FACTORS DETERMINING WOMEN INVOLVEMENT IN MANAGERIAL POSITIONS WITHIN THE TELECOMMUNICATION INDUSTRY IN NAIROBI COUNTY, KENYA

BY

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A Research Project Report Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of Master of Arts Degree in Project Planning and Management of the University of Nairobi

2015
DECLARATION

This research project report is my original work and has not been presented for an award in any other University.

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L50/82298/2012

This research project report has been submitted for examination with my approval as the University Supervisor:

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this research project report to my husband Arnold Ochieng for his encouragement and support. To my dear daughter Janet Ochieng for her patience and understanding while I was undertaking this course.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am deeply indebted to my supervisor Dr. Juliana Mutoro for her guidance and assistance when undertaking this course. I am most grateful to all the lecturers at the University of Nairobi for their guidance throughout the course. I am also grateful to the staff of the University of Nairobi Extra Mural Centre who contributed in one way or another in my success throughout this course. My gratitude also goes to the University of Nairobi at large for giving me the opportunity to undertake this course.

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God bless you all.
# TABLE OF CONTENT

DECLARATION.................................................................................................................. ii
DEDICATION................................................................................................................... iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT..................................................................................................... iv
TABLE OF CONTENT...................................................................................................... v
LIST OF TABLES.............................................................................................................. ix
LIST OF FIGURES.......................................................................................................... xi
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS.............................................................................. xii
ABSTRACT....................................................................................................................... xiii

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION .................................................................................... 1
  1.1 Background to the Study......................................................................................... 1
  1.2 Statement of the Problem...................................................................................... 6
  1.3 Purpose of the Study............................................................................................. 8
  1.4 Objectives of the Study......................................................................................... 8
  1.5 Research Questions............................................................................................. 9
  1.6 Significance of the study..................................................................................... 9
  1.7 Delimitations of the study................................................................................... 10
  1.8 Limitations of the study....................................................................................... 10
  1.9 Basic assumptions of the study.......................................................................... 10
  1.10 Definition of significant terms as used in the study......................................... 10
  1.11 Organization of the study.................................................................................. 11

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW..................................................................... 12
  2.1 Introduction............................................................................................................ 12
  2.2 Decision Making and women involvement in managerial positions.................. 12
  2.3 Level of education and women involvement in managerial positions.................. 17
  2.4 Provision of Equal Opportunities and women involvement in managerial positions.... 19
  2.6 Theoretical Framework....................................................................................... 26
2.6.1 Feminist Theory ................................................................. 26
2.7 Conceptual Framework ........................................................ 27
2.8 Knowledge Gap ................................................................ 29
2.9 Summary ............................................................................. 30

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY ........................................ 31
3.1 Introduction .......................................................................... 31
3.2 Research Design ................................................................. 31
3.3 Target Population .................................................................. 31
3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures ......................................... 32
  3.4.1 Sample size ................................................................... 32
  3.4.2 Sampling procedures ....................................................... 32
3.5 Research Instruments ............................................................. 33
3.6 Validity of the Research Instruments ........................................... 34
3.7 Reliability of the Research Instruments ........................................ 35
3.8 Data Collection Procedures .................................................... 35
3.9 Data Analysis Techniques ....................................................... 36
3.10 Ethical Issues in Research ...................................................... 36

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION ......................................................... 38
4.1 Introduction .......................................................................... 38
4.2 Questionnaire Return Rate ...................................................... 38
4.3 Demographic Information ...................................................... 38
  4.3.1 Gender of the respondents ............................................... 38
  4.3.2 Age bracket of the respondents ....................................... 39
  4.3.3 Marital Status of the respondents ................................... 40
  4.3.4 Experience of the respondents ....................................... 41
4.4 Decision making and women involvement in managerial positions .......... 41
  4.4.1 Women consideration for Managerial positions .................. 42
  4.4.2 Gender Perspective in Decision-making .......................... 42
4.4.4 Decision making and rational reasoning ........................................ 44
4.4.5 Information sources and decision making ....................................... 44
4.4.6 Advise and decision making .......................................................... 45
4.4.7 Capacity building and decision making .......................................... 46
4.4.8 Confidence in introducing issues of women involvement in managerial positions ...... 47
4.4.9 Knowledge about decision making ................................................. 48
4.4.10 Type of Capacity Building ......................................................... 48

4.5 Level of education and women involvement in managerial positions ............... 49
4.5.1 Training sessions on career development ......................................... 49
4.5.2 Use of external expertise concerning education and training .................... 50
4.5.3 Resource Materials Availability ................................................... 51
4.5.4 Extent to which education level determines women involvement in management ..... 51
4.5.5 Type of training Mostly Offered to employees .................................. 52

4.6 Provision of Equal Opportunities and women involvement in managerial positions ........ 53
4.6.1 Gender Determination of Role ...................................................... 53
4.6.2 Hierarchical Value of Masculinity and Feminism ................................ 54
4.6.3 Recognition and Value of Men’s Work .......................................... 55
4.6.4 Expressions of Stereotypes and Inequality ..................................... 55
4.6.5 Respectful Relations ................................................................. 56
4.6.6 Men’s versus Women’s opinions .................................................. 57
4.6.7 Special needs ............................................................................... 57

4.7 Socio-cultural Factors and women involvement in managerial positions .............. 59
4.7.1 Demands of the family and work .................................................. 59
4.7.2 Skin colour and consideration for positions ..................................... 60
4.7.3 Extent to which socio-cultural factors determine women involvement in managerial positions ................................................................. 60
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS................................................................................................................. 62
5.1. Introduction................................................................................................................................. 62
5.2 Summary of Findings ..................................................................................................................... 62
5.3 Discussions .................................................................................................................................. 64
5.4 Conclusions .................................................................................................................................. 67
5.5 Recommendations ....................................................................................................................... 68
5.6 Suggestions for Further Research ................................................................................................ 69
5.7 Contribution to the Body of Knowledge ...................................................................................... 69

REFERENCES .................................................................................................................................... 70
APENDICES ....................................................................................................................................... 77
Appendix I: Letter of Introduction to Safaricom Ltd ................................................................. 77
Appendix II: Letter of Introduction Orange Telkom Ltd ............................................................... 78
Appendix III: Letter of Introduction to Airtel Kenya Ltd .............................................................. 79
Appendix IV: Questionnaire for Employees in managerial positions ............................................ 80
Appendix V: Letter of authorization from the University of Nairobi ............................................. 86
Appendix VI: Letter of Authorization from NACOSTI ................................................................. 87
LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Sample Matrix Strata .................................................................33
Table 3.2: Operational Definition of Variables ........................................37
Table 4.1: Distribution of the respondents by gender.................................39
Table 4.2: Distribution of the respondents by age brackets........................39
Table 4.3: Distribution of the respondents by marital status ......................40
Table 4.4: Distribution of the respondents by experience .........................41
Table 4.5: Women consideration for managerial positions ........................42
Table 4.6: Gender Perspective in decision-making ..................................42
Table 4.7: Extent to which women rely on intuition in decision making.......43
Table 4.8: Decision making and rational reasoning ..................................44
Table 4.9: Information sources and decision making ................................45
Table 4.10: Advise and decision making ....................................................46
Table 4.11: Capacity building and decision making ..................................47
Table 4.12: Confidence in introducing issues of women involvement in managerial positions .................................................................47
Table 4.13: Knowledge about decision making .........................................48
Table 4.14: Type of capacity building .......................................................49
Table 4.15: Training sessions on career development ...............................50
Table 4.16: Use of external expertise concerning education and training ......50
Table 4.17: Resource materials availability ..............................................51
Table 4.18: Extent to which education level determines women involvement in management ....52
Table 4.19: Type of training mostly offered to employees ..........................53
Table 4.20: Gender determination of role ...............................................54
Table 4.21: Hierarchical value of masculinity and feminism ......................54
Table 4.22: Recognition and value of men’s work .............................................................. 55
Table 4.23: Expressions of stereotypes and inequality ........................................................ 56
Table 4.24: Respectful relations ......................................................................................... 56
Table 4.25: Mens versus womens opinions ........................................................................ 57
Table 4.26: Special needs ................................................................................................. 58
Table 4.27: Demands of the family and work .................................................................. 59
Table 4.28: Skin colour and consideration for positions .................................................... 60
Table 4.29: Extent to which socio-cultural factors determine women involvement
        in management ........................................................................................................... 61
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework ......................................................................................28
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Chief executive officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communications Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTD</td>
<td>Limited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</td>
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<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNCOP</td>
<td>United Nations Global Compact</td>
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<tr>
<td>WDB</td>
<td>Women’s Development Business</td>
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<td>WE</td>
<td>Women Employed</td>
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<td>WIT</td>
<td>Women in Technology</td>
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the factors determining women involvement in managerial positions in the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County. The study was guided by four objectives namely: To establish the influence of decision making as a determinant factor on women’s involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County, to evaluate the influence of level of education as a determinant factor on women’s involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi county, to determine the influence of provision of equal opportunities as a determinant factor on women’s involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi county and to examine the influence of socio-cultural activities as determinant factors on women’s involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi county. The study adopted descriptive survey research design. The target population was employees of 3 Telecommunications companies, Safaricom Ltd, Orange Telkom, and Airtel Kenya in Nairobi County, Kenya, in managerial positions. The sampling procedure used was stratified random sampling in the strata of senior management to include chiefs and directors and middle management to include heads of department and senior officers. The 3 companies had a total population of 327. The sample population was a 16% representation of the total population hence a sample size of 53 respondents. Data was collected using questionnaires. The research instruments were tested for reliability through split half technique. Quantitative data was first coded then analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS V 21). The instrument was administered to the respondents by the researcher using “drop and pick later” method. Data analysis involved descriptive statistical analysis summarized and prepared in tables showing frequencies and percentages and inferential statistics was used to establish the relationship between the dependent and the independent variables. The study found out that 42 (92%) of the managers were in need of decision making knowledge. It was also established that women with postgraduate degrees were more preferred than those with undergraduate degrees with the highest mean of 4.07 and standard deviation of 1.020. However, doctorate degrees were not important for a woman to perform better in senior management with the least mean of 1.48 and standard deviation of 0.691. There were also gaps in terms of provision of equal opportunities. It was also established from 28 (61%) of the respondents, that men were more valued in management than women. Furthermore the study revealed that socio-cultural factors such as marital status and nationality were used to decide women involvement in managerial positions with the highest mean of 2.63 and standard deviation of 1.404. The study therefore concluded that women involvement in managerial positions still faces major challenges and action was needed. The recommendations of the study were that; the organizations should enhance capacity building on decision making skills to enable women have the right information when making decisions. Women should strive to improve their level of education to increase their chances of involvement in management. An equality policy should be implemented in order to ensure all employees are treated equally. There should be sensitization within the organizations to change discriminatory cultural practices. Areas for further research work included studies on: factors contributing to female marginalization in projects, determinants of women involvement in managerial positions in other sectors in Kenya and the influence of policy formulation on women leadership in the telecommunication industry.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study
According to the Harvard Business Review (2007) across the world, very few women lead large companies or corporations, including multinational and transnational corporations and banks. In the United States, research shows that despite years of progress by women in the workforce they now occupy more than 40% of all managerial positions in the United States; within the group of chief executives they remain as rare. If, for example, we consider the most highly paid executives of Fortune 500 companies, those with titles such as chairman, president, chief executive officer and chief operating officer, only 6% of this group are women. Most notably, only 2% of the Chief Executive Officers (CEO)’s are women, and only 15% of the seats on the boards of directors are held by women. The situation is not much different in other industrialized countries. In the 50 largest publicly traded corporations in each nation of the European Union, women make up, on average, 11% of the top executives and 4% of the CEOs and heads of boards. Just 7 companies or 1% of Fortune magazine’s Global 500 have female CEOs.

Challenges to women participating fully as decision-makers include inequalities in education, health and employment, discrimination, the feminization of poverty, the urban-rural divide, as well as the influence of armed conflict, trade liberalization and HIV/AIDS—all of which affect women disproportionately. Countries facing socio political and economic upheavals have additional challenges in ensuring that women are represented as leaders. Women in senior decision-making positions as well as lower ranking positions within traditional and non-traditional sectors of employment risk losing their positions. Similarly, other countries felt that previously gained achievements were being reversed as a result of, among other things, armed conflict in Iraq, economic conditions in Bangladesh, and the transition process in Poland (Farid, 2007).

The Engendering Development by the World Bank (2001) calls for policies to address gender imbalance in rights, resources, and voice, and recommends that institutional structures be overhauled to promote equality, and that specific measures, such as girls’ scholarships and
quotas for women in parliament, be adopted. These measures are justified, according to the report, not only because they promote equity, but also because they are necessary to accelerate development. The full participation of women to all levels of decision making is a basic human right and a central argument in the discourse of policymakers, is that women play a fundamental role in development, UN Report (2005) on the Millennium Development Goals (MDG).

