AN EVALUATION OF FACTORS HINDERING UPWARD MOBILITY OF WOMEN EMPLOYEES IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA: A CASE OF EGERTON UNIVERSITY

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EGERTON UNIVERSITY

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DECLARATION

This research project report is my original work and has not been presented for the award of any other degree or diploma in a university.
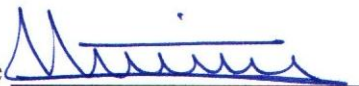
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RECOMMENDATION

This research project report has been submitted for examination with our approval as University supervisors.

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To my beloved wife , Elizabeth, my father, Tukiko Orina , my mother , Ebisiba Nyaboke and my children Eliud , Rebecca and Sammy.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

ABSTRACT

The public civil service in Kenya remains the biggest and most secure employer for many people who see it as an avenue through which they can develop and fulfill their career goals. However, lack of adequate upward career progression of female employees in the sector as a result of the existing barriers and obstacles, have placed the government firmly on the spot over gender equity and equality. There is a concern that public civil service may not, after all, satisfactorily meet career development goals and upward career progression of female employees. This is despite the fact that some of them have similar or even superior qualifications compared to their male counterparts who happen to occupy senior and influential positions. This study sought to evaluate factors hindering upward mobility of women in Public Universities in Kenya. It targeted all 714 women employees of Egerton University. A random sample of 106 women employees were selected and involved in this study. Data was collected through administration of questionnaires to the selected respondents. The collected data was then processed and analysed using descriptive statistics with the aid of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 11.5 for windows. The study findings indicate that empowering women in occupational-related factors, including professional training, academic qualifications, job performance, personality and self-motivation, was likely to enhance their upward career progression. The university career development policy emphasizes on academic qualifications and professional training in upward career progression of women employees. Politics of the country and policies of the central government determines upward career progression of women in public institutions. These study findings are fundamental in redesigning and strengthening the personnel and human resource development policies in the country by those concerned, including the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development, Ministry of Education, management of public universities, head of public civil service and the entire country, so as to adequately harness the potentialities of women employees in the public universities. While the study recommends emphasis on academic qualifications and professional training as the basis for upward career progression, the need for affirmative action in the employment and promotion on employees in the public institutions is highlighted.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

In the World over, a review of the participation and progress achieved by women in the upward mobility in the workplace is of great concern (Mullins, 1999). However, there is still an imbalance between women and their male counterparts. According to Wilson (1999), it is apparent that the progress toward proportionate upward mobility has encountered obstacles at institutional and national levels. Despite several initiates towards the implementation of concrete measures to reduce the obstacles or remove the obstacles toward equal opportunity for upward mobility in the public sector, there is still a recognizable disparity between male and female employees in such institutions.

According to Bernard (1998), efforts toward equal opportunity for all in the workforce were inspired by the awareness that women's reproductive and productive roles are closely linked to the political, economic, cultural, legal, social ,educational and religious conditions that have constrained the advancement and that the factors intensifying the economic exploitation, marginalization and oppression of women stem from chronic inequalities , injustices and exploitative conditions at the family , community, national , and international levels. Brown (1976) observes that governments in the world today have taken measures to bring social and economic changes in order to eliminate the structural imbalances that have compounded and perpetuated women's disadvantaged upward mobility in employment. However, Wolf (1977) adds that women by virtue of their gender, still experience discrimination in terms of equal opportunities for upward mobility in the workplace. This discrimination promotes uneconomic use of women's talents and wastes valuable human resources.

According to the Government of Kenya – Government of Kenya (1991, 1995, 2004), when Kenya gained its independence in 1963, one of the main challenges that faced the government was the taking care in management of its social, economic and political affairs. This was only possible through effective development of the human resources in the country so as to efficiently replace the colonial government. Many Kenyans were therefore continuously trained and employed in

various positions in the public civil service to assist in the running of the government and delivery of services to the increasing population. However, over the years, the employment structure in the public civil service in the country seems skewed to favour one particular gender with the other being relegated to the periphery. More men than women have been employed in the public civil service and also occupy influential and decision-making-oriented positions as their counterparts languish in low cadre groups. Government top leadership seem to have assumed that employing women in influential positions is a favour and not a right. Career development of women employees and their vertical movement (upward mobility) in the public civil service is frustratingly slow. This is evidenced by the gross under-representation and stagnation of women in leadership positions in the country. Lack of women representation at the top levels of the government means that the young women employees including the newly employed lack role models to act as their career mentors. This is a major concern especially for a developing country yearning for gender parity in all spheres of development.

Government of Kenya (1995, 2004) observes that the global labour market has continued to change dramatically, with women now making up an increasing share of the world's labour force. But even though there are more women in the work place, many of them are still losing out because of sticky floors, glass ceilings and income inequalities. This is particularly true for developing countries like Kenya. With increasing access to educational opportunities and training, qualified women employees in the public civil service deserve a better deal from their employer. The situation is not even better in public institutions which are expected to exercise more gender parity in its employment structure. For example, public Universities, as one of the sectors in the public civil service in Kenya, have not provided a conducive environment for promoting equal opportunities for upward mobility of its workforce. Full and effective participation of women in promotional opportunities can best occur in conditions where the rights of all are recognized by institutions and policymakers. The universities should take relevant steps to ensure that both men and women enjoy equal opportunities so as to guarantee development of equal capacities. This should mean equal opportunities to all types of training, education, and promotion.

However, according to Government of Kenya (2004), there is an imbalanced upward mobility of

existing barriers and obstacles, have placed the government firmly on the spot over gender equity and equality. There is a concern that public civil service may not, after all, satisfactorily meet career development goals and upward mobility of female employees. This is despite the fact that some of them have similar or even superior qualifications compared to their male counterparts who happen to occupy senior and influential positions. The situation is same in public universities. However, little documented information exists on the factors that impede upward career progression of women employees in the public universities in the country. This raised a number of questions with regard to human resource development and employment policies in the public universities. This study sought to provide insights into this and other related issues concerning upward career progression among female employees in public universities in Kenya by considering a case study of Egerton University.

1.3 Objective of the Study

This study sought to evaluate factors hindering upward mobility of women in Public Universities in Kenya. In order to achieve this broad objective, the following were the specific objectives of the study:

(i)   To evaluate individual factors hindering upward mobility of women in public universities

(ii)   To evaluate organizational factors hindering upward mobility of women in public universities.

(iii)   To evaluate external factors hindering upward mobility of women in public universities.

1.4 Research Questions of the Study

In order to effectively answer specific objectives, the study was guided by the following research questions:

(i)   What are the individual factors hindering upward mobility of women employees in public universities?

(ii)   What are the organizational factors hindering upward mobility of women employees

in public universities?

(iii)   What are the external factors hindering upward mobility of women employees in public universities?

1.5 Significance of the Study

In order to effectively address the gender-imbalances that exist in career development among employees in the public universities in the country, detailed studies are needed to evaluate factors hindering upward career progression of women employees in these institutions. This study was premised on the fact that establishing the impediments to upward career progression of women employees in public universities is crucial in understanding the extent to which women employees are adequately rewarded at their places of work, career development opportunities available to women employees, and the institutional management efforts in addressing these challenges. The study also challenges the university's management to come up with career development policies that can ensure equality and equity in upward mobility of its employees. Such study will help in providing information that is useful in redesigning and giving impetus to the personnel and human resource development policies by those concerned including the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development, Ministry of Education, management of public universities, head of public civil service and the entire country so as to adequately harness the potentiality of women employees in the public universities.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study focused on evaluation of factors hindering upward career progression of women in Public Universities in Kenya. Public universities were chosen for the study because as institutions of higher learning funded by taxpayers, they are expected to be at the forefront in recognizing and appreciation the need for equality and equity in rewarding its human resources without discrimination than all other sectors. The study involved only one out of the six public universities in the country, Egerton University. All the seven campuses of Egerton University, including Njoro, Kisii, Nakuru Town, Laikipia, Kenyatta , Chemiron and Chuka, were involved in the study and a sample of women members of staff selected.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

In undertaking this study, a number of limitations were encountered which could have impeded effective answering of the research objectives. The first limitation was attributed to authentication of the employment information given by the respondents. Majority of the respondents were apprehensive of the motive of the study and therefore reluctant to give information. They revealed that because of the male domination in the university management, they were not sure whether their information could enhance further discrimination and work against them. Some therefore attempted to conceal crucial and correct facts, while other shied away from responding to the questionnaire. However, the researcher assured them of confidentiality of the information given including one not revealing her identity on the questionnaire.

The second limitation was attributed to the sample size and generalization of the findings. There are seven public universities in the country. All of them recruit and reward their human resources by paying attention to the government employment policies in addition to their own internal terms of employment. Therefore, effective evaluation of the factors hindering upward mobility of women employees in public universities required a consideration of all the universities so at take into consideration the individual internal employment policy differences. However, due to time, manpower and financial resource constraints, it was impossible to cover all the universities and their associated campuses. This meant that only a case study of the universities could be involved. Thus, Egerton University which is just one of the six public universities was involved and used as a case study in this study. The findings of this study are therefore confined to the women employees of Egerton Univeristy and cannot be overly generalized to all the seven public universities in the country.

1.8 Assumption of the Study

The following assumptions were made:

(i) Egerton University has its own employment policy of recruiting, reward and sacks its employees regardless of their gender.

(ii) All employees in the universities have the necessary qualifications.

1.9 Definition of Terms

In this section, operational definitions are presented as used within the context of this study.

Career: Refers to a job, occupation, profession or vocation.

External factors: These are issues from outside the universities which affect upward movement of women.

Gender: Sex categories or characteristics of a person as reflected in masculinity and femininity. In this study it refers to male and female employees.

Gender equality: Gender equality refers to parity, equivalence, uniformity, fairness, or egalitarianism of male and female in all aspects of life. In this study, it refers to parity or fairness in the upward mobility of male and female employees.

Gender equity: Gender parity, which is almost related to gender equality, refers to fairness, impartiality, justice, fair play, or evenhandedness in the distribution of opportunities and responsibilities among male and female in all aspects of life.

Hindrance: Factors that obstruct, impede, bar, or interfere, deter, prevent women members of staff from progressing up the employment structure.

Individual factors: Personal issues that hinder movement to senior positions

Organizational factors: These are internal influences that hinder upward movement of women within the universities

Qualifications: Training, examination or experience required for a specific job

Upward mobility: Is the movement into a higher/senior position in employment

Nepotism: Favouritism, discrimination or preferential treatment

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Perpetuation of Patriarchal Values

According to AAWORD (2001), in mainstream development thinking today, the contribution of women to economic growth and social progress is no longer an issue of controversy. Several studies have established the level of involvement of women in wealth creation in almost all countries. Some studies have even attempted to quantify the proportion of wealth generated by women in some countries. The contribution of women to development, however, has not been matched by redistribution of the wealth that they help to generate. In fact, the process has rather worsened the conditions of women around the globe, especially in developing countries. This is manifested in the male domination in respect of wealth management in most African societies. To redress these gender imbalances and give women the resources to improve their positions and that of their households, the Beijing Platform for Actions adopted at the end of the Fourth World Conference on Women as well as strategic actions for reducing gender disparities and promoting the empowerment of women in Africa have called for a mainstreaming of a gender perspective in the design, implementation and monitoring of all policies and programs, as well as making national budget gender sensitive.

On the other hand, women have been acknowledged to partly represent the "dreams of their nations" (Suliman, 1991:10), coupled with the findings which alluded that the returns to gender education are much greater than those of boys and men on the average (Blumberg, 1919), girls could be given a year of training after primary education to impact on them living and nurturing skills which are needed by the society. In fact, since it has also been recorded that income in the hands of women raises their structure and improves the family twenty times than when men have money (Thomas, 1989 & Katapa, 1993), living and income generating skills could without doubt reduce household poverty drastically. These truths rightly represent what Kabeer (1995) called 'reversed realities' of what cultural patriarchy attach to boys and girls or to men and women. Henriques et al. (1984) and Rose (1985) observes that in its claims to be 'neutral' and 'value-free' mainstream, knowledge denies and thereby avoids the implications of its being gendered. In psychology, the dominant discourses within which knowledge's are produced, along with their

associated social practices, often amount to 'scientific' justifications for the status quo and social technologies for controlling and regulating people. Mama (1987) argues that whether knowledge can be used in oppressive or in emancipatory ways, will depend on the kinds of knowledge produced, who uses it and who is disempowered or empowered by its use. Women's lives are structured by their relations with other people. An analysis that does justice to this complexity has to focus on the specificities of the object of enquiry, in a way that addresses relations, history and change. To Imam (1990), gender analysis provides us with a point of entry into all this. It does not preclude analysis of class and other aspects of social division; however, allow us a more richly textured analysis.

