GENDER EQUALITY AT LEADERSHIP LEVELS
IN NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS IN
NAIROBI

BY
CASPAR PEDO AYANY

UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY
NAIROBI

SPRING 2004
STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this is my original work and has not been submitted to any other college, institution or university other than the United States International University in Nairobi for academic credit.

Signed: Caspar Pedo Ayany  Date: 11/11/2004

This project has been presented for examination with my approval as the appointed supervisor.

Signed:  Date: 12/12/2004

Supervisor: Ciri Gitecha

Signed:  Date: 21/12/2009

Dean, School of Business

Signed:  Date: 26/02/2005

Deputy Vice Chancellor, Academic Affairs
ABSTRACT

This study explored the extent to which non-governmental organizations in Nairobi have achieved the 30 per cent representation of women in leadership positions as envisaged by the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations Beijing Conference (1996).

An important engagement of non-governmental organizations today is the need to bridge the representation and participatory gap between men and women (United Nations, 1985). This is a call echoed strongly by the Beijing Platform for Action of the United Nations (National Conference on the Advancement of Women and the Way Forward, 1999). Many findings have revealed that the government, private corporations and civil society around the world have fallen short of advancing gender equality. The need to continue the struggle to bridge this gap comes with constant monitoring and evaluation of the processes all round the world. However, non-governmental organizations, particularly those that are based in Nairobi do not appear to be represented in any of these reports. As a result there is an information gap that can only be bridged by a research that would give an updated report on the situation as it is now.

This study aimed at meeting the need of an updated report on the representation of women in the top leadership in non-governmental organizations in Nairobi. The study was divided into four specific objectives which included representation of women at senior management levels, factors that lead to under representation of women in leadership levels, organizational gender policies and whether there is a difference in styles of leadership between men and women.

A stratified random sampling was used to select a total of 20 non-governmental organizations out of a total population of 200 Nairobi based non-governmental organizations from different sectors. Questionnaires and interviews were used to collect the data from the senior executives of the
sampled non-governmental organizations. A total of forty-eight questionnaires were filled and collected with information solicited from senior managers and human resources managers.

The data was analysed using descriptive statistics to obtain percentages, frequency distributions and descriptive summaries. The study found out, that women made up to 75 per cent of the senior management personnel; a mark above the target of the Beijing platform for Action of the United Nations. Among the local organizations, women made up to 41 per cent of the senior management, while among the international organizations they made up to 91 per cent. Therefore, the representation of women in senior management positions was determined to some extent by whether the organization was local or international. Up to 65 per cent of the respondents indicated that they had well established gender policies in their organizations.

Meanwhile, 64 per cent of the total number of women and men interviewed perceived their leadership styles as influenced by gender.

The study recommended that a future study should focus on the project performance in relation to women's representation in top management levels.
# Table of contents

1.0 INTRODUCTION ................................. 1  
   1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM ............... 1  
   1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM ................. 3  
   1.3 GENERAL OBJECTIVE .......................... 5  
   1.4 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES ....................... 5  
   1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY .................. 5  
   1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY ......................... 6  
   1.7 DEFINITION OF TERMS ....................... 6  
   1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY ............................ 9  

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW ........................... 11  
   2.1 INTRODUCTION .................................. 11  
   2.2 REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN AT THE DECISION-MAKING LEVEL ....................... 11  
   2.3 REASONS FOR WOMEN'S UNDER-REPRESENTATION AT THE LEADERSHIP LEVELS ............ 15  
   2.4 ORGANIZATIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON GENER FOR THE SENIOR MANAGEMENT LEVELS .................. 23  
   2.5 GENDER AND LEADERSHIP STYLES ................ 34  
   2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY .............................. 37  

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY ....................... 38  
   3.1 INTRODUCTION .................................. 38  
   3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN ............................. 38  
   3.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLING DESIGN ............. 39  
   3.4 DATA COLLECTION METHODS .................... 41  
   3.5 RESEARCH PROCEDURES ......................... 42  
   3.6 RESEARCH SCHEDULING ......................... 42  
   3.7 DATA ANALYSIS ............................... 42  
   3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY .............................. 43  

4.0 RESULTS AND FINDINGS ....................... 45  
   4.1 INTRODUCTION .................................. 45  
   4.2 RESULTS AND FINDINGS ....................... 46  

5.0 DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS .............. 67  
   5.1 INTRODUCTION .................................. 67  
   5.2 SUMMARY ................................... 67  
   5.3 DISCUSSION ................................... 68  
   5.4 CONCLUSION ................................... 72  
   5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS ............................. 73
REFERENCES ................................................................. 74
APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGER .... 78
APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SENIOR MANAGER ................. 86
APPENDIX 3: THE LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL .............................. 90

TABLES
TABLE 1: WOMEN'S REPRESENTATION AT SENIOR ADMINISTRATIVE
TABLE 2: STUDENTS ENROLMENT IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES BY
SELECTED COURSES AND SEX, 1998/99 ..................................... 16
TABLE 3: SAMPLING SIZE .................................................. 41
TABLE 4.0: STRUCTURE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES ...................... 47
TABLE 4.1-4.29: PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

CHARTS
CHART 1: PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE SENIOR MANAGERS IN NGOS ...... 49
CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

The gender movement has been characterized by a series of national and international campaigns at several points in time with the aim of increasing women's representation in political systems, civil societies, intergovernmental agencies and economic activities among others. According to the National Conference on the Advancement of Women and The Way Forward (August 1999), the campaigns inspired the idea towards the Beijing Platform for Action in 1995. It adopted a more aggressive declaration and set a target of 30 per cent women's representation at the decision making levels (Itzin and Newman (1995). The call for women to assume positions of power and influence was inspired mainly by two reasons: one, as a matter of their human rights. As Singh (2002) puts it, social and moral justice stresses that men and women are equal before the law. Women therefore, have the right to participate and be fully part of any organization in which they belong.

Two, consistent with the United Nations Beijing Platform for Action (1995), achieving sustainable development requires the participation of all stakeholders- women, men and children. Singh (2002) adds that at the organizational level a competitive advantage is more attainable by way of improved creativity, a larger skilled workforce and diversity brought about by greater women participation. A research that was carried out by Irby & Brown (Advancing Women in Leadership, Winter, 1998) advocated for more women at the management level by suggesting that women became more serious about their work, more satisfied and more self-confident when there were significant number of them in senior positions.
For the same reasons, organizations are continuing to make efforts to redesign and modify their policies, structures and cultures with the aim of accommodating a more gender balanced workforce as observed by Division for the Advancement of Women, (DESA October, 1997).

However, according to United Nations High Commission for Refugees' Group for the Advancement of Gender Equity (GAGE) (1999), women continue to be under-represented at all levels. This could be explained by the fact that the traditional situation, where women's activities were confined outside powers and authorities still dominates. GAGE (1999) contends that creating favourable climate for women in leadership continues to meet many obstacles owing mainly to male dominance. Leadership has traditionally been identified with masculinity, dominance, rigidity, elitism with only one way to lead and only men were perceived to be capable of leading.

It is argued that the majority of intended beneficiaries of development programmes are women and children. Paradoxically the implementers, decision/policy makers have largely remained men (Kabira, Gituto and Shiverenje, 2003).

InterAction is a coalition of non-profit organizations in development and humanitarian assistance with a majority of those they serve being women and girls. They too realized that women were not the majority amongst the chief executive officers (CEOs) and boards of directors of their member organizations. The coalition acknowledged that this contradiction was an obstacle to effective programming in the field as well as to the achievement of goals of equity and justice (InterAction, 2002).

In line with the above thinking, non-governmental organizations have an obligation to establish an internal gendered environment with equal representation of women and men, not only at the wider organizational level, but also crucially at the decision-making levels as a step to achieving
sustainable development and equity in their programmes. The Beijing Platform for Action recommended women’s equal access to, and full participation in power structures and decision-making in governmental bodies, public administration entities, including the judiciary, international and non-governmental organizations, political parties and trade unions. Secondly, it recommended women’s capacity to participate in decision-making and leadership positions (National Conference on the Advancement of Women and The Way Forward, 1999).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A previous study carried out among eight selected non governmental organizations in Nairobi - Kituo Cha Sheria, Federation of Women Lawyers (FIDA), Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), Maji Na Ufanisi, Africa Peace Forum, Youth Peace Forum, Centre for Peace and Development and Child Welfare Society of Kenya, concluded that only organizations dealing with women’s issues and/or headed by women tended to have more women than men at the top management levels, with an average of 80 per cent representation. In contrast the ones dealing with general issues reported more men in top management (Mutiri, 1997). On average women made less than 20 per cent of all the top managers in such organizations.

In a wider context a report by the United Nations Development for Women (UNIFEM) on Kenya’s Progress in Implementing the Beijing Platform for Action (1999) indicated that in 1995 women constituted 26.2 per cent of total employees in a formal wage employment. The figure increased to 29.3 per cent by 1998. About the same time women only controlled 8 per cent of the agricultural sector’s operation even though they contributed 70 per cent of the workforce.
On the political scene, during the 1997 general elections in Kenya, only about 1 in 20 of those standing for parliamentary election was a woman, and only 1 in 50 (1.9 per cent) of those actually elected was female (National Conference on the Advancement of Women and the Way Forward, 1999). Meanwhile the statistics from the National Conference on the Advancement of Women and the Way Forward (1999) indicates that in the judiciary women made up 30.2 per cent of magistrates and judges. In the public administration, the number was also slightly higher in 1999 with 23.1 per cent of the total as women.

The information regarding statistics of women at the decision-making levels of non governmental organizations is very scarce. Although the Centre for African Family Studies (2001) suggested that NGOs in reproductive health had a more equitable distribution of women and men at all levels of management and leadership relative to the public and private sector, the study did not provide the statistics to support it. The report however admitted that gender issues are not always addressed especially in the governance, leadership and management of NGOs. There are still more men than women in decision making positions.

Most of the above statistics were below the target set by The Economic and Social Council that had endorsed that women should have at least a 30 per cent representation in decision-making positions by the year 2000 (United Nations Department of Public Information: The Beijing Declaration and the Platform for Action, 1996).

International Aid (USAID) and The United States International University could not establish whether similar studies on women representation at the leadership of non-governmental organizations had been carried out. This study addressed this literature gap.

1.3 GENERAL OBJECTIVE

The main purpose of the research was to assess gender and leadership among non-governmental organisations based in Nairobi in order to establish the extent to which they have met the targeted 30 per cent women representation at decision-making level as envisaged in the Beijing Platform for Action (1995).

