FACTORS AFFECTING WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP POSITION IN PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS: A CASE STUDY OF KENYATTA UNIVERSITY

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JULY 2018
DECLARATION

Declaration by the Student

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

Njenga Wanjiku Tabitha Signature…………………………..Date…………

BML/13/00482/1/2016

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

Daniel Komu Signature………………………………Date……………

Management University of Africa
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my beloved family, My Son Gabriel, The Njenga’s, My Father, My Mother, My brothers Stanley, Simon and Samuel, My sister Tamar, My sister in law, Esther, my 5 nieces Grace, Joan, Lysette and Lysmar,

Winnie and Nephew Jayden whose love and unwavering support have been a pillar in pursuit of this course. Be blessed always.
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First acknowledgement goes to all my family members for their moral support throughout this project; I also thank my friends for their support too. Secondly, I acknowledge my research supervisor Mr. Daniel Komu for his professional advice and patience throughout this project. I would like to thank the entire MUA staff for their continued support. Thank you all for it is everyone’s individual support that has contributed to my success in finishing the project. Lastly, I thank the management of Kenyatta University for their assistance and thank you all for it is everyone’s individual support that has contributed to my success in finishing the project.
ABSTRACT

This research study aims at factors affecting women in Leadership position in Public Organization with reference to the Kenyatta University. The specific objectives of the study were to determine the effects of organization culture on women in leadership position in public organization Culture, family roles, networking and Training opportunities. This study will be significant to the management of Kenyatta University Kenya, other universities and future researchers. The study covered a population of 104 women in leadership positions in the university and used stratified random sampling where 50% of the target population formed the sample size. The researcher used descriptive research design. Questionnaires were used to collect primary data. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used for analysis and data was presented in tables and figures.

A population of 93% of the respondents agreed that organization culture affects women in Leadership position in public organization whereas 7% of the respondents disagreed. A population of 95% of respondent indicated that family roles affects women in leadership position while 5% indicated that it does not affect. Majority, 86% agreed that networking affects women in leadership position whereas 14% of the respondents disagreed. A population of 95% indicated that training opportunities does affect women in leadership position in public organization while 5% disagreed. From this, family roles and training opportunities does affect women in leadership position in public organization to a large extent.

Based on the findings, the researcher recommends that the university should adopt a culture that empowers its employees. On the issue of family roles, women employees due to the relatively low wage level should be provided with “full-time” earnings needed for most of the families to ensure the appropriate living conditions. The organizations should provide a working environment that is favorable for every employee to work well and enable women employee to initiate network relationships. Finally, the organization should also put up appropriate training programs to keep its employees updated with the current job requirements. It is also recommended that employees should be involved in decision making to achieve organizational goals because it affects women in the organization.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION ........................................................................................................... II
DEDICATION ............................................................................................................. III
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT ............................................................................................ IV
ABSTRACT ................................................................................................................ V
TABLE OF CONTENTS ............................................................................................ VI
LIST OF TABLES ...................................................................................................... VIII
LIST OF FIGURES ................................................................................................... IX
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS .................................................................. X
OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS ............................................................. XI

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction ...................................................................................................... 1
1.2 Background of the Study .................................................................................. 3
1.3 Statement of the Problem .................................................................................. 4
1.4 Objectives of the Study ..................................................................................... 5
1.5 Research Questions/Hypothesis ....................................................................... 5
1.6 Significance of the Study .................................................................................. 6
1.7 Limitations of the Study .................................................................................. 6
1.8 Scope of the Study ............................................................................................ 7
1.9 Chapter summary ............................................................................................. 7

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction ...................................................................................................... 8
2.2 Theoretical Literature Review ......................................................................... 8
2.3 Empirical literature review .............................................................................. 31
2.4 Summary and research gaps .......................................................................... 32
2.5 Conceptual Framework .................................................................................... 33
2.6 Operationalization of variables ....................................................................... 33
2.7 Chapter summary ............................................................................................ 34
REFERENCES

APPENDICES

Appendix - I – Letter of Introduction
Appendix –II Questionnaire
LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Target Population ................................................................. 43
Table 3.2 Sample Size .......................................................................... 44
Table 4.1 Response Rate ........................................................................ 46
Table 4.2 Highest Level of Education ...................................................... 47
Table 4.3 Age Bracket ............................................................................ 48
Table 4.4 Years Worked In the Organization ......................................... 49
Table 4.5 Levels of Management ............................................................ 50
Table 4.6 Whether Organization Culture Affects Women in Leadership Position... 51
Table 4.7 Extent Organization Culture Affects Women in Leadership Position ...... 52
Table 4.8 Whether Family Roles Affects Women in Leadership Position .......... 53
Table 4.9 Extent Family Roles Affects Women in Leadership Position .......... 54
Table 4.10 Whether Networking Affects Women in Leadership Position .......... 55
Table 4.11 Extent Networking Affects Women in Leadership Position .......... 56
Table 4.12 Whether Training Affects Women in Leadership Position .......... 57
Table 4.13 Extent Training Affects Women in Leadership Position .......... 58
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1  Organizational Structure ................................................................. 5
Figure 2.1  Conceptual Frameworks ................................................................. 30
Figure 4.1  Response Rate .................................................................................. 35
Figure 4.2  Highest Level of Education ............................................................. 36
Figure 4.3  Age Bracket .................................................................................... 37
Figure 4.4  Years Worked In the Organization .................................................... 38
Figure 4.5  Levels of Management .................................................................... 39
Figure 4.6  Whether Organization Culture Affects Women in Leadership Position 40
Figure 4.7  Extent Organization Culture Affects Women in Leadership Position ... 41
Figure 4.8  Whether Family Roles Affects Women in Leadership Position ........... 42
Figure 4.9  Extent Family Roles Affects Women in Leadership Position ............... 43
Figure 4.10  Whether Networking Affects Women in Leadership Position .......... 44
Figure 4.11  Extent Networking Affects Women in Leadership Position ............. 45
Figure 4.12  Whether Training Affects Women in Leadership Position .............. 46
Figure 4.13  Extent Training Affects Women in Leadership Position ................. 47
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BMCC</td>
<td>British Medical Consulting Centre</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<td>ISO</td>
<td>International Organization Standards</td>
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<td>NRB</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
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<td>MUA</td>
<td>Management of Africa</td>
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction
Chapter one of this study will discuss the background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives that the study would meet, research questions, justification of the study, scope of the study and chapter summary.

1.2 Background to the study
Women in any active organizational setting have a right to participate and venture into leadership positions. Researchers from different parts of the world (Kagoda, 2010) have given close attention to women in leadership positions at various hierarchy of the organizational ladder. Most studies done Many studies have inferred that women who hold leadership positions do not hold one third gender rule in most organizations and have always battled their way up to retain their positions. Consequently, many studies showcase that women bring forth a new dimension of leadership to the table compared to men.

From a global perspective, it is apparent to note that women are underrepresented in most key leadership positions even though most of them are qualified to lead top positions in organization. However, this mainly depends on organizational culture practiced in various organizations with exception of few countries. A recent study by the American Association of University Professors (2006) revealed that among the top 12 universities with the highest women professors, only half of them constitute women professors, namely 68.8% and 72.7%. The other women professors range between 37.5% to 48%. The bottom twelve universities had percentages of women representation ranging from 7.6 to 15.9 (Brown 2008).

Neville (2008) revealed that women in leadership are faced by stumbled block which included the choices the women make, namely some opt out of full-time professional work to keep the home fires burning, and also gender bias in leadership opportunities. In addition Neville (2008) accosted to the fact that careers are waylaid by gender stereotypes, also gender bias in evaluation and mentoring, gender differences in family responsibilities, inadequate workplace structures and public policies. Women do not address these issues which in turn leads to psychological glass ceiling. Thus,
most of them are demoralized to engage themselves in promotional initiatives or even taking risks to occupy top leadership positions.

Kiamba (2008) found that 94.1% of the female respondents had not applied for promotion. He also studied the readiness of female leaders in Western Kenya rural regions and confirmed that women leaders were reluctant to take up leadership responsibilities.

Kiamba further discovered that most women lack moral supports from leaders, they faced stiff competition from male leaders and cultural dynamics affected their chances of being elected to hold leadership positions. It was also evident that insufficient training programs to support and promote women aspiring for leadership positions was also a major issue. Kiamba (2008) claim that when women believe that they are disadvantaged, they may be less likely to express an interest in vacant top management jobs than equally qualified men.

Historically, leadership has carried the conception of masculinity and the belief that men make better leaders than women (Kiamba 2008). Public opinion in most rural areas always favour male leaders based on the fact that they can be managed easily compared to women leaders especially in boardroom matters where political influence seals the deal. However, recent developments in organizational gender rule has created opportunities for aspiring women leaders to take over leadership positions that were mainly dominated by male employees.

Changes taking place in today’s organizations has created leadership opportunities for many women aspiring for leadership roles especially in organization administration and management. Organizations having male dominated workforce are experiencing changes in leadership in an event that has seen first female managers arise from competitive male dominated positions.

Organizational leaders act a barrier to many changes happening within an organization that affect staff and other stakeholders (Garcia, 2008). With reference to the Oxford English Dictionary (2009), a buffer is a thing or person that reduces a shock or protects somebody/something against difficulties”.

2
Once women leaders assume appointment as managers, they find themselves in a completely new work environment with a lot of commitment, roles, problems and responsibilities. In many circumstances, they are forced to comply with public pressure and key responsibilities that come with their title roles to handle complaints emanating from the staff and the society at large. Thus, administrative duties require competent skills, hard work, consistency, patience and working long hours which is stressful depending on an organizational setting. In as much what constitutes organization leaders is gender balance, women leaders have their own challenges such as family and home responsibilities.

1.2.1 Profile of Kenyatta University

Kenyatta University is home to some of the world's top scholars, researchers and experts in diverse fields. The university prides itself in providing high quality programmes that attract individuals who wish to be globally competitive. To achieve this, the university invested heavily in infrastructure and facilities to offer their students the best experience in quality academic programmes under a nurturing environment in which our students learn and grow. Kenyatta University is one of the leading universities in Kenya judging by the quality of their graduates. The aim of the university is not only to maintain this position, but to improve further and attain the vision of becoming a world-class university that is committed to quality and relevance.

