

**INFLUENCE OF CULTURE ON WOMEN LEADERSHIP IN MANAGERIAL
POSITION: A CASE OF ELDORET MUNICIPALITY, KENYA**

Emily Lukaka

**A research project report submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirements of
Master of Arts Degree in Project Planning and Management**

University of Nairobi

2013

Declaration

Declaration by Student

I, the undersigned, declare that this project is my original work and that it has not been presented in any other university or institution.

SIGNATURE: _____

EMILY LUKAKA

DATE

L50/76651/2012

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

SIGNATURE-----

.....

PETER K HARRY

DATE

LECTURER; UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my late mother and all women who have experienced discrimination and the bias against their gender. History, both past and present, has proven women to be leaders.

Acknowledgement

I would like to express my gratitude to all the people who helped me make this project possible. My special thanks go to my supervisor Mr. Peter K Harry for his excellent guidance and support throughout the project not forgetting my other lecturers Mr. J.C Koringura Mr. P. Cheben, Mr. P. Lukuyani and Mrs. D. Khatete for their encouragement and support. Also my gratitude goes to my fellow classmates and to the University of Nairobi management for according me a chance to carry out the research.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration.....	i
DEDICATION.....	iii
Acknowledgement	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
Abstract.....	x
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the Study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	7
1.3 Objectives of Study	8
1.4 Research Questions	8
1.5 Significance of the Study	9
1.6 Limitation of the study	9
CHAPTER TWO	11
LITERATURE REVIEW	11
2.1 Women and Leadership.....	11
2.2 Barriers Women Face in Leadership Positions	21
2.2.1 Organizational Barriers	23
2.2.2 Selection Process.....	23
2.2.3 Workplace Relationships	24
2.2.4 Globalization	24
2.2.5 Internal Motivation.....	25
2.2.6 Life-style Conflicts.....	25
2.2.7 Stereotyping and Leadership Styles	26
2.2.8 Work and family balance	27
2.2.9 Organizational Influences	29
2.3 Theoretical Framework	30

2.4 Conceptual Framework	33
2.5 Knowledge gap.....	34
2.6 Summary	36
CHAPTER THREE	38
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	38
3.1 Introduction	38
3.2 Research Design.....	38
3.3 Target Population	39
3.4 Sampling for the study	39
3.5 Data collection.....	39
3.5.1 Validity of Research Instruments.....	40
3.5.2 Reliability of Research Instruments	41
3.6 Data Analysis	42
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION.....	44
4.0. Introduction	44
4.1. Demographic characteristics of respondents.....	44
4.1.1 Gender	44
4.1.3 Marital status of the respondents.....	46
4.1.4 Education level of the respondents.....	47
4.1.6 Promotional opportunity	48
4.1.7 A woman's first priority.....	50
4.1.8 Women are seeking administrative positions.....	51
4.1.9 Women are supportive of each other.....	52
4.1.10 Career women are often torn between family and work responsibility	52
4.1.11 Women often lack freedom of geographical mobility	53
4.1.12 Women are always perceived in stereotype roles	55
4.1.13 Promotion to leadership roles is discriminatory.....	56
4.1.14 Inborn gender differences account primarily for the ways men and women function on the job.....	57
4.1.15 Affirmative action has helped to open doors for career advancement for a woman	58

4.2 Under representation of women in administrative position	59
4.2.1 Rank women in the profession	61
4.2.2 Main sources of information on gender equality	62
4.2.3 Women should always work near their homes.....	63
4.2.4 Administrative post will encourage a woman to have extra marital affairs.....	65
4.2.5 Sexual harassment in the work place	66
4.2.5 Kind of Experience.....	66
4.2.6 Performance management	67
4.3 Women are ranked top managers	69
4.3.1 They occupy middle level managerial positions	71
4.3.2 Many women are not given a chance to be managers.....	72
4.4 Strategies that can be used to enhance women’s participation in management.....	73
CHAPTER FIVE	74
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	74
5.0 Introduction	74
5.1 Summary of findings.....	74
5.2 Conclusions	80
5.4 Recommendations	81
5.5 Suggestions for Further research.....	81
Appendix III: Questionnaire	88

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Gender of the respondents	44
Table 4.2 Age of the respondents	46
Table 4.3 Marital status of the respondents	46
Table 4.4 Education Level of the Respondents	47
Table 4.5 Reason for joining the profession	48
Table 4.6 career promotion.....	49
Table 4.7 Promotional opportunity.....	49
Table 4.8 motherhood / good spouse and career	50
Table 4.9 women seek administrative positions	51
Table 4.10 Women are supportive each other	52
Table 4.11 Career women are often torn between family and work	52
Table 4.12 lack of freedom of geographical mobility	54
Table 4.13 Women are always perceived in stereotype roles.....	55
Table 4.15 Stereotype Roles	56
Table 4.16 Promotion to leadership roles is discriminatory	57
Table 4.17 Inborn gender differences account primarily for the ways men and women function on the job	58
Table 4.18 affirmative action has helped to open doors for career advancement for a woman	59
Table 4.19 under representation of women in administrative position	60
Table 4.20 Rank women in the profession	61
Table 4.21 Main sources of information on gender equality.....	62
Table 4.22 Sources of Information * Gender Cross-tabulation.....	63
Table 4.23 Women should always work near their homes.....	64

Table 4.24 Administrative post will encourage a woman to have extra marital affairs	65
Table 4.25 Sexual harassment in the work place.....	66
Table 4.26 Kind of Experience.....	67
Table 4.27 Performance management	68
Table 4.28 Performance Management * Gender Cross-tabulation.....	69
Table 4.29 Women are ranked top managers	70
Table 4.30 occupy middle level managerial positions	71
Table 4.31 Many women are not given a chance to be managers	72

Abstract

Women Play an important role in society as procreators of the coming generation, as well as producers of goods and services. In the modern economies they are playing an important role in the labour force. The study objectives were; to establish the effect of gender inequality on progression and participation of women in management; to determine how family chores affect women's participation in management, to identify the effect of gender stereotyping on progression and participation of women in management and to establish effect of inadequate women empowerment on progression and participation of women in management. The study employed a descriptive survey research design because it describes and explains the events as they are in the real life context in which they occurred and it was suitable for this study because it was able to appropriately capture the required data within the specified time for the study and will provide the required data more quickly and enable the gathering and analysis of the relevant information. The study was limited to respondents in Eldoret town. The study purposively selected 58 respondents this is because purposive sampling research design provides equal chances to every sample of a given size in the accessible population. Data was collected using questionnaires because it is cheap to administer since it does not require a trained researcher to distribute and collect the questionnaires, it eliminates interaction between the interviewer and the respondents which reduces biases and moreover, the person filling the questionnaire is anonymous and therefore may be willing to give information especially over sensitive issues. It is also a useful method particularly when the questions are straightforward enough to be comprehended without verbal explanation. Data was analyzed descriptively. Descriptive statistic such as mean and standard deviation was computed to give the differences in responses. Data was presented in frequency tables. The study is expected to contribute positively to the women improvement in the leadership positions and gender balance in our community and promote the newly enacted constitution. The researcher concluded that, women are highly discriminated at place of work and there is a high level of gender inequalities when it comes to promotion and employment.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Most post-industrial labour markets continue to be characterised by gendered occupational segregation, both vertically and horizontally Miller, Neathey et al, (2004). However, patterns of occupational segregation vary depending on sectors of employment and affect diversely different groups of women. Globally the presence and status of female managers have improved dramatically over the last half a century, however, research indicate that women in management positions in a variety of professions continue to face a number of barriers within the organization that affect career progression Wood, (2008). A number of studies have identified structural and cultural barriers working within organizations that have led to under representation of women at the senior level Powell and Graves (2003). The anti-female nature of organization and the institutional discrimination such as limited access to networking processes, lack of mentoring and limited training and development opportunities have contributed to women low career progression, Cordano and Scherer, (2002). Concerns about organizational barriers in management development remain challenging and deserving of additional research.

The role of women in the United States has changed dramatically in the last 50years. The proportion of women attending college, matriculating from graduate schools, and obtaining doctorate degrees has increased dramatically. No longer are

women associated with low expectations both in education and the workforce. Women now seek and obtain the highest leadership roles in education, professions, and business. For example, according to Laff (2006), in the banking industry the ranks of women in senior level management positions have increased from 19% to 31% during 2003 to 2006. This is an extraordinary 63% increase in a mere three years. Even more importantly, the percentage of women at the corporate executive level in the banking industry has increased to 37% (from 27% to 37%) in this same three-year period. Given these large percentage increases, one might conclude that this migration of women towards leadership roles has been widely accepted.

Researchers and the popular press alike have lauded women as having the skills necessary for leadership in the twenty-first century Eagly et al., (2007). At the same time, women often come in second to men in competitions to attain leadership positions Eagly, (2007). In 2006, women comprised only 26 percent of senior leaders, compared with 37 percent of leaders at other levels, Eagly et al., (2007). Women hold only 7.9 percent of the highest corporate officer titles and make up only 5.2 percent of the top earners in Fortune 500 companies, Catalyst, (2002).

In the Chinese context, many women sacrifice their career advancement for their husband's success and by so doing "they realize their own value" Qiang, et al., (2009). There are commonalities in Vietnamese and Chinese women's perceptions of their roles and duties as these two countries are both influenced by Confucianism. Obviously,

indigenous culture has a great impact on women, and the traditional roles allocated to them influence their work lives.

The overall societal response is accepting, yet some sectors have remained male dominated. Specifically, only 1.8% of Fortune 500 companies had women as Chief Executive Officers (CEO) in 2005, Helfat, Harris, and Wolfson, (2006). Only 13% have female corporate board members and only 16% have female corporate officers Laff, (2006). In other words, women are still struggling to obtain chief executive leadership roles. There are still many obstacles preventing women from obtaining this leadership level. Many organizations are implementing leadership development programs aimed solely at women leadership success. These programs identify barriers and obstacles and then suggest strategies for women to circumvent these barriers. The goal of these programs is to facilitate excellent women leadership abilities.

The Kenyan parliament has only about 10 per cent women representation, trailing far behind the global average of 18.8 per cent women representation in parliaments. Some African countries have already attained the critical mass threshold of 33 per cent women's representation in decision making. Over the past decade, all the countries in the East African region have overtaken Kenya on all measures of gender equality indices. In particular, Rwanda has rapidly recovered from genocide to become the leading country in the region and the world on its gender parity index, currently standing at 56 per cent women parliamentary representation. Global advances have been made towards the recognition of the principle of women's political, economic and social equality. In

Kenya, however, women continue to be marginalized in many areas of society, especially in the sphere of leadership and decision making. According to a 2009 survey by the Ministry of Gender, only 30.9 per cent of those employed in Kenya's public service are women, 72 per cent of who are in the lower cadres. This same inequity exists in the judiciary, in the leadership of political parties, and in political representation: Women hold only about 10 per cent of the seats in the 10th Parliament. Ironically, Kenyan women have been at the forefront in championing the discourse and strategies that support women's rights and gender equality—reinforced ostensibly by the hosting of the 3rd World Conference of Women in Nairobi in 1985. Sadly, this pioneer spirit has not only failed in achieving effective political participation or the taking up of leadership positions in Kenya itself, but women have also only served to nurture and observe the growth and success of women's movements in neighbouring Rwanda, Uganda and Tanzania who now lead global statistics on women's representation in elective politics at 56.3, 31 and 30 per cent, respectively. In light of these contradictions, this study sought to establish the women career development into leadership positions.

Women have both a right and an obligation to active participation in political leadership. In addition to this human right and obligation, political analysts and researchers from different regions of the world (Clinton-Rodham, 2003; Neuman, 1998; Maathai, 2006; Thomas and Wilcox, 2005;) have observed that when women get into leadership and management, they bring a different perspective of political leadership. These analysts and researchers have argued that having more women in politics would help solve problems associated with perpetual poverty, especially as it affects women.

Women's leadership not only aids in building nations but also helps to balance up decision making processes (Epstein et al., 2005). Neuman (1998), writing about women legislators in the United States, observed that decisions concerned with issues of education, health, gender violence, women's economic empowerment, peace, rights, dignity, and democracy are usually of great concern to women leaders.

