GLASS CEILING FOR WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT IN KENYA: A CASE STUDY OF THE KENYA REVENUE AUTHORITY

JANE MUTHONI KARIUKI
REG NO: N69/68860/2011

A PROJECT PAPER SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE OF ANTHROPOLOGY, GENDER AND AFRICAN STUDIES IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT STUDIES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

2018

DECLARATION

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

Signature..   Date …………………………….
Jane Muthoni Kariuki

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

Signature..   Date …………………………….
Professor Simiyu Wandibba

DEDICATION

This project paper is dedicated to my loving and dear mother, Nancy Kariuki, who has always encouraged and supported me throughout my life. She has been, and still is, the pillar of strength in my life. I thank you mum.

To the rest of the family, finishing this project would have been impossible if it were not for your constant impetus in concluding this long overdue paper. Let us keep encouraging one another.

Finally, to my friends, for your wonderful support and great inputs you are much appreciated.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To God, who made all this possible. All glory unto him.

I would like to thank Professor Simiyu Wandibba first and foremost for agreeing to be my supervisor in lieu of the short notice. I am grateful for his systematic guidance constructive criticism, open door policy and above all for his time and effort as he supervised me throughout the project process.

I would like to acknowledge the team at the Institute of Anthropology, Gender and African Studies, especially James Ng'iela, who was instrumental in getting me to this stage of finalizing my research project.

Lastly, many thanks to some of my classmates who encouraged me to finish what we started back in 2011. Thank you all.

ABSTRACT

The general objective of this study was to explore the existing glass ceiling for women in management at the Kenya Revenue Authority (KRA). Specifically, the study sought to: establish how gender stereotypes act as a barrier to career advancement of women at KRA; determine the extent to which gender roles and family responsibilities are hindrances to women careers in KRA; and assess whether the organizational structures at KRA promote the lack of career progression for women at the organization. The study was informed by social role theory. The study used a case study research design, and targeted all the 70 women employees at the KRA headquarters. The findings reveal that gender stereotypes act as a barrier to career advancement of women at KRA. The findings also indicate that gender roles and family responsibilities are hindrances to women careers in KRA. Further, the findings show that the organizational structures at KRA did not promote career progression for women in KRA. The study therefore concludes that there exists glass ceiling for women in management in KRA. The study also concludes that gender roles and family responsibilities hinder women to advance their careers. Further, the study concludes that the organizational structures at KRA promote lack of career progression for women. The study, therefore, recommends that Kenya Revenue Authority should embrace an organizational culture that supports gender diversity. Gender diversity would help to ensure that there are equal opportunities for women and men. The study also recommends that KRA should revise its policies to allow women to be appointed to top leadership positions.

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CBD - Central Business District

CEO - Chief Executive Officer

CoK - Constitution of Kenya

ILO - International Labour Organization

KESRA - Kenya School of Revenue Administration

KRA - Kenya Revenue Authority

OECD- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

SPSS - Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

WEF- World Economic Forum

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The phenomenon of glass ceiling has been described by Hymowitz and Schellhardt (1986), as the lack of upward career progression for women and minorities into executive management ranks in corporate jobs. One's intellect and competence is limited to a certain point when women face challenges of making progress beyond this point. Thus, women are side-lined and unable to progress past these limits. Not only do women managers frequently find themselves pressing up against a glass ceiling, they often find themselves on display under glass pushing against these limits without adequate support (Hymowitz and Schellhardt, 1986).

As women endeavoured to progress past managerial positions in the middle level in the 1970s, they encountered undetectable obstruction that prevented them from securing higher positions (Foley *et al.*, 2002; Northouse, 2013). These ceilings keep women and minority groups from achieving the best corporate positions and addresses neither their capacities nor execution record. Nevertheless, splits have now started to show up in the discriminatory constraint and ladies are making it into best positions, albeit only in small numbers (Eagly and Carli, 2007).

The concept of glass ceiling was embraced as an alternative explanation that describes the limited representation of female employees in top management organizations. The glass ceiling is an illustration of looking at gender inconsistencies among people inside the work environment. The circumstance is alluded to as roof as there is a confinement blocking upward professional success and glass since it is not easily evident and is typically an unwritten and informal arrangement. The existence of this imperceptible obstruction is persistent, despite the fact that there are no express snags shielding minorities from obtaining propelled work positions (Stockdale and Crosby, 2004).

According to David (2017), the obstacles are artificial in the sense that they are cultural and psychological considerations that are not formal limitations like education, skills and physical requirements for the job. The glass ceiling is a strong weapon that prevents individuals, in this case women, from rising to occupy top positions in an organization.

The application of glass ceiling leads to immobility of female employees in various occupations. In organizations where the barriers of job advancements are equal, it leads to discrimination in career advancement.

Women's depiction in decision-making levels has improved at the global level in recent years. However, research still shows challenges faced by women to move to senior levels of leadership in management in both public and private sectors. Particularly, this problem is prominent in developing countries although there are more women in employment compared to other countries. Advancement as characterized by representation in management positions with the population proportion, remains moderately languid and sporadic in differing nations and societies (Davidson, 2012).

The increased women representation in the workplace has helped in shaping the international labour markets by advancing a change in gender roles in the workplace. However, there are issues of biased proportionate women's gains in the representation at different levels of leadership including the procedures of management, promotion and compensation (Kim *et al.,* 2014).

Whiteley (2013) argues that the first category of women managers was witnessed between the late 1960s and early 1970s in America. There has been slow increase but overall women are still limited in the public managerial positions and political arena. This is because there have been only limited chances for female workers to move up the corporate ladder within different contexts and cultural practices.

In some cases, cultural practices have influenced the exclusion of women in managerial positions based on the gender roles and responsibilities. Various studies have been done on gender and the position of women in managerial positions in both the public and private sectors. For example, Werner and DeSimone (2011) established that progression at work was a series of activities where professional objectives and goals at individual level are realized based on required skills and knowledge. The journey for career growth therefore starts with a conducive environment where opportunities exist for all employees, irrespective of gender. Discrimination of women in access to training opportunities and practical experience creates a hindrance to the attainment of the career growth among women, hence limiting their rise at the workplaces.

Globally, women have continued to acquit themselves with higher education in larger numbers than ever before. In fact, women account for over 40% of the workforce worldwide. However, a lot of administration positions remain unsuitably low, with only a modest extent prevailing with regards to getting through the unreasonable impediment (Wirth, 2001). In spite of more than three decades of research having recorded the obstructions facing women looking for top managerial positions, the underlying factors that bar women are still unknown.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

There have been notable improvements on the issues facing women in management. However, women still face various barriers and challenges when it comes to their career advancement to management positions. Research on existence of glass ceilings can be dated back to the 1980s. However, even now much still remains regarding this area of research. Only limited research has been done on the barriers and challenges to the growth of women in employment, yet the existence of both external and internal limitations in organizations is a reality. Watts *et al*. (2015) note that the existence of external limitations is linked to the environment while the internal limitations are within the organization. The internal limitations are seen as barriers of a psychological nature that significantly create low self-esteem in relation to perceptions of female employees at the workplace. The self-perception directly affects the individual abilities in showing interest to potential advancement in career, thus leading to forfeiture of existing opportunities for career growth.

There are various roles that are considered to suit women more than other roles, for instance, most human resource, finance, legal counsel, communication and secretarial roles. However, it is very rare for women to hold CEO, strategy, general line and production positions. This leads to consistent underrepresentation in senior management. Additionally, the compensation for the few women who make it to hold these positions is skewed resulting in an inequality in the compensation between men and women (Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Agency, 2008).