According to Ayesha et al., (1997), this entails an analysis of the ways in which the relations between women and men are socially constructed yet the discipline of psychology, as opposed to biologically determined by 'nature'. This is not to deny that biology has a place in the relations between women and men but to point out that gender relations owe less to biology than it is frequently assumed and more to the production of knowledge than is willingly recognized. The idea is not to 'add women' on to mainstream knowledge but to make explicit the gendered nature of this knowledge and to ask new questions in order to transcend limiting explanations of limited worlds and hegemonic justifications for maintaining the status quo. Subsequently, women's mobility within the system is slower than men's because women are not able to discharge their household and academic obligations simultaneously without prioritizing one over the other. Their academic careers therefore suffer since women have to prioritize their families over their careers. To compound the problem, a significant proportion of their male colleagues do not consider it legitimate for women academic to prioritize their careers over marriage and families.

2.2 Women in Management

According to Steinem (1984), the obstacles to women taking their rightful places in the management/running of business and industry are still formidable and, some would argue, growing more intractable. The realignment of power needed to change the position of women in the working world is only gradually beginning to inch forward and may not make appreciable gains. Meanwhile, the male-dominated institutional management and business world is denying

itself the remarkable contributions women could make to wealth creation and the provision of services, and indeed are making, whenever opportunities for them to take visible roles in the management sphere are open to them. Part of this contribution is the sense of collaboration, cooperation, participation, empowerment, credit-sharing and involvement that women bring instinctively to their jobs. As the American feminist, Gloria Steinem, pointed out:

> *'Women tend to define power differently...traditional definitions of power have a lot to do with the ability to dominate other people and benefit unfairly from their work... we, as women, on the other hand, tend to define power as the ability to pursue our own talents and to control our own lives' (Steinem ,1984).*

If the radical re-engineering of companies continues to reshape them into small teams more responsible to customers, more sensitive to people and more in touch with their global markets, the need for women managers should grow exponentially. Already, management experts on both sides of the Atlantic are claiming that the management style of women better fits the demands of new organizations than their male counterparts. Management guru, Handy (1994) puts it forcefully:

> *'For these jobs the organizations want quality people, well educated, well skilled and adaptable. They also want people who can juggle with several tasks and assignments at one time, who are more interested in making things happen, than in what title or office they hold, more concerned with power and influence than status. They want people who value instinct and intuition as well as analysis and rationality, who can cope with these necessary contradictions. They want, therefore, as many women as they can get' (Handy ,1994).*

Accordingly, women in management is not a new topic, but it now has a new urgency; whereas in the past parallels were drawn between civil rights struggles and equal opportunities became the watchword of women everywhere with controversy around quotas and affirmative action. Today a clear business case can be made for increasing women's participation at all levels in the workforce. The business case for expanding the numbers and elevating the positions of women management is rooted in the context of managing employee diversity as a vital resource. Gender

is one of six primary dimensions of diversity – those immutable human differences that are inborn and which exert powerful impact throughout a person's entire life. The other primary dimensions of diversity are age, ethnicity, physical abilities/qualities or disabilities, and other orientations. Hence, the business case for increasing the participation of women in management therefore rests on three major supporting arguments: Women's natural work style fits in better with the changes in jobs and the changing structure of organizations than their male counterparts' work style; Women can give companies a competitive advantage in the global marketplace by helping them reflect better in their management teams the gender make-up of the markets into which they are selling; Skilled women are a vital resource. As demographics result in a shortage of skilled employees in the run-up to the new millennium and beyond it will be imperative to recruit more women into management (Handy, 1994).

The business case, for more women in management, starts by looking at the predicted radial changes in work itself and those already taking place. Re-engineering, using self-managing teams, flattening hierarchies, designating computers to do routine work, using new technology to deliver complex information systems to frontline employees, thereby eliminating intermediaries, desorbing or downsizing will make many jobs redundant (Vinnicombe ,1995). It is difficult to put a more accurate figure on the numbers of women in management in Europe, first because different countries may have a different definition of a 'merger', and secondly because in many countries there are no regularized systems of gathering statistics in this area. Davidson and Cooper (1993), estimate that women occupy fewer than 5 per cent of senior management roles, and suggest that this figure may be as high as 8 per cent in Greece and as low as 2 per cent in the United Kingdom. However, they estimate that, when all levels of management are considered, the United Kingdom has the highest number of women 'managers' at 26 percent, compared with France at 25 per cent and Ireland at 17.4 per cent. Paradoxically, despite the difficulty European women managers' face in reaching senior positions, the issue of equal opportunities has long history and a high profile. The principle of non-discrimination is employment between men and women dates back to the late 1950s (The Times, 1992).

Because sex-differences research is always, of necessity, correlational, it is particularly

vulnerable to misinterpretation, for sex differences often mask other variables in the research. In Kanter's (1991) sought to understand why women tend to be less successful in business than men by exploring the background variables that might make women less effective managers. Because there were no consistent patterns, Kanter began to re-conceptualize the problem. Perhaps women were not less effective managers at all; perhaps women are not less effective managers at all; perhaps she was confusing sex with organizational position. Perhaps there were situations in the organization that discouraged strong leadership styles and perhaps women were more likely to be placed in these situations. As it transpired, Kanter was right. Female managers in the multinational conglomerate that Kanter was observing tended to be placed in dead-end positions, token positions and managerial positions in which they were accorded no real power and men and women who found themselves in such positions tended to be bureaucratic rule-keepers rather than strong leaders. The quality of leadership was not determined by sex; it was determined by the organizational resources and organizational support that was accorded to the manager. Most of what we 'know' about the behavior of men and women in organizations is based upon our own informal correlational studies – upon our observations of the ways in which biological sex is related to a variety of job-related traits and abilities. Researchers who misinterprete their own data by failing to control for non-sex variables in their studies can provide pour sex-role stereotypes with food for growth (Kanter, 1991).

2.3 Managing Diversity

The selection process in particular, may directly discriminate between people in order to offer the reward of a job to one but not the others. Certain forms of discrimination are acceptable but others are not, and have been made unlawful. Facts rather than prejudice, and relevant facts rather than irrelevant facts are important criteria in determining what type of discrimination is acceptable; but the law expects more from employers than this. It forces employers to exercise some form of social responsibility in the decisions they take in respect of the potential of employees. Discrimination in employment is inextricably linked with discrimination in the rest of society (Derek, 1995).

2.3.1 Disadvantaged Groups and the Argument for Equal Treatment

There are always certain groups in any society that are discriminated against unfavorably due to the prejudices and preconceptions of the people with whom they have to deal. The preconceptions are sometimes verbalized but often not, and the people holding these preconceptions may well be unaware of the way that they see and judge things and people. However, verbalized or not, these preconceived ideas influence the actions of the people who hold them and the way they deal with others. The effects of this can be seen in the employment arena. Disadvantaged groups who have already been identified are: Women, People from other racial backgrounds, Disabled people and older people. By far the most attention, in terms of public interest and legislation, has been paid to the first two groups. There is, however, some legislation relating to disabled people, and there have been some unsuccessful attempts by private members to establish legislation to protect older workers (EOR No. 48 1993c).

There are two main schools of thought concerning the action that should be taken to alleviate the disadvantages that these groups suffer. One school supports legislative action, while the other argues that this will not be effective and that the only way is to change fundamentally the attitudes and preconceptions that are held about these groups. So far there has been an emphasis on legislative action in the hope that this will eventually affect attitudes. Legislation, however, appears to have a poor track-record where social change is involved, and the evidence to date suggests that legislation to equalize employment opportunity has had a minimal impact. There have also been some attempts to change attitudes directly, for example, the International Year for the Disabled in 1981 and Opportunity 2000, which has encouraged employers to publicly commit themselves to the goals of increasing the quantity and quality of women's participation in the workforce, and set relevant organizational goals together with an improvement program (EOR, No 41 1992a).

A third, more extreme, and often less supported approach comes from these who advocate legislation to promote positive or reverse discrimination in order to compensate for a history of discrimination against specified groups and as a way of redressing the balance more immediately. The arguments for and against such an approach are fully discussed by Singer

(1993). The most pervasive argument against discrimination in employment or anywhere else is the argument based on an appreciation of human rights, and an ethical approach to the treatment of others. Work is a particularly important area as employment experiences have consequences for all aspects of people's lives. There are also practical arguments supporting the equalization of employment opportunity. A company that discriminates directly or indirectly against older or disabled people, women or ethnic minorities will be curtailing the potential of available talent. Mahon (1989) demonstrates how an equal opportunities policy at Welcome has shifted from good employment practice to sound business sense and from personnel policies to business issues.

2.3.2 Promoting Gender Equality

Hakim (1993) puts forward the strong argument, based on alternative analysis, census and employment data, that the increasing participation of women in employment between the 1950s and the late 1980s is a myth, although a real increase does appear to have taken place since the late 1980s. Her analysis shows that in much trumpeted rise in women's employment in Britain consisted entirely of the substitution of part-time for full-time jobs form 1851 to the late 1980s. Hakim concludes form the research that only an increase in full-time employment is likely to have a wider impact on women's opportunities at work and elsewhere. For example, one perspective on the gaining of equality was that as participation rates increased, occupational segregation by sex would decrease as would the pay gap between male and female earnings. The few changes that we have seen in these areas then are most likely to be a direct result of the legislation itself, rather than the impact of increasing participation.

2.3.3 Practical Implications of the Legislation to Promote Gender Equality at Work

The legislation has several implications for personnel management, for instance, Advertisements must not discriminate on the basis of sex or marital status. This means that job titles should either be sexless, as in 'cashier', 'machinist' or 'manager/manageress'. If a job title is used indicating one sex, such as 'chairman', this must be accompanied by a statement that both men and women are invited to apply. To save any misunderstanding, it may be wise to use this statement in all advertisements. Illustrations used in advertisements and in recruitment literature

should depict both men and women. Personnel managers also need to consider the implications of other recruitment procedures. For example, in admitting schoolchildren into the organization for a careers visit, care should be taken that the boys are not shown only round the parts of the factory where the traditional male jobs are to be found, while the girls are only shown around the canteen and the offices. Similarly, if local schools are visited, then both boys' and girls' schools should be included (Derek, 1995).

Equal opportunities legislation reinforces the need for job analysis and the production of job descriptions and personal specifications. In particular, the person specification should be carefully considered to ensure that the person requirements are not unnecessarily restrictive and indirectly discriminate between men and women, making it easier for one group to comply. Care should also be taken that any selection tests have been well validated in that they have been developed using data from both sexes.

2.3.4 The Disability Symbol

This concept was introduced in 1990 and relaunched in June 1993. The scheme permits an employer to use the disability tick symbol in advertisements if they demonstrate their pursuit of five minimum commitments to disabled people. These commitments are:

(i)   Guaranteed job interviews for all disabled applicants who meet the minimum criteria for the job; Consultation with current disabled employees;

(ii)   Retention of disabled workers;

(iii)   Efforts to arouse disability awareness; and

(iv)   Production of an annual review of the commitments and the achievements that have been made, EOR no.43 (1992b) and no. 56 (1994a).

In a recent survey by the Equal Opportunities Review (no. 48 1993) of 4000 job advertisements, this specified age qualifications, which his slightly more than their survey four years ago. Itzin and Philipson (1993) in their qualitative and quantitative study of local authorities note some improvements in terms of fewer upper age limits being applied. They did, however found that the working of some advertisements puts older workers off from applying. Words like

'innovative', 'dynamic' and 'forward thinking' suggest a picture of a young applicant. They also identified discrimination at both the short listing and interview stage, with line managers having negative perceptions of older workers – seeing them as less able to cope with change, training or technology and less interested in their careers. Itzin and Philipson also found that although three-quarters of the 221 employers who responded to their questionnaire had an Equal Opportunities Policy, only one-third of the 221 included ages in this.