Despite the progress made in some countries, serious and persistent obstacles still hinder the advancement of women and their participation in leadership decision making processes. Some of the main obstacles are related to persistent poverty; lack of equal access to health, education, training and employment; cultural barriers; political structures and institutions that discriminate on women; and in some cases the impact of armed conflict and natural disasters, which has also contributed to women's lower participation due to other challenges that accompany conflict. Kamau (2001), in her study of one private university in Kenya on the status of women and management in higher education, sought to find out what factors, besides research and publication, prevent women from rising to senior university management as much as their male counterparts. Accordingly, her findings indicted that lack of policy and practice aimed to encourage women to aspire for senior positions was the main hindrance for the women in that university. She also uncovered that women were subjected to pressures and experiences not met by men. These pressures included feelings of isolation, strain in coping up with stereotypical sex role and the whole experience of pressure from institutional and societal cultures that are not supportive of women. Her study was very important in identifying some of the factors that affect women's participation in university management. The

present study has expanded the sample size and tried to find out if the factors identified by Kamau, (2001) were being experienced by women in the other universities. Other factors include: lack of highly prominent women visible as role models in positions of authority and responsibility, flouting of recruitment and promotion procedures, attitudes of principals and heads of departments to women employees, domination of the professional/decision-making body by males, intimidation, and uncomfortable working environment due to gender and occupational segregation in task assignment. Nzomo, (1995) contends that the socio-cultural beliefs and myths about the role of women in society are the major determinants of women's failure to advance to top management positions both in the public and private sector.

The other factors, in order of their importance, are inadequate formal education and training, absence of strong women's movement and networking, and absence of government legal and policy framework to support women's advancement. Indeed, as the study has shown, women unlike men face a number of barriers in their career advancement, some of which are found within the institutions while others are external.

The limited advancement of women into the top management levels of the civil service in Kenya previously would be explained as a pipeline problem. It was said that women with the appropriate educational background are not available. With the pipeline now full of women the only marginality is the glass ceiling which serves as a reminder that most organizations were created by and for men Bi-Annual Report, (2010). Thus institutional norms rarely accommodate the fact that women typically bear the

responsibility for home and family and therefore have more demands on their time. Institutions therefore end up judging women as less committed and less competent than their male counterparts.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In developed countries often cited as the reason for why women are not represented in top management positions is the “glass ceiling.” The glass ceiling effect is defined as an unofficial barrier to opportunities within an organization or company preventing protected classes of workers, particularly women, from advancing to higher positions Glass Cliff, (2008). According to Helfat et al. (2006), the percentage of women in executive positions is gender specific. For example, industries with the highest percentage of women executives include publishing and printing (15.8%), transportation equipment (15.7%), securities (14.8%), healthcare (14.6%), temporary help (14.5%), airlines (13.8%), and food Services (13.6%). In contrast, industries with women holding the least amount of executive positions include semiconductors (1.3%), energy (2.8%), waste management (3.6%), trucking (3.8%), aerospace (3.8%), mail, package, and freight delivery (3.8%), and pipelines (3.9%).

In Kenya women constitute slightly over half of the total population and form a critical portion of the human resource base. However, available data indicates that they are inadequately represented in senior management positions in public institutions and where policies that affect them are made, Lodiaga and Mbevi, (1995). The possible explanation for this situation could be that gender issues have not received due attention in most institutions. While a few researchers have in recent years began to document

women's participation in management in the public and private sector in Kenya, Nzomo (1995); Lodiaga and Mbevi; (1995); Kanake (1997), such documentations often have not focused on the actual factors that affect women's participation in top management.

1.3 Objectives of Study

1. To establish the causes of gender inequality on progression and participation of women in management;
2. To determine how family chores affect women's participation in management,
3. To identify the effect of gender stereotyping on progression and participation of women in management
4. To establish causes of inadequate women empowerment on progression and participation of women in management.

1.4 Research Questions

1. What are the causes of gender inequality on progression and participation of women in management?
2. How do family chores affect women's participation in management?
3. What is the effect of gender stereotyping on progression and participation of women in management?
4. What are the causes of inadequate women empowerment on progression and participation of women in management?

1.5 Significance of the Study

A survey of literature on women in management in Kenya shows that there is very little information on the actual position of women in management. There is no sufficient data on the factors affecting women's career advancement. The significance of this study lies in its ability to determine the actual representation of women in management and the factors that affect women's effective participation.

The suggestions from the study would lead to new orientation in formulation and implementation of new affirmative action policies that could enhance women's participation in management. They will enable scholars and policy makers to design more progressive management programmes' and policies aimed at ensuring equal participation of men and women in management. The study will benefit women working in all sectors by identifying obstacles they face or might face en route to senior management positions and by suggesting how to overcome them. It will also contribute to the corpus of literature on women in management in Africa in general, and Kenya in particular.

1.6 Limitation of the study

Since the study only focused on selected women within Eldoret, data collected is deemed limited in scope therefore limiting the reality of the study. Since the study used a questionnaire there could have been some discrepancy in the understanding of the questions hence inaccurate response.

1.7 Delimitation of the study

Delimitations are boundaries that are set by the researcher in order to control the range of a study. They are created before any investigations are carried out, in order to reduce the amount of time spent in certain areas that may be seen to be unnecessary, and perhaps even unrelated, to the overall study, Kothari, (2009) The study was limited to the topic Barriers to Women Leadership Progression in Management, in Eldoret Municipality.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Women and Leadership

The organizational climate which refers to the prevailing corporate perceptions of women's professional capabilities and commitment affect their careers. It also includes attitude towards women that could result in unsupportive and discouraging work environment. Negative attitude permeate the workplace, questioning women's professional capabilities, inviting them in turn to work harder to prove their credibility and commitment as part of the 'invisible woman syndrome', Resign (1998).

According to Helfat, et al. (2006), women in top management positions were nearly non-existent from the 1970s to the early 1990s. Information from Helfat, et al. (2006) shows a dramatic increase of women in business leadership roles as of 2005 women accounted for 46.5% of the United States workforce, but for less than 8% of its top management positions although at Fortune 500 companies the figure was a bit higher ,The Economist, (2005). Female managers' earnings now average 72% of their male colleagues' Emory, (2008).

According to Laff (2006), while this information can be explained in part by female preferences, it can also be attributed to educational choices. Some analysts believe that the educational choices women make explain the low number of executive and managerial position women hold in tactical, science, and engineering fields. According to

Nelson and Lavesque (2007), women in the United States only comprise 25% of the doctorates in math and science and less than 17% in engineering and computer and information sciences. The figures suggest education is an enabler of the glass ceiling.

Research has shown that in male work environment, female managers often do not get the diversity of experience compared to male managers, women are blocked from promotions while moving up the ladder and also gender inequality and culture and dissatisfaction with promotions negatively influence women's overall job satisfaction. Satisfaction with one's job is very crucial because it has been found to be positively related to career growth Resign, (1998).

A research carried out by Thomas (1994), revealed that majority of organizations favour the use of informal recruitment and selection processes, such as small social networks and employee referrals. Many organizations rely on informal, rather than merit based processes in order to select the best candidates and to screen out large numbers of unsuitable applicants. Informal recruitment processes can lead to biasness because the recruiter tends to determine job requirements according to the current job- holder's gender, Powell (2003). If the current job-holder is male and displays certain characteristics and abilities, then these characteristics and abilities are determined as being necessary for the job. Applicants are then assessed according to these requirements, and where these are perceived as being held more by men then a man is preferred. This process tends to limit the number of women applicants for men's job. It reinforces

occupational segregation and contributes to building stereotypical views of men and women and women's roles and abilities, Powell, (2003).

Few organizations make systematic efforts in assisting women by keeping them informed about all training and career development programs available and giving them access to these programs. A study carried out by Jamali, Safieddine and Daouk, (2006) in Lebanon revealed that women have fewer opportunities for professional development in organizations compared to men. The research suggests that managerial advancement is positively related to human capital credentials.

More specifically, women's advancement to top management is directly related to their increased knowledge and skills and professional development opportunities made available to them throughout their careers Wentling, (2003).

In spite of the consistent association of on-job-development and promotion, research indicates that women are offered fewer developmental experiences than men Therenou, (1995). However a study carried out by Flanders, (1994) revealed that the responsibility for ensuring adequate training cannot be left solely on the employer. To be successful, women themselves may often need to take the initiative to request the training they need in order to continue advancing in their careers. Research done by Cross, (2010), revealed that in most organizations promotion policies are not clear. Cross further observed that women are not committed to their work due to their biological make up. Child bearing remains a barrier to women career progress. The scholar recommended a

further research on the effects of parental care leave on women promotion and career progress which are being addressed by this study.

Research indicates that men tend to be promoted faster than women, even in organizations in which women dominate numerically and in which men are relative newcomers. Rusaw, (1994) also found that the U.S. federal government promoted women more slowly and less often than male counterparts. Reasons for these differences are varied. Thomas, (1994) explains men's greater success in achieving promotion is part to their greater use of informal networks as opposed to women's greater reliance on formal promotion processes alone. The operation of promotion policies in many organizations is an area which often has an unclear set of criteria attached. This allows for subjectivity rather than objectivity to enter the process with senior management allowed considerable scope for discretion Coughlan, (2002). Often, promotion criteria are focused on a preconceived notion of who should perform the role rather than the qualifications required.

A study conducted in Ireland by Cross and Linehan, (2006), revealed that promotional policies have a significant negative impact on the advancement of women to the senior management positions. According to Flanders, (1994) employers often believe that women are less committed to work and less able to undertake a full time career than men, due to their biological make up, rather than ability. When promotion opportunities arise and an employer is given the choice between a man and a woman with equal qualifications, the woman he posits, is frequently viewed as the greater risk. Working in

male dominated hierarchies is seen to reduce women's advancement levels as male managerial hierarchies are more likely to promote men for managerial positions, as men feel more comfortable with other men than they do with women, Therenou (1995).

Mentoring and networking relationships are also potentially valuable for women's advancement in view of boosting emotional support and confidence and careers satisfaction Resign, (1998). A study carried out by Cross, (2010) revealed a clear realisation among the female managers that their male counterparts were overtly engaging in networking activities which gave them increased levels of visibility among the senior management team. However, women in male dominated organizations often have limited networking and mentoring opportunities. Studies have shown that a significantly high proportion of women who have proved themselves successful in career terms have received encouragement from their mentors Amold and Mackenzie- Davy, (1994).

Organizational culture or the way we do things around here influences what employees can do and how they conceptualize, define, analyze and address issues. The concept of organizational culture is important to understand barriers faced by career women. Organizational culture is often cited as either the key facilitator or barrier to work-life policies, as cultural norms override formal policy intentions, Jamali et al, (2005).

Organizational culture can also present constraints to advancement of women to high level leadership and managerial positions where job advertisement for managerial

positions require many years of continuous experience Wood, (2008). According to wood, organisational culture does not reflect the values that embrace and celebrate diversity in workplace. He asserts that there is need to actively challenge covert and overt practices that sustain gender bias hence hindering the progress of women in management.

Jamali et al, (2005), another obstacle is the lack of role models of executive women due to their scarce presence in top managerial positions. Likewise, this study found out that there is no gender difference in organizational hierarchies when a woman has already gained access to them. The lack of impact in women can occur because executive and managerial women have developed survival features becoming immune to the effects of men's hierarchies. A hierarchy composed of men solely may have an effect upon the election of a managerial board, and then its further influence is not very strong.

Ronald, Mustafa and Lisa, (2010) examined the relationship of the perceived presence of organisational practices designed to support women's career advancement and their work attitudes and satisfaction and their psychological well-being. Data was collected from 286 women in managerial and professional jobs working in a large Turkish bank, a 72 percent response rate. Five organisational experiences were considered: negative attitudes towards women, equal treatment, support, career barriers and male standards. Women reporting more supportive organisational experiences and practices were more engaged in their work, more job and career satisfied, and indicated greater levels of psychological well-being.

Wentling, (2003) has shown that the twin roles of women cause tension and conflict due to her social structure which is still more dominant. In her study on working women in Delhi, he has shown that traditional authoritarian set up of Hindu social structure continues to be the same basically and hence women face problem of role conflict, change in attitudes of men and women according to the situation can help to overcome their problem.

Skinner and Pocock, (2008) investigated the relationship between work overload, work schedule control, work hours and their fit with preferences and work-life conflict among full-time employees (N=887). It was found that the strongest association with work-life conflict was demonstrated by work overload, followed by work schedule control, work hours and work hours fit. Time-based work life policies, procedures and interventions were found necessary, but not sufficient, for addressing work-life conflict. They called for effective management of work overload to support a healthy work-life relationship.

Ahmad ,(2007) examined the work-family conflict experienced by 239 married female production operators in dual-career families, the social support they received and the coping strategies used to manage the conflict. The women experienced more work interference with family than family interference with work. The intensity of work interference with family was significantly higher in the earlier life-cycle stage than in the later stage. About two thirds of the women indicated that they intended to leave their job upon having another child, mainly due to the rising cost of childcare services. They received the least social support from their supervisors compared to other sources, and

tended to cope with conflict using reactive role behaviour and personal role redefinition strategies.

Gunavathy and Suganya, (2007) in their study among married women employees of BPO companies traced the causes, consequences of work life imbalance and interventions for work life balance. More than two-thirds of the respondents stated the experienced work-life imbalance primarily on account of work interference with personal life. The causes for work life imbalance were classified as organizational and personal factors. The organizational factors included work-related factors, time-related factors and relationship-related factors. The personal factors included lack of family support, marital conflicts and frequent change in sleeping patterns. According to the study, the three main consequences of work-life imbalance were stress and burnout, ill-health and poor work performance. The respondents also experienced guilt of not being able to spend time with family, anxiety about poor performance, displacement of negative emotions on family members and on co-workers.