Studies by Otieno (2001), Ngome (2003), & Bunyi (2004) all agreed that the higher the level of education, the wider the gender gap in favour of males. They say there is adequate evidence that educating women is beneficial at the national, community, family and individual level. With even basic education, individual women effectively engage in economic activities and thus contribute to greater national productivity. At family level, educated women have reduced fertility rates, brought up healthier, better educated children, and reduced infant and maternal mortality rates. At the society level, educated women participate more in development activities as well as in political and economic decision making processes. However for one to occupy top management and leadership positions one needs higher education. One fact that is evident from various research findings is that the higher the level of education, the wider the gender gap. Advancing Women in Leadership Journal Volume 31, (2011) pp. 57-68

The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, 2 adopted in 1995, set a landmark global agenda for women’s human rights, gender equality and the empowerment of women. The Declaration provides that the advancement of women and the achievement of equality between women and men are a matter of human rights and a condition for social justice and are the only way to build a sustainable, just and developed society. A Fifteen-Year Review of the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Africa (BPfA) +15 – From 1995–2009 indicates that this has been achieved through democratic and constitutional reforms throughout Africa that have generated equal opportunities for women and men to participate at all levels of political process, including election to the highest office. Africa has recorded increasing numbers of women elected to high political and administrative offices since the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) 1994. Country reports demonstrate steady increases in women’s political participation and representation across all decision-making organs in almost all African countries. Affirmative action has been used to promote women’s participation in
politics at all levels. The 20 years following the Beijing Platform have witnessed remarkable expansion of rights protection systems with specific advances related to many of the Platform’s objectives. Notably the enactment of the Constitution of Kenya 2010 marked an important milestone for women’s empowerment, Gender Equality and Human Rights in Kenya. Despite all these, women have continued being the minority in political, social and economic sectors.

Since the Nairobi Women’s Conference of 1985, a significant number of changes relevant to the status of women and gender relations may be identified. The number of women parliamentarians has increased substantially. In the devising of new constitutions, women have been actively involved in the processes, enabling women’s issues to be foregrounded and incorporated into gender responsive governance. Women’s civil society organizations have grown, expanding the democratic spaces for women to strive for equality and to safeguard gains for women. At the same time, these democratic processes have occurred with women’s contributions, thus adapting democracy to reflect the entry of women. African nation states have also begun to respond to the demands to make laws responsive to women and to prohibit violence against women. Women now network globally to reshape processes (Nairobi plus Twenty One Report 2007). However there are still cases of women being harassed like the recent case of an MP who is alleged to have forcefully made a married woman take a human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) test before assaulting and raping her. Mutanu, B. Sexual Harassment in Kenya on the Rise. The Daily Nation (2015, April 2), p.2. A County Woman Representative also accused a fellow male MP of sexual harassment in her hotel room in Japan. Mutai, E. Woman Rep accuses MP of sexual harassment. Standard Digital. (2015, March 25), p.6.

The Kenya National Policy on Gender and Development (NPGD), (2000) spells out a policy approach of Gender mainstreaming and empowerment of women and clearly states that it is the right of women, men, girls and boys to participate in and benefit equally from the development process. The NPGD provides a framework for mainstreaming gender in all policies, planning and programming in Kenya and puts in place institutional mechanisms to ensure effective implementation. However there are cases where men still dominate in most of the socio-economic activities.
Across countries and time, there is a strong positive correlation between the relative position of women in society and the level of economic development Duflo (2012) Doepke, et al (2012). Based on this correlation, among policy makers, the idea suggests that there may be a causal link running from female empowerment to development. Despite some progress made over the last few decades in increasing women’s labour force participation and narrowing gender gaps in wages, gender equality in the world of work still remains an elusive goal. Several organizations are trying their level best to ensure more and more women get on board at different levels within the organizations because their input has been noted to be of key importance in increasing productivity within the organizations and hence economic development as a whole. International Labour Office - Geneva: ILO, (2009)

The Constitution of Kenya (CoK) 2010 recognizes women, youth, persons with disabilities and ethnic minorities as special groups deserving of constitutional protection. The CoK espouses the rights of women as being equal in law to men, and entitled to enjoy equal opportunities in the political, social and economic spheres. Article 81 which refers to the general principles of Kenya’s electoral system states that the electoral system shall comply with the following principle - not more than two-thirds of the members of elective public bodies shall be of the same gender. Article 27 goes further to obligate the government to develop and pass policies and laws, including affirmative action programmes and policies to address the past discrimination that women have faced. The Government is required to develop policies and laws to ensure that, not more than two-thirds of elective or appointive bodies shall be of the same sex. Despite Article 177 ensuring that Articles 81 and 27 of the CoK are complied with at the County level through the nomination of special seat members, the same is not guaranteed at the National Assembly and the Senate. Despite these affirmative action measures, women participation in the 2013 general elections remained very low. There were 19 women candidates for senatorial gubernatorial positions (out of 237 candidates). As a result, no women were elected as senator or governor. Out of the elected 290 elected National Assembly members, just 5.5 percent are women. For the 1,450 ward representatives positions only 88 (6 percent) of the elected candidates were women. Political representation of Kenyan women now stands at 15 percent versus Rwanda’s 56 percent, South Africa’s 42 percent, Tanzania’s 36 percent and Uganda’s 35 percent. Kenya’s 15 percent is an improvement from the previous 9.8 percent representation in
the 10th Parliament and the increased numbers can be greatly attributed to the reserved seats for the 47 Women Representatives. Although the current representation is the highest level so far of women political leadership in Kenya, it is still very poor showing in this day and age where women’s political participation has generally improved around the world. Institute for Education in Democracy. (2015)

The drive to adhere to masculine and feminine gender roles continues later in life. Men tend to outnumber women in professions such as law enforcement, the military, and politics. Women tend to outnumber men in care-related occupations such as childcare, healthcare, and social work. These occupational roles are examples of typical American male and female behaviour, derived from our culture’s traditions. Adherence to these roles demonstrates fulfillment of social expectations but not necessarily personal preference (Diamond 2002). Women’s voices and participation in diverse forums is of critical importance, both as an issue of justice and equality and because the active presence of women can put gender-specific concerns on the agenda and contribute to collective actions that are more effective in meeting the three dimensions of sustainability (Agarwal, 2010). Women’s participation can only be effective and meaningful when underlying gender power relations are transformed and when attention and support are given to women’s specific knowledge and capacities (Wong, 2009; Otzelberger, 2011).

Despite the recognized abilities of women, it has been observed that there are institutional and simulated obstacles visible to the uneven political structure and centuries long gender biased culture all over the developing world, particularly in Malaysia, through which their eco-friendly durability and dynamic contribution in progressive activities may become confined, therefore, an underprivileged and weak position, at times is being offered to them regarding socio-ecological difficulty (Onwubiko, 2012).

In common with most under-developed areas of the world, women in African societies are, to varying degrees, limited by their gender. It is appropriate to generalize about patriarchal cultures and social barriers to women, who usually live as homemakers, child-bearers and wives. It is also fair to say that in many such cultures, women spend their youths under the authority of their fathers, and their adulthoods under the control of their husbands. Men dominate the lives of women in most spheres, and limit the ability of women to change their own circumstances. It is
however important to consider that notable progress is being made, often by women themselves, providing cause for optimism in many cases. Cases such as Liberia and Rwanda stand as political examples for the rest of the continent, and attempts at increasing the uptake of education amongst females have met with some success, for example the British Broadcasting Corporation's (BBC’s) Radio Teacher programme in Somalia, 70% of the beneficiaries of which were women. Think Africa Press (2011).

One of the major successes for women at Safaricom Limited is the Women in Technology (WIT) which came about as a result of women with Information Technology (IT) -related degrees dropping out due to lack of confidence and hands-on experience. Safaricom partnered with Cisco to launch the WIT Academy. The 3-month internship inspires women to stay in IT by bringing them into the Safaricom workplace to develop hands-on skills. They meet weekly with the Cisco Connected Women employee resource organization to learn about a range of soft skills—from working with a team to interviewing and Curriculum Vitae (CV) writing to work/life balance. The project is ongoing and more women are being empowered to make use of their IT skills each year (Safaricom Limited, 2014).

1.2 Statement of the Problem
Despite efforts made to ensure that female representation is achieved at all levels of governance, women are still under-represented in many government and Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) particularly in positions of power and leadership (Merle, 2005). There has been a general decline in the number of executive managers and women executive managers have been disproportionately affected. Women executive managers are much more likely to occupy human resources, legal counsel, corporate communications, company secretary and finance roles. They are least likely to occupy CEO, production, strategy and general line positions. As such they remain under-represented in key leadership positions in organizations. Women executive managers earn less than their male counterparts (Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Agency, 2008).

Results of the 2009 Kenya Population Census indicated that inequality in terms of access to resources by both men and women is also a challenge. This imbalance has resulted into higher
incidences of poverty in women than in men. Most women depend on small scale agricultural production as compared to their male counterparts despite the fact that they comprise over 50 percent of the country’s population and over half of the labour force. According to the Demographic and Health Survey (2003), the incidence of poverty is still higher in women because of inequalities in access to resources. The Kenya Welfare Monitoring and Survey III (1997) found out that female-headed households suffered more intensely from failure to access resources than men and were forced to live below US$ 1 a day. There are significant development gains to be made in ensuring women’s equitable access to and control over economic and financial resources, including in relation to economic growth, poverty eradication and the well-being of families and communities. The impact of inequality in access to resources represents a global challenge with implications at individual, family, community and national level. (World survey on the role of Women in Development, 2009).

Findings from other studies do reveal that promotion of women’s economic rights which entails promoting a range of women’s rights: their sexual and reproductive rights and rights to education, to mobility, to voice, are key for economic growth. (Bradshaw 2013). Other studies like Empowering women for sustainable development concludes that equal participation in decision-making and a balanced involvement of both men and women in all policy areas and at all levels of implementation will ensure that women and men take equal responsibility for the equitable distribution of resources, over the course of people’s lives and between present and future generations. Warth & Koparanova (2012).

The CoK 2010 espouses the rights of women as being equal in law to men, and entitled to enjoy equal opportunities in the political, social and economic spheres. Article 81 which refers to the general principles of Kenya’s electoral system states that the electoral system shall comply with the following principle - not more than two-thirds of the members of elective public bodies shall be of the same gender. Article 27 goes further to obligate the government to develop and pass policies and laws, including affirmative action programs and policies to address the past discrimination that women have faced. The government is required to develop policies and laws to ensure that, not more than two-thirds of elective or appointive bodies shall be of the same sex. Despite Article 177 ensuring that Articles 81 and 27 of the CoK are complied with at the County
level through the nomination of special seat members, the same is not guaranteed at the National Assembly and the Senate. (Institute for Education in Democracy 2015)

Despite their growing participation in the workforce, there are still very few women in the top echelons of public decision and policy making positions in Kenya. The analysis of gender participation in different sectors of the economy revealed some important patterns and trends. These include the fact that female labour force participation in the modern sector such as ICT and Telecommunication has remained below 30% over the last several years compared to men who hold a disproportionately larger share of the modern sector jobs. The majority of women are employed in the education and informal sectors. Nordic Journal of African Studies (2002). In an interview during the Business Daily’s Top 40 under 40 Women project awards; the women said they had to overcome corporate politics and competition in male dominated environments in order to succeed. Ochieng, R. Top 40 Women Under 40. The Daily Nation, (2014, June 20) p.13.

1.3 Purpose of the Study
The purpose of the study was to establish the factors determining women involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County.

1.4 Objectives of the Study
The study was guided by the following objectives:
1. To establish the influence of decision making as a determinant factor on women’s involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County.
2. To evaluate the influence of level of education as a determinant factor on women’s involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi county
3. To examine the influence of provision of equal opportunities as a determinant factor on women’s involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi county
4. To determine the influence of socio-cultural activities as determinant factors on women’s involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi county

1.5 Research Questions
The study was guided by the following research questions

1. How does decision making as a determinant factor influence women’s involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County?
2. In what way does level of education as a determinant factor influence women’s involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County?
3. To what extent does provision of equal opportunities as a determinant factor influence women’s involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County?
4. How do socio-cultural activities as determinant factors influence women’s involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County?

1.6 Significance of the study
The findings of the study may be important to the Board of Directors and Management of the organizations as it may help them appreciate the importance of women participation and involvement in the day to day running of the organizations especially on decision making matters. It will also help to identify areas of weaknesses that need attention in terms of women empowerment.

Management may be able to formulate appropriate business strategies and policies that may increase productivity of women employees and hence improve the performance of the organization.

Finally, this study may be of value to researchers and scholars as it forms a basis for further research. It may also be a source of reference material for researchers conducting research in other related topics. The study may also be an addition to the field of knowledge.
1.7 Delimitations of the study
This study was confined to Safaricom Ltd, Orange Telkom and Airtel Kenya in Nairobi County. These 3 are the top telecommunication companies in the country and for ease of access. It was restricted to the Employees of the companies in senior and middle management positions. The managers were picked as respondents since they are already in managerial positions and have a better understanding of the criteria used in selection and the policies that are in operation.

1.8 Limitations of the study
The study was faced by a number of limitations. Due to their busy schedule, there was a problem when it came to meeting some of the respondents especially those in senior management positions. To overcome this, appointments were made in advance before the planned meeting days. The other limitation was some respondents’ unwillingness to give information. To overcome this they were assured of confidentiality and that the study was for academic purposes only. The other limitation was that of sensitivity involved in gender issues. There was great suspicion among the respondents on the intention of the study. To counter this limitation, a research permit was produced and the intention of the study clearly explained.

1.9 Basic assumptions of the study
The study assumed that the participants would be willing, honest and objective in their responses to the research questions.

1.10 Definition of significant terms used in the study
Decision making: The thought process of selecting a logical choice from the available options.

Equal Opportunities: The policy of treating employees and others without discrimination, especially on the basis of their sex, race, or age.

Level of education: This refers to the position or status attained in acquiring education.

Managerial positions: Ranks of administration, management, coordination and control of organizations, usually ranked as top and middle service management.
**Socio-cultural factors:** The larger scale forces within cultures and societies that affect the thoughts, feelings and behaviours.

**Telecommunication industry:** The sector of an economy made up of enterprises that deal with science and technology of communication at a distance by transmission of electrical impulses, electromagnetic waves, or optical pulses, as by telephone, radio, television, or computer network.

**Women Involvement:** The act of women sharing in or participating in the activities of a group.

1.11 Organization of the study
The study was organized into five chapters. Chapter One, the introduction that included background information, the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, limitations and delimitations of the study, basic assumptions, definition of significant terms and organization of the study. Chapter Two contained a literature review of relevant studies on women involvement in managerial positions. It also contained the theoretical and conceptual frameworks. Chapter Three contained the Research Methodology under which, research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, research instrument, validity and reliability of the instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis techniques, ethical issues and operational definition of variables were discussed. Chapter Four, data analysis, presentations, interpretations and discussion. Chapter Five, summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations. Also included were suggestions for further research and contribution to the body of knowledge.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This chapter looked at issues of women involvement in managerial positions. It reviewed previous studies carried out by other authors on the subject of women involvement in managerial positions. It had a theoretical framework, conceptual framework and identified the research gap.

2.2 Decision Making and women involvement in managerial positions
An international management consulting firm, McKinsey & Company, in 2007 conducted a study on Gender diversity as part of their global partnership with the Women’s Forum for the Economy and Society. The key message from the study is that companies where women are most strongly represented at board or top-management level are also the companies that perform best. The study strongly links female representation at the highest level of decision-making with enhanced corporate performance. Globally, various bodies including the United Nations formed in 1945 are trying to eliminate all obstacles that hinder the active participation of women in all spheres of public and private life through an equal share in economic, social, cultural and political decision making Porter & Sweetman (2005)

According to Ottawa (2011), the presence of Canadian women in senior management positions had stalled in the past two decades. Between 1987 and 2009, the proportion of women in senior management had changed little; men are still more than twice as likely to hold a senior executive position, according to a Conference Board report (2011). President and Chief Executive Officer, The Conference Board of Canada, added that women have made great progress in many areas of society over the past 22 years, but not in the ranks of senior management positions. Now that the rousing early days of feminism are behind us, perhaps we have become complacent about the success of women in senior managerial positions.

The trend towards a women's leadership style is based on openness, trust, ongoing education, compassion and understanding. Women are more likely to succeed because women admit they
need help and surround themselves with good people, are strategic risk takers, whose resourcefulness and resolve increase as circumstance become more. Aburdene&Naisbitt, (1992) Ludeman & Erlandson (2006), persistent stereotyping of leadership positions seems to still reflect the traditional division of labour, where men are occupied in the public sphere and women hold power within the private sphere of home and family. In the 1990s, male managers and male students of management were still inclined to consider men more likely than women to possess the characteristics, attitudes and temperaments required of successful managers, whereas female students of management had increasingly abandoned such gender stereotypes regarding managerial positions.

According to Schein (2007), in some respects, women’s labour market participation may not have challenged these stereotypes because of the gender segregation of sectors and occupations, which may actually reinforce stereotypes. For example, women remain concentrated in caring jobs and part-time positions. On the other hand, men have continued to participate in full-time paid labour and have retained the lion’s share of leadership roles. A study by Diekman et al. (2004) on women managers and hierarchical structures in working life conducted with university students in the United States showed that both women and men perceive that women have gained occupational, economic, political, relational and individual power in the past 50 years, and that they are expected to continue to do so in the future. Nonetheless, the participants also believed that men will prevail in structural forms of power, leading to the conclusion that even if the gender hierarchy is not immutable, it will not disappear entirely within the lifetime of the students participating in the study.

According to statistics from the International Labour Organization (ILO), women’s share of managerial jobs ranged between 20% and 40% in 48 countries in 2000–2002. Women are under-represented in managerial jobs compared to their share of overall employment. Also, when climbing up an organization’s hierarchy, the proportion of women managers diminishes sharply. Billing &Alvesson (2000) in the study of Leadership Practices and Interactions specify that women are outnumbered by men in positions of formal power and authority, high status and high incomes. They state that men have a near monopoly on the most senior positions and they are over represented in middle-level managerial jobs globally. Explanations for the small numbers of
women in management depend on the viewpoint from which the situation of working women is looked at. Billing & Alvesson (2000), distinguish three general approaches to the issue. The first view emphasizes observable differences between men and women, focusing on themes such as early socialization processes and the development of different behaviours or traits in childhood and if this results in gendered leadership styles.

According to Lyness & Thompson (2006), in climbing the Corporate Ladder there is a more concrete approach to the problematic situation of working women who want to have a career. They give a list of structural barriers female executives are likely to encounter, such as a male-dominated culture, men highlighting cultural boundaries between men and women, lack of mentoring, dependence on formal career management processes, stereotypical perceptions and difficulty in obtaining opportunities for geographic mobility. The authors specify that the barriers reflect interactions between men and women at the upper organizational level, where gender ratios are particularly skewed.

According to Ludeman & Erlandson (2006), in The Alpha Male Syndrome, for many years, it was almost accepted as a given both by mainstream and critical feminist scholars writing about this issue that the desired characteristics of a business leader in contemporary capitalist economies were those of an alpha male. They had to be ruthless and aggressive, results driven and intensely competitive. This is all characteristics that, in the contemporary European conceptions of gender, are associated with men. In fact, the characteristics of the stereotypical female are constructed precisely in opposition to them the cultural values attached to both genders are constructed in opposition. This implies that there might be an invisible cultural barrier for women, making it difficult for them to enter into managerial roles. If they want to enter these alpha male positions, they must behave like an alpha male themselves.

Many researchers have tried to address this popular question of whether there are gender differences in leadership styles. According to Eagly (2007) in his study on Gender differences in Transformational and Transactional Leadership, female leaders are more transformational than male leaders, whose styles are more transactional. Transformational leaders are described as mentoring and empowering their subordinates and encouraging them to develop their potential,
and the style is said to be the most effective. Transactional leaders are more conventional; they are depicted as clarifying subordinates’ responsibilities, rewarding them for meeting objectives and correcting them for failing to meet the objectives. Eagly finds two possible explanations for the differences. Transformational style is more compatible with the female gender role than older models of leadership. Also, it might be that women managers are more highly qualified than men, since men have greater access to leadership roles compared to women. In an earlier analysis, Eagly et al. (2003) distinguished three kinds of leadership styles that men and women occupy: transformational, transactional and laissez-faire styles. The last one is described as a failure to take responsibility for managing. In the analysis, a social role theory approach to leadership behaviour was applied, highlighting the fact that leadership roles are constrained by gender roles. A transformational style suits the female gender role, and adapting that style is a way for them to perform as managers. The analysis of 45 studies revealed small but significant sex differences in most aspects of the leadership styles generally, with women acting more in transformational ways as well as in terms of transactional style, women deliver rewards to subordinates for appropriate performance more often than men, and men more in transactional and laissez-faire styles. Eagly et al. (2003),

According to Melero, (2004), the British Workplace Employment Relationship Survey from 1998 illustrated how the share of women in management affects organizations’ human resources policies, including, for example, task definition, decision-making, communication and delegation. He found that the way workplaces are managed varies with the gender composition of the managerial team – an increase in the percentage of women at management level is associated with more intense interpersonal communication, higher involvement of managers in employees’ career administration and with more democracy in decision-making at the workplace. Melero gives credit to women managers for implementing these positive changes at the workplace. He assumes that men and women have different qualities and thus they act differently when managing. Rutherford, (2001), asked male and female managers in a large airline if they thought that men and women manage differently: 84% of female and 55% of male managers believed there were differences. The question as to what ways they differ elicited three kinds of answers. Women were considered to have better people skills, to have fewer status concerns and generally to have better managerial skills compared to men.
According to Jim & Jerry (1994), in a study about conceptions of successful leadership held by men and women CEOs in Scotland, it was revealed that not only good performance is essential for successful leadership, managing relationships and a personal and organizational profile with a number of stakeholders also have to be taken into account. The women interviewed in the study expressed preferences for more transformational leadership, but so did most of the interviewed male CEOs. The interviewees reported a shift towards a more androgynous style, where both transactional and transformational behaviours are employed. Still, women CEOs considered that leadership is stereotyped as masculine and that the stereotyping forms a barrier for women.

According to Collins & Singh, (2006), it is important to note that in qualitative studies, the participants are expressing their subjective evaluations of the characteristics of male and female bosses. The results reflect both common ways of thinking i.e. stereotypes and objective reality. One should not jump to the conclusion that men and women really do differ in some ways when they act as managers. Instead, the results can be treated as evidence of a tendency for stereotypical evaluations from which even the managers cannot escape. Men and women may differ in significant ways in their leadership style, but this assumption cannot be confirmed by the studies described above. Many of the recently conducted studies use the role theories and stereotypes as a frame of analysis, as sex roles and ‘biases in evaluation’ are commonly introduced as explaining the inequality between men and women. Instead of only examining male and female leaders, subordinates are also often included in the setting. Johnson (1994) argues that manager’s role requirements and status reduce any effect of gender on the communication between managers and subordinates. However, differences may lie in the expression of nonverbal behaviour, such as smiling and laughing.

According to Eagly (2007), it is assumed that since the expectations of the leadership role brings shape to the behaviour of both men and women managers in particular directions, it is likely that any differences in the leadership styles of women and men are small, and that female–male differences in leadership behaviours are most likely to occur in those behaviours that go beyond the requirements of organizational roles. In addition, Callan (1993) has examined manager–
subordinate communication. He expected that male and female managers who adopt a relationship-oriented style would be judged as allowing more opportunities for male and female. A Report published by the European Commission in January (2010) cites the example of a Finnish survey of 13,000 limited companies with more than ten employees which found out that firms with female CEO’s were in practice around 10% more profitable than comparable firms with male CEO’s. A similar effect was found for companies with gender balanced boards compared to those with all male boards.

A similar study, also mentioned in the European Commission's report, of companies from the French CAC40 (the stock market index that includes 40 of the top 100 French listed companies by market capitalization) found that those companies with the highest number of women in management positions had their stock market value affected the least during the economic crisis. The study highlights the example of BNP-Paribas, which had nearly 39% female managers and saw its stock decline in value by 20% during the period studied, compared to Credit Agricole, which had only 16% women managers and suffered a fall of 50% in its market value over the same time.

2.3 Level of education and women involvement in managerial positions
In 2000, the UN adopted eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) aimed at boosting living standards by 2015, many of which include a focus on gender. MDG 3 calls for promoting gender equality and empowering women – with a specific target of eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education, no later than 2015. Inspite of this effort gender disparity has continued to exist. In the recently released KCSE 2014 results, Performance by gender showed that 88,299 (59%) male and 61,418 (41%) female candidates attained an overall mean grade of C+ and above. The Cabinet Secretary, Ministry of Education said the result was for candidates who enrolled in Standard One in 2003 and Form One in 2011 and were the first beneficiaries of Free Primary Education and Free Secondary Education respectively. This is, therefore, a realization of the Government’s vision to increase the number of children accessing a full cycle of primary and secondary education. (Soft Kenya, 2015)
Throughout the colonial period, education of girls lagged behind. It was not until 1925 that the government openly decried the low status of women and girls’ education, describing it as lagging behind that of men and boys. The government started to advocate for the improvement of girls’ education, arguing for the first time that educated wives and mothers would contribute to the general welfare of the home and community (Kenya National Archives annual report as cited in Chege & Sifuna, 2006). However, it is clear that even as it attracted support for girls’ education, the colonial administration failed to interpret the value of girls’ education in terms of their personal development and wellbeing Chege & Sifuna, (2006); much less did it prepare them for leadership.

When Safaricom Ltd reviewed their interview process in 2013, they found that women with IT-related degrees dropped out due to lack of confidence and hands-on experience. The aim was to develop a programme to support women in the workplace without changing who they are and to help them bring the qualities and values of being a woman to succeed in the workplace. Safaricom partnered with Cisco to launch the WIT Academy. The 3-month internship inspires women to stay in IT by bringing them into the Safaricom workplace to develop hands-on skills. They meet weekly with the Cisco Connected Women employee resource organization to learn about a range of soft skills—from working with a team to interviewing and CV writing to work/life balance. (Corporate Social Responsibility Report, 2014)

According to Betcherman, et al (1998) , firms that have training programmes tended to perform better in terms of productivity, revenues, profitability, viability and prospects. Saks et al. (2002) also found a positive relation between training and productivity, profit, revenue and client satisfaction, a relation that is more significant when the training is accompanied by incentives for the employees. Investment in human capital not only creates competitive advantages for an organization Salas & Cannon-Bowers (2001), but also provides innovations and opportunities to learn new technologies and improve employee skills, knowledge and firm performance. The knowledge and skills of workers acquired through training have become important in the face of the increasingly rapid changes in technology, products, and systems. Most organizations invest in training because they believe that higher performance will result (Alliger, et al. 1997, Kozlowski, et al. 2000).
According to Kozlowski, et al. (2000), there is an approach to organization improvement and development based on enhancing the knowledge, skills and attitudes or abilities of the workforce. This paradigm may be accomplished through training activities. From this perspective, training is effective to the extent that it directly contributes to the strategy, objectives, or outcomes central to organizational effectiveness. Lepak & Snell, (1999). Individuals’ educational attainments are not only part of a company’s human capital but also a part of a community’s core assets. In many localities, generous subsidies for education are largely based on the assumption that governmental investments in human capital will strengthen the economy as a whole by enhancing employees’ productivity (Lanzi, 2007; Trusty & Niles, 2004).

A woman’s life along with her dependents and kids all are strongly affected and influenced by the enabling role of women’s education through which their nature such as perceptual, material, cognitive and relational through which resources are transformed into agency (Mahmud et al. 2012). According to Asogwa (2012), women encouragement and growth, equality and the whole socio-economic protection of humankind are always debated in parallel dimensions and both aspects have gained equal importance.

2.4 Provision of Equal Opportunities and women involvement in managerial positions

The Workplace Gender Equality Act 2012 in Australia replaced the equal opportunity for Women in the Workplace Act 1999. The new legislation aims to improve and promote equality for both women and men in the workplace. The principle objectives of the Act are to: promote and improve gender equality including equal remuneration between women and men in employment and in the workplace support employers to remove barriers to the full and equal participation of women in the workforce, in recognition of the disadvantaged position of women in relation to employment matters promote, amongst employers, the elimination of discrimination on the basis of gender in relation to employment matters including in relation to family and caring responsibilities foster workplace consultation between employers and employees on issues concerning gender equality in employment and in the workplace. The Act also requires non-public sector employers with 100 or more staff to submit a report to the
Workplace Gender Equality Agency between 1 April and 31 May each year for the preceding 12 month period (1 April – 31 March reporting period).

Eliminating discrimination and ensuring fairness at the work place have been at the heart of Women Employed (WE) work for 40 years. WE and working women have made enormous progress. We have won changes in federal laws to outlaw pregnancy discrimination and sexual harassment and worked with national coalitions to strengthen anti-discrimination protections and guarantee family and medical leave. We are a leader in ensuring strong enforcement of equal opportunity laws and regulations, making sure they work for women. Today, as a result, millions of women are working in good jobs that were closed to them just 40 years ago. Walby, (2005) Women can also educate and build the capacity of the end-users and the beneficiaries of the development process, especially within their communities to which management and maintenance of the services will be increasingly devolved. People especially policy implementers need to be sensitized and encouraged to be responsive to specific needs of socio-economically vulnerable groups including disadvantaged women and children who are mostly in rural areas Greed, (2005).

According to Quan (2008), the different value of work based on sex creates different degrees of access and control over resources and different benefits by men and women. In most rural areas, women are not yet recognized as a factor in the socio-economic, political and environmental development of the country. They have been exploited by their culture, of which men are the main custodians The problem with women is not only the lack of participation in the development process as equal partners with men but their participation generates and intensifies inequalities, making use of existing gender hierarchies to place women in subordinate positions at each different level of interaction between class and gender. Patriarchy should be challenged and all efforts should be directed towards liberating women (Portier and Schwartz, 2007).

According to Makinde (2005), more agencies should be granted to women who are perceived as active agents and not just passive recipients of development. Women’s participation is considered to be the most essential element in this approach. Women’s inequality exists not because they are bypassed or marginalized by development planners but because women are not
It is also important to look at the issue of equal treatment in legislation. Individual citizens need to be formally equal. It is in this context that the equal treatment in legislation changes laws through legislators, towards formal equal rights for men and women. Equal treatment in legislation is based on the fact that it is up to individuals to use their formal equal rights (Sida, 2005). It is good to recognize the fact that equal rights cannot always be used by all individuals to the same extent because persistent gender inequalities will always exist at community level (Roux, 2005).

It is important for people to realize that women are equal to men, and that they should be treated in the same way as men with regard to rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities. This way, gender studies argue that women would be able to compete on equal terms as men (Aufhauser and Hafner, 2002). In addition, people are not aware of the fact that both men and women get involved in development on the basis of their adaptation to the environment and social responsibilities. Instead, they hold on to the myth that women should only get involved in development on the basis of them being caregivers. Though this should not be entirely the case, gender studies hold that due to their reproductive duties and needs, women’s participation in development should be supported by assurance of their security and welfare provisions. Goetz & Sandler, (2007)

According to Kwesiga & Ssendiwala (2006), to date, some people still do not believe that the benefits of development should trickle down to women and that they should be involved in development projects. Despite the fact that many women based projects have emerged over the years, women still feel marginalized. This is the reason as to why awareness on gender equality should be emphasized among community members. Gender awareness and competence should be integrated into development while recognizing that development activities may affect men and women differently due to sexual differences and historic circumstances.

The Equality Authority commissioned the Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI) to undertake a study entitled Equality at Work? - Workplace Equality Policies, Flexible Working Arrangements and the Quality of Work (2005). The study draws on a national representative
survey of over 5,000 employees. It examines the impact of equality policies (inclusive of gender equality) and flexible working arrangements on workers' well-being, on their attitudes to their jobs and employers and on job quality. The study found that about three quarters of all employees work in organizations where there is a formal explicit policy on equal opportunities. A key implication of the study is that equality policies are likely to have a positive impact on organizational performance and hence be of benefit to employers. Thus the business case for equality has been proven. Moreover, the presence of a formal policy on equality inclusive of gender in the workplace is strongly associated with lower levels of work stress and higher levels of both job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

In November 2011, the Equality Authority and ESRI jointly did a study on Workplace Equality in the Recession. The study draws on data from the National Workplace Survey 2009, collected after Ireland had entered a deep recession. The data can be compared with those of a similar study carried out in 2003. The study found that, between 2003 and 2009, there was a marked increase in the proportion of companies with equality policies and flexible working arrangements in place, particularly in the private sector. The study reports that this finding holds even after accounting for changes in the composition of jobs and the composition of the workforce. These results suggest that the growing employer commitment to workplace equality seen in earlier years has been sustained, despite the very changed situation in the Irish economy and labour market. The study also found that the adoption by companies of a formal equality policy impacts positively on their employees’ perceptions of workplace fairness, on workers’ well-being and on organisational outcomes, including higher levels organizational commitment and output innovation. The availability of more flexible working arrangements in an organization is associated with higher job satisfaction and increased output innovation. Flexible working arrangements have mixed effects for participants; not all promote work-life balance and on occasion may be associated with trade-offs in terms of rewards and autonomy.

According to the major findings of the survey conducted by Tata Consultancy Services (2012) women continue to face many barriers on their way to the top that are unique to their gender. They are often under-represented in organizations, especially in senior management roles and corporate boards. The report states that leadership development programs are key retention
measures for women. However, very few organizations provide such programs. Generally, organizations are not allocating their budgets, resources and targets to support the mandate on gender inclusion.

According to Stéphanie, (2010), there is scarcity of women among highly qualified professions. The organization and management of work in such firms is typically project-based. This has many consequences, such as: long working hours with fierce resistance to any reductions; unpaid overtime; high management expectations of employee flexibility to meet unanticipated client demands; and the need for employees to negotiate flexible working arrangements on a case-by-case basis with a project manager, who often has much discretion on whether to accommodate such requests. The study declares that women are particularly disadvantaged in such a system, which could partly explain their under-representation in such jobs.

According to Sen, (2005), the social movement for Indian women had been, until recently, primarily focused on achieving better treatment and well-being for women: In the course of the evolution of women’s movement, women are not passive recipients of welfare-enhancing help brought about by society, but are active promoters and facilitators of social transformations. Such transformations influence the lives and well-being of women, but also those of men and children; boys as well as girls. This is a momentous enrichment of the reach of women’s movement.

According to Gupta & Sharma, (2003), three major problems faced by female academic scientists were general male dominance in the work environment; feelings of isolation; and feelings of conflict between being a woman and a scientist. Patrifocal ideology prevails at the workplace and in the family. Women’s capabilities are doubted in the initial stage of their career. There were no women deans in any institute and the idea of a female director was almost unthinkable. They suggest the need for concentrated effort to analyze the experience of women scientists so that collective efforts can be made to solve their problems.

According to Singh, (2003), the socio-cultural determinants of the low representation of women in top managerial positions in Asian organizations. Findings revealed that both male and female
respondents perceived that societal culture has an important bearing on both thought processes and nature. Managers reported organizational culture to be favorable to men. Male respondents believed more in hierarchical relationships, which support the notion that Asian societies are hierarchical in nature, and affects interpersonal relationships of people. In Asian Society, men are perceived to be assertive and commanding, whereas women are expected to comply, obey and be submissive and docile. The study concluded that if effective work-life policies are adopted, which support dual-earner couples, employers would get benefits in turn.

Indeed, research has shown that the ways that men and women are treated differently in the workplace can be nearly imperceptible at the level of the individual and emerge only when aggregated across individuals. Crosby (1984), for example, demonstrated that by and large, women do not acknowledge the ways that gender discrimination may have affected their own career experiences. They are more likely to assume personal responsibility for receiving fewer organizational resources than their male coworkers. These same women, however, believe that gender discrimination exists in the workplace and affects their sources that other women receive. If structural causes of women’s disempowerment are not challenged or addressed, the increase in the number of women in positions of authority may not go a long way insignificantly challenging inequality between men and women, Mudege (2013).

2.5 Socio-cultural factors and women involvement in managerial positions
Women’s identities and roles have traditionally been associated with parenting and caring, while men’s have been associated with paid employment as well as becoming public and industrial managers (Neidhart & Carlin, 2003). The socialization process therefore structures and equips men and women to enact their respective and different roles. According to Livingstone (2004), domestic duties that women are still expected to do for their families take significantly more time and energy than those that most men expect and want to do. He adds that this inequity is the chief persistent disadvantage that women suffer in seeking opportunities for advanced education and career advancement. None the less, socialization process results in boys and girls conforming to the socially determined behavior (Otieno, 2001).
Girls learn to be feminine while boys learn to be masculine. While femininity is associated with submissiveness, gentleness, emotional dependence and not quite good at decision making and tactfulness, masculine characteristics are dominance, aggressiveness, not emotional, blunt, independence and very good at decision making. (UNESCO, 2000). Women who get into leadership are trouble. In particular, strong women are labeled difficult and dangerous because they trouble dominant masculinities and modes of management by being different (Blackmore as cited in Cubillo & Brown, 2003). This ‘masculine woman’ is described as a ‘monster’ with gender problems and a risk to assumed stable identities, social roles and positions in the hierarchy of professions. The fear of losing femininity therefore becomes widespread and real (Ernest, 2003).

Understanding cultural systems is critical for the advancement of research on leadership in varying contexts (Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006). The concept of leadership involves relationships deeply rooted in social settings (Bryman, 1996) requiring leadership theory and research to integrate leader attributes and behaviors within contextual aspects of leader emergence and effectiveness (Yukl, 1998; Yukl & Howell, 1999). Javidan & Carl (2005) point out that leadership research emanating from the U.S. and Europe is important, but questions its universality across cultures. Dickson, et al (2003) when reviewing cross-cultural leadership, argued that still today, few scholars publishing in the field would characterize themselves as cross-cultural leadership researchers, and most cross-cultural leadership research has been conducted by leadership researchers who apply a cultural lens to archaic leadership theories. For this reason, current leadership models are rather limited in their consideration of these types on nuances. Javidan & Carl’s (2005) study detracts from the norm and, rather than controlling similarities in order to isolate differences by matching samples on as many dimensions as possible, they exacerbated differences of the respondents in their sample, allowing for better interpretation of the similarities.

Women persistently face more household demands and family responsibility (Huang, Hammer, Neal, & Perrin, 2004; Jurik, 1998; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Moen & Yu, 2000; Rothbard, 2001) even when working outside the home because women are still expected to be the primary caregivers. This reduces time available for work and increases stress, leading to more work-
family conflict and attitudes and behaviours that interfere with business leadership. Men on the other hand are expected to be good economic providers for their families and devote time to business. Therefore, as bread winners men are better able to maintain their family and work demands at the same time than women (Jennings & McDougald, 2007; Simon, 1995). Men tend to make greater sacrifices at home in order to maintain their work responsibilities whereas women do the opposite (Jennings & McDougald, 2007; Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Moen & Yu, 2000; Rothbard, 2001).

The Glass Ceiling Context plays a crucial role in women’s involvement in positions of leadership, in that, if women feel alienated from leadership positions, they are discouraged from participating (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2002). For example, one study found that while women make up half of the work force in developed countries these days, there are still visible glass ceiling effects that keep women from moving into middle- and senior-level management positions – long working hours and male-dominated networks in particular (Ogden, McTavish, & McKean, 2006). Similarly, women are still less likely to run for political office than men, which explains the under-representation of women in politics. Reasons for this include a lack of political confidence, family responsibilities, gender role socialization subtle socialization processes that politics is a man’s world, and a lack of other women politicians to emulate which may explain the gender role socialization finding (Elder, 2004). Another explanation is that women and men lead differently and these styles are inconsistent with the role expectations of leaders and therefore lead to a potential prejudice and discrimination against women in leadership roles (Eagly & Carli, 2004).

2.6 Theoretical Framework
This section reviewed theories that are relevant to this area of study. The relevant theory that was reviewed was the feminist theory.

2.6.1 Feminist Theory
This 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 & Shahabudin (2000). This theory is relevant to the current study because it explores the cultural factors which link gender factors and organizational structure factors. The analysis is concerned with the social construction of gender and the assignment of specific roles, responsibilities and expectations to women and men. 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.

2.7 Conceptual Framework
According to Mugenda & Mugenda (2003), a conceptual framework refers to conceptualization of the relationship between variables in the study and it is shown diagrammatically.
Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Independent variables

Decision making
- Assessment activities
- Action planning
- Implementation

Level of education
- Acquired Skills
  - Diploma
  - Bachelors
  - Masters
  - PhD

Equal Opportunities
- Distribution of resources
- Gender Equity

Socio-cultural factor
- Marital status
- Colour
- Nationality

Moderating Variable
- Government Policy
  - Two thirds gender rule

Intervening variables
- Personality traits
- Attitudes

Dependent variable

Women Involvement in Managerial positions
- Participation in managerial positions
The study had four independent variables, namely; decision making, training and level of education, provision of equal opportunities and socio – cultural factors and seeks to establish their influence on the dependent variable which is involvement in managerial positions in the telecommunications companies. There was also an intervening variables namely; personality traits which helps to explain the relationship between the independent and dependent variables and moderating variable government policy which can also influence the relation between the independent and dependent variables. The conceptual framework indicates women involvement in managerial positions in the telecommunication industry would be determined by factors like decision making, level of education, provision of equal opportunities and socio- cultural factors. However there are still less women involved in managerial positions as compared to men due to inadequate capacity building on decision making. Moreover level of education has been an issue as women are expected to have a higher level of education to be considered for managerial positions. On provision of equal opportunities gender bias and male domination has been promoted placing women in the backbench and making it an uphill task for them to be considered for managerial positions. There are also challenges when it comes to socio-cultural factors which contribute in one way or another to women not being involved in managerial. If the above issues are addressed then the outcome is that there will be fair participation by both women and men.

2.8 Knowledge Gap

Many authors have expressed their concern on women involvement in leadership positions. Being in a society where men are assumed to be more important than women, different studies have shown that women are looked upon as the lesser gender by being undermined by their male counterparts and the society at large hence the challenges facing the embracing of changing roles of women. According to Kwaresga & Ssendiwa, (2006) in gender and mainstreaming in the university, some people still don’t believe that the benefits of development should trickle down to women and that they should be involved in development projects. Other studies have also shown that the lack of adequate resources and disintegration of gender policies as well as ignorance are other contributing factors to these challenges. Onwubiko (2012) in Empowerment of Nigerian Women towards National Development points out that despite the recognized abilities of women, it has been observed that there are institutional and simulated obstacles
visible to the uneven political structure and centuries long gender biased culture all over the developing world. Stéphanie (2010) in a study of women leadership programme in France affirms the scarcity of women among highly qualified professions. Most of the studies based outside Africa, have focused on workplace inequality, gender bias in the workplace, stereotypes, and glass ceilings as relates to women in leadership. However little has been done on the factors that determine women involvement in managerial positions especially within the telecommunication industry.

2.9 Summary

This chapter has reviewed available literature on the subject matter of the factors determining women involvement in managerial positions, from global to the local perspectives on: influence of decision making, training and level of education, provision of equal opportunities and socio-cultural factors and offered a relevant theory, the feminist theory, and also a conceptual framework to show the relationship of the various variables. Many authors have expressed their concern for women involvement in managerial positions based on the literature review. Being in a society where men are assumed to be more important than women, different studies have shown that women are looked upon as the lesser gender and hence the challenges facing their involvement in managerial positions. Other studies have also shown that level of education and socio-cultural factors are other factors contributing to these challenges. Finally the conceptual framework linked the independent variables to women involvement in managerial positions while the theoretical framework gave a societal overview of women involvement in managerial positions.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
This chapter outlined the methodology of how the research was carried out. This included the research design, target of the study, sample size, data collection methods and data analysis and presentation. Questionnaire was the main data collection instrument.

3.2 Research Design
This study employed descriptive survey design. Descriptive method involves measurement, classification, comparison and interpretation of data while the survey method is suitable as it is used in gathering data from a relatively large number of cases at a particular time. The major purpose of descriptive survey research design is a description of the state of affairs as it exists at present (Kothari, 2003). The descriptive survey design was used because the study entailed asking a large number of people questions in form of questionnaires about their opinion and ideas. The study also used the design because the variables would not be manipulated and there was no opportunity to explore and probe the respondents for more information. Orodho (2003) defines a research design as the scheme, outline or plan that is used to generate answers to research problems. According to Zikmund (2000), descriptive survey design allows the researcher to gather information, summarize, present and interpret data.

3.3 Target Population
According to Mugenda & Mugenda (2003), the target population should have some observable characteristics, to which the study intends to generalize the results. Burns and Grove (2003) state that population includes all elements that meet certain criteria for inclusion in a study. Two types of population are target and accessible population. Target population consists of all members of a real or hypothetical set of people, events or objects from which a researcher wishes to generalize the results of their research; while accessible population consists of all the individuals who realistically could be included in the sample (Borg & Gall, 2007). The target population of this study was all staff members who were employed by Safaricom Ltd, Orange Kenya Ltd and Airtel Ltd by close of business 31st March, 2012 at management level. As at 31st March 2012,
Safaricom Ltd had 127 employees, Orange Ltd had 115 employees and Airtel Ltd 85 employees bringing the total 327 employees within the ranks of senior management and middle management. Through sampling the accessible population was determined.

3.4 **Sample Size and Sampling Procedures**

In any scientific study, the sample size and sampling procedures must be known.

3.4.1 **Sample size**

Kombo & Tromp (2006) defines sample as a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole population. A set of respondents selected from a large population of people for the purpose of survey can be called a sample. A reasonable sample, which can be dealt with effectively under the prevailing circumstances was selected. A sample of 16% of the total population of employees in managerial positions was applied using simple random sampling. According to Gay (1983) as cited by Mugenda & Mugenda, (2003) suggests that for descriptive studies at least 10% -20% of the total population is adequate. Therefore 53 respondents formed the sample size for the study.

3.4.2 **Sampling procedures**

Stratified random sampling was used to select staff in senior management and middle management. The respondents were finally identified using simple random sampling. To collect data and information from the sampled respondents, questionnaires were issued. As at the end of the year 2011/2012, Safaricom Ltd, Orange Telkom and Airtel Kenya had 327 employees in managerial positions. According to Mugenda & Mugenda (2003), simple random sampling is a sampling technique designed to ensure that every unit of a population has equal chances of being selected in the population. By use of simple random sampling in this study, a representative sample was obtained.
Table 3.1: Sample matrix strata

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strata</th>
<th>Target Population</th>
<th>Sample population</th>
<th>Percentage Sample population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safaricom Ltd</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orange Telkom</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Airtel Kenya</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safaricom Ltd</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orange Telkom</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Airtel Kenya</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Safaricom Ltd, Orange Telkom Ltd, Airtel Kenya Ltd, Annual Reports 2011/2012)

3.5 Research Instruments

This study used structured closed ended questionnaires designed by the researcher with the assistance of the supervisor. The same questionnaire was used for employees in senior management and middle management positions. According to Kasomo (2006), a questionnaire is a carefully designed instrument for collecting data directly from people. It is a research tool that gathers data over a large sample. It is confidential, saves time and ensures there is no opportunity for interview bias Kombo & Tromp (2006). This study used questionnaires as a tool for collecting data so as to achieve intended goals. The closed ended questions are easier to administer as each item is followed by alternative answers. Mugenda & Mugenda (2003). To ensure confidentiality and willingness to respond, the respondents were instructed not to write their names on the questionnaires and were assured their responses would be kept confidentially.
The questionnaires had 5 sections that were sub-divided based on the research objectives except the first sub-section (section A) that was meant to capture the background information of the participants like respondents gender, respondents’ marital status, respondents age, working experience and highest level of education. Section B had 7 items and it sought to assess the influence of Decision making on women involvement in managerial positions and how much the employee’s understand gender related issues. Section C had 5 items and it included questions about level of education. It sought to examine the influence of level of education on involvement in managerial positions.

Section D also had 7 items and the questions sought to establish the influence of provision of equal opportunities on involvement in managerial positions. Section E had 4 items and sought to examine the influence of socio-cultural factors on women involvement in managerial positions. Likert scale was used in some questions which will be testing the degree of the respondents’ agreement with particular variables of the study. Likert-type or frequency scales use fixed choice response formats and are designed to measure attitudes or opinions (Bowling, 1997; Burns, & Grove, 1997). These ordinal scales measure levels of agreement/disagreement.

3.6 Validity of the Research Instruments

Validity is the strength of our conclusions, inferences or propositions. Validity is defined as the appropriateness, correctness, and meaningfulness of the specific inferences which are selected on research results (Frankel & Wallen, 2008). It is the degree to which results obtained from the data analysis actually represent the phenomenon under study. This research study concerned itself with content validity. Content validity according to Kothari (2004) is the extent to which a measuring instrument provides adequate coverage of the topic under study. Content validity ensures that the instruments will cover the subject matter of the study as intended by the researcher. To ensure content validity of the instruments, the researcher closely consulted with research experts and also the peer members undertaking the same program. The research experts assisted in assessing the variables to be measured by the instruments, while the peer members helped in determining whether the set of items were accurately representing the variables under study.
3.7 Reliability of the Research Instruments

Reliability refers to the consistency of measurement (Ngechu, 2004). Split-half method was used. The method involved splitting each instrument into two halves (odd and even items) then calculating the Pearson’s correlation coefficient between the responses (scores) of the two halves (Nachimias, 1992). A reliability test answers to the consideration whether the procedures of data collection and analysis will generate the same results on other occasions or will other observers make similar observations and arrive at the same conclusions from the raw data (Smith et al., 2002 and Saunders et al. 2007). It means that repeat observations give similar results. Reliability of a measure indicates the extent to which it is without bias and hence ensures consistent measurement across time and across the various items in the instrument (Sekaran, 2006). Reliability is increased by including many similar items on a measure, by testing a diverse sample of individuals and by using uniform testing procedures. An instrument is said to be reliable if it measures what is supposed to measure. This was done through a pilot test. Piloting refers to pre-testing of a research instrument by administering it to a selected sample which is similar to the actual sample which the researcher plans to use in the study (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). A pilot study was conducted at Access Kenya Group among 6 samples which was a 10% representation of my sample size and was randomly selected. Questionnaires were administered to the pilot group and the population unit used was not included in the actual study. Piloting was done in order to assess the clarity of items, validity and reliability of the instruments. After piloting reliability was calculated. According to Gray (2004) a correlation coefficient of about 0.8 is high enough to judge the instruments as reliable for the study. In this test, a reliability of 0.7 was achieved. The study considered a correlation coefficient of between 0.7 and 0.8 to be reliable.

3.8 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher obtained a letter of introduction from the School Of Continuing and Distance Learning. The researcher then sought permission to carry out the research from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation. The researcher then made appointments with the relevant respondents especially those in management to request them to get their permission to carry out the study. Data was collected through self-administered questionnaires.
The ‘drop and pick later’ method was used to administer the questionnaires. This method was appropriate as it could reach a large number of subjects.

3.9 Data Analysis Techniques
According to Orodho (2003), data analysis is the process of systematically searching and arranging filed notes, data and other materials obtained from the field with the aim of increasing one’s own understanding and to enable one to present them to others. Before analysis, data was cleaned by checking for logical consistency and any unnecessary data was removed. Coding involved converting responses to numbers. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics where the responses from the questionnaires were tallied, tabulated and analyzed using percentages, frequencies, mean and standard deviation using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS V 21) which according to Martin & Acuna (2002), is able to handle large amounts of data and is efficient because of its wide spectrum of statistical procedures purposively designed for social sciences.

3.10 Ethical Issues in Research
Ethical research practices were observed throughout the study. First, consent to carry out the research was sought from Safaricom Ltd, Orange Telkom Ltd and Airtel Kenya Ltd. This helped in eliminating any kind of conflicts that can arise from the respondents. Secondly, the purpose of the study was clearly explained to the respondents. It was also made clear that the findings from the study would be treated with great confidentiality. A permit was further obtained from the National Commission of Science, Technology and Innovation to clarify the aim of the study which hence improved cooperation from the respondents. Finally, participation was made voluntary.
Table 3.2: Operational definition of variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Measurement of indicators</th>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Data Collection Tools</th>
<th>Type of Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To establish the influence of decision making on women involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication companies in Nairobi county</td>
<td>Independent variable</td>
<td>Monitoring</td>
<td>Assessment activities</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Descriptive statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Decision making</td>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>Action planning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Results</td>
<td>Implementation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To evaluate the influence of level of education on women involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication companies in Nairobi county</td>
<td>Independent variable</td>
<td>Certificates</td>
<td>Acquired Skills</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Level of education</td>
<td>HR records</td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Workshop and seminar</td>
<td>Bachelors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>attendance records</td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To examine the influence of provision of equal opportunities on women involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication companies in Nairobi county</td>
<td>Independent variable</td>
<td>Resource availability</td>
<td>Distribution of resources</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provision of equal opportunities</td>
<td>Gender composition</td>
<td>Gender Equity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To determine the influence of socio-cultural factors on women involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication companies in Nairobi county</td>
<td>Independent variable</td>
<td>Married/single</td>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Socio-economic factors</td>
<td>Black/White</td>
<td>Colour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Kenyan/other</td>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women involvement in managerial positions</td>
<td>Dependent variable</td>
<td>Involvement Opportunities</td>
<td>Participation in managerial positions</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>Descriptive statistics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

37
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction
The focus of this chapter was to discuss the analysis and interpretation of the findings in line with the objectives of the study. The data that was obtained is presented in tabular form using percentages and frequencies. The chapter is further sub divided into sections that are pertinent to the subjects under study.

4.2 Questionnaire Return Rate
This study targeted a sample of 53 employees from three telecommunication companies, Safaricom Ltd, Orange Telkom Ltd and Airtel Kenya. It was important to establish the return rate so as to know the exact number of questionnaires that were valid for analysis. Out of the 53 questionnaires that were issued, 46 were returned. This represented an 86.79% response rate. It was a reliable response rate for data analysis as Mugenda & Mugenda (2003) explain that any response above 60% is adequate for analysis. Based on the analysis, the response rate was high enough.

4.3 Demographic Information
As part of the general information, the respondents were requested to indicate their gender, age, marital status, years of service in their respective organizations and their positions in the organization. This was necessary in shedding light on the characteristics of the respondents.

4.3.1 Gender of the respondents
Inquiring about gender was necessary in determining whether there was gender balance in the organizations. The findings are presented in Table 4.1.
Table 4.1: Distribution of the respondents by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the findings, 33 (71%) of the respondents were male while 13 (29%) of the respondents were female. This was an indication that there was gender disparity since the number of males exceeded that of females by far.

4.3.2 Age bracket of the respondents
Determining the age bracket of the respondents was important as it revealed their level of experience in dealing with the challenges of women involvement in managerial positions. Table 4.2 shows the age brackets of the respondents.

Table 4.2: Distribution of the respondents by age brackets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 18</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-25</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 45</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results indicate that 1 (2%) of the respondents were between the ages of 26-30 years while 6 (13%) of the respondents were between the ages of 31-40 years. 22 (48%) were in the age bracket of 41-45 years whereas 17 (37%) of the respondents were above 45 years. Based on the findings, the respondents who were between the ages of 41-45 years were the majority. This therefore would suggest that they were able to appreciate and understand issues of women involvement in managerial positions.

4.3.3 Marital Status of the respondents
The purpose of inquiring about the marital status of the respondents was to establish whether it had a positive or negative influence on their perception towards women involvement in managerial positions. The findings are shown in Table 4.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>46</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings indicated that 11 (24%) of the respondents were single, 28 (61%) of the respondents were married and 5 (11%) of the respondents were separated while 2(4%) of the respondents were divorced. This indicated that the organizations placed value on family life and thus required their leaders to be married before taking on leadership roles.
4.3.4 Experience of the respondents

This question was expected to shed light on how experienced the respondents were in dealing with issues of women involvement in managerial positions with regard to the number of years they had served in their respective organizations. The findings are shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Distribution of the respondents by experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 3 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 10 years</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the findings, 3 (7%) of the respondents had served for less than 3 years, 4 (9%) of the respondents had served a period of between 3-5 years while 13 (28%) of the respondents had served for a period of 6-10 years and 26 (56%) of the respondents had served for over 10 years. The two department heads also had more than 10 years of experience. It was therefore concluded that majority of the respondents had been in the organizations long enough to understand issues relating to women involvement in managerial positions.

4.4 Decision making and women involvement in managerial positions

This section basically needed to assess the influence of decision making women involvement in managerial positions. It was important in providing a clear understanding of the capacity of the respondents to embrace women involvement in management. The indicators for this variable were women involvement in managerial positions, gender perspective in decision making, women and leadership capacity building among others as presented in this section.
4.4.1 Women consideration for Managerial positions
The respondents were asked whether a gender mainstreaming strategy had been adopted in their respective departments or not. Their views are indicated in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Women consideration for managerial positions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings indicate that 14 (30%) of the respondents were of the opinion that indeed their departments considered women for managerial positions while 32 (70%) of the respondents felt that women were not considered for managerial positions. Those who felt that women were not considered for managerial positions were the majority. This situation could be attributed to an oversight by the organizations and further the cause of gender disparity.

4.4.2 Gender Perspective in Decision-making
The study further sought to determine whether there was a gender perspective in decision-making processes. The data is presented in table 4.6

Table 4.6: Gender Perspective in decision-making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the analysis, 30 (65%) of the respondents who were the majority indicated that there was no gender perspective in decision-making processes. 16 (35%) of the respondents stated that indeed there was a gender perspective in decision making. According to these findings, it was interpreted that most decisions made were gender biased.

**4.4.3 Decision making and Intuition**

The respondents were further asked to indicate the extent to which they relied on intuition to make decisions. Their responses were as shown in Table 4.7.

**Table 4.7: Extent to which women rely on intuition in decision making**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I double check my information sources to be sure I have the right facts before making decisions.</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I make decisions, I tend to rely on my intuition.</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use the advice of other people in making my important decisions.</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I make a decision, it is more important for me to feel the decision is right than to have a rational reason for it.</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.437</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings revealed that double checking information sources to be sure they had the right facts before making decisions had the greatest effect with a mean of 3.70 followed by relying on their intuition with a mean of 3.17. It was also noted that responses on double checking information sources to be sure they had the right facts before making decisions had the least standard deviation of 1.263. Most respondents were in agreement that women had to double check information sources to be sure they had the right facts before making decisions. This could imply that they needed to have varied viewpoints and thus make decisions that most people could agree to and not go wrong.
4.4.4 Decision making and rational reasoning

Table 4.8 presents the findings of analysis on the extent to which employees were equipped with knowledge of rational reasoning in decision making in their respective organizations.

Table 4.8: Decision making and rational reasoning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Extent</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Extent</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large Extent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Large Extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis indicates that 9 (20%) of the respondents said they did not use rational reasoning as long as they felt their decision was right. 28 (60%) of the respondents indicated that the extent to which they used rational reasoning was small, 2 (5%) of the respondents did not know whether they used rational reasoning or not, 5(10%) of the respondents indicated a large extent. Only 2 (5%) of the respondents indicated a very large extent. This analysis was interpreted to imply that the employees did not apply rational reasoning to improve their decision making and to influence the involvement of women in managerial positions.

4.4.5 Information sources and decision making

The study also sought to determine the extent to which information sources were checked before making decisions. Table 4.9 shows the results of the analysis.
### Table 4.9: Information sources and decision making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Extent</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Extent</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large Extent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Large Extent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>46</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the analysis, 6 (14%) of the respondents said they did not double check their information sources to ensure their facts were right before making decisions. 32 (70%) (majority) of the respondents said they did to a small extent while 3 (6%) did not know. The rest of the respondents who constituted a very small number said the extent to which gender perspective was integrated was large and very large. This comprised 4 (7%) and 1 (3%) of the respondents respectively. The representation by majority of the respondents implies that information sources are not double checked which in one way or another could have influenced the involvement of women in managerial positions.

#### 4.4.6 Advise and decision making

Table 4.10 presents the results of analysis on the extent to which advise from others is used in making important decisions.
Table 4.10: Advise and decision making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Extent</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Extent</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large Extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Large Extent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis indicates that 10 (21%) of the respondents used advice of others in making important decisions to no extent. 31 (69%) of the respondents indicated that they used other people’s advice to a small extent while 2 (4%) did not know whether they did or not. 2 (4%) and 1 (2%) of the respondents concurred with the statement to a large extent and to a very large extent respectively. Failure to use other people’s advice could imply that decisions could be made without consultation which could at times lead to bias.

4.4.7 Capacity building and decision making

Regarding whether capacity building opportunities were offered to strengthen decision making, the respondents’ responses were as tabulated in Table 4.11.
Table 4.11: Capacity building and decision making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings indicate that 40 (89%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement that capacity building opportunities were offered while 16 (11%) of the respondents concurred with the statement. This could mean that those making decisions may not have the relevant skills to make the correct decisions.

4.4.8 Confidence in introducing issues of women involvement in managerial positions

This question aimed at establishing whether the employees felt confident about issues regarding women involvement in management at the work. The respondents had mixed views as indicated in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Confidence in introducing issues of women involvement in managerial positions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The findings indicate that 39 (85%) of the respondents could not confidently bring up issues of women involvement in managerial positions while 7 (15%) of the respondents said they could. The responses given by majority of the respondents was an indication that a lot still needed to be done discourage patriarchy and allow a free environment for discussion of women issues being that they are in most cases considered the minority.

4.4.9 Knowledge about decision making

Respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they needed more knowledge about decision. The findings are as presented in Table 4.13.

![Table 4.13: Knowledge about decision making](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the analysis, 42 (92%) of the respondents said they needed more knowledge about decision making while the remaining 4 (8%) felt they did not need more. This indicated that the structures governing decision making process in the organizations may not be clear.

4.4.10 Type of capacity building

The respondents were asked about the types of capacity building they required. The information is presented in table 4.14.
Table 4.14: Type of capacity building

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership styles</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collection and Analysis of Gender Data</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision making skills</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women empowerment</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to this analysis, 12 (25%) of the respondents said they needed capacity building on leadership styles. 9 (19%) of the respondents said the area that they needed capacity building on was collection and analysis of gender data. 6 (14%) of the respondents indicated decision making as the area they needed more knowledge on. Finally, 19 (42%) of the respondents indicated women empowerment as the area of need. Being the majority, the study assumed that women empowerment issues were not sufficiently dealt with.

4.5 Level of education and women involvement in managerial positions

This section addressed the respondents’ perceptions on objective two which sought to examine the influence of level of education on women involvement in managerial positions. It was important in establishing whether level of education played a role in consideration for managerial positions. The variables constituting this measure ranged from career development to training offered as presented in the following sub-sections.

4.5.1 Training sessions on career development

The respondents were asked whether their organizations offered training sessions on career development. Table 4.15 shows the responses.
Table 4.15: Training sessions on career development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total    | 46        | 100        |

Based on the findings, 39 (86%) of the respondents indicated that indeed their departments offered training on career development while 7 (14%) said training sessions were not offered. Based on the fact that most respondents indicated that training was offered it was an indication that most women employees have been trained and have relevant skills though a small number may be lacking the relevant skills.

4.5.2 Use of external expertise concerning education and training

The study sought to establish whether the organizations made use of external expertise concerning education and training. Table 4.16 presents the results of the findings.

Table 4.16 Use of external expertise concerning education and training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total    | 46        | 100        |
From the analysis 32 (70%) of the respondents said they utilized external expertise on the other hand 14 (30%) said they did not utilize external expertise. The respondents who said they did not utilize external expertise constituted the majority. This indicated that they had not had a chance to use external expertise and it would be lacking professional skills from the experts.

### 4.5.3 Resource Materials Availability

The study sought to determine the availability of resource materials for the purpose of women involvement in managerial positions. Resource materials were deemed to enhance knowledge on gender issues. Table 4.17 shows the findings on this variable.

**Table 4.17: Resource materials availability**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicated that 31 (69%) of the respondents said resource materials on women leadership were available while 15 (31%) of the respondents said they were not available. It was worth questioning why majority of them said they needed more knowledge on women empowerment yet resource materials were available. Probably they did not fully utilize the resources.

### 4.5.4 Extent to which education level determines women involvement in management

The respondents were also expected to agree or disagree on whether or not women with undergraduate degrees were better managers than those without. The results are indicated in Table 4.18
Table 4.18: Extent to which education level determines women involvement in management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women in management with University postgraduate degrees are rated better in their jobs that those with only undergraduate degrees or without degrees</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women in management with University undergraduate degrees are rated better in their jobs that those without degrees</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training exposures and other opportunities are provided to female staff in order to enhance their competence and improve their abilities to assume senior positions</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>.918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Doctor of philosophy is important for a women to perform better as a senior manager</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.691</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the study, it was established that women in management with university postgraduate degrees were rated better in their jobs that those with only undergraduate degrees or without degrees had the greatest effect with a mean of 4.07 while a doctor of philosophy being important for a women to perform better as a senior manager had the least mean of 1.48. It was also noted that responses on a doctor of philosophy being important for a women to perform better as a senior manager had the least standard deviation of 0.691. The findings of the study show that most respondents were in agreement that women in management with university postgraduate degrees were better in their jobs than those with only undergraduate degrees or without degrees. In addition a doctor of philosophy was not important for a woman to perform better as a senior manager.

4.5.5 Type of training Mostly Offered to employees

The study further sought to determine the type of training mostly offered. Table 4.19 presents the findings.
Table 4.19: Type of training mostly offered to employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financial Resources</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Development</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender issues</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicate that 14 (30%) of the respondents felt that they were mostly offered training on financial resources, 21 (45%) of the respondents said career development, 9 (20%) gender issues and 2 (5%) said they received no training. It was assumed that more training was on career development as compared to the other areas. The analysis indicated that there was a need for the organizations to offer more training sessions on gender issues as this would help in having more women involved in managerial positions.

4.6 Provision of Equal Opportunities and women involvement in managerial positions

Under this section, it was of great value to establish the influence of provision of equal opportunities on women involvement in managerial positions. The measures for this variable included gender determination of role, hierarchical value of masculinity or feminism, recognition and value of men’s work among others as presented in the following sub-sections.

4.6.1 Gender Determination of Role

The respondents were asked whether or not gender determined the role played by men and women. Table 4.20 presents the findings.
Table 4.20: Gender determination of role

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the analysis 34 (75%) of the respondents indicated that gender determined the role played by men and women while 12 (25%) of the respondents disagreed with the assertion that gender determined the roles assigned to women or men. The findings implied that there was gender stereotyping which could cause unequal and unfair treatment. There is need to change this perspective in the organizations so that one gender is not discriminated against.

4.6.2 Hierarchical Value of Masculinity and Feminism
Respondents were asked to state whether masculinity or feminism gave more hierarchical value at the workplace or not. Table 4.21 shows their responses.

Table 4.21: Hierarchical value of masculinity and feminism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results indicated that 37 (81%) of the respondents agreed that masculinity or feminism gave hierarchical value while 9 (19%) of the respondents stated that it did not give hierarchical value at the workplace. The reason why there were more males than females could be based on the fact that masculinity or feminism gave more hierarchical value. This needs to be changed in order to enable more women be involved in managerial positions.

4.6.3 Recognition and Value of Men’s Work

The respondents were asked whether men’s work was recognized and valued in terms of payment, status or political power as compared to that of women, these findings are shown in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Recognition and value of men’s work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the analysis 28 (61%) of the respondents reported that men’s work was recognized and valued, however, 18 (39%) of the respondents found no favouritism when it came to the recognition of men’s work in regard to payment, status or political power. This could be the reason why women lagged behind in the process of leadership as indicated by majority of the respondents.

4.6.4 Expressions of Stereotypes and Inequality

Views of the respondents on whether or not the organization did enough to discourage expressions of stereotypes and inequality within its departments are as shown in Table 4.23.
Table 4.23: Expressions of stereotypes and inequality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Majority of the respondents 34 (75%) were of the view that not enough was being done to discourage stereotyping and inequalities within the organizations while the other 12 (25%) of the respondents said enough was being done. This implied that more needed to be done in order to discourage stereotyping which greatly influenced women involvement in managerial positions.

4.6.5 Respectful Relations

The views of the respondents were also sought to establish whether there were any efforts to ensure that there was respectful relations among the employees. Table 4.24 presents the findings on this variable.

Table 4.24: Respectful relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the analysis 28 (60% of the respondents reported that the organizations were doing enough to ensure respectful relations existed among its employees while 18 (40%) of the respondents felt enough was not being done. The findings indicated that most of the respondents felt that there were respectful relations among the employees in the organizations while the others could have experienced situations where they felt they were not respected.

4.6.6 Men’s versus women’s opinions
Respondents were also asked whether they thought men’s opinions were taken more seriously than women’s opinions at the workplace. The analysis is shown in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25: Men’s versus women’s opinions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicated that 33 (71%) of the respondents felt that men’s opinions were taken more seriously than women’s, while 13 (29%) disagreed. The results indicated that men were still regarded more highly than women and hence the reason why there were more male managers than female especially in top positions.

4.6.7 Special needs
Respondents were also asked to report on the extent to which female staff had their needs fully catered for within the Organizations. The analysis is shown in Table 4.26
Table 4.26: Special needs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>.547</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Special needs of female staff such as maternity leave, flexibility during pregnancy; post-partum and lactation period and issues related to travel time and work hours are fully considered.

Interview panels formed have equal gender representation.

Awareness is created among male staff about the objectives of gender equality.

Supervisors encourage staff to incorporate the concept of equality in all activities ranging from staff appraisals, promotion and transfer.

The findings revealed that special needs of female staff such as maternity leave, flexibility during pregnancy; post-partum and lactation period and issues related to travel time and work hours were fully considered had the greatest effect with a mean of 4.48 while supervisors encouraging staff to incorporate the concept of equality in all activities ranging from staff appraisals, promotion and transfer had the least mean of 1.89. It was also noted that responses on special needs of female staff such as maternity leave, flexibility during pregnancy; post-partum and lactation period and issues related to travel time and work hours were fully considered had the least standard deviation of 0.547.

This suggested that most respondents were in agreement that special needs of female staff such as maternity leave, flexibility during pregnancy; post-partum and lactation period and issues
related to travel time and work hours were fully considered when determining those to be selected to management positions.

4.7 Socio-cultural Factors and women involvement in managerial positions

Based on objective four which sought to determine the influence of socio cultural factors on women involvement in managerial positions, the study aimed at analyzing how socio cultural factors such as marital status, race among others influenced women involvement in managerial positions, it also looked at influence of family issues on work among other factors presented in the following sub–sections.

4.7.1 Demands of the family and work

The respondents were further asked whether the demands of family interfered with their work. These findings are presented in Table 4.27.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicated that 34 (75%) of the respondents agreed that the demands of family could interfere with their work while 12 (25 %) of the respondents said the demands of family did not interfere with their work. The findings show that the majority paid attention to family issues such that it could interfere with their routine work.
4.7.2 Skin colour and consideration for positions

Respondents were asked to report on whether or not one's skin colour determined their consideration for certain positions. The findings were as presented in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28: Skin colour and consideration for positions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the findings 25 (55%) of the respondents felt that skin colour did not determine one's consideration for certain positions while a close 21 (45%) felt that skin colour determined one's consideration for certain positions. The results indicated that most respondents felt skin colour did not determine consideration for positions while the remaining felt that skin colour could in one way or another determine consideration for managerial positions. This should be an indication that racism still persists in foreign companies.

4.7.3 Extent to which socio-cultural factors determine women involvement in managerial positions

This measure intended to determine the extent to which women leadership was influenced by their childhood social orientation against women. Table 4.29 shows the results of the findings on this measure.
Table 4.29 Extent to which socio-cultural factors influence women involvement in management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women leadership is influenced by their childhood social orientation against women</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate women managers deliver better results than Kenyan women managers</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>1.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female managers delivery at work is negatively influenced by their household chores</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women involvement in managerial positions depends on their ethnic background</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>.837</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the study, it was established that women leadership being influenced by childhood social orientation against women had the greatest effect with a mean of 2.63 while women involvement in managerial positions depending on their ethnic background had the least mean of 1.50. It was also noted that responses on women involvement in managerial positions depending on their ethnic background had the least standard deviation of 0.837. This indicated that family background plays a significant role in determining leadership. The saying that a leader is born but not made suggests that there are some inborn characteristics that pre-dispose one towards becoming a leader regardless of their gender and therefore both women and men should be given fair chance in becoming leaders.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction
This chapter summarizes the findings, discussions, conclusions and recommendations based on the analysis in chapter four. It also outlines the contribution to the body of knowledge and suggestions for further research.

5.2 Summary of Findings
This section provides a summary of the findings as presented in chapter four of the study. In reference to demographic characteristic, the study sought to establish the respondents’ level of understanding and appreciation of issues of women involvement in managerial positions. The findings indicated that there were more men than women in managerial positions as evidenced by 71% of male respondents and 29% of female respondents. Majority of the respondents (48%) were between the ages of 41-45 years. None of the respondents was below the age of 18 years. On marital status, it was established that 61% of the respondents being the majority were married. Moreover, 56% had more than 10 years of experience working in the organizations. Only 7% of the respondents had less than 3 years of experience.

The first objective of the study to establish the influence of decision making on women involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County, 30% of the respondents were of the opinion that indeed their departments considered women for managerial positions while 70% of the respondents felt that women were not considered for managerial positions. 65% of the respondents also indicated that there was no gender perspective in decision-making processes against 35% of the respondents who stated that indeed there was a gender perspective in decision making. Double checking information sources to be sure they had the right facts before making decisions had the greatest effect with a mean of 3.70 followed by relying on their intuition with a mean of 3.17. It was also noted that responses on double checking information sources to be sure they had the right facts before making decisions had the
least standard deviation of 1.263. 92% of the respondents also reported they were in need of decision making knowledge while only 8% said they did not require further knowledge.

Based on objective two which sought to determine the influence of level of education on women involvement in managerial positions, 86% of the respondents indicated that indeed their departments offered training on career development while 14% said training sessions were not offered. 69% of the respondents said resource materials on women leadership were available while and 70% reported that the organizations made use of external expertise concerning education. The findings also revealed that women in management with university postgraduate degrees were rated better in their jobs that those with only undergraduate degrees or without degrees had the greatest effect with a mean of 4.07 while a doctor of philosophy being important for a women to perform better as a senior manager had the least mean of 1.48. It was also noted that responses on a doctor of philosophy being important for a women to perform better as a senior manager had the least standard deviation of 0.691.

In reference to objective three which sought to establish the influence of provision of equal opportunities on women involvement in managerial positions, 75% of the respondents indicated that gender determined the role played by men and women. A further 81% of the respondents reported that masculinity or feminism gave more hierarchical value. Moreover 61% said that more value was given to men’s work as compared to women. It was also realized that the organizations did not do enough to discourage stereotypes as reported by 75% of the respondents. This was despite the fact that enough was done to encourage respectful relations as reported by 60% of the respondents. Furthermore, the extent to which the voice of women was given due importance in planning and decision making was small as indicated by 71% of the respondents. Special needs of female staff such as maternity leave, flexibility during pregnancy; post-partum and lactation period and issues related to travel time and work hours were fully considered had the greatest effect with a mean of 4.48 while supervisors encouraging staff to incorporate the concept of equality in all activities ranging from staff appraisals, promotion and transfer had the least mean of 1.89. It was also noted that responses on special needs of female staff such as maternity leave, flexibility during pregnancy; post-partum and lactation period and
issues related to travel time and work hours were fully considered had the least standard deviation of 0.547.

Finally, regarding objective four which sought to determine the influence of socio cultural factors on women involvement in managerial, 87% of the respondents said factors such as marital status, race, skin colour among others had an influence on women involvement in managerial positions while 75% of the respondents agreed that the demands of family could interfere with their work. 55% of the respondents felt that skin colour did not determine ones consideration for certain positions. The findings also established that women leadership being influenced by childhood social orientation against women had the greatest effect with a mean of 2.63 while women involvement in managerial positions depending on their ethnic background had the least mean of 1.50. Furthermore, the responses on women involvement in managerial positions depending on their ethnic background had the least standard deviation of 0.837.

5.3 Discussions
According to the findings of this study, women involvement in managerial positions faces quite a number of challenges in terms of decision making, level of education, provision of equal opportunities and socio-cultural factors. Based on the demographic characteristics of the respondents, the fact that the number of men exceeded that of women by far called for alarm. It implied that women were not given equal opportunities as men. It is important for people to realize that women are equal to men and that they should be treated in the same way as men with regard to rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities. This way, gender studies argue that women would be enabled to compete on equal terms with men (Aufhauser & Hafner, 2002). Based on the respondents’ age, marital status and years of experience, Moser & Moser (2005) argue that differences between women and men should never be used as a ground for discrimination rather as partnerships to ensure that both participate equally.

Regarding the influence of decision making on women involvement in managerial positions, most informants reported that they needed further knowledge on decision making. This is consistent the findings of Mangan (2011) that organizations need a cadre of managers who have a broad enough array of skills to cope with the new world. It is also consistent with Brynard
(2007) who recommends that people should be equipped with skills, information and knowledge on empowerment. Walby (2005) further explains that professionals in development projects and programmes need to be provided with skills to assist them on how to plan, design, implement and monitor the development process. The fact that women’s voice was not given due importance in planning and decision-making can further be explained by the views of Thomson (2005) who says that various scholars started assessing the oppressive situation of women as the result of traditional societies which are characterized by authoritarianism and male-dominance.

Regarding objective two on the influence of level of education on women involvement in managerial positions, the informants reported that women with postgraduate degrees were rated better in their jobs than those with undergraduate degrees only. This finding is consistent with findings by Eagly & Carli (2004) from their study from the United States. Eagly & Carli (2004) explain that women who are better educated have better work performance than those who are not. This assertion holds true for this study because the respondents asserted that women will be affected in their career due to level of education. The findings agree with a United Nations Report of 2007 which reported that without equitable access to quality education, women do not have the means to build their knowledge, capacity and skills to access well-paid, formal sector jobs and attain positions of leadership. Unless gender gaps in literacy and education are addressed, the next generation of girls will be similarly marginalized from leadership roles.

In reference to the influence of provision of equal opportunities on women involvement in managerial positions, most respondents agreed with the assertion that gender determined the roles assigned to women or men. This contradicted Moser & Moser (2005) views. They noted that gender is characterized by a set of arrangements of cultural attributes and roles that men and women play in their daily lives. These sets of arrangements are reflected by structural relationships of inequalities between men and women manifested through roles and responsibilities and through different values attached to the work performed by men and women. Most respondents further reported that more hierarchical value was given based on masculinity or feminism. This was in accordance to the views by Vlassoff & Moreno (2002) who agree that the work performed by men is valued differently as compared to that performed by women. D’Haese & Kirsten (2006) also explain that gender roles are what a society or culture constructs.
and prescribes as proper roles, in examples of behaviour and personal identity, wherein that which is associated with women is feminism and with men is masculinity, with the latter given more hierarchical value. Moreover, the respondents reported that men’s work was valued and recognized compared to that of women. Tsikata (2007) elaborates this situation by explaining that patriarchal factors impact the process of gender mainstreaming negatively in areas such as those of employment, recruitment and promotion. It also limits organizational efficiency, waste the potential skills of people and harm individuals at personal levels. The respondents also reported that the organizations did enough to promote respectful relations between employees. Meer & Porter (2005) support this view by explaining that the manner in which men and women relate has an influence on gender issues. Patriarchy should be challenged and all efforts should be directed towards liberating women (Portier & Schwartz, 2007).

In reference to objective four which sought to ascertain the influence of sociocultural factors on women involvement in managerial positions, the findings indicated that most respondents agreed that sociocultural factors had an influence on women involvement in managerial positions. This contradicts findings by Huang, Hammer, Neal, & Perrin (2004) who assert that although ordinarily women persistently face more household demands and family responsibility their performance at work still remains high. Studies by Onyango et al. (2011) in Kenya established that socio-cultural factors do hinder women participation in educational management. These factors were discouragement by spouses, domestic chores, lack of interest, gender bias, and lack of motivation, inferiority complex, religion and political interference. Further, African culture expects women to be submissive to men, and also to take charge of domestic and family responsibilities as cited by Kiamba (2008). According to Emmett (2001), socialization of the girl child in many societies is to blame. In other words, limits are put on girls as opposed to boys. To overcome this anomaly, there is need to sensitize societies and communities on the potentials God has bestowed into women, therefore they should not be underrated and discriminated on terms of being women. Ogden, McTavish & McKean (2006) found that there are still visible glass ceiling effects that keep women from moving into middle and senior level management positions like long working hours and male-dominated networks in particular.
5.4 Conclusions
The challenges facing women involvement in managerial positions calls for a serious concern especially in the telecommunication industry. The more reason why this study focused on the subject matter. Regarding demographic characteristics of the respondents, the study concluded that the lack of gender balance was a contributing factor to some of the challenges facing women involvement in managerial positions. Regarding experience, it was concluded that most respondents were in a position to understand the implication of gender issues since most of them had more than 10 years of experience working in the organizations. Since most respondents were married, it was concluded that most of them were in a better position to appreciate issues of women leadership given that they relate with both males and females on a more personal level.

Based on objective one, the study concluded that most managers were in need of decision making knowledge to aid in the process of making more informed decisions than the current situation. The fact that there was no gender perspective in decision making processes implied that most decisions made were gender biased. This great need for more knowledge in decision making was further linked to the lack of capacity building and training which meant that the employees were not equipped with all the necessary skills and knowledge.

Regarding objective two, the study concluded women were required to attain higher levels of education to be considered for certain managerial positions. Women with postgraduate degrees were more preferred to those with undergraduate degrees.

In reference to objective three, the study concluded that men were more valued than women and this made it difficult for more women to be involved in managerial positions. This was linked to the fact that gender determined the role played by men and women and masculinity or feminism gave more hierarchical value. Also based on this was the fact that men’s work was recognized as compared to women’s work. Despite the fact that the organizations did enough to promote respectful relations, expressions of stereotypes were still rampant. It was thus concluded that the organizations were not doing enough in terms of dealing with patriarchy systems all round. Moreover, it was concluded that the organizations were not keen on the progress of women who are the core of gender issues given the inequalities they have faced over the years. This is
because despite the fact that the organizations were sensitive to their needs, the voice of women was not considered important in decision making processes. In addition, awareness was not created among male staff on the objectives of gender equality. Probably the organizations did not see the need. If the organizations were committed to the issues of women involvement in managerial positions, supervisors would have been encouraged to play a strong role in women leadership issues to a large extent. Based on the findings, they were not encouraged to play a strong role in women leadership.

On objective four, it was concluded that socio cultural factors such as marital status and nationality were used to decide women involvement in managerial positions. This implied that the organizations had not put into consideration programmes and specific projects to address women’s issues.

5.5 Recommendations

The following recommendations were made in line with the findings of this study:

1. The study recommends that organizations should enhance on capacity building on decision making skills to enable women have the right information when making decisions. This will further make the employees feel more confident and secure in their jobs.

2. Women should strive to improve their level of education to increase their chances of involvement in management.

3. The study also recommends that an equality policy should be implemented in order to ensure that all employees are treated equally.

4. The study recommends that the organizations should offer sensitization within the organizations to change discriminatory cultural practices.
5.6 Suggestions for Further Research

Arising from the study, the following directions for future research in Project Planning and Management were recommended:

1. Factors contributing to female marginalization in projects.
2. Determinants of women involvement in managerial positions in other sectors in Kenya.
3. Influence of policy formulation on women leadership in the telecommunication industry.

5.7 Contribution to the Body of Knowledge

This study contributes to the existing body of knowledge by offering a deeper insight to the challenges facing women involvement in managerial positions particularly in the telecommunication industry. Most researchers argue that discrimination and gender stereotyping are the main obstacles facing the process of women involvement in managerial positions. In contrast, this study has established that inadequate decision making skills, level of education, gender inequality and outdated socio-cultural factors are also barriers that hinder women involvement in managerial positions.
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Appendix I: Letter of Introduction to Safaricom Ltd

Date……………..

Chief Executive Officer,
Safaricom Limited.
P.O Box 66827-00800,
Nairobi.

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: ACADEMIC RESEARCH PROJECT

I am a Master of Arts in Project Planning and Management student at The University of Nairobi Kenya. I am currently undertaking a Research Project on: ‘Factors determining women involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County, Kenya’ as a partial fulfillment for the requirement for an award of a Masters of Arts degree in Project Planning and Management.

A questionnaire will be used to gather relevant information to address the research objectives. The purpose of writing to you is to kindly request you to grant me permission to administer the research questionnaire to sampled staff. Please note that the study will be conducted as an academic research and the information provided will be treated in strict confidence .Strict ethical principles will be observed to ensure confidentiality and the study outcomes and reports will not include reference to any individuals. Your acceptance will be highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Benter Akinyi Osuri
Appendix II: Letter of Introduction Orange Telkom Ltd

Date……………..

Chief Executive Officer,
Orange Telkom Kenya.
P.O Box 30301-00100,
Nairobi.

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: ACADEMIC RESEARCH PROJECT

I am a Master of Arts in Project Planning and Management student at The University of Nairobi Kenya. I am currently undertaking a Research Project on: ‘Factors determining women involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County, Kenya’ as a partial fulfillment for the requirement for an award of a Masters of Arts degree in Project Planning and Management.

A questionnaire will be used to gather relevant information to address the research objectives. The purpose of writing to you is to kindly request you to grant me permission to administer the research questionnaire to sampled staff. Please note that the study will be conducted as an academic research and the information provided will be treated in strict confidence. Strict ethical principles will be observed to ensure confidentiality and the study outcomes and reports will not include reference to any individuals. Your acceptance will be highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Benter Akinyi Osuri
Appendix III: Letter of Introduction to Airtel Kenya Ltd

Date……………..

Chief Executive Officer,
Airtel Kenya Ltd,
P.O Box 73146-00200,
Nairobi.

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: ACADEMIC RESEARCH PROJECT

I am a Master of Arts in Project Planning and Management student at The University of Nairobi Kenya. I am currently undertaking a Research Project on: ‘Factors determining women involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County, Kenya’ as a partial fulfillment for the requirement for an award of a Masters of Arts degree in Project Planning and Management.

A questionnaire will be used to gather relevant information to address the research objectives. The purpose of writing to you is to kindly request you to grant me permission to administer the research questionnaire to sampled staff. Please note that the study will be conducted as an academic research and the information provided will be treated in strict confidence. Strict ethical principles will be observed to ensure confidentiality and the study outcomes and reports will not include reference to any individuals. Your acceptance will be highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Benter Akinyi Osuri
Appendix IV: Questionnaire for Employees in managerial positions

The purpose of this study is to establish the factors determining women involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County.

Instructions:

i. This questionnaire is aimed at understanding the issues of women involvement in managerial positions.

ii. Do not write your name on the questionnaire.

iii. Please answer the questions as objectively and honestly as possible.

iv. Place a mark in the spaces provided after each question to reflect your answer the most accurately.

SECTION A: Background Information of the respondents

1. Gender: Male [ ] Female[ ]

2. Age Bracket: Below18 years [ ] 19 – 25 years [ ] 26– 30 years [ ]
   31 – 40 years [ ] 41-45 years [ ] Above 45 years [ ]

3. Marital status: Married [ ] Single [ ] Divorced [ ] Separated [ ]

4. Years of service in the organization: Less than 3 years [ ] 3 – 5 years [ ]
   6 – 10 years [ ] Over 10 years [ ]

5. Position in the organization
   Middle Manager [ ]
   Senior Manager [ ]

SECTION B: Decision Making and women involvement in managerial positions

6. Does your department consider women for managerial positions?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]
7. Is there a gender perspective in the decisions you make?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

8. The following are some issues related to decision making. Please indicate the extent to which they apply to you.


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<tr>
<td>When I make decisions, I tend to rely on my intuition.</td>
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<td>When I make a decision, it is more important for me to feel the decision is right than to have a rational reason for it.</td>
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<td>I double check my information sources to be sure I have the right facts before making decisions.</td>
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<td>I use the advice of other people in making my important decisions.</td>
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9. Does your organization offer capacity building opportunities to strengthen your knowledge on decision making?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

10. Do you feel confident to introduce issues regarding women involvement in managerial positions at the work place?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

11. Do you feel you need more knowledge about Decision making?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

12. In which area do you need capacity building in order to address women leadership issues more effectively in your area of responsibility? Tick one.

a. Leadership styles [ ]

b. Collection and analysis of gender data [ ]
c. Decision making skills

d. Women Empowerment

**SECTION C: Level of education and women involvement in managerial positions**

13. Does your department offer training sessions regarding career development?
   
   Yes [ ]      No [ ]

14. Do you make use of external expertise concerning education and training in your department?
   
   Yes [ ]      No [ ]

15. Are resource materials on management available to staff?
   
   Yes [ ]      No [ ]

16. The following are statements on level of education. Please indicate the extent to which each of the factors is practiced in your department.

   b)  1 Strongly Agree  2 Agree  3 Undecided  4 Disagree  5 Strongly Disagree

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<tr>
<td>Women in your organization in management with University undergraduate degrees are rated better in their jobs that those without degrees</td>
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<td>Women in your organization in management with University postgraduate degrees are rated better in their jobs that those with only undergraduate degrees or without degrees</td>
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<td>Training exposures and other opportunities are provided to female staff in order to enhance their competence and improve their abilities to assume senior positions</td>
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<td>A Doctor of philosophy is important for a women to perform better as a senior manager</td>
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17. What kind of training do you mostly have in your department?

Financial [ ]
Career Development [ ]
Gender issues [ ]
None [ ]

SECTION D: Provision of Equal Opportunities and women involvement in managerial positions

18. Are the roles played by men and women in your department influenced by gender?

Yes [ ]
No [ ]

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

Yes [ ]
No [ ]

20. Is men’s work recognized and valued more compared to women?

Yes [ ]
No [ ]

21. Does the organization do enough to discourage expressions of stereotypes and inequalities?

Yes [ ]
No [ ]

22. Does the organization pay attention to issues related to ensuring respectful relations between men and women at the workplace?

Yes [ ]
No [ ]

23. Do you think men’s opinions on issues are taken more seriously than women’s in your department?

Yes [ ]
No [ ]
24. Please indicate the extent to which each of the following practices is practiced in your department.

1 Very Large Extent    2 Large Extent    3 Don’t know    4 Small Extent    5 No Extent

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<tr>
<td>Special needs of female staff such as maternity leave, flexibility during</td>
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<td>pregnancy; post-partum and lactation period and issues related to travel</td>
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<td>time and work hours are fully considered.</td>
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<td>Interview panels formed have equal gender representation.</td>
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<td>Awareness is created among male staff about the objectives of gender</td>
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<td>equality.</td>
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<td>Supervisors encourage staff to incorporate the concept of equality in</td>
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<td>all activities ranging from staff appraisals, promotion and transfer.</td>
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**Section E: Socio-cultural Factors and women involvement in managerial positions**

25. Do socio-cultural factors such as marital status, nationality etc. influence women involvement in managerial positions?

   Yes [   ]     No [   ]

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

   Yes [   ]     No [   ]

27. Do you think one’s skin colour determines whether they are considered for a certain position or not?

   Yes [   ]     No [   ]
28. Please indicate the extent to which each of the following practices is practiced in your department.

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<tr>
<td>Women leadership is influenced by their childhood social orientation</td>
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<td>against women</td>
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<td>Expatriate women managers deliver better results than Kenyan women</td>
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<td>managers</td>
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<td>Female managers delivery at work is negatively influenced by their</td>
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<td>household chores</td>
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<td>Women involvement in managerial positions depends on their ethnic</td>
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<td>background</td>
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*Thank you for your time and cooperation*
Appendix V: Letter of authorization from the University of Nairobi

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND EXTERNAL STUDIES
SCHOOL OF CONTINUING AND DISTANCE EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EXTRA-MURAL STUDIES
NAIROBI EXTRA-MURAL CENTRE

Your Ref:  
Our Ref:  
Telephone: 318262 Ext. 120

Main Campus
Gandhi Wing, Ground Floor
P.O. Box 30197
NAIROBI

3rd July, 2015

REF: UON/CEES//NEMC/22/071

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: BENTER AKINYI OSURI – L50/82298/2012

This is to confirm that the above named is a student at the University of Nairobi, College of Education and External Studies, School of Continuing and Distance Education, Department of Extra-Mural Studies pursuing Master of Arts in Project Planning and Management.

She is proceeding for research entitled “Factors Influencing Women Involvement in Managerial Positions within the Telecommunication Industry in Nairobi County Kenya.”

Any assistance given her will be appreciated.

CAREN AWILLY
CENTRE ORGANIZER
NAIROBI EXTRA MURAL CENTRE
Appendix VI: Letter of Authorization from NACOSTI

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone: +254-20-2213471, 2241349, 310571, 2219420
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249
Email: secretary@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

Ref: No.  

NACOSTI/P/15/8270/7061  

Benter Akinyi Osuri  
University of Nairobi  
P.O. Box 30197-00100  
NAIROBI.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on “Factors determining women involvement in managerial positions within the telecommunication industry in Nairobi County, Kenya,” I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in Nairobi County for a period ending 31st December, 2015.

You are advised to report to the Chief Executive Officers of selected Telecommunication Firms, the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Nairobi County before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.

DR. S. K. LANGAT, OGW  
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:

The Chief Executive Officers  
Selected Telecommunication Firms.

The County Commissioner  
Nairobi County.