1.4 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

Specifically the study aimed at determining:
1. Representation of women at the leadership levels
2. Reasons for women's under-representation at the leadership levels
3. Organizational gender policies and practices at the leadership levels
4. Whether gender influences leadership style

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study was able to provide an objective and an up to date situation of gender representation in the leadership of non governmental organizations. As an ongoing effort of achieving gender balanced environment, organizations would be able to use the information for self evaluation and for charting out the next cause of action.

The government, civil society and UN Agencies that are involved in the promotion of gender equality may find the report a useful reference in formulating policies and actions that best suit the situation as will be reported in the findings.
Since the study was carried out only on a few selected non-governmental organizations, there was a need to have constant review of the efforts towards gender equality among organizations in general, and in non-governmental organizations in particular. This study may be able to trigger more research by individual scholars or by organizations, who will be able to use the findings as a platform for their own work.

1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY
The study was conducted within the confines of Nairobi, among the local as well as international non-governmental organizations. The researcher intended to carry out the study among 16 different NGOs divided equally between local and international ones. The data was collected from both female and male senior managers.

1.7 DEFINITION OF TERMS

1.7.1 Diversity
Diversity means “being diverse, unlikeness, different kind, variety” according to the Oxford Dictionary. In the context of this study it was used as a term to describe the different kinds of employees in organisations in terms of their age, ethnicity, race and gender (Singh, 2002).

1.7.2 Minority
According to Singh (2002), minority is a small section of a larger society that lacks adequate representation in economic and social privileges.

1.7.3 Positive discrimination
Positive discrimination seeks to increase participation of women (or other under-represented groups) through the use of affirmative-action preferences or quotas (Academy of European Law online, 2002)
1.7.4 Leadership
Leadership in the context of this study is the process of establishing direction and influencing others to follow that direction (Bennis, 1998). Good leadership seeks to develop a clear vision and mission for an organisation, and conducts planning that determines the goals needed to achieve this vision and mission.

The term leadership was used in this study to refer to top management (senior managers) of non governmental organizations.

1.7.5 Management
The term management refers to activities in three general functions which include:

- planning: identifying goals, objectives, methods, resources, responsibilities and dates for completion of tasks
- organising resources: to achieve the goals in an optimal manner
- staffing
- and controlling or co-ordinating the organisation's systems, processes and structures to effectively and efficiently achieve the goals and objectives - this includes ongoing feedback, monitoring, and adjusting systems and structures accordingly (Bennis, 1998).

1.7.6 Top management or executive leadership
The term used in this study was top management; a reference to senior management or executive leadership such as heads of departments, directors, and chief executives. This reference did not include lower level managers and supervisors. For purpose of this study, the terms 'top management' and 'executive leadership' are used interchangeably

1.7.7 Gender:
Socially constructed, rather than biologically defined sex roles and attributes of females and males (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1999). Kabira (1999)
oberves that gender is a relational concept between men and women and refers to cultural, not biological or innate constructions.

1.7.8. Gender Mainstreaming
Consistent use of gender perspective at all stages of development and implementation of policies, plans, programmes and projects (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1999).

UNESCO (2003), defines Gender mainstreaming as the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action including legislation, policies and programmes in any areas and at all levels.

1.7.9. Masculinity:
Qualities traditionally associated with maleness such as strong, brave, courageous, fearless, independent, stand-alone, emotionally detached, anger and hostility acceptable, controlling, bossy, possessive, performance oriented, loud and powerful, out to win or succeed, risk-taking (UNESCO, 2003).

1.7.10 Gender Equality
Gender equality means that women and men have equal conditions for realizing their full human rights and for contributing to, and benefiting from, economic, social, cultural and political development.

Gender equality is therefore the equal valuing by society of the similarities and the difference of men and women, and the roles they play. It is based on women and men being full partners in their home, their community and their society (UNESCO, 2003).
1.7.11 Gender Equity
Is the process of being fair to men and women. To ensure fairness, measures must often be put in place to compensate for the historical, social disadvantages that prevent women and men from operating on a level playing field. Equity is a means. Equity is the result (UNESCO, 2003).

1.7.12 Transformational Leadership
Transformational leadership was used to refer to the kind of leadership that allows sharing of power and information, encourage participation and enhances other people’s self worth (Rosener, 1998).

1.7.13 Transactional Leadership
Transactional leadership is the kind of leadership that approaches its responsibilities as a set of transaction with its subordinate where rewards are exchanged for services (Rosener, 1998).

1.7.14 Gendered policies (or policies that have been engendered):
According to Macdonald, S. (1999) when policies are engendered, it means that gender issues are enshrined in them.

1.8 CHAPTER ONE SUMMARY
The study examined the representation of women at the top management levels of non governmental organizations based in Nairobi in order to establish the extent to which these organizations have achieved the endorsement of the Beijing Declaration of 30 per cent representation of women at the decision making levels. The specific objectives sought to find out the representation of women at the leadership levels, reasons for their poor representation, established gender policies in the organizations and whether styles of leadership are influenced by gender.
The next chapter, literature review, explores in details various facets of opinions, studies, observations and facts regarding representation of women at senior management levels.
CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The following section explores opinions, observations and facts regarding gender and top decision-making level. The chapter is divided into four main parts organized according to the specific objectives of the study. First, it presents reports and studies on representation of women at the decision making levels of the government, international organizations and corporations. Second, it outlines reasons for inadequate representation of women at the executive leadership level. Policies and opinions that have been proposed or implemented as means to increase the representation of women leadership positions are addressed in the third section. Finally, the chapter explores various theories related to styles of leadership and how they are influenced by gender.

2.2 REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN AT THE DECISION-MAKING LEVEL

2.2.1 The statistics of women in management

A report from The United Nations Department of Public Information- the Beijing Declaration and the Platform for Action (1996) endorsed that by year 2000, women should have a 30 per cent representation at decision-making levels. This was a worldwide strategy meant to bridge the gender gap. However, according to National Conference on the Advancement of Women and the Way Forward (1999) the target is far from being achieved in most parts of the world.

A much earlier report by Genovese (1993) containing a study carried out in 1992 about women in public offices show how even in the developed western society, women had a minority representation in top management positions in
public offices. Only Norway scored highly with women occupying 36 per cent of the parliamentary seats.

A recent survey in Britain (Singh, 2002) reported that women accounted for 45 per cent of all employees but only 20 per cent of all managers. In the lower paid managerial category such as agriculture and services, women made up 36 per cent of top managers compared to only 28 per cent in the generally higher paid corporate managerial occupations. This could explain the contention that women found it more difficult to get into senior posts in the well-paying job categories. The report confirms that women are less than half as likely as men to work in higher managerial or professional occupations.

The report by Singh continues to suggest, that whereas previously women were said by men to be disadvantaged for the reason that they were not as committed to their careers, women now appear to be continuing to be disadvantaged simply because of being female. In the United States women were less than 10 per cent in both senate and House of Representatives.

More extensively in Africa, gender parity has been aggravated by poverty and poor education. Dirasse (1991) suggests that women in Africa made slightly more than 50 per cent of the entire population, yet they made less than 33 per cent of the labour force. Even of the said percentage, the majority worked in informal sector and small-scale agriculture of the rural areas. The report further suggests that over 70 per cent of food production was done by women. In the employment sector, there is a farther gravity of only 14.69 per cent of women represented in Kenya. Out of the said percentage only a small fraction which was much less than half would be considered for senior position.

The World Bank report on Kenya (1998) shows that female labour force accounted for 46 per cent of the total labour force 1997. Women were key
agricultural producers, contributing up to 75-80 per cent of all labour in food production and 50 per cent in cash crop production while receiving only 7 per cent of agricultural extension information.

The statistics further show that women were increasingly becoming farm managers and heads of farm households, with estimates that over 40 per cent of all small holder farms were managed by women in Kenya. Further, 1997 estimates suggest that over 40 per cent of all small enterprises in Kenya were female-owned - and this percentage continued to increase to approximately 47 per cent up till 2001.

While agricultural activities by women were largely sustainable, they did not typically expand into larger business, compared to male-owned enterprises. This seemed to be the case because women used much of their earnings to support their children's social and educational needs, while men re-invested earnings into their business (United States Department for International Development -KENYA, 2002).

A 1999 report (National Conference on the advancement of women and the way forward, 1999) on political administration of Kenya suggests that Kenyan women's participation in politics in 1997 general election had only 1 in 20 standing for election and only 1 in 50 (1.9 per cent) who actually got elected to parliament. There was an overall of 21.1 percent female administrators in 1992. This percentage increased to 23.1 per cent in 1999. The highest score was with the judiciary; that is magistrates and judges in 1998. A total of 30.2 per cent were women.

Although the paper praises the progress that has been made on political scene the change remains negligible considering that the population of Kenya has long comprised 51 per cent female and that the UN target already mentioned is still far from being achieved.
Table 1: Women’s representation at senior administrative posts in government by type of posts: 1992, 1994, 1998

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% women</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% women</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent secretaries</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambassadors</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy secretary</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under secretary</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Ass. Secretary</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ass. Secretary I</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>32.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ass. Secretary II</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>38.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ass. Secretary III</td>
<td>706</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>768</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Directorate of Personnel Management; Office of the President, Kenya

As can be seen from the above table the percentage of women representation decreased as they moved from middle level management (assistant secretaries) to senior leadership level (permanent secretaries or ambassadors).

The information regarding statistics of women at the decision-making levels of non governmental organizations was unavailable. Although The Centre for African Family Studies (2001) suggests that NGOs in reproductive health have a more equitable distribution of women and men at all levels of management and leadership compared to NGOs in other sectors, the study does not provide the statistics to support it. The report however admits that gender issues are not always addressed especially in the governance,
leadership and management of NGOs. Men, compared to women are still largely the decision makers.

2.3 REASONS FOR WOMEN’S UNDER-REPRESENTATION AT THE LEADERSHIP LEVEL

2.3.1 Education Factor as a Contributor to Poor Representation of Women at Decision Making Level

Alongside socialization, multiple roles, organizational policies, procedures and stereotypes Dirasse (1991) lists education as another obstacle to poor female representation in leadership positions. Education is essential for improving women’s living standards and enabling them to exercise greater "voice" in decision-making particularly at their place of work, but also in the family, the community and the public arena of politics. Literacy and other basic skills are absolutely vital to women’s empowerment, and without the skills acquired in secondary education, women cannot obtain better paid employment (UNIFEM Biennial Report, 2001). A paper by Kenya NGO organizing conference of the UN Decade for Women (1985) emphasizes that women’s low rate of participation in modern sector result from number of factors, one of which is lower rates of literacy and educational attainment.