Wu, (2007) examined the relationship of self-efficacy, work family conflict, social support, gender role attitude, role model and career aspiration to top management among women in middle management at the manufacturing line. This study intended to determine the contribution of each factor to career aspiration. Data was collected from 109 married women in middle management at eight private manufacturing companies located in Bangi and Nilai. This study found that self-efficacy, social support, gender role attitude and role model were significantly related to career aspiration ($p < 0.05$). Specifically, self-efficacy and gender role attitude were the most significant antecedents of career aspiration among women in middle management in manufacturing line.

Babita, Mathur-Helm, (2006) examined the reality of the glass-ceiling phenomenon in South Africa's four major retail banks. The study investigated women's low numbers in their top management jobs. A total of 40 women managers were interviewed for their in-depth responses, which were content analyzed. The paper provided clarity for organizational leaders to identify growth barriers existing in their organizations, leading their women workforce towards a glass ceiling. The results indicated that the glass ceiling considered a myth by many was real and are nurtured by the organizational culture, policies and strategies besides women's own inadequacies. The study concluded that only the most decentralized organizations, characterized by a culture that supports women's top positions, will help in breaking down the glass ceiling, along with women's own efforts to grow, develop and empower themselves through academic and career development.

Jamali D, et al, (2006), made a study to explore the salience of glass ceiling type barriers in the Lebanese banking sector, based on the perceptions of a sample of Lebanese top and middle level women managers. The questionnaire was administered to a sample of 61 top and middle level women managers, drawn from the context of 12 different banks in the Lebanese context. They found that the common precepts of the glass ceiling theory were not supported in the context of Lebanese banks with overall positive inferences and perceptions reported by Lebanese women managers in relation to their work environment and daily work experiences.

Sophia, (2011) investigated the challenges facing women in career development in Kapsabet Municipality, Kenya. She found that most of the women employees were dissatisfied with career development programmes and women were discriminated against

in career development opportunities. The study recommended that organizations should strive to ensure that career development programmes were set to enhance career development amongst women employees. Top management should also be committed to the career development of women, and organizations should also introduce affirmative action to urgently address career development of women.

Although mentoring relationship is crucial to women in management in organizations, women are significantly less likely than men to develop these relationships, Wise and Bond, (2003). While researchers have demonstrated the importance of the mentor to the women managers they are often faced with organizational barriers which restrict the development of mentor relationships. Female managers may also have fewer formal and informal opportunities to obtain mentors than their male counterparts. The other issue is how people will interpret the relationship between the female manager and her male mentor. The study seeks to assess these issues and how they affect career advancement in Kenya.

Three recent studies by Advanced Teamware, inc. conducted where 6000 people completed a questionnaire on 915 middle-upper managers. Of the 31 areas examines, women outperformed men in 28 including conflict resolution, work quality, adaptation to change, productivity, idea generation, and motivation of others. Men handled pressure and coped with frustration better than women did. Both groups scored equally on delegating authority.

Another study by (Resign and Cotton), of 3000 managers. They found no differences on 30 attributes analyzed. However, they found that women emphasized

planning and organizing work and an empathic approach. They placed less emphasis on the need to win at all costs. Generally speaking, women leaders tend to be more participative and less autocratic, more effective in middle management, and in situations requiring cooperation.

Culture, money and political parties have been blamed for the poor performance of women in the last general election. An audit prepared by the women's shadow parliament of Kenya with support from United Nation Development Programme (UNDP) Amkeni Kenya noted that women performed dismally in elections despite efforts to boost the number. No woman was elected as a governor or senator. The survey notes that the governor seat attracted only seven women, but none of them won. Though 160 women vied for 290 parliamentary seats, only 16 were elected.

2.2 Barriers Women Face in Leadership Positions

Women in leadership confront barriers or obstacles that men do not realize exist. Some myths suggest women cannot discipline older workmates, particularly males; females are too emotional; too weak physically; and males resent working with females, Whitaker and Lane, (1990). After the myths are dispelled, the "glass ceiling barrier" that limits women from achieving high ranking position must be overcome, Cullen and Luna, (1993).

According to Cullen and Luna, (1993) society's attitude toward appropriate male and female roles is another obstacle that identifies women as not task-oriented enough, too dependent on feedback and evaluations of others, and lacking independence. Women

receive little or no encouragement to seek leadership positions, while men were encouraged to enter administration to a greater degree than women, despite the positive perceptions of principals toward female capabilities. This lack of encouragement exists even though women who earn doctorates are more likely than men to desire an academic career, but are not being hired at equal rates. The cumulative disadvantage results in women leaving the profession in greater numbers than men. The lack of formal and informal social networks, or not being a member of the “clubs” as men, results in the lack of recognition that often leads to advancement. Administration involves hard work, long hours, and lots of in-house politics which is stress provoking, when child care and home responsibilities are added, a woman can work 70 or more hours per week and that may conflict with family responsibilities. Since some administrative positions are located in another city or state, one barrier is the reluctance of women to relocate. The lack of support from the school board, the attitude of a few women administrators that, we don't hire the competition, the isolation associated with minority status, sex-typed expectations, and gender bias, the enormous amount of stress that is part of the job, and the lonely at the top feelings are barriers women face.

There also exists a lack of role models and mentors due to the fact that there is not a large amount of women in administrative positions. "Women lack general management or line experience" (Rasign et al, 1998). There is data to support this explanation. However, there are other studies that show that top executives were not distinguished from middle management by their line experience, but by the breadth of positions and departments they worked in. The study also found that the longer managers served in line positions, the less likely they moved into top management.

Women leaders are themselves the problem. They are either less suited for executive demands rather than men, unavailable because so few are sufficiently qualified, or lacking in self confidence. This has been refuted by a large number of published researches.

2.2.1 Organizational Barriers

Some argue that the glass ceiling is more of a societal blocker than an individual barrier. Still others argue that corporate culture or organizational barriers are to blame, T and D, (2006). Organizational barriers refer to the organizational-level factors that affect the differential hiring and promotion of men and women. While these barriers vary significantly from organization to organization, they can create a huge roadblock preventing women from advancement to top management, Baker, (2003).

2.2.2 Selection Process

One of the most common and well known barriers to career advancement is that of the selection process used by most companies. As indicated previously, the pool of women that are qualified for promotion to executive positions is quite small and therefore women simply cannot be promoted. According to Burke and Mattis, (2005), 82% of firms stated that lack of general management skills and line experience was a major contributing factor in their decisions not to promote women. However, another study finds some firms have a large pool of qualified women and simply do not consider them for the position, Burke, et al., (2005). Another rationale is that existing top management positions are held by men who tend to promote other men who are similar to themselves, Van Vianen and Fischer, (2002).

2.2.3 Workplace Relationships

Another organizational barrier is the relationships many women have with their mentors, bosses, and female co-workers. Most employees tend to bond through similar interests. Since there tend to be few executive women; many women are unable to find a female mentor. Laff, (2006) finds that women are inhibited in the workplace because of their limited access to capable mentors. Many people prefer to have mentors of the same gender because they tend to understand the challenges most commonly faced. Men do not face the same barriers, have the same family issues, and many times simply do not want to mentor a woman. The needs of women from their mentors also tend to differ from the needs of men. Many women claim to need more encouragement, an example to follow, and simply more tasks to complete. Male mentors tend to be resistant to mentor a woman because they perceive women as more emotional, not as skilled at problem-solving, and because of the risk of workplace sexual harassment issues, Hansen, (2008).

2.2.4 Globalization

Globalization presents many new barriers for women. Senior level managers and top executives now have even more responsibility and higher expectations than before. Due to the time pressures and relocations of many businesses, top executives have had to move to new towns, cities, and countries. This presents a large barrier for many women with families and a working spouse or significant other, Wellington, et.al. (2003).

Perhaps more surprisingly, the largest problem, however, has not been family issues; it has been adoption of new cultures and social norms. While the natural ability of women to adapt is higher than that of men, a large number of women have been unable to accept

the culture shock and fail in their new environments. Similarly, women may also experience resistance in other cultures to female leadership. Many countries will simply not deal with a women executive because of their beliefs and perceptions that women are incapable of doing business effectively, Strout, (2001).

2.2.5 Internal Motivation

Many senior executives and top management claim that women simply do not have a desire to excel in their current job positions. However, a recent study indicated that 55% of women not in management positions desire to be in the top most levels of their organizations. Annis, (2008) found that many women lose their drive to excel due to the many obstacles encountered along the path of becoming a manager. These obstacles include discrimination, stereotyping, prejudice, family demands, and lack of opportunities, Emory, (2008).

2.2.6 Life-style Conflicts

For many women, in addition to the roles they hold in their companies, they remain the primary caretakers for their families, Hughes et.al. (2009).

As the time constraints and demands of a job become more important upon promotion forces many women are forced to choose between family and career. According to Wallace, (2008), very few women CEOs and women executives have children due to the effect it would have on their career. Conversely, many women have voluntarily left their jobs due to family decisions, Baxter, (2000); Wallace, (2008). While a decreasing number of women are taking pregnancy or childcare leaves, 32% of women still leave their jobs once they have children. Also, once a woman has children she is much more reluctant to

travel and work long hours due to their responsibilities at home further hindering her promotion likelihood, Woodard,(2007); Hewlett, (2002; Lyons and McArthur, (2005).

2.2.7 Stereotyping and Leadership Styles

Past perceptions of leadership skills, competence, and assertiveness may hinder the ability of women to succeed in management. Many companies associate masculine characteristics with success and achievement. These include assertiveness, aggressiveness, and task-oriented leadership abilities, Jogulu and Wood (2006). Other stereotypes of women include the expectation of being modest, quiet, selfless, and nurturing. These simple characteristics may be seen as non- executive material. Entities desire a leader who will execute, take criticism, and do what is best for the company at all cost, Nelson and Levesque, (2007).

Leadership styles are closely associated with common perceptions and stereotypes of women leaders Goff, (2005). In early 1990 studies found that men emerged as task-oriented leaders more frequently than women who emerged as social leaders more frequently than men.

Due to the demands of leadership positions, it became a socially accepted tendency for men to assume leadership because their task-oriented style was more widely accepted, Ryan and Haslan, (2007). As time moved on, the social leadership style of women was more accepted and valued in some circumstances, Jogulu and Wood, (2006).

One of the most comprehensive inquiries into personalities and leadership issues is the “Big Five” personality traits. The five factors include openness, conscientiousness,

extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Cross-cultural research has concluded that there is a universal pattern of sex differences on responses to the Big Five Inventory. Women consistently report higher neuroticism and agreeableness, and men often report higher extraversion and conscientiousness. Sex-based differences in personality traits are larger in prosperous, healthy, and egalitarian cultures in which women have more opportunities that are equal to those of men. Von Glinow et al. (2006).

2.2.8 Work and family balance

Work and life balance challenges can impact women's advancement and, if not dealt with, may contribute to the glass-ceiling phenomenon. Women are typically the primary family caregivers for children and/or the elderly. Assumptions are often made regarding women's availability to do a job without interference from family responsibilities. Further, some organizations may not offer work/life programs that support outside commitments, particularly for senior-level positions. As a possible solution, perhaps, women could choose to work fewer hours than men in order to spend more time with their families. Women also measure success in the workplace differently than men. Men tend to measure success by high salaries and important job titles whereas women place a higher value on their relationships with colleagues and community service. Therefore, many women are at a disadvantage to take steps that would increase the likelihood of advancing up the corporate ladder.

Having children brings a lot of responsibilities to a family life and this is the reason why many women decide to leave their careers prematurely so as to raise their children sufficiently. For this reason, employers occasionally hesitate to promote women

because they are afraid that women will choose their families first. Nonetheless, an increasing number of companies are realizing the fact that women need some time out and have undertaken attempts to encourage women to remain longer in their careers as the participation of women is vital to the diversity and to the successes of corporations (Goff, 2005).

Kamau, (2001) indicates that the different needs of women lead them to create a self-imposed glass ceiling, in this manner only artificially seeming as if a glass ceiling would block their careers. Confronted with the ever-present glass ceiling, it is no longer possible, as has often been the case, to talk of the “choice of women for family” in explaining the absence of women in applying for certain vacancies, whilst at present many women uphold both a successful career and children. It is therefore necessary to “shift the focus” so as to give more weight to the organizational obstacles outlined here.

Many women who are at senior management positions seem to be not quite willing to climb for upper management positions because they cannot take the risk of bringing political conflicts, and ambition into their family lives. Additionally, women often do not see their own personal skills and talent sufficient for those kinds of roles. However, the idea that women are not interested in high hierarchical positions because of the difficulty of reconciliation is increasingly challenged. Thus, the 2004 Catalyst study, “corporate leadership: same workplace, different realities” shows that women executives who aim at reaching the Chief Executive Officer’s position are as much as men and women with children at home desire it even more (55% against 46%).