Respondents to a survey of IPM members (Warr, reported in EOR 1993c) did identify some ways in which younger employees were preferred, but also a number of ways in which older workers were preferred. Workers over 40 years old were seen to be more loyal and conscientious, to have better interpersonal skills and be more efficient in the job. The Equal Opportunities Review (1993c) when reviewing the research about older workers concluded that experience in the job counteracts any age related actors lowering productivity; that older workers are generally more satisfied with their jobs and have fewer accidents and a better absence record; and that in any case there is considerable variation within individuals. Warr also reports that 86 percent of personnel managers responding to his survey were keen to see legislation or at least a voluntary code developed by the government to protect older workers from discrimination. There have been a number of failed attempts via Private Members' Bills to institute legislation, and at present legal protection does not seem likely.

The emphasis so far has been on separate groups who are discriminated against in employment, and we have concentrated on the meeting of legal obligations. This is an important starting point, but obviously a limited perspective. The words 'managing diversity' have been used to represent an integrated and more fundamental perspective. Ellis and Sonnenfield (1994) describe managing diversity as, the challenge of meeting the needs of a culturally diverse workforce and of sensitizing workers and managers to differences associated with gender, race, age and nationality in an attempt to maximize the potential productivity of all employees. Employees with disability would be added to this definition.

Jackson et al (1993), proposed a series of stages and levels that organizations go through in

becoming a multicultural organization: This organization maintains the power of dominant groups in the organization, and excludes others. The club still excludes people but in a less explicit way. Some members of minority groups are allowed to join in as long as they conform to predefined norms; The organization recognizes that there are other perspectives, but don't want to do anything to rock the boat. They may actively recruit minority groups at the bottom of the organization and make some token appointments. The organization committed to eliminating discrimination and encourages employees to examine their attitudes and think differently; There is strong support for the development of new employees from minority groups; The redefining organization is not satisfied with being anti-racist and so examines all it does, and its culture, to see the impact of these on its diverse multicultural workforce. It develops and implements policies to distribute power among all diverse groups. The organization reflects the contribution and interests of all its diverse members in everything it does and exposes. All members are full participants of the organization and there is recognition of a broader social responsibility – to educate others outside the organization and to have an impact on external oppression.

LaFasto (1993) presents a similar but simpler model. In the UK situation most organizations remain working towards compliance, but there are a number who are attempting to manage diversity. Ross and Schneider (1992) argue for the business case for diversity to be made, and identify the difference between seeking equal opportunity and managing diversity. They suggest that diversity approaches are: Internally driven, not externally imposed; Focused on individuals rather than groups; Focused on the total culture of the organization rather than simply the systems used; and the responsibility o all in the organization and not only the personnel function. Ross and Schneider (1992) advocate a strategic approach to managing diversity which involves the following: Diagnosis of the current situation in terms of statistics, policy and culture, and looking at both issues and causes; Setting aims which involve the business case for equal opportunities, identifying the critical role of commitment form the top of the organization, and a vision of what the organization would look like if it successfully managed diversity; and measuring achievements in terms of business benefit – better relationships with customers, improvements in productivity and profitability, for example – which need to be communicated to all employees.

Ellis and Sonnenfield (1994) make the point that training for diversity needs to be far more than a one-day event. They recommend a series of workshops which allow time for individuals to think, check their assumptions and reassess between training sessions. Key issues that need tackling in arranging training are ensuring that the facilitator has the appropriate skills; carefully considering participant mix; deciding whether the training should be voluntary or mandatory; being prepared to cope with any blush for previously advantaged groups who now feel threatened; and being prepared for the fact that the training may reinforce stereotypes. They argue that trading has enormous potential benefits, but that there are risks involved.

Organizations have a long way to go before getting to the stage of really valuing diversity, and in order of theme to continue to strive it is important to reinforce the business advantages. Thompson and DiTomaso (reported by Ellis and Sonnenfield) express it very well: Multicultural management perspective fosters more innovative and creative decision making, satisfying work environments, and better products because all people who have a contribution to make are encouraged to be involved in a meaningful way…. More information, more points of view, more ideas and reservations are better than fewer (Ellis and Sonnenfield ,1994).

2.4 Leadership Styles

Drawn primarily from the organizational experiences of the authors and from their interviews with a limited number of managers. Men's styles are seen to be more competitive, controlling, unemotional, analytical and hierarchical; women's styles tend to be presented as more collaborative and cooperative (Eagly, 1990). The second body of literature is based primarily on the research of social scientists. Reviews in this area tend to focus on small samples of research articles, and usually come to the same conclusion: there are no consistent sex differences in leadership styles. Faced with these conflicting reports, Alice Eagly and Blair Johnson undertook a review of the literature in which they analyzed studies or men's and women's leadership styles. There were a total of 370 comparisons made: 289 in natural organizational settings, 56 in assessment situations and 25 in laboratory studies. They examined studies of self-reported leadership styles and studies in which the mangers were rated by their supervisors, their subordinates, their peers and independent judges. The average age of these managers was early

to late thirties, and they occupied positions ranging from first-line supervision to top management, (Eagly, 1990).

It seems, then, that there are sex differences in leadership style, in task orientation and in interpersonal orientation that are consistent with stereotypes and with popular management books. However, these sex differences are found primarily in laboratory and assessment centre research, and rarely in real organizations with real manage in the act of performing their daily functions. Yet, there is none sex difference that tends to be maintained in a variety of research situations: in the majority of studies women were found to adopt a more democratic or participative style and men a more autocratic one (Johnson, 1990).

The sex-differences-in-management research has many gaps – gaps that are being filled by researchers who realize that people differ according to their circumstances as surely as they differ according to their sex. People change. People learn. People with similar characteristics seek similar workplace situations and the workplace renders them even more similar, regardless of their sex. It would be pleasant to believe that women and men receive equal treatment as a function of these similarities, but it is clear from the research reviewed in this book that this is not the case. In filling the research gaps, today's researchers are striving to preserve the complexity of all these issues in their study of sex differences in management – in their study of sex and circumstance. There was a time when many of us believed that education was the only barrier separating women from the managerial ranks of government and business. If women only had professional degrees, if women only had MBAs; if women only had access to the entry-level positions that would slowly lead them into management. There were others who believed that real change would occur only through the education of women and men, through massive attitude change. So we set about the task of writing books and articles, teaching courses and giving seminars to anyone who cared to read and listen and to many who did not. All over the world, women entered into the training and education that would prepare them for managerial equality with men. Women had only to prove that they are competent, we believed in those days, and the world would prove itself to be fair (Vinnicombe, 1995).

The research energy of hundreds of academics has been devoted to the study of women, men and organizations. The work of these researches has been presented at conferences and published in academic journals and poplar magazines. Books have flowed from publishing houses. Many women have earned their MBAs. They have entered the professions in unprecedented numbers in what they believe to be the first step towards leadership. Women have read the books, earned the credentials and proved their competence. Yet in every country, in virtually every occupation, in almost every company, women continue to be underrepresented in management in proportion to their representation in the workforce. Clearly, women have not failed to educate themselves with the intellectual tools of their trades and clearly they have not failed in their intellectual tools of their trades and clearly they have not failed in their attempts to present their cases with eloquence and articulation. If aspiring female managers and those who would support them have failed at anything, they have failed to understand power (Moss, 1977).

For decades, women and men shared the belief that women made poor bosses – that women should never be placed in the position of mobilizing organizational resources. It was considered socially acceptable to ridicule women who had attained organizational power or to say that one would 'never work for a woman'. As recently as Margaret Thatcher's election, in fact, people on the street were more than eager to tell reporters that they would never vote for a woman: not that they disapproved of the attitudes and policies of Margaret Thatcher, per se, but that they would never assist a woman in mobilizing the resources of their country. Slowly, something is changing, and through the literature on managerial effectiveness we see a very different picture being drawn. The area of managerial effectiveness according to Depboye (1987) is the literature most closely related to organizational power, for it examines the extent to which male and female managers are able to and are perceived to 'get things done' in their organizations. After centuries of people assuming that women made poor manages, the literature on managerial effectiveness is beginning to show a definite edge for women. As early as 1983, the research indicated that female and male managers evaluated by their subordinates as bas being equally effective (Terborg, 1983). In yet another study conducted during the same period, female managers were viewed by their immediate supervisors and by their peers as being more effective than their male counterparts, (Tsui, 1984). This positive evaluation of women as managers is

particularly strong among female MBA students and among female managers. In this latter study, in fact, female managers rated their female counterparts as being intelligent, more likeable, more successful and more able than male managers (Mickalachki, 1984).

The discrepancy is an obvious one: when organizational power is defined as the ability to mobilize resources, women are beginning to generate greater, organizational power than men in a world in which women's access to organizational resources and interpersonal power is more limited than that of men. In the fairest and most rational of systems, today's top executives would recognize this discrepancy and many more women would be promoted into upper management which the tools to effect greater change. While we await this event, it might be interesting to review the paradoxes of power that have been discussed in this chapter and to examine some of the ways in which women have coped with these paradoxes (Stewart, 1982).

2.5 Denial of Personal Discrimination

Women learn to cope with discrimination in a variety of ways. One of these methods, which researchers are only beginning to address, has come to be known as 'the denial of personal discrimination'. There is strong evidence that women clearly recognize the fact of sex discrimination in the workplace but that they fail to see how they, personally, have experienced discrimination. Against all evidence to the contrary, individual women tend to see themselves as being justly treated; even thought they recognize that women in general are not (Crosby ,1984). How is this possible? It is possible because, as Canadian psychologist Mel Lerner (1978), has demonstrated, people strive to perceive their world as a just and fair place. In order for the world to be just and fair women must compare their situation, not to the situation of men in comparable positions, but to the condition of other less fortunate women (Abbonanza, 1983).

The word 'denial' conjures up many negative connotations, for we tend to think of people in denial as people who are not exhibiting good mental health. To deny what others perceive to be reality is usually considered to be an ineffective coping strategy; however, it may have some advantages. Perhaps if they had accepted the reality of their own treatment in our society, women all over the world would have turned off their alarm clocks and gone back to sleep, rather than

facing the overwhelming challenge of sex-role liberation; and, as unfair as it may seem, women's ability to disassociate themselves from their own personal problems may have made their cause more credible and their arguments more effective. By not attaching personal blame to men, individual women may have made the integration of women in to the workplace a less bitter pill for men to swallow. By denying the reality of personal discrimination, women, at whatever price they have paid, may have created a new reality for us all (Colwill ,1992).

There are two sex-related issues in today's organizations that we believe are intertwined: more than 95 per cent of secretaries in North America and Western Europe are female; and more than 95 per cent of senior managers in North America and Western Europe are male. What is the relationship between these two statistics? Both derive from the belief that woman, the things that women do, and all things feminine are inferior to men, the things that men do and all things masculine, As members of a sex-role-liberated society, we try to provide male and female managers with sex-neutral business education, equal opportunity legislation and common workplace socialization. Despite this goal, organizations continue to demonstrate a fundamental lack of recognition and respect for female talents. Hence the secretarial role, populated primarily by women, is characterized by low status, poor salary and dead ends; while the management role, primarily populated by men, is characterized by high status, attractive salary packages and achievement.   The bulk of our knowledge about women and work is based on the study of women in business and management. This is not to argue that researchers should abandon their projects on women in management or that management should stop addressing the unique problems of their female managers. Rather we need to expand our knowledge of sex-role problems at wok, for the study of women in management tells us only about the attitudes towards women who enter the male-dominated field of leadership, and discrimination against these women is only a manifestation of a much broader phenomenon; the devaluation of women and the work that women do (Vinnicombe ,1995).