Although the number of boys and girls in Kenyan schools is roughly equal at the primary level, boys substantially outnumber girls in higher education. The situation is graver among rural families who are seen to be reluctant to invest in educating girls as well as boys, especially at the higher levels. Seventy percent of illiterate persons in Kenya are female (United States Dept, 1999).

This indirectly impacts on the number of women being academically prepared for leadership positions. It is still logical to argue that the more educated the women are, the greater will be the chances for them to ascend to leadership
positions. Women’s Bureau/UNFPA (1996) confirms that education is a key characteristic, which determines to a great extent one’s entry point to the job market.

Table 2: The table below shows students enrolment in public universities by selected courses and sex, 1998/99- FAWE KENYA (2000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>8749</td>
<td>5289</td>
<td>14038</td>
<td>37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>3568</td>
<td>1910</td>
<td>5478</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>1162</td>
<td>506</td>
<td>1668</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>2530</td>
<td>833</td>
<td>3363</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>2435</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>2679</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>729</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>966</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>3677</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>4677</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22850</strong></td>
<td><strong>10019</strong></td>
<td><strong>32869</strong></td>
<td><strong>30.5</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

University education has been for a long time dominated by boys. Girls’ enrolment has however continued to rise steadily over the years. The overall 1992/93 enrolment for girls stood at 27 per cent (Women’s Bureau/UNFPA, 1996). According to the table above the enrolment six years later increased to 31 per cent. Most women can also be said to have enrolled in Arts courses, especially education. Sciences continued to be dominated by boys with engineering recording the least enrolment from girls. A higher enrolment for women was recorded in private universities with 46.7 per cent of the total enrolment between 1995/6 and 1998/99 (Forum for African Women Educationalists- KENYA, 2000). Possible reasons for this increase could be explained by the fact that private university enrolment is family financed and the majority of these families are well educated and take equal interest in education of both girls and boys.
Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (2000) with its statistics indicates a low enrolment for girls in all public universities in Kenya. The 1998/9 enrolment stood at 40,613 with the female students comprising 30.5 per cent of the total students' population. Kenyatta University with female students' proportion of 38.9 per cent had the highest population of female students enrolled, while Jomo Kenyatta of University of Agriculture and Technology had the lowest percentage of female students' enrolment (20.1 per cent). The report admits that the wide gender gap in public university student's enrolment is an issue of major concern that needs urgent attention, and that there is need to have more well educated women in the country, so that they can take up senior decision-making positions in both public and private sector.

In 1997, the estimated adult illiteracy rate for the total population was 13.1% for men and 27.9% for women (UNESCO, 2001). In 2000, the rate declined to 11.1% for men and 24.0% for women (UN, Social Indicators, 2002). Because it is from the same figures that women who ascend to leadership are derived from, it is obviously difficult to increase women's representation in leadership substantially unless their literacy level is also improved.

United Nations Department of Public Information (1985) suggests that the situation is made worse even for this smaller percentage of women who complete higher education because employers still have the tendency to prefer male job applicants. For instance, in Table 2, only 30 per cent of women enrolled in higher studies. It is also likely that only a very small fraction of the same group of women managed to secure high position jobs.

Singh (2002) also contends that another barrier for women is the availability of appropriate training. Traditional MBA courses have been designed by and for men, and are based around male experiences and needs. These are different for women, who usually face managerial life as minority individuals, with often conflicting roles at work and in their home life. He suggests that the
training must take into consideration the minority factor which may include cultural disposition.

2.3.2 Organizational Factors That Hinder Women from Getting to Leadership

Other factors that have contributed to fewer women in leadership position may include organizational politics and the fact that women hold different values from those that are held by men. Singh (February 2002) suggests that for many women, the focus at work is on task accomplishment, with high standards, attention to detail and a need for challenge. In particular, women have different criteria for evaluating personal success in their careers than men. The traditional model of career success in organisations has emphasised the external criteria of hierarchical position and pay, plus the associated visible benefits such as company car, expense account and office size and furnishings. In contrast, women tend to value being seen as experts, and value the challenge and content of the job more than its status.

Singh (2002) adds that the political arena is where many connections are made and relationships built. Yet, Women sometimes do not appreciate that there are positive as well as negative aspects of organisational politics for managers. For instance, some decisions are made outside work environment; in clubs, in bars and restaurants and other social places. Whilst women are so few at senior levels where political skills are most needed, they often do not have an opportunity to learn how to deal with it in a safe environment.

The author continues to argue that one of the most resistant barriers for women has been the old boys’ network, an informal social grouping of those in power, who limit access to those who are similar to themselves either by background, position or personal characteristics. Whilst women may achieve senior posts, they do not necessarily gain entry into the network.
2.3.3 Masculinity: a Traditional Precondition for Leadership

Traditionally leadership was always seen solely as a man’s role. The strong, dominant, rigid personalities (Itzin and Newman, 1995) were the features associated with good leadership of the classical and scientific approaches to management. The structure was very formal and rigid; borrowing a lot from the military and revolving a lot within structure and control. There was very little room for interaction in the hierarchy, consequently no consideration of women into such position since they, on the other hand were considered soft and emotional. The Great Man Theory and the Traits Theory portray leadership as a masculine role and identifiable through physical attributes such as height, size, voice and so on where women seem not to be capable of fitting in ((Stogdill, 1948). The women who managed to make it as leaders were often perceived as having developed masculine role.

In the book, *Women and Work*, Nieva and Gutek (1982) as reported by Matusak (2003) indicate that traditionally, women were seen as lacking necessary attributes for leadership. They were believed to be compliant, submissive, emotional, and to have great difficulty in making choices. Such were attributes that were not acceptable for leadership.

After extensive review of many studies that examine gender differences in personality traits of leaders, Nieva and Gutek (2002) overruled this theory and asserted that there are no significant differences between women and men. The reported differences simply reflect *socialized perceptions*. The authors contend in other words, that we see what we are socialized to see. For example, kind, considerate female behaviour is valued more by subordinates than kind, considerate male behaviour. And male aggressive/assertive behaviour is assessed more positively than female aggressive/assertive behaviour. It all depends upon who is doing the observing or responding.
Nieve and Gutek (2002) also propose that the traditional notion of power that evolves from a position or title rather than maleness or femaleness appears to be the critical factor in the response of colleagues or subordinates.

Singh (2002) maintains that stereotype in management leads to women being seen or seeing themselves as less appropriate for leadership roles than men. Since leadership development is driven by top management and is closely tied to the business agenda, there is danger that the leadership concept remains only a reflection of the existing leadership and effectively excludes a diverse representation in management and leadership roles. One reason for this is that the concept of what a leader should be is carried unconsciously into promotion decisions or because the current leadership profile becomes embedded in competency frameworks and the organisation culture. Singh (2002) adds that women tend to prefer to lead from within their group, sharing success and developing the next generation of managers. However, successful women in male dominated organisations, who have few female role models ahead of them, tend to emulate more masculine styles. Women without same gender role models often see their corporate leaders as very masculine in style and hence do not see themselves as fitting the model for leadership. This can lead to women feeling frustrated, scaling down their ambitions, or leaving if they see a blocked career path ahead.

Reporting on research findings, Valian (1999) assessment shows how stereotyping in leadership is traced even among people who would be considered enlightened. The report revealed that in both male and female managers that were interviewed, many of them perceived successful female managers as having less leadership abilities than their male counterparts. The study also revealed that in the society even when a woman bears the traditional emblems of leadership, she would not necessarily be perceived as a leader. Valian (1999) further suggests that the more feminine a woman appears the less likely it is that she would be perceived as professionally
competent. This she adds, is to the advantage of men, whose attractiveness is in the masculinity, a quality that is associated with professional competence. Singh (February 2002) reporting on situation in Britain contends that management and leadership structures have generally remained static, with organisations still recruiting new leaders and managers similar to the existing cadre; in other words, white, middleclass, middle aged heterosexual males. The writer however acknowledges that with the legislation of equal opportunity there has been progress for women at junior and middle management levels, especially in the public sector, but this has not happened at senior levels in the private sector. This improvement has also come with its negative side as women feel undervalued by larger firms.

In other situations women in senior positions have been described as 'men in frocks'; an expression revealing how difficult it is to identify female qualities with leadership, or with certain posts (Itzin and Newman, 1995). Itzin and Newman further report situations where stereotypes extend into age and appearance. Women of certain age for example may not be approved of as assistants (secretaries) and others, described in terms of their appearances may not be seen as fitting certain jobs. This stereotyping they add extends to age, and that women in their thirties or below are not seen as capable of assuming leadership role.
2.3.4 Socialization Effect on Women

Cultures have created gender-role stereotypes in most countries. Consequently as Silberschmidt (1999) observes these prevalent attitudes hinder women’s preparation for leadership roles as well as their opportunities for promotion. Cultural stereotypes, which are transmitted through socialization, influence not only the characteristics that women themselves embody, but also the attitudes that others hold about them.

Silberschmidt adds that in some cultures, women have been socialized to be shy and unassertive. Such socialization is inhibiting; it does not adequately equip women to undertake positions of leadership or to take risks necessary for entrepreneurial activities. Women’s self-confidence is also often undermined by their own acceptance of these stereotypes. Scholars have noted the pervasiveness of a female inferiority complex. Women have internalized that “men are more able.” Itzin and Newman (1995) contend that situations have existed for years where only men have been described or referred to as leaders. ‘Heroes have always been men’.

When it comes to jobs and positions, even though today’s policies in most countries allow women to have more voices in selecting their vocations and careers, the extent to which their choices are actually accommodated depends upon the culture in which they grew up and presently live. Interestingly, cultural and economic turbulence have inadvertently stirred up precedence to gender transformation, even in the most rigid or least informed societies.

A study done by Silberschmidt (1999) among the Kisii people of Kenya indicates that due to inadvertent economic and cultural dynamism, women are taking over the head of family ‘power’ as breadwinners of the family, taking their children to school, while the problem of unemployment has rendered men unresourceful. Thus they are forced to remain in the village as
dependants of their wives. With such significant changes one would expect the society to reform accordingly so that men acknowledge the 'power' of women. Instead, due to deep rooted cultural practices men have even opted to fights in order to retain their number one position in the family, as observed by Silberschmidt (1999). 15

Silberschmidt finally concludes that there is a need to examine in depth the changing social contexts with collapsing traditional structures, the emergence of new unstable situations and finally the need to establish smooth transition and development where each one is given the right place.