Finally, the realization of organizational work-family initiatives is perceived to pave the way for women to make it to the top. Especially as programs such as child care support services, maternity leave arrangements or part-time working enables women to balance their family needs without sacrificing work. Powell (1999) mentioned that the “typical executive job has enormous responsibilities, time demands and pressures, which eventually calls for considerable sacrifices in personal life”. As a consequence, women are often less willing than men to make such substantial sacrifices as many want to have children, spend time with family or simply do not want such a huge responsibility in their daily work.

Goff (2005) retain that there are four mental behaviors which block the career progress of women managers and these are: a sense of victimization, limiting personal convictions, single-mindedness, paying attention to the status quo. Research shows that in societies where gender based roles are imposed, a working women perceives her in a different position than men. Initially, since being a wife and mother is priority for women they choose not to travel and work for long hours which affect their career progress. Laff, (2006) explains that some professional women give up the opportunities because of travel involved in their jobs.

2.2.9 Organizational Influences

Goff (2005) explain that in public sector, supposedly more equal; women additionally struggle to occupy all posts and to reach the highest hierarchical level. In three of the public sector employment areas (State, local authorities, hospital), women are

concentrated in the lower qualified positions. There is also a large degree of segmentation in terms of careers. At university, for instance, whilst there appears to be a large degree of parity in senior lecturer posts, women only represent 15% of professors, across all disciplines. In France : in the case of the disciplines studied, the rate of passage of women Assistant professor (maître-assistant) to the rank of Professor, is not related to their numbers in the category and remains lower than men of the numbers involved (Laff, 2006).

The research performed by Bagues & Esteve-Volart, (2007) found an extremely low percentage of women in supervisory and management positions, at both the private and public sector. For instance, in Italy and France, 3% and 4% respectively, of the 50 largest companies' board directors are women. In the US, women only made up 3, 4% of the top level management back in 1997. Finally, in Europe, none of the 25 highest earning Chief Executive Officers' are female Emerald, (2006). These numbers already indicate that women are faced with treatment discrimination in terms of promotion possibilities, especially likely to occur into management and further extending to pay disparities between men and women across occupational categories.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

The study was guided by the feminist theory. The theory recognizes the pervasive influence of gender divisions on social life and tries to understand women's oppression and the structures in society that espouse this oppression and subordination. The feminist perspective, looking at the many similarities between the genders, concludes that women and men have equal potential for individual development. Differences in the realization

of that potential, therefore, must result from externally imposed constraints and from the influence of social institutions and values Nzomo, (1995).

Feminists advance three broad perspectives in trying to explain the absence of women from senior management in the public and private sector. The first perspective is personal factors in which the paucity of women in management positions is attributed to the psychosocial attributes, including personality characteristics, attitudes and behavioral skills of women themselves.

Among personal factors are self-esteem and self-confidence, lack of motivation and ambition to accept challenges “to go up the ladder”, women’s low potential for leadership, less assertiveness, less emotional stability and lack of ability to handle a crisis Bond ,(1996). On the other hand, personal factors such as, assertiveness, confidence, resourceful creativeness, loyalty and trustworthiness help women to ascend to senior management positions, Singh, J.K. (2002)

The structural or institutional factors paradigm advances the view that it is the disadvantageous position of women in the organizational structure (few numbers, little power, limited access to resources) which shapes and defines the behaviour and positions of women. The underlying premise of this perspective is that men and women are equally capable of and committed to assuming positions of leadership. The problem is vested in the structure and the remedy is a fundamental change to eliminate inappropriate discrimination in institutional policies and practices. The structural factors that affect women negatively include: discriminatory appointment and promotion practices; male

resistance to women in management positions; absence of policies and legislations to ensure participation of women; and limited opportunities for leadership training and for demonstrating competence as a result of power structure in the work place Bond, (1996). Structural factors affecting the participation of women positively include the presence of organizational guidelines, good mentoring systems, proper staff development programmes' for women, transparent appointment and promotion procedures, support services for women, access to information technology and flexible work schedules.

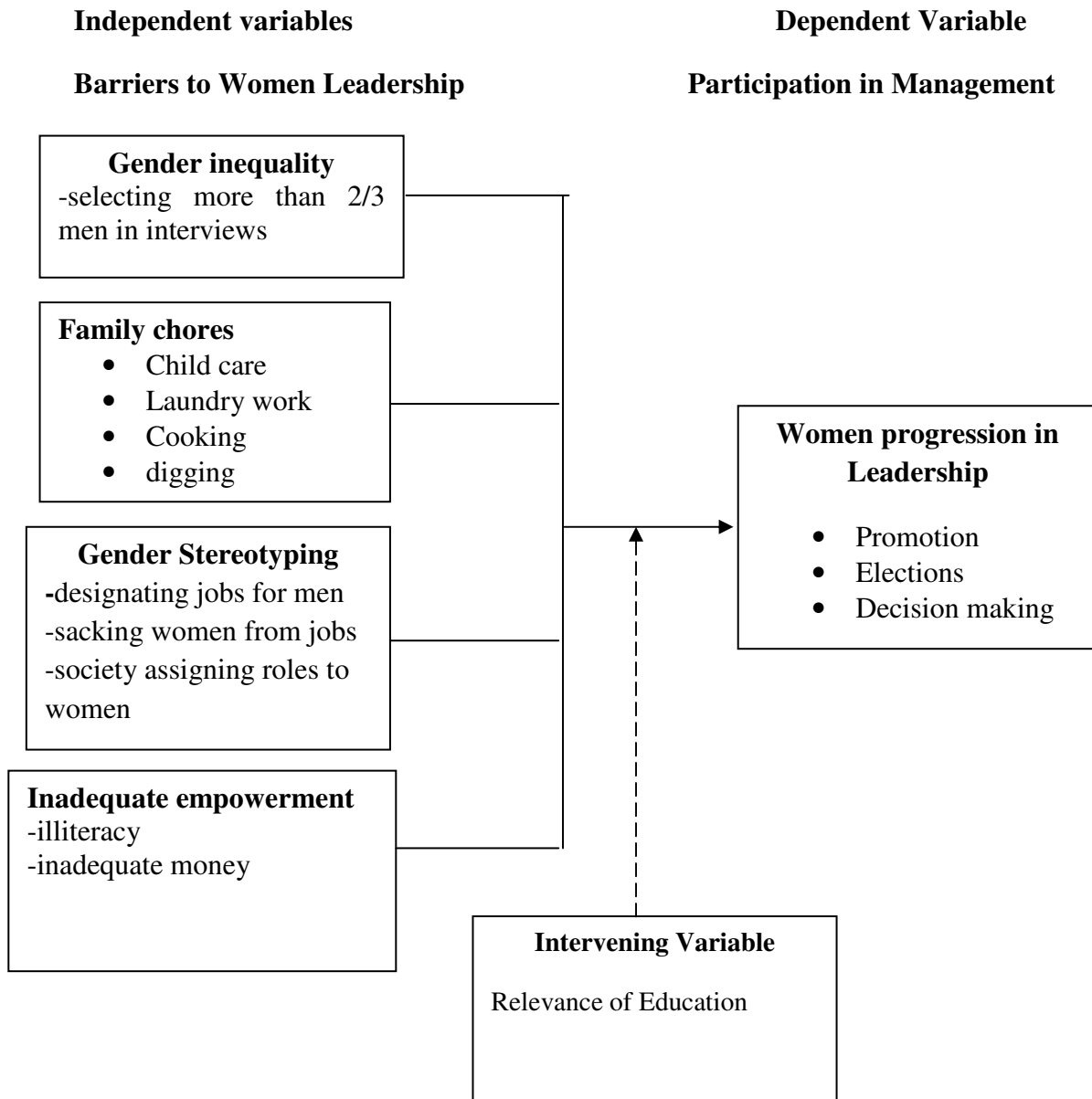
The last perspective is the one advanced by Smulders, (1998). She explores the cultural factors which link gender factors and organizational structure factors. Her analysis is concerned with the social construction of gender and the assignment of specific roles, responsibilities and expectations to women and men.

The gender- based roles, irrelevant to the work place, are carried into the work place and kept in place because the actors involved, both dominant and subordinate, subscribe to social and organization, Smulders, (1998). The cultural factors lead to stereotypical views about women's abilities within the cultural context. The view that top management positions are only suitable for men relegates women to secondary roles. The emphasis is placed on women's role as mothers, caregivers and nurturers.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is a model that shows the relationship between independent and the dependent variables. The conceptual framework was formulated as follows in figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework



Source: Author 2013

The model in figure 1 shows a relationship between the independent variables (gender inequality, family chores, gender stereo typing and inadequate empowerment) and the dependent variable denoted by women participation in management. There are also the intervening variables that are likely to affect the relationship.

2.5 Knowledge gap

According to Helfat, et al. (2006), there is dramatic increase of women in business leadership roles as of 2005 women accounted for 46.5% of the United States workforce, but for less than 8% of its top management positions although at Fortune 500 companies the figure was a bit higher .The Economist, (2005). Female managers' earnings now average 72% of their male colleagues' Emory, (2008).

Nelson and Lavesque (2007), women in the United States only comprise 25% of the doctorates in math and science and less than 17% in engineering and computer and information sciences. The figures suggest education is an enabler of the glass ceiling.

According to Flanders, (1994) employers often believe that women are less committed to work and less able to undertake a full time career than men, due to their biological make up, rather than ability.

A study carried out by Cross, (2010) revealed a clear realisation among the female managers that their male counterparts were overtly engaging in networking activities which gave them increased levels of visibility among the senior management team.

Wentling, (2003) has shown that the twin roles of women cause tension and conflict due to her social structure which is still more dominant. In her study on working women in Delhi, she has shown that traditional authoritarian set up of Hindu social structure continues to be the same basically. Sophia, (2011) investigated the challenges facing women in career development in Kapsabet Municipality, Kenya. She found that most of the women employees were dissatisfied with career development programmes and women were discriminated against in career development opportunities.

According to Burke and Mattis, (2005), 82% of firms stated that lack of general management skills and line experience was a major contributing factor in their decisions not to promote women. Laff, (2006) finds that women are inhibited in the workplace because of their limited access to capable mentors. Many people prefer to have mentors of the same gender because they tend to understand the challenges most commonly faced.

Annis, (2008) finds many women lose their drive to excel due to the many obstacles encountered along the path of becoming a manager. These obstacles include discrimination, stereotyping, prejudice, family demands, and lack of opportunities Emory, (2008). Studies in the past have shown that women face a lot of challenges in their leadership quest, much has been done only in the developed countries where there is different economic, social, cultural and leadership perceptions both by community and government. In developing countries like Kenya, there is still a lot of unique challenges facing women and despite the government giving women leadership positions in the current parliament the fruits are yet to be realized and this is why the current study seeks to establish the challenges that women face in Eldoret town.

2.6 Summary

The debates on the relationship between gender and leadership and whether women are better leaders than men are part of increasing scholarly attention being given to the topic of women and educational leadership. Even though many findings show minor differences or make no distinction between male and female leadership styles, other evidence suggests that leadership is not gender-neutral and that, as Jogulu and Wood (2006) argue, “leadership is a very gendered concept” (p. 37) as it is typically identified with men across cultures. In addition, socialization, gender stereotypes, social expectations all contribute to the prevailing culture and are shown to exert influences and constraints on women even when they achieve leadership positions.

Leadership roles can help to modify gender roles, but only to the extent that there are a few differences between the way women and men lead and manage. Women’s leadership styles of collaboration and participation are claimed to be “highly effective in today’s turbulent, culturally diverse environment” Stelter, (2002, p. 44). Further, given their socially assigned roles of nurturing and caring, along with a democratic and participative way of working, women are more aligned with the transformational and instructional leadership models which are considered effective ways of leading. Androgynous leadership that combines both masculine and feminine styles is also employed by women. This may blur the relationship between gender and leadership and it also indicates a shift in female leadership style which is likely to be more “relevant to managing modern organisations with “multi gender, multinational and multi social environments” Ryan and Haslan (2007, p. 128). These findings support the claim that

women can be better educational leaders than men. However, as Ryan and Haslan, (2007) caution, it “all depends” (p. 129) on such different factors as national culture, socialization, and organizational culture.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used in the research study. It includes the following areas; The research study area, research design, the target population, sampling and sampling techniques, data collection instruments, validity and reliability, data analysis and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

Research design refers to the way a study is planned and conducted, It is the procedure and techniques employed to answer the research problem Polonsky and Weller, (2009). It explains the pattern the research intended to follow so as to control variance- maximize variance due to the independent variables, eliminate or reduce influence of extraneous variables, minimize error variance and at the same time ensure that the findings can be tested for significance ,(Ng'ang'a et al 2009).