At the global level, there has been a revolution in the number of female employees from the 1970s to the beginning of the twenty-first century. As Lazreg (2000: 72) argues, an increase of 9.3% of women in gainful employment was realized at the beginning of the twenty-first century compared to 38% in the late 1970s. However, the same study

indicates that the bulk of the women were largely in low occupational positions with little evidence of career progression through up-ward mobility. A report by the World Economic Forum on the gender gap in November 2017 expounds further on this issue. The report revealed that it will take 100 years to close the gender gap globally. While the world is working towards closing the education gap, it is yet to translate its intent into action on representation and voice in other areas. By focusing on the purpose of busting the myths about women, the world can then unlearn the assumptions about women and begin to think how it can accelerate its progress (WEF, 2017: 53).

In Kenya, irrespective of the increased involvement of women in the workforce, the representation of women in the top echelons of public decision and policy making positions is wanting. Of the 462 board seats of listed companies at NSE, women held positions account for only 9.5 per cent. Only twenty-three of these companies, less than half, the majority of which are multinationals, have women executives (ILO, 2015). This study therefore explored the factors that prevent female workers from rising to the top of management positions at KRA and sought answers to the following research questions:

   i.   Do gender stereotypes act as a barrier to women career advancement at KRA and, if so, to what extent?

   ii. To what extent are gender roles and family responsibilities hindrances to women careers at KRA?

   iii. Does the organizational structure at KRA influence the lack of opportunities for women in management positions?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

To explore the existing glass ceiling for women in management in the Kenya Revenue Authority (KRA).

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

i.   To establish how gender stereotypes act as a barrier to career advancement of women at KRA.

ii. To determine the extent to which gender roles and family responsibilities are hindrances to women careers in KRA.

iii. To assess whether the organizational structures promote the lack of career progression for women in KRA.

1.4 Assumptions of the Study

i.   Gender stereotypes act as a barrier to career advancement of women at KRA.

ii. Gender roles and family responsibilities are a hindrance to women career advancement at KRA.

iii. Organizational structures at KRA promote the lack of career progression for women in the organization.

1.5 Justification of the study

To starts with, the study findings are expected to act as an eye opener to the KRA management on their status of inclusion of women in leadership position. Through the human resource departments, KRA can take deliberate steps to enhance gender diversity across all levels of management. Secondly, other parastatals will benefit from the results of the study and give the management insights into the importance of gender diversity in their leadership.

By understanding the theoretical underpinning of stereotypic behaviour and attitudes, institutions like the National Gender and Equality Commission (NGICC), should be able to design programme to address the root causes of stereotypes and discrimination in executive selection. Similarly, non-governmental organizations and the civil society should find the results of this study useful in their advocacy work. The study will also

be beneficial to other scholars and researchers with regard to further research. Finally, the study has added to the knowledge database on the research problem.

1.6 Scope and Limitations of the Study

This study focused on the factors responsible for the glass ceiling for women in management at KRA. The study adopted a case study research design and was guided by social role theory. Various limitations were experienced. To start with, reaching out to the sampled respondents was not easy. The limitation was mitigated by seeking permission from the management at KRA. Additionally, the researcher encountered a challenge booking appointments with the key informants. To migate this limitation the researcher worked with the best time that was convenient for these informants.

1.7 Definition of Terms

Affirmative action: Is an arrangement whereby one's nationality, sex, religion, and rank are considered by a private or a government organization to stretch out work or education opportunities.

Barriers: These are hindrances set in place with the aim of creating an obstruction from getting to the next stage or level of advancement.

Career advancement: This alludes to the upward movement of one's profession. For instance, an individual can progress by moving from a lower cadre job to a higher cadre one inside a similar field.

Gender: A term used to describe the qualities of women and men that are socially built, rather than sex which alludes to those attributes that are biologically determined.

Gender equality: It is the equal treatment of men and women with regard to opportunities, access to services and distribution of resources and benefits.

Gender roles: A set of societal norms dictating what types of behaviours are generally considered acceptable, appropriate, or desirable for person based on their actual or perceived gender. These are usually centred around opposing conceptions of femininity and masculinity, although there are myriad exceptions and variations.

Gender stereotypes: This is the characterization of a particular group of people on the basis of their gender. Though gender stereotypes are prominently seen as having negative undertones, they can also have positive ones.

Glass ceiling: It is the inescapable safe and undetectable obstruction to the endeavours of women and minorities to achieve the best positions of administration in significant companies. It is not clear as to who came up with the idea, but the term was intensely utilized in the mid-1980s.

Decision-making: Refers to the thought process of selecting a logical choice from the available options.

Organizational culture: This refers to the particular accumulation of qualities and standards that are shared by individuals and people in an organization and that control the manner in which they collaborate with one another and with partners outside the organization.

Organizational structure: Refers to the specific working relationships among people and their jobs to efficiently achieve that purpose.

Management: This refers to the hierarchical capacities that incorporate arranging, sorting out, controlling and driving with the end goal to accomplish an organization's objectives and targets.

Work-Life balance: Refers to the balance that an individual requires between the time allocated to work and other aspects of the individual's life.

Parastatals: Are companies, agencies, or intergovernmental organizations, established under the State Corporation Act (Cap.446 of the laws of Kenya), which gives them autonomy. They serve the organization or the state either directly or indirectly.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews previous studies on the research problem. The literature is reviewed using the following sub-headings: introduction, gender stereotyping, organizational structures and gender roles. The chapter ends with a discussion of the theory that guided the study.

2.2 Literature Review

2.2.1 Introduction

There is a huge collection of information regarding the matter of women in administration. In Kenya, women constitute of more than half of the human resource capital. However, available information shows that women are underrepresented in leadership positions in institutions owned by the government, despite the fact it is the body responsible for formulation of policies relating to women issues (Lodiaga and Mbevi, 1995).

A study conducted by the International Labour Organization (ILO, 2018) revealed that in spite of remarkable advancement in women employment over the past 20 years, there remains imbalances among women and men with regard to access to employment and better conditions at work. The ILO Deputy Director-General for Policies, Deborah Greenfield, also said that in spite of the advancement and efforts to ensure inclusion of women, the composition of women in the workforce is as yet far from being equivalent to men's (ILO, 2018). As indicated by the Deputy Director-General for Policies, "Regardless of whether it is about access to employment, wage imbalance, we have to accomplish more to turn around this relentless, inadmissible pattern by formulating policies that cater for women needs, considering the unequal responsibilities they have to take care of in their households" (p. 9). Damian Grimshaw, the Director of the ILO Research Department, likewise observed that "the unending challenges and snags for women dampens the likelihood for existence of avenues for financial development with social advancement. Hence, there remains an overarching need to minimize gender

inequality in the corporate world if at all the we wat to achieve gender equity and empower all women and girls by 2030" (ILO, 2018: 11).

A study done in South Africa investigated the glass ceiling effect in Durban. The researcher formulated an electronic questionnaire which was self-administered 290 women, 117 of whom responded. Results revealed that women faced various challenges when scaling up the ladder such as disrespect from male counterparts, lack of access to high level positions and lack of support for women, bearing in mind that they have many responsibilities compared to men (Kiaye and Singh, 2013: 28).

Similarly, Frank (2001) conducted a survey on attitude among 72 managers from a prominent business school in Beijing. Results revealed that there existed a glass ceiling for women as they scaled up the management hierarchy. It was estimated that it would take up to 32 years for equality to be achieved. Women were depicted as being more uncouth, slower, weaker, more of supporters than pioneers, more indulgent, more democratic, less dynamic and friendlier than male directors. All these point out to gender-based stereotypes which affect women as potential managers in organizations (Frank, 2001: 36).

Some previous work by the UN reveals that gender inequality in the corporate sector is a serious menace. According to a report by the UN Development Programme flagship (UN, 2016), women representation is not proportional in both politics and leadership positions in Africa. The case is different for different countries, for instance, Rwanda's lower parliament has the majority number of women. However, in general, women are missing from political offices. This is not on the grounds that women are not interested in politics but rather because on average women are lesser than that of men by five per cent. The private sector also presents the same challenge whereby only 22% of the high ranking positions belong to women. This scenario is not only existent in Africa but also in North America and Developed Asia (UN, 2016).