2.4 ORGANIZATIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON GENDER FOR THE SENIOR MANAGEMENT LEVEL

2.4.1 Introduction
The following section addresses issues related to organizational policies on gender. First, it discusses the main proposition of this study which is the Beijing platform for Action. Second are the highlights of policies and practices that have been instrumental in creating gender inequalities and how they have impacted on organizational leadership. It also discusses how they have become obstacles to women getting to adequately represented at this level. Finally, the section recommends various strategies, activities and structures that are meant to bring about the equitable representation of women at the leadership level.

2.4.2 A report from The Beijing Declaration and Platform for action (2000)
The following section is an excerpt of the report of the Beijing Declaration and platform for Action (2000). It is an important background to the entire study and the recommendation on gender policies.
The Governments which came together at the special session of the General Assembly reaffirmed their commitment to the goals and objectives contained in the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995 as contained in the report of the Conference. The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action set as goals gender equality, development and peace and constituted an agenda for the empowerment of women. It identified twelve critical areas of concern for priority action to achieve the advancement and empowerment of women. The Commission on the Status of Women reviewed progress in each of the twelve critical areas of concern and since 1996 has adopted agreed conclusions and recommendations for accelerated implementation. The Platform for Action, together with these agreed conclusions and recommendations, form the basis for further progress towards the achievement of gender equality, development and peace in the twenty-first century.

The objective of the Platform for Action, which is in full conformity with the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations and international law, is the empowerment of all women.

The Platform for Action emphasizes that women share common concerns that can only be addressed by working together and in partnership with men towards the common goal of gender equality around the world. It respects and values the full diversity of women’s situations and conditions and recognizes that some women face particular barriers to their empowerment.

According to this report there has been growing acceptance of the importance to society of the full participation of women in decision-making and power at all levels and in all forums, including the intergovernmental, governmental and non-governmental sectors. In some countries, women have also attained higher positions in these spheres.
However, largely there have been many obstacles. Despite general acceptance of the need for a gender balance in decision-making bodies at all levels, a gap between *de jure* and *de facto* equality has persisted. Notwithstanding substantial improvement of *de jure* equality between women and men, the actual participation of women at the highest levels of national and international decision-making has not significantly changed since the time of the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995. Gross under-representation of women in decision-making bodies in all areas, including politics, conflict prevention and resolution mechanisms, the economy, the environment and the media, hinders the inclusion of a gender perspective in these critical spheres of influence. Women continue to be underrepresented at the legislative, ministerial and sub-ministerial levels, as well as at the highest levels of the corporate sector and other economic and social institutions.

2.4.3 Actions and initiatives by various organizations to overcome obstacles and to achieve the full and accelerated implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action

Experience has shown that the goal of gender equality can be fully achieved only in the context of renewed relations among different stakeholders at all levels. The full, effective participation of women on the basis of equality in all spheres of society is necessary to contribute to this goal.

The target of the Beijing Conference of 30 percent women representation at the decision making level is a United Nations action plan (1996)

The United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) has made an effort both by creating Group for the Advancement of Gender Equity (GAGE) and a special advisor on Gender Equity. The aim is to work on gender-
balanced representation at all levels by putting in place measures such as affirmative action in recruiting and retaining the workforce as a way of curbing imbalance. According to United Nations High Commission for Refugees; Report of the Group for the Advancement of Gender Equity, (1998) the organization requires a critical mass of women at the senior level in order to change the prevailing masculinist management culture.

Other organizations that have made strides are those that are lead by women. These have been seen to understand women’s development needs and respond to them better than organizations that are managed and run by men. Mutiri’s (1997) research on a few NGOs in Nairobi confirms that organizations dealing with women issues and/or headed by women show more women in senior management positions, while those that are dealing with general issues show more men in such management positions. Yasmin (1997) reporting about women working with women suggests further, that women leaders in such organizations feel confident and motivated because they head the organizations.

2.4.3 The influences of Gender Stereotype on remuneration

One of the main concerns associated with gender discrimination is remuneration policy. Women have oftentimes been compensated or offered wages lower than that of men. Singh (February 2002) observes that the situation in Britain with mistreatment of women by companies starts right at the beginning of graduate careers with male and female starting salaries. Despite the British government’s tough legislation against discrimination, in 1999/2000, men earned 11 per cent more than women on average, across all sectors. The exception was in engineering where the gap was only 8 per cent. In 2001, three years after graduation, men earned an average £22,000 and females £18,500 per year, a gender pay gap of 16 per cent which had jumped from the 11 per cent on entry. The World Bank and Development Group
(2003) report confirms that in industrial countries, women in wage sector earned an average of 77 per cent of what men in similar positions earned. The report further suggests that in developing countries, they earned 73 per cent of what men earned. Only about 1/5 of the wage gap could be explained by gender differences in education, work experience or job characteristics. Singh adds that the gender pay gap was higher in the managerial tier than in other levels of employment where it was between 18-20 per cent.

Although wage difference between men and women may not explain why women are under-represented, from such report it can be deduced that the working environment is gender discriminative and does not hold the equal regard for men and women. Whatever justification there might be to explain this contrast, it is not in the interest of women and their representation as people with equal rights. In addition, even if there would be equal presence of women and men in terms of numbers, the conditions obviously have treated men better than women. There is need to change such policy so that organizations accord fare treatment to all its employees.

2.4.4 How to create a gendered organization

2.4.4.1 Creating the ideal leadership style

According to Henry (1995) creating an environment which will enable women to be adequately represented at the top management levels requires entire organizational transformation with ideal leadership style, which he identifies as transformational leadership. Rosener (1990) defines transformational leaders as those who tend to share power and information, encourage participation, enhance other people’s self worth, and get others excited about their work. Persons who work with them are encouraged to contribute in order to feel powerful and important. Such leaders tend to foster interaction, participation, and empower others. This is the style of leadership that Henry
(1994) recommends as ideal in enhancing equal representation of women and men at the decision-making levels.

Transformational, charismatic, and visionary leaders can successfully change the status quo in their organizations by displaying the appropriate behaviours at the appropriate stage in the transformation process. A good vision provides both a strategic and a motivational focus. Consistent with Ford and Ford (1994), this view holds that leaders create change by providing a vision that is attractive to followers rather than creating dissatisfaction with the status quo.

2.4.4.2 General recommendations for Gender equality

There have been many attempts over the years to bring about gender equity. These approaches have been tested at different stages of gender campaigns with varied successes. The most notable ones include gender mainstreaming, affirmative action, equal treatment and positive discrimination. But first, the section will discuss various general recommendations presented by a number of people as a way to create a gendered leadership.

Rosener (1990) argues that achieving equality does not mean that men and women are the same. It means that one's rights or opportunities do not depend on being female or male. Addressing gender equality as a cross-cutting goal requires that women's views, interests and needs shape community decisions as much as men's. Every policy, program or project affects men and women differently.

Kipnis and Herron (1998) suggest the need to develop a set of skills and abilities which facilitate leadership partnerships between men and women. They recommend developing the capacity for collaborative relationships and a better understanding of power. At the same time they stress the importance
of learning how to live interdependently and of moving from men’s and women’s rights to gender justice and equity.

Macdonald (1999) identifies a list of aspects that potentially determine gender sensitivity or gender equality. They include the shape of the organization (distribution of decision-making power), the balance of women and men in the staff—particularly, in management and decision-making roles, organizational culture and style, and the day-to-day functioning of the organization.

There is no single structure, whether flat or hierarchical, that will necessarily create gender balance in an organization. The only indicator is the participative representation of women, both numerical representation and a representation in shared knowledge, values and experiences (Berge and Ve, 2000).

In what the author refers to as feminization, DESA (October 1997) suggests that:

"Organizations of different kinds are now going through a ‘feminization’ of their structures, some more rapidly than others, creating more space for the discussion and valuing of personal issues and problems, as well as reconsidering a more intuitive style of decision-making. Some of them are relying on more inclusive and horizontal schemes of power and responsibility. Team-work and organization-wide communication processes are becoming common in business organizations and governments,..."(p. 3)

Commitment on the part of staff is key and is positively associated with the level of female representation. For example, The African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes’ (ACORD) programme in Gao (Mali) with a virtually all-male staff, has been very resistant to the gender policy while its
programme in Gulu (Uganda), for many years headed by a woman and with equal numbers of male and female staff, has been very proactive in adopting the policy.

The national conference on the Advancement of Women and The way forward, Nairobi (1999) is a follow up to the Beijing conference with series of recommendation. Even though the report is biased towards political power for women, it is prepared to empower women at all levels and in all sectors. It lists steps that should be taken to address the inadequate institutional and organizational framework through which greater sustainable women's participation in leadership and decision making could be guaranteed as follows:

- Initiating steps including affirmative action to ensure there is increased representation of women in decision making and leadership in all sectors.
- Continuing to ensure that qualified and experienced women are appointed to occupy decision-making positions in all sectors.
- Monitoring and evaluating the progress on yearly basis on the representation of women, through the regular collection, analysis and dissemination of quantitative and qualitative data on women and men at all levels in various decision-making positions
- Review the criteria for recruitment and appointment to advisory and decision-making positions in NGOs, private and public sector bodies, and promotions to senior positions, to ensure that such criteria are relevant and do not discriminate against women.

2.4.5 Gender Mainstreaming

United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization -UNESCO (2003) defines gender mainstreaming as efforts to integrate gender into existing institutions with the aim of achieving gender equality and improve the
relevance of development agendas. It emphasizes that it is a process rather than a goal.

The Institute of Development Studies (February, 1997) reporting on institutionalizing gender, suggest that many organizations have been gendered; what they lack is mainstreaming. It further argues that in the 90s the focus moved from integrating women to institutionalization gender. The report uses mainstreaming with institutionalizing interchangeably and suggests it involves technical and political process: changes at different levels within these institutions, in agenda setting, policy making, planning, implementation and evaluation. Instruments for the mainstreaming effort include new staffing and budgeting practices, training programmes, policy procedures and guidelines.

This approach has been adopted by the European Union in its constitution. As reported by the Academy of European Law online (2000), the concept of gender mainstreaming calls for the systematic incorporation of gender issues throughout all the organizational policies and structures. It is an extraordinarily demanding concept that requires the adoption of gender perspective by all actors. The European Union in this regard has incorporated women's representation at all levels.

Gender mainstreaming is described by Newman (1995) as looking at the organization with gender lens or seeing it as gendered. Macdonald (1999) suggests that organizations can be gendered in a number of areas as follows;

- Organizational ideologies and overall goals must be sensitive to all the stakeholders, women, men and the minorities. No one should feel that the ideologies and goals of the organization discriminate against them. This should be able to serve fairly on questions of remunerations and promotions so that women in leadership do not feel discriminated upon.
• Organizational value systems need to protect every member of the organization. The language and meaning must be inclusive and need to be sensitive to women.