Discrimination against women has made it necessary over the years for governments to encourage and to require organizations to recruit on the basis of qualifications, and to pay and promote on the basis of skills and experience. Government interference has been a catalyst that

has benefited women in male-dominated occupations, allowing them the opportunity for their work to be measured by the same yardsticks as men's. Only recently have governments addressed the sub-issue- the devaluation of the work that women have traditionally done – with the implementation of 'comparable worth' legislation. The world of women and wok has changed for the better over the last two decades, but until we address the problems faced by larger cross-section of female workers, we will male little impact on the changes required. In order to appreciate fully why there are so few female senior mangers, we need to know why there are so many female secretaries. We need to understand their job descriptions, their attitudes, the attitudes of their male and female peers and mangers, their opportunities for promotion and the organizational structures in which they operate. Sex roles and work roles are intricate, multifaceted and ever-evolving, and we cannot hope to comprehend their complexities by focusing all our attention on the women who most closely resemble ourselves. This chapter is devoted to secretaries (Colwill, 1992).

Socialization and upbringing often leave women focusing on the important of caring for others rather than asserting themselves. This is an especially apparent factor in career development. Women often have difficulty in defining their careers, which is a great bock to career progress. Women managers can help one another to see the themes in their careers, using a structured career exercise, such as Edgar Schein's career anchors. The latter is particularly relevant to women because it defines the individual's self-image (abilities and talents; motives and drivers; and attitudes and values) through analyzing all her varied work experiences. In so doing, the exercise helps women to integrate what many women see merely as a series of jobs and to see future possible career choices. Edgar Schein career anchors exercise is additionally helpful to women managers, for not only does it pull together what women see only as a series of jobs, it also empowers women by showing how they have influenced the shape of their careers to-date. The importance of balancing career and family is often central to women. The career anchors exercise highlights this orientation (Schein ,1990).

2.6 Barriers to Equality

Several writers have identified the major barriers to women's representation in senior

management as including: the attitudes and behavior of male managers; search and recruitment methods; selection and assessment method; and organizational policies and structures that create insurmountable problems for those who care for other family members. This chapter will focus on one of these, namely selection and assessment, which is of particular important since it reflects both ubiquitous and insidious forms of potential discrimination. Moreover, as organizations are adapting increasingly sophisticated assessment methods, the nature of possible gender bias becomes far more difficult to notice and to challenge (Schein, 1990).

2.7 Gender and Career Promotion

Finally, if women are not perceived to be as competent as their male colleagues, all as possessing attributes commonly associated with effective management, this will undoubtedly have profound effects of rates of promotion. Regrettably this too is born out of research. There have been several studies which have revealed far slower rates of promotion for women than men in the same organizations and specialism, even when the woman is better qualified. Examples abound in a wide range of professions including management, nursing, education, law medicine and accountancy. The least is endless (Davidson, 1994).

A recent in the United States revealed a more disturbing source of discrimination. A group of male and female MBAs were compared in respect with their levels of promotion several years after graduation. Surprisingly, there were not significant differences in the number of promotions but further investigations revealed that the women had attained significantly lower positions of management authority than did the men. It should be noted that variables such as career breaks were controlled for. The women were far more likely to have been promoted within their specialism – a phenomenon called 'pacification by promotion.' Their promotions were hollow since their influence did not increase (Flanders,1973).

2.8 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework identified the key influential factors in this research, and indicated clearly their interrelationships. This was basically expected to be indicative of the obstacles to

women's upward mobility in public universities.

Individual Factors These were personal factors that influence upward mobility of women employees, including; Lack of self motivation, family responsibilities, self perception and qualifications.

Organizational Factors: These are factors within the universities that influence upward mobility of women, including; Discriminatory appointments, inadequate policies , corporate politics and corporate culture.

External Factors: These are factors from outside the universities that influence upward mobility of women, including; Cultural Stereotyping, Tribalism and Political Chauvinism

Moderating Factors: These are variables that influence external and internal factors on upward mobility of women in public universities, including; attitudes, past Experience, expectations and motives.

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┌─────────────────────────┐                                      ┌──────────────────┐
│ **Individual Factors**  │                                      │                  │
│ -Lack of Self Motivation│ ────────────────────────────────►   │     Upward       │
│ -Family Responsibilities│                                      │                  │
│ -Self Perception        │                                      │    Mobility      │
│ -Qualifications         │                                      │                  │
│ -Attitudes              │                                      │      Of          │
│ -Work experience        │                                      │                  │
│ -Personality            │                                      │    Women         │
└─────────────────────────┘                                      │                  │
           ▲                                                     │   Employees      │
           │                ┌──────────────────────────┐         │                  │
           │                │ **Organizational Factors**│         │                  │
           │                │ -Inadequate Policies      │ ──────► │                  │
           │                │ -Corporate Culture        │         │                  │
           │                │ -Organizational Politics  │         │                  │
           │                └──────────────────────────┘         │                  │
           │                          ▲                          │                  │
           │   ┌─────────────────────────┐                       │                  │
           │   │ **External Factors**    │                       │                  │
           └───│ -Cultural Stereotyping  │ ────────────────────► │                  │
               │ -Nepotism               │                       │                  │
               │ -Political Chauvinism   │                       └──────────────────┘
               │ -Family responsibility  │
               │ -Group influence        │
               └─────────────────────────┘
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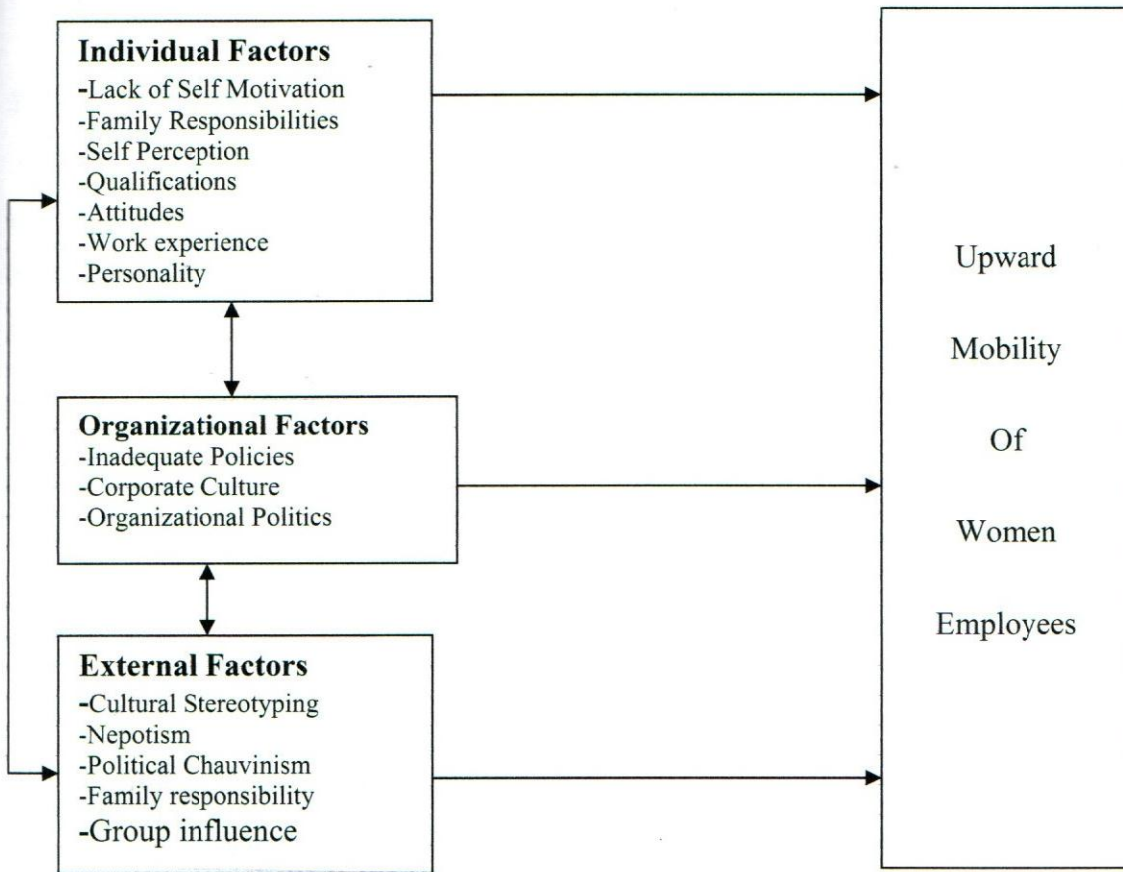
Figure 1: Determinants of upward mobility of women employees

(Source: Author *(own compilation)*, 2007)

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Location of the Study

The study was conducted at Egerton University. The university is one of the seven public universities in the country University. Its main campus (Njoro) is located in Nakuru district of Rift Valley Province. The other six campuses include Kisii, Nakuru Town, Laikipia, Kenyatta, Chemiron and Chuka.

3.2 Target Population of the Study

The target population for this study included women employees in both academic and non-academic departments of the university. There were a total of 714 women employees employed in various departments and sections of Egerton University.

3.3 Sampling Size and Procedures

Ideally, it was preferable to collect data from all the campuses of Egerton University. However, because of time, manpower and financial constraints, sampling was inevitable. The target population was stratified into three strata with grades 1 – IV having 340; grade A-F with 269; and grades XI- XVIII had 135 employees. The sample elements were then selected from each stratum using simple random sampling. Proportionate stratified random sample of 35% from the three strata was selected from a total population of 714 women members of staff. Using the table for determination of sample size by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), 119 women were selected from first stratum (grades 1 – IV), 93 from second stratum (grade A-F) and 36 from the third stratum (grades XI- XVIII) giving a total of 248 respondents.

3.4 Data Collection

Data was collected through the administration of a structured questionnaire which was filled by the respondents. In a structured questionnaire, the questions, their wordings and sequence were fixed and identical for all the respondents. This had the advantage of eliciting standard answers

to questions, making it possible for comparisons to be made between sets of data. Each instrument aimed at collecting specific information from the target respondents. The questionnaires were dropped and picked from the respondents.

3.5 Data Analysis

Data collected were processed, coded and analyzed to facilitate answering the research objectives and questions. A computer-based programme - Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.5 for windows was employed. The descriptive analyses, including frequencies, percentages, tables, pie charts, bar graphs and cross-tabulations, were used to summarize and organize data and describe the characteristics of the sample population.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the research results. The discussion addresses the research objectives of the study which included:

(i) To evaluate individual factors hindering upward mobility of women in public universities

(ii) To evaluate organizational factors hindering upward mobility of women in public universities.

(iii) To evaluate external factors hindering upward mobility of women in public universities.

The data collected on these objectives were analyzed descriptively with the aid of a computer statistical programme known as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.5 for windows.

4.2 Individual Factors Hindering Upward Mobility of Women Employees

The first objective of this study sought to evaluate individual factors hindering upward mobility of women in public universities. From literature review, the study had identified ten individual factors which are believed to significantly influence upward career progression of women employees. These factors included: age, professional training, academic qualification, gender, marital status, seniority (job experience), family responsibilities, self motivation, personality and job performance. Therefore in order to address this objective, the study evaluated the effectiveness of each of these factors separately and cumulatively on upward career progression of the sampled women employees. The level of effectiveness of each of these factors was measured on a 5-point range likert scale. The sample respondents were requested to rate the level of effectiveness of each factor on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 indicates not effective, 3 mean average/moderate effective, while 5 indicates highly effective. Table 2 shows the distribution of

their responses.