This study was conducted through a descriptive survey research design approach. Survey design describes and explains the events as they are in the real life context in which they occurred, Polonsky and Weller, (2009).This research design was suitable for this study because it was able to appropriately capture the required data within the specified time for the study it provided the required data more quickly thus enabling the gathering and analysis of the relevant information.

Kombo and Tromp, (2006) assert that descriptive studies are not only restricted to fact finding but may also result in the formulation of important principles of knowledge and solutions to significant problems. This involves measurement, classification, analysis, comparison and interpretation of data.

3.3 Target Population

Oso and Onen, (2005) define target population as the total number of subjects that are in the interest of the researcher. This study was based in Eldoret town. The study targeted people holding managerial positions who estimated to be 580 as sourced from Kenya National Bureau of Statics offices in Eldoret.

3.4 Sampling for the study

The researcher employed snowball sampling to select the sampled respondents. This was most appropriate because the respondents could direct the researcher to the next person who was in a managerial position. Orodho (2004) argues that 10% of the total population is enough to act as representative sample in a survey study. Therefore, a sample population of the study was set at 58 respondents.

3.5 Data collection

The study was based on primary data collected from the field using questionnaires. The main data collection instrument was questionnaires to the sampled respondents. According to Kothari, (2009) questionnaires are; first it is cheap to administer since it does not require a trained researcher to distribute and collect the questionnaires. Secondly, it eliminates interaction between the interviewer and the respondents which reduces biases. Moreover, the person filling the questionnaire is

anonymous and therefore may be willing to give information especially over sensitive issues. It is a useful method, particularly when the questions are straightforward enough to be comprehended without verbal explanation. However, the researcher cannot probe for further information, cannot control who fills the questionnaire and the response rates may be low Kothari, (2009).

According to Ng'ang'a et al (2009) questionnaire is an efficient research tool because the researcher is likely to obtain personal ideas from the respondent. The respondents are set free to read questions and complete the questionnaire and return it at the end of the activity. Clearance to conduct the research will seek permission from the School of Continuous and Distance Education. The researcher before collecting data from the participant informed respondents in advance about the study. The researcher administered questionnaires personally to respondents and collected them after its completion without leaving them since respondents were selected randomly at places of work.

3.5.1 Validity of Research Instruments

According to Oso and Onen (2005) validity is quality attributed to proposition or measures to the degree to which they conform to establish knowledge or truth. An attitude scale is considered valid, for example, to the degree to which its results conform to other measures of possession of the attitude. Validity therefore refers to the extent to which an instrument can measure what it ought to measure. It therefore refers to the extent to which an instrument asks the right questions in terms of accuracy.

Validity of an instrument included the appearance and the content validity. According to Oso and Onen (2005) validity is the success of the scale in measuring what it sets out to measure so that the differences in individual scores can be taken as representing true differences in the characteristic under study.

The instruments of data collection was to be sub-divided as per the variables and objectives and was comprehensive and representative of the behaviour domains that was to measure content validity of the instrument and was determined through expert judgment which involved discussing items in the instrument with the supervisor and colleagues. The suggestion for change will be incorporated in the final instrument to be used in the study.

3.5.2 Reliability of Research Instruments

According to Ng'ang'a et al, (2009) an instrument is considered reliable when it is able to elicit the same responses each time it is administered. Reliability is concerned with precision and accuracy. For research to be reliable it must show that if carried out on a similar group of respondents in a similar context, then similar results would be found. Poor reliability degrades precision of a single measurement and reduces ability to track. A pilot study will be conducted in Eldoret town on 10 respondents after which after two weeks the same instruments was administered to the same respondents. The two results will be subjected to correlation test using Cronbach Alpha. From the test results above both findings should be above 0.7, Ng'ang'a et al (2009) supports that correlation of 0.7 as acceptable threshold, and thus the questionnaire will be considered to be reliable.

3.6 Data Analysis Procedures

The data collected from the research instruments was entered into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and checking was done for any data entry error before data analysis was done. Descriptive statistics (frequency analysis) was performed for presenting and analyzing the data. Descriptive analysis involves the calculations of frequency distributions, percentages. The employment of descriptive statistics allowed for the reduction and summary of data as well as analysis of items or variables so as to provide greater insight as to the characteristics of the sample.

Descriptive statistics enabled the researcher to describe the aggregation of raw data in non numerical terms Neumann, (2000). It involves the use of cross-tabulation. This enabled the researcher to describe, summarize and compare variables.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

Research ethics refers to the appropriateness of researcher's behaviour in relation to the rights of those who became the subjects of the research work, or are affected by it Ng'ang'a et al (2009). The appropriateness and acceptability of behaviour as researchers affects broader social norms of behaviour. Permission to carry out the study was sought from the School of Continuous and Distant Education. The researcher respected the individuals' rights and also safeguarded their personal integrity. In the course of the study, the respondent was assured of anonymity and confidentiality. While collecting the data most of the respondents who were not willing to provide information because it touched their employment and career mismatch but after assuring them that the study was

purely for academic purposes and their confidentiality was maintained they were willing to provide information freely. Also, the respondents were assured of their ability to withdraw from the study at any time they wished to do so. There were no names or personal identification numbers to be reflected on the questionnaires except the numbering and identification of data during data editing.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.0. Introduction

This chapter gives a presentation of the findings collected from the study on barriers to women leadership progression in management. The chapter starts with descriptive statistics, including demographic characteristics of respondents, while the rest of the section has comparison of means and a ranking.

4.1. Demographic characteristics of respondents

The study sought to establish the background information of the study. This information was useful in determining the answers of the respondents in relation to their demography. The study also intended to use this data to investigate if the sample was representative of the population.

4.1.1 Gender

The researcher sought to establish the gender of the respondents.

Table 4.1 Gender of the respondents

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Male	38	65.5
Female	20	34.5
Total	58	100.0

From the study above, 66% were male while 34% were female. The study above indicates that majority of the respondents were male. However, both genders were well represented to carry out the study.

4.1.2 Age of the respondents

The researcher sought to establish the age of the respondents. The respondents were asked to indicate their ages and the findings presented on the table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Age of the respondents

	Frequency	Valid Percent
20-30	17	29.3
30-40	24	41.4
40-50	4	6.9
50 and above	13	22.4
Total	58	100.0

From the study above, 29% of the respondents were between the ages of 20-30 years while 41% were between the ages of 30-40 years, moreover 65% were between the ages of 40-50 years and 22% were above 50 years of age. The majority of the respondents were aged between 30-40 years. This age was ideal in carrying out the study. The age group was well represented.

4.1.3 Marital status of the respondents

The researcher sought to establish the marital status of the respondents.

Table 4.3 Marital status of the respondents

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Single	19	32.8
Divorced	7	12.1
Married	32	55.2
Total	58	100.0

The study above indicates that 32% of the respondents were single while 12% percent were divorced; and, 55% of the respondents were married. Majority of the respondents were married as indicated by 55.2% of the respondents. The marital status of the respondents was well distributed in carrying out the study.

4.1.4 Education level of the respondents

The researcher had to establish the education level of the respondents.

Table 4.4 Education Level of the Respondents

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Diploma	34	58.6
Bachelor degree	14	24.1
Masters degree	10	17.2
Total	58	100.0

From the study above, the respondents were of different educational levels from which they read and interpreted the questionnaires well. 58% of the respondents had reached diploma level, 24% held bachelors degree from recognized universities, while 17% held masters degree from recognized universities. This shows that a higher number of the respondents held diplomas as their educational level. The education level of the respondents was ideal in carrying out the study since they were able to respond to questionnaires considerably.

4.1.5 Reason for joining the profession

The study had to find out the reasons why the respondents had joined their respective professions

Table 4.5 Reason for joining the profession

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Job security	8	13.8
Failure to get another job	12	20.7
Higher social status	9	15.5
Way of earning a living	12	20.7
Attractive salary and benefits	17	29.3
Total	58	100.0

This study shows different reasons as to why respondents chose their respective professions. 14% of the respondents gave their reason for choosing their profession as job security, 20% of them gave the reason of failure to get another job, 15% said that their reason was because of the social status, it is a way of earning a living was the reason given by 20% of the respondents, finally 29% of the respondents stated that it was the attractive salary and the benefits that made them join their profession. The study indicated that majority of the respondents joined the profession because of attractive salary and benefits as supported by 29.3% of the respondents.

4.1.6 Promotional opportunity

The researcher had to establish the promotional opportunities available for the respondents.

Table 4.6 career promotion

	Frequency	Valid Percent
yes, promoted once	27	46.6
yes, promoted twice	24	41.4
never been promoted	7	12.1
Total	58	100.0

The study above indicates that, 46% of the respondents stated that they had been promoted once, while 41% had been promoted twice. However 12% of the respondents stated that they have never been promoted.

Table 4.7 Promotional opportunity

	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
Yes, promoted once	14	13	27
Yes, promoted twice	19	5	24
Never been promoted	5	2	7
Total	38	20	58

The study findings indicated that both male and female respondents were promoted once or twice. On the contrary with the respondents' opinions, research indicates that men tend to be promoted faster than women, even in organizations in which women dominate

numerically and in which men are relative newcomers. Rusaw, (1994) also found that the U.S. federal government promoted women more slowly and less often than male counterparts. Reasons for these differences are varied. Men's greater success in achieving promotion is due to their greater use of informal networks as opposed to women's greater reliance on formal promotion processes alone. The operation of promotion policies in many organizations is an area which often has an unclear set of criteria attached. This allows for subjectivity rather than objectivity to enter the process with senior management allowed considerable scope for discretion. Often, promotion criteria are focused on a preconceived notion of who should perform the role rather than the qualifications required.

4.1.7 A woman's first priority

The researcher had to establish if a woman's first priority should be motherhood and becoming a good spouse.

Table 4.8 motherhood / good spouse and career

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Motherhood/good spouse	20	34.5
career	38	65.5
Total	58	100.0

The study reveals that, 35% of the respondents stated that a woman's first priority should be motherhood and becoming a good spouse as opposed by 65% who disagreed with that

statement. From the study, it is therefore clear that motherhood and becoming a good spouse is not a priority for women. This was attributed to the idea that majority of women today are pursuing education with career ambitions that gives them professional jobs.

4.1.8 Women are seeking administrative positions

The researcher had to establish if many women are seeking administrative positions in various sectors.

Table 4.9 women seek administrative positions

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes, they seek	38	65.5
No, they do not seek	20	34.5
Total	58	100.0

Many women are seeking administrative positions in various sectors, a fact that 65% of the respondents agreed with. However 34% disagreed with this fact stating that only a few number of women were seeking administrative positions.

4.1.9 Women are supportive of each other

The researcher sought to establish if women are supportive of each other.

Table 4.10 Women are supportive each other

	Frequency	Valid Percent
mostly	43	74.1
Not at all	15	25.9
Total	58	100.0

From the study above 74% of the respondents stated that women are supportive for each other in the profession a fact that 26% of them disagreed with. This implied that most women are supportive of each other.

4.1.10 Career women are often torn between family and work responsibility

It was necessary to establish if Career women are often torn between family and work responsibility. The results were recorded in the table below.

Table 4.11 Career women are often torn between family and work

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	40	69.0
No	18	31.0
Total	58	100.0

Most of the career women are often torn between families and work responsibilities a fact that 69% of the respondents supported. 31% disagreed with this fact stating that the

family responsibility was not different from work responsibility. In reference to Gunavathy and Suganya, (2007), in their study among married women employees of BPO companies traced the causes, consequences of work life imbalance and interventions for work life balance. More than two-third of the respondents stated that experienced work-life imbalance primarily on account of work interference with personal life. The causes for work life imbalance were classified as organizational and personal factors. The organizational factors included work-related factors, time-related factors and relationship-related factors. The personal factors included lack of family support, marital conflicts and frequent change in sleeping patterns. According to the study, the three main consequences of work-life imbalance were stress and burnout, ill-health and poor work performance. The respondents also experienced guilt of not being able to spend time with family, anxiety about poor performance, displacement of negative emotions on family members and on co-workers.

4.1.11 Women often lack freedom of geographical mobility

The study established lack of freedom of geographical mobility impedes women's career development.

Table 4.12 lack of freedom of geographical mobility

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	44	75.9
No	14	24.1
Total	58	100.0

The study above indicates that, 76% of the respondents stated that women often lack freedom of geographical mobility which impedes their career development mostly because of their children schooling and other family obligations a fact that is opposed by 24%. It's apparent that lack freedom of geographical mobility impedes their career development. In general, women are less available for geographic mobility and are mostly "followers" of their spouses. Dual career households therefore impact on traditional family roles; the problem of such households is a female problem, however, as women have greater difficulty in making their husbands and partners accept any professional mobility. It is typically the woman who has to interrupt her career to follow the male. To meet (to satisfy) the educational needs of children, dual-career couples can develop different carrier strategies: differentiation or division of roles, sequentially or simultaneously. For a professional couple with dual career, juggling work and home responsibilities has never been easy. However, in today's global economy, where local job opportunities may be harder to find, new challenges are emerging. May be, it is possible to have a successful career without sacrificing personal satisfaction, life balance, or relationships.