Towards this noble end, Kenyatta University has established meaningful links with industrial partners, who guide the University on practical, professional requirements which need to be built into programmes at Kenyatta University. As a result, the University's courses give our graduates a distinct advantage in the workplace. Already, many of our graduates are exposed to new employment opportunities by accessing industrial attachments during their study, or through course related placements. The vision of Kenyatta University is to be a dynamic, an inclusive and a competitive centre of excellence in teaching, learning, research and service to humanity. Its mission is to provide quality education and training, promote scholarship, service, innovation and creativity and inculcate moral values for sustainable individual and societal development.
1.3 Statement of the problem

From the background it is noted that there exist disparity on gender representation in top leadership positions worldwide. It is noted that this disparity is not as a result of qualification, skills or talents but rather on the basis of gender discrimination. This disparity has led to under representation of women in major decision-making positions hence lack of equity in opportunity distribution in all sectors.

The ILO report of 2008 indicate that despite women forming 50% of the world’s population, only a partly 2-3% have managed to break the glass ceiling in top leadership. This incongruity has continued despite the fact that women are equally if not more qualified than men, they possess the required technical knowhow and are
more than willing to serve in the top corporate leadership. This gender imbalance has continued to exist despite passing of several legislations by governments to provide for gender balancing. Several international declarations have also been made to address this disparity over the years but very little change if any has been achieved to this end.

In view of the above highlight this study explored the forces behind this disparity; it sought to establish the factors that influence the progression of women in top leadership positions in Kenya despite the many concerted efforts being made to bridge this imbalance.

1.4 Objectives of the Study
The general objective of the study is to establish the factors affecting women in leadership position in public organizations in Kenya.

1.4.1 The specific objectives were as follows:

i. To determine the effect of organization culture on women in leadership position in public organization.

ii. To establish the effect of family roles on women in leadership position in public organization.

iii. To examine the effect of networking on women in leadership position in public organization.

iv. To determine the effect of training opportunities on women in leadership position in public organization.

1.5 Research questions

i. How does organizational culture affect women in leadership position in public organization?

ii. What are the effects of family roles on women in leadership position in public organization?

iii. How does networking affect women in leadership position in public organization?

iv. To what extent do training opportunities affect women in leadership position in public organization?
1.6 Significance of the study

1.6.1 The Management of Kenyatta University

The study is therefore vital for institutional authorities in understanding the obstacles those women leaders’ encounters. An apprehension of this situation is very important in deciding on appointment and guaranteeing equal employment opportunities (EEO) for women. The study is envisaged to make contribution in the following areas. To the organization understudy, the findings will be beneficial to the University management on the factors affecting women holding leadership position in Kenyatta University.

1.6.2 Other Universities in Kenya

To other organizations in the same capacity, the study will impart information on the challenges women in leadership faces as an individual and help it counter the challenges.

1.6.3 Other Researchers

The findings will also aid scholars and other students who may be interested in ensuing studies in this field; it will provide a basis for further investigations and conclusive study on women issues.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

1.7.1 Confidentiality

The organization policy on information dispensation was stringent and only senior or authorized personnel have access to it. The respondents were not willing to give out the information bearing in mind that the information may not be kept classified. The researcher explained that the research was meant strictly for academic purposes but not for anything else.

1.7.2 Lack of Co-operation

In pursuit of this study, several limitations were detected. Some employees did not answer all the questions in the questionnaire. Some employees feared that the information they would give could be accessed by their supervisors and this would affect their willingness to fill all the questions honestly. Some employees have limited access to materials and files related to women in leadership position in public organizations hence lack of proper information. The researcher however clarified the study was for academic purpose only.
1.8 Scope of the Study
This research was limited to the factors affecting women in leadership position in public organizations with reference to Kenyatta University which is located along Thika road, Nairobi. The study covered top level management, middle level management, and lower level Management. The research study was carried out within a period of five months January 2018 to July 2018 with a target population of 104 women employees.

1.9 Chapter Summary
In chapter the introduction, background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study; the general and specific objectives, research questions, justification of study and the scope of the study are covered.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This chapter reviews the various past studies that has been carried out in relation to women in leadership position in public organizations. The chapter presents the various literatures existing in the subject in terms of introduction, theories anchored to the study’ theoretical reviews, critical reviews, summary and conclusion.

2.2 Theoretical Literature review
2.2.1 Organization Culture
Culture, the shared “symbols, beliefs and patterns of behaviour is overlooked and operates almost gradual in a society. It does not disclose itself easily and can be invisible to insiders. Rutherford (2001) maintains that even though it is hard to identify cultural barriers that are not a reason to keep them unrevealed or un-researched. Findings in her two case studies on organization culture, through its different constituents, consistently marginalizes and excludes women. Research on women’s leadership has also established that women face barriers on their way to the top jobs, and while in those positions they may experience unequal employment opportunities and role conflict as well as patriarchal attitudes towards women.

Burton (2008) affirms that organization culture constitutes values, norms and organizational practices that are common among members which in turn contributes to shaping the expected employee behavior based on the acquired norms. Such organizational practices define how what is and not valued and the authoritative powers exercised. These values hold key aspects of an organization which clearly defines success in terms of monetary terms, power or leadership status. Similarly, working long hours is also engrained within an organisations cultural practice that puts competitiveness and focus above anything else. In such circumstances, new cultural values and staff behavior influence masculine characters who dominate historical and socio-economic reasons which are highly challenged by women leaders who want to work and live other than live to work.

Shakeshaft (2010) asserts that “the major barrier to women has been a culture characterized by male dominance because all of the specific barriers identified can be traced back to a society that supports and enforces a male-dominant system”.
Shakeshaft believes that gender inequity, and such internal barriers as lack of confidence, low aspiration and low motivation, are caused by patriarchy. This ideology results in an andcentric society, which explains why senior leadership roles are occupied by men rather than women. The broader picture of indigenous culture, which is commonly charged with creating “the paradox for women who aspire to being professionally educated and to leading in an educational profession appointed to a position have to “prove their worth” as a leader by working harder and better to break away from the stereotypes associated with them in management and particularly to overcome their “domestic role stereotyping.

Coleman (2009) also argues both women and men are expected to behave consistently within their gender stereotypes. However, as leadership is mostly identified with men, women leaders “are often caught in the double bind of trying to meet the male norms while also meeting the expectation of their gender. The female leaders who behave differently from their gender stereotypes (their gender expectations are not met) are likely to be judged poorly. As a result, many female leaders experience loneliness and isolation once they are in the posts they sought. Sometimes they are not supported by their female staff, as these prefer a male in authority.

Thomas and Pullen (2010) asserts that research into organization and management is almost exclusively from a gender-neutral position but point out that critic of this lack of gender awareness are not new. Over the years, the model for successful managers is masculine and is highly dominated by stereotypes whose main purpose is to propagate male dominance in key management and leadership positions. This domination of management as being male paradigm is evident in both the theory underpinning and the actual experience of career in management.

Powell (2008) noted that women are attaining the necessary education and experience and are committed to their careers, but they still face a “glass ceiling” by studying and understanding the career development and aspirations, as well as the barriers that exist for women in middle management positions, one can learn how to facilitate the development and achievement of women with regard to higher level management positions issues that this study seek to address by establishing the barriers to women in leadership position in public organizations.
McKenna (2009) argues that it is these values and behaviors that create the kind of organization for key positions. Women and some men find such practices unacceptable because it creates a non-conducive work environment which is highly ineffective in the long run. Similarly, women find such practices in humane since they create a social economic barrier that hinders their growth and development in large organizations.

Sharma (2006) when discussing about organization culture, we are referring to the dominant culture, the themes shared most by the organizations members. Despite such prospects, organizations are sub divided into various cultural groups from various departments. Some of these cultural divisions end up forming organizational culture that is highly dominant based on values, assumptions and norms. On the contrary, opposite culture that is opposed to instilled organizational culture also emerge to balance dominance from one sub culture. When such cultures collide due to conflict of interest, they infiltrate conflict and division among employees. However, they can also influence improvement in organizational performance and work ethics since there is always somebody in check. Additionally, employees who embrace opposite culture can keep the organization in check by surveilling and critiquing cultures that dominate organizations.

They encourage constructive conflict and more creative thinking about how organization should interact with its environment. The second function of subcultures is to act as spawning grounds for emerging values that keep the organization aligned with the needs of the society. Organizations in the end should change dominant values and norms that will change organization dynamics to accommodate all members. On the contrary, sub cultures prevent employees from binding one specific set of values which in the long run helps an organization to adhere to ethical values in place.

According to Handy (2011) there are four types of cultures favored by many organizations. The first type is power culture, which controls and power emanates from the centre, it is very political and entrepreneurial; resource power and personal power are predominated; power culture serves the figure-head and leader. The second type of culture is the role culture. The third type is the task culture. The focus of task culture is on completing the jobs, and individuals’ expertise contribution are highly valued. Even though expert power dominates in organisations, other types of power
such as personal and position are also key. Thus, collaboration of both powers creates a positive bond within an organization. The fourth and the last type is person culture. It has a loose collection of individual-usually professionals-sharing common faculties.

According to Glinow (2006), organization culture can potentially influence ethical conduct. Organizations can tame and influence employee ethical behavior by employing its dominant culture. Organization culture is also potentially a source of ethical problems when it applies excessive control over employers. Organizations that instill cultural values on employees without considering potential risk it may impose on employees can undermine employee progression plans. Organization culture should be flexible enough with the societal ethical values and the culture should not be strong that it undermines individual freedom.

2.2.2 Family Role
In the first years after system transformation, differences between males’ and females’ earnings declined significantly. Data suggest that the earning gap dropped by half between 2006 and 2007; but there were no substantial changes after that: The raw gap was stabilized around 20 percent, Beer (2009). However, investigating gender pay gap in different sub-groups, important differences can be captured. First, a drop-in gender wage-gap primarily occurred in the traditional low-paid sectors (farming, food processing, construction, health care), and among middle aged employees. Second, there was an increase in gender pay-gap for occupations requiring higher education. Third, due to the drops in wages in regions of high unemployment, which hit females harder than males, in these regions earning differences have increased in the first few years of transformation.