• Organizations should be designed so that women and other minorities do not find the hierarchy and channels of communication too rigid and slow to act on their needs.

• Management styles need to be friendly, incorporating and accommodating. Just like the structures, women should not feel intimidated. Instead they should feel attracted to leadership.

• Job descriptions: women staff may end up in roles which extend their domestic roles in the private sphere – e.g. being responsible for the soft areas of social policy or social intervention while men deal with hard technical or macroeconomic areas.

• Practical arrangements, space and time such as location or layout of offices; provision/design of dining rooms and lavatories; childcare provisions; working hours and their flexibility; provision of maternity/paternity leave; travel requirements as part of the job.

• Images and symbols which tend to reproduce rather than oppose gender division must be transformed.

• Kabira, Gituto and Shiverenje (1999) emphasize the importance of gender mainstreaming in the national budget in Kenya. This is because budget has been the single most important process and tool of pursuing development. The authors contend that making the budgeting process gender aware offers tremendous opportunity in redressing gender equality ultimately with the aim of achieving sustainable development.
2.4.5 Equal treatment/Opportunity

Equal treatment implies that no individual should have fewer human rights or opportunities than any other. As observed by the Academy of European Law online (2000) the approach is an essential element in any equal opportunity policy such as equal pay or equal treatment at workplace.

2.4.6 Affirmative Action

MacElroy (2004) defines affirmative action as a policy put in place when a company or an institution takes reasonable action to remedy any discriminatory behaviour which has occurred in the past. It is based on the concept of socio-economic equality, which became popular during the 1960’s in America where blacks and women were seen to be victims of another class of Americans: white males. The policy, the author suggests, focuses on women through a wide range of measures which include remedial training, considerations for lower scores on tests for jobs or university admission. There are also recruitment procedures with special emphasis on women, and introduction of child care facilities. In the case of leadership therefore, women would be given preference over men. This may include cases where they are less qualified or experienced for promotion.

The United Nations Development programme (UNDP) has established a series of actions in ensuring gender balance in senior management. The report from the office of Human Resources, Bureau for Planning and Resources Management (1998), confirms that between 1995-1997, the agency accomplished a number of things, through its gender policies. It tripled the number of female assistant administrators, exceeded the 20 per cent target for women at the top leadership (the category known as D-2), almost doubled the number of Regional Representatives, and finally
increased the number of women senior managers at the headquarters by one third.

2.5 GENDER AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

2.5.1 Introduction

It has been suggested by various quarters that women and men have different approaches to leadership. This has for many years often resulted into women being viewed as poor or ineffective leaders. Naturally, this has remained an obstacle to women’s adequate representation at the leadership level. The following chapter discusses two main leadership styles—transactional and transformational leadership styles, which have widely been associated with gender.

2.5.2 Women as transformational leaders and men as transactional leaders

Schools of thought have come up with personality traits and behaviour associated with women and men. These traits are believed to have influence in their style of leadership. Rosener (1998) suggests that men usually describe themselves in ways that characterize "transactional leaders." They see their jobs as a series of transactions with subordinates, in which rewards are exchanged for services. They are more likely than women to use power that comes from their organizational position and formal authority.

Rosener says that women, on the other hand, tend to describe themselves in ways that characterize "transformational leaders." As she interviewed women leaders, she found out that they tend to share power and information, encourage participation, enhance other people’s self worth, and get others excited about their work. Persons who work with them are encouraged to contribute in order to feel powerful and important. In other words, women
leaders tend to be highly interactive in their relationships with the team. They appear to recognize the interdependence of highly independent people. Their preferred style is one that fosters interaction, participation, and empowers others. Close in support is Macdonald (1998) who emphasizes that a goal or target oriented organizational culture is masculine while a nurturing management style is feminine. Does this then, mean that women are most suited as leaders since the transformational style of leadership which today is perceived as the ideal style, is highly associated with women?

Despite the popularity of this idea, there is certain weakness likely to be associated with it as argued by Itzin and Newman (1995). They contend that linking interactive leadership exclusively to female is a mistake because women have learned to do this in order to make their way into positions of power and authority in our very traditional authoritarian organizations and governments. By identifying women as more interactive and participative, they say, may continue to discriminate against women even farther. Being inclusive sometimes has its disadvantages. It may even contribute to developing the already existing stereotype of women as indecisive. Asking for ideas and information can be interpreted as not having answers. Because of the historical predominance of authoritarian forms of leadership, the new style of leadership which shares power and solicits ideas is frequently considered weak or "feminine."

A much stronger argument against associating women with one style of leadership comes from Genovese (1993) who brings into focus prominent women who evidently exhibited different contrasting leadership styles. Margaret Thatcher, the 'Iron Lady' is perceived as a woman who employed hard leadership during her reign. The writer farther refutes the theory that women are more transformational. While Thatcher spent time on issues that hardly brought women into focus, Gro Harlem Brundtland who also won awards due to her commitment in preserving the environment, transformed
the Norwegian political system as the first woman prime minister by appointing women into many senior positions. Women can also make their way through corporations and politics by adhering to the traditional model of top-down, authoritarian leadership and finally wield power in ways similar to men.

Itzin and Newman (1995) advice, that there is need to identify women first as persons, instead of perceiving them as women first and leaders afterwards.

Regardless of whether these theories are right or wrong, Dirasse (1991) argues that there appears to be specific kind of issues women tend to champion, and they appear to bring distinctive styles to leadership. Arguably, such similarities can be traced to the different positions women hold in society, the ways in which different societies constrain women or enable them to fulfill their human potential and the distinct roles that society expects them to play in relation to men, rather than any supposedly "innate" female or male qualities.

Studies have been conducted to justify that women are just as capable as men. Leadership experts, particularly the modern ones like Bennis, have suggested various ideal qualities needed in leadership; but none of them can be automatically attributed to any particular sex. James MacGregor Burns (1978) has established that good leadership needs to be transforming. Kotter (1990), in support of this contends that leadership requires:

"A strong internal drive to achieve and succeed, Intelligence (intellectual skills and ability), mental and emotional health, integrity, vision, value congruency, self-reinvention, passion and self-understanding (Page 118)."

In his book, The Fifth Discipline (1990), Peter Senge suggests that leaders are no longer "men on horseback" who shape up organizations through the
force of their personalities. Leaders are now supposed to learn along with followers. They are no longer expected to know all the answers but rather seek the best ones together. Matusak (2002) says a leader is the one who has faith in others, the one who bets and takes risks with them, creating spaces where they can exercise initiative, freedom, and commitment.

The above qualities are qualities that every human being needs in order to succeed and be morally responsible and accepted in society. There is absolutely nothing to suggest that leadership is gender specific.

2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter addressed four main issues regarding women representation at the decision-making level of non-governmental organizations. First discussed the number of female senior managers compared to that of men, found in any political, social or developmental organization. The findings suggested that women were still a minority representing less than 30 per cent in decision-making in governmental and intergovernmental bodies, civil societies and non-governmental organizations. This was proving that a target of the United Nations Economic and Social Council had not been achieved. Secondly, the main reasons as to why gender inequality has persisted were identified as social structures, stereotypes and qualification deficiency. The third issue was identifying the organizational policies on gender at the management level. These included various measures put in place by organizations and forums, as well as suggestions made by different management experts as ways of creating a sustainable gender balanced organizations. The fourth issue addressed was the impact of gender on leadership style.

The next chapter discusses the strategy adopted for this study.
CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study was to establish the extent to which non governmental organizations based in Nairobi have met 30 per cent women representation at the leadership level. This chapter presents the approach that was adopted in collecting, analysing and interpreting the information gathered. It includes research design, population and sample, data collection methods, research procedures and data analysis methods.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Survey method was used as a research design for this study. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) describe survey as an attempt to collect data from members of a population in order to determine the current status of the population with respect to one or more variables. It is a self-report study which requires the collection of quantifiable information from the sample.

This approach was chosen because the aim of the study was to assess the representation of women at the top management levels of non governmental organizations in Nairobi. The survey was descriptive and was ideal for the study because the findings were aimed at describing gender representation at the leadership level and the measures the organizations had put in place to ensure adequate representation.

The study also described comprehensively the perceptions of individual managers about gender and leadership.

In general the researcher chose this type of study because it was considered the most comprehensive. It would adequately address the questions raised in the research objectives.
3.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLING DESIGN

3.3.1 Population

The population comprised 200 local and international non governmental organizations based in Nairobi. One hundred and twenty (120) were international while 80 were local non governmental organizations. The respondents comprised leaders in top management positions and heads of departments. The list of non-governmental organizations was provided by the NGO bureau of the Kenya government and contained all the organizations that have been in existence for more than ten years.

3.3.2 Sampling Design

3.3.2.1 The Sampling Frame

The sampling frame was a list from NGO Bureau, the Government of Kenya which contained all registered non-governmental organizations and their physical addresses in Nairobi. This list is updated every year.

3.3.2.2 Sampling Technique

The sampling technique used was stratified random sampling. The goal of stratified random sampling was to achieve desired representation from various subgroups in the population (Mugenda O, Mugenda A, 2003). A total of 20 non governmental organizations; ten national and ten international were drawn. The sampled NGOs also included various sectors such as education and culture, and multi-sectoral. In addition this method was used to draw respondents at random regardless of gender.

The first stratification was based on national and international organizations from the list provided by the NGO Bureau (Table 3). Equal number of organizations was selected from each stratum so that the sample size below
was reached. In the two categories the organizations were further divided into four main sectors: development, multi-sectored, education & culture and others. The category ‘Others’ represented any other area of operation which was not included in development, multi-sectoral or education & culture. Here, a simple random sampling was used.

3.3.2.3 Sampling size

Table 3.0: The table below represents sampling size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>International NGOs</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>% sample</th>
<th>Local NGOs</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>% sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abantu for Development- Development</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>Africa Peace Forum</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Path – Health and Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The Godown Art Centre- Culture and Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WWF (World Wide Fund for Nature)- Wild life conservation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Kuona Trust- Culture and Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action Aid- multisectoral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Youth Agenda- Education and Culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African Network for the Prevention and Protection Against Child Abuse and Neglect (ANPPCAN)- Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Kenya Aids NGO Consortium- Health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coalition for Peace (COPA)- civil education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Family Planning Promotion services- Health and Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace Network (PEACENET)- Civil education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Uzima Foundation- Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOAL Ireland- multisectoral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Center for Peace and Development- Civil education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education for Africa – Civil education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>K-Rep Development Agency- Development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population Services International- health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Africa Water Forum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The sample size comprised 21 per cent of all the 200 non governmental organizations based in Nairobi. The population was drawn from various sectors such as development, education-culture, multi-sectoral and others.