Table 2

Effectiveness of individual factors on upward career progression

	Factors	Response (%)					Mean
		1	2	3	4	5	
1.	Professional training	7.5	1.9	24.5	18.9	47.2	3.96
2.	Academic qualification	11.3	7.5	17.0	26.4	37.7	3.72
3.	Job performance	15.1	9.5	24.5	17.0	34.0	3.45
4.	Personality	17.0	11.3	24.5	24.5	22.6	3.25
5.	Self motivation	20.8	11.3	28.3	22.6	17.0	3.04
6.	Gender	30.2	15.1	18.9	22.6	13.2	2.74
7.	Age influence	35.8	13.2	20.8	13.2	17.0	2.62
8.	Seniority	32.1	20.8	18.9	15.1	13.2	2.57
9.	Marital status	43.4	13.2	15.1	9.4	18.9	2.47
10.	Family responsibilities	43.4	13.2	20.8	7.5	15.1	2.38

N = 106

An examination of Table 2 reveals that the respondents rated the effectiveness of the first five factors on upward career progression, that is, professional training, academic qualifications, job performance, personality and self-motivation, above average (3.0). This indicates that these five factors were considered to be moderately/averagely effective in influencing their upward career progression in Egerton University. This suggests that the most influential individual factors in upward career progression were those which are more related to the occupation rather those that were non-occupational in nature. Upward career progression among the sampled respondents was more influenced by their qualifications (professional and academic), their job output (performance), good personality and self-motivation to work and perform better. This encouraged equal opportunities for career progression to all qualified female and male employees. This means that non-occupational factors, those that are not related to directly to one's occupation, were less effective in upward career progression of the respondents. This is reflected in the way the respondents lowly rated the last five factors (below average, 3.0), including gender, age, seniority, marital status and family responsibilities, which were more related to an individual rather employment. Despite the fact that gender did prominently feature among the most important factors influencing upward career progression, it was the strongest

when non-occupational related factors were considered.

Given the level of effectiveness of each of the above factors on upward career progression of the respondents, the study also sought to rate the challenge each factor posed on upward mobility. It was established that 76 (71.7 %) and 72 (67.9 %) of the respondents reported that professional training and academic qualifications, respectively, posed the strongest challenge to their upward career progression. This was in contrast with only 30.2 percent (32) and 47.2 percent (50) of the respondents who considered gender and family responsibilities, respectively, to have a strong challenge on their upward career progression. This suggests that individual factors that were occupational-related, such as professional and academic qualifications, strongly influenced upward career progression compared to non-occupational ones like gender and family responsibilities. These findings concur with Colwill (1992), who observes that there has been a gradual change for equal employment opportunities and treatment globally. There is high level of awareness about the need for gender equality and equity devoid of discrimination in many organizations offering employment opportunities. With this, most governments world-wide, including Kenya, have initiated programmes aimed at encouraging equal employment opportunities to male and female employees and recruit on the basis of qualifications, and to pay and promote on the basis of performance, skills and experience. Government interference has been a catalyst that has benefited women in male-dominated occupations, allowing them the opportunity for their work to be measured by the same yardsticks as men.

In evaluating the above ten factors, the study recognized the fact that none of them sufficiently operate in isolation and the overall effect on upward career progression depends on the cumulative interaction of all of them (occupation-related and non-occupation-related) at the work place. The study therefore sought to analyze the overall interaction and effectiveness of all these factors on upward career progression of the respondents. The individual rating scores for each factor were added up to form an overall effectiveness score for each respondent. The total score varied between 10 and 50, with 10 indicating less effective, 30 indicating averagely/moderately effective while 50 indicated more effective on upward career progression of women employees. The higher the score, the more effective are the ten factors on upward career progression of

women employees, and vice versa. The total score was later coded into three ordinal categories in order to differentiate between the levels of effectiveness of the ten factors on upward career progression of women employees in Egerton University. This included a score below 30 (10-29) meaning less effective, a score of 30 (average/moderate effect) and a score above 30 (31-50) meaning more effective. Table 3 depicts the overall level of effectiveness of the ten individual factors on upward career progression of women employees.

Table 3

Level of effectiveness of individual factors on upward career progression

Level of Effectiveness	Frequency	Percent
Less	54	50.9
Average/moderate	4	3.8
More	48	45.3
Total	106	100.0

Table 3 indicates that when all the ten individual factors cumulatively interact and operate in a work place, 50.9 percent of the respondents rated them less effective in influencing upward career progression of women employees in Egerton University. This may be attributed to the respondents who thought that individual factors were just but a subset of factors influencing upward career progression. However, 45.3 percent of the respondents considered their individual factors to be more effective in influencing their upward career progression. This group may have attributed their response to the strong influence of the five occupation-related factors, including professional training, academic qualifications, job performance, personality and self-motivation, on upward career progression. This means that empowering women employees in the above five areas were likely to enhance their upward career progression, and vice versa.

Given the above overall interaction of the ten individual factors and their ultimate effect on upward career progression, the study also sought to establish the future prospects of upward mobility of the respondents. Figure 2 depicts the distribution of their responses.
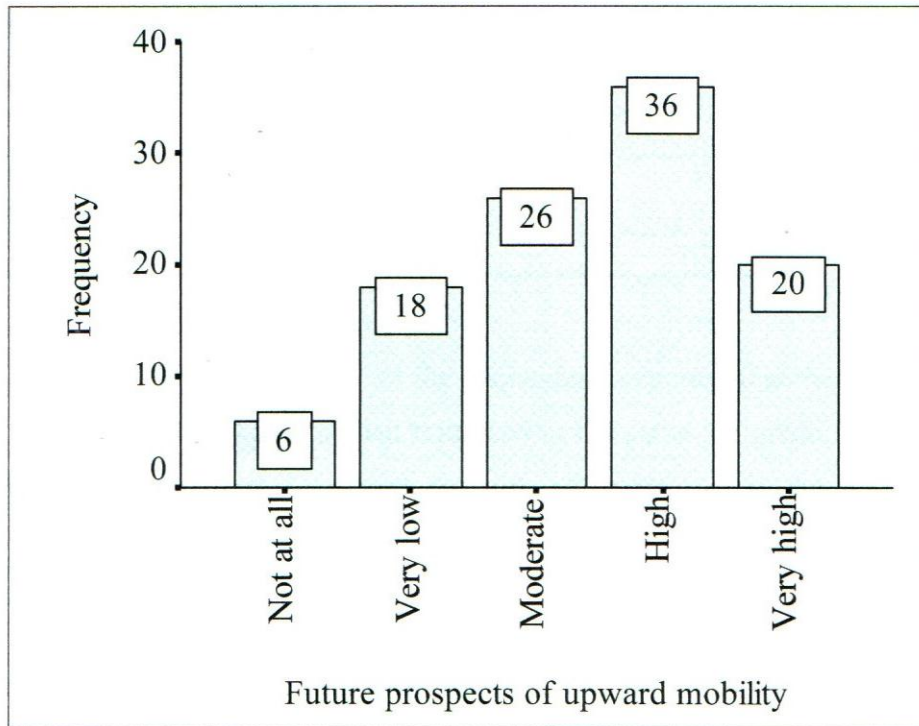
Figure 2: Future prospects of upward mobility

An examination of Figure 2 indicates that 82 (77.4 %) of the respondents reported that they had at least moderate/average prospects for future upward mobility. From this group 36 (34.0 %) of them had high prospects, while 20 (18.9 %) had very high prospects of upward mobility. These responses were very encouraging and promising for the women employees and were reported to be based on the university career development and job grade policy, and their own (women employees) efforts to improve on their professional training, academic qualifications, job performance, personality and self-motivation at the place of work. Such workers were therefore more likely to be motivated to work harder and improve their performance knowing that their efforts will be rewarded. For the remaining 24 respondents, 6 (5.7 %) of them reported that they had no future prospects for upward mobility. Table 4 summarizes reasons given by the six as to why there were no future prospects for upward mobility.

Table 4

Reasons for no prospect for upward mobility

Reason	Frequency	Percent
Nobody cares	4	66.7
Upward mobility is applied selectively	2	33.3
Total	6	100.0

As indicated in Table 4, 4 (66.7 %) of the respondents reported that there was nobody who cared for their upward mobility as they had remained in the same job grade for a long period of time. Two of them had witnessed upward mobility of employees in the university being applied selectively and therefore considered themselves among the unlucky lot.

4.3 Organizational Factors Hindering Upward Mobility of Women Employees

The second objective of this study aimed at evaluating organizational factors hindering upward mobility of women employees in public universities. In the objective, organizational factors were considered to be the internal factors within the public civil service institutions, Egerton University in this case, that influenced upward career progression of women employees. Two most important aspects of the university internal factors were therefore considered to have an influence on career development of its employees. They included university career development policy and departmental career path.

4.3.1 University Career Development Policy

Optimal performance and reward of the employees in an organization is greatly determined by the availability of policies and programmes that ensure adequate and commensurate upward mobility of its workers. Employees who are aware of how they are rewarded at their place of work develop positive self-motivation and determination to work. This is however, in contrast with places where employees are either not aware of channels for upward mobility or reward is done haphazardly with no tangible considerations. In this study, the respondents were asked whether the university career development policy was clear to them. Figure 3 gives a summary
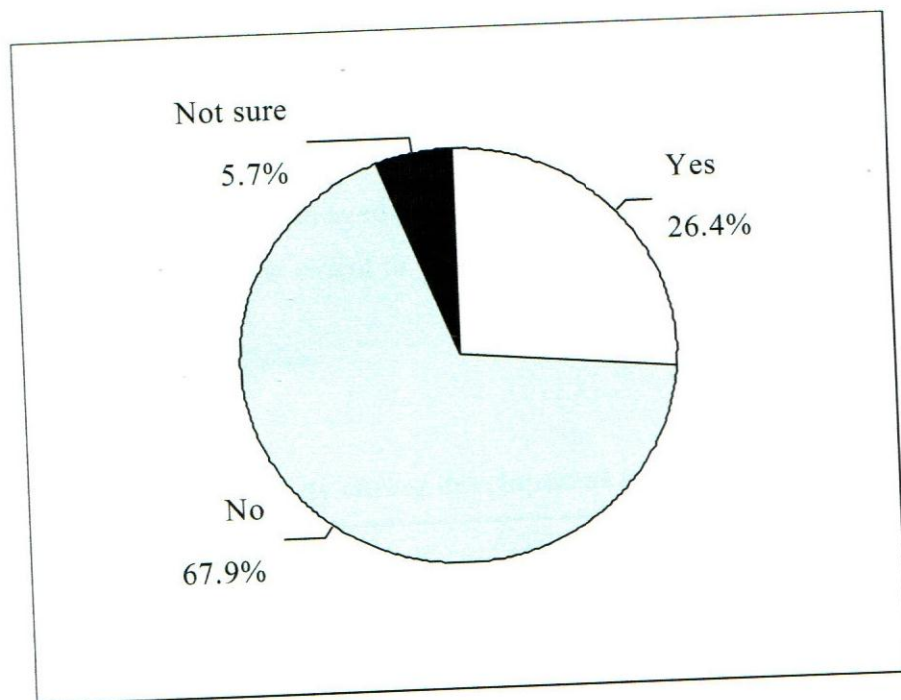
of their responses.

Figure 3: Clear university career development policy

As indicated in Figure 3, 67.9 percent (72) of the respondents reported that the university career development policy was not clear to them. This suggests that either they had no access to the policy or the policy was not well elaborate to them. Such employees were therefore not likely to be aware of what they are supposed to do in order to enhance their career progression. They may treat any career reward as a gift and not something they had worked for or deserved. Also they may consider any reward that has not benefited them as a form of discrimination against them, without understanding whether the other beneficiary(ies) deserved or not. This may ultimately lead to a de-motivated staff that has got no vision, not productive and lack enthusiasm to work hard and develop their careers. However, 26.4 percent (28) indicated that the university career development policy was clear to them. This suggests that the respondent had access to the policy, were aware of what it contained, what is expected of them and its benefits. This is likely to motivate them to work hard, develop their careers and improve their productivity. The remaining 5.7 percent (6) of the respondents were not sure of whether the policy was clear to them. They attributed this to the numerous and disjointed policy frameworks that have been developed by the

university catering for various welfare issues of the workers. They also reported that some contradictory career rewards in the university that do not seem to be consistent with the policy. This therefore had made them not know whether whatever that was in the policy is what was supposed to be implemented.

The 28 respondents, who indicated that the university career development policy was clear to them, were asked about the extent to which the institution observed the policy. Their responses are highlighted in Table 5.

Table 5

Observation of the university career development policy

Observation of the policy	Frequency	Percent
Strictly observed	2	7.1
Moderately observed	14	50.0
Occasionally observed	8	28.6
Never observed	4	14.3
Total	28	100.0

Table 5 indicated that 50.0 percent of the respondents considered the university to have been observing the career development policy moderately. This suggests that the university was observing the policy in partiality and under certain conditions. Such a scenario was retrogressive and dangerous to upward mobility of the employees as they may not know when they were likely to benefit from or be disadvantaged by the policy. Only two respondents reported that the university strictly observed the policy. This could be some of the respondents who had personally and deservingly benefited from the policy or had witnessed deserving cases being rewarded by the university following the policy. In conclusion, therefore, the table shows that even the 28 employees who were aware and understood the policy, they had not witnessed equal implementation of policy by the university. Such a scenario is dangerous and does not motivate workers to work hard and enhance their careers.