In Kenya, cases of gender discrimination have been in existence for a long period of time. This is evident in matters related to access to employment economic ventures. This pattern has led to increased joblessness, under-work, destitution and weakness among numerous Kenyan women. Part of the explanation for the constant imbalance is the moderate procedure of mainstreaming gender into work creation and poverty alleviation approaches, projects and systems in an organized, multi-sectoral and

9

crosscutting way. Other reasons identified include the presence of social, cultural and structural obstacles to viable female inclusion in the labour force. These aspects help to explain the cause of the persistent misrepresentation of women and inequitable compensation for women in both the private and public sectors (Suda, 2002).

2.2.2 Gender Stereotyping

The main contention of the gender-centred point of view is that gender is a major determinant of a person's inclinations, capacities, abilities and practices. Since men are characteristically thought to be more skilful than women, they constitute the larger percentage in managerial positions. A related way to deal with the gender-centred methodology is the reciprocal methodology which contends that despite the fact that men and women are distinctive, each makes some significant contributions to the organization (Fagenson-Eland and Paker, 1998).

Old ways of viewing leadership aptitudes, capability, and decisiveness may impede the capacity of women to prevail in administration. A lot of companies connect manly qualities with progress and accomplishment. These incorporate decisiveness, forcefulness, and undertaking focused initiative capacities (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Gender stereotypes of women incorporate the desire for being humble, tranquil, sacrificial, and sustaining. These straightforward attributes might be viewed as non-official material. Entities want a pioneer who will execute, take feedback, and do what is best for the organization at all expenses (Nelson and Levesque, 2007).

Women tend to be uncomfortable with attracting attention to their own merit regarding what they deserve, as it would go against the feminine stereotype. Women who display their accomplishments chance being viewed as pompous, though such conduct is viewed as an ordinary manly attribute (Hansen, 2009). For men, there is a positive connection between being fruitful and being viewed as pleasant; however, for women, the relationship is negative. In this manner, there is a hidden gender inclination, whereby women are side-lined and end up missing out on opportunities, promotions, or salary increases at the work place (Yee *et al.,* 2015).

In general, men are considered better managers and mostly male character traits are regarded as depicting a good manager. Thus, women who brace themselves and take

up managerial positions experience a lot of criticism if they make a mistake compared to their male counterparts (Brescoll *et al.,* 2010).

2.2.3 Organizational Structures

The structure and culture of companies are generally not organized to suit women qualities. This is principally on the grounds that women join these organizations rather late (Meyerson, 2001; Bierema and Opengart, 2002). According to Linehan and Scullion (2005), women are normally put in non-key divisions as opposed to expert and administration employments, which dampens their career advancement.

Research by Robbins (2001) and Kim *et al*. (2014) concentrated on manly hierarchical culture as a clarification for the discriminatory limitation level, that is, an organization culture may create a boundary for women career growth. Organizations reflect society's thoughts regarding which group of workers are proper for the various types of employment. Despite the fact that unemployment and promotion choices in organizations should be founded on level-headed and universal criteria, they frequently express casual and socially adequate assumptions regarding gender, race, and class of people most appropriate for specific positions. Jamali *et al*. (2006) observe that another obstruction is the absence of good examples for women managers because of their misrepresentation in executive positions.

Wood (2006) carried out a follow-up investigation of a 1996 overview that reviewed how managers in the middle level perceived promotion. Most of the members in the overview had a great reaction to the inquiry, "Would you like to get a senior administration position amid your administrative profession?" Additionally, they were asked, "How certain are you that this will occur?" and "How long do you feel this will take before it occurs?" The study interviewed 11 female and 19 male managers with the goal of discovering their expectation for the occurrence of a promotion, the components that could have prevented their promotion, individual methodologies utilized and future desires for promotion. The female managers stated that factors that blocked advancement were that CEOs favoured their companions in the job, the "Young men Club" stereotyping, and also being a lady, raising children, maternity leave, being the main lady in a gathering of men, the absence of chance and absence of experience. More male managers indeed got promoted to senior jobs and within a shorter period than their female counterparts. Men were divided on the subject of

whether they would look forward to being promoted while women revealed that they would be less inclined to seek a promotion. Results also revealed that only one woman of those interviewed had made it to the senior level of management but had no desire of seeking a higher position in her organization (Wood, 2006: 52).

2.2.4 Gender Roles

The ability of professional women to integrate work and family is not well understood. Women continually face more family demands and household responsibilities. Traditional gender ideologies continue to influence the division of labour- and thereby the constraints of domestic realm on outside work- even when both men and women are competitively employed (Bowles and McGinn, 2008).

The double burden syndrome faced by most women is described by Mckinsey (2012) as the combination of work and domestic responsibilities. Women are at the focal point of family life (maternity), youngster raising, arranging family life and taking care of the elderly. The effect of the limitations differs from one nation to the next due to disparities in the type of help offered by the family and government. It gives the idea that ladies encounter a few difficulties maintaining their work life balance.

There remain societal expectations of what kinds of behaviours are culturally acceptable for respectable women. Women who fail to adhere to these expectations put themselves at risk of ridicule, abuse and loss of support. Women are expected to go back home in the evening to cook and take care of their family (Griffen, 2006).

The work-life balance that we yearn for is an inside-out approach. If parenting is gender-equal, so is housework. Studies have shown that children do better when parents share equal household chores and equal responsibility of childcare. Companies have to first implement gender-equal policies that benefit both women and men, for example, paternity leave allocation for men (OECD, 2017).

2.3 Theoretical Framework
2.3.1 Social Role Theory

This study was guided by the social role theory as propounded by A.H. Eagly in 1987. Social role theory is a social mental hypothesis that clarifies the sex contrasts and similitudes in social conduct (Eagly, 1987). Its key principle is that differences and

similitudes emerge fundamentally from the distribution of people into social roles within their society. Through socialization and the arrangement of gender roles, the practices of men and women generally assist and maintain the division of work. Thus, men are seen as providers and agentic and women are homemakers and communal, and it is usually anticipated that would adjust to the jobs assigned to them (Unger, 2001).

Social role theory argues that in industrialized economies, for example, social roles are organized so that women are more likely than men to be homemakers and primary caretakers of children and to hold caretaking jobs in the paid economy. On the other hand, men are more likely than women to be primary family providers and to assume full-time roles in the paid economy, often those that involve physical strength, assertiveness, or leadership skills (Eagly, 1987).

Further, because of the observation that females are nurturing and supportive, they are viewed as being more suited to jobs in accordance with that and they are, therefore, considered as not being suited for basic leadership jobs in administration (Wood, 2008). Consequently, inside the work environment women are frequently observed as unsuited for leadership positions as the social jobs they possess are seen as being at variance with leadership positions because administration is more connected with men. This has led to men being preferred for leadership as they are more likely to occupy senior positions.

To summarize, social and gender roles impact how we see and understand people's conduct. These gender roles impact our desires for how these people ought to and ought not to carry on.

2.3.2 Relevance of the Theory to the Study

This theory was relevant to this study because it explains why women are viewed in a certain way by society. According to the theory, women are perceived to be homemakers and caregivers as opposed to men who are viewed as bread winners. Thus, women are perceived not to be best suited to hold leadership roles. This explains why even in the corporate sector only few women have managed to climb up the ladder to hold top leadership positions. This informs our study since the social perception of women's roles has led to the existence of a glass ceiling for women across all sectors (Figure 2.1).