4.1.12 Women are always perceived in stereotype roles

The researcher had to establish if women are always perceived in stereotype roles.

Table 4.13 Women are always perceived in stereotype roles

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	50	86.2
No	8	13.8
Total	58	100.0

Women are always perceived in stereotype roles mostly due to their gossiping and their ability to meddle in people's affairs a fact that is supported by 86% of the respondents. However 13% disagreed with this statement stating that it is a perception and that women are not stereotypes and should not be associated with that role. Past perceptions of leadership skills, competence, and assertiveness may hinder the ability of women to succeed in management. Many companies associate masculine characteristics with success and achievement. These include assertiveness, aggressiveness, and task-oriented leadership abilities. Other stereotypes of women include the expectation of being modest, quiet, selfless, and nurturing. These simple characteristics may be seen as non- executive material.

Table 4.15 Stereotype Roles

Stereotype Roles * Education Cross-tabulation				
	Educational Level			Total
	Diploma	Bachelors Degree	Masters Degree	
Yes	34	12	4	50
No	0	2	6	8
Total	34	14	10	58

From the table 4.3, 34 respondents with diploma said that women were always perceived in stereotype roles. On the other hand, 6 out of the 8 respondents that did not agree with this had Masters Degree. The findings indicated a relationship between education level and the view on women roles in an entity. Entities desire a leader who will execute, take criticism, and do what is best for the company at all cost. Due to the demands of leadership positions, it became a socially accepted tendency for men to assume leadership because their task-oriented style was more widely accepted. As time moved on, the social leadership style of women was more accepted and valued in some circumstances.

4.1.13 Promotion to leadership roles is discriminatory

The researcher had to establish if women promotion to leadership roles was discriminatory.

Table 4.16 Promotion to leadership roles is discriminatory

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	13	22.4
No	45	77.6
Total	58	100.0

The study indicated that 22% of the respondents stated that promotion to leadership roles was discriminatory a fact that 77% disagreed with saying that promotion to leadership roles was not discriminatory but dependant on merits and performance of an individual. It is valid from the study that promotion to leadership roles is not discriminatory as supported by the majority of the respondents. But in the contrary, women face tough choices trying to climb up the ladder.

4.1.14 Inborn gender differences account primarily for the ways men and women function on the job

The researcher had to establish if inborn gender differences account primarily for the ways men and women function on the job.

Table 4.17 Inborn gender differences account primarily for the ways men and women function on the job

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	50	86.2
No	8	13.8
Total	58	100.0

The way men and women function on the job is accounted for primarily by inborn gender differences a fact that is supported by 86% of the respondents. However 14% disagreed with this citing that inborn gender differences do not account primarily for the ways men and women function on the job.

4.1.15 Affirmative action has helped to open doors for career advancement for a woman

The study had to establish if affirmative action has helped to open doors for career advancement for a woman.

Table 4.18 affirmative action has helped to open doors for career advancement for a woman

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	51	87.9
No	7	12.1
Total	58	100.0

The study indicated that 88% of the respondents felt that affirmative action has helped to open doors for career advancement for a woman, while 12% disagreed stating that affirmative action had not been taken. Gender equality and fair distribution of opportunities amongst men and women is a subject of heated debate.

4.2 Under representation of women in administrative position

The second objective of the study was to establish institutional [policies that govern recruitment, appointment and promotions. The results were recorded in the table below.

Table 4.19 under representation of women in administrative position

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Cultural stereotyping of roles	16	27.6
Lack of role models	15	25.9
Corruption	11	19.0
Lack of ambition	16	27.6
Total	58	100.0

In the study above, the respondents gave out their views on why there was under representation of women in administrative positions. 27% stated that it is the cultural stereotyping of roles, 26% stated that it is lack of role models, 19% stated that it is corruption, while 27% of the respondents stated that it is lack of ambition. In reference to George, (2005) having children brings a lot of responsibilities to a family life and this is the reason why many women decide to leave their careers prematurely so as to raise their children sufficiently. For this reason, employers occasionally hesitate to promote women because they are afraid that women will choose their families first. Nonetheless, an increasing number of companies are realizing the fact that women need some time out and have undertaken attempts to encourage women to remain longer in their careers as the participation of women is vital to the diversity and to the successes of corporations.

4.2.1 Rank women in the profession

The researcher sought to establish how women are ranked in different professions.

Table 4.20 Rank women in the profession

	Frequency	Valid Percent
They tend to perform in the same range as Men	42	72.4
They tend to perform worse than men	16	27.6
Total	58	100.0

The study indicates that women tend to perform in the same range as men. This idea is supported by 72.4% of the respondents. According to Saville & Holdsworth a study of 3000 managers found no differences on 30 attributes analyzed. However, they found that women emphasized planning and organizing work as an empathic approach. They placed less emphasis on the need to win at all costs. Generally speaking, women leaders tend to be more participative and less autocratic, more effective in middle management, and in situations requiring cooperation. This idea concurs with the statement above. On the contrary in regard to Flanders, (1994) employers often believe that women are less committed to work and less able to undertake a full time career than men, due to their biological make up, rather than ability. When promotion opportunities arise and an

employer is given the choice between a man and a woman with equal qualifications, the woman he posits, is frequently viewed as the greater risk.

4.2.2 Main sources of information on gender equality

The study sought to establish the main sources of information on gender equality. The results were recorded in the table below.

Table 4.21 Main sources of information on gender equality

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Newspaper	13	22.4
Radio	31	53.4
TV	5	8.6
Internet	9	15.5
Total	58	100.0

The study indicates that majority of the respondents were for the idea that the main source of information on gender equality was radio as supported by 53.4% of the respondent, because of its availability and easy maintenance.

Table 4.22 Sources of Information * Gender Cross-tabulation

		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Source of information	Newspaper	11	2	13
	Radio	14	17	31
	TV	5	0	5
	Internet	8	1	9
Total		38	20	58

A cross-tabulation of source of information and gender indicates that majority of newspaper; radio and TV listeners were male respondents. Female respondents dominated in the radio section. Majority of rural women do not have access to television sets, internet and newspapers. Women organizations like Federation of Women Lawyers (FIDA) have been on the forefront in using media like radio to spread gender equality and encourage women to take administrative positions. This media has had notable impact on advocating for women empowerment and managing to reduce drastically gender inequality at a lower percentage though.

4.2.3 Women should always work near their homes

The researcher sought to establish if women should always work near their homes.

Table 4.23 Women should always work near their homes

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	37	63.8
No	21	36.2
Total	58	100.0

The study indicated that women should always work near their homes. This idea is supported by 64% of the respondents. A small percentage of 36.2% disagreed. However, majority that agreed attributed this to family responsibilities that required their close attention. Additionally, women were supposed to be near their families since their husbands cannot allow them work far from home. In reference to Ahmad, (2007) examined the work-family conflict experienced by 239 married female production operators in dual-career families, the social support they received and the coping strategies used to manage the conflict. The women experienced more work interference with family than family interference with work. The intensity of work interference with family was significantly higher in the earlier life-cycle stage than in the later stage. About two thirds of the women indicated that they intended to leave their job upon having another child, mainly due to the rising cost of childcare services. They received the least social support from their supervisors compared to other sources, and tended to cope with conflict using reactive role behaviour and personal role redefinition strategies. In addition, Administration involves hard work, long hours, and lots of in-house politics which is stress provoking, when child care and home responsibilities are added, a woman

can work 70 or more hours per week that may conflict with family responsibilities. Since some administrative positions are located in another city or state, one barrier is the reluctance of women to relocate.

4.2.4 Administrative post will encourage a woman to have extra marital affairs

The researcher sought to establish if women pursuing administrative posts engage in extra marital affairs.

Table 4.24 Administrative post will encourage a woman to have extra marital affairs

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	8	13.8
No	50	86.2
Total	58	100.0

The study above suggests that a man who supports his wife to pursue an administrative post is not encouraging her to have extra marital affairs as disputed by 86.2% of the respondents that disputed this idea. In reference to Wentling, (2003) the twin roles of women cause tension and conflict due to her social structure which is still more dominant. In her study on working women in Delhi, he has shown that traditional authoritarian set up of Hindu social structure continues to be the same basically and hence women face problem of role conflict.

4.2.5 Sexual harassment in the work place

The researcher sought to establish if there was sexual harassment in the work place.

Table 4.25 Sexual harassment in the work place

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	52	89.7
No	6	10.3
Total	58	100.0

The study indicated that majority of the respondents had undergone sexual harassment in the work place as shown by 90% of the respondents that were for this idea. 10% of the respondents disputed this idea.

4.2.5 Kind of Experience

The study further investigated the kinds of experience the respondents had in their workplace. The study findings were presented on the table 4.2.

Table 4.26 Kind of Experience

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Making comments on physical appearance	28	48.3
Inappropriate touching	15	25.9
Invitation for outing	5	8.6
Making sexual remarks or gesture	4	6.9
Making sexual or dirty jokes	6	10.3
Total	58	100.0

The study indicates that, majority of the respondents had undergone some kind of sexual harassment at the work place. Making comments on physical appearance was very common if 48.3% of the respondents that were for this idea is anything to go by. On the other hand, 26% reported inappropriate touching while 10.3% reported making sexual or dirty jokes. Negative attitudes towards women and sex-typed stereotype of women in the workplace continue to be reflected in the discriminatory organization practices through discriminatory managerial recruitment and selection processes, training and development opportunities performance evaluation procedures and promotions. From the literature the operation of promotion policies in many organizations is an area which often has unclear set of criteria attached.

4.2.6 Performance management

The researcher sought to establish performance management at the work place.

Table 4.27 Performance management

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Men and women treated equally	13	22.4
Men treated less favourably	8	13.8
Women treated less favourably	37	63.8
Total	58	100.0

The study indicated that women are treated less favorably than men 64% of the respondents supported this idea. For instance; often, promotion criteria are focused on a preconceived notion of who should perform the role rather than the qualification required. Employers often believe that women are less able to undertake a full-time career than men, due to their biological make up, rather than ability. When promotion appointment arises and an employer is given the choice between a man and a woman with equal qualification, the woman is viewed as the greater risk.

Table 4.28 Performance Management * Gender Cross-tabulation

Performance Management * Gender Cross-tabulation				
		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Performance Management	Men and women treated equally	4	9	13
	Men treated less favorably	3	5	8
	Women treated less favorably	31	6	37
Total		38	20	58

The cross tabulation shows that opinion on treatment of women is related to gender. While 9 female respondents indicate that there is equal treatment, 31 male respondents said that women were treated less favorably. Working in male dominated positions is seen to reduce women advancement levels as male managerial hierarchies are more likely to promote more managerial positions as men feel more comfortable with other men than they do with women. However, the perspective of men- women equality is still minimal as seen by 22.4% of the respondents.

4.3 Women are ranked top managers

The third objective of the study was to establish the positions women occupy as managers in Kenya. The study sought from the respondents if women were ranked top managers and the study findings were presented on the table 4.4.

Table 4.29 Women are ranked top managers

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Strongly agree	5	8.6
Agree	2	3.4
Undecided	3	5.2
Disagree	6	10.3
Strongly disagree	42	72.4
Total	58	100.0

The study above indicates that, women are not ranked as top managers as disputed by 83% of the respondents. On the other hand, 12% agreed while 5.2% were undecided. Women hardly appear as top managers. The respondents that were interviewed attributed this to many factors that included discrimination and lack of women role models. In reference to Helfat, et al. (2006), women in top management positions were nearly non-existent from the 1970s to the early 1990s. Similarly, A research carried out by Thomas (1994), revealed that majority of organizations favor the use of informal recruitment and selection processes, such as small social networks and employee referrals. Many organizations rely on informal, rather than merit based processes in order to select the best candidates and to screen out large numbers of unsuitable applicants. Informal recruitment processes can lead to bias because recruiter tends to determine job requirements according to the current job- holder's gender. If the current job-holder is male and displays certain characteristics and abilities, then these characteristics and abilities are determined as being necessary to the job. Applicants are then assessed

according to these requirements, and where these are perceived as being held more by men than a man is preferred. This process tends to limit the number of women applicants for men's job. It reinforces occupational segregation and contributes to building stereotypical views of men and women and women's roles and abilities.

4.3.1 They occupy middle level managerial positions

The study established if women occupied middle level managerial positions. The results were recorded in the table below.