3.4 Data Collection Methods

The collection of data was mainly by the use of questionnaire designed for senior managers as well as in-depth personal interviews with a few organization heads. The questionnaires were designed according to the specific objectives of the study. Question 1-3 solicited general but gender related information on the organization. Question 4-12 sought to elicit information on gender representation at the senior management level. Among them were questions 7 to 11 which were specifically designed and directed to human resources managers solicited information on the organization’s policies on gender. Question 13-20 regarded individual manager’s perception of gender and leadership; Question 21-25 sought information on the organization’s policies on gender and leadership. Questions 26-30 sought to elicit information on how executive leaders perceived their leadership styles and also their perception on leadership and gender.

The questionnaires contained both close-ended and open-ended questions. There were two types of questionnaires; one type was designed for the human resources manager. It contained questions 7-11 which sought information related to human resources department. The other questionnaire which was designed for other senior managers did not contain the questions mentioned. The human resources manager or the person in charge of the staffing was meant to provide administrative information such as gender policies and the distribution of men and women in leadership positions. The other questionnaire was designed for one other executive leader, such as departmental heads, programme officers and directors. The questions were categorized according to the four specific objectives; mainly the
representation of women at the top management levels, reasons for poor representation of women at the executive leadership, organizational gender policies at the top management levels and gender influences on leadership styles. Close and open-ended questions were used. Open-ended questions were mainly aimed at extending explanations to close ended questions. The targeted organizations received three questionnaires meant to be distributed to three senior managers in the organizations. Upon delivery of the questionnaires to the respective organizations, the human resources managers were asked to select randomly two other senior managers who would fill them in.

Personal in-depth interviews were also carried out with six top leaders. The selection was done on voluntary basis, meaning the willing senior executives. A questionnaire similar to the ones distributed to other senior managers was used to guide through the interview.

Secondary data was also collected from publications- books, journals, reports and the internet sources. This is presented in the literature review.

3.5.0 Research Procedures

3.5.1 The Research Process

The researcher first did a pilot testing with the management of Nairobi Trust, the organization in which the researcher works. Three questionnaires were distributed and collected after three days. The necessary minor adjustments were then made on the questionnaires according the recommendations and observations made.

Sixty questionnaires were later distributed to respective subjects and the response collected after two to three weeks. Fifty two questionnaires were
personally delivered to the respective destinations. Five others were e-mailed and three others posted. Each of the 20 NGOs received one questionnaire designed for the human resources manager and two others for other senior managers. Forty five questionnaires were personally collected while 3 were emailed back. Twelve of them were not returned from six different organizations. All the human resources managers’ questionnaires were returned. However, one of them was partially filled in. A total of forty eight questionnaires were filled and collected. A total of six senior managers from three local and three international non governmental organizations were interviewed in an in-depth way.

3.6 Research Scheduling
Prior to distributing questionnaires, the researcher sent out the letter of transmittal to the intended subjects. A sample of the transmittal letter is attached as appendix 3. This was later followed up through telephone and email to confirm receipt of the letter.

Fifty two questionnaires were personally delivered to the respective destinations. Five others were e-mailed and three others posted. Although they were meant to be collected after a few days, they were all collected after one to two weeks.

3.7 Data Analysis
The data were separated into nominal scale. Nominal scale categorized data into male and female managers and various sectors. Nominal scale was mainly a representation of variables for easier statistical analysis using SPSS software programme. Numerals were assigned to various categories for the purpose of identification during data analysis.
The data from the close-ended questions were analysed using descriptive statistics according to the categories mentioned. The response for each question was analysed separately in order to obtain percentage and frequency distributions. The data from the human resources managers obtained as responses to questions 7 to 11 were separated from the ones from directors, heads of departments, programme directors and officers during the analysis in order that specific questions that were only meant for the human resources manager would be analysed separately.

The analysis aimed to determine the numerical gender balance in each individual organization and the overall percentage of female managers’ representation. Pie-chart and tables were used to present overall findings of different variables. The analysis determined whether there were gender policies in place and how effective these policies were. Finally the analysis determined the effectiveness of gender policies and the existence of gender stereotype in leadership.

3.8. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter described the methodology used in the study. The study was exploratory and the population was 200 non governmental organizations based in Nairobi. The list was obtained from the national bureau of NGOs. A stratified random sampling was used to select ten local and ten international non governmental organizations. The collection of data was carried out using questionnaires and interviews, and the quantitative analysis done with the use of SPSS.

The next chapter presents the results and findings as well as the discussions on the findings.
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to establish the extent to which women are represented in the leadership of non-governmental organizations in Nairobi. The following chapter presents the findings based on the four specific objectives of the study. The data was collected by the use of the questionnaires and in-depth personal interviews with senior executives and heads of departments of the sampled organizations.

4.2 RESULTS AND FINDINGS

The data presentation is based on four main specific research objectives: representation of women at the senior management levels, reasons for gender inequality at the management levels, organizational policies on gender at the senior management levels, and whether women and men have different leadership styles.

The following are the descriptions and summaries of the data from the quantitative analysis recorded from the SPSS programme. The main type of descriptive statistics used is frequency distribution, represented by the frequency distribution tables. Qualitative feedback for each section is presented below the corresponding tables for the qualitative analysis.

Question 1-3 sought to elicit general but gender-related information on the organization. Question 4-12 sought to elicit information on gender representation at the senior management levels; Question 13-20 sought to find out the reasons for under-representation of women in leadership; Question 21-25 sought information on the organization’s policies on gender and leadership. Questions 26-30 sought to elicit information on how executive
leaders perceived their leadership styles and also their perception on leadership and gender.

The summary is shown in table 4.0 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaires</th>
<th>General information on the organization</th>
<th>Representation of women at the senior management level</th>
<th>Reasons for under-representation of women in NGO leadership</th>
<th>Organizational gender policies at the senior management level</th>
<th>Gender's influence on leadership style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior Managers</td>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>Question 4-12 Questions 7-11 were specific to Human resources manager</td>
<td>Question 13-20</td>
<td>Questions 21-25</td>
<td>Question 26-30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. Representation of women at the senior management level

Table 4.1: The table shows the distribution of sampled respondents in their respective organizations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internaional</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows that respondents were divided equally (50 per cent each) between international and local non governmental organizations.
Table 4.2 shows distribution of women in senior management positions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Percentage against total population</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Percentage against total population</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among the local NGOs there were 10 men and 14 women in top management. Among the international NGOs there were 2 men and 22 women at the same level. Therefore there were more women in top leadership among local NGOs than there were in international NGOs.
Figure 1.0: The figure below shows the percentage of female managers in organizations from where the respondents came.

3. Population of female managers

The chart shows that organizations which have 30 per cent or more women in executive leadership make up the majority of the studied population.

Table 4.3 Shows the relationship between female and male headed non-governmental organizations in terms of women's representation in senior management levels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male Headed NGOs</th>
<th>Female Headed NGOs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male senior executives</td>
<td>Female senior executives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male senior executives</td>
<td>Female senior executives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table above indicates that the organizations that were headed by men had a total of five men and twenty three women at the top management levels. Those that were lead by women had seven men and 13 women at the same level.

**Table 4.4:** The organizations were categorized into Relief, development, multi-sectored, education & culture and others (for which they were required to specify). The respondents were distributed as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Development</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-sectoral</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational &amp; Culture</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>48</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows that there were four different categories of local and international organizations. Thirteen were in development sector, seven multi sectoral, 16 in education and culture, and another 12 who worked in various sectors such as health, capacity building and HIV-AIDS.

**Table 4.5 Senior Managers’ age brackets**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25-36</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>47.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37-45</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>87.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 45</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>48</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A larger group of managers were between 25-36 years old, making up to 47 per cent of all senior leaders in the organizations. Another 39 per cent was made up of managers between 37 and 45 years of age.
Table 4.6 below shows how gender is distributed among the age brackets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25-36</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37-45</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 45</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table indicates that in the age category 25-36 there were a total of 4 men and 19 women at the decision-making levels. Between 37 and 45 there were 8 men and 11 women. And leaders who were 45 were made up of only women.

Table 4.7: The table is a distribution of male and female top executives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the table there were a total of 36 female and 12 male executive leaders among the organizations where the study was carried out.

Table 4.8 Shows Population of female managers in relation to gender of the most senior leader in percentage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male Headed NGOs</th>
<th>Female Headed NGOs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male senior executives</td>
<td>Female senior executives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 per cent</td>
<td>48 per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The variables above show the relationship between percentage of female leaders and the gender of the most senior person in the organization. In male headed organizations, senior executives comprised 10 per cent male and 48 per cent female. Female headed organizations recorded 15 per cent male and 27 per cent female at the same level.

B. Perception about leadership and gender

Table 4.9 represents opinions on whether some senior positions are specific to gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As asked whether there were posts they perceived as gender specific, only 4 of the respondents thought so, while 44 others felt that posts were not specific to gender.

Table 4.10: The table below shows how the response on whether some positions suited specific gender better

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Whether some posts are Gender specific</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Area of operation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the four respondents who thought there were gender specific posts were working for local NGOs. Twenty four respondents from the international
NGOs did not think that there were positions which suited specific gender. The other twenty respondents who were from the local NGOs believed that some positions were specific to gender.

The 4 respondents who answered in the affirmative were from the local non-governmental organizations and had the following reasons to give:

- Travelling and late hours can sometimes be unsuitable for women. Therefore any post that required extensive travels and extended working hours would not be suitable for women.

- The outside world favour programmes which are led by men. The respondents however, did not offer additional explanation.

Some of the managers who thought that there were no posts that were gender specific explained that;

- Individual qualifications, experience and ability to perform are what should be given weight over gender. One senior manager added that as long as a position is professionally satisfying, enabling one to exercise one’s capabilities to the maximum, it does not matter whether one is a woman or a man.

**Table 4.11**: shows opinions on whether there are tasks that are gender specific

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Only four of all the respondents thought that there were tasks that were gender specific. The other 44 respondents did not think so but did not give reason.

Table 4.12: presents whether age was a factor for a woman to occupy a leadership position.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age women should attain in order to be in certain senior executive posts</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.00</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 35</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>22.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not necessary</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>77.1</td>
<td>77.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>48</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As asked whether they thought age was a fact for a woman to occupy a leadership post, three of the respondents did not answer. Seven respondents thought that only women who attain the age of 35 and above should be promoted to senior executive posts. One respondent thought any woman above 25 years of age can hold a top executive post. Other respondents did not think it was necessary to limit a woman's age for a senior post as long as she merits the post.