13

Independent variables　　　　　　　　　　　**Dependent variable**

Gender stereotypes
- Societal expectations
- Victimization of women

Organizational culture
- Lack of opportunity
- Informal structures

Gender roles
- Family responsibilities
- Work/life balance

Glass ceiling for women in management
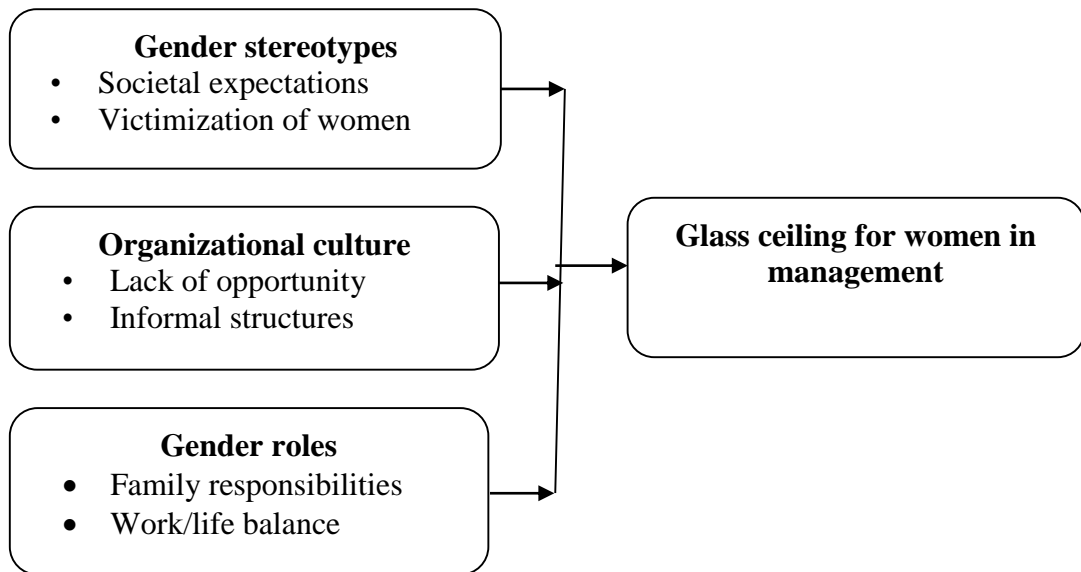
Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLDOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research site, research design, study population, sample population and sampling procedure, and methods of data collection and analysis. The chapter ends with a discussion of the ethical issues that were taken into consideration.

3.2 Research Site

The study was done in Nairobi City County. Nairobi City County is one of the 47 counties of Kenya. It is the smallest yet most populous of the counties; it is coterminous with the city of Nairobi, which is also the capital and largest city of Kenya. Nairobi County was founded in 2013 on the same boundaries as Nairobi Province, after Kenya's 8 provinces were subdivided into 47 counties (GoK, 2018). In the last census, the County had a population of approximately 3,138,369 (KNBS, 2009). It is located in an area of 694.9 km² (GOK, 2018). The research was carried out at Times Tower in the Central Business District (CBD).

3.3 Research Design

This study used a case study research design. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), a case study method enables a researcher to closely examine the data within a specific context. In most cases, a case study method selects a small geographical area or a very limited number of individuals as the subjects of study. This research design was suitable for this study since the study focused on one parastatal. The study used primary data collected using structured and key informant interviews. Quantitative data were analysed using simple descriptive statistics while qualitative data were analyzed using content analysis. Findings from quantitative data are presented using charts and tables while those from qualitative data are presented in continuous prose.

3.4 Target Population and Unit of Analysis

The target population consisted of all the 70 women employees at the KRA headquarters. The unit of analysis was the woman employee at the headquarters.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

The study did not sample but rather conducted a census of the entire population. According to Kothari (2004), a census is conducted when the population is small. Hence, the sample size was 70 respondents.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

3.6.1 Structured Interviews

These were conducted using a structured questionnaire (Appendix II). According to Newing (2011), a questionnaire comprises of a progression of particular, normally short inquiries/proclamations that are either asked verbally by a questioner or replied by the respondent all alone. The questionnaire had items on all the variables in the study. In addition, the respondents' demographic profile was requested for. The questionnaires were self-administered using the drop and pick later method.

3.6.2 Key Informant Interviews

In this study, the researcher conducted key informant interviews with three women holding managerial positions. A key informant interview guide (Appendix III) contained open-ended questions, which were linked to the study objectives. The interviews were face-to-face.

3.7 Data Processing and Analysis

The study collected both quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data were edited for completes and then analysed using Microsoft excel and Statistical Software for Social Sciences (SPSS). Simple descriptive statistics were used to generate frequencies and means from the data. On the other hand, qualitative data were grouped into themes that rhymed with the research objectives and analysed using content analysis.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Ethical research practices were observed throughout the study. First, consent to carry out the research was sought from KRA. This helped in eliminating any kind of conflicts that might have arisen from the respondents. Second, the purpose of the study was clearly explained to the respondents. It was made clear that the data to be collected would be for the sole purpose of academic research and the information received would not be used by external or internal stakeholders for any other purposes. All information provided was treated with utmost confidentiality and with no bias. Finally, sensitivity to the participants' emotions was observed when probing questions. Full disclosure, fair treatment and privacy were also practised.

CHAPTER FOUR

GLASS CEILING FOR WOMEN IN MANAGEMENT IN THE KENYA REVENUE AUTHORITY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study. The findings are presented in the following sub-headings: demographic information, gender stereotyping, gender roles and family responsibilities, organizational structures glass and ceiling for women in management.

4.2 Response Rate

Seventy (70) questionnaires were given out to the respondents. Of the 70, 58 questionnaires were correctly filled and returned. This meant that the return rate was 82.9%. This return rate was acceptable for this study.

4.3 Demographic Information

To start with, the study enquired into the background information of the respondents. This comprised the age of the respondent, marital status, highest level of education and number of children. The respondents were also supposed to state their employment status, number of years in the organization and the position held in the organization.

4.3.1 Age

The respondents were asked to indicate their age. Results are as presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Age of Respondents

Age bracket	Frequency	Percentage
20-25	5	8.6
26-30	17	29.3
31-35	27	46.6
36-40	9	15.5
Total	**58**	**100**

The results in Table 4.1 reveal that 32.8% of the respondents were aged between 26 and 30 years, 29.3% were aged 31-35 years, 15.5% were aged 36-40 years, 13.8% were more than 40 years while 8.6% were aged 20-25 years. These results suggest that the

18

majority of the respondents were young and their number decreased with increase in age. This can be explained by the fact that only a few women stay in employment long enough. Thus, to uphold gender diversity the organization has many new employees who are young.

4.3.2 Marital Status

The study sought to establish the marital status of the respondents. The results were as shown in Figure 4.1.
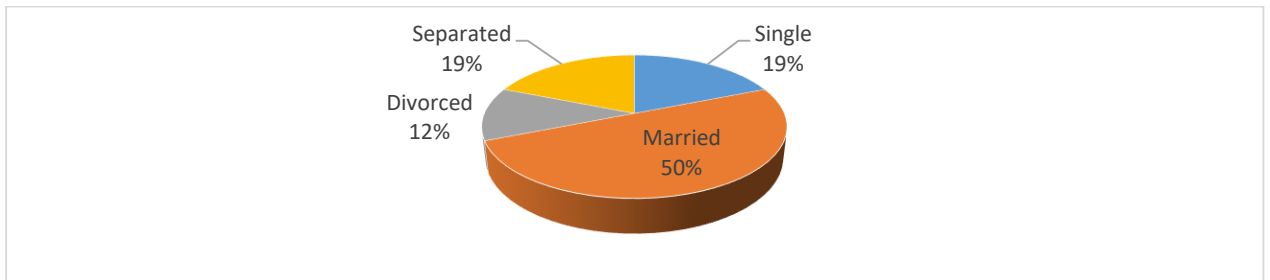
Figure 4.1: Marital status of the respondents

The findings in Figure 4.1 show that half (50%) of the respondents were married, 25% were single, 19% were separated and 12% were divorced. As shown by the results, most of the respondents were married. Those respondents who were married were asked to state whether their family influences decisions such as working station. In response, the respondents agreed that their family did influence their working station since they had to maintain a balance between attending to both work and family obligations.