The 28 respondents, who indicated that the university career development policy was clear to them, were further asked about the factors in the policy which were determinant of their upward

career progression. Table 6 summarizes these factors and their distribution among the respondents. Note that some respondents were mentioning more than one factor in the policy. Therefore, the percentages in the table for each factor are out of 28 respondents.

Table 6

Determinant factors for upward career progression in the policy

Factors	Frequency	Percentage of 28
Professional training	18	64.3
Academic qualifications	14	50.0
Gender	10	35.7
Experience	8	28.6

Table 6 indicates that professional training and academic qualifications were the most influential and strong factors in the university career development policy determining upward career progression of the respondents. The respondents reported that academic qualification serves as the entry point after which one has to advance in professional training regarding his/her career. This is in agreement with the individual factors that were mentioned earlier to be crucial in influencing upward career progression of employees in the university. This is also a strong indication that upward career progression of employees in the university is more dependent on one's ability to attain adequate professional training and academic qualification than any other factor. The 28 respondents further rated the strength of each of these four factors in university career development policy in influencing their upward career progression. The strength of each of factor was measured on a 5-point range likert scale using the four factors. The sample respondents were requested to rate the strength of each factor on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 indicates very weak, 3 meaning averagely/moderately strong, while 5 indicates very strong in determining upward career progression. Table 7 shows the distribution of their ratings.

Table 7

Strength of factors in the career development policy for upward career progression

Factors	Response (%)					Mean
	1	2	3	4	5	
Academic qualifications	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.3	85.7	4.86
Professional training	0.0	0.0	22.2	33.3	44.4	4.22
Gender consideration	0.0	0.0	40.0	40.0	20.0	3.80
Experience	25.0	0.0	25.0	25.0	25.0	3.25

As indicated in Table 7, academic qualifications and professional training had the highest mean scores of 4.86 and 4.22, respectively. This suggests that the respondents rated academic qualifications and professional training as the strongest factors in the university career development policy that determine their upward career progression. These were followed by gender consideration and experience which scored 3.80 and 3.25, respectively. The respondents reported that as a result of the current pressure from the government and other pressure groups for affirmative action in public institutions, there have been concerted efforts by the administration to improve on gender equality and equity in employment and upward career development. This has seen women employees benefiting from various programmes aimed at uplifting and improving their career progression in institutions of learning. Experience was reported to play a role only when after the other three factors have been considered. It can therefore be concluded that the university career development policy is adequate enough to allow equal opportunity for employees to attain optimal upward career progression in the university.

Given the university career development policy and its effectiveness in enabling women employees attain upward career progression, the study also sought to establish whether it was feasible for the university to have gender equality. Figure 4 summarizes the views of the respondents about the feasibility of gender equality in the university.
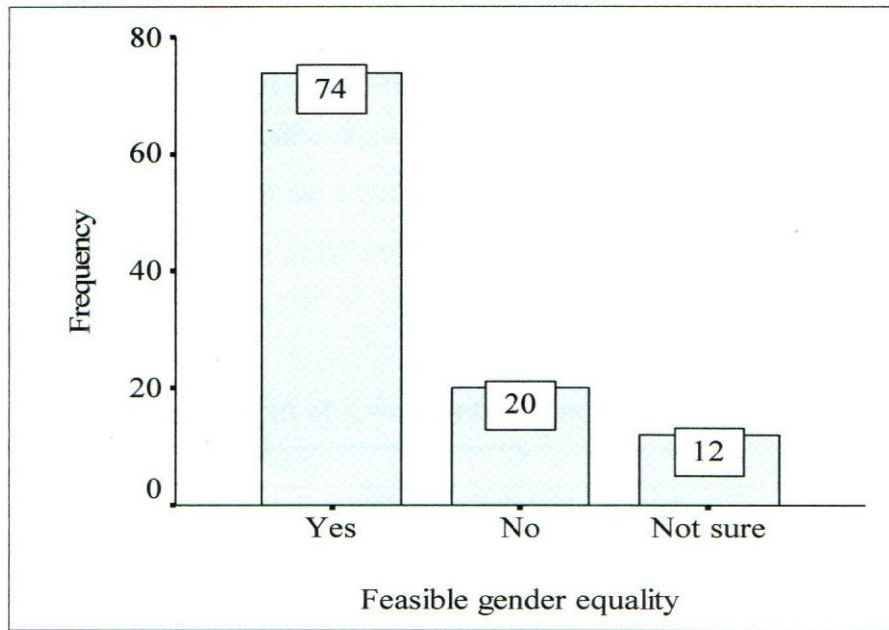
Figure 4: Feasibility of gender equality in the university

An examination of Figure 4 reveals that 74 (69.8 %) of the respondents thought that it was feasible for the university to attain gender equality. The 74 respondents reported that gender equality is already envisaged in the university policy, government policies and the general clamour for affirmative action in the whole world. Institutions world-wide are slowly moving from gender discrimination and marginalization and are now championing for equality and equity in all the spheres of life. The universities, being the cream of the society and receptive to new and emerging ideologies, are therefore expected to spearhead gender equality. Twenty (18.9 %) respondents did not foresee the attainment of gender equality in the university. They attributed this to rigidity and male domination of the university management. They reported that male managers of public institutions in African countries are yet to appreciate the capabilities of women employees. Most of them have culturally developed negative attitudes towards women and their capabilities and may not be ready to implement gender equality as clamoured world-wide. The remaining 12 (11.3 %) respondents were not sure of whether this is feasible. They attributed this to general reluctant and lack of commitment among managers of institutions.

However, when asked whether they foresaw the possibilities of the university having a woman as

a top administrator soon, including registrar, principal, deputy vice chancellor or a vice chancellor, only 60.4 percent (64) of the respondents agreed. The remaining 39.6 percent (42) did not see this to be possible soon. They enumerated the following reasons why it was not possible to have a woman as a top administrator soon. Table 8 depicts reasons why such appointments may not occur in the near future.

Table 8

Reasons for no appointment of a woman top administrator in near future

Reasons	Frequency	Percent
Management is male dominated with associated chauvinism	26	61.9
Gender discrimination against women	8	19.0
No signs for such an eventuality	4	9.5
Few educated and qualified women	4	9.5
Total	42	100.0

Table 8 indicates that 61.9 percent (26) of the respondents attributed lack a woman in top administration in the near future to male domination of the university management and their associated chauvinism. They reported that university management is dominated by male administrators who may not be ready to pave way for a woman to be appointment at highest level. This may be linked to cultural and traditional gender stereotyping where women in African setting are assumed not to be efficient leaders and managers. Their position has been reserved at the domestic level while men are assumed to be efficient managers with good leadership qualities. These findings seem to concur with Steinem (1984) who observes that the obstacles to women taking their rightful places in the management/running of business and industry are still formidable and, some would argue, growing more intractable. The realignment of power needed to change the position of women in the working world is only gradually beginning to inch forward and may not make appreciable gains.

4.3.2 Departmental Career Path

The university career development policy is operationalized and implemented by the departments from where the employees work. It is the head of the department who is supposed to

oversee the domestication and implementation of the overall university career development policy among its staff members. Therefore, it is prudent for the department to have a well chartered career path that its staff members are supposed to follow so as to benefit from the university policy. The study therefore sought to establish whether various departments from where the respondents were drawn had developed a career path for its staff members. Figure 5 shows the distribution of awareness of a career path in the departments.
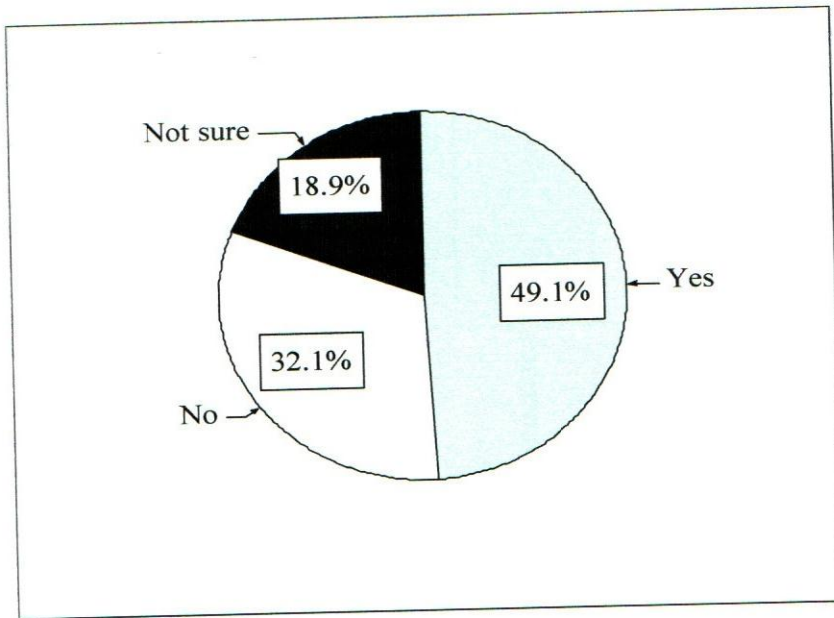

Figure 5: Department developed a career path

Figure 5 indicates that 49.1 percent (52) of the respondent reported that their departments had a career path. This suggests that the respondents were aware of career steps and procedures that they were to follow in their career progression. This is very important to the employees as they are made aware in advance of what is expected of them and how to achieve it. This also limits chance of discrimination as everybody knows what is happening and therefore it is up to the individual to craft his/her own career path in line with what has been prescribed by the department. This also gives the employees room for petition in case one feels disadvantaged even after meeting the required criteria as stipulated in the departmental career path. The remaining 32.1 percent (34) of the respondents were not aware of such a career path, while 18.9 percent (20) were not sure of its existence. This shows that more that more than a half (51.9 %)

of the respondents was not aware of a career path in their departments. Such employees were therefore not likely to know what was expected of them and what do to enhance their career progression. They are likely to see any reward that does not benefit them as form of discrimination even when it is not. The 52 respondents aware of a career path in their departments were also asked how effective it was followed. Figure 6 summarizes how effective the departments followed the career path developed.
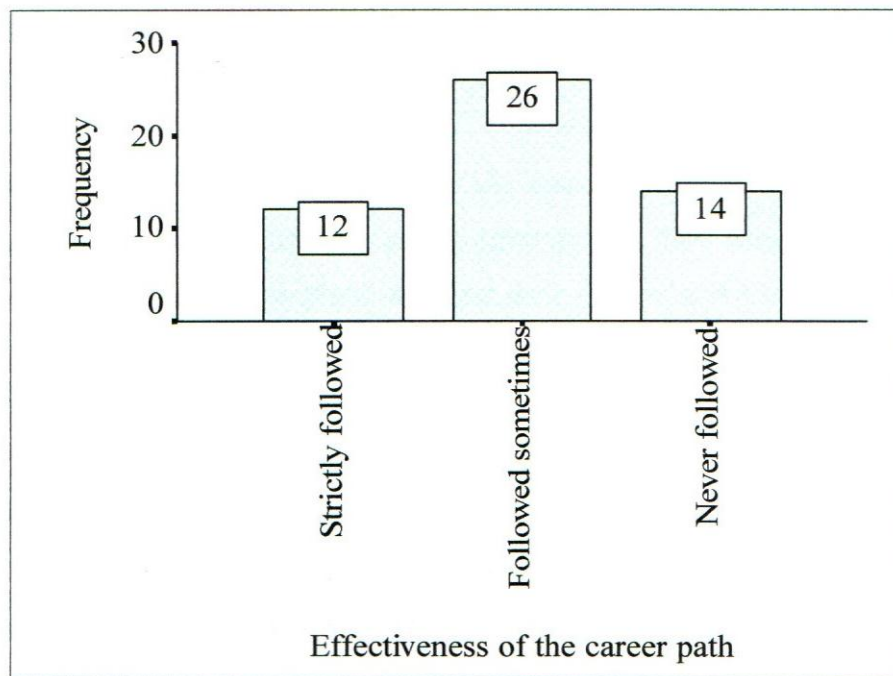

Figure 6: Observation of the departmental career path

From Figure 6, it is observed that 26 (50.0 %) of the respondents reported that the career path in their department is followed sometimes. This suggests that the career path charted by the departments were not fully observed. This may indicate discrimination or lack of seriousness on the part of the persons responsible for the implementation of the career path. Employees in such departments are likely to be disillusioned as they may not know whether their career development efforts in line with the career path of the department will be observed or not. This is not good for optimal career development of employees in any organization.