Table 4.13 is a representation on whether age is a factor for a man to be considered in leadership position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.00</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>93.8</td>
<td>93.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As asked whether age was a factor for a man to be considered for any leadership post, three of the respondents did not respond, while 45 other
respondents said any man can occupy a senior post as long as he attains it on merit.

**Table 4.14:** Whether men and women should get the same salary and allowances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>91.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Forty-four of all the 48 respondents thought women and men should get equal compensation or salary.

The most common reason given was that salaries and allowances should be pegged on performance and positions. Gender should not be a factor. The other four who negated did not give reason.

**Table 4.15:** What determines promotion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Merit</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>79.0</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non merit factors</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combination</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thirty-eight respondents thought that in their organization merit alone determined promotion. Two other respondents thought non-merit considerations played a major role in determining promotion especially organizational politics. They explained that some people were appointed to the top executive posts because someone helped them out. The remaining
eight respondents thought that a mixture of merit and non-merit factors determine promotion.

Table 4.16: Do the staff have different regard for female and male managers?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>85.4</td>
<td>85.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Seven respondents felt that the staff have different regard for female and male senior managers. Forty one of them did not think so.

All three respondents who answered in the affirmative were female leaders. One respondent said that she had heard it expressed so by other people. So she thought it had to do with perceptions. Another manager expressed that some members of staff preferred dealing with specific sex.

Table 4.17: Whether there were gender-specific challenges to managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>72.9</td>
<td>72.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thirteen of the respondents felt there were gender-related challenges in their organization. Thirty five others did not think so.

All respondents who did not think so were male managers. Five women thought that there were posts that were gender specific. Nine other female managers did not think so.

Some of the respondents who answered in the affirmative had the following reasons:
• One suggested that she attended to kitchen duties like washing utensils and preparing tea, which she felt she had to do because she was a woman.

• Another observed that there were people who did not handle positive feedback well especially from young female managers

• In handling clients she found out that some of them would opt to be served only by men

• One respondent noted that it was a real dilemma for a woman to balance career and family. Situations such as choosing to have additional children, whether to take up a foreign job or put in more time at work were real issues to women.

• Some issues have to do with the society in which we live rather than the organization as observed by yet another manager. She added that, it was a fact that women were treated differently than men. Female managers often have to do a lot more to prove themselves.

The respondents who responded in negation said that in their organization, employees were treated equally regardless of sex and given the same opportunities.

C. Organizational Gender policies at the senior management level

Table 4.18: Question 21: Are there Gender policies in the organization?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>68.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
One of the respondents did not answer this question. Thirty two other respondents said that they had gender policies in their organization. Fifteen others said they did not have gender policies in their organizations.

**Table 4.19** indicates the relationship between gender policies and the percentage of female managers in their respective organizations. The question sought to determine whether gender policies in organizations influenced women’s representation at the top executive levels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>% of top female executives</th>
<th>Whether there are gender policies in the organization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 and above</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 and above</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 30</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 4.19, a total of 19 respondents who reported that they had gender policies in their organization also reported that they had over 30 per cent of women in senior executive positions. Thirteen other respondents reported having gender policies but still had less than 30 per cent women at the top leadership. Meanwhile, a total of 5 respondents reported to have no gender policies in the organization yet, they had over 30 per cent of women in senior management positions. Ten other respondents who reported to have no gender policies in their organization reported less than 30 per cent women at the senior management levels.

The following gender related policies in organizations were listed down by respondents:
• All policies in the organization have been gendered- i.e. given gender face. The same organization is in the process of establishing an anti-sexual harassment policy
• Recognition of women's right to motherhood and access to maternity leave with pay
• Equal opportunity policy in recruitment and matters of maternity and paternity leave.
• That women must either lead or be represented by one of their own in all departments.

Table 4.20 below presents how respondents perceived their organization in terms of significant gender development made in the last five years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Has there been any significant gender development in the last five years?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Twenty eight respondents felt that their organizations have made significant gender development in the last five years. Twenty others reported that their organization had not had any significant gender related development during period.

All but one respondent who answered in the affirmative cited various gender policies and actions such as mainstreaming, affirmative action, recruitment and remuneration policies.
Table 4.21 below shows a response to the question whether gender influences promotion or selection of candidates for senior management positions in respective organizations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>97.9</td>
<td>97.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only one respondent felt gender influenced promotion in their organization. The other 47 thought that gender did not influence promotion.

All the respondents said that their gender policy offered clear guidelines on promotion. The policy ensured that women and men competed on level grounds.

Another respondent observed that since her organization ensured that both men and women were recruited on equal competence, their promotion always depended on merit than gender. She observed that this has only brought about more women in senior leadership positions.
D. Gender's influence on leadership styles

Table 4.22 below presents how executive leaders perceived themselves in terms of the frequency of consultation with their staff or employees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.00</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>64.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ten respondents did not answer this question. Three others felt that they never consulted their staff. Eighteen other respondents thought they consulted their staff sometimes, while the remaining 17 felt they consulted the staff always.

Table 4.23 below shows how frequently senior managers consulted the staff members or involved them in decision-making:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How frequently do you consult or involve the staff in decision making?</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Three female said they rarely consulted their juniors or members of staff. Seventeen other female respondents said they consulted sometimes compared to one male who also said he consulted sometimes. A total of 8 male and 9 female confirmed that they consulted with members of staff always.
**Table 4.24**: How the respondents perceived their relationships with their employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.00</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>very friendly</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxed</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respectable</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>distance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>48</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Three of the respondents did not respond to this question. Six others perceived their relationships to be very friendly; twenty two felt they had a relaxed relationship and seventeen felt they maintained a respectable distance.

**Table 4.25**: The variables below show how women and men in senior management positions perceive relationship with their junior employees or staff members.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Describe your relationship with your employees</th>
<th>Male respondents</th>
<th>Female respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did not respond</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very friendly</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respectable distance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
<td><strong>36</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table indicates that nine of the 20 male respondents felt they had a formal relationship with their employees. The remaining three did not respond. Among the female respondents, six of them perceived they had very
friendly relationships with their employees, and thirty perceived themselves as formal.

Table 4.26 below indicates the leadership styles adopted by the respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is the most effective way you ensure employees perform their task effectively?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.00</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>6.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>20.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>involvement</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>72.9</td>
<td>72.9</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coercion</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Three of the respondents believed they tended to reward their employees as a way of motivating them to improve their performance. Thirty five others thought they preferred involving their employees in decision-making in order to achieve the same. Three others said they tended to use coercion more. The rest of the respondents did not answer to the question.
Table 4.27 below shows how respondents perceived their Leadership styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.00</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relationship/oriented</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>47.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>task oriented</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>91.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Twenty respondents perceived their leadership style as relationship oriented, 21 felt they were task oriented, 4 perceived themselves to be both task and relationship oriented. The other three respondents did not respond to this question.

Table 4.28 below shows how respondents perceived themselves in terms of leadership style.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Describe your leadership style</th>
<th>Male respondents</th>
<th>Female respondents</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relationship oriented</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task Oriented</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance between task and relationship</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two male and eighteen female top managers perceived themselves as relationship oriented. Six men and fifteen women said they perceived themselves as task oriented. One man and three women perceived themselves as both task and relationship oriented.
Table 4.29 below presents respondents answers to the question whether women and men have different leadership styles was

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do women and men have different leadership styles</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>64.6</td>
<td>66.0</td>
<td>66.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>97.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Asked whether women and men have similar or different approaches to leadership, 31 respondents thought that men and women have different styles of leadership from men. Sixteen others thought that men and women do not necessarily have different leadership styles.

- One respondent observed that female managers are more caring but can be quite harsh especially if they think they are being undermined.
- Female managers are more understanding and can perform better under pressure compared to male managers. The respondents added that female managers can withstand a lot more pressure than their male counterparts.
- One respondent explained that she noticed that unlike many men, she and other women can tackle several different tasks simultaneously.
- Female managers are more person oriented and less formal in style which is conducive to an open and constructive workplace, and also less concerned with hierarchy.
- Generally men are more stable managers than women particularly during crises. The respondent was male.
- Female managers tend to provide attention to details in issues.
- Females are sympathetic to staff concerns and good organization.
- Women are better team players, involve more people in decision making and are able to multi task more easily than men.
- Male colleagues tend to be more patient and lenient with female colleagues.
- Men are objective but impatient whereas women are patient but emotional.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The following chapter presents discussion, conclusions and recommendations from the study. The discussions are organized and presented according to the four research questions.

5.2. SUMMARY

The general purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which non governmental organizations based in Nairobi, Kenya, have met the targeted 30 per cent representation of women at the executive leadership levels. The specific objectives were representation of women at management levels, why women have continued to be under-represented in senior management positions, establishment of gender policies, and whether styles of leadership are influenced by gender.

The study was descriptive and surveyed efforts to increase women’s representation at the decision-making levels in non governmental organizations in Nairobi. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses were used. A total of twenty (20) non governmental organizations, both local and international were selected through stratified random sampling.

The research findings suggested that 55 per cent of the respondents came from organizations that had more than 30 per cent women at the senior management levels. Women made up to 75 per cent of the senior management positions of the local and international non-governmental organizations. Sixty four per cent perceived their leadership styles as influenced by gender. The study also suggested that the majority
organizations had established gender policies that guided recruitment, remunerations, promotion and other processes. On the question of leadership style, the findings revealed that most managers felt women and men had different approaches to leadership. Women were said to be emotional, detailed, participative, team players, supportive of the staff, relationship oriented and multi-tasking. But they were also observed to be unstable and described as tending to be more subjective in judgement. Men on the other hand were said to be objective, stable, but also authoritative and less detailed. Regarding questions that self-analysed the respondents, the managers did not portray that there were distinctive leadership qualities between men and women. They portrayed that styles varied from one individual to another in spite of gender. The distinction was therefore clearly made between respondents' objective perception of gender as far as leadership styles are concerned, and how they analysed themselves. The respondents were not necessarily conducting themselves in the same style of leadership they perceived to be oriented towards. The study therefore concludes that women and men may not necessarily be different in their leadership styles, but the perception, as expressed by many writers that men and women have different leadership styles dominates.

5.3 DISCUSSION

5.3.1. Representation of women at the management level
The findings suggest that among the organizations in which the study was conducted, women made up to 75 per cent of the senior management personnel. The difference between international and local organizations was noted. Among the local organizations, women made up to 41 per cent of the senior management, while among the international organizations they made up to 91 per cent. Therefore, the representation of women in senior management positions was determined to some extent by whether the organization was local or international.
These findings show improvement from the studies done before by Dirasse (1991) where only 14.69 per cent of women were represented in the labour force in Kenya in 1991. These figures are also notably higher than the report on political leadership representation where women made 23.1 per cent of members of parliament in 1999. The study concludes that the target of 30 per cent of Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1996) has largely been achieved by non-governmental organizations operating in Nairobi.