4.3.3 Level of Education

The respondents were asked to indicate their level of education and the results were as presented in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2: Level of education of the respondents**

Highest educational qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Secondary	3	5.2
College	16	27.6
Graduate	35	60.3
Post-Graduate	4	6.9
Total	**58**	**100**

The results in Table 4.2 reveal that 60.3% of the respondents had attained education up to university level, 27.6% had attained education up to college level, 6.9% of the respondents had attained education up to post-graduate level while 5.2% had studied up to secondary school level. This is an indication that most of the respondents were educated, implying that they had the requisite skills to perform their duties as required and even scale up to higher levels of management.

4.3.4 Number of Children

The respondents were also asked to indicate whether they have any children. The results were as presented in Figure 4.2.
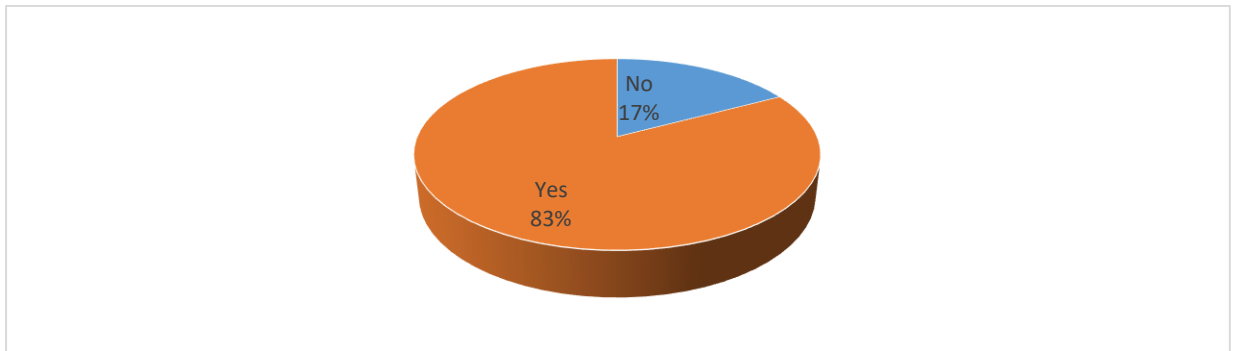
Figure 4.2: Number of children

The results in Figure 4.2 show that most (83%) of the respondents had children while 17% stated that they did not have children. The fact that most of the respondents had children implies that they have other responsibilities apart from work which could in some way influence their productivity.

4.3.5 Employment Status

The study also sought to find out the employment status of the respondents. The results show that 51% of the respondents were employed on a contract basis while 49% were employed on permanent and pensionable terms. The higher number of respondents employed on a contract basis can be explained by the recent adoption by the government of engaging employees on contract base in a bid to reduce the wage bill.

4.3.6 Number of Years in the Organization

The respondents were asked to indicate the period of time they had worked in the organization. The results were as presented in Figure 4.3.
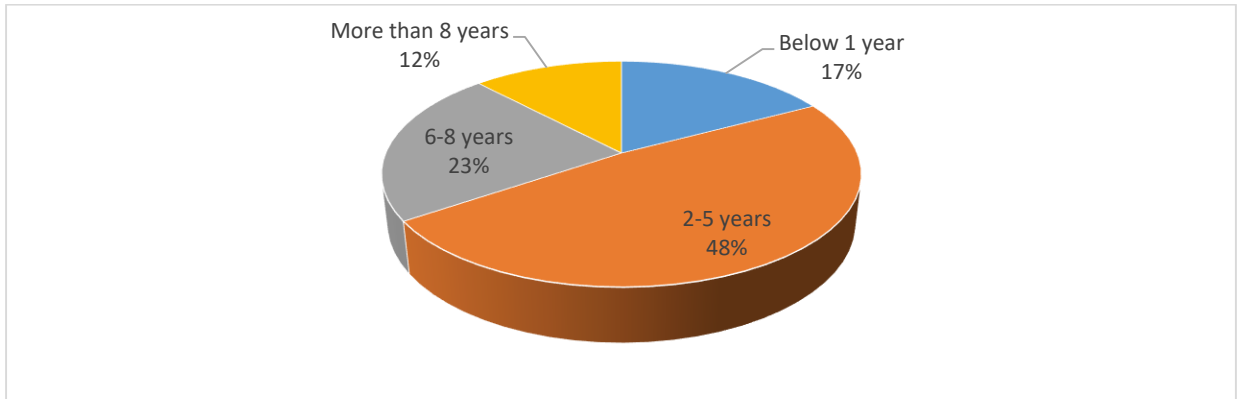
Figure 4.3: Number of years worked in the organization

The findings in Figure 4.3 reveal that 48% of the respondents indicated that they had worked in the organization for a period of 2–5 years, 23% of the respondents indicated 6-8 years, 17% indicated less than 1 year while 12% of the respondents had worked in the organization for more than 8 years. These results show that only a small percentage of the women had worked in the organization for a long period of time. These results can be explained by the fact that women employee retention at KRA is low owing to various factors that hamper women productivity at work such as parenting and other family obligations.

4.3.7 Position in the Organization

The study sought to establish the position held by the respondents. The results were as shown in Figure 4.4.
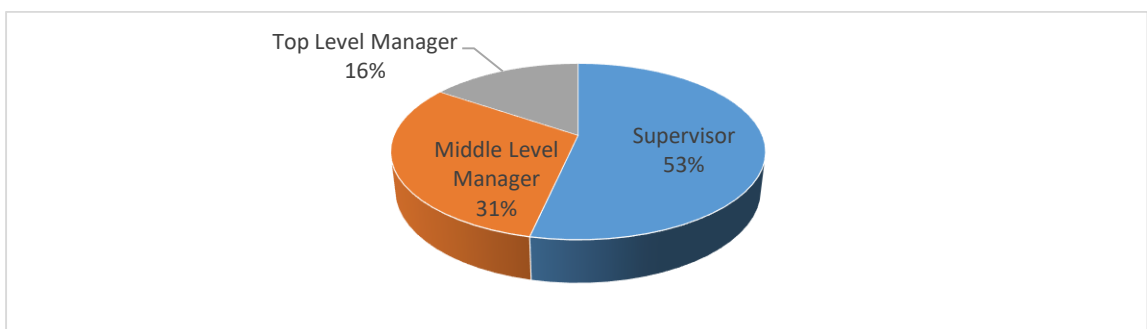
Figure 4.4: Position in the organization

21

The results in Figure 4.4 show that slightly over half (53%) of the respondents held supervisory positions, 31% held middle level management positions while only 16% of the respondents held top level managerial positions. This is a clear indicator that at KRA women have a challenge scaling up to the top level management positions.

4.4 Gender Stereotyping

The first objective of the study was to establish how gender stereotypes act as a barrier to career advancement of women at KRA. The respondents were asked to state their level of agreement on various statements about gender stereotyping on a scale of 1 to 5. The results are as presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Gender stereotyping

Statement	Strongly disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagreed	Slightly agree	Strongly agree	Mean
Women shun jobs that require responsibility more compared to men.	5.2%	3.4%	1.7%	82.8%	6.9%	3.8
Women tend to dislike jobs that are challenging.	19.0%	3.4%	3.4%	53.4%	20.7%	3.5
Women do not possess aggression which is a perquisite for success in business.	25.9%	1.7%	0.0%	46.6%	25.9%	3.4
Women are not assertive in business.	0.0%	3.4%	1.7%	77.6%	17.2%	4.1
Good leadership requires self-confidence which is scarce among women.	0.0%	1.7%	1.7%	79.3%	17.2%	4.1
The level of competence for women is low which hinders their success in business.	8.6%	3.4%	5.2%	70.7%	12.1%	3.7
Average						**3.8**

The results show that most (89.7%) of the respondents agreed that women shun jobs that require responsibility more compared to men, 74.1% of them also agreed that women tend to dislike jobs that are challenging, 72.5% agreed that women do not possess aggression which is a perquisite for success in business while 94.8% agreed that women are not assertive in business. The findings also reveal that the majority (96.5%) of the respondents agreed that good leadership requires self-confidence which is scarce among women while 82.8% agreed that the level of competence for women is low which hinders their success in business. On a five-point scale, the average mean of the responses was 3.8 which means that the majority of the respondents agreed with statements in the questionnaire.