The 52 respondents, who indicated that their departments had developed a career path, were

further asked about whether the departments have created conducive environment for all in terms of career development. Table 9 summarizes the distribution of their responses.

Table 9

Department created a conducive environment for career development for all

Conducive environment	Frequency	Percent
Yes	38	73.1
No	12	23.1
Not sure	2	3.8
Total	52	100.0

As indicated in Table 9, 73.1 percent of the respondents reported that their departments had created conducive environment for career development. This suggests that that the respondents were able to adequately chart and develop their careers and therefore attain optimal upward career progression. Such respondents were more likely to be motivated to work hard knowing that their efforts shall be rewarded. This also shows that most of the departments that had developed career path did not discriminate against employees in terms of attaining upward career development. It is therefore upon the individual employee to determine and put more efforts in developing his/her own career. For the remaining 23.1 percent and 3.8 percent, respectively, the departments had not created conducive environment to facilitate their career development despite the presence of a career path.

There are a number of factors that facilitate the creation of a conducive environment for adequate career development in any organization that has a career path. These factors include academic preparation (further studies), job training, concern for personal problems, and gender consideration. This study sought to evaluate the effectiveness of each of these factors in facilitating a conducive environment for career development among the 38 respondents who had indicated that their department had done so. The level of effectiveness of each of these factors was measured on a 5-point range likert scale using the four factors. The sample respondents were requested to rate the level of effectiveness of each factor on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 indicates not effective, 3 mean average/moderate effective, while 5 indicates highly effective. Table 10

shows the rating of the factors determining a conducive environment for career development in a department.

Table 10

Effectiveness of factors determining career development in the department

Factors	Response (%)					Mean
	1	2	3	4	5	
Academic preparation (further studies)	0.0	15.8	5.3	31.6	47.4	4.11
Job training	5.3	21.1	5.3	26.3	42.1	3.79
Gender consideration	10.5	26.3	31.6	21.1	10.5	2.95
Concern for personal problems	10.5	36.8	21.1	21.1	10.5	2.84

N = 38

An examination of Table 10 reveals that academic preparation (further studies) and job training had the highest mean scores of 4.11 and 3.79, respectively, which were above average. This suggests that the respondents rated academic preparation (further studies) and job training as the most effective factors that facilitated the creation of a conducive environment for career development in their departments. The departments were reported to be facilitating academic preparation by allowing their staff members to pursue further studies either internally or even outside the university. The university supported this by granting study leaves and fees wavers for those staff members willing to pursue relevant courses. Therefore many staff members had enrolled for internal degree and certificate courses. For job training, some respondents indicated that they had worked as understudies of senior and experience staff members while others underwent rigorous programmed on-job training. From the table, it can therefore be concluded that department emphasized more on professional and academic qualifications (occupational-related factors) than non-occupational-related factors such as gender and personal problems which scored below average (3.0). This goes further to suggest that all employees had equal opportunity of attaining upward career development regardless of their gender and personal considerations.

The study established that departments in the university varied in terms of the number of women

employed. Some had a higher number of women employees, while others had low and insignificant number of women. Table 11 depicts the proportion of women employees in the departments from where the respondents were selected.

Table 11

Proportion of women employees in the departments

Proportion in %	Frequency	Percent
0-10	32	30.2
11-20	14	13.2
21-30	6	5.7
31-40	18	17.0
41-50	14	13.2
61-70	8	7.5
71-80	2	1.9
81-90	2	1.9
91-100	10	9.4
Total	106	100.0

Table 11 indicates that 70 (66.0 %) of the respondents reported that women employees in their departments formed 40.0 percent and below proportion of the entire staff. This suggests a gross imbalance of the female gender in the available opportunities of the university. Such scenario may stifle the voice, opinions and chances of women employees in the university management and operations. The women may not marshal enough support to push their agenda in the university. From the table, it is encouraging to note that 9.4 percent of the respondents had 91-100 percent proportion of their staff members as women. These were departments whose work were more regarded as feminine and include accommodation and catering departments. However, still the same, men in the very departments occupied the top positions. Given the imbalance in the number of women employees, the respondents were asked about their perception of the level of performance of women in the departments. Figure 7 highlights the level of performance.
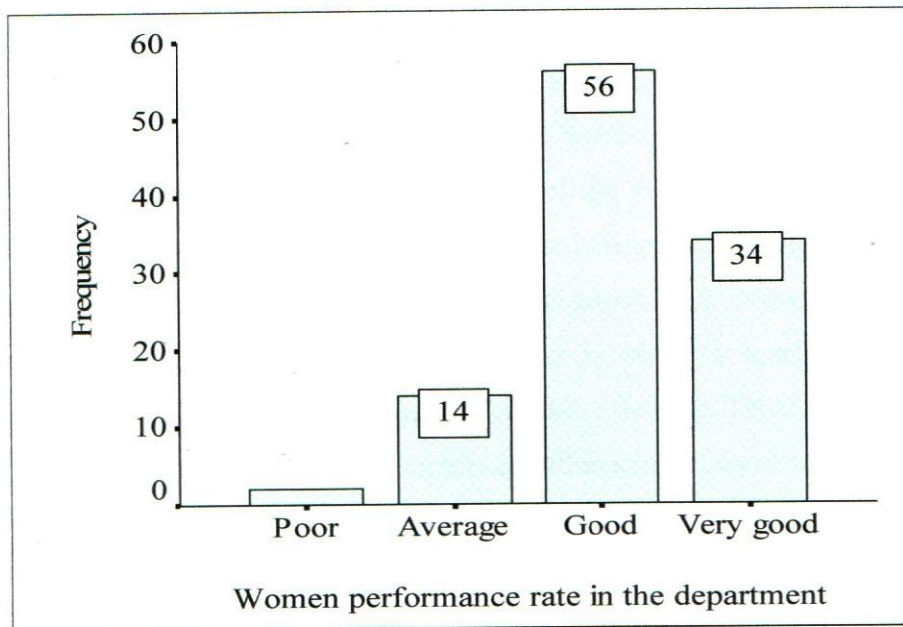
Figure 7: Perception of the level of performance of women employees

From Figure 7, it is observed that 56 (52.8 %) of the respondents perceived the level of performance of women employees as good, while 34 (32.1 %) considered it to be very good. This suggests that the respondents considered women employees to be equal to their tasks and capable of registering good performance just as their male counterparts. Only two respondents (1.9 %) rated the performance of women employees as poor. The two attributed this to the negative attitude towards capabilities of women employees, and lack of adequate recognition and appreciation of their contribution.

4.4 External Factors Hindering Upward Mobility of Women

The third objective of this study aimed at evaluating the external factors hindering upward mobility of women employees in public universities. The objective was based on the fact that public universities being part of the wider public civil service are also influenced by the external factors characterizing the central government and/or the entire country in general. Therefore, external factors that either facilitate or hinder gender equity and equality in career development, are likely to spill over into public universities and influence upward career progression of women employees. From literature review, the study had identified four external factors which are

believed to significantly influence upward career progression of women employees. These factors included: nepotism, politics, stereotypes and attitudinal problems. Therefore in order to address this objective, the study evaluated the effectiveness of each of these factors separately and cumulatively on upward career progression of the sampled women employees. The level of effectiveness of each of these factors was measured on a 5-point range likert scale using the four identified external factors. The sample respondents were requested to rate the level of effectiveness of each factor on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 indicates not effective, 3 mean average/moderate effective, while 5 indicates highly effective. Table 12 shows the distribution of the rating of effectiveness of external factors in influencing upward career progression.

Table 12

Effectiveness of external factors on upward career progression

	Factor	Response (%)					Mean
		1	2	3	4	5	
1.	Nepotism	9.4	5.7	30.2	17.0	37.7	3.68
2.	Attitudinal problems	7.5	17.0	34.0	17.0	24.5	3.34
3.	Stereotypes	7.5	7.5	49.1	17.0	18.9	3.32
4.	Politics	17.0	11.3	22.6	24.5	24.5	3.28

N = 106

Table 12 indicates that the respondents rated all the four factors above average (3.0). This suggests that external factors characterizing politics of the country and policies of the central government influences upward career progression of women employees in the university. However, nepotism was ranked highest among the four. The respondents reported that for along time, appointment of top management positions in public universities had been a reserve of the central government (the president). This had witnessed entrenchment of nepotism in the universities with people from certain communities being favoured or discriminated depending on the lineage of the person in top management. The six public universities were therefore dominated by certain tribe/ethnic cliques which at times deliberately discriminated people from other tribes. Upward career progression was therefore influenced by personal connections and tribal lineage. The situation is however slowly changing as the universities are given autonomy power to competitively appointment persons to occupy top management positions. This will hopefully de-linked universities management from the control and whims of the central

government and politics

Attitudinal problems and gender stereotyping were reported to be influenced by the African cultural factors which discriminated upon the female gender who are assumed to be less productive and have no leadership qualities compared to the male counterparts. This has at times limited upward career progression of women employees, especially in areas/occupations that have been assumed to a reserve of men. However, with the recent increase in the level of awareness about gender equity and equality, men are slowly accepting the fact that women have the capacity to perform better at the places of work and attain optimal career progression. External politics was reported to have a great influence on the policies of the central government, especially when it is used to influence appointment of top management of the public universities. Men dominate the political scene in the country and therefore they are usually favoured in the appointments to head public institutions. This is done so as to perpetrate the political agenda of the ruling class. Women being less aggressive politically are therefore disadvantaged in such appointments. Male dominated administration has, in turn, been a hindrance for upward career progression of women in public institutions.

The above four external factors cumulatively interact and influence career progression of women employees in an organization. The study analyzed the overall interaction and effectiveness of all these factors on upward career progression of women employees in Egerton University. The individual rating scores for each factor were added up to form an overall effectiveness score for each respondent. The total score varied between 4 and 20, with 4 indicating less effective, 12 indicating averagely/moderately effective while 20 indicated more effective on upward career progression of women employees. The higher the score, the more effective are the four external factors on upward career progression of women employees, and vice versa. The total score was later coded into three ordinal categories in order to differentiate between the levels of effectiveness of the four factors on upward career progression of women employees in Egerton University. This included a score below 12 (4-11) meaning less effective, a score of 12 (average/moderate effect) and a score above 12 (13-20) meaning more effective. Figure 8 depicts the overall level of effectiveness of the four external factors on upward career progression of
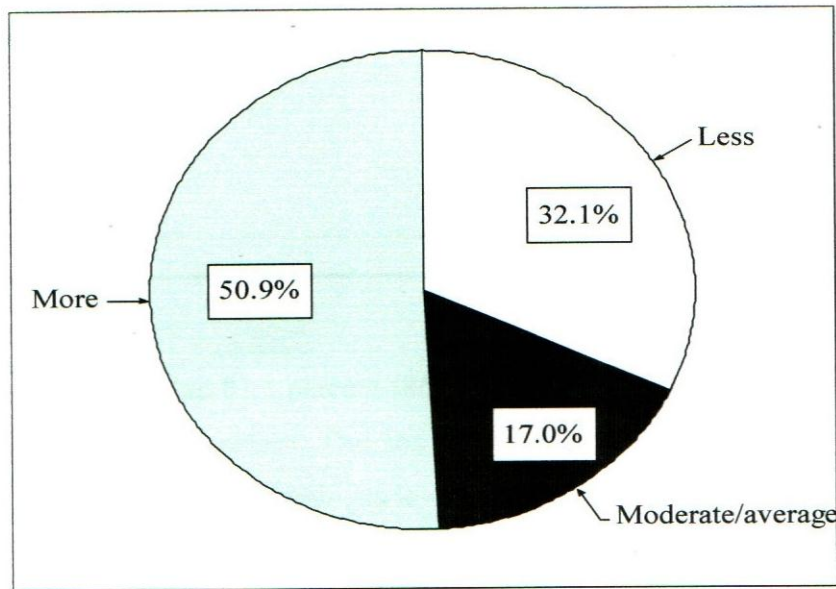
women employees.

