledgement for hard work, which should help in boosting the morale of the university teachers.

No open criterion is followed when it comes to the promotions and appointments of top administrators like the Vice-chancellors and their deputies. Appointments of such persons is very subjective and political. It is very clear that a non-merit set of factors exist in Kenyan Public Universities and sometimes affect the rate of promotion, the range of responsibilities allocated and the opportunities for future success. Tribalism, nepotism and favouritism, closeness to the Chancellor, political loyalties and how one gets along with his/her superiors, seem to play a significant role in allocating various members of academic staff into status positions. Gender seems not to count.
Measures advanced to improve the representation of women in teaching and in administration are both short-term and long-term. The whole society has to participate, starting with the family, the school, the government, the NGOs and the university administration. The contribution of all is needed in order to ameliorate the situation.

We can therefore conclude that improvement in female occupational status and representation not only in Kenyan public universities but also in other sectors does not depend on women’s own efforts alone. It entails more than change in the behaviour of individual women or even of men. It is a call for the reconstruction of each of our society’s basic institutions - the family, the school and political institutions among others. However much women try, they need the support and cooperation of all the members of the society.

Recommendations of the study

From the conclusions made, the researcher wishes to make the following suggestions and recommendations, some of which were given by the respondents.

The study results show that socio-cultural values and beliefs coupled with historical factors and the university administration, among other factors, have led to gender inequalities in Kenyan public universities. These factors have also led to the marginalisation of women in the family, the school and the workplace. Thus to improve the female occupational status and representation in all sectors of life, this study calls for drastic changes in the Kenyan society to deal with customs and prejudices which have existed for a long time to the detriment of women.
However, changing traditional attitudes and practices is a slow process and is easier said than done. The researcher recommends that the government gets fully involved, assuming the role of providing the climate for the required change by making sure that laws are made that positively promote the required change, and that these laws are operative. The government must especially be seen to demonstrate willingness to put appropriate mechanisms in place for examining and possibly adjusting some of the socio-cultural values such as patriarchy, under which household division of labour and child-care responsibilities put a heavy burden on the women while exempting men from the same.

Through media, conferences and workshops, a deliberate effort should be made to sensitize married men and women to share family responsibilities instead of burdening women alone. Parents should also be sensitized to bring up their children equally regardless of gender.

Since conflicts of power and interests are involved in the kind of change stipulated by this study, women have to be able to demand it. Women should stand up to demand what they require as women. Nobody will give it unless it is demanded. Women academics, together with those in other sectors, need to utilise whatever is provided by the government machinery and other social establishments to demand what they perceive as benefiting their advancement.

Public opinion has to be aroused, prejudices and misconceptions have to be combated. Thus, gender sensitive campaigns and programmes should be held throughout the country in an attempt to eradicate the rampant misconceptions existing in our society, for instance that highly educated women are rude and unco-operative; and to create a new image for the female gender.
Women should be empowered with education to enable them compete on equal grounds at all levels with men. The government and the interested NGOs should ensure that girls, especially those from poor families, do not drop out of school due to lack of school fees. This can be done by providing scholarships and bursaries to them. The government should also put up supportive laws such as those dealing with early marriages and circumcision of girls. This will ensure that school girls are not married off prematurely.

Intensive guidance and counselling campaigns should be conducted throughout the country beginning at the lower levels of education through university showing girls that with more effort they can make it just like men. Through such counselling and family planning services, girls should be made aware of the precautions they can take to avoid pregnancies. Female undergraduates should also be encouraged to register for postgraduate studies so that more of them become eligible for university teaching upon graduating with higher degrees.

For those females already in the profession, they should be reminded about their responsibilities and advised to put their priorities right, for instance, as to when to have a baby. Female academics should relieve themselves of most of the family duties by employing house help and making use of modern appliances such as washing machines, electric kettles and cookers. This is an expensive exercise but a little sacrifice is needed. If it is done, it would afford them more free time to pursue their academic work and a chance to serve as administrators.

In addition, child-care programmes and facilities should be introduced. The government in collaboration with the university administration should consider the introduction of day-care facilities for pre-primary and pre-nursery children which will help academic women out of the
To improve the working conditions of the academic staff and to raise their morale, the study recommends that the university administration do the following:

(i) Re-examine the terms of service for academic staff with a view to making them attractive to the members. This could help the members of both genders to get more committed to their work, not to leave for greener pastures especially for senior women and will raise the morale of all university teachers.

(ii) The Promotions and Appointment Criteria for all posts at the University should be made open and available to all members of academic staff so that one knows when he/she is eligible for what post. The criteria should be followed consistently.

(iii) The post of the Vice-Chancellor must be advertised against properly skilled qualities of an individual and should be open to all who qualify. Terms of services for such recruitment should be conducive to attract nationally qualified academic and professional scholars who have recorded excellence for this type of a job.