The respondents were also asked to give their opinion on various gender stereotyping aspects. The results were as presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Perceptions of gender stereotyping

Statement	Yes	No
Should professional skills be emphasized more than gender when considering management positions?	96.6%	3.4%
Do you consider there to be significant differences in management styles between men and women?	58.6%	41.4%
Are women who take up management positions despised by their fellow women?	79.3%	20.7%
Do you think being male or female determines how high in rank one goes in your organization?	55.2%	44.8%

The results reveal that 96.6% of the respondents agreed that professional skills should be emphasized more than gender when considering management positions while only 3.4% disagreed. The findings also reveal that 58.6% of the respondents agreed that there exist significant differences in management styles between men and women while 41.4% disagreed. Further, the results reveal that 79.3% of the respondents agreed that women who take up management positions are despised by their fellow women while 55.2% of the respondents agreed that being male or female determines how high in rank one goes in an organization.

Information from the key informants revealed that women tend to get more criticism than men regarding their external image, such as clothing, gestures, body positions, hackneyed expression, and this scrutiny is unavoidable when it comes to top management positions. They continued to explain that the standards set for women are

too high compared to those for men. Men are allowed to get away with things that would have otherwise led to a lot of criticism if committed by women.

The key informants also stated that it is true that women are more cautious when it comes to becoming public persons or more visible. They do this to avoid so much scrutiny by the public. In addition, the expectation from the public makes them shy off since at times not all the expectations are achievable, which subjects them to criticism. The key informants also posited that society's perception of women acts as a great barrier to women's advancement in their careers. To explain this, they reiterated that at times women are their own enemies as they do not support one another; rather the play a big role in bringing other women who are rising down. They have bought into past ideologies that women are not supposed to work but rather they are supposed to take care of their families. They, however, noted that with the right kind of support women can manage to balance between work and other responsibilities. They also noted that supporting women would contribute a lot in building the economy since women also have a lot of contribution if they are given an opportunity.

4.5 Gender Roles and Family Responsibilities

The second objective of the study was to determine the extent to which gender roles and family responsibilities are hindrances to women careers in KRA. The respondents were asked to give responses to various statements on gender roles and family responsibilities. The results are as presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Gender roles and family responsibilities

Statement	Yes	No
Are the roles carried out by men and women in your department influenced by gender?	82.8%	17.2%
Do socio-cultural factors such as marital status and parenting influence women involvement in managerial positions?	82.8%	17.2%
Do demands of your family often interfere with your work?	87.9%	12.9%
If you have children, have you experienced them influencing your position in the companies you have worked at previously or when you were applying for your current role?	82.8%	17.2%

The findings in Table 4.5 indicate that 82.8% of the respondents agreed that roles carried out by men and women in their department are influenced by gender while 17.2% disagreed. The results also reveal that 82.8% of the respondents agreed that

socio-cultural factors, such as marital status and parenting influence women's involvement in managerial positions. Further, the results reveal that 87.9% of the respondents agreed that demands of their family often interfere with their work while 82.8% agreed that they have experienced the presence of children influencing their position in the companies they have worked at previously or when they were applying for your current role.

Responses from the key informants also revealed that family responsibilities that women take up hinder their advancement in their careers. They went on to explain that women, especially in their middle age, bear the responsibility of taking care of young families. They added that in some extreme cases women are forced to quit their jobs in the event of some unforeseen occurrences such as sickness and lack of trustworthy care givers for their children. They further added that in some cases only few women consider getting back into employment since they opt to take up other informal jobs which favour them as they take care of their children and, in most cases, these jobs become their main source of livelihood even after their children are grown. Hence, the thought of career advancement is not a priority to them.

4.6 Organizational Structure

The third objective of the study was to assess whether the organizational structures at KRA promote the lack of career progression for women in the organization. The respondents were asked to give responses to various statements on organizational structures. The results were as presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Equal chances in management positions

	Response	Frequency	Percent
Do you believe that your organization grants equal chances for both men and women in attaining management positions?	Yes	18	31
	No	28	48.3
	Seldom	12	20.7
	Total	**58**	**100**

The results in Table 4.6 reveal that 48.3% of the respondents disagreed that their organization grants equal chances for both men and women in attaining management positions, 31% agreed while 12% indicated that this happened only rarely.

25

The results also reveal that 79.3% of the respondents agreed that in most cases women do not particularly desire to progress their careers and are comfortable in their current roles in the organization while 20.7% disagreed.

The key informants also posited that there some differences between organizational cultures in the organizations led by women or led by men. They pointed out that the differences exist with regard to various aspects such as gender diversity, human resource policies and adherence to labour laws. Gender diversity in women-led organizations is observed since there are equal opportunities for women as men and women are given the opportunity to advance their careers. The human resource policies in these organizations differ in that they are exhaustive, giving women paid maternity leaves and allowing them flexibility due to their multiple responsibilities as they still put emphasis on productivity.

4.7 Glass Ceilings for Women in Management

The respondents were also asked to respond to statements on glass ceiling for women in management. The results were as presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Glass ceilings for women in management

Statement	Yes	No
Do gender stereotype act as a barrier to career advancement by women?	82.8%	17.2%
Do gender roles and family responsibilities hinder women to advance their careers?	82.8%	17.2%
Do the organizational structure in your organization promote the lack of career progression for women?	81%	19%

The results in Table 4.7 reveal that 82.8% of the respondents agreed that gender stereotypes act as a barrier to career advancement of women while 17.2% disagreed. The results also show that 82.8% of the respondents agreed that gender roles and family responsibilities hinder women from advancing their careers while 17.2% disagreed. Further, the findings reveal that 81% of the respondents agreed that the organizational structures in their organization promote the lack of career progression for women while 17.2% disagreed.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the study findings, draws conclusions and makes recommendations and suggestions for further research. The main focus of the study was to explore the existing glass ceiling for women in management in Kenya using KRA as a case study.

5.2 Findings of the Study

5.2.1 Gender stereotypes

The first objective of the study was to establish how gender stereotypes act as a barrier to the career advancement of women at KRA. The findings also reveal that gender stereotyping is in existence at KRA and acts as a barrier to the career advancement of women in that organization. These findings are consistent with those of Fagenson-Eland and Paker (1998) who state that the principal contention of gender-centred point of view is that gender is a noteworthy determinant of a person's inclinations, capacities, abilities and practices. Since men are characteristically thought to be more skilful than women, they constitute the larger percentage in managerial positions.

5.2.2 Gender roles and family obligations

The second objective of the study was to determine the extent to which gender roles and family responsibilities are hindrances to women careers in KRA. The reveal that gender roles and family responsibilities are hindrances to women careers in KRA. The findings also reveal that family responsibilities that women take up hinder their advancement in their careers. These findings concur with those of Bowles and McGinn (2008) who argue that women continually face more family demands and household responsibilities. They also point out that traditional gender ideologies continue to influence the division of labour, and thereby the constraints of domestic realm on outside work, even when both men and women are competitively employed.

5.2.3 Organizational Structures

The third objective of the study was to assess whether the organizational structures at KRA promote the lack of career progression for women in that organization. Results show that the organizational structures at KRA did not promote career progression for women. The findings also reveal that there exist differences with regard to various aspects such as gender diversity, human resource policies and adherence to labour laws at KRA. These findings support the assertions of Linehan and Scullion (2005) who point out that women are normally put in non-key divisions as opposed to in expert and administration employments, which dampens their career advancement.