Table 4.30 occupy middle level managerial positions

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Strongly agree	33	56.9
Agree	7	12.1
Undecided	9	15.5
Disagree	6	10.3
Strongly disagree	3	5.2
Total	58	100.0

The study reveals that women occupy middle level managerial positions as supported by 69% of the respondents. On the other hand, 16% were undecided while 16% disagreed to the same idea. In spite of the idea that women hardly occupy high managerial level, they are given a chance in middle or low managerial levels. In reference to a scholar who supports this idea, Jamali, Safieddine, (2006), few organizations make a systematic effort

in assisting women by keeping them informed about all training and career development programs available and giving them access to these programs. A study carried out in Lebanon revealed that women have fewer opportunities for professional development in organizations compared to men. The research suggests that managerial advancement is positively related to human capital credentials. More specifically, women's advancement to top management is directly related to their increased knowledge and skills and professional development opportunities made available to them throughout their careers. In spite of the consistent association of on-job-development and promotion, research indicates that women are offered fewer developmental experiences than men.

4.3.2 Many women are not given a chance to be managers

The study sought to establish if women were given a chance to be managers.

Table 4.31 Many women are not given a chance to be managers

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Strongly agree	31	53.4
Agree	9	15.5
Undecided	7	12.1
Disagree	9	15.5
Strongly disagree	2	3.4
Total	58	100.0

The study above indicates that, many women are not given a chance to be managers. This idea is supported by 69% of the respondents that were for this idea. Employers often

believe that women are less committed to work and less able to undertake a full time career than men, due to their biological make up, rather than ability. When promotion opportunities arise and an employer is given the choice between a man and a woman with equal qualifications, the woman he posits, is frequently viewed as the greater risk. Working in male dominated hierarchies is seen to reduce women's advancement levels as male managerial hierarchies are more likely to promote men for managerial positions, as men feel more comfortable with other men than they do with women.

4.4 Strategies that can be used to enhance women's participation in management

The researcher sought to know the strategies that were being used by the respondents to enhance women participation in management. Most of the respondents were of the opinion that women were being empowered by engaging them in strategic meetings in the society. Empowerment is usually associated with women not only because they have been historically disadvantaged in access to material resources like credit, property and money, but they have also been excluded from social resources like education or inside knowledge of some businesses. Women who have been excluded from decision making for most of their lives often lack this sense of agency that allows them to define goals and act effectively to achieve them.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the key findings, a comparative discussion and conclusions based on research objectives. The chapter concludes with recommendations barriers to women leadership progression in management.

5.1 Summary of findings

From the study above, the respondents were of different educational levels from which they read and interpreted the questionnaires well. Majority of the respondents had diploma education. This tends to show that a high number of the respondents held diplomas as their educational level. However, the education level of the respondents was ideal in carrying out the study since they were able to respond to questionnaires considerably. This study tended to show the different reasons as to why respondents chose their professions. Majority of the respondents represented by 29% of the respondents stated that it was the attractive salary and the benefits that made them join their profession. The study indicated that majority of the respondents joined the profession because of attractive salary and benefits as supported by 29.3% of the respondents.

The study findings indicate that female employees are not given equal promotion opportunities as men. On the contrary with the respondents' opinions, research indicates

that men tend to be promoted faster than women, even in organizations in which women dominate numerically and in which men are relative newcomers. The U.S. federal government promoted women more slowly and less often than male counterparts. Men's greater success in achieving promotion is part of their greater use of informal networks as opposed to women's greater reliance on formal promotion processes alone. Most of the career women are often torn between families and work responsibilities as the study findings indicate. Among married women employees of BPO companies traced the causes, consequences of work life imbalance and interventions for work life balance. The causes for work life imbalance are classified as organizational and personal factors. The organizational factors include work-related factors, time-related factors and relationship-related factors. The personal factors include lack of family support, marital conflicts and frequent change in sleeping patterns. According to the study, the three main consequences of work-life imbalance were stress and burnout, ill-health and poor work performance.

The study indicates women often lack freedom of geographical mobility which impedes their career development mostly because of their children schooling and other family obligations. In general, women are less available for geographic mobility and are mostly "followers" of their spouses. Dual career households therefore impact on traditional family roles; the problem of such households is a female problem, however, as women have greater difficulty in making their husbands and partners accept any professional mobility. To meet (to satisfy) the educational needs of children, dual-career couples can develop different carrier strategies: differentiation or division of roles, sequentially or

simultaneously. The acceptance or not of mobility by the partner can be influenced by the support proposed by the company. If there is a dual career situation, for the double career couple, the mobilization of men can be a problem for his conjoint. For a professional couple with dual career, juggling work and home responsibilities has never been easy. However, in today's global economy, where local job opportunities may be harder to find, new challenges are emerging. May be, it is possible to have a successful career without sacrificing personal satisfaction, life balance, or relationships.

Women are always perceived in stereotype roles mostly due to their gossiping and their ability to meddle in people's affairs as indicated by the study findings. Past perceptions of leadership skills, competence, and assertiveness may hinder the ability of women to succeed in management. The study further found out this view is mostly held by men. Many companies associate masculine characteristics with success and achievement. Due to the demands of leadership positions, it became a socially accepted tendency for men to assume leadership because their task-oriented style was more widely accepted. As time moved on, the social leadership style of women was more accepted and valued in some circumstances. One of the most comprehensive inquiries into personalities and leadership issues is the "Big Five" personality traits. The five factors include openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Cross-cultural research has concluded that there is a universal pattern of sex differences on responses to the Big Five Inventory. Women consistently report higher neuroticism and agreeableness, and men often report higher extraversion and conscientiousness.

In the study, the views of employees were found on why there was under representation of women in administrative positions. 27% think that it is the cultural stereotyping of roles, 26% say that it is lack of role models, 19% indicate that it is corruption, while 27% of the employees say that it is lack of ambition. Having children brings a lot of responsibilities to a family life and this is the reason why many women decide to leave their careers prematurely so as to raise their children sufficiently.

The study indicates that women tend to perform in the same range as men. However, women emphasize on planning and organizing work and an empathic approach. Generally speaking, women leaders tend to be more participative and less autocratic, more effective in middle management, and in situations requiring cooperation. This idea concurs with the statement above. On the contrary employers often believe that women are less committed to work and less able to undertake a full time career than men, due to their biological make up, rather than ability. When promotion opportunities arise and an employer is given the choice between a man and a woman with equal qualifications, the woman he posits, is frequently viewed as the greater risk. Working in male dominated hierarchies is seen to reduce women's advancement levels as male managerial hierarchies are more likely to promote men for managerial positions, as men feel more comfortable with other men than they do with women.

The study indicates that the main source of information on gender equality was radio. This is due to the availability and easy maintenance. Majority of rural women do not have access to television sets, internet and newspapers. Women organizations like Federation of Women Lawyers (FIDA) have been on the forefront in using media like radio to

spread gender equality and encourage women to take administrative positions. This media has had notable impact on advocating for women empowerment and managing to reduce drastically gender inequality at a lower percentage though.

The study indicated that women should always work near their homes. Additionally, women were supposed to be near their families since their husbands cannot allow them work far from home. The women experience more work interference with family than family interference with work. The intensity of work interference with family was significantly higher in the earlier life-cycle stage than in the later stage. About two thirds of the women intend to leave their job upon having another child, mainly due to the rising cost of childcare services. The study findings indicate that a man who supports his wife to pursue an administrative post is not encouraging her to have extra marital affairs. The twin roles of women cause tension and conflict due to her social structure which is still more dominant. Traditional authoritarian set up traditional social structure continues to be the same basically and hence women face problem of role conflict.

The study indicates that, majority of the employees undergo a kind of sexual harassment at the work place. Making comments on physical appearance is very common while inappropriate touching and making sexual or dirty jokes also occur. The lack of support from the management, the attitude of a few women administrators that, we don't hire the competition, the isolation associated with minority status, sex-typed expectations, and gender biasness, the enormous amount of stress that is part of the job, and the lonely at the top feelings are barriers women face. Negative attitudes towards women and sex-typed stereotype of women in the workplace continue to be reflected in the

discriminatory organization practices through discriminatory managerial recruitment and selection processes, training and development opportunities performance evaluation procedures and promotions. From the literature the operation of promotion policies in many organizations is an area which often has unclear set of criteria attached.

The study indicated that women are treated less favorably than men. Majority of men share this view compared to women. For instance; often, promotion criteria are focused on a preconceived notion of who should perform the role rather than the qualification required. The study findings indicate that, women are not ranked as top managers. This attributed this to many factors that include discrimination and lack of women role models. Majority of organizations favor the use of informal recruitment and selection processes, such as small social networks and employee referrals. Many organizations rely on informal, rather than merit based processes in order to select the best candidates and to screen out large numbers of unsuitable applicants. Informal recruitment processes can lead to biasness because recruiters tend to determine job requirements according to the current job- holder's gender. If the current job-holder is male and displays certain characteristics and abilities, then these characteristics and abilities are determined as being necessary for the job. Applicants are then assessed according to these requirements, and where these are perceived as being held more by men then a man is preferred. This process tends to limit the number of women applicants for men's job. It reinforces occupational segregation and contributes to building stereotypical views of men and women and women's roles and abilities.

The study reveals that women occupy middle level managerial positions. In spite of the idea that women hardly occupy high managerial level, they are given a chance in middle or low managerial levels. Few organizations make a systematic effort in assisting women by keeping them informed about all training and career development programs available and giving them access to these programs. A study carried out in Lebanon revealed that women have fewer opportunities for professional development in organizations compared to men. The research suggests that managerial advancement is positively related to human capital credentials. More specifically, women's advancement to top management is directly related to their increased knowledge and skills and professional development opportunities made available to them throughout their careers. In spite of the consistent association of on-job-development and promotion, research indicates that women are offered fewer developmental experiences than men.

5.2 Conclusions

This study tended to show the different reasons as to why respondents chose their professions. Majority of the respondents stated that it was the attractive salary and the benefits that made them join their profession. According to the study, the three main consequences of work-life imbalance were stress and burnout, ill-health and poor work performance. The respondents also experienced guilt of not being able to spend time with family, anxiety about poor performance, displacement of negative emotions on family members and on co-workers. The study above indicates that women often lack freedom of geographical mobility which impedes their career development mostly because of their children schooling and other family obligations. The study revealed that women tend to perform in the same range as men. The major source of information on gender equality is

the radio due to lack of access to television sets, internet and newspapers. The study indicates that, majority of the respondents had undergone a kind of sexual harassment at the work place. Making comments on physical appearance was very common in organisations.

5.4 Recommendations

The study makes the following recommendations based on the study findings;

1. Women should be empowered by both the government and the community to ensure that gender equality is achieved at work
2. Women should always work near their homes to enable them balance home and work chores
3. Media should encourage men to support their wives to pursue administrative posts

5.5 Suggestions for Further research

Further studies should be carried in the following areas;

1. Impact of education on women empowerment
2. Effects of globalization on women in leadership positions

REFERENCES

- Ahmad, Aminah. (2007) "Work-Family Conflict, Life-Cycle Stage, Social Support, and Coping Strategies among Women Employees". *The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning*, 3.1.: 70-79.
- Arnold J, Mackenzie- Davy K (1994) Graduate experiences of organizational career management. *Int. J. Career Management*, 6(1):14-18.
- Annis, B. (2008). Men and women in leadership. *Canadian Manager*, 20(4), 23.
- Babita Mathur-Helm (2006), Women and the glass ceiling in South African banks: an illusion or reality?. *Women in Management Review*. Vol. 21 No. 4, 2006 pp. 311-326
- Baker, J. (2003). Glass ceiling or sticky floors? A model of high-income law graduates. *Journal of Labor Research*, 24(4), 695-711.
- Baxter, J., and Wright, E. O. (2000). The glass ceiling hypothesis: A reply to critics.
- Bi-Annual Report (2010), Implementation of 30% Affirmative action on Employment and Recruitment of Women in the Public Service. Ministry of Gender.
- Bond, S. (1996). Academic leadership. Unpublished trainers module prepared for the
- Burke, R.J. and Mattis, M. (2005), Supporting Women's Career Advancement, Edward Elgar, Cheltenham.
- Catalyst (2002), 2002 Catalyst Census of Women Corporate Officers and Top Earners of Canada, available at www.catalystwomen.org/
- Clinton-Rodham, H. (2003), *Living History*, London: Headline.
- Cordano M, Scherer Owen C (2002) Attitude towards women as managers. *Women in Management Review*, 17(2):51-60
- Coughlan A (2002) Women in Management in Ireland. Irish Business Employer's Confederation, Dublin.
- Cross C (2010) Barriers to the executive suite evidence from Ireland. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal* 31(2):104-119.
- Cross C, Linehan M (2006) Advancing females' career in the high-tech sector. *Women in Management Review*, 21(1):28-39.

- Cullen, D.L., & Luna, G.(1993).Women mentoring in academe: Addressing the gender gap in higher education. *Gender & Education*.
- Dimmock, C., and Walker, A. (2005). *Educational leadership: Culture and diversity*. London: Sage Publications.
- Eagly, A. H., and Carl, L. L. (2007) The female leadership advantage: An evaluation of the evidence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14, 807-834.
- Emory (2008). Is this the year “equal pay for equal work” is addressed?
- Epstein, M. J., R. G. Niemi and Powell, L. W. (2005), ‘Do Women and Men State Legislators Differ?’ in S. Thomas and C. Wilcox, *Women and Elective Politics*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Flanders ML (1994) *Breakthrough: The Career Women’s Guide to Shattering The Glass Ceiling*, Paul Chapman Publishing, London.
- Glass Cliff (2008). Retrieved March 23, 2007, from Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopedia,
- Goff, K. (2005). *Advancing women’s leadership*. Retrieved March 12, 2008, from The White House Project website.
- Gunavathy and Suganya (2007). “A study of work life balance in BPO Sector”, University of Madras, Chennai
- Hansen, K. (2008). The value of a mentor. *QuintCareers.com*, March 2013, retrieved from http://www.quintcareers.com/mentor_value.html
- Helfat, C., Harris, D., and Wolfson, P. (2006). The pipeline to the top: Women and men in the top executive ranks of U.S. corporations. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, November, (20), 42-64.
- Hewlett, S. A. (2002). Executive women and the myth of having it all. April 2002. *Harvard Business Review*. 15 Nov. 34-41. <http://proxy.library.eiu.edu>:
- Hughes, R. L., Ginnett, R. C., and Curphy, G. J. (2009). *Leadership enhancing the lessons of experience*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Information and Communications for Development 2009: *Extending Reach and Increasing Impact*, 35–50.Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Jamali D, Sidani Y, Safieddie A (2005) Constraints facing working women in Lebanon. *Women in Management*, 20(8):581-594.

- Jamali, D., Safieddine A. and M. Daouk (2006) The glass ceiling: some positive trends from the Lebanese banking sector. *Women in Management Review*, Vol. 21 No. 8, 2006 pp. 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.
- Kamau, N. A. (2001). The status of women and higher education management: A case study of one private university in Kenya. Unpublished M.A dissertation. Institute of Education, University of London
- Kanake, L. (1997). Gender disparities among the academic staff in Kenyan universities. Nairobi: Luceum Educational Consultants Ltd.
- Knowledge @ Emory, 11 September. Wharton School of the University of
- Kombo , D.K . and Tromp D.A (2006) Proposal and Thesis writing ,Makuyo , Don Bosco printing press , Kenya.
- Kothari, C. R. (2009) *Research Methodology Methods and Techniques* 2nd Revised edition New Age International publishers.
- Laff, M. (2006). The invisible wall. *T+D*. (61), 32-38.
- 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
- Lyons, D., and McArthur, C. (2005). Gendre's unspoken role in leadership evaluations. *Human Resource Planning*, 30(3), 25-32.
- Maathai, M. W. (2006), *Unbowed: A Memoir*, London: William Heinemann. Managing Staff in Higher Education Institutions. UNESCO, Paris International Institute of Education
- Miller, L. Neathey, F., Pollard, E. and D. Mill (2004), *Occupational Segregation, Gender Gaps, and Skill Gaps*. Working Paper Series No. 15. Manchester, Equal Opportunities Commission.
- Mugenda and Mugenda (2004): *Research Methods; Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methods*. Acts Press. Nairobi.
- 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.

- Neuman, W. (1998), *True to Ourselves: A Celebration of Women Making a Difference*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Neuman, W.L (2000). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon Publishers.
- Ng'ang'a, S.I.; Kosgei, Z.K.; and Gathuthi, E.W. (2009). *Fundamentals of Management Research Methods - Nairobi: Macmillan Kenya (Publishers) Limited*.
- Nzomo, M. (1995). *Women in top management in Kenya*. Nairobi, African Association for Public Administration and Management.
- Oso, W.Y and Owen, D. (2005). *A General guideline to writing Research Proposal and report* .Nairobi: Option printers and publishers. Pennsylvania. 16 Nov 2008.
- Polonsky, M. J. and Weller, D .S. (2009) *Designing and Managing a Research Project-A business students guide 5th edition* Tejeshwar Singh, New Delhi.
- Powell GN, Graves LM (2003) *Women and Men in Management*. Newbury Park, CA.
- Qiang, C. Z., & Rossotto, C. M. (2009). *Economic Impacts of Broadband*.
- Resign BR, Cotton (1998) *Easier said than done: Gender differences in perceived barriers to gaining a mentor*. *Academy of Management*, 34(3):931-951.
- Ronald J. Burke, Mustafa Koyuncu and Lisa Fiksenbaum (2010), *Organisational practices supporting women's career advancement and their satisfaction and well-being in Turkey*. *Women in Management Review* Vol. 21 No. 8, pp. 610-624.
- Rusaw A. (1994) *Mobility for federal women managers: Is training enough?* *Public Personnel Management*, 23(2):257-262.
- Ryan, M. K., and Haslan, S. A. (2007). *The glass cliff: Exploring the dynamics surrounding the appointment of women to precarious leadership positions*. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(2), 549-572.
- Schuler, S., Hoang, A., Vu, H., Tran, M., Bui, M., and Pham, T. (2006). *Constructions of gender in Vietnam: In pursuit of the 'Three Criteria'*. *Culture, Health and Sexuality*, pg8 (5), 383-94.
- Singh, J.K. 2002. *Women and higher education management in the Commonwealth: An overview*. Paper presented at the Regional Training of Trainers Workshop on Women and Higher Education Management, held at the Catholic University of Eastern Africa. Nairobi, 16-22 June.

- Skinner N and Pocock B. (2008) "Work-life conflict: Is work time or work overload more important?" *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 46.3: 303-315.
- Smulders, A. E. A. (1998). *Creating space for women: Gender linked factors*.
- Sophia J. Ali. (2011) "Challenges Facing Women Employees In Career Development: A Focus On Kapsabet Municipality, Kenya" *International Journal of Current Research* 3.8, 196-203.
- Stelter, N. (2002). Gender differences in leadership: Current social issues and future organisational implications. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 8(4), 88-89.
- Strout, E. (2001). Confronting the glass border. *Sales and Marketing Management*, (153), 19.
- T and D, (2006). Glass ceiling not cracked for executives. June 19.
- Therenu P (1995) Correlates of women's chief executive status: Comparison with men chief executive and women top managers. *J. Career Development* 21(3):201-212.
- Thomas P (1994) A Case Study of Leadership Behaviours Exhibited by Principal and Others in A Collaborative School Environment Doctoral Dissertation, Virginia Tech.
- Thomas, S. and C. Wilcox (eds) (2005), *Women and Elective Office*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Van Vianen, A. E. M., and Fischer, A. H. (2002). Illuminating the glass ceiling: The role of organizational culture preferences. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 75(3), 315-337.
- Von Glinow, M. A., and McShane, S. L. (2006). *Organizational Behavior: Emerging Realities for the Workplace Revolution* (4th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Wallace, O. (2008). What is the glass ceiling?
- WisegEEK. 2008. Conjecture Corporation, 16 Nov., 14-18.
- Wellington, S., Kropf, M., and Gerkovich, P. (2003). What's holding women back? *Harvard Business Review*, (81), 18-19.
- Wentling RM (2003) The career development and aspiration of women in middle management revisited. *Women Management* 18(6):311-324.

- Whitaker, K.S., & Lane, K.(1990).What is “a woman’s place” in educational administration? *Education Digest*, 56(3), 12-16.www.wpnet.com/cgi-bin/epwtop/page.
- Wise S, Bond S (2003) Work life policy; Does it do what it as on time? *Women in Management*.18 (2):849-865.
- Wood G (2008) Gender stereotypical attitude. *Equal Opportunity International*, 27(7):613-628.
- Woodard, T. (2007). Developing women leaders: It’s now a bottom line issue. *Competence Women*, 10-11.
- Wu, Hwei Ming Self-Efficacy, (2007) *Work-Family Conflict, Social Support, Gender Role Attitude and Role Model as Antecedents of Career Aspiration among Women in Middle Management*. Masters thesis, University Putra, Malaysia .

Appendix III: Questionnaire

This questionnaire has been designed to solicit information for purely academic purposes.

This is to enable the researcher complete my project on the topic; **BARRIERS TO WOMEN LEADERSHIP PROGRESSION IN MANAGEMENT ORGANIZATIONS, A STUDY OF ELDORET MUNICIPALITY**

NB. All information given would be treated with utmost confidentiality. Thank you

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Your sex

1 = Male []

2 = Female []

2. How old are you?

3. Position held.....

4. Marital status

= Single []

2 = Married []

3 = others []

5. What are your current professional qualifications

1 = Diploma []

2 = Bachelors Degree []

3 = Masters Degree []

4 = Other (specify).....

SECTION B: Position women occupy as managers in Kenya

What position women occupy as managers in Kenya.

Position women occupy as managers in Kenya				
1	Women are ranked as top managers		[]	Select the most appropriate
2	They occupy middle level managerial positions		[]	
3	Women hardly appear in the managerial positions		[]	
4	They slowly climb the managerial ladder		[]	
5	Many women are not given a chance to be managers		[]	

SECTION C: Factors that affect women's participation in management

1. What is the **PRINCIPAL REASON** why you joined the profession?

- 1 = Desire to work []
- 2 = Safe employment (job security) []
- 3 = Failure to get another job []
- 4 = Born to be a teacher []
- 5 = It was the easiest job to get []
- 6 = Higher social status []
- 7 = Need to stay close to home []
- 8 = Ideal profession for women []
- 9 = Ideal profession for men []
- 10 = Opportunity for self-advancement []
- 11 = Way of earning living []
- 12 = Inspired by a former teacher []
- 13 = Attractive salary and benefits []
- 14 = Wanted to continue a family tradition in this field
- 15 = Other reason.....

2. Have you ever received any promotion during your career?

NB: Promotion refers to movement from a lower rank to that of a higher rank

- 1 = Yes, promoted once []
- 2 = Yes, promoted more than once []
- 3 = Never been promoted []

3. A women's first priority should be motherhood and becoming a good spouse

Yes []

No []

4. Many women are seeking administrative positions in the sector

Yes []

No []

5. Women are supportive of each other in the profession

Yes []

No []

6. Career women are frequently torn between family and work responsibilities

Yes []

No []

7. Women often lack freedom of geographic mobility which impedes their career development

Yes []

No []

8. Women are frequently perceived in stereotype roles

Stereotype roles refers to mothers and wives

Yes []

No []

9. Promotion to leadership positions is discriminatory

Yes []

No []

10. Inborn gender differences account primarily for the ways men and women function on the job

Yes []

No []

11. I feel that affirmative action has helped to open doors for career advancement for a woman

Yes []

No []

SECTION D: Institutional practices that govern recruitment, appointment and promotions

1. In your opinion, why is there under-representation of women in administration positions in the education sector (**Respondents allowed more than one choice**)

1= Cultural stereotyping of “appropriate roles” for men and women
[]

1 = Women avoid managerial responsibilities []

2 Lack of women role models and mentors in educational leadership
[]

3 = Corruption []

4 = Lack of experience []

5 = Women’s lack of aspiration to top level administrative posts []

6 = Few women in decision making positions []

7 = Male networking excluding women []

2. How would you rank the women in the profession/post

1 = They tend to perform better than the men []

2 = They tend to perform in the same range as men do []

3 = They tend to perform worse than the men []

4 = I don't know: I don't really have much interaction with them []

3. What are your main sources of information on gender equality issues and the situation of women and men in Kenya?

1 = Newspapers []

2 = Radio []

3 = TV []

4 = Internet []

5 = Magazines targeting women []

6 = Other magazines []

7 = Books []

8 = Friends []

9 = Family []

10 = Women's organizations []

11 = Colleagues []

12 = Educational institution []

13 = Government sources []

14 = Religious institution []

4. Women should always work near their home

Yes []

No []

5. A man who supports his wife to pursue an administrative post is encouraging her to have extra marital affairs

Yes []

No []

6. Have you ever gone through the experience of sexual harassment in the workplace during your teaching career

Yes []

No []

7. If yes what kind of experience? **RESPONDENTS ALLOWED MORE THAN ONE**

CHOICE

1= Making comments on physical appearance or body parts []

2 = Asking very personal questions []

3 = Inappropriate touching []

4 = Invitation for outing []

5 = Invasion of personal space []

6= Making sexual remarks or gesture []

7= Displaying sexually offensive materials []

8 = Making suggestive looks []

9 = Making sexual or dirty jokes []

10 = Making unwelcome sexual advances []

11= Talking about sexual activity []

12 = Attempted rape []

8. Appraisal/Performance Management

- 1 = Men & Women treated equally []
- 2 = Men treated less favorably []
- 3 = Women treated less favorably []

9. Training & Development

- 1 = Men & Women treated equally []
- 2 = Men treated less favorably []
- 3 = Women treated less favorably []

10. Promotion Opportunities

- 1 = Men & Women treated equally []
- 2 = Men treated less favorably []
- 3 = Women treated less favorably []

SECTION E: Strategies that can be used to enhance women’s participation in management

1. What are the challenges faced by women in advancing in their careers into leadership

2. What are some of the most effective strategies needed in place to increase the number of women in management position?

THANK YOU