Figure 8: Level of effectiveness of external factors on upward career progression

As Figure 8 indicates that when all the four external factors cumulatively interact and operate in the university, 50.9 percent (54) of the respondents rated them as more effective in influencing upward career progression of women employees in Egerton University. This suggests that the external factors had a very strong influence on the upward career progression of women employees. Public institutions are influenced by the external characteristics of the country and the attainment of upward career progression will therefore greatly depend on the interplay of these factors. Favourable external influence may facilitate upward career progression of women, and vice versa.

The overall upward career progression of the women employees will depend on the cumulative interaction and influence of individual, organizational and external factors. This study therefore sought to establish the number of time that the grade/position of respondent women employees in the university had been reviewed since their first appointment. Table 13 summarizes the number of times job grades of the respondents were reviewed.

Table 13

Number of times of job grade review

Number of times	Frequency	Percent
0	20	18.9
1	36	34.0
2	34	32.1
3	12	11.3
4	4	3.8
Total	106	100.0

Table 13 indicates that 81.1 percent (86) of the respondents had their job grade at least reviewed since their first appointment. Out the 86 respondents, 36 (34.0 %) of them had their grade reviewed just once, 34 had their grade reviewed twice, 12 reported three grade reviews, while 4 had their grade reviewed four times. This suggests that majority of the respondents had their job grade reviewed. However, the respondents noted that these job grade reviews had been implemented very slowly. Some complained of stagnating in one job grade for a very long period of time as some of their colleagues move very fast. They therefore called for equitable, frequent and non-discriminatory job grade review of all the employees. The remaining 20 respondents (18.9 %) had never benefited from job grade review since their first appointment. The 86 respondents whose job grade had been reviewed were asked how challenging it was in attaining their current job grades. Figure 9 highlights how challenging it was for the respondents to reach their current job grade.
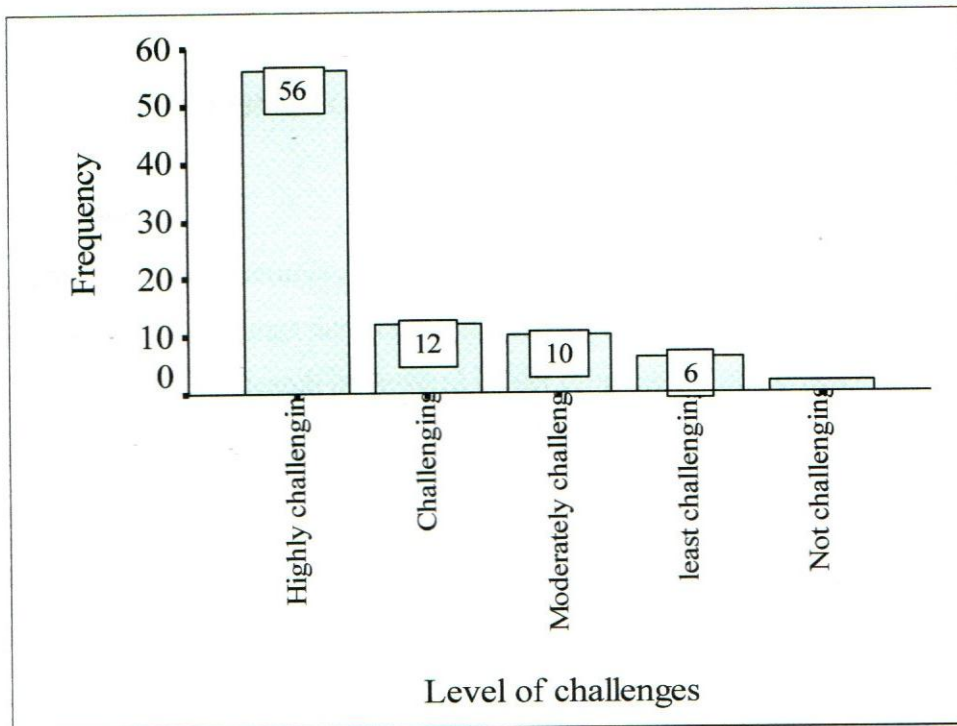
Figure 9: Challenges in attaining the current job grade

An examination of Figure 9 indicates that 56 (65.1 %) of the respondents reported that it had been high challenging to attain their current job grade. They reported that it involved sacrifices such as improving their professional training and academic qualification in their respective line of occupation, good job performance and literary pushing for grade increment. This was especially so given the level of discrimination and marginalization of women employees in public civil service in the country. The 6 (7.0 %) and 2 (2.3 %) who reported least challenging and not challenging, respectively, attributed their job grade review to their professional training, academic qualification and good job performance. Most of them were academic staff members who indicated that professional training, academic qualification and good job performance alone were enough for job grade review.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the findings of the study based on the research objectives, conclusions from the findings and recommendations derived from the conclusions. It also covers suggestions for further research on upward career progression of women employees.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

Based on the objectives and the analysis of this study, the following findings were established:

(i)   Individual occupational-related factors such as professional training, academic qualifications, job performance, personality and self-motivation had a strong influence on upward career progression of women employees in Egerton University.

(ii)   The university career development policy was not clear to majority (67.9 %) of the respondents. However, for the minority (26.4 %) to whom the policy was clear, professional training and academic qualifications were the most influential and strong factors determining upward career progression of women employees in the university.

(iii)   External factors characterizing politics of the country and policies of the central government influences upward career progression of women employees in the university.

5.3 Conclusions

Based on the findings, the study makes the following conclusions:

(i)   Empowering women in occupational-related factors, including professional training, academic qualifications, job performance, personality and self-motivation, was likely to enhance their upward career progression.

(ii)   The university career development policy emphasizes on academic qualifications and professional training in upward career progression of women employees.

(iii)   Politics of the country and policies of the central government determines upward

career progression of women in public institutions.

5.4 Recommendations

In view of the above conclusions, this study makes the following recommendations about the upward career progression of women employees in the study area and beyond:

(i) Upward career progression of an individual should be based on occupational-related factors.

(ii) University career development policy should be made clear to all employees and continue to emphasize on academic qualification and professional training as the basis for upward career progression regardless of gender.

(iii) There is need for politicians and central government policy-makers to implement affirmative action and non-discrimination policies in the upward career progression in public institutions.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

This study suggests the following areas for further research:

(i) Assessment of government strategies, plans and policies for affirmative action in upward career progression of women employees in the civil service.

(ii) Comparative study of the private and public institutions in encouraging upward career progression of women employees.

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APPENDIX 1: EMPLOYEES QUESTIONNIARE

SPECIMEN LETTER TO THE RESPONDENTS

KEPHA O. ORINA
Egerton University
Nakuru Town Campus
P.O. Box 13357
NAKURU

Dear Respondent,

I am a Master of Business Administration (MBA) Degree student at Egerton University. I am currently carrying out a research entitled "AN EVALUATION OF FACTORS HINDERING UPWARD MOBILITY OF WOMEN IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA: A CASE OF EGERTON UNIVERSITY"

I am request you to be one of the respondents for this research.

You are assured that the information given will be used for research purposes only and your name and views will be treated confidentially.

Thank you for your cooperation.

K. O. ORINA

MBA STUDENT

Questions:(Please tick appropriately)

1. When were you employed by Egerton University? _____

2. In what Grade/ position were you employed? _____

3. What is your current grade? _____

4. How many times have you been reviewed? _____

5. If the grade has ever been reviewed, please indicate your career progression since appointment.

   Year   Grade

   (i).   _____   _____

   (ii). _____   _____

   (iii). _____   _____

   (iv). _____   _____

6. If the grade has ever been reviewed, how challenging has it been for you to reach your current grade?
   - Highly challenging ☐
   - Challenging ☐
   - Moderately challenging ☐
   - Least challenging ☐
   - Not challenging ☐
   - Others (please specify) _____

7. Does your department have a career path?
   - Yes ☐
   - No ☐
   - Not sure ☐

   If yes, please explain how effective is the career path is followed; -
   - Strictly followed ☐
   - Followed sometimes ☐
   - Never followed ☐
   - Others (please specify) _____

8. If yes in 7, does the department have a conducive environment for all in terms of career development?
   - Yes ☐
   - No ☐
   - Not sure ☐

If yes indicate how this is facilitated by:-

a) Academic preparation (further studies)

Highly effective ☐
Moderately effective ☐
Sometimes effective ☐
Least effective ☐
Not effective ☐

b) Job training:

Highly effective ☐
Moderately effective ☐
Sometimes effective ☐
Least effective ☐
Not effective ☐

c) Concern for personal problems:

Highly effective ☐
Moderately effective ☐
Sometimes effective ☐
Least effective ☐
Not effective ☐

d) Gender consideration

Strongly influences ☐
Moderately influences ☐
Sometimes influences ☐
Least influences ☐
Never influences ☐

9. Is the University career development policy clear to you?

Yes ☐
No ☐
Not sure ☐

If yes, how is it observed?

Strictly observed ☐
Moderately observed ☐
Never observed ☐
Occasionally observed ☐
Not sure ☐

10. How effective is the implementation of university career development policy on career progression

Highly effective ☐
Moderately effective ☐
Sometimes effective ☐
Least effective ☐
Not effective ☐

11. What factors are indicated in the university career development policy (if any) as being determinant for your upward career progression?

Academic	☐
Training	☐
Experience	☐
Gender	☐
All the above	☐

Others (please explain)..

Indicate the strength of each of the above factors.

1. Very weak
2. Least strong
3. Average
4. Strong
5. Very strong

	1	2	3	4	5
Academic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Training	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Experience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gender	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Others (please specify)_____

12. Please rate the level of effectiveness of the following factors in upward career progression on a scale of 1 to 5 using

1. Not effective
2. Least effective
3. Moderately effective
4. Sometimes effective
5. Highly effective

Personal factors

	1	2	3	4	5
Age influence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Professional training	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Academic qualification	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gender	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Marital status	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Seniority (years of job experience)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Family responsibilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Self motivation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Personality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Performance   □ □ □ □ □

External factors

	1	2	3	4	5
Nepotism	□	□	□	□	□
Politics	□	□	□	□	□
Stereotype	□	□	□	□	□
Attitudinal problems	□	□	□	□	□

13. How would you categorize the nature of challenges you have faced with the following personal factors since you were employed? Please rank them on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 indicates least challenging, 3 mean moderately challenging, while 5 indicates most challenging.

	1	2	3	4	5
Professional	□	□	□	□	□
Qualification	□	□	□	□	□
Gender related	□	□	□	□	□
Family responsibilities	□	□	□	□	□

14. Please indicate the percentage (%) of women working in your department.

0 – 10 □   31 – 40 □   61-70 □   91 – 100 □

11 –20 □   41 –50 □   71 – 80 □

21 – 30 □   51 –60 □   81 –90 □

How do you rate women performance in your department?

Very good	□
Good	□
Average	□
Poor	□
Very poor	□

15. What are your future prospects of upward mobility or promotion?

Very high	□
High	□
Moderate	□
Very low	□
None of all	□

If none of the above, please indicate the reasons?

_____

_____

_____

16. According to you, is it feasible to have gender equality in the University?

        Yes   ☐

        No   ☐

        Not sure   ☐

Indicate reasons for your answer :

It is envisaged in the University policy   ☐

It is difficult to say, as it is not in the University policy.   ☐

It is not possible because management is male dominated   ☐

It has to be worked out.   ☐

Others (please specify) _____

17. Do you foresee the University having a female Registrar, Principal, Deputy Vice Chancellor or Vice Chancellor very soon?

        Yes   ☐

        No   ☐

If No above, please give reasons...

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