Having said all this, it should, however, be noted that there is probably no single point where we can exert pressure and expect other institutions to follow suit. Rather, in order to improve women's status in one sphere, we must also make adjustments in others. Thus, increasing female opportunities in teaching and administration will achieve very little if all the domestic responsibilities continue to be heaped on them. This study calls for a wholistic approach. Women must work hard as individuals and together with others, in cooperation with
men, the university administration and the government system to try to effect change. Holding conferences by women on the existing gender gaps and blaming men or the society for women's woes will not help improve women status in any sector. The cooperation and active participation of all is needed.

Suggestions for Further Research

This study covered only two of the five Kenyan Public Universities and did not include private universities. From the discussion of the findings, it is apparent that many factors contribute to poor women representation in teaching and administration. Similar research can be conducted in other public universities so that the identified factors which are proved valid can be dealt with at a national level. A larger sample can also be used to show the difference in the findings and generalisations this may call for. A comparison could be made between the public and private universities. This would definitely provide more reliable generalisations.

Evidence from the study reveals that women academics are not actively involved in writing and publishing of articles and books as do men. They exhibit a lesser attachment to their work, with the majority of them being content with teaching and specialising in home management. However, the study also reveals that socio-cultural constraints such as care for the home and family more than anything else hinder them from participating in academic advancement activities.
Research could be conducted in this area to:

(i) Examine the publication rate of female academics in comparison to that of male academics.

(ii) Investigate whether female academics are really content with teaching, and specialising in home-management or whether they do it because they do not seriously conceive of any alternatives and also because they feel handicapped.

(iii) Identify ways that may help women reduce their role in child-care and other home responsibilities so as to become more actively involved in university teaching and administration.
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Kenyatta University. Nairobi.


Table 2.1A  Teaching Staff Distribution Across Gender for Makerere University and the University of Swaziland

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty Area of Specialisation</th>
<th>Makerere University</th>
<th>University of Swaziland</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professor Associate Lecturer</td>
<td>Professor Associate Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M F M F M F</td>
<td>M F M F M F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agric. &amp; Forestry</td>
<td>6 0 4 0 15 0 27 3 3 0 1 0 6 1 18 8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>5 0 4 3 13 0 27 9 3 0 0 0 2 0 9 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 0 12 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>2 0 3 0 11 3 18 2 0 0 0 0 5 0 6 2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>2 0 1 0 2 0 3 4 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>6 0 7 0 23 1 45 7 2 0 1 0 4 0 18 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science</td>
<td>4 0 6 0 7 2 20 6 0 0 4 0 5 0 18 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technology</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veterinary</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre for Cont. Ed.</td>
<td>0 0 1 0 0 0 9 2 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Librarianship</td>
<td>0 0 1 0 0 0 03 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institute of Statistics</td>
<td>1 0 2 0 1 0 7 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library services</td>
<td>1 0 0 2 0 4 7 2 0 0 0 0 0 2 0 2 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>4 0 7 1 15 9 18 9 1 1 0 0 3 0 2 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>44 1 43 7 134 23 301 56 9 1 6 1 25 3 73 31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Muli, K.A. Gender Issues as they relate to the work environment in Universities in Africa. Kenyatta University (1995).
## Appendix (ii)

**TABLE: 2: Ia**

Kenyatta University Faculty Members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACULTY</th>
<th>Professor</th>
<th>Associate Professor</th>
<th>Senior Lecturer</th>
<th>Lecturer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ARTS</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>COMMERCE</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EDUCATION</strong></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES</strong></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SCIENCE</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PERCENTAGE</strong></td>
<td>100</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Personnel Data Office - 1994
Appendix iii

REPORT ON CRITERIA FOR APPOINTMENTS AND PROMOTION OF ACADEMIC STAFF IN KENYATTA UNIVERSITY

The Committee set the following criteria for Appointments and Promotion of staff in various categories.

1. GRADUATE ASSISTANT
   (i) That those who have good first degrees at least upper second honours can be employed as graduate assistants.
   (ii) That they are not academic staff members.
   (iii) That they must register for higher degrees.
   (iv) That the graduate assistants must not conduct examinations.

2. TUTORIAL FELLOWS
   (i) That the tutorial fellow should have at least a masters degree.
   (ii) That the tutorial fellows should be able to demonstrate potential for University teaching and/or research.

3. ASSISTANT LECTURER
   (i) That the assistant lecturer should have at least a masters degree or its equivalent.
   (ii) That the assistant lecturer should demonstrate potential for university teaching and/or research.

4. LECTURER/RESEARCH FELLOW
   That the lecturer should possess a master’s degree or its equivalent with one year’s relevant experience or a Ph.D. degree.
5. SENIOR LECTURER/SENIOR RESEARCH FELLOW

That one should possess a Ph.D. degree. In special cases/areas masters degrees may be considered, or a recognised professional qualification of equivalent status.