5.3 Conclusion

The study concludes that there exists glass ceiling for women in management in KRA. The conclusion is based on the fact that gender stereotypes act as a barrier to the career advancement of women at KRA. This was supported by both the quantitative and qualitative findings. The study also concludes that gender roles and family responsibilities hinder women from advancing their careers. Further, the study concludes that the organizational structures at KRA are responsible for the lack of career progression for women.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the study findings the study makes the following recommendations:

i. Kenya Revenue Authority should embrace an organizational culture that supports gender diversity. Gender diversity would help to ensure that there are equal opportunities for women and men. This would encourage women to advance their careers.

ii. Kenya Revenue Authority should revise their human resource policies and make them comprehensive. The human resource policies would help to cater for women who, in most cases, bear more gender and family responsibilities than men. This would assist in making the working environment flexible for men. This would also encourage women to stay in employment and thus benefit the

company since women also have a great wealth of skills which the company can exploit and benefit in a great way.

iii. Kenya Revenue Authority should be deliberate in appointing women in top leadership positions so as to do away with the current gender stereotyping that exists. This would give women an opportunity to showcase their prowess and thus weed out the existing ideologies about women.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the findings and the scope of this study the researchers makes the following suggestions for further research: -

i. A similar study be conducted but in a different organization preferably in the private sector for comparative purposes.

ii. A study seeking to establish other factors that act as a glass ceiling for women in management be conducted.

iii. A study seeking to explore the magnitude of influence of gender stereotyping, gender roles and family responsibilities and organization structure on career advancement for women in KRA should be conducted.

REFERENCES

Auster, E. R., Prasad, A. (2016). Why do Women still not make it to the Top? Dominant Organizational Ideologies and Biases by Promotion Committees Limit Opportunities to Destination Positions. *Sex Roles, 75:* 177-196.

Bierema, L. and Opengart, R. (2002). Emotions in Women's Career Development: A Merging of Literatures. In *Proceedings of the Academy of Human Resource Development (AHRD) Conference: Women and Career Development*, pp. 11-18.

Bowles, H. R. and McGinn, K. L. (2008). Untapped Potential in the Study of Negotiation and Gender Inequality in Organizations. *The Academy of Management Annals*, *2*(1): 99-132.

Brescoll, V. L., E. Dawson and E. L. Uhlmann (2010). Hard won and easily lost: The fragile Status of Leaders in Gender-stereotype-incongruent Occupations. *Psychological Science, 21:* 1640-1642.

Burns, A. and Groove, B. (2003). *The Practice of Nursing Research*: *Conduct, Critique and Utilization* 4th ed. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company.

Cooper, D. and Schindler, P. (2003). *Business Research Methods,* 8th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

David, A. (2017). *Economic Empowerment for All: An Examination of Women's Experiences and Perceptions of Economic Empowerment in Maha Sarakham, Thailand.* Doctoral dissertation, University of Cincinnati.

Davidson, M. J. (2012). Women in Management Worldwide: Progress and Prospects. *Human Resource Management International Digest, 20*(6): 74-86.

Eagly, A. (1987). *Sex Differences in Social Behavior: A Social-role Interpretation*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Eagly, A. H. (1997). Sex Differences in Social Behaviour: Comparing Social Role Theory and Evolutionary Psychology. *American Psychologist, 52*(12): 1380-1383.

Eagly, A. H. and Carli, L. L. (2007). Women and the Labyrinth of Leadership. *Harvard Business Review*, 85(9):62 -71.

Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Agency (2008). *Annual Report.* Available at https://www.wgea.gov.au/ sites/default/files/ Final_Annual_Report0708%5B1%5D.pdf. Retrieved on 24th September, 2018.

Fagenson-Eland, E.A. and Paker, B. (1998). *Women Managers in Organizations in Michael Poole.* New Delhi: New Age International Publishers.

Foley, S., D. L. Kidder and G. N. Powell (2002). The Perceived Glass Ceiling and Justice Perceptions: An Investigation of Hispanic Law Associates. *Journal of Management, 28:* 471-496.

Frank, Ellen J. (2001). Chinese Students' Perceptions of Women in Management: Will it be easier? *Women in Management Review, 16*(7): 316 -324.

Government of Kenya (GOK). (2018). Counties in Kenya: List of 47 Counties in Kenya. Available at https://informationcradle.com/kenya/counties-in-kenya/ Retrieved on 4th December, 2018.

Griffen, V. (2006). *Gender Relations in Pacific Cultures and their Impact on the Growth and Development of Children.* Available at http://www.focusintl.com/GD164- %20Gender%20Relations%20in%20Pacific%20cultures%20and%20their%20 impact%20on%20the%20growth%20and%20development%20of%20children. pdf. Retrieved on 20th September, 2018.

Hansen, S. B. (2009). Cracks in the Glass Ceiling? *Sex Roles, 60*: 748-750.

Hymowitz, C. and Schellhardt, T.D. (1986). The Glass-Ceiling: Why Women Can't Seem to Break the Invisible Barrier that Blocks them from Top Jobs. *The Wall Street Journal, Special Report: The Corporate Woman, 57*(D1): D4-D5.

International Labour Organization (2015). *More Women needed at Top Management Positions in Africa.* Press release 12th January, 2015. Available at https://www.ilo.org/addisababa/media-centre/pr/WCMS_335704/lang-- en/index.htm. Retrieved on 24th September, 2018.

International Labour Organization (2018). *World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends for Women, 2018.* Available at https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/-publ/documents/publication/wcms_615594.pdf. Retrieved on 24th September, 2018.

Jamali, D., A. Safieddine and M. Daouk (2006). The Glass Ceiling: Some Positive Trends from the Lebanese Banking Sector. *Women in Management Review, 21* (8): 625-642.

Jogulu, U. and Wood, G. (2006). The Role of Leadership Theory in Raising the Profile of Women in Management. *Equal Opportunities International, 25*(4): 236-250.

Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS). (2010). The 2009 Kenya population and housing census. *Volume IC, population distribution by age, sex and administrative units*.

Kiaye, R. E. and Singh, A.M. (2013). The Glass Ceiling: A Perspective of Women Working in Durban. *Gender in Management: An International Journal, 28*(1):28-42.

Kim, S. S., H. Chun and J. F. Petrick (2014). Career Path Profiles of General Managers of Korean Super Deluxe Hotels and Factors Influencing their Career Development: Vocational Insights for HTM Students and Hotel Employees. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sports and Tourism Education (Pre-2012)*, *8*(2): 97-102.

Kothari, C. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods and Tech*niques, 2nd edition. New Delhi: New age International Publishers.

Lazreg, M. (Ed.) (2000). *Making the Transition Work for Women in Europe and Central Asia*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Linehan, J. and Scullion, M.N. (2005). *Mentoring as a HRD Initiative in Higher Education*. New York: Macmillan.

Lodiaga, M. J. and Mbevi, M. M. (1995). *Status and Advancement of Women Professionals in Agriculture and Environmental Institutions and Public Universities in Kenya*. Centre for Women Studies and Gender Analysis, Egerton University, Njoro, Kenya.

McKinsey, C. (2012). *Women Matter: Gender Diversity, a Corporate Performance Driver.* Available at: https://www.mckinsey.com/~/media/mckinsey/featured%20insights/women%20matter/reinventing%20the%20workplace%20for%20greater%20gender%20diversity/women-matter-2016-reinventing-the-workplace-to-unlock-the-potential-of-gender-diversity.ashx. Retrieved 24th September, 2018.

Meyerson, D. (2001). *Tempered Radicals: How People use Difference to Inspire Change at Work.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Mugenda, O. M., and Mugenda, A. G. (2008). *Research Methods: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches.* Nairobi: ACTS Press.

Nelson, T. and Levesque, L. (2007). The Status of Women in Corporate Governance in High-Growth, High-potential Firms. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice,* 10(42): 25-87.

Newing, H. (2011). *Conducting Research in Conservation: Social Science Methods and Practice.* New York: Routledge.

Northouse, P. (2013). *Leadership: Theory and Practice,* 6th ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Opengart, R. and Bierema, L. (2002) (February). Emotions in Women's Career Development: A Merging of Literatures. In *Academy of human resource development conference proceedings*.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2017). Measuring gender (In) Equality: The OECD gender, institutions and development data base. *Journal of Human Development*, *9*(1), 65-86.