Under the state socialism occupational welfare was a key source of entitlement. Work was not only moral obligation for women but essential welfare passport. Social security was managed by trade unions; health care as well as child care was available also at work. Welfare institutions provided by firms still exist; however, it has reduced and has become more uneven. Employers’ capacities to provide care have become more unequal, and differences in provisions between different employees within firms are growing Heery (2001). As the municipal kindergarten enrolment is concerned, it has slightly increased in the last years. In the early 1990s, 87 percent of children aged 3-6 enrolled in kindergarten and this share has climbed up to 92 percent.
by the end of the decade. This fact can make it easier for women to take a job after maternity leave. The question is whether it is “enough help” for females aiming at returning paid employment after child-birth. Previous research shows that family attributes influence women’s career chances in the socialist era. We expect that family matters exert an even larger impact on females’ employment opportunities after system transformation. According to hypothesis, for a married woman whose spouse does not work, the likelihood of becoming unemployed and experiencing status loss is larger than for a female whose partner has a paid employment.

There are three reasons behind this prediction. First, in the nineties, there was a substantial increase in educational status homogeny, especially on the two extremes of the schooling hierarchy, namely for highly and poorly educated people. Since there is a strong relationship between education and employment chance, the number of “work-poor” couples which have no employed member at all may be increasing. Second, in Africa, there are striking regional differences in the incidence of unemployment and in the employment structure, and because couples live in the same area “work-poor” families may be concentrated in certain regions. According to a prior study, spouse’s education and occupational status can be interpreted as an “informational” capital in a woman’s perspective. Thus, a partner’s non-employment results in losing in this additional capital, leading to a higher risk of becoming unemployed, and a lower chance of career improvement (Heery, 2001).

In the past, women seemed to be located in a considerably narrow range of occupations, especially in routine clerical, unskilled, and agricultural jobs. However, there is a uniform turn away from the unskilled jobs in productive branches into the jobs that require higher qualification in service and administrative sectors. Comparison of the data from 1973 and 2010 shows a growth of 22 percentage points in women’s proportion in higher and lower professional and managerial occupations, while the proportion of females in unskilled jobs have declined from 55 percent to 30 percent during this period. It is not a surprise that women are over-represented in service occupations. According to the data of last census (from 2001), 36 percent of employed females aged 15-29 have a skilled service job, but this share is much smaller for their older counterparts. But older women are overrepresented in semi- or unskilled service occupations (Heery, 2001).
With regard to the branch of industry, there were substantial changes in the last decades as well. The share of workforce in different kinds of service sectors has increased, and the proportion of industrial employment has shrunk. In 2001, it availed that 75% of women work in public sector organizations: 33 percent in governmental services, 25 percent in distributive ones (sales, transport), 10 percent in producer services (financial and business services, communication, etc.), and 4 percent in “traditional” personal services. It is also obvious that taking a job reduces the likelihood of living under poverty rate. In Central European societies for households where the head is in paid employment, the risk of poverty is almost 80 percent of the average – compared to 69 percent in EU (Stoner, 2012)

It means that in transitional countries for many. In addition to the partner’s resources, the effect of children on women’s employment opportunities remained substantial in the 1990s. In spite of different welfare measures survived the socialist times, females with Small children in particular after maternity leave have higher risks to become inactive, or if they managed to keep their job, the probability of (temporal) status loss is quite high. Especially private firms may reduce their demand for women’s labor if they have small children. All in all, what about women’s relative advantages and disadvantages compared to men’s. Official statistics show that females experienced lower risks of unemployment in the 1990s than males; however, their overall activity ratio is smaller than men’s one, due to the higher incidence of other types of inactivity. It indicates that they are more readily pushed out of the labor force during unfavorable labor market conditions, and they more frequently interrupt their employment trajectories. But it is well known from human capital literature that frequent career interruptions result in a substantial devaluation in career resources, and this may lead to a vicious circle of employment failures. So women – in spite of their lower unemployment ratio may be the “losers” of the last decade’s transitions. However, other scholars claim that women are not necessarily the victims of economic and social transformation, and, in a broader perspective, of globalization (Maventette, 2010)

In the nineties, there was a trend toward reduction in the generosity of family allowance. Although even in 1999, almost all children aged 0-17 received family allowance, the amount of benefit per child relative to average earnings, and the share
of family allowance in total household income has decreased. The question is whether
changes in the effectiveness of family benefits reduce the child poverty or not. In the
last decade, there was a relative worsening of the income position of children in
Central European countries as well. This trend accompanies by an increasing level of
targeting by attempts to exclude higher income households from the benefit system. A
recent study emphasizes that family benefits contributes to reduce significantly child
poverty; however, the pace of this reduction decreased in 1990. By the nineties,
females have become equally and, in some fields, even more educated than males;
more generations of them accumulated employment experiences, and they are
concentrated in sectors, which are hit by economic recession to less extent than other
branches of the industry. Namely, it can be assumed that for a group of women with
large amount of career resources, last decade’s transitions brought the opportunities
for becoming successful in the labor market (Stoner, 2012).

People work does not help to pull out of poverty, because work is poorly paid, or
there are not enough members of the household in paid employment, or both. While in
EU one earner in the household is sufficient to reduce the poverty risk to below
average, this is not the case in post-socialist countries. Thus, the majority of women
are enforced to take a job (if they can) to ensure the surviving of their family. The
most important reason of it is that these societies are characterized by widespread low
pay. In addition, in the last decade there was a sharp increase in earning differences
among those who do have paid employment in transition countries (Stoner, 2012).

Changes in the Gin coefficients for earnings are larger than that of household income,
even in countries where overall income inequalities have risen modestly From the
eyearly nineties until 1996, the proportion of economically active population had
decreased substantially in2007, it constituted almost 60 percent, but in the mid-
nineties only about 52 percent however, since then it has been slightly increasing. In
this respect, there is a slight leadership difference between men and women, but
among women the share of employed was always much lower than among men. Of
course, the activity rate is lower for younger people, and the pace of its temporal
decrease was also the largest for them, due to the educational expansion, on the one
hand, and to the growing difficulties concerning career entry, on the other Backal
Following 2007, earnings for middle educated females grew slower than they did for females with only primary education. In this category, however, males’ wages grew even more slowly, and the result was a nearly 10 percent drop in the earnings gap. As for the tertiary school graduates are concerned, the gap increased somewhat in the first half of the 1990s, then it became significantly wider in 2012-98.

European labor market patterns tend to contain an employment market that is flexible based on may deviate and secure labor force career for a long period.

For instance, report by OECD revealed that organizations are experiencing an increase in employment insecurity or flexibility between the eighties and the nineties. A definition of employment flexibility emphasizes its diverse character: “Flexibility policies trigger the emergence or reappearance of various forms of atypical jobs characterized by factors as diverse as working hours, the duration and type of contracts, schedules, workplace and forms of remuneration (Maventette, 2010).

The working time schedules may influence women’s opportunities to combine paid employment with family life properly. The relationship between working time and family life should be examined in a complex way. At the first sight, working time schedules with evening, nights or weekend workload may be considered disruptive to family life, since they may result in difficulties in coordination of daily schedules, of raising children or managing household. On the contrary, the schedules may offer an alternative opportunity for the co-ordination of work and family life. For instance, for some mothers with young children, weekend or evening work does not lead to serious problems in balancing between work and family, because other family members or different childcare services are available to take care of children (Armstrong, 2008)

For balancing between work and family responsibilities one of the most obvious solutions is to take a part-time job. However, part-time work may not be clearly understood by many people: Some people may view it as an advantageous work schedule which gives opportunities to supplement family income and/or helps to maintain ties to the labor market. But for others who are unable to get full-time work it is a “forced” employment status. In addition, part-time employment is an enormously varied phenomenon in Europe. In post-socialist countries, only a small part of women works in part-time jobs even in the nineties. There may be several reasons for that: In these countries, the public sector has no policy to give part-time
employment for women, and the private sector avoids creating part-time jobs because it increases their transaction costs. Private employers may feel that part-time jobs are too expensive for them, because of equal security given to these kinds of jobs as to full time jobs, but without the same amount of time invested in part-time employees Heery, (2001). And due to the relatively low wage level two “full-time” earnings are needed for most of the families to ensure the appropriate living conditions.

According to a recent study Stoner (2012), there are sharp differences between males and females concerning the incidence of work time flexibility. While part-time work is more frequent among women, all other types of temporal flexibility are over-represented among males. Some form of irregular working schedules part-time work, irregular and evening shifts are more widespread in the youngest and in the oldest cohorts, indicating that those in the weakest position in the work industry may end up having temporally flexible jobs.

In the African context, part-time employment opportunities are relatively low compared to developed countries in the European markets which experienced 16% average part time employment opportunity. A recent survey conducted by the Institute of Labor Research among enterprises retrieved part time to reports on a regular basis.

In relation to the survey, it was evident that the number of employees working for a short period of time was 2.1% from which 1.8% of them were part time employees. In the late 2010, the number of employees working less than the recommended work time rose to 2.8% which included 2% part time employees. Recent reports by Labor Force Surveys depicted that their was an increase in part time job partakers from 1996 to 2010. In the early months of 2010, part time work among employees increased by 3% of the total employment rate which was less than one quarter of the European Union on average.

According to the last census, the share of part-time employment is somewhat higher, and of course a huge gender difference is captured. In 2001, almost 9 percent of employed females worked in part-time jobs, and this proportion was only 2.8 percent for employed men. There are marked differences in the incidence of part-time work by occupational classes: It is over-represented at the two extremes of the hierarchy among females in professional and unskilled jobs (John, 2008)
According to Gupta (2008), about one third of workers have a “flexible” job contract in Africa. This group comprises people working without written contract, self-employed, and individuals with fixed-term contract. The rest is a mixture of various forms of flexible contracts, such as temporary or causal jobs. One of the most often posed questions with regard to “flexible” jobs is whether these kinds of positions constitute stepping-stones to secure employment, or they mean a way to unemployment and as a result of it to poor socio-economic status. The correct answer to this question does not exists, because in different societal contexts it may be a step to the secure labor market career, but in other circumstances it may represent a road to unemployment.

According to a current report, the majority of “flexible” jobs are filled by younger and less educated employees; and these jobs appear to be less paid than permanent ones, and sometimes give less access to sick leave, paid vacancies, and so on. About one-fourth of temporary employees become unemployed of course, it depends on the country investigated while the majority of them remain in “flexible” jobs. The likelihood of mobility into permanent jobs is the lowest for individuals with a small amount of human capital. With regard to marital instability, the most substantial increase can be detected after 2007. Divorce risk is higher when the wife has greater labor force involvement, while husband’s stronger labor market participation decreases the odds of union dissolution. Career mobility has a positive impact on the likelihood of divorce, indicating that any deviation from the status-relation between spouses at the time of marriage makes the partnership more vulnerable (Derreck, 2005).

According to prior research, women’s career chances were influenced substantially by family attributes namely, by husband’s employment status and the number of children in the last decades. A study analyzing women’s career mobility up to the early nineties showed that childless women tended to move up more frequently on the occupational ladder at their early career stages, while females with children were “obliged to postpone” their career improvement after the childbearing period Armstrong, (2008) and much of the downward occupational transitions occurred over the first childbirth break. Thus, from these two sets of occupational mobility pattern, one can outline a consistent picture on the effect of children on women’s career: A
small proportion of upward mobility occurred over child birth phases, and a larger amount of downward moves took place at this time.

For women, the amount of upward transition was the largest in the last decades when their occupational status was lower than the husbands’ job position (Heery, 2001). At the same time, if women’s status was better than the husbands’ occupational standing the odds of women’s downward move was much higher than in other cases. Consequently, the spouse’s occupational position means some kind of barrier for females’ mobility opportunities. The husband follows the economic interest of the family as long as the wife’s job position does not exceed his own occupational standing he enables his partner to move up however, if the wife’s status improves above the husband’s position, he probably pulls his partner down.

2.2.3 Networking
According to Maventette (2010) networking is the use of contacts to acquire information, advice, and referrals for the job hunt. Possible and well referenced contacts can emanate from close friends or professionals’ friendships formed through networking. Building contact based on people you are close to create a significant platform for quick consultations when job opportunities arise.

Networking has been found to make real difference in careers with the executives who were mentored early in their careers tending to make more money at a certain age and more likely to follow a career plan than those who were not mentored.

Women employees are often reluctant to initiate a relationship with a potential male mentor because such an appeal may be misconstrued as a sexual advance. And with the increasing attention being paid to sexual harassment in the workplace, male managers may be even more hesitant to take on female protégé. Formal networking and mentoring programs can help counter reluctance. In these matters, minority women seem particularly at risk. Mcgrawhill (2009), Over the past few years, the number of African American, Asian American, and Hispanic women in the U.S.workforce grew by 35%, 78%, 25%, respectively. Yet women of color hold only a small percentage of professional and managerial private-sector positions.

Women and men face different challenges as they advance through their careers. Women report greater barriers such as being excluded from informal networks than
men do, and greater difficulty getting developmental assignments and geographic mobility opportunities. Women have to be more proactive to get such assignments. Because developmental experiences like these are so important, organizations that are interested in helping female managers advance should focus on breaking down the barriers that interfere with women’s access to developmental experiences. Mcgrawhill (2009).

Armstrong (2008) many organizations, especially small companies, depend upon networking, referrals, and front-door traffic rather than on costly employment agencies and classified ads. It depends with the people somebody decides to network with. Anyone you can think of but Begin by creating a network worksheet organized into categories of people, for example, friends, classmates, BMCC alumni, faculty, parents of friends, current and former co-workers or supervisors, coaches, relatives, neighbors, members of organizations to which you belong, professional acquaintances, people you met at parties, and people who know other people through their work such as dentists, lawyers, financial planners, and bartenders. Effective networking requires preparation and practice. Before contacting people on your list, a script that describes who you are, what you are looking for in a position, and what you have accomplished relevant education, years of experience, important knowledge, skills, and traits is necessary.

According to Heery (2001) follow-up is essential to effective networking. After speaking with people about job leads or referrals; send them a letter thanking them for their help and suggestions. Updating them on the progress you have made, and ask them to keep you in mind should they learn of a job lead or think of someone who might be helpful to you after a period, contact them again? For some people, networking may seem difficult, but efforts put forth are well worth it. In today's job market, many job seekers will not find a suitable employer immediately upon graduation. Don't despair. Employer professionals from a broad cross section of the business industry, the service sector, government agencies and the military advice keep on trying-Don't give up or get discouraged, Search harder, especially in an area not directly related to your major field of study. The state of the current job market is the result of economic forces and has nothing to do with you personally.
To build an effective networking, organizations need both formal and informal networks in place. Formal networks are the type you actually join, usually with dues and regular meetings. These could include a professional association, a group like the Lion's Club, or an association of school graduates. Informal networks may include friends you run into at an annual holiday party, friends you keep up with from a former job, people from your church, mosque, or synagogue, or the people you met while white-water rafting. A good network contains both types and has a healthy mix of both. (Mcgrawhill, 2009)

Networking for career advancement means that employees can easily build solid friendship ties with family members and their acquaintances by sharing goals and interest about you would like to accomplish in the long run. This is based on the fact that many people learn about job offers by consulting or being informed by their friends or peers who are major members of individual groups which in turn instigates the growth of their individuals’ groups. The key aspect of networking with close people with important ties is to provide an avenue through which potential candidates are referred easily without strain. Despite the fact that positions may not be available, networking provides an environment that provides key information about someone’s career progression path thus candidates may be contacted easily when a job opportunity opens up. Participants will learn about taking initiative and overcoming fear which is quite common, informational interviewing, as well as potential guidelines to consider when using social networks, texting, and email for networking purposes (Mcgrawhill, 2009)

According to Backal (2009) developing networking skills is important for all women and youth, but particularly for those with limited work experiences, which is unfortunately often the case for women with disabilities. Women and young people can make informed decisions about their future when exposed to networking platforms. Networking creates opportunities that can easily be traced progressively. Backal recommends that women and youth who are afraid of forming networking groups or participating in informational interview should consider accompanying themselves in pairs. Teamwork is an important strategy that strengthens one’s ability to feel supported while navigating through career paths that require new skill sets.
2.2.4. Training Opportunities

According to Gupta (2008), training is the process of increasing the knowledge and skills for doing a particular job. It is an organized procedure by which people learn knowledge and skills for a precise course of action. The main aim of training in organizations is to close the gap job description and job competency required by the employer. Organizations employ training as a way of changing organizational behavior and performance of employees. Thus, training is a continuous improvement process. Gupta on the hand cautions that training should be liked to education and development based on the fact that training is basically for a particular skill set or job description.

Saleemi (2010) training is the process of increasing the knowledge and skill of an employee for doing a particular job. In industry, it implies imparting technical knowledge, manipulative skills, problem-solving ability and positive attitudes. The purpose of training is to enable the employees to get acquainted with their present or prospective jobs and also increase their knowledge and skills. It makes new employees more productive and efficient. It makes the old employees familiar with new machines and techniques by refreshing their knowledge.

Saleemi (2010) a well-planned and well executed training program can provide many advantages. Training in most organizations improves performance and quality of work delivered to customers. It increases the knowledge and skills of employees. As a result the productivity and performance of the organization increases. Training helps to reduce the time and cost required to reach the acceptable levels of performance, and there is no time wasted through trial and error. Training helps employees to grow faster to their career thus helping them to promotion to higher posts. This reduces employee grievances because opportunities for internal promotion are available to well trained personnel. Lastly training helps to reduce the need for close and constant supervision of workers. Employees who are well trained and equipped with competent skills works better and does not kike to shirk work. Therefore, supervisory burden is reduced and the span of supervision can be enlarged.

According to Gupta (2008) training is useful to employees as it helps to improve the self-confidence as an employee thus enabling them in how to approach and perform her job with enthusiasm. Trained employees perform better and thereby earning more.
Through training employees can develop themselves and earn quick promotion. The acquired skill sets are a valuable asset of employee and remain permanently with them.

Gupta (2008) training programs may be of different types which include orientation training, job training, promotional training, refresher training, and remedial training. Orientation training seeks to adjust newly appointed employees to the work environment. It creates self-confidence in the employee. Job training refers to training provided with a view to advance and familiarize employee with knowledge and skills for them to perform according to the required standards. On the contrary, promotional training programmes involves empowering employees to perform jobs that require technical concentration and focus. Employees showing signs of mobility and potential are selected and then trained before promotion. Refresher training comes when existing techniques become absolute due to development of better techniques. Remedial training is arranged to overcome the shortcomings in the behavior and performance of old employees. Safety training is provided to minimize accidents and damage to machinery. It involves instruction in use of safety devices and in safety consciousness.

According to Cole (2004) a training need is any short fall in terms of employee knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes against what is required by the job. All training activities must be related to specific needs of the organization and the employees. A training program should be launched only after the training needs are assessed clearly and specifically. The effectiveness of a training program can be judged only with the help of training needs identified in advance. In order to identify training needs, specifying key areas that require structural adjustment should be addressed in advance. The training needs are identified through organizational analysis, task or role analysis and manpower. Once training needs have been identified, the training staff can begin the tasks of sorting training priorities, drawing up initial plans, costing them and then submitting their drafts plans for appraisal by the senior management.

Cole (2004) asserted that training programs have achieved the aims for which they were suggested for. It aims to obtain feedback about results or output of training and use this feedback to assess the value of training, with a view to improve where
necessary. Evaluation enables organization to monitor the training program and also update or modify in future programs of training.

2.2.5 Theories on leadership and feminism

Gender Difference Theories

All the early leadership studies developed theories which emanated from the Great Man theory. Thus, the theories described men and male leaders. This had the effect of excluding women from being seen in the role of a leader. At this time, men and women were considered to have very different behaviours, skills, and attitudes, and these “differences” were thought to handicap women in their career advancement (Morrison and Von Glinow, 1990).

In the 1970s, a literature on gender differences began to be published that set out to explore the extent of differences in men’s and women’s behaviour. This research into gender differences had at its base a desire to understand whether males and females differed on a variety of traits and behaviours because of their biological determination, the implication being that differences in behaviour between men and women are innate or acquired from very early socialization. At this time, the perspective seemed to be that women were different to men and that difference appeared to be equated with deficiency (Fagenson, 1990).

In summary, this early work on gender differences reported both differences and similarities in the social behaviours, cognition, and temperament of the children in this meta-analytical study (Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974). It is apparent to inform that the review were widely reported as a finding of “no differences” in the behaviour of adults. However, more recent research into gender differences have reported that differences in behaviour, attitudes, and skills do exist in samples of adults, and that these differences may have implications for women and men at work. Differences in the specific work-related behaviours, attitudes, and skills of men and women in management have been reported, particularly in the area of leadership.

A large scale meta-analytical review of 162 studies on gender and leadership style compared the leadership styles of women and men and concluded that some differences existed. Eagly and Johnson (1990) found that male and female leaders
performed similarly in both interpersonally oriented and task-oriented styles in studies conducted in organizations. That is, women were found to be equally capable of leading in a task-oriented fashion, and men were equally capable of leading in an interpersonal manner.

However, women exhibited a more participative or democratic style, and men exhibited a more directive, autocratic style (Eagly and Johnson, 1990). Following this work, a meta-analysis of 54 studies on gender and the emergence of leaders was conducted (Eagly and Karau, 1991). This review examined research on leader emergence in groups that were initially without a leader. Findings suggested that men emerged as task-oriented leaders more than did women, although such an event was most likely in short-term groups where the tasks set involved a relatively superficial level of social interaction. On the other hand, women were found to emerge as social leaders more frequently than men. That is, women engaged more often in leadership behaviour which showed agreement with other members and solidarity of views. Therefore, gender differences in leadership styles were proposed.

However, from the early 1990s, the literature began to tie together leadership styles with specific behaviours attributed to women. Not until this time was there a shift in the literature in terms of the valuing given to female characteristics in relation to leadership, such as the finding that women exhibited a more participative or democratic style in their leadership of others (e.g. Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Rosener, 1990). As the proportion of women in management was increasing at this time (39 per cent in 1990: Powell, 1999), and women were achieving higher visibility, it is presumed that a greater recognition of women’s characteristics and a greater valuing of what women could bring to a leadership role began to occur. Hence, the gender difference literature introduced a new perspective, as women were “seen” as managers and leaders, with different leadership styles to men, but nevertheless with qualities that were believed to be of benefit to employees, and that could “increase an organization’s chances of surviving in an uncertain world” (Rosener, 1990, p. 120). Hence, the gender difference literature in this period could be seen as contributing towards women’s career advancement in management. Women at last were visible in a management forum. The next section will further explore the recent theories of
leadership and evaluate if these make a further contribution to the recognition of the skills and attributes of women in management or leadership roles.

The “Great Man” Theory
The theory of Great Man identifies leadership as an antecedent figure that represents leaders with exceptional leadership qualities. This was based on the fact that they had unique qualities that were admired and historically proved themselves to be competent leaders. As a result, the theory presents a framework that clearly explains why certain leaders were born to lead than others.

In essence, as Northouse (2016) points out, “it was believed that people were born with these traits, and that only the “great” people possessed them. Interestingly, while this particular perspective on leadership, known as the trait approach, has been challenged over the last century due primarily to its dubious focus on universality of these traits (Stoghill, 1948 as cited in Northouse, 2016), we seem to be returning to the idea of leadership based on certain measurable individual characteristics.

While Northouse (2016) offers some reasonable criticism to the continuous development of the trait approach, he focuses primarily on the subjectivity of determination of the most important traits to leadership development. Relating the authors sentiments to the study, Northhouse criticism does not highlight the essence of key challenges that is mainly related with the type of leadership trait practiced by an organization. As a result, the authors suggestion lacks important consideration on how to address gender issues experienced in workplace setting that in turn influences leadership roles in organization.

As Eagly (2007) openly suggests, more people still prefer male than female bosses despite the persistent increase of fully employed women in the workplace. Today, organizations are still asking themselves why they are reluctant to accept aspiring women leaders qualified for top positions? Does it involve certain characteristic traits or its just societal stereotype of genders that favors male leaders?

Ayman and Korabik (2010) further point out to the limitations to the current leadership theories, including the trait approach, as being largely studied in White male in the United States. The author further stipulates, “at a basic scientific level,
failure to include diverse groups in research limits the validity and generalizability of findings and the inclusivity of theories” (Ayman & Korabik, 2010).

With regards to various lines of research within the trait theory, the Big Five factor structure (Goldberg, 1990 as cited in Northouse, 2016) appears to have some significant weight in predicting leadership outcomes. The observed traits, including neuroticism, openness, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and, in particular, extraversion, are expected to exhibit a strong correlation with leadership (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002 as cited in Northouse, 2016). On the other hand, once controlling for gender and culture the same factors lack significant correlation to leadership outcomes (Marsella et al., 2000 as cited in Ayman & Korabik, 2010). As a result, organizational position that have a specific pattern of allocating gender roles does form personality traits that are correlated to leadership traits thus influencing appointment of women leaders may be constrained to more stereotypically feminine areas” (Ayman & Korabik, 2010).

It evident to note that leadership development in organizations determines personality traits that shapes leaders view on how to perceive others within the same domain. Also, organizations that comprise of leaders with similar traits can greatly affect leadership development programmes which may be influenced by their differences in terms of decision making and reasoning as well. In order to the theory to work in organizations, continuous analysis through predictor variables might display the strength of its implication and applicability in the long run. Thus, selecting leaders based on their personality traits could utilize their innate characteristics towards effective leadership development.

**Career Development Theory**

This theory explains the main reason why people decide to pursue a particular career path with an aim of finding ways to satisfy their lives and work. Even though some directors are not well conversant to career counselling and guidance, they hold a key position that could influence inclusion of women into top leadership spots especially women who find it difficult to break the career gap ceiling.

For example, organizations such as AWE provide key aspects of improving recruitment and selection process of women aspiring leadership positions in the
engineering field. According to them, three significant theories are crucial when developing careers of women leaders. These are: Super’s Developmental Stage Theory (1957; 1991) Holland’s Person-Environment Fit Theory (1997), and Social Learning Theory, emphasizing self-efficacy derived from the work of Bandura (1977) and furthered in application to careers by Lent, Brown and Larkin (1984) and Betz and Hackett (1981). The above name theories provide a contextual difference on career development and each has a share of its strengths and weaknesses that would aid success of women leaders in the engineering field. None of the theories elaborates career choice and satisfaction, but they address what theorists observe to be the most noticeable factors in leadership. They also explain how women leaders view and address career development issues from a psychological context as explained below.

The Super Development Stage Theory proposes a life span of leadership development model that is mainly centered self-centered concept rather than personality traits. The model analyses the stages of career development cyclical cycle. Thus, Super model takes into consideration of how the environment shapes personality traits that are self-centered. Yet the complexity of his understanding also makes conducting research based on this model more difficult and does not offer the kind of predictive promises many clients seek during times of career transitions (Vondracek & Porfeli, 2002).

Gender socialization acts to constrict the experiences of men and women and provides reinforcement for gender appropriate behaviors and interests, regardless of a person’s original desires (Valian, 1998), and overt and subtle discrimination will cause the final two forms of “maladaptive career development” to appear more often in the lives of all but the most advantaged.

On the other hand, employing Holland’s theory is direct way of simplifying an issue that is complex to understand. Based on this, what stands out is that many people restrain from using Holland’s theory to discover their personality and career traits that would suite their job criterion. Thus, they limit the use of Hollands methodology as a tool for determining career paths.

The last theory for developing women’s career is the Social Learning Theory. The theory has gained popularity among gender activists because of its flexibility when handling societal issues such a career development and growth across the divide.
Farmer (1997) explains the theoretical orientations of social learning theory within the career development theory of two prominent researchers namely Krumboltz (1996) and (Lent, Brown, and Larkin, 1996). The authors devised a mechanism of using social learning theory to for Bandura’s social learning theory. They highlighted key ideas that were firmly related to learning such as understanding genetics behind learning, use of instrumentals to learn, learning through association and self-observant learning.

Krumboltz also developed the Career Beliefs Inventory (1991) to assess self-beliefs that influence the career development process. Lent et al. (1996) have focused on self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and goals. A substantial volume of research has been conducted from the latter theoretical perspective, verifying self-efficacy’s centrality to academic choices, achievement, and persistence. In recent years, career theories have been criticized for not addressing those issues specific to women’s lives and for resting upon problematic assumptions. Cook, Heppner, and O’Brian (2002) note, “career counseling, as widely practiced today, evolved at a time when the typical career client was young, male, white, able-bodied, publicly heterosexual, and ethnically homogenous.

On the contrary, career development programmes that suits aspiring women face obstacles that are mainly shaped by the structure of opportunities at hand. After reviewing a decade of research on women’s career development, Phillips & Imhoff (1997) conclude that concluded that “increase in the sophistication of questions that are asked, the development of integrative models, and the capability of researchers to embed their studies and findings in larger individual and environmental contexts are all significant accomplishments.” Such research also serves as “notes of caution to those who are tempted to focus on singe-factor explanations, to ask fragmentary questions, or to decontextualize a problem…such approaches are severely limited” (p. 49).

In many occasions, existing theories concerning women career development have been adopted by theorists to explain new dimension that showcase advancements made to shape careers aspired by women. Several theorist such as Pajares (2004), Betz (1981) and Hackett (1983) have made significant steps of adding knowledge to the existing theories with an aim of understanding career development among women.
The context of understanding career development in women is totally different from their male counterparts based on two reasons. Firstly, gender inequality issues such as stereotyping hinders women from pursuing their career possibilities. Secondly, women find it hard as well to balance both family responsibilities such as childrearing and their careers. Coogan and Chen (2007) think that Gottfredson's theory of self-creation, circumscription, and compromise, and the social cognitive career theory, and Super's life-span and life-space theories can be used to understand women's psychological path of career decision making.

Gottfredson's theoretical models (1981, 2002, 2005, as cited by Sharf, 2010) explain how childhood gender role beliefs involve individuals’ career choices. The theoretical models explain why career choices are influenced from early childhood development to adolescence stage. As they discovering themselves, children develop their own way of thinking and viewing concepts that are related to their compatibility. By the time they graduate from high school education, these children already know what social appraisals will fit their own social class and family responsibility. Thus, they end up discarding anything that does not fit into their social and family class. As they advance to adolescence stage, they have already cemented their position on the jobs they would seek, social class they are compatible with and family responsibilities that will meet their expectations (199-206).

**Relational Theory**

Crozier (1999) applies Gilligan’s three stages of moral development to women’s careers. Gilligan discovered that women mainly begin their lives based on survival and interest at heart. Thus, they must recognize the fact that they are selfish and self-centered. The second stage emphasizes connection and the bond and relationship they have sacrificed based on their values. The third stage encompasses inclusion of the first two stages. The main aim of career development among women is to discover experiences they can nurture by sacrificing their time or position. Self-sacrifice is an attitude among women that involves uplifting others and working with colleagues to form a meaningful contribution. Thus, women aspire for positions that will allow them to serve peoples while at the same time use their skill sets such as interpersonal relation skills, communication and networking skills.
They may also desire positions in which they may apply “intuitive and subjective” forms of knowledge, as prescribed by Belenky, et. al. (1986). Crozier relies on support from research on the Holland themes that does indeed show more women drawn to social and artistic occupations (Chusmir, 1990, cited in Crozier). The author further advocates that women should be encouraged to join technical fields such as engineering to satisfy their relational needs and incorporate their skills to nurture and foster changes to these fields. This will definitely offer a new paradigm about their careers but caution has to be observed at all aspects.

Relation theory should be applied and exercised with great caution when tailoring conservative interventions. This is based on the fact that it is nearly impossible to depict women who are relational based on their morals or cognitive dissonance, compared to a similar context related to men. Relational model should be an anchor that distinguishes identity and cognitive styles between women and men since they are differently wired socially. Thus, men and women differ in terms of intellectual and moral standards on how they approach social consequences.

The other main aspect of relational theory is focused on idea stages. The theorists however have not clarified about idea stages as to whether they are sequential, simultaneous or cyclical. In relation to women, the theory indicates the age at which women experience career crisis and how it is related to relational theory stages in terms of nurturing their roles. It was also evident relationship theory will enlighten women to navigate through complexities and contradictions they experience in their day to day work that encompasses family and career paths. Women pursuing undergraduate education to advance their professions and achieve the required academic aspirations. Thus, relationship theory can be applied at early stage especially among women to fulfill ambitions related to their careers.

Another aspect of relationship theory lies under early parenting years women undergo. In this case, the life cycle of career women advocates for vacillation while finding out ways to care about oneself and others. Thus, relationship theory accommodates all responsibilities women have such multiple role and career patterns which might limit applicability of their intended goal or purpose. However, applying relational theory to career development provides a broader perspective of analyzing
women’s needs and why pursuing career courses bridges education gap experienced in most organizations.

2.3 Empirical Literature review

Aldag (2005) organization culture is very powerful on how employees get promoted. It advocates how things are done in certain organization. It lets employees know how they are expected to behave and what actions are acceptable. When employees fail to cope with the culture existing in their organization it will be hard for them to attain their individual goals. Whereas this is true, the author has failed to us how organization culture affects Women in Leadership position in Public Organizations. The study intends to find out how organization culture affects Women in Leadership position in Public Organizations.

According to Bukodi and Róbert (2010) family roles greatly affect women in leadership position in public organizations and growth of organizations. Family attributes influence women’s career chances in the socialist era and have a larger impact on females’ employment opportunities after system transformation. Whereas this is true, the author has failed to show us how family roles affect Women in Leadership position in Public Organizations. This study intends to find how family roles affect Women in Leadership position in Public Organizations.

According to Luis (2004) networking is a major factor which affects women in leadership position in public organizations. Women experience challenges in developing networking skills which are important for all women and youth, but particularly for those with limited work experiences, which is unfortunately often the case for women with disabilities. Whereas this is true, the author has failed to show us how networking affects Women in Leadership position in Public Organizations. This study intends to find how networking affects women in leadership position in public organizations.

According to Gupta (2008) training is acknowledged as a very important factor in determining the mobility of any employee. Through training, the author stipulates that employees are in a position to increase their knowledge and skills based on a particular task at hand. In short, training bridges that gap between recommendations of the job and expertise of an employee. Employees selected for technical jobs have to
undergo induction training before they are asked to perform their higher responsibility. Employee with better skills in performing their tasks will automatically get promoted. However, the authors have failed to show us how training affects Women in Leadership position in Public Organizations. From the preview, the study will determine why women face a lot of impediment when pursing leadership positions especially in public sector organizations.

2.4 Summary and Research Gap
Prussic (2009) observes that in today’s dynamic and uncertain business environment, organizational success is often determined by its challenge to modify its operations as organizations must undertake or undergo changes to exist in a competitive market or to evolve, however with these multiple changes comes great resistance. While a number of change initiatives fail to achieve all the envisaged change objectives, associations need to comprehend the basic achievement factors in change administration, since it assumes a key part in assessing change programs difficulties and openings and accomplishing upper hand (Griffith, 2012). Griffith continues to explain handful of tools and processes are in place within organization to do this. However, many companies have documentation but very few tools in process change.

2.5 Summary
There is no doubt that the area of women in leadership position in public organizations is one important aspect of any business activity, in any business undertaking, be it government institution, private sector and to the society at whole. However the studies above seem not to have categorically and specifically studied the factors that affect Women in Leadership position in Public Organizations hence the study will fill the gap and what is needed to ensure women in leadership position in public organizations is effective, a way that contributes to overall profitability of the industry in the sector. Employees require an organization culture in which knowledge sharing, shared learning and collaboration are entrenched. In some of organizations their cultures do not permit promotion of women to higher or top-level positions. In such situations the mobility of any women employee will be affected much.
The role of the family in the society towards women affects their mobility in many ways often without their awareness. Family roles affect women in leadership position in public organizations mostly negatively keeping in mind women a very important in a family setup.

Networking is another major factor that affects women in leadership position in public organizations it has been found to make real difference in careers with the executives who were mentored early in their careers tending to make more money at a certain age and more likely to follow a career plan than those who were not mentored. Women experience a challenge in initiating a relationship or a network therefore affecting them negatively.

Good training programs will increase employee knowledge and skills of doing particular tasks or job. Training helps employees get prepared for higher jobs. Women need to have skills and knowledge in order to get promoted.

2.5 Conceptual Framework
The framework below is adopted in the study to show relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The following variable haves some relation with the factors affecting women in leadership position in public organizations.

Figure 2.6 Conceptual Framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organization Culture</td>
<td>Women in Leadership Position in Public Organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Roles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Opportunities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.5.1 Organization Culture

Organization culture is the set of values, norms, standards for behavior, and shared expectations form a strong bond that unites people, work groups and team efforts to interact with each other and cooperate to achieve organizational goals. Organization culture outlines how things are done in the organization.

2.5.2 Family Role

Women have a responsibility of taking care of family duties and career roles by changing or complying to a certain behavior that would seem them advance in both career and life matters. Balancing family and career roles is not easy for some women but once they get a grip on what to do to achieve the end result, women acquire social and position status in a male dominated society.

2.5.3 Networking

Networking is the systematic development and cultivation of informal interpersonal contacts and relationships for several purposes mainly to compile information that helps with focusing your career or job search objectives, learning about trends, events or facts relevant to your search, and, possibly hearing about existing job gaining as much exposure as possible in the job market and also gathering more names and referrals so that you can continue to expand your network, gain more information sources, get more exposure, obtain still more referrals.

2.5.4 Training Opportunities

Training is the process of nurturing and developing knowledge and skills based on a particular job at hand. It shifts the behavior and encourages critical thinking among employees to enable them perform duties in a more efficient manner.

2.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented introduction, theoretical review, empirical review, summary and research gap, conceptual framework and operationalization of variables.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
This chapter dealt with research methodology and procedures that were used in carrying out the study. It described the methods that the researcher applied in carrying out the study. It detailed the research design, target population sampling techniques instruments for data collection and data analysis.

3.2 Research Design
According to Mukerje (2000), research design is the plan and structure of investigation so formulated as to obtain answers to research questions. The researcher used descriptive research design. The design answers key questions that describe a study phenomenon such as who, what, which, how, when and how much. The main reason for employing descriptive research design was to minimize errors when interpreting collected data. The objective was stated clearly and a clear definition of the population was given. The instrument for data collection was tested for validity and reliability which is necessary for descriptive studies (Kothari, 2004).

3.3 Target Population
Kothari (2003) defines target-population as comprehensive set of the study of all members of real or hypothetical set of people, events or objects to which an investigator wishes to generalize the result. The target population was 104 employees at Kenyatta University.

Table 3.1 Target Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Target Population</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior Management</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Management</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support Staff</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)
3.4 Sample Design
According to Mugenda & Mugenda (2003), sample design is the procedure of selecting respondents who are single out as the representatives of the entire target population. Stratified random sampling design was used in this study to ensue at a sample size. The sampling design was used to select respondents in the three population categories. The researcher used stratified random to arise with the right sample size where 50% of the entire population was drawn to provide generalized information.

Table 3.2 Sample Size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Target Population</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior Management</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Management</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support Staff</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

3.5.1 Questionnaires
Kothari (2003) defines a questionnaire as a method for elicitation, recording and collecting of information. The main reason for using questionnaires is because administering them was inexpensive and can be easily administered. A questionnaire is a printed form containing a set of questions for gathering information administered by the researcher or his/her assistants, or self administered under supervision or unsupervised. The questionnaires were answered by each of the individual respondents independently. The use of questionnaire ensured collection of data from many respondents within a short time and respondents are free to give relevant information because they are assured of their anonymity (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003).
3.5.2 Pilot study
A pilot is a small scale preliminary study conducted before the main research in order to measure the validity and reliability of the data collection instrument (Kothari 2004).

3.5.3 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments
Validity and reliability of the data collected was requisite to ensure good quality research. Validity concerns whether the notion really measures the aimed concept. Pre-testing of the instrument enabled the researcher to access clarity of the instrument and its ease of use. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) suggests that pre-testing allowed the errors to be discovered as well as acting as a tool for training a research team before the actual collection of the data begins.

3.6 Data collection procedure
The researcher used questionnaires to collect primary information. According to Kothari (2004) a questionnaire is a research tool comprising of a succession of question and other elements with a determination of getting information from respondents. Questionnaires are frequently used to achieve significant information about the population. Respective item in the questionnaire were developed to solve a specific objective or research question of the nature of the information needed, and so that it will not overlook vital information required in the study. The advantage is that the researcher personally familiarized the study to the respondents and clarified any uncertainties or questions that arose.

3.7 Data Analysis and presentation
This involved qualitative and quantitative analysis. The data collected by use of questionnaires was first edited to get the relevant data for the study. The edited data was coded for easy classification in order to expedite tabulation. The tabulated data was then analyzed by calculating various percentages where possible. Kothari (2004) argued that presentation of data was in form of pie-charts and bar-graphs where it provided successful elucidation of the findings. Descriptive data was provided in form of explanatory notes.
3.8 Ethical Considerations
All procedures and conduct in the study were scrutinized and approved by the school of management and leadership, Management University of Africa. Consent for inclusion of subjects in this study were sought through a consent form which was read and/or presented to the informants for their approval or disapproval. Informants were furnished with the purpose of the study, confidentiality of the information was provided, any foreseen and unforeseen risks, voluntary participation and withdrawal from the study at any stage without victimization. Anonymity of the subjects was assured where the identity of the individuals was protected by using numbers. The study results were made available to the world of academia in the university libraries.

3.9 Chapter Summary
This chapter shows research methodology used by the researcher to collect and analyze data. This chapter discussed the research design, population, sample and sampling technique, instruments, validity and reliability test, data collection procedure, data processing and analysis, which were adopted for this study. The population and the sampling methods used to get the sample size for data collection have been outlined and reasons for the choice of methodologies which were used. The methods for the data collection applied are stated and the research procedures clearly explaining how the data collection tools were used are spelt out.
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction
This chapter presents and report on the analysis of data collected from the various respondents. The chapter covers findings of the study as steered by the objectives as well as the information of the respondents.

4.2 Presentation of Findings
4.2.1 Response Rate
Table 4.1 Response Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responded</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not respond</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

Figure 4.1 Response Rate

As pointed out in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1, out of 52 questionnaires administered only 43 were returned. This means that 83% of the respondents responded to questions with only 17% failing to respond. A response rate of 83% was therefore contemplated sufficient for the purpose of analysis.
4.2.2 Highest Level of Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

Table 4.2 and figure 4.2 indicated that 19% of the respondents were graduates. A population of 40% of respondents had college education while 29% had secondary education. A population of 12% of respondents had primary education. This implies high literacy level.
4.2.3 Response According to Age Bracket

Table 4.3 Response According to Age Bracket

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 30 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 50 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

Figure 4.3 Responses According to Age Bracket

Source: Author (2018)

Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3 indicate that 26% of the respondents are aged below 30 years. 53% aged between 31-40 years, 16% are aged between 41-50 years while 5% were above 50 years. This implies that the organization has a mature workforce team.
4.2.4 Years Worked in the Company

Table 4.4 Years Worked in the Company

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 5 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-7 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-10 years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 15 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

Figure 4.4 Years Worked in the Company

Source: Author (2018)

Table 4.4 and Figure 4.4 shows without doubt that 7% of the staff in the organization have worked in the organization for above 15 years, 28% have worked between 11-15 years, 44% between 8-10 years, 16% are between 5-7 years of experience and 5% have been in the organization for a period of less than 5 years. This implies that the organization has an experience workforce with a vast understanding on how the organization is managed.
4.2.5 Levels in the Management

Table 4.5 Levels in the Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior Management</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Management</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support Staff</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

Figure 4.5 Levels in the Management

Source: Author (2018)

As it is shown in figure 4.5 and table 4.5 most staff are in the operational level which is represented by a 51% of the respondents; middle management has 37% of the respondents while 12% is the senior management level.
4.2.6 Organization Culture

Table 4.6 Whether Organization Culture Affects Women in Leadership Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

Figure 4.6 Whether Organization Culture Affects Women in Leadership Position

Source: Author (2018)

As it is shown in figure 4.6 and table 4.6 it is evident from majority of the respondents, 93% demonstrated organization culture affects women in leadership position in public organization. Few respondents 7% on the other hand specified that organization culture do not affect women in leadership position in public organization. From the study it can be concluded that organization culture had an effect on women in leadership position in public organization.
### 4.2.7 Organization Culture

#### Table 4.7 Extent to Which Organization Culture Affects Women in Leadership Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very High</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

#### Figure 4.7 Extent to Which Organization Culture Affects Women in Leadership Position

Source: Author (2018)

Table 4.9 and figure 4.9 shows how the respondent rated organization culture: 23% of respondents rated the effect of organization culture as very high, 47% rated it as high, 23% rated it as moderate while 7% of the respondents rated it as low. This can be established that majority of respondents rated the effect of organization culture in women in leadership position as high.
4.2.8 Family Roles

Table 4.8 Whether Family Roles Affects Women in Leadership Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

Figure 4.8 Extent to Which Organization Culture Affects Women in Leadership Position

Source: Author (2018)

Table 4.8 and figure 4.8 show the impact of family roles on women in leadership position in public organization. Based on the analysis, 95% of the total respondents specified that family roles affected women in leadership position in public organization, 5% of the total respondents stated that family roles did not have an effect on women in leadership position in public organization. From the analysis it can be figured that family roles greatly affected women in leadership position in public organization.
4.2.9 Family Roles

Table 4.9 Extent to Which Family Roles Affects Women in Leadership Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very High</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

Figure 4.9 Extent to Which Family Roles Affects Women in Leadership Position

Source: Author (2018)

Table 4.9 and figure 4.9 shows how the respondent rated family roles: 56% of respondents rated the effect of family roles as very high, 37% rated it as high, 5% rated it as moderate while 2% of the respondents rated it as low. This can be concluded that majority of respondents rated the effect of family roles in women in leadership position as high.
4.2.10 Networking

Table 4.10 Whether Networking Affects Women in Leadership Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

Figure 4.10 Whether Networking Affects Women in Leadership Position

Source: Author (2018)

Table 4.10 and figure 4.10 shows the effect of networking on women in Leadership position in Public Organization. Based on the analysis 86% of the total respondents specified that networking had an effect on women in Leadership position in Public Organization while 14% of the total respondents determined that networking had no effect on women in Leadership position in Public Organization. From the study it can be inferred that networking had an effect on women in Leadership position in Public Organization.
4.2.11 Networking

Table 4.11 Extent to Which Networking Affects Women in Leadership Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Great</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>great</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

Figure 4.11 Extent to Which Networking Affects Women in Leadership Position

Source: Author (2018)

Table 4.11 and figure 4.11 indicate how they rated networking. Based on the analysis, 40% of the total respondents rated networking as very great, 30% of the total respondents rated it as great, while 16% of the respondents rated networking as low and 14% of the total respondents rated networking as very low. From the analysis it can be inferred that majority of the respondents had rated Networking as very great.
4.2.12 Training Opportunities

Table 4.12 Whether Training Opportunities Affects Women in Leadership Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

Figure 4.12 Whether Training Opportunities Affects Women in Leadership Position

Source: Author (2018)

Table 4.12 and figure 4.12 shows the efficacy of training opportunities on women in leadership position in public organization. Based on the analysis, 95% of the total respondents showed that training opportunities had an effect on women in leadership position in public organization while 5% of the total respondents stated that training opportunities did not affect women in leadership position in public organization. From the study it can be deduced that training opportunities had an effect on women in leadership position in public organization.
4.2.13 Training Opportunities

Table 4.13 Extent to Which Training Opportunities Affects Women in Leadership Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very high</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Low</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>43</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author (2018)

Figure 4.13 Extent to Which Training Opportunities Affects Women in Leadership Position

Source: Author (2018)

Table 4.13 and figure 4.13 indicated how respondents rated the effect of Training opportunities in women in leadership position. Majority of the respondents 46% rated Training opportunities as high, 28% rated it as very high, and 19% rated it as low while 7% of respondents rated training opportunities as very low. From the analysis it can be concluded that majority were of the opinion that training opportunities affects women in leadership position in public organization highly.
4.3 Summary of Data Analysis
For qualitative analysis, the data collected was carefully grouped and discussed in details after doing the analysis. This was an analysis of the expressed opinion of the respondents. The respondents’ opinion was therefore described and presented as follows.

4.3.1 General Findings
Based on the analysis, response to questionnaires; 83% of the respondents responded to the questioners while 17% did not. According to the level of education, 12% were primary dropouts, 29% were certificate holders, 40% were diploma holders while 19% were degree holders. Based on age, 26% of the respondents were below 30 years, 53% were between 31-40 years, 16% were from 41-50 years while 5% were 50 years and above. According to the years worked in the company 5% indicated they had worked in the company less than 5 years, 5-7 years were 16%, 8-10 years were 44%, 11-15 years were 28% while 7% had worked in the company more than 15 years. Based on the level of management, 12% were senior managers, 37% were middle managers while 51% were from the operational level.

4.3.2 Organization Culture
Many respondents representing 93% agreed that culture had an effect compared to a small fraction of 7% who declined were of the opinion that organization culture has an effect on women in leadership position. Respondents said that some of organizations values hindered women from participating fully in their work. Others recorded that it was easy to adapt to the culture since it was not the power one.

4.3.3 Family Roles
Based on the analysis 70% of the total respondents determined that family roles had an effect on women in leadership position in public organization, while 30% of the total respondents declined that family roles did not have an effect on women in leadership position in public organization. From the analysis it was concluded that family roles had an effect on women in leadership position in public organization.
4.3.4 Networking
A population of 86% of the respondents indicated that networking affects women in leadership position in public organization while 14% disagreed. From the analysis it was concluded that networking had an effect on women in leadership position in public organizations.

4.3.5 Training Opportunities
The respondents were also asked on how training opportunities has affected women in leadership position in public organization. A population of 95% of the respondents indicated that training opportunities affects women in leadership position in public organization while 5% disagreed.

4.4 Limitations of the Study
The limitations of the research were as a result of the challenges that the researcher faced while conducting the study research. The researcher encountered unwillingness by respondents to reveal information regarding the study as the researcher requested for the study purpose. To counter this, the researcher assured the respondents of their confidentiality for any information that they gave. The researcher further affirmed to the respondents that the study was purely for academic endeavor and therefore the information given would not be kept out from unwanted third parties. Also, the respondents were unwilling to fill the questionnaires but the respondents assured them that they were only for academic purposes and would also remain confidential.

4.5 Chapter Summary
This chapter presented the following sections, the respondents’ response rate, their general information and the study objectives. These objectives dealt with the Organization culture, family roles, networking and training opportunities.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Introduction
This study purposed to explore factors affecting women in leadership position in public organization in Kenya. It presents a summary of main findings and it pursued to answer the specific questions that were investigated. In addition, recommendation for possible action and suggestions for further research are given. The chapter provides a summary of findings obtained in the study. A discussion of findings is made in terms of how they address the objectives and research questions captured previously in the study. Conclusions are developed to support the implications of the findings to the organization together with relevant recommendations for possible action or improvement.

5.2 Summary of Findings
5.2.1 To What Extent Do Organization Culture Affect Women In Leadership Position In Public Organization?
From the study findings, it was affirmed that majority of the respondents representing 93% felt that organization culture was a factor affecting women in leadership position in public organization while 7% did not concur. The workers rated organization culture as follows; poor 7%, fair 23%, good 47%, excellent 23%. Thus, the researcher inferred that organization culture affects women in leadership position in public organization in a good way.

5.2.2 How Does Family Roles Affect Women In Leadership Position In Public Organization?
According to the research findings, majority of respondents representing 95% indicated that family roles affected women in leadership position in public organization while 5% stated it has no effect on women in leadership position in public organization. The respondents further rated the effect of family roles as follows; low 2%, moderate 5%, high 37% and very high 56%. Majority demonstrated that family roles very highly affected women in leadership position in public organization. Therefore, the researcher asserted that family roles affect women in leadership position in public organization.
5.2.3 What Is The Effect Of Networking On Women In Leadership Position In Public Organization?
The findings indicated that 86% of the respondents felt that networking greatly affected women in leadership position in public organization against 14% of the respondents who said no. Thus the researcher established that networking affects women in leadership position in public organization. The degree to which networking affects women in leadership position in public organization was as follows, very low 14%, low 16%, great 30%, very great 40%. Majority revealed that networking affects women in leadership position in public organization in a very great extent.

5.2.4 In What Ways Does Training opportunities Affect Women in Leadership position in Public Organization?
According to the analysis, 95% respondents registered that training opportunities affected women in leadership position in public organization while 5% opposed that. From the analysis the researcher concluded that training opportunities affects women in leadership position in public organization. The extent to which Training opportunities affects women in leadership position in public organization was as follows; very low 7%, low 19%, very high 28%, high 46%. Majority indicated that training opportunities affects women in leadership position in public organization in a high rate.

5.3 Recommendation

5.3.1 Organizational Culture
The organization should adopt a culture that empowers its women employees. It was also recommended that managers should ensure that their culture is consistent with the society’s ethical values and it should not be strong to undermine individual’s freedom. This will ensure that all women employees know what is expected from them, thus increasing the mobility and overall performance.
5.3.2 Family Roles
It was recommended that KU should have leaders in the organization who understand that women’s career chances are influenced substantially by family attributes namely, by husband’s employment status and the number of children and also that labor market patterns tend to contain a flexible workforce that will ensure competent labor force in the long run. Women Employees due to the relatively low wage level two, should be provided with “full-time” earnings needed for most of the families to ensure the appropriate living conditions. Therefore, the researcher recommends that the leaders in the organization should always be responsible and role models to the others and also offer opportunities to others in the occurrence of opportunities to enable effective women in leadership position in the organization.

5.3.3 Networking
Management team should put up network building counseling programs to ensure that employee’s career mobility is not hurt down by lack of appreciating career network. Managers should ensure women employees do not frequently experience challenges in initiating networks during their career mobility, job performance or increase their risk of mental, physical and healthy problems. Hence the researcher recommends that the organizations should provide a working environment that will be favorable for every employee to work well and get the best output including networking.

5.3.4 Training Opportunities
From the study findings, the researcher found that training affects women in leadership position in an organization. The organization should put up appropriate training programs to keep its employees updated with the current job requirements. Hence the researcher recommends that training should be geared to all employees regardless of their gender and job category. This will not only make the employees motivated but also, they acquire relevant skills, knowledge and attitude towards the organization.

5.4 Conclusion
Although, organizational culture, family roles, networking and training are the major factors affecting women in leadership position in public organization, a study was
noted that they are the core factors that will be observed by any serious business or entrepreneur with intentions of growing the business. Negligence of any of them can cause a very diverse damage to the overall business development, performance and growth.

From the study findings, the researcher found that organizational culture is very essential in the organization. It enables the employees to work towards the achievement of goals. It enables the employees know how they are expected to behave and what actions are acceptable in the organization. Good organizations culture will empower its employees for them to achieve their goals and those of the organization.

Family roles was rated high and hence the researcher can conclude that family roles has been one among other factors that have contributed to increased women in leadership position in public organization. Leaders in the organization should always be responsible by increasing level of targeting by attempts to include women in the higher income households in the benefit system and be role models to the others and also offer opportunities to women others in the leadership process to enable effective women in leadership position in public organization.

Networking encourages achievement of high results due to its behavioral, psychological, and emotional effects. All employees in KU participate in networking counseling programs sessions to ensure that they are able respond to the networking needs in a positive way. This program ensures that women employees are able to cope with the potential dangers or demands in the organization.

Training affects women in leadership position in an organization. Appropriate training programs will increase the knowledge and skills of employees. Training will become necessary for employees promoted to higher level jobs. They should be trained for them to take up their higher responsibilities.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies
This study was on effects of women in leadership position in public organizations in Kenya. The research was only carried out on four variables; organizational culture, family roles networking and training. The researcher suggests that a further study to
be carried out to investigate the effects of work stress, leadership style, attitude, organizational structure and employee reward on women in leadership position in public organization.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX I: INTRODUCTION LETTER

Date: ______________________

To the respondents,

RE: QUESTIONNAIRE TO RESPONDENTS

I am Tabitha Wanjiku Njenga a student pursuing a Bachelor of Management and Leadership (Business Management Option) from Management University of Africa University (MUA).

As a requirement from the University, I am supposed to conduct a research study on Factors Affecting Women in Leadership Position with reference to Kenyatta University.

Kindly assist in answering questions on the attached questionnaire; the response to the items in this questionnaire are purely for the academic pursuits of the researcher. The researcher has no intention whatsoever to use the information collected for use by any other party. All the information collected shall be treated with the highest level of confidentiality.

Your co-operation and assistance will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

Njenga Tabitha Wanjiku
APPENDIX II
QUESTIONNAIRE

Any information given by the respondents in this research questionnaire will be treated confidentially. Tick inside the box provided where necessary and for explanation please be brief.

Your contribution will be highly appreciated.

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Highest Education level
   - Primary
   - Secondary
   - College
   - University

2. Age in years
   - Below 30 years
   - 31-49
   - 41-50
   - Over 50 years

3. Years worked in the university
   - Less than 5 years
   - 5-7 years
   - 8-10 years
   - 11-15 years
   - Above 15 years

4. Which is your level in the management?
   - Senior Management
   - Middle Management
   - Support Staff
SECTION B: ORGANIZATION CULTURE

5. Does organization culture affect women in Leadership position in Public Organization in Kenya?
   Yes [ ]
   No [ ]

   Explain
   ..........................................................................................................................
   ..........................................................................................................................
   ..........................................................................................................................

6. To what extent does organization culture affect women in Leadership position in Public Organization in Kenya?
   Very High [ ]
   High [ ]
   Moderate [ ]
   Low [ ]

SECTION C: FAMILY ROLES

7. Does family roles affect women in Leadership position in Public Organization in Kenya?
   Yes [ ]
   No [ ]

   Explain
   ..........................................................................................................................
   ..........................................................................................................................
   ..........................................................................................................................

8. To what extent do family roles affect women in Leadership position in Public Organization in Kenya?
   Very High [ ]
   High [ ]
   Moderate [ ]
   Low [ ]
SECTION D: NETWORKING

9. Does networking affect women in Leadership position in Public Organization in Kenya?
   Yes [ ]
   No [ ]
   Explain
   ........................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................

10. To what extent does networking affect women in Leadership position in Public Organization in Kenya?
    Very Great [ ]
    Great [ ]
    Low [ ]
    Very Low [ ]
    Explain
    ........................................................................................................
    ........................................................................................................
    ........................................................................................................

SECTION E: TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES

11. Does training opportunities affect women in leadership position in public organization in Kenya?
    Yes [ ]
    No [ ]
    Explain
    ........................................................................................................
    ........................................................................................................
    ........................................................................................................
12. To what extent does training opportunities affect women in leadership position in public organization in Kenya?

Very high [ ]
High [ ]
Low [ ]
Very Low [ ]

Thank You for Your Time and Cooperation