- Have at least 3 years experience as a university lecturer or in doing research at university level.
- Have at least 3 articles in refereed journals since becoming a lecturer or at least one refereed book in candidate's professional area, published by recognized publishers, plus one article in a refereed journal.
- At least 3 distinguished exhibitions or performances of original creation plus, one article in a refereed journal.
- One should be able to supervise post graduate degree candidates.
- He/she should show proof of attendance and contribution at learned conferences, seminars and workshops.
- He/she should possess scholarstic recognition/artistic recognition honours for outstanding professional/scholarstic contribution.
- He/she should show evidence of good quality teaching.
- He/she should possess good leadership qualities.

6. ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR

- He/she should possess a Ph.D. degree or its academic equivalent or a recognised professional qualification of equivalent status.
- He/she should show evidence of good quality teaching at undergraduate and postgraduate levels.
• Have at least 5 years teaching experience as a senior lecturer at university or 8 years as a lecturer and above.

• He/she should have at least 4 articles in refereed journals since being appointed senior lecturer or at least 2 refereed books in candidates professional area published or at least 4 published distinguished and refereed exhibitions or performances or original creations plus 2 published articles in refereed journals.

• He/she should show evidence of continuing research and publications.

• He/she should have supervised postgraduate degree students.

• Should show attendance and contribution at learned conferences, seminars and workshops.

• Should possess clear command of knowledge and practice in one’s area of specialization.

• Should have administrative experience where applicable/or active participation in departmental activities including academic advising.

7. PROFESSOR

• Have a Ph.D. degree or its academic equivalent or a recognised professional qualification of equivalent status.

• Show evidence of effective teaching undergraduate students and supervision of postgraduate students.

• Have at least 12 years experience in teaching or research since being appointed university lecturer or at least 5 years experience in teaching or research since being appointed associated professor.

• Have at least 6 articles in refereed journals, since being appointed associate professor or published at least 3 refereed books in candidate’s area of specialisation published by recognised publishers or 6 distinguished and refereed exhibitions or performances of original creation plus 4 published articles in refereed journals.
• Should show evidence of continuing research and publications.
• Should have had attendance and contribution at learned conferences, seminars and workshops.
• Should have had administrative experience where applicable/active participation in departmental activities/students' academic advising.
• Should have outstanding command of knowledge and practice in one’s area of specialization.
• Should show evidence of academic leadership in one’s area of specialisation.
Appendix iv

An interview schedule for the academic staff of the University of Nairobi and Kenyatta University

STUDY: A survey of Gender Disparities among the academic staff in Teaching and Administration in Kenyan Public Universities.

Introduction:

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this interview. The purpose of this study is to investigate gender disparities among the academic staff in teaching and administration in Kenyan public universities and to consider whether rewards in the profession in terms of appointments to Administrative posts and promotions to various academic ranks/grades are distributed to both men and women teachers equitably if they have similar qualifications.

There are two sections to this interview. Section A will request for information on promotions of academic staff in Teaching; while Section B will request for information about the appointments of academic staff to administrative responsibilities. Your help in offering information for this research will be highly appreciated.
SECTION A

Promotion of Academic Staff in Teaching

1. In our public universities, one way of rewarding our academic staff is through promotions from one grade to another.
   - Investigate the length of service as a member of teaching staff in public universities.
   - Investigate whether they have been promoted during their years of service and how long they had served before any promotion.
   - Seek to know whether they have changed the institutions of teaching for the purpose of promotion and how this may be a disadvantage to the gender that is not able to transfer so often.
   - Inquire whether they expect any further promotion and why.
   - Seek for views of those not promoted on why they think they have not been promoted.

2. (a) You are probably aware of the laid down university criteria for the promotions of academic staff. What are some of the most important criteria considered?
   (b) In your view, do you think that these criteria are a disadvantage to any gender?
       - Probe further with regard to representation of women in teaching; and in higher grades.
       - Investigate on whether there are other factors considered during promotions of academic staff (Apart from the laid down university criteria; and on whether these factors may inhibit certain gender from being promoted.)
SECTION B

Academic Staff with Administrative Responsibilities:

3. How are academic staff appointed to administrative duties/post?
   - Investigate how various posts in the public universities (e.g. those of the Vice-chancellor, the Dean, chairmen of the Department etc.) are filled.
   - Probe for views of whether they think the procedures followed when appointing academic staff to any administrative post favour any gender.
   - Probe further with regard to representation of women in administration: seeking the factors that make them less favoured for appointments to administrative position.
   - Probe for views on what measures could be taken to improve the representation of women in teaching, senior ranks and in administration.
   - Please if you have any additional comments, suggestions regarding the issue of gender disparities in Kenyan public universities, the chance is yours.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION