Barriers to women career progression in Kenya's Civil Service

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DECLARATION

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

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to family: My mother Zipporah, my late dad Meshack, my husband Mathew, daughter Sharon and sons Anthony and Collins.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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ACRONYMS

ANOVA   Analysis Of Variance

BPA   Beijing Platform for Action

CEDAW   Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination againstWomen

CEO   Chief Executive Officer

CIC   Commission for the Implementation of the Constitution

CSW   Commission on the Status of Women

FIDA   Federation of Women Lawyers

GOS   Gendered Organizational Structures

ILO   International Labor Organization

LFP   Labor Force Participation

NMAW   National Mechanism for Advancement of Women

SPSS   Statistical Package for Social Sciences

UK   United Kingdom

UN   United Nations

UNIFEM   United Nations Development Fund

USA   United States of America

WEF   World Economic Forum

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Affirmative action - Action taken on temporary basis in favor of women so as to enhance equity with men in similar circumstances (UNIFEM, 2010).

Androgynous interpersonal style - this is where both male and female counterparts are at ease (McGregor & Tweed, 2001; Raggins, Townshed&Mattis, 1998).

Assertion - this is insistence on recognition of one's claims or rights. Management and personal development trainers have identified that women need to be more assertive. Assertion can be seen as a means to get control and get one's way.

Barrier -this is a factor, event or phenomenon that prevents or controls access to individuals from making progress.

Career - this is defined as a series of related jobs within an organization or different jobs within an organization or different jobs within various companies (Pietrrofesa&Splete, 1975).

Career progression - of women is defined as women who have achieved the position of an executive officer at the state level (D' Agostino& Levine, 2000).

Coping strategies - Coping strategies include redesigning one's roles and relationship and manipulating resources and demands to do so (Voydanoff, 2005). In career domain, ambitious women develop social networks, enter mentoring relationships and seek promotions opportunities to advance (Brett & Stroh, 2003).

Gender - This refers to the socially determined power relations, roles, responsibilities and entitlement for men and women (Abdullah &Karthrin, 2010).

Stereotyping - this is the process of categorizing an individual into a particular group and attributing a set of characteristics to the individual on the basis of the group membership (Davidson & Cooper, 1993).

Gender stereotype - are shared beliefs about the psychological traits of men and women (Moore, 1995; Konrad&Linnehan, 1999).

Gender Mainstreaming - a strategy that has been adopted to mainstream gender issues in the public sector.

Glass-ceiling - this is a phenomenon which argues that a barrier is so subtle and transparent yet so strong that it prevents women from moving up in management hierarchy (Jamali et al 2005)..

Mentor - a person either inside or outside the individual's organization with whom there is formal or informal working relationships (Raggins, Townshed&Mattis, 1998).

Networking - informal relationship that result in valuable information exchange , career planning and strategizing professional support and increased visibility (Jamali et al.,2006).

Organization culture - this is a system of shared meanings, values, beliefs, practices, group norms of the members to produce behavioral norms with regard to the working conditions of the organization (Harvey & Brown 1996).

Reliability – The degree to which measures are free from error and therefore yield consistent results (Zikmund, 2000).

Self-efficacy - this is the self-belief that one can perform a specific task or sets of tasks (McWhite, Torres &Rasheed, 1998).

Socialization - this is the process through which an individual learns and accepts roles.

Training and development - are organizationally directed experiences designed to improve employee competency levels and enhance organizational performance (Mondy, Noe&Premeaux, 2002).

The civil service – is the policy implementation arm of the government. In executing this role, it is guided by public policy pronouncement and the attendant development plans and circulars.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to assess the barriers to women career progression and the coping strategies employed by women managers in Kenya's civil service. The study therefore assessed whether gender stereotype, social cultural beliefs, organization structures, family responsibilities and individual characteristics act as barriers to women career progression. The study also looked at the coping strategies employed by executive women in their career progression.

The study adopted a descriptive survey design to collect data from 326 women in middle and senior management levels in Kenyan civil service. Data was also gathered from Human Resource Managers. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the ministries with the highest and those with the lowest women representation. A total of 15 ministries were selected forming 30% of the total ministries. Stratified sampling was used to get the population of women in various job groups and random sampling to get the respondents. Only women were considered for this study and not men because theresearcher was interested with the perception of women which differs with that of men as far as career progression is concerned.

Self-developed questionnaires were used to collect data from women in management and interview guide from Human Resource Managers.

Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics by means of SPSS, a statistical software package.

The findings of the study revealed that women's career progression in ministries is hampered by gender stereotype, social cultural beliefs, organizational structures and individual characteristics. In all the ministries consulted respondents agreed that the

barriers are still prevalent in the organizations. These women yearn for ideals such as equal treatment and organizational support that would promote them into the organization's top posts by merit.

The study recommends an effective cultural change and policy shift at the national level to redress the gender imbalance in career progression for women that currently exists. Civic education should be conducted from the grass root on that there is no difference between girls and boys at the early stages of child development. It should be inculcated in the minds of men and women that what a man can do, a woman can do better. There is also need for change in Kenyan organizations to provide and encourage work environment where women can develop and realize their full potential. This study has added new knowledge by bringing out clearly the concept of mentoring which is a new phenomenon in developing countries like Kenya. It has also provided evidence on barriers to women career progression in Kenya's civil service.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background to the study

During the past few decades, women have attained soaring levels of education in many parts of the world and their proportion comprises around 40 percent of workers worldwide (ILO, 2002). In many countries, women have higher rates of enrolment in schools and universities and dominate certain economic sectors such as education and nursing fields. This phenomenon however, has not been paralleled by equal access to work opportunities at higher levels of organizations. There is a persistent world trend affecting female managers where their career development plateaus at middle management positions (Wentling, 2003).

Women accumulating management experience and completion of professional education programs do not seem sufficient to ensure their access to senior management positions at a comparable rate to men (Ogenyi& Victoria, 2004). Although women have made some gains in entering and rising in managerial ranks in organizations worldwide, men continue to dominate executive and senior management positions (Lize&Nkomo, 2010). According to Grant-Thomson (2007), a business survey carried out internationally revealed that: in four out of ten businesses in the world, there are no women in senior positions. In the UK and USA there has been an increase in the number of women in management at junior and middle management levels (Lyness, 2002). However, career advancement remains slow and uneven despite government legislation, legal sanction, greater participation in education and increasing

entry into the workforce in general and into management occupations in particular. Only a very small proportion of women advance to senior management positions (Metz & Simon, 2010). For decades, researchers have sought to understand why so few women occupy senior management positions, and why many fail to reconcile ambitious career aspirations with family responsibilities (Ezzedeen & Ritchey, 2009). This study sought to address this gap.

A study carried out by the World Economic Forum (WEF) to measure the gender gap revealed that in terms of narrowing the gender gap, Sweden, Norway, Finland, Iceland and New Zealand were among the top of ten countries in the overall rankings (Greig, Hausmann, Tyson, &Zahidi, 2007). Noticeable absences in the top ten were the USA, UK and Australia. According to the WEF report, no country in the world has yet reached equality between women and men (Greig et al., 2007), nor eliminated the gender gap where women and men share decision–making power. The same report analyzed the status of women in management and revealed that although women were reported to be employed for wages in similar numbers to men worldwide, the number of women holding managerial positions was found to be much lower (Tlass&Kauser, 2010). Women were reported to be making "slow and uneven progress" (Lopez-Claros &Zahid, 2005) in achieving equality in managerial positions, with only 20-40 percent of management positions reported to be held by women in 46/63 countries (Wirth, 2004; Cortis& Caesar, 2004; Wood, 2008). This study will try to investigate why women are making slow and uneven progress.

According to Sonquat and Sheikhqura-tul-ain (2010), men and women are pillars of society, and without their equal participation in all spheres of life, no society can make meaningful progress. They further assert that as far as women capabilities are concerned, they are not less than men. From the stone age women have been participating in social economic life with men but low labor force participation (LFP) has not given the same consideration as men's work have received. The status of women is second class citizen which is reinforced by the narrow vocational opportunities available to them. Their contributions remains invisible as most of them have to work in the unorganized and informal sector which encompasses all kinds of work, such as casual framework, labor in family enterprises, private crafts, private schools or unskilled labor in houses. In every circumstance, in every set of key development and socio – economic status, women have fared worse than men in all areas and in all levels of participation (Cortis&Cessar, 2004).

In Africa, a study carried out by United Nations(2000), revealed that the average percentage of women legislators, senior officials and managers is 28.7 per cent across the six sub-Saharan African countries. A census conducted in South Africa by Grant Thornton International (2007), revealed that despite a slow increase of women in senior positions, they still lag behind their male counterparts in terms of representation in management and CEO positions. In Nigeria,Chovwen (2006), noted that despite their increasing representation, women experience difficulties in developing their careers in male occupations.

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These difficulties are pointers to the complex realities of women's working in male oriented work place. By assessing women's perception of gender stereotype on career progression the study will unearth these complex realities. The first United Nation conference on women in Mexico established the concept and importance of National Mechanism for the Advancement of Women (NMAW). The general assembly and the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) at several international meetings in (1999, 2000 and 2005) revealed that NMAW was a 'catalyst' for promoting gender equality, gender mainstreaming, and monitoring implementation of Benjin Platform for Action (BPA). Such mechanisms when established by the government are intended to promote and support achievement of gender equality and state commitment to global success.

According to United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM, 2010), Kenya remains one of the countries where women have not made significant progress in women's representation let alone participation in all sectors of development since independence. Although Kenyan women are gradually joining the civil service and making significant strides to develop careers in the previously male-dominated professions, they are still grossly underrepresented in senior management and public decision positions in job group P and above compared to 24.3% of those in job group A-G (UNIFEM, 2010). Although some progress has been made in addressing gender disparities in Kenya, through affirmative action and gender mainstreaming policy, a lot of effort still needs to be done given that women play a critical role in social–economic

development of any nation; there is an urgent need to remove all the obstacles that hinder their contribution to national development.

In Kenya, little is known about the extent to which women's economic and social rights are being addressed. There is also scarce knowledge that exists on the position of female managers because of the social-cultural factors (UNIFEM, 2010). Research needs to be carried out to attempt to unveil the many social-cultural and organizational barriers that limit women career advancement which are being addressed by hypothesis two and three of this study. Working women have special challenges by virtual of their gender and roles in the society as mothers, wives and many times daughters of ailing parents (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2007). It is these challenges, if not properly addressed, that curtails the performance of women in the workplace and keeps them in lower cadres while men dominate the senior positions.

In Kenya the new constitution greatly promotes the empowerment of women, provides for the promotion and representation of women and enjoins parliament to enact legislation to that effect. Under the new law, the constitution creates special seats for county assemblies, no more than two thirds of whose membership shall be of the same gender. This will ensure gender equity. Article 197 of the constitution also provides for gender balance and diversity (Government of Kenya, 2010).

One of the fundamental values and principles of civil service laid down in the constitution is gender equity in appointment, training and advancement at all levels. Article 27(3) of the bill of right (chapter four) also upholds women's

rights and fundamental freedoms. Women have the right to equal treatment, including the right to equal opportunities in politics, economy, cultures and socially (GoK, 2010).

Article 27(6) entrenches affirmative action. Although its harshest critics dismiss it as a measure that ends up perpetuating the same self-injustices that made it necessary in the first, the affirmative action principle is largely seen as a panacea to the dismal presence of women and other historically disadvantaged group in the public sector in Kenya today (Nyairo, 2011).The practice as reinforced by new constitution will ensure women regain their proper place in democratic Kenya. However it suffices to say that the significant gains for women underlined in the constitution which promise their enhanced economic, political and social conditions will not be secured on a silver platter but through genuine commitment, first by women themselves and the rest of Kenyans (Nyairo, 2011).

According to the new constitution article 59 (1) the Kenya National Human Rights and Equality Commission, one of its functions will be to promote gender equality and equity and facilitate gender mainstreaming in national development. The implementation commission acknowledges impediment and resistance from men in the implementation of some of the provisions (Nyairo, 2011) but CIC chairman averred that he will ensure that the gains provided for women in the constitution are affected and upheld.

The limited advancement of women into the top management levels of the public sector   previously would be explained as a pipeline problem. It was said that women with the appropriate educational background are not available. With the pipeline now full of women the only marginality is the glass ceiling which serves as a reminder that most organizations were created by and for men (UNIFEM, 2010). Thus institutional norms rarely accommodate the fact that women typically bear the responsibility for home and family and therefore have more demands on their time. Institutions therefore end up judging women as less committed and less competent than their male counterparts. This study therefore looked at the role of Kenya's civil service.

1.0.1 The civil service

The civil service is the policy implementation arm of the Government. In executing this role, it is guided by public policy pronouncement and the attendant development plans and circulars. The civil service is constituted by ministries. The rationale of creating ministries is to enhance their specialization in aspects of national development. Ministries are responsible for planning and implementing their own programmes. More specifically they are responsible for identification of problems which require action; identification of means of addressing these problems (policy formulation); formulation of financial plans for treasury; and co-ordination of ministerial activities (Manda, 2001).

The civil service plays a critical role in the social-economic development of the nation as well as in the maintenance and improvement of public services. Efforts are continuously being made towards reforming the civil service with

the objective of making it more professional, responsive to national development challenges and efficient in the delivery of services (GoK, 2009).

The civil service operates in accordance with the civil service rules and regulations. The Public Service Commission of Kenya is the human resource management agency as provided for in law and it is charged with the maintenance of the civil service system. It operates in accordance with procedures for the conduct of human resource transactions such as recruitment &selection, promotion, performance appraisals, separation and compensation. These standardized procedures provide objectivity in the choice of entrants to the civil service and also give equal treatment to those already in the service.

According to Manda (2001), the Government of Kenya through the Public Service Commission is committed to the achievement of gender equality and seeks to increase women participation in senior position. To achieve this objective His Excellency the President of Kenya on 20th October 2006 passed a presidential decree declaring the government commitment to implementation of an affirmative action in recruitment and promotion of women in the public sector. This was intended to create equity in employment of men and women and promotions to senior positions in the public sector.

It is the responsibility of the Public Service Commission to oversee gender mainstreaming. Gender mainstreaming is a strategy that has been adopted to mainstream gender issues in the public sector. To realize this, gender officers/focal points in the Public Service were appointed. Gender

mainstreaming as performance indicator has been introduced in the performance contracting for the public sector. This is a milestone in Kenya as it will ensure that gender is mainstreamed at policy planning, programming and budgeting in the sector for women's empowerment. The employment trend in the civil service indicates that female representation stands at 74 per cent, compared to 26 per cent of males in the lower cadre job groups from H and below. This is an indication of a problem of progression among female gender.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Although Kenyan women are gradually joining the civil service and making significant strides to develop careers in the previously male-dominated professions, they are still grossly underrepresented in senior management and public decision positions in job group P and above,they only form 0.5% compared to 24.3% of those in job group A-G (UNIFEM, 2010). Furthermore Kenya remains one of the countries where women have not made significant progress at senior levels (UNIFEM, 2010). Data available shows that employment and promotion of women in civil service is tilted in favor of men and that although some ministries have made efforts to employ and promote more women, gender parity is still far from realization (GoK, 2010).

Male representation in top management and decision making positions in the civil service is disproportionately higher than that of females in almost all the ranks (see TableAppendix II). This trend has not changed for years and the pattern that has emerged is one which the higher one looks at the civil service hierarchy, the fewer women one sees. In 1998, for example, Kenya had only

four women permanent secretaries out of a total of thirty, representing only 13.3% of the total establishment. In the same year, there were 38 women assistant secretaries grade III compared to 60 of their male counterparts. Overall women comprise less than 25% of the senior civil servants in Kenya. This under representation underlines their minority status in decision making positions. There is need for affirmative action to eliminate gender imbalance in the Kenyan public sector particularly at the upper echelons of power and privilege.

Furthermore, working women have special challenges by virtue of their gender and roles in the society as mothers, wives and many times daughters of ailing parents (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2007).The problem of cultural and organizational barriers that limit women career advancement has led to gross under-representation and minority status in decision making positions. This will most likely adversely impact national development.

Although some progress has been made in addressing gender disparities, a lot of effort still needs to be made given that women play a critical role in the social–economic development of any nation. There is an urgent need to remove all obstacles that hinder their progression to senior positions. Specific policy measures need be taken to correct the glaring gender gaps in recruitment and promotion of women to senior positions. The study therefore aimed at establishing some of the issues surrounding women managers in Kenyan organizations.

1.3 Justification

It would be interesting to understand the barriers to career progression. There is scarcity of research addressing gender issues in management within developing countries. Tlaiss and Kauser (2010), makes it particularly important to investigate the extent to which western perspective are applicable in developing countries like Kenya given differences in social-cultural and religious infrastructure between these environments. The study aimed to provide a more precise explanation and understanding of the gender imbalances facing women managers in Kenya.

This study was of primary important given that little is known in Kenya about the extent to which women's economic and social rights in the workplace are being addressed (UNIFEM, 2010). The study contributed to the scarce knowledge that exists on the position of female managers in Kenya and attempted to unveil the many social–cultural and organizational barriers that limit women's advancement in their careers. It helped create a better understanding of how organizations and their members make progress. The findings can be utilized to bring about organizational change.

An understanding of a wider range of factors was essential in determining what changes needed to be made regarding policy design and development in both the private and public sectors. The study was meant to help the ministries identify their own glass ceiling barriers and implement strategies to remove them. The study was meant to help the people in education institution to develop the necessary program for women managers and women to develop the

personal and professional skills they need to succeed in a managerial career to acquire some big stones on their climb up ladder.

The study aimed at contributing to the theoretical knowledge about perceived barriers to women career advancement. It was also meant to assist Human Resource Development professionals to better implement planning of initiatives and training programs with gender sensitivity. Many organizations today are trying to retain their female employees in response to regulations that call for equal treatment; henceforth understanding the barriers that women face would help in creating a friendlier and more gender sensitive work environment.

The study was meant to assist the government in instituting a comprehensive policy reform as well as practical efforts towards increasing women's representation and participation in public sector. In order to bring the real picture of women inclusion and participation in the public sector, data was needed. Currently, no such comprehensive data exists. While the numbers are obvious in some specific institutions such as parliament, cabinet and a few other public bodies, in most other critical public institutions, this data is hardly known, and where this does exist, is not gender disaggregated. The lack of authoritative data contributes to a limited gender differentiated analysis and appreciation of factors underlying women's access to decision making and influence in the public sector. The foundation of this research draws its initial focus from the question which has been phrased in many guises, "why are there so few women in senior management positions?''Generating   information to

increase our understanding of this complex phenomenon is of interest to both academics and to organizational stakeholders. Other researchers will benefit from the recommendations for further research.

1.4 Objective of the study

Assess the barriers to women career progression and the coping strategies employed by the women executive in Kenya's civil service.

1.4.1 Specific objectives

i. Establish how gender stereotype act as a barrier to women career progression

ii. Examine if social cultural beliefs are barriers to women career progression.

iii. Assess organizational structures as barriers to women career progression.

iv. Examine the extent to which family responsibilities are barriers to women career progression.

v. Establish individual characteristics that impede women career progression.

vi. Identify the coping strategies developed by women in executive job cadre in career progression.

1.5 Research Hypothesis

$H_0 1$ Gender stereotype is not a barrier to women career progression in Kenya's Civil Service.

H_02 Social cultural beliefs are not barriers to women career progression in Kenya's Civil Service.

H_03 Organizational Structures are not barriers to women career progression in Kenya's Civil Service.

H_04:   Family responsibilities are not barriers to women career progression in Kenya's Civil Service.

H_05:   Individual characteristics are not barriers to women career progression in Kenya's Civil Service.

H_06:   Executive women have no coping strategies in their career progression.

1.6 Scope of the study

The study focused on the assessment of the perceived barriers to women career progress in Kenyan civil service. The study involved women in middle and executive levels of management that is, job group J-U and Human Resource managers from selected ministries. The research was conducted in Nairobi where ministries headquarters are situated. This was because it was in the ministries' headquarters where senior managers were found.

1.7 Limitation of the study

Results of this study on the assessment of barriers to women career progression were not without limitations. Only women were considered for the study and not men because women were more affected by these barriers than men. This was mitigated by interviewing human resource managers some of whom were

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men who gave their views on some of the barriers to women career progression.

The study was carried out on a small sample size of only 326 women out of a total of 21,412 women in Kenyan civil service. Questionnaires were given to 326 women sampled. Therefore to generalize the results, the study should have involved more participants. Nevertheless the information gathered using questionnaires was supplemented by the information gathered through interviews from human resource managers.

The questionnaires were administered by the researcher and completed as the researcher waited. The respondents were biased as they kept on asking for clarification from the researcher and therefore tempted to write what the researcher wanted to hear and not what the situation was. This was avoided by the researcher leaving questionnaires and collecting them latter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The chapter presents the theoretical literature as well as the conceptual framework of the perceived barriers to women career progression, an empirical review integrating the six hypotheses was done comprising of six general themes of gender stereotype, social cultural beliefs, organizational structures, family responsibilities, and individual constraints as barriers to women career progression. The study also considered coping strategies developed by women who had progressed. The status of women in Kenya in relations to gender was also taken into account in this chapter.

2.1 Theoretical literature review

This section provides theoretical perspectives; theories and models of career progression. The study was supported by several theories and models which gave an explanation of the barriers to women career progression. Gender and feminist theories explain the development of gender and the underlying impact of environment of nurture on the difference between males and females in the society. The study was based on gender role theory, social cognitive theory, social role theory and role congruity theory which together gave an explanation on how women are viewed by society.

2.1.1 Theoretical perspective of barriers to women career progression

There is no consensus in empirical evidences as to barriers to women career progression. The perspectives often employed to explain barriers to career progression among women are the gender centered perspective, organizational

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structure perspective and gender organizational system perspective (Fagenson-Eland & Paker, 1998). The fundamental argument of gender-centered perspective is that gender is a major determinant of an individual's preferences, abilities, skills and behaviors. Since men are stereotypically assumed to be more competent relative to women, they (men) are mostly considered for senior level positions. A related approach to the gender centered approach is the complementary approach which argued that even though men and women are different each makes valuable contributions to the organization.

The organizational structure perspective posits that observable differences in management behavior of men and women are due to contextual or situational variables (such as organizational promotion policies and implementation, nature of work and type of industry) the gender organization-system perspective supports the other two approaches but goes further to say that those individuals and organizations can be adequately understood only in relation to societal norms and values in which they operate(Fagenson-Eland & Paker, 1998). This implies that workplace experience of women cannot be divorced from prevailing sex stereotype in the society. This implies that opportunities for women in organization result not from a single standalone event but rather from complex interactions and converges among multiple forces including political and legal activities, societal believes and values, practices, and organizational and individual action. This is further support by the gender role theory.

The gender role theory states that beliefs exist in every society concerning the roles that are appropriate for each gender and both men and women are supposed to have or develop characteristics consistent with one's assigned role (Wood, 2008). Gender stereotype are often used to support the traditional sex roles, and they are closely connected to the surrounding culture, that is, they reflect cognitive beliefs about differences between masculinity and femininity that the members of a particular culture share (Best, 2004; Wood, 2008).

Gender stereotype is manifested daily by attributing women to certain characteristics that men lack and vice versa. Women are considered as care givers and home makers and men are considered as bread winners and leaders. Stereotype dictates the appropriateness of various occupations for females and males. Women's world is thought to include a particular type of labor like care takers and maintenance of relationships, whereas men's world emphasize individual thought, independent achievement and success based on competition and hierarchy (Abdallah&Kartin, 2010).

Gender stereotype occurs when the characteristics believed to be necessary to fulfill the role are ascribed to one sex (Schein, 2006).There is a perceived incongruity between the attributes stereotypically considered to be essential for jobs that are gender–typed as male, and the attributes that are ascribed to men and women. Attributes such as achievement orientation, forcefulness and strength in decision making are commonly ascribed to men, and these traits are considered to be essential to fulfill jobs gender-typed as male, such as management and leadership roles (Lyness&Heilman, 2006).Attributes such as

nurturance, affiliation and relationship orientation are more ascribed to women, and these traits are not associated with leadership or management roles. Management is strongly associated with male gender according to research. This is because males are believed to have the necessary characteristics, attitudes and temperament to achieve managerial success (Schein, 2006).

Gender stereotype views exert a significant influence in key areas of career advancement of females. Gender stereotypical attitudes are reported to be instrumental in impending the entry of women into management when a management role is seen as more appropriate for a male resulting in the 'think manager think male' phenomena (Wood, 2008; Lyness&Heilman, 2006).This examines the assumption that are made about female managers and the role such assumption may play in career advancement. Women are not seen as appropriate fit in a managerial role because of the perception that females are more suited to a supportive, nurturing role such as motherhood than the decision making role of management (Wood, 2008; Cross, 2009). Wood (2008), further asserts that gender stereotyping of the management role still continues. He recommends a research to try and deconstruct the negative attitude and the underlying pessimism to arrive to equitable future for men and women in their work participation. This study will address the gap by examining how gender stereotype affect women career progress.

The study is further supported by the gender role theory that was developed by (Konrald&Linnehan, 1999). The duo argued that gender roles are not fixed, but are constantly negotiated between individuals. Gender roles can influence all

kinds of behavior including choice of work and career advancement. Gender stereotype according to Ismail and Ibrahim (2007), are shared beliefs about the psychological traits of men and women. Konrald and Linnerhan (1999), asserts that the process through which an individual learns and accepts roles is called socialization. Socialization works by encouraging wanted and discouraging unwanted behavior. As such, women and men socialization are influenced by gender roles and stereotype. Gender socialization prepares men and women for types of activities likely to be required of them to fulfill their prescribed roles for positive outcome and to be afforded opportunities as necessary. According to Konrald and Linnerhan (1999), sanctions may result to gender inappropriate behavior. Once someone has accepted certain gender roles and gender differences as an expected socialized behavioral norm, this behavioral trait becomes part of the individual's responsibilities (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2007).

Gender theory is further supported by expectancy state theory. The theory defines status belief as widely held cultural beliefs that link greater social significance and general competence as well as specific positive and negative skills with one category of social distinction, for example men, compared to another, for example women. According to Connell (2006), gender is deeply entwined with social hierarchy and leadership because the rules for the gender system that are encoded in gender stereotype contain status beliefs at the core. Sanctions are imposed to individuals who violate the expected social responsibility. Sanctions due to unwanted behavior and role conflicts can be stressful and could become a source of work barrier (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2007).

2.1.2 Social cultural beliefs and the social role theory

In society there is a belief that a good mother must give less effort and priority to work demands, she is therefore seen as less committed mother if she is more committed to work than family (Ridgeway, 2001). This biased belief is likely to create barriers to women advancement in the workplace. These barriers make women lack opportunities to present their ideas, therefore reducing their influence over group decisions.

In contrast to the societal judgment made towards mothers, employed fathers are regarded as better parents and more professionally competent (Feugen, Bienat, Haines, &Deaux, 2004). This notion includes the belief that mothers must do more than fathers to be labeled as good parents and that mothers are held to higher standards of responsibilities than fathers. The study is supported by social role theory that guides judgment of mothers and fathers where fulltime employed mothers are judged as violating the norms of caretaker role but employed fathers embody the provider role. Therefore motherhood has a detrimental effect on women's career progression.

2.1.3 Influence of social cognitive theory on individual characteristics

The study is further supported by the social cognitive career theory by Brown &Hackett(1987). The theory identifies the interaction of personal attributes, external environmental factors and behavior in career advancement. The theory focuses on the influence of self-efficacy beliefs and outcomes expectation on goals and behaviors (Stitt–Gohdes, 1977). While self-efficacy refers to the self-

belief that one can perform a specific tasks or set of tasks, outcome expectations are believed to influence the likelihood of engaging in behavior and the length of persistency to that behavior. Self-efficacy can serve as a barrier to the extent that it reduces the likelihood that a female worker will behave in a manner that increases her success, development and satisfaction at work (Mcwhite, Torres &Rasheed, 1998).

2.1.4 Role congruity theory and family responsibilities

The traditional division of labor leads people to expect domestic responsibilities to be women's primary roles and any obligation that detracts them from their ability to perform their primary roles causes role conflict (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008). In the view of most employers and employees the gender division of labor frees men from domestic and childcare responsibilities at home (Charles & Davis, 2000). The study also draws on Eagly and Karau's (2002), role congruity theory of prejudice towards female leaders to explain why a gender difference approach may perpetuate rather than challenge the status quo in organizations.

According to Eagly and Karau (2002), gender roles ascribe family responsibilities and a lower status to women than to men. Women are expected to display feminine attributes, such as being considerate and gentle. These attributes contrast with the masculine attributes traditionally ascribed to leaders, such as ambition and aggressiveness. The incongruity between gender roles and leader roles produces a prejudice towards women in form of negative assessment as potential leaders. Based on Eargly and Karau's (2002) theory, women would generally receive less favorable evaluation as potential members

of senior management team than men, because of the incongruity between gender roles (and feminine attributes) ascribed to them as women and the leader role (and masculine attributes) ascribed to senior management positions, based on evaluations one is more likely to go unchecked when selection and performance criteria are subjective at a higher level than at lower levels of management (Ruderman&Ohlott, 1994).An approach that focuses on women as a group reinforces rather than weakens perception that women are different to men and they do not fit the role of a leader such as that of a manager at senior level. Organizational practices that focus only on men may create an environment in which daily work practices that marginalize and alienate women in senior management positions are covert and systematic and thus difficult to identify (Kovacs&Haslam, 2006).

2.1.5 Human resource management theories.

This study was also supported by human resource management theories: Mc clelland Need theory which is motivational model that attempts to explain how need for achievement, power and affiliation affect the actions of people from a managerial context.Herzberg Two factor theory which states that certain factors cause job satisfaction and a separate set of factors cause dissatisfaction also supports this study.

2.1.6 Models that support the study

The overriding theoretical framework that informs this study is supported by the gendered organization model which integrates three underlying models that add definitions and important aspects of enquiry.

2.2. Gendered Organizational Structure model

The Gendered Organizational Structure (GOS) model of gender diversity explains the status and experience of women (and men) in organizations across organizational structure (Cooper, 2001). Specifically, according to cooper, includes informal networking, diversity performance evaluation, stereotyping and preferred leadership. According to Fagenson (1993) and Cooper (2001) organizational structures impedes women entry to and advancement in the workplace. That structure can include job recruitment, job assignment, mentoring, retention, and training, how work and family are balanced by employees, and promotions and reward systems. Moreover, Bajdo and Dickson (2001) found that the greatest predictor of the number of women in management position resulted from organizations that focus on the aspect organizational culture relating to gender equity practices.

2.2.1 Promotional opportunity model

Promotional policies and practices are designed to foster opportunities traditionally deemed essential for women to rise to executive level positions. Oakley (2000), summarizes the significance of line experiences, performance based feedback, training and career development on the ability of women to rise to Chief Executive Officer (CEO) and other senior level positions.

2.2.2 Inclusionary diversity model

Corporate climate, including informal networks has been cited as a cultural barrier to breaking the glass ceiling (Cooper, 2001). According to US Federal Glass Ceiling Commission (1995), corporate climate is still not open to diverse ideas of acceptable behavior. Such barriers can influence women's

performance evaluations and potentially contribute to inhospitable and exclusionary environmentally (Resign et al, 1998).

2.2.3 Work/ Family partnership model

The work/family model presents opportunities for women to balance work and family responsibilities. The implementation of policies that help employees manage non-work responsibilities such as dependent-care services and flexible–scheduling program like various types of family leave practices yields a positive effect on the number of women in upper level management.

2.2.4 Women's career paths

To understand the challenges that women face in their careers it is important for this study to consider women career path. The evolution of women's career is different from that experienced by men (Liff& Ward, 2001).Women's lives tend to be shaped by roles, relationships and responsibilities such as spouse's careers, child bearing, and the care of elderly family members. While men also have these constraints, traditionally women have adopted care giver role and thus are more likely to experience disruptions to career during child–bearing years as well as the ongoing impact of family responsibilities (Clarke, 2011).Women's careers are also shaped by structural factors, masculine work cultures (Liff & Ward, 2001), male stereotyping and preconception of women's roles and abilities (Metz, 2005),exclusion from informal communication and political networks (Meckenzie& Davy, 2008), lack of relevant management experiences as a result of structural barriers, lack of mentoring and failure of the senior management to take responsibility for women's advancement (Lyness&Thompson, 2000; Catalyst, 2008).

Researchers also suggest that women's careers are also shaped by their personal choices (Mainiero& Sullivan, 2005).The duo suggest that professional women face three career issues; authenticity, balance and challenge. At various points in a woman's career different issues predominates. For example, challenges tend to predominate in early career; balance becomes more important in mid-career when family responsibilities are at their peak, and authenticity comes to the fore in later career. Thus career choices for women are likely to be made on the basis of finding a suitable fit for each stage of life (Mainiero& Sullivan, 2005).

Career success is often associated with career motivation. According to Clarke (2011), career motivation is made up of career resilience, insight and career identity. Career resilience is the ability to adapt to changing circumstances, career insight is the ability to be realistic about ones prospects and career identity is the extent to which a person channels energy, behavior and performance towards specific career objectives (Quigley &Tymon, 2006). For many women career motivation is significantly influenced by family responsibilities. Their ability to adapt to changing career circumstances may be constrained by their responsibilities, structural factors may impact on career prospects, and their career identity may be shaped by having children, the employment status of the spouse and the way their household manages the work-family interface (Clarke, 2011).

2.3 Conceptual framework

This research was a descriptive survey that empirically examined the barriers to women career progression in Kenya's civil service. First previous research carried out in other parts of the world on barriers to women career progression was reviewed. Next, impediments associated with career progression like gender stereotype, social cultural beliefs, organizational structures, family responsibilities and individual characteristics were developed using theories and models that parallel and build on previous research. Based on the theories and models a conceptual framework was developed (see Figure 2.1). Based on these models and variables a questionnaire was developed and sent to women managers in the selected ministries in Kenya's civil service.

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┌─────────────────┐
│ Gender Stereotype│──────────────┐
└─────────────────┘              │
                                 ↓
┌─────────────────┐              │
│ Social Cultural │──────────────│
│                 │              │
│ Beliefs         │              │
└─────────────────┘              │
                                 │
┌─────────────────┐              │      ┌──────────┐      ┌──────────┐
│ Organizational  │──────────────┼─────→│ Coping   │─────→│ Career   │
│                 │              │      │          │      │          │
│ Structures      │              │      └──────────┘      │ Progress │
└─────────────────┘              │                        └──────────┘
                                 │
┌─────────────────┐              │
│ Family          │──────────────│
│                 │              │
│ Responsibilities│              │
└─────────────────┘              │
                                 │
┌─────────────────┐              │
│ Individual      │──────────────┘
│                 │
│ Characteristics │
└─────────────────┘
```
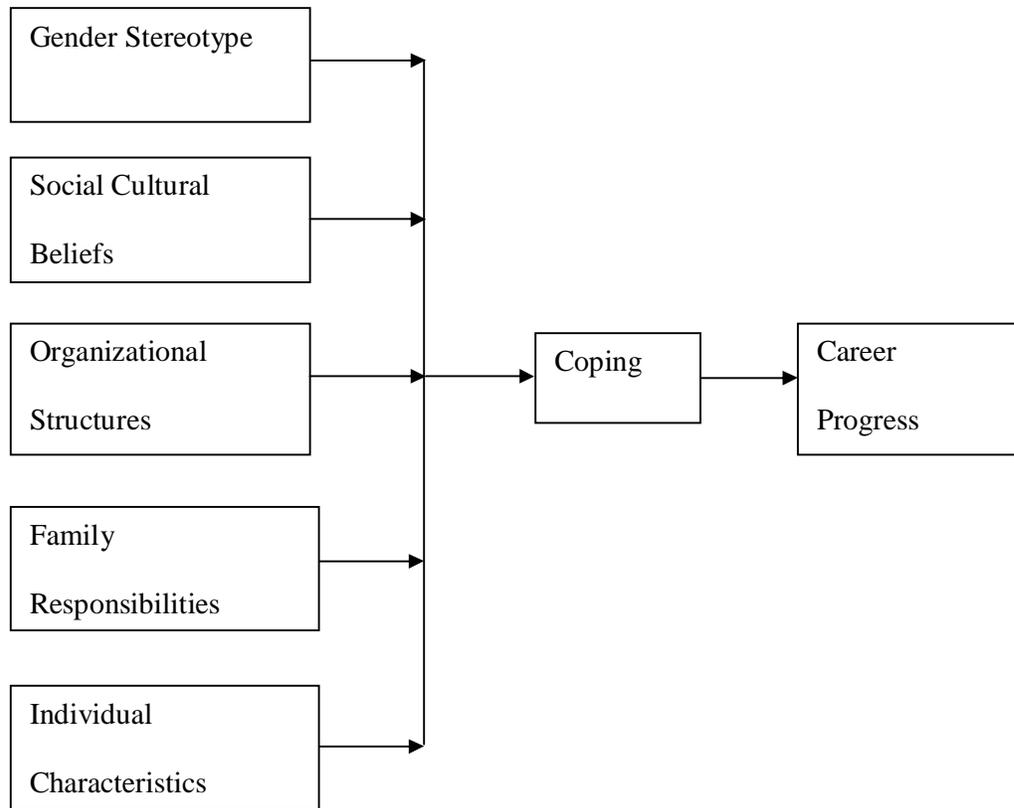
Independent   Moderating   Dependent
Variables   Variable   Variable

Figure 2.1: A conceptual framework barriers to women career progression

The conceptual framework illustrated an ideal relationship between the independent and the dependent variables. This is only possible where the variables are captured independently. In this study the model was tested from a perception level by the respondents. This meant that all the variables were integrated in the response**.**

2.4Empirical literature

The issue of women's career advancement in organizations has attracted substantial attention in the management literature. Scholarly work highlights different ideological positions and values about gender, social cultural beliefs, organizational practices family responsibilities and individual characteristics.

2.4.1 Gender stereotype

The theoretical perspective of gender stereotyping continues to offer a viable explanation for the low number of women being promoted to senior or executive positions. A research carried out by Lyness and Heinman (2006), revealed that gender bias against female managers in organizations is attributed to a perception of lack of personal job fit. This detrimentally affects performance evaluation, which in turn impact on career advancement outcomes of women. This attitude appear to undermine a lack of acceptance of women in management role and may be influenced by a gender stereotyping perspective which attributes to the skills of one sex more closely associated to the role of managers (Wood, 2008).

A research carried out by Booysen and Nkomo (2010), revealed that men are less likely to attribute successful managerial characteristics to women. According to the dual there is evidence to suggest strong patriarchal traditions in respect to the role of women in many black African societies. They recommended a further research on the underlying courses of gender stereotyping among men which is being addressed by this study. Another study carried by Menon and Kotze (2007), on human resource integration in South

African military revealed that traditional black men who are used to being respected at home by their wives find it difficult to work under women.

Wood (2008),conducted a research that revealed that gender stereotype is still rampant in most organizations. He recommended a research to try and deconstruct the negative attitude towards women and the underlying management role that will try to address the problem of gender stereotype. This study is addressing this issue.

According to De-Leon (2002), through gender role stereotyping, girls and boys learn which occupation is suitable for them and this limits girls career choices and planning. Girls suffer from limited career awareness because they lack information on non–traditional career choices, particularly those related to mathematics science and engineering. They choose not to and are not encouraged to take these courses in these fields. Research carried out by Stake (1979), on older men and women revealed that women often have lower self-evaluation of their abilities and performance than men. Negative stereotype by others is a powerful barrier to the career advancement of women in management. Such attitudes continue to limit the opportunities available to women particularly those who have children or family responsibilities. Such attitudes are pervasive and deeply entrenched and continue to exert an impact on women's career advancement in managerial roles. Further research is needed to probe more deeply into the underlying causes of gender stereotyping among men.

However, contrary to commonly held stereotype, research has indicated that there are few gender differences in terms of abilities, attitude or commitment, or in management styles and leadership attributes. Phillip and Goodine (1997); Hellman (1997), found that differences between the abilities, attitudes and behavior of men and women managers were more apparent than real, and most studies of practicing managers have shown that there is no systematic difference between them. She concludes that the argument that women are less equipped in skills or temperament to handle the arduous role of senior managers, and consequently that the current under- representation of women at the upper echelons is fair and equitable, seems highly questionable (Hellman, 1997).

2.4.2 Social cultural beliefs

The socialization of the girl child in many societies is to blame for perceived inabilities on the part of women (Emmet, 2001).The life of passage of women are sacramentalized, celebrated or even acknowledged illustrative of the position ascribed to women, right from the birth of the girl child, in comparison to the boy child. A study carried out on career development of African American and Latina females by De-Leon (1996), revealed that adolescent females lack academic skills and career related experiences and therefore perceive narrow career opportunities for themselves and these combine to pose formidable obstacles to obtaining future jobs and careers. This is as a result of socialization practices that do not prepare   females to face challenges and develop other skills outside the ones necessary for the performance of their traditional related activities (De- Leon, 1996). A study carried out by Jamali

and Sidani (2005), revealed that social cultural environment has a role to play in women career progression. The dual recommended further research on the role of cultural attitudes towards female employment which is one of the concerns of this study.

In the African context, traditional beliefs and cultural attitudes regarding the role and status of women in society are still prevalent and many women are part of this system finding it difficult to dislocate from the cultural tradition lest they be ostracized (Kiamba, 2008). Despite women's education and entry into the job market, the woman's role is typically of homemaker. The man on the other hand is bread winner, head of household and has a right to public life (Sadie,2005).Sadie asserts that cultural attitudes are hostile to women involvement in decision making positions. A study carried out by Jamali et al. (2005), revealed that social cultural environment and its implication in terms of behavioral expectations has a role to play in women career progress.

Although gender disparity may not be overt, discrimination against women is still widely embodied in both law and customs. Customs that ignore or belittle women's opinions are not uncommon in many developing countries. Majanja and Kiplang'at (2003), and Wood (2008), observed that in some countries it violates social norms for a woman to work outside the home. Besides, women who work outside the home are usually over-burdened by having to add such livelihood responsibility to domestic responsibilities. Thus women's career advancement prospects are still considerably less than those of men. Majanja and Kiplang'at (2003) further observed that despite the changing laws, the

exclusion of women based on gender remains widespread and entrenched in society through socio-cultural values, perception, expectations and attitude which devalue women's personalities and accomplishment.

In Kenya the government has put in place policies to provide equal educational opportunities for both boys and girls that have led to the achievement of gender parity in the enrolment at primary school level. However certain other factors that inherent in the society at large do not favor girls. The system seems to allow greater educational wastage among girls so that disparities can be detected at secondary and tertiary levels. A research carried out on education wastage among girls in Kenya established that wastage is higher among girls due to social, cultural disparities (Olweya, 1996).Despite cultural attitude some women are able to transcend and rise to positions of leadership but more often than not, it means having to jungle cultural expectations with their leadership roles.

2.4.3 Organizational structures

Globally the presence and status of female managers have improved dramatically over the last half a century, however, research indicate that women in management positions in a variety of professions continue to face a number of barriers within the organization that affect career progression (Wood, 2008). A number of studies have identified structural and cultural barriers working within organizations that have led to under representation of women at the senior level (Powell & Grave, 2003).The anti-female nature of organization and the institutional discrimination such as limited access to networking processes lack of mentoring and limited training and development

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opportunities have contributed to women low career progression (Cordano,Scherer& Owen, 2002).Concerns about organizational barriers in management development remain challenging and deserving additional research.

Research has shown that in male work environment, female managers often do not get the diversity of experience compared to male managers; women are blocked from promotions while moving up the ladder. Gender inequality, culture and dissatisfaction with promotions negatively influence women's overall job satisfaction. Satisfaction with one's job is very crucial because it has been found to be positively related to career growth (Chevwen, 2006; Raigins& Cotton, 1998).

A research carried out by Thomas (1994), revealed that majority of organizations favor the use of informal recruitment and selection processes, such as small social networks and employee referrals. Many organizations rely on informal, rather than merit based processes in order to select the best candidates and to screen out large numbers of unsuitable applicants. Informal recruitment processes can lead to bias because recruiter tends to determine job requirements according to the current job- holder's gender (Powell, 1992). If the current job-holder is male and displays certain characteristics and abilities, then these characteristics and abilities are determined as being necessary to the job. Applicants are then assessed according to these requirements, and where these are perceived as being held more by men then a man is preferred. This process tends to limit the number of women applicants for men's job. It

reinforces occupational segregation and contributes to building stereotypical views of men and women and women's roles and abilities (Powell, 1992).

Few organizations make a systematic effort in assisting women by keeping them informed about all training and career development programs available and giving them access to these programs. A study carried out by Jamali et al. (2005) in Lebanon revealed that women have fewer opportunities for professional development in organizations compared to men. The dual asserted that managerial advancement is positively related to human capital credentials. More specifically, women's advancement to top management is directly related to their increased knowledge and skills and professional development opportunities made available to them throughout their careers (Wentling, 2003).

In spite of the consistent association of on-job-development and promotion, research indicates that women are offered fewer developmental experiences than men (Wernick, 1994; Therenou, 1995). However a study carried out by Flanders (1994), revealed that the responsibility for ensuring adequate training cannot be left solely on the employer. To be successful, women themselves may often need to take the initiative to request the training they need in order to continue advancing in their careers.

Research done by Cross (2010), revealed that in most organizations promotion policies are not clear. Cross further observed that women are not committed to their work due to their biological make up. Child bearing remains a barrier to

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

Research indicates that men tend to be promoted faster than women, even in organizations in which women dominate numerically and in which men are relative newcomers (Corby, 1995). Rusaw, (1994) also found that the U.S. federal government promoted women more slowly and less often than male counterparts. Reasons for these differences are varied. Thomas et al, (1994) explains men's greater success in achieving promotion is part to their greater use of informal networks as opposed to women's greater reliance on formal promotion processes alone. The operation of promotion policies in many organizations is an area which often has an unclear set of criteria attached. This allows for subjectivity rather than objectivity to enter the process with senior management allowed considerable scope for discretion (Coughlan, 2002).Often, promotion criteria are focused on a preconceived notion of who should perform the role rather than the qualifications required. A study conducted in Irish by Cross and Linehan (2006), revealed that promotional policies have a significant negative impact on the advancement of women to the senior management positions.

According to Flanders (1994), employers often believe that women are less committed to work and less able to undertake a full time career than men, due to their biological make up, rather than ability. When promotion opportunities arise and an employer is given the choice between a man and a woman with

equal qualifications, the woman he posits, is frequently viewed as the greater risk. Working in male dominated hierarchies is seen to reduce women's advancement levels as male managerial hierarchies are more likely to promote men for managerial positions, as men feel more comfortable with other men than they do with women (Tharenou, 2005).

Mentoring and networking relationships are also potentially valuable for women's advancement in view of boosting emotional support and confidence and careers satisfaction (Ragins& cotton, 1996). A study carried out by Cross (2009), revealed a clear realization among the female managers that their male counterparts were overtly engaging in networking activities which gave them increased levels of visibility among the senior management team. However, women in male dominated organizations often have limited networking and mentoring opportunities. Studies have shown that a significantly high proportion of women who have proved themselves successfully in career terms have received encouragement from their mentors (Amoldet et al., 1990).

Although mentoring relationship is crucial to women in management in organizations, women are significantly less likely than men to develop these relationships (Nieva&Gutek, 1981). While researchers have demonstrated the importance of the mentor to the women managers they are often faced with organizational barriers which restrict the development of mentor relationships. Female managers may also have fewer formal and informal opportunities to obtain mentors than their male counterparts. The other issue is how people will interpret the relationship between the female manager and her male mentor.

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The study seeks to assess these issues and how they affect career advancement in Kenya.

Organizational culture or the way we do things around here influences what employees can do and how they conceptualize, define, analyze and address issues. The concept of organizational culture is important to understand barriers faced by career women. Organizational culture is often cited as either the key facilitator or barrier to work-life policies, as cultural norms override formal policy intentions (Wise & Bond, 2003; Jamali et al., 2005).

Organizational culture can also present constraints to advancement of women to high level leadership and managerial positions where job advertisement for managerial positions require many years of continuous experience (Wood, 2008). According to wood, organizational culture does not reflect the values that embrace and celebrate diversity in workplace. He asserts that there is need to actively challenge covert and overt practices that sustain gender bias hence hindering the progress of women in management. Negative attitudes towards and sex-typed stereotype of women in the workplace continue to be reflected in the discriminatory organization practices through discriminatory managerial recruitment and selection processes, training and development opportunities performance evaluation procedures and promotions.

2.4.4 Family responsibilities

Women encounter domestic and family responsibilities which may interfere with their career (Mackelly&Dabul, 1998). Family obligations and domestic responsibilities reinforce the notion that because of family affiliation, women

are not as deeply involved in their work as much as men. This may be one explanation why males populate managerial positions since it is a career that requires an adequate degree of job involvement.

A research carried out by Cross (2010), on barriers to executive suit in Ireland revealed that having children remains a significant barrier for female. She asserts that tension exists for women in their child bearing years resulting from the biological fact that it is only women who can reproduce. The findings revealed that career advancement and child bearing appear to be incompatible as it is only women who must take time out of their career to have children.

Newstron and Davis (1994); Ismail and Ibrahim (2008); Keene and Reynolds (2002) in their studies revealed that women's extra domestic responsibilities can create work overloads. This in turn can spill over to affect women's experiences of work while reducing the potential for achievement in their careers hence the difficulty of having both a career and family life may constrain female managers to remain single and childless since by doing so, they limit the number of social roles and the degrees of role conflicts. Research carried out by Davidson and Cooper (1992), indicates that career interruptions may lower women's self-esteem. This may be due to the fact that employers are often unwilling to retrain the workforce after the interrupted period even if they hold many years of experience.

A research carried out in Malaysia by Ismail and Ibrahim (2008), revealed that Working whilst having family responsibilities was the most significant barrier by career women. Women were having a hard time managing work

assignment. Moreover, women struggled with gaining credibility and respectability from supervisors and managers. It was also found that the most pressing reason for women to resign was family responsibility.

Another research carried out in America by William and Cooper (2004), revealed that women do 65-85 per cent of child care work. As women reduce their time in the workplace, they see depressed wages and lack of benefits and advancement that accompany that choice. Cross (2010), in his study noted that child bearing remains a barrier to women career progression.

The pressure that women face in balancing career and family is the most significant barrier in women's attempt to advance (Rosser, 2004).According to Rosser, women face carrier mobility barriers as they begin to consider starting a family, little time off and long and tiring work call for a sacrifice of private life which many women are not prepared to make at least until their children grow up.

2.4.5 Individual characteristics

Individual constraints can directly affect the person's ability to function fully as human being and in relation to his/her quality as a leader or manager. Individual factors that can affect career progress includes; education, self-perception and motivation. Low career advancement of women has been explained in terms of personality traits. A research carried out by Eagly et al. (1994) revealed that women are less motivated to meet the traditional requirement of a managerial role. Catalyst (2002), Maupin (1990) and

Powell(1988), in their research have shown that women who progress adopt more masculine stereotypes providing some support for the person-centered perspective.

A research carried out by US-based Catalyst, an organization that focuses on improving opportunities for women in business, found evidence that a low desire to advance to senior levels may act as a barrier to women's advance to senior levels. A research carried out by Smith (2009), in Australia revealed that women reticence and ambivalence to promotion is negatively impacting on career advancement. Morley et al. (2002), proposed a further research on factors inherent in women's attitude that can be used to explain their different career progression. Gammie and Gammie (1997), carried out a study where women were found to be less career oriented than men in terms of planning for career advancement. He asserts that women tend to make the most of opportunities only when they arose and are satisfied with middle management positions.

Illiteracy or lack of education can prevent women from holding leadership positions. Women often drop out before completing secondary schooling. They lack specialized, marketable skills and are automatically confined to low level jobs that do not offer leadership opportunities. Illiteracy excludes women from labor market (Targier, 2009)Research supports that the more education a woman receives; the more likely she is to engage in paid employment. Increase in post –secondary enrolment among females have been the result of changing roles and expectations of women in society and a growing interest among

women in professional careers (Nieva&Gutek, 1981). In Kenya women have steadily become the majority of the undergraduate population in degree granting institutions (UNIFEM, 2010). Even though women's enrolment in postsecondary education has improved they still continue to occupy the low cadre jobs.

The other factor that contributes to low career progress among women is how they view themselves. A research carried out by Tangier (2009), in morocco revealed that self-perception of a woman has also constrained women rise to leadership and managerial positions. Many women sell themselves short and are not ambitious enough to fight for managerial positions because of lack of professional confidence and low self-esteem. Many women are brought up and taught to be followers and not leaders. Researcher argues that women have low confidence and self-esteem with respect to career advancement. Women are not also pro-active and supportive of other women.

2.4.6 Women coping strategies

Coping strategies include redesigning one's roles and relationship and manipulating resources and demands to do so (Voydanoff, 2005). In career domain, ambitious women develop social networks, enter mentoring relationships and seek promotions opportunities (Brett & Stroh, 2003; Ibarra, 1997), to advance. Women must also develop androgynous interpersonal style with which both male and female counterparts are at ease (McGregor &Tweed, 2001; Resign & Cotton, 1998).

Where family demands are concerned, ambitious women seldom rely on organizational support for fear of reinforcing communal stereotype (Broad-Bridge, 2008).Many women executives and those in elite occupations cope by making discreet choices between career and family such as opting out or delaying marriage and parenting (Brail-Loy, 2001). Women also increase their personal domain resources by relying on spousal support.

Some organizations have tried to achieve gender equity by implementing organizational polices like flexible work hours, paid leave of absence, subsidies for child care, job sharing, home based employment, mentoring, networking and finding ways to create a better work life balance which has enabled women in those organization advance in their careers (Cooper, 2001).There is also evidence that appropriate education and training is of critical importance to women's career development (Wentling,2003).A study carried out in USA by Wentling(2003), revealed that those women who have progressed into senior positions do share some common characteristics. Some of the factors women believed were most important to their progress were consistently exceeding performance expectations, developing a style which male managers are comfortable, and seeking out difficult or high visibility assignment. Henning and Jardim (1977), further identified some characteristics that successful career women have in common. These included sharing some ideas of their future career goals, hard work, determination, perseverance, commitment to their careers, and achieving positions and status in spite of many barriers. In some

cases women do not want to work with other women, or to solve their problems.

2.5 The status of women in Kenya in relations to gender

Gender relations and the status of women in Kenyan society are molded by a set of factors related to tradition, legislation and culture. Kenya is a country with great local variations and ethnic differences, and female-male relations are therefore likely to differ considerably from one area to another. Class and age are also factors which influence women's position in society. Thus Kenyan women are not a homogeneous group (GoK, 2010).

In general, women in Kenya have a subordinate position to men. This is in particularly the case with reference to the marriage institution, where the power of the man in his role as a husband and father is virtually indisputable (GoK, 2010). The male prerogative within the family is regarded as a natural privilege, which Kenyan men of all categories are reluctant to relinquish voluntarily. This attitude is not least pronounced among the male elite.

A study carried out by UNIFEM (2010), revealed that in the history of Kenya, there has never been a woman president, vice president, prime minister, or deputy prime minister. As it currently stands these positions are still held by men. The study also revealed that women are sometimes included in certain decisions that the president and the prime minister want to reach based on the relevance of that particular issue, to what specific the two principals want the public to hear and only if such issues have a political undertone. The study

found out that many a times women, are approached based on their political affiliations and may not be present at the table where the two principles are making wide reaching policy decisions. The study also revealed that there are only 6 women ministers, or 15% of total number of 48 ministers. There are also 6 women assistant ministers in Kenya. The study also revealed that out of 44 permanent secretaries, only 7 are women, representing 15% which was the highest level in the history of Kenya (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2: Representation in civil service by gender

Job groups in ministries	Males	Females	Total	(% of females)
President	1	-	1	-
Vice president	1	-	1 -	
Prime minister	1	-	1	-
Deputy prime minister	2	- 2	-	
Ministers	34	6	40	15
Assistant ministers	46	6	52	11.5
Permanent secretaries	37	7	44	15.9
P and above (Executive level)	1,377	350	1,727	20.3
J-N (Management level)	16,208	5,656	21,867	25.9
H and below (ordinary level)	**30,836**	**15,403**	**46,239**	**33.3**
Total	**48,421**	**21,412**	**69,833**	**30.7**

Source: Ministry of gender children and Social Development Bi-Annual report, 2010

In Kenya, despite the widespread and continuing discrimination against women, the government has done little to prioritize the elimination of such discrimination. Whereas, government recognizes the inadequacy of the existing legislative framework to ensure compliance with the convention, it has not done much to push for legislative reforms (Majanja&Kiplang'at, 2003). A step in an attempt to modify social and cultural patterns of conduct to eliminate prejudices against women has been the change of the school curriculum. The former 7-4-2-3 system of education encouraged gender stereotypes by depicting women in their traditional roles, that is, as mothers, housekeepers, catering or nurses. The system has now been changed to have women portrayed in all sectors including roles that were traditionally male dominated, thus passing the message that girls and boys are equal. However this drive to change the stereotypical portrayal of women is limited to the education system. Outside the school and at home patriarchal ideology continue to exist.

However the government of Kenya has recognized the importance of gender mainstreaming as a strategy towards women empowerment. The national women's machinery has been enhanced through the creation of the ministry of gender, children and social development and the national commission on gender and development. The national women's machinery core mandate is to develop gender responsive policies (GoK, 2010).

In October 2006, President MwaiKibaki issued a directive requiring that 30 percent of all appointment, recruitments and promotions in the civil service be reserved for women. This has since been entrenched in the new constitution.

Following the decree, there has been an increase of women in key decision making positions in elective and appointments. A number of key public institutions are headed by women, however, this decree has not been fully realized, it is thus imperative that employers adhere to the decree. Following the presidential decree on 30% affirmative action in the public sector, only three ministries namely; State law office, ministry of gender, children and social development and the ministry of state for defense are leading with 66.7%, 58.5%and 50% respectively (UNIFEM, 2010).However the government has introduced gender mainstreaming in public service. Thisis a strategy that has been adopted to mainstream gender issues in the public sector. To realize this, gender officers/focal points in the civil service were appointed. Gender mainstreaming as performance indicator has been introduced in the performance contracting for the public sector. This is a milestone in Kenya as it will ensure that gender   is mainstreamed at policy planning, programming and budgeting in the sector for women's empowerment.   The findings of this study will assess barriers to women career progression and support the decree.

2.6 Critique

Taking the above factors into account, it is important to note that young women are equally as ambitious as their male counterparts to develop successful managerialcareers (Families and work Institute of Boston College, 2002) . The view is also supported by catalyst who feel that women are as ambitious as men to attain CEO positions (catalyst,2004).Their findings highlight that equal numbers of men (57percent)and women (55 percent)want to occupy the most

senior role CEO or equivalent in an organization emphasizing that ambition for the most senior organizational positions is not lacking in women.

Although it has been reported that male managers' attitude toward women in management have remained stable over previous decades, there has been a change in the attitude of men towards women in management roles as evidenced by a reduced tendency to gender type to the managerial positions and propensity to consider that women and men are both capable of possessing characteristics that are appropriate to the management role.

Despite the above discussed challenges, Kenyan women are making significant strides to develop their careers in the civil service and to enter previously male dominated professions. The government of Kenya is therefore committed to the achievement of gender equality and seeks to increase women's participation in decision making positions.On 20th October 2006, the president of the republic of Kenya, Hon.Mwai Kibaki passed a presidential decree declaring the government commitment to implementation of an affirmative action in recruitment and promotion of women in the public sector. This was intended to create equity in employment of men and women and promotion to senior positions in the public sector (UNIFEM, 2010)

Government ministries and state corporations are required to adhere to the decree whenever they employ or promote staff under them. The ministry of gender, children and social development mandated to monitor the implementation of this decree and report to the head of public service and to the performance contracting office. Overall figures for recruitment of men and women in the public sector show that women make up 32.1% and men 67.9%

of the workforce as at 31st December 2009; however the emerging trends show an upward change in the proportion of women to men in the public service. Out of 35 ministries surveyed, 29 had achieved or surpassed the 30.5 target of employment.

The new constitution of Kenya has also made a major step towards ensuring gender equity in the major decision making organs. This is an important step because historically in Kenya, women have always been underrepresented in decision making at major levels in governance. Even though these provisions don't give a fifty –fifty gender balance, a considerable representation of both gender and especially of women has been guaranteed in the key decision making organs at different levels of leadership and governance. In the electoral system, not more than two-thirds of the members of elective public bodies shall be of the same gender (Article 81 (b)).article 232 (1) accords adequate and equal opportunities for both men and women in the appointment, training and advancement at all levels of the public service. These4 provisions are important especially for women in Kenya for in the past women have been sidelined in enjoying equal participation in the public service.

2.7Summary of literature review

Although it has been reported that male managers' attitude towards women in management has remained stable over previous decades, there has been a change in the attitude of men towards women in management roles as evidenced by a reduced tendency to gender stereotype to the managerial positions and propensity to consider that women and men are both capable of

possessing characteristics that are appropriate to the management role (Wentling, 2003).

In an attempt to account for low representation of women in senior positions in Kenya, previous research has considered the possibility that career obstacles are experienced by women throughout their careers. Career obstacles have been considered through various theoretical perspectives of gender differences, organizational structures, family and individual factors and social cultural factors. These theoretical perspectives variously considered that women are different and lacked the appropriate skills to fill managerial positions or that situational difference within organizations accounted for inequalities for women in the workplace rather than any deficiency in individuals.

The gender stereotype perspective examined the assumptions that were made about female managers and the role such assumptions may play in career advancement. In essence women are not as appropriate fit for managerial roles because of a perception that females are more suited to supportive, nurturing roles such as motherhood than the decision role of management. Gender stereotyping continues to offer a viable explanation for the low numbers of women being promoted into senior or executive positions. Gender bias against females in organizations is attributed to lack of person-job fit which detrimentally affect performance evaluation which in turn impact on the career advancement outcome of managers. These attitudes appear to undermine a lack of acceptance of women in management role, and may be influenced by a gender stereotyping perspective which attributes the skills of one sex more

closely to the role of manager. Such gender stereotyping is therefore instrumental in creating a barrier to women's career advancement.

From the literature review the glass ceiling is a contemporary issue with many surveys that have been undertaken internationally. Other barriers consistently identified, which negatively affect women's career progression are preconception organizational practices like lack of transparency around promotion policies, work family conflict, lack of network and lack of successful role models. Commitment to family or personal responsibilities was also reported as a barrier.

The operation of promotion policies in many organizations is an area which often has unclear set of criteria attached. This allows for subjectivity rather than objectivity to enter the process with senior management allowed considerable scope of discretion. Often, promotion criteria are focused on a preconceived notion of who should perform the role rather than the qualification required. Employers often believe that women are less able to undertake a full-time career than men, due to their biological make up, rather than ability. When promotion appointment arises and an employer is given the choice between a man and a woman with equal qualification, the woman is viewed as the greater risk. Working in male dominated hierarchies is seen to reduce women advancement levels as male managerial hierarchies are more likely to promote more managerial positions as men feel more comfortable with other men than they do with women.

Another major issue is that women are still viewed by society and self as primary care givers in relation to their domestic responsibilities. The literature highlights that women retain a disproportionate responsibility for both domestic work, and child care even in situations where both parents are working. Although reports indicate that men have increased their participation in domestic duties, the burden of responsibility is still carried by women. Studies indicate that there is a persistent of the role of gender on individual career development. A research need to be carried out on the effect of parental care leave on women promotion and career progress.

The culture of any organization, impacts on those who work in it. This culture is underpinned by values, which negatively affect women. It can force employees to change their behavior, to put aside personal values, or to change the time they spend with their families' leisure activities. The literature asserts that stereotyping and discrimination are perceived differently by men and women, and can affect people's work in varying ways.

Family commitment of employees can have an influence on the way in which they are perceived by their co-workers including managers. Commitment is often characterized by particular attributes, which can be more closely aligned with men's than women's work patterns. Addressing these issues is difficult. Even when organizations address family commitment with specific policies, some employees, particularly women, perceive personal disadvantages or possible career penalties if they use them.

Despite the above discussed challenges, women have developed adaptive strategies to address everyday challenges, cope with exacting circumstances and generally think about their lives. Kenyan women are making significant strides to develop their careers in the civil service and to enter previously male dominated professions. The government of Kenya is therefore committed to the achievement of gender equality and seeks to increase women's participation in decision making positions.

2.8 Research gaps

The study sought to find out why so few women occupy senior management positions and why many fail to reconcile ambitious career aspirations with family responsibilities. Studies carried out internationally revealed that in most countries, women were reported to be making slow and uneven progress.

In Kenya little is known about the extent to which women's economic and social rights are being addressed. There is also scarce knowledge that exist on the position of female managers because of the social – cultural factors. Therefore research was needed to unveil the many social cultural and organizational barriers that limit women career advancement. Working women have special challenges by virtual of their gender and roles in the society as mothers, wives and many times daughters of ailing parents. It is these challenges that the study tried to address.

Research as shown that men are less likely to attribute successful managerial characteristics to women. In Africa, there is strong evidence to suggest strong patriarchal traditions in respect to the role of women. Further research was

necessary to deconstruct on the underlying courses of gender stereotyping among men.

Research revealed that social cultural environment has a role to play in women career progression. Further research was needed to establish the role of cultural attitudes towards female employment. A number of studies have also identified structural and cultural barriers working within organizations that have led to under representation of women at the senior levels. Women have low career progression. Concerns about organizational barriers in management development remain challenging and deserving additional research.

Research revealed that women are not committed to their work due to their biological make up. Child bearing remains a barrier to women career progression. Research is necessary to investigate the effect of parental care leave on women promotion and career progress.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter explains the various research methods that were used to generate data in this study. The chapter was organized under the following sections: research design, target population, research instruments and data collection procedures, pilot test and data analysis.

3.1 Research design

The study adopted a descriptive survey design, which ensured ease in understanding the insight and ideas regarding the research problem under investigations. It aimed at investigating five objectives and testing five hypotheses formulated from the review of the literature. According to Creswell (2003), descriptive survey designs are used in preliminary studies to allow the researcher to gather information, summarize, present and interpret it for the sake of clarification.

Descriptive research determines and reports the way things are (Mugenda, O. &Mugenda, A., 2003).It attempts to describe such things like attitude, possible behaviors, values and characteristics. Best and Kahn (2001), explains that a descriptive study describes and interprets what it is. It is concerned with conditions of relationships that exist, opinions that are held, and processes that are going on, effects that are relevant or trends that are developing. It is primarily concerned with the present, although it often considers past events and influences as they relate to the current conditions (Koul, 1990). A similar

study carried out by Tlaiss and Kauser (2010) on perceived organizational barriers to women's career advancement used the same design. Data collected using this design can be used to suggest possible reasons for particular relationship between variables (Gay,1981).Therefore it was found more consistent with the general objective of this study which aimed at assessing the perception of women on barriers to career progression in the civil service.

3.2 Target population

The study focused on the Kenyan civil service. The civil service is made up of 48 ministries and a population of 21,412 women in job group A to U. The target population was 6003 women working in the civil service from job group J to U.These are women who are in management and executive positions. Human resource managers from 15 selected ministries were also considered in the study.

3.3Sampling frame

The sampling frame was all women in the Kenyan civil service. According to Mugenda, O. and Mugenda, A. (2003), a sampling frame is a list of cases from which a sample can be selected. In this study a list containing data presentation on recruitment and promotion of women in civil service was sourced from the ministry of state and public service and used to draw the sample (see Appendix XII). Subjects selected from the sampling frame form the units of observation in a study. The study considered women in job group J and above According to Government of Kenya report (2010), there are 6003 women in job group J

and above. These are women in management and executive levels. A sample of 15 human resource managers was also drawn from   the 48 ministries.

3.4 Sample and sampling techniques

The process of sampling makes it possible to draw valid inferences or generalizations on the basis of careful observations of variables within a relatively small proportion of the population. According to Gatara (2010), a large survey would need a large number of researchers and this would not give quality data. A large survey would also require a long time to implement which means that by the time results are out, the events would have greatly altered the phenomenon under study. Large sample would imply huge management problems due to training and supervisory activities and therefore increase cost. Therefore the researcher selected a sample to represent the population. The total population of women in job group was J-U is 6003.

According to Mugendaand Mugenda(2003), in social science research the formula below is used to determine the sample size. The sample size is a function of homogeneity or heterogeneity of the population, desired precision, type of sampling design, substrata sizes acceptable at analysis, availability of resources and logistics. In this estimation the significance level was taken as 95% with a margin of error of 5%. The total population was 21,412 women in the civil service. The women in managerial positions, that is, job group J and above is 6,003.

$n =$ the desired sample size given the target population is greater than 10,000

$z =$ the standard normal deviate at 95% confidence level

p =the proportion in the target population estimated to have the characteristic being measured

$z = 1 - p$ d =the level of statistical significance set

$$n = \frac{z^2 pq}{d^2}$$

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.3)(0.7)}{0.05^2} = 322.69$$

$$n \approx 323$$

The actual sample size was 326 women, (See Table Appendix III) on composition of the sample size.

The researcher preferred considering a large sample because with a large sample the researcher was confident that if another sample of the same size was selected, findings from the two samples would be similar to a high degree. This minimizes the sampling error (Mugenda& Mugenda, 2003). For the purpose of this study the researcher used purposive sampling to select the ministries. This sampling technique allowed the researcher to use cases that have the required information with respect to the objectives of the study (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). There are total of 45 ministries in Kenya, the researcher took 30% of the ministries which is 15. According to Gupta (2005), a sample size of 30% is appropriate for research. Zachary and Craig (2006), asserted that a sample size of 30% is statistically significant. In the study the researcher used purposive sampling to select the ministries which have the highest representation of women in job groups J-U to establish from those women what they have done to progress in their careers.

The study also considered those ministries that had a low number of women in job group J and above to establish why women were not progressing in their careers. This justifies the use of purposive sampling technique. The researcher also used stratified sampling to get the population of women in each job group in the ministry. According to Cooper and Schindler (2006), stratified random sampling is used to achieve desired representation from various subgroups in the population. In stratified random sampling subjects are selected in such a way that the existing subgroups in the population are more or less reproduced in the sample. In the study the job groups were put in strata and respondents were pickedfrom job group J-N, these were women in management and job group P-U who were in executive positions randomly. Random sampling was preferred because it gives the participants equal chances of being selected and this helps to minimize bias (Kombo, 2006).

3.4.1 Demographic composition of the sample

Most of the respondents were aged between 40-49 years representing 43.8%, with 26.9% in the 30-39 age bracket and 26.6%in the 50-59 age bracket. About twenty seven percent (26.6%) of the respondents had job tenure at their current employer ranging between 15 and 19 years. Nineteen percent 19.5% of the respondents had job tenure between 10 and 14 years, while 27.3% had job tenure of below 5 years. About 80% of the respondents had a job experience of 10 years and more. The sample was a fair reflection of the middle and executive management profile in Kenyan civil service. Most of the women were well qualified and had been working for a long time in the public sector.

3.5 Research instruments

A researcher needs to develop instruments with which to collect the necessary information. In social science research the most commonly used instruments are: questionnaires, interviews, and observation (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). In this study self-developed questionnaires were used to collect data from women executives in various ministries. Questionnaires assist in the translation of the research objectives into research hypothesis which motivate the respondents to provide the information being sought (Kombo, 2006). A similar study done by Ismail and Ibrahim (2009) used the similar instrument. Items in the questionnaire were developed to address a specific research objective and test hypotheses of the study. The questionnaire were developed using a Likert five-point scale and survey questions based on previous academic studies and literature review. A similar study done by D' Agostino and Levin (2010), used the similar research instrument to collect data from the executive women therefore making the instrument more reliable for use in this study.

Questionnaires as instruments of data collection also   save on time and money. They also enable the respondents answer questions freely and frankly even on sensitive issues because they are not required to reveal their identity, this increases the likelihood of getting accurate information. Tlaiss and Kauser (2010), noted that questionnaires offer a greater anonymity as there is no face to face interaction between the respondent and the interviewer. The questionnaires also offer uniformity in answering questions allowing a great degree of comparison because the items are framed in the same format (Mugenda, & Mugenda, 2003). In this study the questionnaires were used to

get the opinion of women in various ministries and job groups of what they perceived as barriers to women career progression. Suggestions were also sought from human resource (HR) representatives to ensure that the questionnaires did not encroach into potential conflict with the ministries values and cause any legal implications.

The other method that was used in data collection was the interview guide. During the interview each respondent was asked the same series of predetermined questions (Gatara, 2010). It was used to collect data from Human Resource Managers in various ministries. Interview with Human Resource Managers was meant to supplement and corroborate information gathered from questionnaires and secondary data obtained from records. Interviews are efficient way of gathering data (Wimpenny&Gass,2000). They ensure that certain themes are addressed while allowing participants to describe their experiences in detail. The conversation style resembled that described by Davy (2008), in that it frequently included humor, complicity and going on target. The researcher tried to create rapport by beginning the conversation with general questions beforemoving to the perceived barriers to women career progression. The interviews were conducted at the participants' place of work because human resource managers are busy people and when interviewed at their desk helps to save on their time and make them more receptive and available for the interview.

Fifteen Human Resource Managers were interviewed to give in-depth information on recruitment, selection and promotion policies in their ministries

and shed light on the barriers that impede women career progression in their respective ministries. An interview is flexible because it gives the researcher room to make clarification, expound on the items or change the items in the schedule if need arises (Mugenda, 2008). It also helps to find out what is in someone else's mind. The purpose of interviewing is not to put things in someone's mind but to access the perspective of the person being interviewed. Other researchers such as Cross &Linehan (2006) and Cullen & Christopher (2012) used similar instruments to collect data from Human Resource Managers.

3.6 Measurement of variables

All the study variables were measured by survey questions and a five point Likert scale which ranged from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). All the scores for each of the items were averaged to obtain an overall measure for each of the variables. This method was used in a similar study done by D'Agostino and Levine (2010). A questionnaire was designed to measure the influence of gender stereotype, social cultural beliefs, organization practices, family responsibilities and personal characteristics on a five – point Likert scale and survey questions. Questions were constructed to reflectthetheoretical framework of the study. Demographics were collected regarding the respondents age, employment status, marital status, number of children, education level, and position held and the last three grades attained.

On gender stereotype, negative perception and stereotype about women commitment to work and how it influences career progression were measured

where respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement. Social cultural factors were measured on a five item scale of statements on what the society considers as the ideal worker belief to working mothers and the judgment made to working women.

Organization practices like recruitment, training and development, promotions, networking and presence of mentors were measured to establish their role in women career advancement. Survey questions were used to measure the composite variables. Family related barriers were measured to establish the influence of family responsibilities, the traditional division of laborand the pressure women face in balancing career and family. Individual characteristics like education level, commitment, level of self-esteem and ideas on future goals were measured to establish whether self-efficacy play a role in influencing women career progression.

A woman's ability to establish social networks, develop mentoring relationships, exemplary performance, style of leadership and ability to make discreet choices between career and family were measured to establish coping strategies developed by women in the executive level. While the dependent variable which is career progression was measured by the number of promotions and the period spent in each job group.

3.7Piloting of the research instruments

Samples of questionnaire were administered or pilot tested to 33 respondent in two ministries which were not included in the studybut had similar

characteristics as those sampled for the study. Respondents were encouraged to make comments and suggestions concerning instructions, clarity of questions and relevance (Mugenda, 2008).A pilot study was conducted to provide the researcher with an opportunity to try out the questionnaires to check whether the questionnaire was   reliable and whether the items gathered the information intended. This assisted in improving the validity of the study. Data on women advancement in the civil service was also obtained from government sources particularly from the Directorate of Personnel Management (DPM), civil service commission and ministry of gender.

3.8 Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity of the instrument was tested for consistency. According to Collis and Hussey (2003), a measuring instrument is reliable when the research results emanating from these instruments can be repeated. Zikmund (2000) defines reliability as the degree to which measures are free from error and therefore yield consistent results.Malhotra (1999), states that the ability of a measuring instrument to determine the proportion of systematic variation in the scores yielded by the instrument is a reflection of the reliability of that instrument. This is done by determining the association between the scores obtained from different administrations of the instrument. If the association is high, the instrument yields consistent results and is therefore reliable.

The reliability of each construct was examined to ensure the items collectively measured their intended constructs consistently as recommended (Merriam, 2002).Internal consistency reliability was examined by use of cronbach alpha

coefficient. Cronbach's alpha is the most widely used measure of the reliability of instruments in the social sciences. It indicates the extent to which a set of test items can be treated as measuring a single latent variable (Malhotra, 1999). It has also been reported that the Cronbach alpha coefficient formula is a more accurate and careful method of establishing internal consistency than the Spearman-Brown and Kuder-Richardson reliability measures (Parasuraman, 1991).In addition, the Cronbach alpha coefficient has the advantage of producing a reliability estimate with only one administration.

Kline (1999) noted that acceptance value for cronbach's alpha is between 0.7 and 0.9.However,Nannually (1978), argued that an alpha coefficient of 0.5 or greater is adequate to accept presence of internal consistency. Convergent validity exists if a group of indicators are measuring one common factor. Convergent validity can be assessed at the individual and construct level by examining individual item loading. A loading of 0.7 indicates that about one half of the items variance can be attributed to the construct.

Table 3.2: Cronbach's alpha values

Variables	Cronbach's alpha
Gender stereotype	0.763
Social cultural beliefs	0. 806
Organizational structure	0. 812
Family responsibilities	0.782
Individual characteristics	0. 818

3.9 Procedure for data collection

The questionnaires were administered through face-to-face method of collecting data. The questionnaire was designed based on the empirical work done by Wise and Bond (2003) to identify the barriers to women carrier progression. The questionnaire used in this study comprised of six sections. The first comprised of the respondents personal details like age, marital status, number of children and the position held. The second, up to the firth part comprised questions on the perceived barriers to women career progression like gender stereotype, social cultural beliefs, organization structure, family responsibilities and individual characteristics.

3.10 Data analysis

To analyze the data, SPSS, a statistical software package was used. Data was coded by assigning numbers to responses. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze data and explain the findings. Inferential statistics (one sample t-tests), were used to test the perception of women on barriers to career progression in a neutral value of 3 where a value greater than 3 was considered stronger than a value less than 3. These values were also used to test the hypotheses on the perceived barriers to career progression. Correlations and ANOVA were used to explain the interrelationship that existed between variables. Similar studies carried out by O' Neil and Bilimoria (2005); Ismail and Ibrahim (2007), used t-test to test the hypotheses on the perception of women to career progression. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also carried out among the perceived barriers to career progression to establish the interrelationship between the variables. A similar study carried out by Cullen and Christopher (2012), on

career progression of female accountants in the state's public sector used similar methods to investigate the relationship between career anchors and work related barriers to career progression.

3.11 Ethical considerations

Research authorization permit was obtained from the ministry of education to conduct the research. A copy of the research permit was presented to the ministry of public service and a letter from the permanent secretary public service was issued. The researcher presented this introductory letter to all the ministries visited. Responsibility to the respondents included voluntary participation and informed consent prior to participation. To ensure the participants were not prejudiced, simple language and statements were used to describe the aim of the research and its procedures. Responsibility to the profession included accuracy in analysis, presentation and reporting of the study findings. Confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents was also guaranteed.

The findings are reported in chapter four of this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCHFINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study on barriers to women career progression and the coping strategies employed by women managers in Kenya's civil service. The chapter is organized as follows: the findings of the demographic factors are illustrated by use of tables or chart followed by discussions of the findings. Each variable items are analyzed descriptively, opinion of the respondent illustrated using bar graphs and the hypothesis tested using one sample t-test. Finally the illustrations are interpreted.

Specifically the findings focused on gender stereotype, social cultural beliefs, organizational structures, family responsibilities, individual characteristics and the coping strategies employed by women in career progression.

4.1 Response rate

The sample consisted of 326 women managers and 15 human resource managers from the selected ministries. A total of 326 questionnaires were distributed and 256 were returned. These formed 79 % which is a good response rate.

4.2 Marital status

Marital status of women was sought to establish whether family responsibilities are barriers to women career progression. According to the study majority of the top managers-50% were married however 27.2% did not have partners while 4% were either widowed or separated (See Figure 4.1).

Marital Status
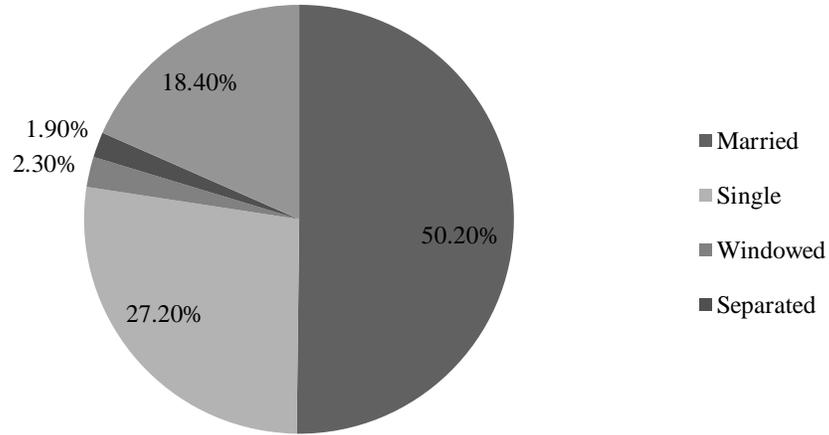
Figure 4.1: **Showing marital status of the respondents.**

The findings show clearly that majority of the married women are managers in civil service. None of the married managers stated that her marriage had a negative impact on her career as majority emphasized its positive impact. Although married women said that marriage increased their responsibilities towards their husbands and their homes, 45% of the respondents highlighted the supportive and understanding attitude of their husbands towards their managerial careers. Studies done by Cross (2009); Mackelly and Dabul (1998), established that the only significant difference between the male and female managers was marital status in that women managers were less likely to marry or remarry once divorced than their male counterparts. This therefore suggests that top management can have significant effect on marital relations. Some women opt to remain single in order to balance family and career. This seems to be the case for the woman manager more so than the male.

The study revealed that majority of women 70 percent had small families of 2 to 3 children with children agesranging from 15-20 years. Twenty percent had between 4-6 children. During the interview, women spoke on the difficulties of holding responsible management posts and caring for children especially under-fives and the general difficulties of coping with the dual responsibilities of home and office. This suggests that women with children are able to progress after they have passed the demanding child bearing age. The findings suggests that raising a family early, could be a long–term strategy which will allow a woman to give her optimum as she climbs further up the career ladder.

4.3 Education level

Education level of the respondents was sought to establish whether women had the required education for progression to managerial levels. According to the study majority of the respondent had post-secondary education. About 70 per cent of the women in middle and top management had post-secondary education. Women managers had the academic qualifications to enable them climb up the ladder. Over half had professional qualifications: About 36 per cent had first degree; 19 per cent had master's degree and 1 per cent had the doctorate degree (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Education level of the respondents

Level	Frequency	Percentage
Diploma	74	31.9
Bachelors	83	35.9
Postgraduate diploma	9	3.9
Masters	44	19.0
Doctorate	1	0.4
Others	21	9.1
Total	**235**	**100**

More than half of the women managers, when asked about the impact of their educational attainment, stressed its role in their careers. More than half of the respondents considered their degrees as the backbone and the base of their progress. More than 70 percent of women interviewed considered educational attainment as a crucial requirement for development and managerial progression of women. According to the respondents for a woman to be promoted to managerial position she had to be more educated than her male colleagues.Previous studies carried out by Nzomo (2009) and Kanake (1997), revealed that women had attained the necessary education levels and possessedthe skills needed in management positions. This was confirmed by this study.

To investigate and identify significant differences in perception on barriers to career progression among women with different levels of education, ANOVA was used to examine the significance mean differences in opinion among women with different education levels. It was used to examine whether there was a significant difference in opinion among those women with masters,

bachelors, diplomas, certificates and other levels of education on the perception of barriers to women career progression.

It was observed that there was no significant difference in opinion among women with different education levels on their perception on gender stereotype, organization structures and individual characteristics on women career progression as illustrated by the table 4.5 in appendix II. However, the study revealed that those women with degrees and diplomas had significantly different opinion on the effect of family responsibilities and social cultural beliefs on career progression. The comparison revealed significant results of 0.016 and 0.03 on family responsibilities and social cultural beliefs respectively (see Table 4.4 appendix II.) This may be because most women with diplomas and first degrees are those who have entered the civil service as beginners in middle level management and have not yet developed coping strategies to deal with social cultural beliefs. They still perceive social cultural beliefs as impediments to their career progression. Also the new graduates joining the civil service have family responsibilities for example they have small children and they are settling in marriage and therefore they perceive family responsibilities as a barrier to their career progression.

On training, the study revealed that majority of the respondentshad participated in various training courses and other types of further education. According to the respondents 38 per cent of women said they had attended 5 or more professional trainings and conferences in the last 5years; 25 per cent said they had attended 3 to 4 times; 23 percent said 1 to 2 times; 12 per cent had attended

none within the last five years. Reasons given for lack of or infrequent attendance werelack of opportunity (8 per cent), sex discrimination (2 per cent) domestic affairs (7 per cent) and lack of interest (10 per cent). This indicates that women are given the opportunities to train in most organizations. However the training may not be relevant to their advancement.

When asked the areas they felt inadequate as far as skills are concerned, the respondents cited the following areas which can facilitate advancement to top management; managerial skills**,**women's issues, confidence building, finance, computerskills, leadership training and community work. From these views it can be concluded that women have clear cut training needs which need to be addressed. However, the issue of gender in management is not clear to most women. This study revealed that most women have never participated in a training course with a gender dimension. In fact, most women did not comprehend the need for a gender dimension in training. The study revealed that 55 per cent of women had never attended a training program with a gender dimension; 22 per cent said they had, 1 to 2 times; 15 per cent said they had, 3 to 5 times while 8 per cent said they had, 6 to 10 times (see Figure 4.2).
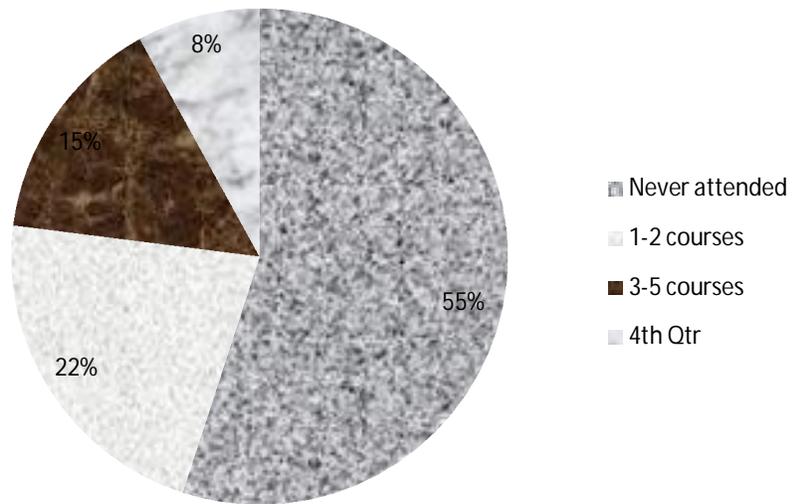
Figure 4.2: Training with gender dimension.

4.4 Findings of the study objectives

The data was analyzed to assess the general responses to the questionnaire statements on the variables as they were originally defined for the study. This analysis was necessary to assess the perception of women on barriers to career progression in Kenya's civil service as identified in the literature review. The results which includes the means scores on a 5-point scale, standard deviations (SD) and the average percentage of disagree versus agree responses, of these analyses are reported next. The results are interpreted as follows: a mean score of more than 3.00 is regarded as a reasonably good assessment of a latent variable; a score between 2.50 - 2.99 reflects an average assessment of the latent variable: and a score below 2.50 reflects weak areas or aspects of concern. Hypothesis testing was also done to address each objective. This was done by use of one sample t-test where the mean response of the respondent was tested against a standard value (3).This helped to decide whether there was

a significant difference on the opinion of the respondents as measured by the Likert scale where 5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=neutral, 2=disagree and 1=strongly disagree. This assisted in revealing whether a particular variable was perceived as a barrier to women career progression (see Table 4.9).

4.5 Gender stereotype as a barrier to women career progression

The variable gender stereotype was analyzed using eight items (see Table 4.2)

Table 4.2: Items analysis of the variable gender stereotype

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Men have a positive attitude towards women	2.73	1.08	249
Men judge women fairly	2.63	1.00	250
Women's ideas are seriously listened to and implemented in the organization	2.83	0.996	248
Men perceive women as weaker sex	3.71	1.18	249
Stereotype dictates the appropriateness of various occupations for females and males	3.31	1.214	241
Attributes such as achievements orientation, forcefulness and strength in decision making are commonly ascribed to men	3.39	1.264	241
Good manager is described predominantly in masculine terms	3.12	1.293	241
Women are considered caregivers and home makers and men as breadwinners and leaders	3.57	1.202	241
Average	**3.35**	**1.244**	**245**

The role of gender stereotype as a barrier to women career progression was sought using Likert scale questions. This method of gathering opinion was found appropriate because under it, respondents answered each statement included in the questionnaire. Also Likert type of style communicates interval properties to respondents and therefore produces data that can be assumed to be related to an interval scale. The results are as indicated by Fig 4.3.
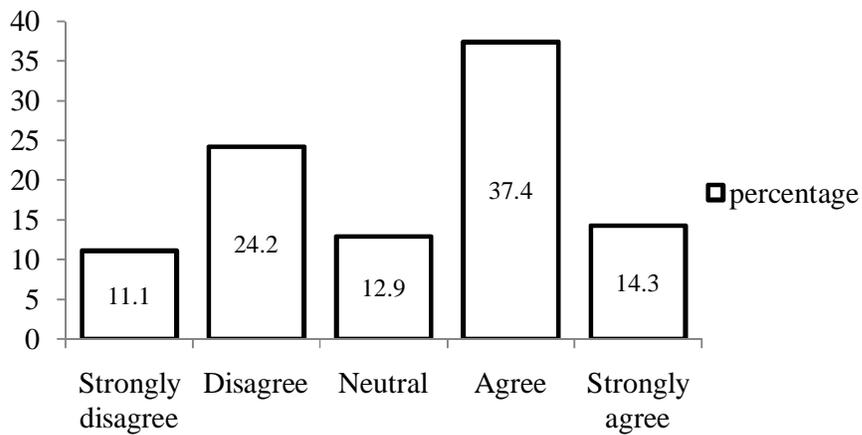
Figure 4.3: Respondents perception on gender stereotype

Gender related hurdles within the organizations were found to be a reality as illustrated in figure 4.3. The study results revealed that 52% of women had the opinion that gender had not influenced their career positively. Gender problems focused on a negative attitude of men towards their female colleagues. The study further revealed that men perceived women as weaker sex and their role as caregivers and homemakers. Gender stereotypical attitudes were reported to be instrumental in impeding the entry of women into management when a management role is seen as more appropriate for a male (Acker, 1990; Alvesson Billing, 1997; Heilman, 2001).

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A number of studies have focused on the manager as male. This study revealed that attributes such as achievements orientation, forcefulness and strength in decision making were commonly ascribed to men. Stereotype had a major explanation for discrimination against women in the workplace. According to the studies carried out by Wood (2008); Lyness and Heilman (2006), gender stereotyping of the ideal manager fosters bias against women in managerial selection, placement, promotion, and training decisions. Proponents of the hypothesis thus argue that it is important to study the perceptions individual hold in regard to the stereotype. This study has gathered the views of women in various management levels and their views conform to those of other scholars that gender stereotyping is still very prevalent in organizations.

According to this study negative stereotype is a powerful barrier to career progression. Studies carried out by Wood (2008); Lyness and Heilman (2006), in an attempt to account for the low representation of women in senior management in Ireland revealed that the assumptions that are made about female managers are that women are not seen as appropriate fit in managerial role because of perception that females are more suited to a supportive, nurturing role such as motherhood than the decision-making role of management.   This view is supported by this study.

Furthermore findings of this study reveal that gender bias against female managers in organizations is attributed to the perception of lack of person job fit and this detrimentally affect   performance evaluation which in turn impact

on the career advancement outcomes of women managers. This attitude appear to undermine a lack of acceptance of women in management role and may be influenced by a gender stereotyping perspective which attributes the skills of one sex more closely to the role of manager. Such gender stereotyping is therefore instrumental in creating a barrier to women career advancement. This negative attitude had in some cases deteriorated to sexual harassment. This was revealed by the study where respondents spoke very strongly on the discriminatory attitude of men who presently command influence and power particularly when it comes to promotion of women to senior position. However studies that were done later in US by US Federal Glass-ceiling Commission (1995) revealed that women's perceptions were found to have changed to the view that women are equally likely to possess management characteristics. This change was attributed to the higher proportion of women in middle management positions in USA and UK. More recent studies in USA show a considerable change in male views as evidenced by greater congruence between their perceptions. This is supported by the views given in this study where some respondents felt that the figure was probably an understatement. Some respondents felt that the perception is changing and the number of women rising in management position is rising in most organizations.

This study revealed that, nearly all ministries had gender- blind promotion procedures. However, it was found that these procedures are manipulated particularly in male-dominated areas, and negative attitude of men seriously hampers female progress. This forces women to stagger in one place, to lobby extensively for merited positions or to be forced to constantly prove

themselves. Women also noted male oppression and suppression as a hurdle that must be overcome. However, 45 per cent of women surveyed said they had not experienced any gender-related bias which influenced their career; 54 per cent said they had. Interview revealed that the subtle and insidiousness of discrimination to women makes it difficult to assert, with confidence, that one has experienced definite gender bias.Hacket (2009), wrote on the social and psychological attributes of women and said that "women underrate their success and perceive any discrimination they meet as a result of their own shortcomings".

To support the objective hypothesis testing was also done using one sample T-test (see Table 4.13 Appendix IV)

$H_0 1$ *Gender stereotype is not a barrier to women career progression in Kenya's civil service*

According to the statistics Table 4.13, t (249) =2.726, P=0.007 which is less than the critical value of 0.05. The mean difference is positive, significantly indicating that the respondents agree that gender stereotype is perceived as a barrier to women career progression. Therefore the null hypothesis that gender stereotype is not perceived as a barrier to women career progression is rejected and the alternative hypothesis that gender stereotype is perceived as a barrier to women career progression is accepted. This is supported by a study carried out by Booysen and Nkomo (2010) that revealed similar results that men are less likely to attribute successful managerial characteristics to women. According to the dual there is evidence to suggest strong patriarchal traditions in respect to the role of women. In Kenya the same perception is held by women in various

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ministries where 52 per cent revealed that gender stereotype has not influenced their career progress positively.

This study revealed that gender stereotyping has impacted negatively on the career advancement of women in management in the past through a continuing belief that management is a male domain, and that gender stereotyping continues to operate in a similar way in the present. Furthermore, it is possible that gender stereotyping will continue to influence on the acceptance of women in management in future.

4.6 Social cultural beliefs as a barrier to women career progression

The perception of women managers on social cultural beliefs as a barrier to career progression was soughtand the results are as indicated in (Table 4.3)

Table 4.3: Item analysis on the variable social cultural beliefs

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Cultural beliefs are hostile to women career advancement	3.43	1.262	246
Traditional attitude of women as weaker sex has an effect on women career progress	3.40	1.231	246
Men do not like sharing authority with women	3.71	1.131	247
As a woman I feel discriminated because of my sex	2.62	1.156	243
It violates society norm for a woman to work outside the home	2.80	1.356	242
Average	**3.42**	**1.26**	**243**
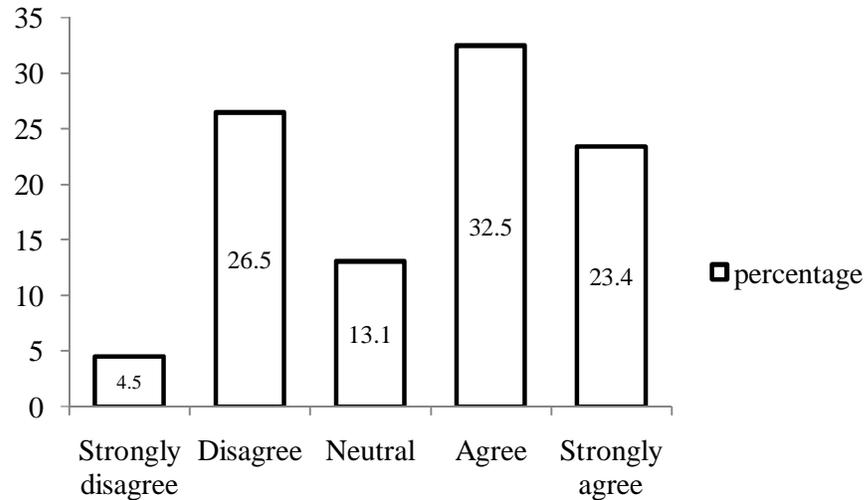
Figure 4.4: Respondents perception on social cultural beliefs

From the findings of this study, women are still facing a lot of challenges related to social and cultural pressures. The perceived traditional roles of men and women have not changed in relation to daily practice. Men do not like sharing authority with women. This study revealed that working environment for women is still unfriendly at both work place and societal levels due to gender stereotypes and patriarchal structures. Women leaders and professionals are still faced with traditional roles and have to meet work/professional expectations. Neither their husbands nor their male relatives have succumbed to the changes ushered in by the era of gender equality promotions. A participant pointed out that in her culture husbands refuse to eat meals other than the ones prepared by their wives. She pointed out that even learned and

senior people submit to this dictate of culture and society. This hinders women career progression.

For women to perform an equal footing with men, they have to walk an extra mile. The weight of traditions, culture and religion are barriers to career progression. Literature in this study revealed the negative effect of the ideal worker belief to working mothers. A good mother according to Ridgeway(2001) must give less effort and priority to work demands to be seen as a committed mother. This biased belief according to Ridgeway is likely to create barriers to women career progression in the workplace. In contrast to the societal judgments made towards mothers, employed fathers are regarded as better parents and more professionally competent. This notion includes the belief that mothers must do more than fathers to be labeled as good parents and that mothers are held to higher standards of responsibilities than fathers.

Based on social role theory that guides judgment of mothers and fathers Feugen et al. (2004) in their study judged fulltime employed mothers as violating the norms of caretaker role but employed fathers embody the provider role. Therefore motherhood has a detrimental effect on women's career opportunities but enhancing effects on men's opportunities. This is supported by this study where it was revealed thatcultural values continue to play a major salient role in shaping women careers. Kenya indeed seems to offer no exception to African value system that emphasizes the role of women as mothers and home makers. Patriarchal attitude are still entrenched, although increasing economic needs is forcing men to acquiesce to women employment.

A similar study carried out in Asia by Rosser (2004), revealed that having women as managers violates the social norm of men's higher status and superiority. Studies carried out by Nzomo (1995); Smulder (1998), describe and highlight the persistent view of female managers as more communal with more feminine ways of managing compared to men, who are described as more competitive and business oriented. Against these prevailing views, women are perceived to be inadequate as managers. Such cultural barriers still persist in today's modern world and are unchallenged despite women's higher educational attainment levels. This is in agreement with the findings of this study where 56% of the respondents perceive social cultural beliefs as a barrier to women career progression.

The respondents felt that cultural beliefs and the perception of women as weaker sex contribute to impediment of women career progression. However it is interesting to note that some of the women interviewed in this study assimilated, shared and defended traditional cultural notions and expectations. Some women according to the study continue to perceive the priority of a woman as family, irrespective of managerial aspiration or position. The objective is further supported by testing the hypothesis on the perception of social cultural beliefs on women career progression.

H_02 **Social cultural beliefs are not barriers to women career progression in Kenya's civil service**

The analysis revealed that t (248) =5.838, P<0.001 which is less than the critical value of 0.05 and according to the statistics the mean difference for

social cultural beliefs is also positive significantly indicating that the respondents agreed that social cultural beliefs were perceived as barriers to women career progression. Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis that social cultural beliefs are perceived as barriers to women career progression is accepted.

The study also revealed that discrimination against women was still widely embodied in law and custom. In developing countries Kenya included it violates social norms for a woman to work outside home leave alone being in power. Besides women who work outside home are usually over-burdened by having to add such livelihood responsibility to domestic responsibilities, thus women's career advancement prospects are considerably less than those of men. A similar study carried out by Majanja and Kiplang'at (2003) revealed the same results. They further observed that despite the changing laws, the exclusion of women based on gender remains widespread and entrenched in society through socio-cultural values, perception, expectations and attitude which devalue women's personalities and accomplishment. Previous study carried out by Sadie (2005), revealed that cultural attitudes are hostile to women involvement in decision making positions. Jamali et al. (2005), revealed that social cultural environment and its implication in terms of behavioral expectations has a role to play in women career progress.

4.7 Organizational structures as barriers to career progression

Fourteen item statements put on a Likert scale were used to establish the perception of women on organizational structures as barriers to career progression (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: Item analysis on the variable organizational structures

Item Statistics	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Most organizations does not rely on merit based recruitment	3.03	1.289	241
Women receive unfair judgment regarding their work performance compared to men	2.70	1.119	247
Women are discriminated against promotion because of sex	2.57	1.196	246
Women lack mentor	2.56	1.204	244
It is not easy for women to establish informal networks	2.62	1.106	244
Employers lack commitment to creating an environment in which female executives excel	3.18	1.199	244
Workplace culture and values make it easier for men to succeed than women	3.22	1.226	242
Women receive fewer opportunities for professional development at work	2.92	1.216	246
Organizations lack policies to support women career progression	3.01	1.241	244
Promotions to the next grade is not based on performance	2.83	1.271	244
Male hierarchies are more likely to	3.23	1.255	243

promote men for managerial positions than women			
Men are promoted faster than women	2.94	1.254	246
Inhospitable organizational culture act as a barrier to women career progression	3.11	1.192	244
Lack of women in general line management hinder women career progress	3.12	1.178	243
Lack of understanding among employers of the value of gender diversity at senior levels impede women career progress	3.30	1.143	244
Average	**3.34**	**1.12**	**220**

The findings of women perception are as illustrated by figure 4.5.
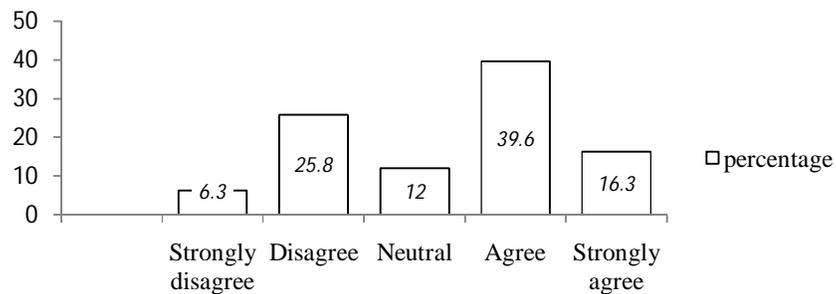
Figure 4.5: Opinion of respondents on organizational structures

Organizational practices include managerial selection and recruitment, promotion procedures, performance evaluation, and training and development. While several studies have reported the efforts of leading organizations in supporting women's progression (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1994; Singh et al., 2006), many continue to reveal that nothing has really changed. Negative attitudes toward women and sex-typed stereotypes of women in the workplace continue to be reflected in discriminatory organizational practices through

discriminatory managerial recruitment and selection processes, training and development opportunities, performance evaluation procedures, and promotions (Anker, 1997; Schein, 2007). A similar study carried out by Hutchings and Weir (2006), highlighted the selection process in the Arab world as being highly subjective and based on personal contacts, nepotism, and family name. In another study Weir (2003), found evidence of limited access by Arab female managers to on-job training and development and lack of systematic performance appraisal.

A similar study carried out by Al-lamki (1999), revealed that male bosses held traditional attitudes towards working women resulting in discriminatory selection and promotion. This study revealed similar results. The findings highlighted discriminatory practices in Kenya's civil service in recruitment, selection and promotions. The respondents highlighted that recruitment and promotions to senior positions depend on who knows who or how one is politically connected. The study also revealed that performance evaluation is very subjective allowing the senior management considerable scope for discretion. Often promotion criteria are focused on a preconceived notion of who should perform the role rather than the qualifications required.

On on-job training, similar findings were replicated by this study where the respondents felt that the bosses are biased against women when approving training courses. Therefore findings of this study demonstrated that organization structures determine women career progression. Regardless of the

women's management level, the majority of the respondent 56% confirmed the salience of discriminatory and gender centered barriers in the organization.

The culture of an organization also acts as a barrier to women career progression. Alarge body of research by other scholars suggest that patterns of behavior, attitudes, values, and norms act as either facilitator or barriers to work-life policies (Bate,1994;Browne,1997; & Kanter,1997).Organizational culture has been studied extensively in the European, American and Asian literature and studies have shown that gender inequities in the workplace are the root cause of the discriminatory treatment against women that limit their upward mobility (Davidson & Burke,2004). Hence having women as managers violates the social norm of men's higher status and superiority. Majority of studies describe and highlight the persistent stereotypical view of female managers as more communal with more feminine ways of managing compared to men, who are described as more competitive and business oriented. Against these prevailing views women are perceived to be inadequate as managers (Eagly&Karau, 2002).

Such barriers still persist in today's modern world and are unchallenged despite women's higher education attainment levels. The situation is similar in Kenya. In this study Kenyan female managers attributed negative attitude, perceptions, and stereotypes to the cultures of the Kenya's organizations and found them to be unsupportive and discriminating towards women. The findings are also consistent with those of Jamali et al. (2006) that detailed how the work culture of organization can impede women's career progression. This type of

organization culture that is discriminatory towards female managers may be attributed to the prevailing social and cultural values and practices that tend to have a significant influence on the organization's recruitment and promotions practices in the country. This explains why women remain underrepresented in senior management in civil service.

The discriminatory organization cultures that favor men reinforce the patriarchal culture. Respondents were asked to state the challenges that they face at their work place. The most three challenges faced by the respondents in their career life were 25% discrimination due to their gender,30% work life balance 24% indicated lack of support from their bosses. Others included lack of support from family, lack of confidence, discouragement from friends and inefficient systems in the workplace as shown in figure 4.6.
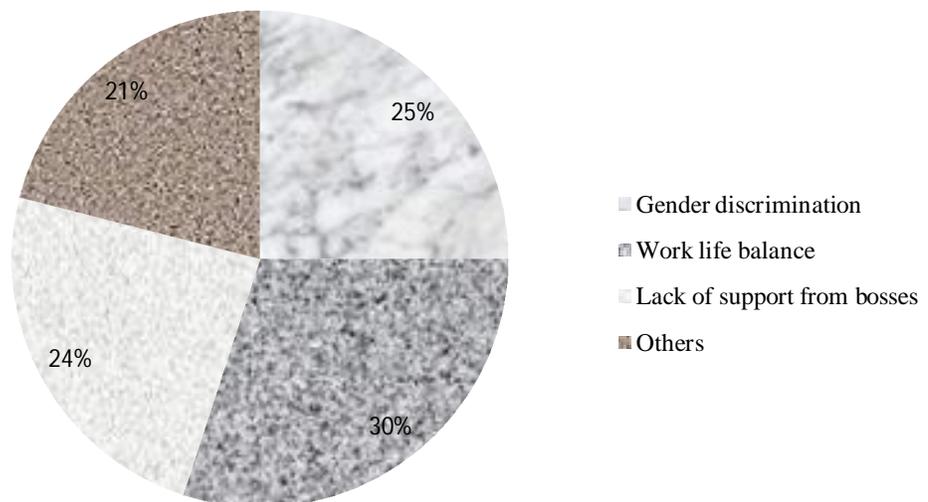
Figure 4.6: **Challenges faced by women at work place**

Organizations are discriminatory in their practices in recruitment, professional development and promotion. Women managers lack support, trust and opportunities for development. According to this study, when it comes to professional development and promotions women are measured by the male model of career development, without considering their family responsibilities. The respondents were asked how they dealt with the challenges they had experienced in their career life. The responses included working harder, balancing work and family responsibilities and ignoring detractors. During the interviews with the Human Resource Managers few mentioned perseverance, focusing on priorities, consulting widely and seeking support from colleagues.

Regarding what women can do to progress in their careers in Kenya, the respondents felt that they needed to be more assertive to compete with men for the senior positions and press for affirmative action in addition to applying for senior positions in the civil service. Others felt that they needed to support one another and build more networks. Other suggestions given by the respondents included, making demands for the senior positions and those women in senior positions to support others to ascend.

According to the literature reviewed in this study mentoring was described throughout the literature as helpful for career progression (Burke &McKeen, 1994).Mentors are considered critical for career advancement as they participate in career progression through coaching, role modeling and counseling. Based on previous studies conducted in USA, employees with mentors were found to have access to important people and enjoyed more

career satisfaction and promotions more frequently (Brett &Sroth, 1994). Mentors are considered important to the success of female managers because mentors help in the development of manager's sense of identity and professional confidence and reduce discrimination (Raggins& Cotton, 1991).

A number of studies have highlighted the difficulties that female mangers have in getting mentors (Burke &Karambavya, 2004). According to the duo there are few women in senior positions and the discomfort with cross-gender mentors. The same findings were revealed in this study where the respondents admitted that they lacked mentors in their organizations. They also revealed that there were very few women in senior positions who could mentor them. Just as the literature revealed, cross-gender mentoring is not taken well in Kenya. Therefore in general, lack of mentors has negatively impacted women's career progression as revealed by this study.

A study carried out by Al-Lamki(1999), reported that the absence of role models and mentoring programs is a major organizational concern limiting women's access to top managerial positions. Finding a mentor in Kenyan organizations is difficult as revealed by this study. This is because there not enough women in senior management positions to provide support. Given men's control in the organizations they are more likely to be mentors. This suggests that women in Kenya miss opportunities for career progression because they lack female role models. Therefore mentoring relationships can be considered potentially valuable for women's career progression in Kenya.

Raggins& cotton (1991), confirmed in their study that women who have mentors do better in management and in their careers. They gain reflected power, feedback and access to resources and senior positions through their mentors. Despite the positive impact that mentoring has been claimed to have on career progression of female managers in terms of creating a favorableorganizational environment, enhancing employee satisfaction, providing career development functions and self-confidence and improving promotional prospects, this study revealed that mentoring as a concept appeared to be non-existent in Kenyan civil service.

The findings of this study revealed that in most organizations promotion policies are not clear. Statistics indicates that men tend to be promoted faster than women even in organizations in which women dominate numerically and in which men are relatively newcomers. A study carried out in US by Wood (2003), revealed that women are promoted more slowly and less often than their male counterparts. Reasons given were that men are able to use informal networks in achieving promotion as opposed to women who rely on formal promotions alone. This was supported by this study where the respondents confirmed that women are not good in networking and are not able to lobby for promotions because of the culture.

It was also noted that promotion policies in many organizations is an area which often has unclear set of criteria attached. This was supported by this study, which revealed that most women were not aware of the existent of clear policies on the criteria of promotions or were certain these policies did not

exist. These findings suggest that, in the view of most women, the promotion process in the organization is still prone to all manner of abuse including gender discrimination. Where promotion policies in an organization are not clear, those in lower cadre especially women can easily believe that their gender may be the reason why they are not promoted. In most of the organizations, promotion procedures were found to be gender-blind and the unwritten laws limit the progress of women particularly from middle management levels to senior management levels.

Recruitment procedures were also found to be superficially gender-blind; however, the fact that most recruitment boards are often all or majorities are male (reflecting the management structure of the organization) makes recruitment policy prejudicial to women. To support the findings hypothesis testing was done using one sample T- test (see Table 4.13 appendix IV).

$H_0 3$: *Organizational Structures as barriers to women career progression in Kenya's Civil service*

The finding revealed $t(248)=8.288, P<0.001$ which is less than the critical value of 0.05 and the mean difference is positive significantly indicating that the respondents agree that organizational structures are perceived as a barrier to women career progression. Therefore the null hypothesis that organizational structures are not perceived as barriers to women career progression is rejected and the alternative hypothesis that organizational structures are perceived as barriers to women career progression is accepted.

The results in (Table 4.13 appendix IV) provide support for the alternative hypothesis that organizational structures are perceived as barriers to women career progression in Kenyan civil service. The findings were consistent with the previous research carried out by Cleveland et al., (2000); Kottke and Agars (2005); Schein, (2007). The findings of this study revealed significant differences across the management levels where women stated that they faced discrimination due to their gender in promotion. The respondents also stated that male hierarchies are more likely to promote men for managerial positions than women. Majority of women also believed that men receive more support and trust from the organization than women. The respondents also highlighted the long hours culture associated with management positions and particularly middle and senior management positions as effectively acting as a means of closure to exclude women because fewer women than men were able to comply with the requirement due to family commitments. Additionally this provided a rationale for those holding the positions of power in organizations (men) to believe that men were therefore better suited to senior management positions than women.

The study also revealed that majority of organizations favor the use of informal recruitment and selection processes such as small social networks. A similar study carried out by Thomas (1994), revealed that majority of organizations rely on informal rather than merit based processes in order to select the best candidate. Informal recruitment processes can lead to bias because the recruiter tends to determine job requirement according to the current job-holder. If the job-holder is a man, then a man is preferred to a woman. This reinforces

occupational segregation and contributes to building stereotypical views of men and women and women's roles and abilities. Thus institutional norms rarely accommodate the fact that women typically bear the responsibility for home and family and therefore have more demands on their time. Institutions therefore end up judging women as less committed and less competent than their male counterpart.

4.8 Family responsibilities as barriers to women career progression in Kenya's civil service

The study sought the perception of women on family responsibilities as barriers to their career progression. The results are as indicated in table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Item analysis on the variable family responsibilities

Item analysis	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Women are not able to balance work with family responsibilities	2.04	0.964	245
Husband do not support their spouse careers	2.90	1.140	244
Women of child bearing ages tend to be by passed for promotion and other opportunities	3.1	1.231	240

Women hesitate to take up promotional opportunities for fear of conflict with family and domestic responsibilities	2.65	1.154	240
Many women leave organization to spend more time with their families	2.84	1.156	243
Presence of partner and children affect the participation of women in paid work	2.79	1.187	242
Breaks in employment such as maternity leave/ caring for dependants slow down women career progression	3.11	1.338	243
Lack of support from family and friends impede women career progress	3.22	1.28	240
Average	**2.52**	**1.5**	**241**
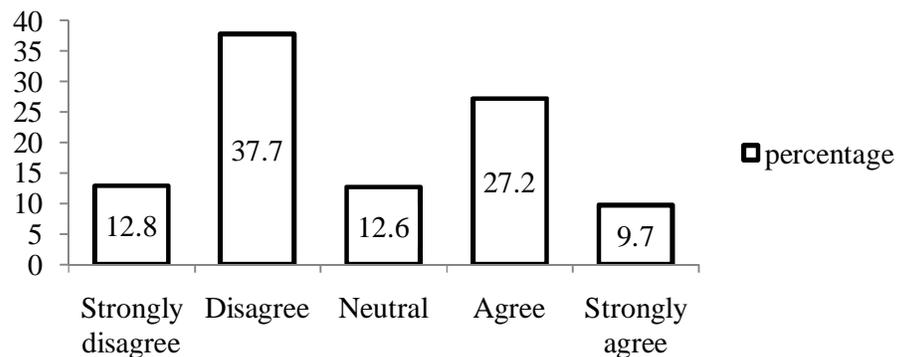
Figure 4.7: Respondents opinion on family responsibilities

Family responsibilities are perceived by many women as an impediment to career progression. According to the literature this study having children

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remains a significant barrier for females. Career advancement and child bearing appear to be incompatible as it is only women who must take time out of their careers to have children. The study revealed that women's extra domestic responsibilities can create work overloads which in turn can spill over to affect their experience of work while reducing the potential for achievement in their careers.

A number of studies carried out by various scholars have shown that in the west, women managers have to make difficult choices, such as remaining single or childless in comparison to their male counterparts, who in the majority of cases are married with children (Powell & Grave, 2003).This study disagrees with the findings.

This study revealed that most respondents 50 % were married and with children. Women do not need to remain single and childless in order to progress in their careers. As for the married managers, none of them stated that their marriage had a negative impact on their career as the majority emphasized its positive impact. Although married respondents said that marriage increased their responsibilities towards their husbands and their homes, the respondents highlighted the supportive and understanding attitude towards their managerial careers. The African culture emphasizes the importance of family networks.

The respondents indicated that motherhood is not a barrier to women's careers. Marriage is a social necessity and women are pressured by their families to get married and have children. The perception of the Kenyan women regarding marriage and having children according to this study diverged from the

commonly expressed views about marriage and having children and can be rationalized by the availability of external help. The majority of married women received help in their domestic chores from their extended family members or from domestic helpers that were living in the family home. Similarly motherhood was not perceived as negatively impacting on the career advancement of managers given the availability of help with the domestic chores and with the children.

According toCharles and Davis (2000), traditional division of labor leads people to expect domestic responsibilities to be women's primary role and any obligation that detracts from their ability to perform their primary role causes role conflict. The dual exerts that gender division of labor frees men from domestic and childcare responsibilities at home A Study carried out by Cooper (2004), revealed that 65-85 percent of child care work is done by women.

Similar studies carried out by Hopkins (1997); Miller (2004), revealed that the pressure that women face in balancing career and family is the most significant barrier in women's attempt to advance. However this study disagrees with the findings of previous studies, about 65% of the respondents felt that their family responsibilities were not a hindrance to their quest for promotion. This is because women have developed adaptive strategies to cope with the dual responsibilities. They pointed that their spouses are very supportive when it comes to family responsibilities. When it comes to child care women pointed that they are able to engage a house help to assist in house chores and their

spouses assist in childcare and especially taking children to school and picking them in the evening.

The study revealed that most families are relatively small with one or two children and young ladies are able to   take care of their children at the initial stages of their career and by the time they turn mid-age which is around 35- 40 years they are already settled to concentrate on their career. However some respondents felt that their domestic obligations have often stood in their way to promotion. This group most likely represents female staffs that are still held back by traditional gender roles that ties a significant proportion of their time to domestic responsibilities. They cited the dual (home and office) role of women as a major impediment to women career progression.

Coping with domestic and official duties was stated as an important problem which required increased coping strategies.   According to Cross (2008), jobs where out of station posting is a prerequisite for promotion, family responsibility and cultural expectation was a serious hindrance to nearly three in every four study respondents.   In this study 73 percent were either unaware or disagreed with the assertion that women staff of child bearing age tended to be bypassed for promotion and other opportunities. This is a strong indication that being of child bearing age is hardly a basis for discrimination against women's promotion in the government ministries. Hypothesis testing was also done to support the objective (see table 4.13 appendix IV).

$H_0 4:$ *Family responsibilities are not barriers to women carrier progression in Kenya's civil service*

From the statistics t (244) =0.445, p=0.656 which is greater than the critical value of 0.05.Therefore we fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that family responsibilities are not perceived as barriers to women career progression. This is because women have designed their roles to cope with job and family responsibilities. Majority of the respondents agreed that family responsibilities do not impede their career progression because women have learnt to balance their career and family responsibilities they also pointed out that the spousal support they receive has assisted in balancing their family roles and their managerial roles. Husbands were cited as significant support source in both personal and professional realms providing financial, professional, and emotional support. The perception of women about marriage and having children diverged from the commonly expressed views about marriage and having children and can be rationalized by the availability of external help.

The majority of women received help in their domestic chores from their extended family members or domestic helper's. Motherhood was not perceived as negatively impacting the career progression of the managers given the help with the domestic chores and with the children. Organizations also have tried to achieve gender equity by implementing organizational policies like flexible work hours, paid maternity and paternity leave, subsidies for child care. Many women have been able to reconcile their career aspiration with family.

4.9 Individual characteristics as barriers to women career progression

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The study sought the perception of individual respondents as to why women do not progress in their careers despite their level of education and the mechanisms put in place by the government like gender main-streaming. There were 13 items presented in a Likert scale to measure the variable individual characteristics. Some of the statements were negated to test the respondents' seriousness when answering the questions (See Table 4.6)

Table 4.6: Item analysis on the variable individual characteristics

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Women hesitate to take up promotion opportunities	1.94	0.988	243
Women are not pro-active and supportive of other women	2.8	1.351	244
Women lack education required for holding leadership positions	1.83	1.024	217
Negative self-perception has constrained women career progress	2.75	1.328	217
Women do not favorably compete with men for senior positions	2.35	1.218	240
Women are less equipped in skills or temperate to handle the arduous role of a senior manager	1.86	1.024	242
Women who progress have high education attainment.	4.15	0.797	217
Women who progress have high interpersonal skills	3.87	0.888	217
Women who progress are committed, dedicated ,perseverant	4.14	0.799	217
Women who progress are always willing to learn new things and take responsibility	4.08	0.86	217

Women who progress are hardworking	4.08	0.862	217
Most women who progress have self confidence	4.08	0.865	217
successful women always exceed performance expectation	3.93	0.915	217
Women who progress seek out difficult or high visibility assignment	3.69	0.996	217
Average	**3.23**		
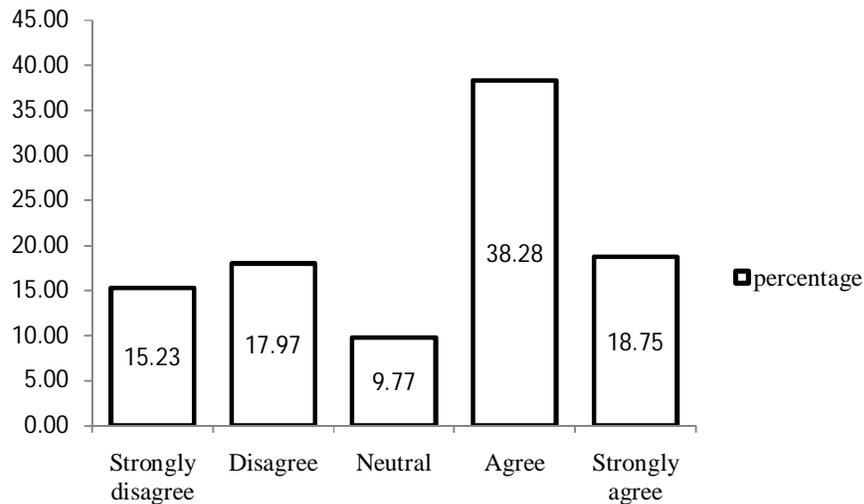
Figure 4.8: Respondents opinion on individual characteristic

The findings of this study revealed respondents' perception that personality plays an important role in women's ability to cope in traditional male occupations. According to the respondents, an individual with low self-confidence will not progress. It was also noted that education attainment and work experience is important in career progression. When asked about the

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impact of their education attainment on career progression, the respondents considered their degrees as the back bone and the base of their career progress. Majority of women interviewed considered that educational attainment was a crucial requirement for managerial progression. According to the respondents for a woman to be promoted to a managerial position she has to be more educated than her male colleague.

The findings are supported by the social cognitive theory in the theoretical review which identified the interaction of personal attributes and behavior in career progression. The theory focuses on self-efficacy beliefs and outcomes expectations on goals and behavior (Stitt-Gohdes, 1997). Self-efficacy can serve as a barrier to the extent that they are unrealistic or to the extent that they reduce the likelihood that a female worker will behave in a manner that increases her success.

Studies carried out by Rana (2007);Wentling (2003), revealed that women lack academic skill and career related experiences, and they perceive narrow career opportunities for themselves and these combine to pose formidable obstacles to their future career progression. According to Wentling (2003), this negative self-evaluation might have resulted from socialization practices that do not prepare females to face challenges and develop other skills outside the ones necessary for the performance of their traditional related activities (Schein, 2006).

In this study respondents also attributed their success to their work experience. Majority of the respondents considered their years of experience as

instrumental in terms of fostering their chances for success when competing with male colleagues. One middle manager stated that women managers need more years of experience to be promoted to middle management, compared to their male counterparts with the same level of education. These suggest that for women managers to be promoted to certain managerial positions, they have to be more educated and experienced. This is not surprising given the salient notion that women must be primarily prepared for a career as a wife and mother. Sometimes women are supposed to move with their spouses whenever they are transferred or given special assignments outside the country. This leads to career breaks hence lack of continuous experience in the same job. Women also take breaks to give birth and take care of the young ones. These breaks do not favor promotions and career progression of a woman.

When women were asked how they achieve top positions 62 per cent said that it requires a combination of competence, obedience and hard work to get to top positions. When reviewing other factors that influence the achievement of top management positions, 38 percent of women said that merit alone led to achievement of top management positions. However almost a similar number of women 33 percent said a combination of political backing, family background and lobbying were most important for advancement. However, women frequently expressed distaste for lobbying. They felt it should not be necessary as one is left in the debt of someone usually a male and the insuring requests could be compromising.

The respondents stressed the need for competence to achieve success. The respondents were asked for personal factors that supported their career progression 42% cited hard work, 39% aggressiveness and 16% determination to succeed. Other personal factors mentioned to a lesser degree were tolerance, commitment and having the relevant knowledge. A few respondents emphasized the need to behave like a man which in some cases meant forgetting about domestic responsibilities.
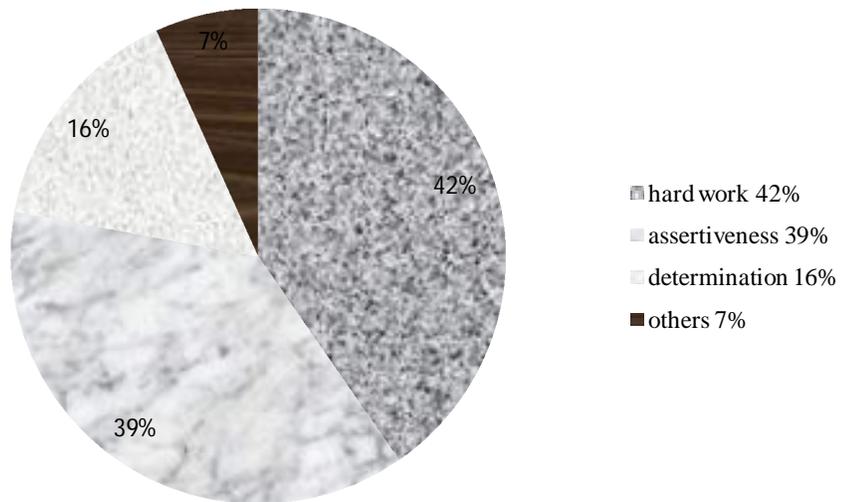
Figure 4.9: Individual characteristic that favor career women career progression

To confirm the findings, one sample T-test was used to test the hypothesis that individual characteristics have no effect on women career progression (see Table 4.13 Appendix iv)

$H_0 5$: *Individual characteristics are not perceived as barriers to women career progression*

The findings revealed that t (245) =6.854, p< 0.001 which is less than the critical value of 0.05 (see table 4.13 appendix IV). The mean difference is also positive significantly indicating that individual characteristics are perceived as barriers to women career progression. Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted. These findings were supported by empirical research carried out in US and Australia respectively. A research carried out by US based Catalyst found that women have a low evidence to advance to senior levels and this may act as a barrier to their progression. A research carried out by Smith (2009), in Australia revealed that women reserve and ambivalence to promotion negatively impacted on their career advancement.

Women career progression was also affected by the way they view themselves. Tangier (2009), in his research revealed that self-perception or the way women view themselves also constrain their leadership or managerial position. Many women sell themselves short and are not ambitious enough to fight for managerial positions because of lack of professional confidence and low self-esteem. The respondents opined that most women were brought up and taught to be followers and not leaders. They also agreed that women were not proactive and those in senior positions do not support other women and this impeded their progression.

H_06: *Executive women have no coping strategies in their career progression*

One sample T-test was carried out to test the effects of coping strategies on career progression (see table 4.13 appendix IV). The findings revealed that t (238) =33.086, p< 0.001 which was less than the critical value of 0.05. The mean difference was also positive. Therefore the null hypothesis that executive women have no coping strategies was rejected and the alternative hypothesis that executive women have coping strategies in the career progression was accepted. The respondents were asked to state some of the characteristics that women who had progressed possessed. They cited exceeding performance targets, developing leadership style which male managers were comfortable with,   sharing ideas of their future careers goals, hard work and commitment despite the many barriers. Executive women also agreed that, women who had progressed cope by making discrete choices between career and family like opting out or delaying marriage and parenting. To support the hypothesis further correlation between variables was done with coping strategies (see Table 4.14 appendix V).

Women were asked what their strategies for survival were the majority (43 percent) said job performance and leadership qualities; 31 per cent said job performance, leadership qualities and retraining; 20 per cent said job performance alone. Two per cent stated leadership quality, alone. Political backing was not stated as strategy for advancement for these women managers. Entrance into top management for majority of the women required a combination of competence, obedience and hard work. When reviewing other factors that influenced the achievement of top management positions, majority

of women felt that merit alone led to achievement of top management positions.

Some executive women were interviewed to establish the special characteristics possessed by women who had progressed. The responses were amazing; they said that those women who had progressed had effective techniques as far as people relationship were concerned and alternative ways of communicating and getting things done which were based on being sympathetic and having concern for the problems of subordinates. This involved being trustworthy and friendly. However, as one manager puts it, these ways of conducting management can be very effective in the long run. It develops a team spirit and inspires personal commitment from staff, though it can be problematic initially, it can be interpreted as weakness.

The respondents also emphasized the need for women to be assertive. Management and personal development trainers have identified that women need to be more assertive. Assertion can be seen as a means to get control and get one's way. Majority of women who had progressed saw themselves as being assertive: 46 per cent said they had high assertive skills; 30 per cent felt they had very high assertive skills and 24 per cent said they had average assertive skills. Women, who said they were only averagely assertive, noted that this was so because they felt that developing a team spirit and getting cooperation from staff did not require high assertive skills. The findings showed that majority of women had high assertive skills and that not all people feel comfortable with their assertiveness.

The findings revealed that the female top managers' management style and leadership qualities emphasized consultation, competence, hard work, concern for subordinates. Similar studies revealed a similar trend in management qualities of women. In studies comparing management qualities of men and women, there seemed to be little significant difference.Reifet et al. (1975) in his study supported this assertion. There was considerable research evidence to support the fact that women managers psychologically were not significantly different from their male counterparts and maybe possessed even superior attributes and skills in some areas relating to management effectiveness. Differences do exist, but mostly in ways that would serve to increase the probability ofwomen functioning well as managers". In this survey 98 per cent of women stated categorically that the female manager can be as effective as the male manager.

Correlation was carried out between perceived barriers to career progression, grades moved and years of experience. The statistics revealed that the correlation between all the independent variables was significant (see Table 4.15.appendix VI.) Organization structures and family responsibilities had significant linear relationship with the Pearson Correlation of 0.454 since p<0.001 which is less than the critical value of 0.05.This implies that organizational structures are perceived as barriers to women career progression as well as family responsibilities. This correlation can be explained as family roles conflicting with workplace expectations. Organizations with no policies

to support women can make it difficult for women to juggle work and family responsibilities.

This study revealed that all the variables have a linear correlation with one another. This implies that variables are interrelated. This indicates that women who perceive organizational structures as a barrier to career progression also perceive gender stereotype, social cultural beliefs, family responsibilities and individual characteristics as barriers to women career progression. This implies that all the barriers of career progression are intertwined and together impede women from progressing to senior positions.

However when the moderating variable, coping strategies, is incorporated the linear relationship between Organizational structures and family responsibilities decreased. The Pearson correlation reduced from 0.454 to 0.39 but still significant since $p<0.001$.This is because women who have coping strategies like balancing their roles as mothers and managers are able to progress. Likewise in career domain, ambitious women develop social networks, enter mentoring relationship and seek promotion opportunities hence progressing in their careers. Women with coping strategies also do not perceive social cultural beliefs as an impediment to their career progression they have already passed the influence of society in their careers.

They study revealed that women with coping strategies are assertive, hardworking and have confidence and self-esteem. These characteristics enables them compete with men for senior positions. When a moderating

variable, coping strategies, was introduced still the correlation was significant (see Table 4.15 appendix VI).

One sample t-test was carried out to get the opinion of the respondents on their experience on gender bias. Surprisingly for those who said yes confirmed that there was gender bias in the organizations, society, among male colleagues and also as individuals they had experienced gender bias. This is evidence that the opinion of the respondents was based on experience (see Table 4.16 appendix VII).

Relationships

Relationship with males
Relationship with females
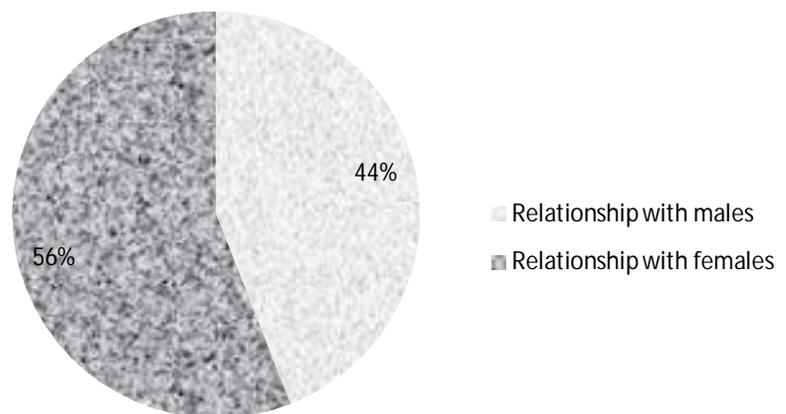
Figure 4.10: Relationships with colleagues

Despite the myth that women do not get on with their colleagues, the findings suggested the contrary: 56 per cent have very good relationships with female colleagues; 44 per cent have a good relationship with males. Women in fact get on better with each other than with men. The findings showed that although women were said to have a good relationship with men their relationships with

women was better. 56 per cent said they had a good relationship with male colleagues; 38 per cent said they had very good relationships; 5 per cent said they had only a fair relationship with male colleagues. Women's assessment of their relationship with subordinates wasin line with the findings reflecting a concern for staff. 62 per cent of women said they had a very good relationship with subordinates; 33 per cent said they had a good relationship; 5 per cent said, "fair". This was an indication that women get on well with colleagues.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND   RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The chapter represents a summary of the study conclusions and recommendations. The study sought to establish the perceived barriers to women carrier progression among senior and middle level women managers in Kenya's civil service. The study examined theoretically and empirically the perception of women on barriers to career progression. On assessing the barriers the study focused on gender stereotype, social cultural beliefs, organizational structure, family responsibilities individual characteristics, as well as the coping strategies.   Additionally the study considered education level, years of experience as well as the leadership styles exhibited by women mangers.

5.1 Summary of the study

The purpose of the study was to assess barriers to women career progression and the coping strategies employed by the managers in Kenyan civil service. The study therefore assessed whether gender stereotype, social cultural beliefs, organization structures, family responsibilities and individual characteristics are perceived as barriers to women career progression. The study also looked at the coping strategies employed by executive women in their career and came up with recommendations that will help in the formulation of policies which will assist women to advance in their careers.

The study adopted a descriptive survey design to collect data from 326 women in middle and senior management levels in Kenya's civil service. Data were also gathered from Human Resource Managers. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the ministries with the highest and those with the lowest women representation. A total of 15 ministries were selected this formed 30% of the total ministries. Stratified sampling was used to get the population of women in various job groups and random sampling to get the respondents. Only women were considered for this study and not men because the researcher was interested with the perception of women which differs with that of men in as far as career progression is concerned.

The study established that women's career progression in Kenyan was hampered by social cultural beliefs, gender stereotype, organizational structures and practices that govern women. Regardless of the women's management level, the majority of the respondents confirmed the salience of discriminatory and gender-centered barriers in the organization. The women managers attributed negative attitudes, perception, and stereotype to societal culture which as spilled over to the organizations. Organizations culture was found to be unsupportive and discriminating towards women.

The study revealed a complicated picture of the women managers in Kenya. The marginalization of women was clear but the contributing factors and the obstacles that hindered their progress were complex, often subtle but all pervasive. Women were underrepresented in nearly all professions. In the civil service, (the largest employer), it was found that in 2002 administrative listings

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that only 14 percent of senior positions and only 13 percent of permanent secretary level positions were held by women.

5.2 Gender Stereotype

The study revealed that gender aspect of women's career advancement was gravely neglected in most Organizations. Women had to survive in a male-dominated world with limited access to continuing education or exposure to knowledge, skills and attitudes. Gender-related hurdles within the organization were found to be a reality with 58 per cent of women saying that gender had not influenced their career positively. Gender problems focused on a negative attitude of men towards their female colleagues. This negative attitude had, in some cases, deteriorated to sexual harassment.

Women in informal interviews spoke very strongly on the discriminatory attitude of men (who presently command influence and power) particularly when it came to promotion of women to top-most positions. However, actual survey findings revealed that only 34 per cent of women felt that gender-related bias had influenced their career progression negatively. It was felt that this figure is probably an understatement. Hacket (2001), in writing on the Social and Psychological attributes of women, says that women under rate their success and perceive any discrimination they meet as a result of their own short comings.

5.3 Organizational structures

Nearly all institutions had gender-blind promotion procedures. However, it was found that those procedures were manipulated particularly in male-dominated areas, and negative attitude of men seriously hampered female progress. This forced women to stagger in one place, to lobby extensively for merited positions or constantly to prove themselves.

Within the organization, there were certain factors, mainly subtle which served to hamper women's career advancement. First of all, women had limited access to continuous education. The study revealed that 60 per cent of women were not able to attend at least one form of training or professional meeting annually; 12 per cent of women had not been to any sort of training within the last 5 years. In some ministries where participants were largely nominated by their employers, women were poorly represented.

It was also noted that in most organizations, the performance appraisal rules did not consider the special circumstances that cause women employees to stay at home to face some family exigencies or for the sake of taking care of the children. Other factors that affected women career progression were attitudinal rather than structural. One of the respondent commented that "*the chances for application to training are usually equal for both men and women; however the approval is sometimes directed more to men than top women"*. This indicated lack of fairness and male bias.

Human Resource managers revealed that women's recruitment and promotion was carried in most organizations according to employment laws based on;

availability of vacant posts, performance appraisal reports, years of experience and competence and high qualifications. They confirmed that procedures were usually carried out by committee through nomination or application to the post. However this was not done in all organizations. The study revealed that civil service procedures for recruitment and promotion were gender blind; the unwritten laws limit the progress of women particularly from middle management level to senior management level.

Recruitment procedures were also found to be superficially gender-blind. However, the fact that most recruitment boards were often all or majority male (reflecting the management structure of the organization), makes recruitment policy prejudicial to women.

5.4 Social-Cultural barriers.

The study established that women were still facing a lot of challenges related to social cultural pressures. The working environment for women was unfriendly at both working and societal levels due to gender stereotype and patriarchal structures. The negative effects of the ideal worker belief on working mothers is still held in the Kenyan culture where a mother is supposed to give less effort and priority to work demands and concentrate on family issues.

Cultural values according to this study continue to play a major salient role in shaping women careers. The women managers confirmed that they were not exceptional where the value system emphasizes the role of women as mothers and homemakers. The study established that although economic needs are

forcing men to acquiesce to women employment, patriarchal attitude were still entrenched.

Social cultural beliefs have a great influence on the career advancement of women who aspire for higher heights. Women are seen as sex whose major responsibilities are reproduction, domestic work within the home and service to the men folk. With this background therefore, women are seen to have no need for education. The inferiority of women was found to be attested to by culture. It was also entrenched in the legal system. Most glaring was the traditional law of inheritance which stated that, not only does a woman not inherit from her husband's property, she herself is an inheritance.

5.5 FamilyResponsibilities.

The study established that women's extra domestic responsibilities can create work overloads which in turn can spill over to affect women's experience of work while reducing the potential for achievement in their careers. According to the respondents, women do not need to remain single and childless in order to progress in their careers. The study revealed that marriage did not have any negative effect on women career progression even with the increased responsibilities towards husbands and homes. Women managers highlighted the supportive and understanding they received towards their managerial careers. The perception of the Kenyan women regarding marriage and having children diverged from the commonly expressed views about marriage and having children and can be rationalized by the availability of external help. The

respondents confirmed that women had developed coping strategies to deal with their dual responsibilities.

5.6 Individual Characteristics.

Personality plays an important role in women's ability to cope in traditional male occupations. The study established that it was only women with the relevant education and experience who can advance in their careers. The study revealed that for a woman to be promoted to a managerial position she had to be more educated than her male colleague. Respondents also attributed lack of the required skills and experience as one of the impediment to career progression. Breaks that women take to give birth or join their husbands for special assignments' outside the country lead to career breaks hence lack of continuous experience and this impeded career progression. The respondents confirmed that personal characteristics like hard work, tolerance, commitment to work, aggressiveness and determination to succeed were some of the attributes that women needed   in order to succeed.

It was also revealed that women employees were not fully aware of the strategic importance of the decisions they make related to their career, most of them were said to be job focused instead of career focused. Others did not trust their capabilities in competing with their male colleagues. It was also noted that the multiplicity of the roles that women play in the domestic, productive and reproductive spheres also limited their capabilities in career advancement. These familial and social-cultural factors add to women's burden curbing their

ambitions and forcing them to skip training chances, giving men a competitive advantage.

5.7 Conclusion

Based on this study several conclusions were made. The study revealed that women's career progression in ministries was hampered by gender stereotype, social cultural beliefs, organizational structures that govern them and individual characteristics. In all the ministries visited respondents agreed that the barriers were still prevalent in the organization. These women yearn for ideals such as equal treatment and organizational support that would promote them into the organization's top posts by merit. Although they accepted that women had certain roles and responsibilities to play in their lives they believed that these roles and responsibilities should not act as barriers to their involvement in the organization; furthermore, to promote women's progression, significant transformation is needed in the societal and organizational structures.

5.7.1 Gender Stereotype.

Gender stereotype was found to be strong and persistent and generally had more negative impact on women than men. Though perception of men and women had changed over the last few decades, important differences remained in the perceptions of women and men on managerial characteristics. These perceptions were more negative for women than men. Active stereotyping for women had historically resulted in few opportunities for women and the use of stereotype in job decisions remains a concern today particularly for efforts targeting women's advancement. The study further concluded negative

perception and attitude of the public towards women leadership had seriously hampered women advancement. Overcoming stereotype and myths about women's leadership capabilities is paramount to society education especially that education that targets senior male public officers and lawmakers.

5.7.2 Social-cultural Beliefs.

Social cultural beliefs were also revealed as an impediment to women career progression. From the findings women were seen as sex whose major responsibilities were reproduction, domestic work within the home and service to the men folk. The inferiority of women is attested to by culture and also entrenched in the legal system. The traditional law of inheritance which states that not only does a woman not inherit from her husband's property she herself is an inheritance. This impedes enrollment of girls in schools in some communities and for those who enter school and get to their mid or late teens marriage and childbearing becomes the next logical step. Early marriages, many children and the multiple roles of women have seriously limited women's career progression.

Cultural barriers are among the most difficult to remove, as they are often subtly enforced by both men and women. They are seen as immutable. Despite these challenges culture is changing slowly over time and that the oppression of women is not a permanent condition. People need to realize that culture is dynamic.

5.7.3 Organizational Structures.

Organizational structures play a great role in impeding women career progression. Most ministries lacked Human Resource policies in which recruitment, training and development, performance appraisals and promotions are determined in an objective manner. Recruitment procedures were found to be gender blind which makes them prejudicial. Women also lacked continued education due to family responsibilities. The trainings offered by most of the organizations also lack gender dimension. When it comes to training therefore women had to make their way unaided, in a completely male dominated organization.

Gender blind promotions procedures found in almost all institutions seriously hampered women career progression. Promotion procedures were manipulated especially in male –dominated areas. Women also perceived their promotion to senior positions has their basic right and therefore did not compete with men favorably. In most ministries the culture inculcated did not value women. However, the thinking behind Kenyan organizations appeared to be male oriented, fostering the managerial advancement of men rather than women and reflected the rather patriarchal nature of organizations and managing bodies. The study revealed that female managers from all levels were looking for more supportive organizational culture that supported the most qualified candidates based on their credentials and performance rather than their gender.

5.7.4 Family responsibilities

The dual (home and office) role of women impedes women career progression. In jobs where out of station posting is a pre-requisite for promotion, family responsibilities hinder career progress. Domestic responsibilities can create workloads which can spill over to affect women's career experience of work while reducing the potential for achievement in their career. However the study revealed that women do not need to remain single or childless in order to progress. Marriage was not found to have any negative effect on women career progression as husbands support their wives. Women have also developed coping strategies to deal with family responsibilities.

5.7.5 Personal characteristics

Personality plays an important role in women's ability to cope in traditional male occupations. The respondents confirmed that personal characteristics like hard work, tolerance, commitment to work, aggressiveness and determination to succeed are some of the attributes that women need to have in order to succeed. Successful women use a complex management style with a bias to consultation. However women ambition is limited by domestic responsibilities and negative socialization.

Although women have participated in the work-force for a while and have progressed significantly from the educational attainment viewpoint, their perception over what are seen to be barriers to progression remain the same. Younger women still see these barriers as their fight just as much the earlier generation of women and those who have been in the workforce for a longer period of time. Women have tried to seek support and understanding from the

organization to inculcate work culture that values their outmost contribution to the organization.

5.8 Recommendations

5.8.1 Gender stereotype

i) Civil service should come up with a scheme for career progression.

ii) The government should monitorthe implementation of its policies.

iii) Public and private sector establishments should review all conditions of service, institutional practices and policies to eliminate gender discrimination and gender insensitivity.

iv) The Government and organizations working with women should develop public awareness on gender as relevant to national development, to influence the socialization process generally. There is need to focus on gender in management.

5.8.2 Social cultural

i) Culture change at the society level is necessary. While a fundamental transformation in cultural values is not expected and probably not warranted, there are certain aspects that need to be addressed. Education should be used as a key venue for change both at the level of the family and school. Educations can nature values of equity, fairness and mutual respect.

ii) To overcome cultural and religious barriers it would be necessary to re-write and reconstruct views about women, men and gender roles. To do these several strategies need to be put in place like advocacy with religious leaders,

traditional leaders and local opinion leaders so as to sensitize them to the need for and utility of women's public participation. Positive examples from history and religious traditions should be used to build on, develop and mobilize the alternative interpretations in all faiths which valorize women and recognize women's rights.

iii) Other strategies include developing training programmes aimed at changing attitudes and creating an enabling environment for women's empowerment for example working with schools to train women/girls from high school to advocate for popular participation of women in decision making positions in the school curricular in that line.

5.8.3 Organizational Structures

i) There was an overriding concern repeatedly expressed by all interviewees relating to the need to change the culture of Kenyan organizations to provide and encourage work environment where women can develop and realize their full potential. Women need organization support. Kenyan organizations should confront the challenge and responsibility of identifying and developing high potential employees and providing adequate development opportunities irrespective of gender.

ii) Focused training should be provided for women. This should include confidence-building and assertiveness training as well as the provision of management skills, to accelerate upward managerial mobility and career life planning skills. Equal opportunities should be given during training. The bosses should not discriminate against women when assigning responsibilities.

iii) The government should implement affirmative action and formulate a legal framework for implementing the presidential policy of hiring at least 30% of women in the public service. The government should also recognize the role women play in social and economic development. The government should also provide an enabling environment for women to excel and have policies which will place more women in senior positions.

iv) It is important for organizations to have objective HR policies in which recruitment, training and development, performance appraisals, and promotions are determined in an objective manner, one that does not discriminate based on gender. The management of institutions should understand that diversity in workforce embodies different perspectives and approaches that enhance and develop performance; accordingly they should encourage women's promotion. Career plans and related competency requirements should be made clear and more transparent for women. Promotion criteria and measures should be clearly identified, including the related procedures to make the promotion process more structured and transparent for women.

v) To facilitate change in organization culture and to create healthy work environment where women do not feel that their employers prefer men, organizations need to look into creating a more gender–neutral work environment and reduce gender stereotype and discrimination based on gender. Top Management vacant positions should be openly advertised for in order to give all qualified candidates equal opportunities to apply for them. Performance appraisal procedures should use gender-neutral and measurable criteria to avoid any bias. Women's appraisal should be based on an

organizational rather than personal approach where merit and professional achievements can clearly be identified.

5.8.4 Family responsibilities

i) Any circumstances related to woman's reproductive or family role should not prejudice her chance of promotion. If her performance and qualifications are satisfactory this can make her eligible for promotion. Affordable, good-quality and consistent childcare houses should be established in work places to assist women with their children. Many of the interviewees also stressed the need to provide corporate mechanisms for example provision of nursery services and day care centre, flex- time, extended maternity and family support services, which can be tremendously helpful in terms of allowing women to effectively reconcile their multiple roles responsibilities.

5.8.5 Individual characteristics

i) Women should be aware of and fully understand their rights and learn how to attain them. This can be attained through socialization at home, education institutions and work places. They should understand that their promotion to top managerial levels is crucial in enabling them to participate in decision making and in influencing policies at the macro-level to be more gender sensitive, and hence to promote gender mainstreaming in designing, executing, implementing, and monitoring those policies.

ii) Women should be more career–focused rather than job focused. They should learn how to have systematic, critical thinking and to make use of the role models in the work environment. They must be keen to have more training

chances and to be initiative in undertaking challenging assignments to qualify them to be promoted to top managerial levels.

iii) They should take work issues seriously enough and not absent themselves for any social or familial events of less importance to them. Seriousness is an important indicator to responsibility and reliability, both of which are supportive to promotion. They should adopt proper division of labor within their families to release some of their domestic duties and familial responsibilities. According to interviewees the venue for tackling and addressing the constraints facing women at work is action by women themselves. Several interviewees indicated that despite the role played by cultural forces and organizations, the change has to be catalyzed by women themselves.

5.9 Areas for further research

i) Future research should extend across gender and sector. The career progression of women to executive status in the workplace is a societal issue, and the implementation of policies and the creation of programs have implications for all members of our society if the importance of career progression to executive levels positions is understood and defined as a societal issue that impacts men as well as women. I am hopeful that barriers that impede women's opportunities and perpetuate the under-utilization of practices as discussed in this study will render the "gender gap" extinct.

ii) A research need to be carried out on the effect of parental care leave on women promotion and career progress.

iii) Further research is needed to probe more deeply into the underlying causes of gender stereotyping among men.

iv) Research can be done to try and deconstruct the negative attitude and the underlying pessimism to arrive to equitable future for men and women in their work participation.

v) Further research can be carried out to examine the cultural attitude towards female employment.

vi) The study suggests that women in Kenya miss opportunities for career progression because they lack female role models. Therefore mentoring relationships can be considered potentially valuable for women's career progression in Kenya. On this basis and given the current lack of knowledge of mentoring on career progression of female managers in Kenya, more research is needed whether mentoring relationships play a crucial role in career progression of Kenyan female managers.

vii) This study has clarified the demands and challenges brought about by family responsibilities for working mothers however it has also cited the coping strategies employed by working mothers. The study has indicated that the possibility of women participating and progressing in their careers inherently depends on their ability to manage multiple roles as a wife, mother and employee. Little is known about this situation in Kenya.

viii) This study provides a basis for further research on the gender- centered and family–related factors that impact on the career progression of Kenyan

managers. It aims to delineate the perception of Kenyan women managers to the issues of family responsibilities and career progression.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: Research gaps and expected contribution to knowledge.

Table 4.10: Research gaps and expected contribution to knowledge

variables	Name of the study and authors	Purpose and findings	Research gaps	action
Organizational structures Family responsibilities Individual characteristics	Cross, C (2010) Barrier to executive suite evidence from Ireland	Studied the impact of organizational and individual barriers to female managerial career progress. The study found that promotions policies in many organizations are not clear. Women are not committed to their work due to their biological makeup. Child bearing remains a barrier to women career progression	Need for further research on the effect of parental care leave on women promotion and career progress.	Being addres sed by H_4 of this study.
Social cultural beliefs Gender stereotype Organizational structures	Jamali. D, SidaniY and Safieddine .A (2005) Constraints facing women in Lebanon	Studied the problem of ascendancy of women to top management. The study revealed that social cultural environment and its implications in terms of behavioral expectation	Effect of influx of women in educating on patriarchy. Role of religion on cultural	Being addres sed by H_1, H_2

		has a role to play in women career progress stereotypical attitudes are also perpetuated within the corporate culture and also organizational policies and practices impede women career progress.	attitude towards female employment	
Organizational structures

Family responsibilities | Clarke, M.(2011)

Advancing women's careers through leadership development programs | The purpose of the study was to explore one approach to advancing women's career through a women-only development programs designed for those identified as high potential leaders.

The study revealed that women –only development programs provide a safe and supportive environment for improving self confidence, learning new skills and learning from the experience of successful role models they are useful addition to the strategies designed to increase the number of women in senior | Suggested further research in networking and mentoring

Whether career choices of women are influenced by work-family interface also remains an area for further research. | Being addres sed by H_3 and |

		positions but factors such as organizational cultures and career choices impact on career progress.		
Organizational structures Gender stereotype	D'Agostino, M. & Levin, H. The career progression of women in state government agencies.	The purpose of the study was to empirically examine the impact of the utilization of organizational practices on the career progression of women. The study revealed that women who utilize promotion practices are more likely to progress even though it will take a long time to do so.	Barriers that impede women's opportunities should be a society issue. Utilization of gender practices	Being addressed by H_1 and
Organization structures Gender stereotype	Tlass, H. &Kauser, S. (2010) Perceived organizational barriers to women's career advancement in Lebanon	The purpose of the study was to examine female managers' perception of their organization in relation to women's career progression. The findings revealed that female managers perceive their career progression to be affected by organization practices	Suggested further research on similarities and differences between genders.	Being addressed by H_1 and
Gender stereotype	Booysen, A.E &Nkomo, S.M.	The purpose was to test race and gender groups'. The findings revealed	Suggested further research on	Being addressed by

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	(2010) Gender role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics	that men are less likely to attribute successful managerial characteristics to women.	the underlying causes of gender stereotyping among men. Research can also be done to examine the influence of culture on stereotyping of the managerial role.	H_1
Gender stereotype	Wood, G. (2008) Gender stereotypical attitude	The purpose of the study was to ascertain views on women career advancement. The findings revealed a pessimistic change with the view and were consistent with the view that gender stereotyping of the management role continues.	Further research to try and deconstruct the negative attitude and underlying pessimism to arrive at an equitable future for men and women in their workplace participation.	Being addressed by H_1
Family responsibilities	Ezzedeen, S.R. & Ritchey, K.G.	The purpose of the study was to employee coping strategies devised by	Further investigation of the	Being addressed by

	(2009) Career advancement and family balance strategies of executive women	executive women in family relationships to advance in their career. The research revealed that balance strategies like professional support, personal support, value system and life course strategies like ordering of career and family, negotiating spousal support, and whether to have children are some of the career balance strategies.	adaptive strategies women develop in combining executive work and family.	H_4

AppendixII

Table 1.1 Job Groups J and above by Gender

Job groups	Male	%	Female	%	Total
J-N	16,208	74.1	5,653	25.9	21,861
P	738	77	222	23	960
Q	330	78	91	22	421
R	127	76	41	24	168
S	105	72	40	28,	145
T	71	83	15	17	86
U	46	84	9	16	55
V	3	100	00	00	3

Source: MCS Ministry of State for Public Service (2010) Kenya

Appendix III

Table 3.1 Composition of sample population

Ministry	No. of women in job group				Sample size
	P & above	Sample	J-N	Sample	
Ministry of Finance	12	1	357	31	
Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development	1		1231	20	
Office of the President, Provincial Administration and Internal Security	16	1	504	43	
Ministry of Livestock	58	5	649	56	
Ministry of Justice, National Cohesion and Constitutional Affairs	41	4	180	16	
Ministry of Agriculture	35	3	394	34	
Ministry of Public Sector Reforms	7	1	15	1	
Ministry of Lands	14	1	383	33	
Ministry of State for Public Service	1	1	14	1	
Ministry of Youth and Sports	8	1	403	35	
Ministry of Public Works	4	1	67	6	
Ministry of Roads	2	1	85	7	
Ministry of Housing	10	1	39	3	
Ministry of Environment and Mineral Resources	2	1	138	12	
Ministry of Special Programmes	6	1	53	5	
2 3	**303**				
TOTAL		**326**			

APPENDIX IV: ANOVA based on level of education

Table 4.11 ANOVA based on level of education

Multiple Comparisons

LSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Education Level	(J) Education Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Interval Lower Bound	Confidence Upper Bound
Organisational Structures	Diploma	bachelors	0.1114	0.1006	0.269	-0.0869	0.3097
		Postgraduate dip	0.0922	0.2203	0.676	-0.3419	0.5263
		masters	-0.0516	0.1199	0.667	-0.2878	0.1846
	Bachelors	diploma	-0.1114	0.1006	0.269	-0.3097	0.0869
		postgraduate dip	-0.0192	0.2191	0.93	-0.451	0.4125
		masters	-0.1630	0.1176	0.167	-0.3949	0.0688
	Postgraduate dip	diploma	-0.0922	0.2203	0.676	-0.5263	0.3419
		bachelors	0.0192	0.2191	0.93	-0.4125	0.451
		masters	-0.1438	0.2286	0.53	-0.5942	0.3066
	Masters	diploma	0.0516	0.1199	0.667	-0.1846	0.2878
		bachelors	0.1630	0.1176	0.167	-0.0688	0.3949
		postgraduate dip	0.1438	0.2286	0.53	-0.3066	0.5942
Family Responsibilities	Diploma	bachelors	.38451*	0.1577	0.016	0.0736	0.6954
		postgraduate dip	-0.2410	0.3433	0.483	-0.9176	0.4356
		masters	0.1093	0.1903	0.566	-0.2658	0.4844
	Bachelors	diploma	-.38451*	0.1577	0.016	-0.6954	-0.0736
		postgraduate dip	-0.6255	0.3409	0.068	-1.2974	0.0464
		masters	-0.2752	0.1860	0.14	-0.6418	0.0913
	postgraduate dip	diploma	0.2410	0.3433	0.483	-0.4356	0.9176
		bachelors	0.6255	0.3409	0.068	-0.0464	1.2974
		masters	0.3503	0.3572	0.328	-0.3537	1.0542
	masters	diploma	-0.1093	0.1903	0.566	-0.4844	0.2658
		bachelors	0.2752	0.1860	0.14	-0.0913	0.6418
		postgraduate dip	-0.3503	0.3572	0.328	-1.0542	0.3537
Individual Characteristics	diploma	bachelors	0.1820	0.0974	0.063	-0.0099	0.3739
		postgraduate dip	-0.0164	0.2125	0.939	-0.4352	0.4024
		masters	0.1436	0.1167	0.22	-0.0864	0.3736
	bachelors	diploma	-0.1820	0.0974	0.063	-0.3739	0.0099
		postgraduate dip	-0.1984	0.2112	0.349	-0.6146	0.2178

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			Mean Diff	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower	Upper
		masters	-0.0384	0.1143	0.737	-0.2636	0.1868
	postgraduate dip	diploma	0.0164	0.2125	0.939	-0.4024	0.4352
		bachelors	0.1984	0.2112	0.349	-0.2178	0.6146
		masters	0.1600	0.2208	0.47	-0.2751	0.595
	masters	diploma	-0.1436	0.1167	0.22	-0.3736	0.0864
		bachelors	0.0384	0.1143	0.737	-0.1868	0.2636
		postgraduate dip	-0.1600	0.2208	0.47	-0.595	0.2751
Social Cultural Beliefs	diploma	bachelors	.39918*	0.1825	0.03	0.0395	0.7589
		postgraduate dip	-0.2519	0.4007	0.53	-1.0416	0.5378
		masters	0.2649	0.2180	0.226	-0.1648	0.6946
	bachelors	diploma	-.39918*	0.1825	0.03	-0.7589	-0.0395
		postgraduate dip	-0.6511	0.3983	0.104	-1.436	0.1338
		masters	-0.1343	0.2136	0.53	-0.5551	0.2866
	postgraduate dip	diploma	0.2519	0.4007	0.53	-0.5378	1.0416
		bachelors	0.6511	0.3983	0.104	-0.1338	1.436
		masters	0.5168	0.4157	0.215	-0.3025	1.3361
	masters	diploma	-0.2649	0.2180	0.226	-0.6946	0.1648
		bachelors	0.1343	0.2136	0.53	-0.2866	0.5551
		Postgraduate dip	-0.5168	0.4157	0.215	-1.3361	0.3025
Gender Stereotype Beliefs	diploma	bachelors	0.2288	0.1699	0.179	-0.106	0.5637
		postgraduate dip	-0.4840	0.3741	0.197	-1.2212	0.2532
		masters	0.2698	0.2021	0.183	-0.1285	0.668
	bachelors	diploma	-0.2288	0.1699	0.179	-0.5637	0.106
		postgraduate dip	-0.7129	0.3716	0.056	-1.4452	0.0194
		masters	0.0409	0.1975	0.836	-0.3482	0.4301
	postgraduate dip	diploma	0.4840	0.3741	0.197	-0.2532	1.2212
		bachelors	0.7129	0.3716	0.056	-0.0194	1.4452
		masters	0.7538	0.3874	0.053	-0.0096	1.5172
	masters	diploma	-0.2698	0.2021	0.183	-0.668	0.1285
		bachelors	-0.0409	0.1975	0.836	-0.4301	0.3482
		postgraduate dip	-0.7538	0.3874	0.053	-1.5172	0.0096

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

APPENDIX V: Perception of women with levels of education

Table 4.12: showing the perception of women with different levels of education on barriers to career progression

Education Level	Organization al structures	Family responsibilities	Individual characteristics	Social cultural	gender stereotype
Diploma	3.4056	3.2312	3.3618	3.637	3.3493
Bachelors	3.2942	2.8467	3.1798	3.2378	3.1205
Postgraduat e diploma	3.3134	3.4722	3.3782	3.8889	3.8333
Masters	3.4572	3.122	3.2183	3.3721	3.0795
Doctorate	2.6154	2	3.2308	2	2
Others	3.321	3.1375	3.3822	3.6842	3.1316
Total	3.361	3.0673	3.2714	3.4493	3.2096

APPENDIX VI:

One sample T-test indicating the difference between the means of the perceived variables

Table 4.13: One sample T-test indicating the difference between the means of the perceived variables

one-Sample Test

	Test Value = 3				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	P value	Mean Difference		
			Sig. (2-tailed)		**Lower**	**Upper**
Organizational structures	8.288	248	0	0.33136	0.2526	0.4101
Family responsibilities	0.445	244	0.656	0.02755	-0.0943	0.1494
Individual characteristics	6.854	245	0	0.25852	0.1842	0.3328
Coping strategies	33.086	238	0	0.76379	0.7183	0.8093
Gender stereotype	2.726	249	0.007	0.184	0.0511	0.3169
Social cultural beliefs	5.838	248	0	0.42169	0.2794	0.564

APPENDIX VII: Correlation matrix with coping strategies

Table 4.14: Correlation matrix with coping strategies

Control Variables	Organizational Structures	Family Responsibilities	Individual Characteristics	Gender Stereotype beliefs	Social Cultural beliefs	work experience	Grades moved
COPING STRATEGIES	Organizational Structures	1					
	Family Responsibilities	0.39	1				
	Individual Characteristics	0.476	0.265	1			
	Gender Stereotype	0.283	0.289	0.216	1		
	Social Cultural Beliefs	0.242	0.399	0.248	0.233	1	
	work experience	-0.038	0.025	0	-0.049	0.025	1
	Grades moved	-0.071	0.021	0.167	-0.073	0.199	0.255

APPENDIX IIIII: correlation matrix between perceived barriers, years of experience and grades moved

Table 4.15: Correlation matrix between perceived barriers, years of experience and grades

		Organizational Structures	Family Responsibilities	Individual Characteristics	Gender Stereotype	Social_Cultural	Work Experience	Grades Moved
ORGANISATIONAL_STRUCTURES	Pearson Correlation	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)							
FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES	Pearson Correlation	.454**	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000						
INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS	Pearson Correlation	.496**	.335**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000					
GENDER STEREOTYPE	Pearson Correlation	.330**	.340**	.291**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000				
SOCIAL CULTURAL	Pearson Correlation	.312**	.467**	.307**	.278**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000			
work experience	Pearson Correlation	-.055	-.010	-.016	-.065	-.026	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.394	.873	.811	.321	.692		
Grades moved	Pearson Correlation	-.115	-.021	.097	-.085	.141*	.268**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.074	.745	.138	.191	.029	.000	
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).								
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).								

APPENDIX IX: Respondents' opinion on gender bias

Table 4.16: Respondents' opinion on gender bias

Have you experienced any gender related bias which has influenced career advancement?		Test Value = 3				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
N o	Gender_ stereotype	0.038	171	0.97	0.00291	-0.1484	0.1542
	Organisational_structures	3.524	171	0.001	0.16639	0.0732	0.2596
	Family_responsibilities	-2.575	169	0.011	-0.18382	-0.3248	-0.0429
	Individual_characteristics	3.834	169	0	0.17484	0.0848	0.2649
	Social_cultural beliefs	1.849	173	0.066	0.15805	-0.0107	0.3267
Y e s	Gender_stereotype	5.342	63	0	0.69531	0.4352	0.9554
	Organisational_structures	12.106	64	0	0.72825	0.6081	0.8484
	Family_responsibilities	4.877	62	0	0.55556	0.3279	0.7833
	Individual_characteristics	7.554	63	0	0.50351	0.3703	0.6367
	Social_cultural	9.629	63	0	1.08594	0.8606	1.3113

APPENDIX X: Questionnaire for women in top management

Personal Profile

1. Position occupied………………………………………………………………

2. Education: indicate level or qualification, and year of attainment;

    A. Diploma   [ ]   year…………………

    B. Bachelors   [ ]   year…………………

    C. Post Graduate Diploma   [ ]   year…………………

    D. Masters   [ ]   year…………………

    E. Doctorate   [ ]   year………….……..

    F. Others specify………………………. year…………………

3. Marital status:

    A. Married   [ ]

    B. Single   [ ]

    C. Divorced   [ ]

    D. Separated   [ ]

    E. Widowed   [ ]

4. Husband's occupation………………………………………………………

5. Number of children……………………………………………………….

6. State ages of children according to birth

    Child   Age

    Child 1   ……..

    Child 2   ……..

    Child 3   ……..

Child 4 ……..

Child 5 ……..

Child 6 ……..

SECTION A: GENDER STEREOTYTPE

7. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the five point statements.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
A	Men have positive attitude towards women					
B	Men judge women fairly					
C	Women's ideas are seriously listened to and implemented in the organization					
D	Women are considered care givers and home makers and men as bread winners and leaders					
E	Stereotype dictates the appropriateness of various occupations for females and males					
F	Attributes such as achievement, orientation, forcefulness and strength in decision making are commonly ascribed to men					
G	Good manager is described					

	predominantly in masculine terms.					
H	Men perceive women as weaker sex					

8. In your opinion how do women achieve top positions?

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9. Have you experienced any gender related bias which as influenced your

career

advancement?...

....

....

....

10. Do you think men still assume the most authoritative and influential roles

in organizations?

    Yes [ ]   No   [ ]

11. What attributes are associated with

  a) Male job

    ……………………………………………………………………

    ……………………………………………………………………

    ………………………………

  b) Female job

…………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………

SECTION B: SOCIAL CULTURAL BELIEFS

12. Please indicate the extent that you agree with the five factor statements.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
A	Cultural beliefs are hostile to women career advancement					
B	Men do not like sharing authority with women					
C	Traditional attitude of women as weaker sex has an effect on their career progress					
D	As a woman I feel discriminated because of my sex					
E	It violates societal norms for a woman to work outside the home					

13. In what ways have the traditional attitude of women as weaker sex (suited

for supportive and subordinate roles to men) been a barrier to your

advancement...

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14. What social-cultural factors have facilitated or limited your advancement?

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
A	My organization does not rely on merit based recruitment					
B	Women receive fewer opportunities for professional development at work					
C	Women receive unfair judgment regarding their work performance compared to men					
D	Women are discriminated against promotion because of sex					
E	Women lack mentors					
F	Organizations lack policies to support women career progression					
G	It is not easy for women to establish informal networks					
H	Promotions to the next grade					

	is not based on performance					
I	Male hierarchies are more likely to promote men for managerial positions than women					
J	Men are promoted faster than women					
K	Inhospitable organizational culture acts as a barrier to women career progress.					
L	Lack of women in general/ line management hinder women career progress.					
M	Lack of understanding among employers of the value of gender diversity at senior levels impede women career progress					
N	Employers lack commitment to creating an environment in which female executives excel					
O	Workplace culture and values make it easier for men to succeed than women					

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SECTION C: ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES

15. Please indicate your   level of management

    A. Middle   [ ]
    B. Senior   [ ]

16. How many years of work experience do you have in your current position?

………………………………………………………………………………

17. How many grades have you moved since you joined this organization?

    A. None   [ ]
    B. 1   [ ]
    C. 2   [ ]
    D. 3   [ ]
    E. More than 3 [ ]

18. Please indicate the extent you agree with the five factor statements.

19. Does your company have equality policies? If yes which policies?

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

20. Are the above mentioned policies implemented in the organization?

    A. Always   [ ]
    B. Sometimes   [ ]
    C. Rarely   [ ]
    D. Never   [ ]
    E. Don't know   [ ]

21. Why do women leave organisations?

…………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………

SECTION D: FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES

22. Please indicate the extent you agree with the five factor statements.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Strongly agree
A	Women are not able to balance work with family responsibilities					
B	Husbands do not support their spouses careers					
C	Women of child bearing ages tend to be by passed for promotion and other opportunities.					
D	Women hesitate to take up promotional opportunities for fear of conflict with family and domestic responsibilities					
E	Many women leave organizations to spend more time with their families					
F	Presence of a partner and					

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Strongly agree
G	Breaks in employment such as maternity leave/ caring for dependants slow down women career progression					
H	Lack of support from family and friends impede women career progress.					

(continued from previous: "children affect the participation of women in paid work")

SECTION E: INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

23. Please indicate the extent you agree with the five point statements.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Strongly agree
A	Women hesitate to take up promotion opportunities					
B	Women are not able to gain credibility from peers, supervisors and senior managers					
C	Women lack education required for holding leadership positions					
D	Negative self perception has constrained women					

	career progress					
E	Women lack professional confidence and have low self esteem					
F	Women are not pro-active and supportive of other women					
G	Women do not favorably compete with men for senior positions					
H	Women are not committed to their work					
I	Women are not able to take fulltime career					
J	Women traits are described as weak and passive.					
K	Women are less equipped in skills or temperament to handle the arduous role of a senior manager.					
L	Women lack ideas of their future career goals					
M	Women are not hard-working					

24. Do   women aspire to reach the executive status in this organization?

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A. Yes   [ ]

B. No   [ ]

25. Please explain your answer

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………………………………………………………………

……………

SECTION F: COPING STRATEGIES

26. Please indicate the extent that you agree with the five –point statements.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
A	Where family demands are concerned, ambitious women seldom rely on organizational support					
B	Many women executives and those in elite occupations cope by making discreet choices between career and family					
C	Women have developed androgynous interpersonal style with which both male and					

	female counterparts are at ease					
D	In career domain, ambitious women develop social networks and enter mentoring relationships					
E	Successful women have influential mentors to support their challenging assignments and ensuring that they consistently exceed performance expectation					
F	Women managers do not regard family responsibilities as an obstacle in their careers					

27. Which are the typical personality and character trait that propel women into top positions in this sector?

………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………

28. What are some of the sacrifices that you had to make while working your way to the top?

………………………………………………………………………...……………

………………………………………………………………………….……………

………………………………………………………………………….……………

………………………………………………………………………….……………

SECTION G: CAREER PROGRESS

29. To what degree is the following tools, resources and initiatives if any, helped you to overcome the barriers to career advancement that female face? Please respond to each one:

		Not at all	A little	Neutral	A lot	Not Applicable
A	Persistence/ Determination					
B	Networking/ Develop contacts/ Attend functions					
C	Competence/ Expertise/ Skills					
D	Hard work					
E	Attitude/ Confidence/ Know your own worth					
F	Supportive family/Friends/					

	Spouse/ Colleagues					
G	Taking initiative/ Creating opportunities					
H	Interpersonal skills					
I	Tolerance/ Learned to play the game					
J	Balancing work and life					
K	Disregard barriers					
L	Having vision/ seeing bigger picture					
M	I have not encountered barriers					
N	Sacrificing personal life					
O	Show professionalism					

30. In what job group did you enter the civil service?

……………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………

31. Please give detail of the last three positions held.

       Position   Organization / Institution   Duration

  1. ……………………. …………………………   ………………….

2. …………………… ……………………….. ………………….

3. …………………… ……………………….. ………………….

32. Please indicate the extent that you agree with the five-point statements.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
A	Women who have progressed in their career have the relevant work experience					
B	Most women in senior positions have advanced their education levels and have appropriate training					
C	Most women in senior positions change their institutions.					
D	Women who progress have high aspirations and career goals.					
E	Women who progress demonstrate competency on the job producing high quality work.					
F	Women who progress have high interpersonal / people skills					
G	Women who progress are committed/dedicated/ perseverance					
H	Women who progress are given opportunity and support from the company.					

I	Women who progress are always willing to learn new things and take responsibilities					
J	Women who progress are hard working					
K	Most women who progress have self- confidence					
L	Successful women always exceed performance expectation					
M	Women who progress seek out difficult or high – visibility assignments					

33. Briefly explain what factors may have hindered your career advancement?

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

APPENDIX XI: Interview guide for Human Resource Managers in various ministries.

1. How can you assess the general attitude of the state towards the advancement of women?

2. What are some of the gender related hurdles women meet when trying to advance their career?

3. What challenges do women encounter in regard to taking advantage of training opportunities?

4. Are there policies which facilitate or limit women's access to further education and training? What are they?

5. Do the training programs carried out in your ministry have gender dimension?

6. What are the policies which facilitate or limit women's mobility?

    a) Between levels or an organization

    b) To certain sectors of the labor market

7. To what extent has government sponsored national meetings on the subject of policies for   advancing women's status?

8. To what extent has the ministry organized networking for sharing information on women's issues?

9. What are the employment policies which govern women's employment or advancement?

Visa-a-vis

    a) Requirement for promotion

    b) Work hours

    c) Recruitment

d) Training

e) Performance appraisals.

10. In your opinion as concerns this ministry what would you say are some of the key barriers to employing women in this ministry?

11. What would you say are the unique challenges that women face in this sector both as ordinary employees and top level management?

12. How many women are there in this organization?

13. Please tell me the number of women and men in management level positions in this organization?

14. Do women aspire to reach the executive status in this organization?

15. Do you think the women in junior level positions are prepared for more senior management position in your organizations? .Please explain your answer

16. Which are the typical; personality and character traits that propel women into top positions in this ministry?

18. What are the potentials strategies that organizations can employ to facilitate women's capacity to take up top executive positions?

19. Does having a family affect the woman's performance?

APPENDIX XII: Budget

	Item Description	Estimate in Ksh	Cost in Ksh	Remarks
1.	Photocopying of research instruments	1,000		
2.	Proof reading and editing the proposal	2,000		
3.	Photocopying and binding the proposal	1,000		
4.	Transport and subsistence during the pilot study	10,000		
5.	Transport and subsistence during data collection	30,000		
6.	Data analysis cost	40,000		
7.	Report writing Printing and binding final copies	15,000		
8.	Research assistants	30,000		
9.	Miscellaneous expenses	20,000		
	TOTAL COST	**150,000**		

APPENDIX XIII: Work Plan

Session 1	
Registration and payment of fees	February 2011
Assignment of supervisors and development of the concept paper	March - April 2011
Development of the proposal	April - July 2011
Session 2	
Presentation and correction of the proposal	August – September 2011
Approval of the proposal by school of post graduates	October - November2011
Testing of the research instruments	December 2011
Obtaining the relevant research permits	January 2012
Session 3	
Data collection	May-June2012
Data analysis, presentation and discussion	July-August 2012
Thesis writing and submission to the external examiner	September-December2012
Presentation of the final copies and preparation for graduation	January 2013-April 2013

APPENDIX XIV: Government Ministries

Data presentation on recruitment and promotion of women in civil service as at

31st December 2009.

Table 1: Ministry of Immigration and Registration of persons by job group and sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	%Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	6	13	19	31.6
J-N	459	792	1,251	36.7
H and Below	1,939	2,364	4,303	45.1
Total	**2,404**	**3,170**	**5,574**	**43.1**

Table 2: Ministry of State for National Heritage and Culture by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	4	11	15	26.7
J-N	79	91	170	46.5
H and Below	90	96	186	48.4
Total	**173**	**199**	**372**	**46.5**

Table 3: Ministry of State for Development of Northern Kenya and Other Arid Lands by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	1	0	1	100
P+	1	5	6	16.7
J-N	13	13	26	50.0

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
H and Below	6	10	16	37.5
Total	**21**	**28**	**49**	**42.9**

Table 4: Ministry of State for Defence by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	1	0	1	100
P+	6	6	12	50.0
J-N	131	64	195	67.2
H and Below	641	1,355	1,996	32.1
Total	**778**	**1,425**	**2,203**	**35.3**

Table 5: Ministry of Energy by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	3	13	16	18.3
J-N	35	69	104	33.7
H and Below	79	96	175	45.1
Total	**117**	**179**	**296**	**39.5**

Table 6: Ministry of Higher Education by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	8	35	43	18.6
J-N	64	87	151	42.4
H and Below	69	65	134	51.5
Total	**141**	**188**	**329**	**42.9**

Table 7: Ministry of Water and Irrigation by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	2	25	27	7.4
J-N	226	1,445	1,671	13.5
H and Below	520	2,181	2,701	19.3
Total	**748**	**3,652**	**4,400**	**16.8**

Table 7: Ministry of Cooperative Development and Marketing by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	10	24	34	29.4
J-N	182	402	584	31.2
H and Below	211	225	436	48.4
Total	**403**	**652**	**1,055**	**38.2**

Table 8: Office of President Internal Security & Provincial Administration by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	16	137	153	10.4
J-N	504	794	1,298	38.8
H and Below	3,746	11,529	15,275	24.5
Total	**3,991**	**12,807**	**16,798**	**23.8**

Table 9: Ministry of Environment and Mineral Resources by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	2	44	46	4.3
J-N	138	569	707	19.5
H and Below	152	224	376	40.4
Total	**292**	**839**	**1,129**	**25.9**

Table 10: Ministry of Forestry and Wildlife by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	1	10	11	9.1
J-N	20	12	32	62.5
H and Below	33	40	73	45.2
Total	**54**	**65**	**119**	**45.3**

Table 11: Ministry of Livestock by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	58	282	340	17.1
P+	649	2,401	3,050	21.3
J-N	649	2,401	3,050	21.3
H and Below	867	1,346	2,213	39.2
Total	**1,574**	**4,030**	**6,604**	**28.1**

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Table 12: Ministry of Public Works by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	1	0	1	100
P+	4	22	26	15.4
J-N	67	596	663	10.1
H and Below	336	877	1,213	27.7
Total	**408**	**1,495**	**1,903**	**21.4**

Table 13: Ministry of Tourism by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	1	0	1	100
P+	4	8	12	33.3
J-N	44	75	119	37.0
H and Below	36	39	75	48.0
Total	**84**	**122**	**206**	**40.8**

Table 14: Ministry of State for Civil services by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	11	24	35	31.4
J-N	4	20	24	16.7
H and Below	9	19	28	32.1
Total	**24**	**64**	**88**	**27.3**

Table 15: Ministry of Justice, National Cohesion and Constitutional Affairs by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	1	0	1	100
P+	41	38	79	51.9
J-N	180	167	347	51.9
H and Below	195	211	406	48.0
Total	**417**	**416**	**833**	**50.1**

Table 16: Ministry of Finance by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	12	25	37	32.4
J-N	357	845	1,202	29.7
H and Below	436	769	1,205	36.1
Total	**805**	**1,640**	**2,445**	**32.9**

Table 17: Ministry of Fisheries Development by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	2	9	11	18.2
J-N	53	218	271	19.6
H and Below	184	280	464	39.7
Total	**239**	**508**	**747**	**32.0**

Table 18: Ministry of Local Government by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	1	16	17	5.9
J-N	46	94	140	32.9
H and Below	49	56	105	46.7
Total	**96**	**167**	**263**	**36.5**

Table 19: Ministry of Trade by Job Group and Sex, December 2009.

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	9	28	37	24.3
J-N	103	213	316	32.6
H and Below	110	112	222	49.5
Total	**222**	**354**	**576**	**38.5**

Table 20: Ministry of Planning, National Development and Vision 2030 by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	8	31	39	20.5
J-N	117	192	309	37.9
H and Below	170	194	364	46.7
Total	**295**	**418**	**713**	**41.4**

Table 21: Ministry of East African Community by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	2	11	13	15.4
J-N	28	25	53	52.8
H and Below	22	25	47	46.8
Total	**52**	**62**	**114**	**45.6**

Table 22: Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	1	0	1	100
P+	15	54	69	21.7
J-N	149	249	398	37.4
H and Below	219	234	453	48.3
Total	**384**	**537**	**921**	**41.7**

Table 23: Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	16	10	26	61.5
J-N	231	325	556	41.5
H and Below	418	403	821	50.9
Total	669	738	1,407	47.5

Table24: Ministry of Information and Communication by Job Group and Sex, December 2009.

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	8	25	33	24.2
J-N	103	208	311	33.1
H and Below	127	163	290	43.7
Total	238	397	635	37.5

Table25: Ministry of Youth and Sports by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	8	34	42	19.1
J-N	403	1,386	1,789	22,5
H and Below	765	2,117	2,882	26.5
Total	1,176	3,538	4,714	24.9

Table 26: Ministry of Housing by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	10	21	31	32.3
J-N	39	106	145	26.9
H and Below	84	181	265	31.7
Total	**133**	**309**	**442**	**30.1**

Table 27: **Ministry of Lands by Job Group and Sex, December 2009**

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	1	0	1	100
P+	14	34	48	29.2
J-N	383	759	1,142	33.5
H and Below	792	1,311	2,103	37.7
Total	**1,190**	**2,104**	**3,294**	**36.1**

Table 28: Ministry of Special Programmes by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	6	33	39	15.4
J-N	53	74	127	41.7
H and Below	49	58	107	45.8
Total	**108**	**166**	**274**	**39.6**

Table 29: **Ministry of Agriculture by Job Group and Sex, December 2009**

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	35	266	301	13.2
J-N	394	2,157	2,551	18.3
H and Below	2,162	2,062	4,224	51.2
Total	**2,591**	**4,486**	**7,077**	**36.6**

Table 30: Ministry of Public Sector Reform and Performance Contracting Staff by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	7	14	21	33.3
J-N	15	5	20	75.0
H and Below	9	18	27	33.3
N/A	3	3	6	50.0
Total	**34**	**41**	**75**	**45.3**

Table 31: Ministry of Roads by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	2	23	25	8.0
J-N	85	574	659	12.9
H and Below	531	1,862	2,393	22.2
Total	**618**	**2,459**	**3,077**	**20.1**

Table 32: Ministry of Transport by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	4	11	15	26.6
J-N	45	37	82	54.8
H and Below	53	65	118	44.9
Total	**102**	**114**	**216**	**47.2**

Table 33: Ministry of Industrialization by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	1	11	12	8.3
J-N	7	18	25	28.0
H and Below	83	93	176	48.0
Total	**90**	**120**	**210**	**42.9**

Table 34: Ministry of Civil service by Job Group and Sex, December 2009

Job Group	Female	Male	Total	% Female
PS	0	1	1	0
P+	11	24	35	31.4
J-N	4	20	24	16.7
H and Below	9	19	28	32.1
Total	**24**	**63**	**87**	**27.6**

Table 35: Distribution of Provincial Administration by Sex

	Designation	Male	Female	Total	% Percent
1.	Provincial Commissioners (JGT)	7	1	8	12.5
2.	Senior Area Deputy PCs JGS	21	2	23	8.7
3.	District Commissioners JG P,Q,R	88	6	94	6.4
4.	District Commissioners J,G,M,N	123	14	137	10.2
5.	District Officers J,G,J,K,M,N	701	164	865	19.0
6.	Chiefs J,G,H, K, L,M	2,483	96	2,579	3.7
7.	Assistant Chiefs J,G,F,G	5,438	458	5,896	7.8
	Total	**8,861**	**741**	**9,602**	**7.7**

Source: Ministry of Gender Bi- Annual Report, 2010