Robbins, P. (2001). *Organizational Behaviour.* New Delhi: Prentice Hall.

Saunders, M., P. Lewis and A. Thornhill (2009). *Research Methods for Business Students,* 5th Edition. London: Prentice Hall.

Stockdale, M. S. and Crosby, F. J. (Eds.) (2004). *The Psychology and Management of Workplace Diversity*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Suda, C. (2002). Gender Disparities in the Kenyan Labour Market: Implications for Poverty Reduction. *Nordic Journal of African Studies*, *11*(3): 301-321.

UN (2016). *Women in Africa face Profound Gender Inequalities and those Inequalities do Great Economic Harm to Individuals and Nations.* Available at ttps://www.undispatch.com/report-women-africa-face-profound-gender-inequalities-inequalities-great-economic-harm-individuals-nations/. Retrieved on 1st October, 2018.

Unger, R. K. (2001). *Handbook of the Psychology of Women and Gender.* Princeton, NJ: Wiley & Sons.

Upagade, V. and Shende, A. (2012). *Research Methodology.* New Delhi: S. Chand & Company Ltd.

Watts, L. L., M. C. Frame, R. G. Moffett, J. L. Van Hein and M. Hein (2015). The Relationship between Gender, Perceived Career Barriers, and Occupational Aspirations. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 45(1): 10-22.

Werner, J. and DeSimone, R. (2011). *Human Resource Development*, 6th ed. Boston: South Western Cengage Learning.

Whiteley, S. (2013). *Women and Popular Music: Sexuality, Identity and Subjectivity*. London: Routledge.

Wirth, L. (2001). *Breaking through the Glass Ceiling: Women in Management*. Geneva: International Labour Office.

Wood, G. J. (2006). Career Advancement in Australian Middle Managers: A follow-up Study. *Women in Management Review*, *21*(4): 277-293.

World Economic Forum (2017). *The Global Gender Gap Report*. Available at http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2017.pdf. Retrieved on 24th September, 2018.

Yee, L., A. Krivkovich, E. Kutcher, B. Epstein, R. Thomas, A. Finch and E. Konar (2015). *Women in the Workplace*. McKinsey & Company. Available at https://womenintheworkplace.com/Women_in_the_Workplace_2015.pdf Google Scholar. Retrieved on 24th September, 2018.

http://www.kra.go.ke/index.php/about-kra/about-the-authority.

APPENDICES

Appendix I: Introductory Letter

Date……………...

Kenya Revenue Authority

Times Tower

Nairobi.

RE: ACADEMIC RESEARCH PROPOSAL

I am a student undertaking a Master of Arts Degree in Gender and Development Studies at the University of Nairobi. I am currently doing research on, "Glass ceiling for women in management: A case study of Kenya Revenue Authority", in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree. Please respond to the questions herein. The information you provide will be kept confidential and will only be used for academic purpose. Your cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Thank You.

Yours sincerely,

Jane Muthoni Kariuki

Appendix II: Structured Questionnaire

The purpose of this study is to explore the glass ceiling for women in management in Kenyan parastatals. The study is aimed at conducting research at KRA and more specifically in three departments selected at random.

Instructions

- Do not write your name on the questionnaire.

- Please answer the questions as faithfully as possible.

- Place a mark in the spaces or boxes provided after each question to reflect your answer; for those questions that are not structured, kindly answer them appropriately.

SECTION A: Background information of the respondents

1. Age bracket

        20-25 ☐   36-40 ☐

        26-30 ☐   41-45 ☐

        31-35 ☐   45 years and above ☐

2. Marital status

        Single   ☐   Married ☐   Divorced ☐   Separated ☐

        If married does your family influence decisions such as working station. (Please explain further if possible)

        ……………………………………………………………………………………………

        ……………………………………………………………………………………………

3. How many years have you worked in the organization?

      Below 1 year   ☐   2-5 years   ☐

      6-8 years   ☐   More than 8 years   ☐

4. Do you have any children?

      Yes ☐   No ☐

5. Employment status

      Permanent and pensionable ☐

      Contract ☐

      Other   ☐

6. Position held in the organization

      Supervisor   ☐

      Middle Level Manager ☐

      Top Level Manager   ☐

7. Highest educational qualification attained to date.

      Secondary   ☐   College   ☐

      Graduate   ☐   Post Graduate ☐

Other (Specify which)

………………………………………………………………………………………

SECTION B: Gender Stereotyping

The following are some issues related to gender stereotyping. Please indicate the extent to which they apply to you using the numbers 1-5. Tick the appropriate box.

1-Strongly disagree ☐　2- Slightly disagree ☐　3- Neither agree or disagree ☐　4- Slightly agree ☐　5- Strongly agree ☐

11. Women shun jobs that require responsibility more compared to men.

1 ☐　2 ☐　3 ☐　4 ☐　5 ☐

12. Women tend to dislike jobs that are challenging.

1 ☐　2 ☐　3 ☐　4 ☐　5 ☐

13. Women do not possess aggression which is a perquisite for success in business.

1 ☐　2 ☐　3 ☐　4 ☐　5 ☐

14. Women are not assertive in business.

1 ☐　2 ☐　3 ☐　4 ☐　5 ☐

15. Good leadership requires self-confidence which is scarce among women.

1 ☐　2 ☐　3 ☐　4 ☐　5 ☐

16. The level of competence for women is low which hinders their success in business.

1 ☐　2 ☐　3 ☐　4 ☐　5 ☐

17. Should professional skills be emphasized more than gender when considering management positions?

Yes ☐　　No ☐　　I do not know ☐

18. Do you consider there to be significant differences in management styles between men and women?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If yes kindly elaborate on your answer.

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………

19. Are women who take up management positions despised by their fellow women?

Yes ☐   No ☐   I don't know ☐

20. Do you think being male or female determines how high in rank one goes in your organization?

Yes ☐   No ☐

If   so,   please   explain.

………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………….

SECTION C: Gender Roles and Family Responsibilities

21. Are the roles carried out by men and women in your department influenced by gender?

Yes ☐   No ☐

22. Do socio-cultural factors such as marital status and parenting influence women involvement in managerial positions?

Yes ☐   No ☐

23. Do demands of your family often interfere with your work?

Yes ☐   No ☐

24. If you have children, have they influenced your position in the companies you have worked at previously or when you were applying for your current role?

Yes ☐   No   ☐

SECTION D: Organizational Structure

25. Do you believe that your organization grants equal chances for both men and women in attaining management positions?

Yes   ☐   No   ☐   Seldom ☐   Never   ☐

26. Women do not particularly desire to progress their careers and are comfortable in their current roles in the organization.

True ☐   False ☐

27. Why are women represented poorly in managerial positions and more precisely top management in your organization?

……………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………….

SECTION E: Glass Ceiling for Women in Management

28. Does gender stereotypes act as a barrier to career advancement of women?

Yes   ☐   No   ☐   Seldom ☐   Never   ☐

29. Do gender roles and family responsibilities hinder women to advance their careers?

Yes   ☐   No   ☐   Seldom ☐   Never   ☐

30. Do the organizational structure in your organization promote the lack of career progression for women?

Yes   ☐   No   ☐   Seldom ☐   Never   ☐

Appendix III: Key Informant Interview Guide

1. Are there differences between organizational cultures in the organizations led by women or led by men?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

2. Is it true that women tend to get more criticism than men regarding their external image, such as clothing, gestures, body positions, hackneyed expression, and this scrutiny is unavoidable when it comes to top management positions?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………

3. Is it true that women are more cautious when it comes to becoming public persons or more visible?

…………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………….

4. Does the society's perception of women acts as a great barrier to women advancement in their careers?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

…………………………………………………………………………………………..

5. Do family responsibilities that women take up hinder their advancement in their careers?

………………………………………………………………………………………….

………………………………………………………………………………………….