In terms of whether the gender of the top leadership influenced the ratio of women and men in senior management, the researcher noted that it was not obvious, that organizations which were led by women necessarily had more women in leadership. The organizations that were headed by men had a total of five men and twenty three women at the decision-making levels. Overall, women made up to 82 per cent of top leadership in such organizations. Those that were lead by women numbered seven men and 13 women and women made up to 65 per cent of top leadership. However since this study excluded organizations that dealt exclusively with women’s issues, the earlier report by other researchers on such organizations may not necessarily be reflected in these findings.

5.3.2 Reasons for inadequate representation of women at top management levels.

The study revealed that established gender policies have created and sustained women’s representation at the top leadership levels. This is in agreement with Itzin and Newman’s (1995) who contend that organizational ideologies, values, structures and management style are some of the key ways of engendering the organization. The findings of the study indicate that the majority of the respondents (71 per cent) who said there were no gender policies in place, had less than 30 per cent women in leadership.
The study found out that most of the policies that were put in place, guided in recruitment, promotion and remunerations. So contrary to the assumption that there was inequality in these organizations, the study revealed that managers did not feel or sense any form of inequality or poor representation of women in decision making.

5.3.2 Organizational policies on gender at the management level

The survey showed that up to 67 per cent of the respondents had gender policies in their organizations. Among the twenty eight respondents who confirmed that their organizations had some significant gender related development, only one said they did not have gender policies in place. Mainstreaming, establishment of an anti-sexual harassment policy, recognition of women's rights to motherhood and access to maternity leave with pay, equal opportunity practices in recruitment and matters of maternity and paternity leave, were listed as recent and most remarkable development (in the last five years) in the organizations. All respondents confirmed that remuneration was pegged on performance and experience, not gender. This was an indication that many non governmental organizations are actively implementing gender policies and structures. In the spirit of Beijing Platform for Action (1999), the step is consistent with the call for governmental bodies, public administration, international and non-governmental organizations to adopt affirmative action.

Some of the respondents who reported that their organizations did not have gender policies explained that their organizations were entirely run by women. As a result they did not think that gender policies were necessary. However, since gender is a relational concept between man and woman, according to Kabira, Gituto and Shiverenje (1999), such organizations may still need gender policy in order to bring about a balanced representation of both gender.
5.3.4. Whether women and men have different leadership styles

Fifty seven per cent of the respondents, both male and female thought that women and men have different leadership styles. Women were perceived to be caring, people oriented, less formal and understanding. This was consistent with Rosener (1998) who suggests that women leaders tend to be highly interactive and prefer style that foster interaction, participation and empowers others. Singh’s (2002) argument is confirmed by additional remarks from the managers who suggested that women were also better in multi-tasking and were more detailed.

On the other hand, a respondent who felt that men were more stable in crises echoed another respondent who felt that women are less objective because they are emotional. The respondent may have implied that emotions reduce stability and objectivity, therefore not healthy during crises. According to the study done by Itzin and Newman (1995), the distinction between men and women and their leadership style is stereotypical and does not represent the reality. When asked as self-perception about how often they involved their staff in decision making processes, only 3 female managers said always, 7 said at times and 1 said never. On the other hand, 4 male managers said they involved their staff always, while 1 said at times. This may lead to a conclusion that contrary to the respondents' observation, most female managers do less consultation with their staff, while most male managers always consult their staff. The findings may not necessarily imply that men are more people oriented (or transformational) than women. Instead, it might only confirm Genovese’s (1993) argument that women are like men. Individuals exhibit a continuum of leadership qualities just like Margaret Thatcher, former Prime minister of Britain and Gro Harlem Brundtland, former leader of Norway.
On whether they were relationship oriented or task oriented, eighteen female managers said they were relationship oriented and fifteen said they were task oriented. Only three female top managers said they were both task and relationship oriented. Two top male managers perceived themselves as relationship oriented while six others said they were task oriented. One male manager said he was both relationship and task oriented. In the words of MacDonald (1998) that goal or target oriented organizational culture is masculine while a nurturing management style is feminine, the findings do not necessarily reveal this. Instead, the argument by Genovese (1993) is confirmed that women exhibit contrasting leadership styles and this may only vary from individual to another. This study echoes the advice of Itzin and Newman (1995) that there is need to identify women first as persons, instead of perceiving them as women first and leaders afterwards. The findings also do not necessarily qualify women as transformational leaders and men as transactional leaders. Even though the number of women who reported to have participatory approach to leadership is large, those who rarely consulted and felt they were task oriented were nearly as many. Therefore Rosener’s (1998) contention that men tend to be more transactional while women are more transformational has not been clearly confirmed.

5.4. CONCLUSION

From the research findings the following conclusions can be drawn. One, most none governmental organizations based in Nairobi have heeded the call by the United Nations’ Beijing Platform for Action of increasing the number of women into the decision making organs. An overall of 75 per cent women were noted to be in senior management positions. Over 55 per cent of those organizations have well established gender policies which guide their leaders in matters pertaining to recruitment, remuneration, promotion and good work environment. The same policies were found to be instrumental in having a desirable number of women in leadership positions. Thirdly, the findings
concluded that while stereotypes still existed on the perception of leadership styles of women and men, there was no noted difference in the way they lead.

5.5. RECOMMENDATIONS

Following the findings, future study should be more regular with a broader approach. The study should focus on evaluating the established gender policies and how they are revised to accommodate the changing environment. The focus should emphasize the organizational values and practices that are related to higher percentages of women in senior management. Perhaps the organizational cultural characteristics identified in this study as supportive of higher proportions of women in management are also characteristics of cultures that are more inclusive and rewarding in general. Meanwhile, more studies should be dedicated in identifying whether the effectiveness of an organization in carrying out its programmes is influenced by women representation at the senior management level. As suggested by Kabira, Gituto and Shiverenje (2003) that women and children remain the majority of the intended beneficiaries while men largely, the policy makers, a future study should focus on the project performance in relation to women’s representation in top management levels.
REFERENCES


Appendix 1: questionnaire for Human Resources Managers

A. Representation of women at the management level

1. Name of NGO: 

2. Type: Local □ International □

3. Sector: Relief □ Development □ Multi-Sectoral □ Education & Culture □ Other □ (please specify)

4. Manager's Age: Between 25-36 □ Between 37 & 45 □ Over 45 □

5. Manager's sex: Male □ Female □

6. To whom do you report (immediate senior person)? ___________________________ (title)

7. Population of employees: Male___________ Female___________

8. Number of senior persons in the organization__________:

9. How many are men? ____________

10. How many are Women? ________?

11. The head of the organization (or country's representative) is ...
    Male □ Female □
12. What is the most significant gender development in terms of appointment during the last five years?

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

13. My post is more suitable for a woman?
   Yes □ No □
   Briefly explain

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

14. Are there certain tasks you consider that you perform better in because you are a man or woman?
   Yes □ No □
   Explain:

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

15. Is age a factor in a woman who is occupying a leadership position?
   Yes □ No □
   Kindly explain:

________________________________________________________________________
16. Is age a factor in a man who is occupying a leadership position?

Yes ☐ No ☐

17. In your view should men and women be paid same salary and allowance for the same job?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Explain your answer:

18. Which one of the following best describes the personnel practices in your organization?

☐ Promotion is based on merit only

☐ Non-merit factors determine promotion

☐ A mixture of non-merit and merit determine promotion

Explain your answer please:

19. Do you think that the staff in your organization have different regard for
female and male managers?  Yes □  No □
Explain your answer if 'yes':

____________________________________

____________________________________

20. Are there some challenges you have encountered in your job because you are a female/male manager?
Yes □  No □
If the answer is yes, please explain the challenges: ________________________________________________________________________

_________________________________________________________________________________

B. Organizational policies on gender

21. Are there significant gender policies in your organization? (if yes, please answer question 9)
Yes □  No □

22. Briefly describe them:

__________________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________________

23. How effective have these policies been? (briefly explain)

__________________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________________

24. Has there been any significant development in gender policy at the
leadership level during the last five years?

Yes ☐  No ☐
If yes, briefly describe them
________________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________________

25. Do you think that in your organization gender influences promotion or selection of candidates for senior management position?

Yes ☐  No ☐
If your answer is 'yes', briefly explain: __________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________________________

C. Gender and Leadership styles

26. Before assigning a task to the staff, I consult them

Never ☐
At times ☐
Always ☐

27. How would you describe your relationship with the employees?

☐ Very friendly
☐ Very formal
28. What is the most effective way to ensure employees perform their task effectively?

☐ Reward
☐ Coercion
☐ Involvement throughout the decision making process

29. How would you describe your leadership style

☐ More relationship oriented
☐ More task oriented
☐ Both relationship and task oriented

30. In your view, do women and men possess different leadership qualities/styles?

☐ Yes ☐ No

Explain your answer:

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
Appendix 2: Questionnaire for Senior Managers

A. Representation of women at the senior management level

1. Name of NGO: ________________________________

2. Type: Local ☐ International ☐

3. Sector: Relief ☐ Development ☐ Multi-Sectoral ☐ Education & Culture ☐ Other ☐ (please specify) ________________

4. Manager’s Age: Between 25-36 ☐ Between 37 & 45 ☐ Over 45 ☐

5. Manager’s sex: Male ☐ Female ☐

6. To whom do you report (immediate senior person)? ________________________________ (title)

(question 7-10 are only for human resources managers)

11. The head of the organization (or country’s representative) is ...

Male ☐ Female ☐

(Question 12 is reserved for HR manager)

13. My post is more suitable for a woman?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Briefly explain: __________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

- 83 -
14. Are there certain tasks you consider that you perform better in because you are a man/woman
Yes □ No □
Explain:

15. Is age a factor in a woman in a woman who is occupying leadership position?
Yes □ No □
Kindly explain:

16. Is age a factor in a man who is occupying leadership position?
Yes □ No □
Kindly explain:

17. In your view should men and women be paid same salary and allowances for the same job?
Yes □ No □
If the answer is no, why?

18. Which one of the following best describes the personnel practices in your organization?

☐ Promotion is based on merit only
☐ Non-merit factors determine promotion
☐ A mixture of non merit and merit determine promotion

19. Do you think that the staff in your organization have different regard for female and male managers? Yes ☐ No ☐
If your answer is 'yes', please explain: __________________________

__________________________

20. Are there some challenges you have encountered in your job because you are a female/male manager?

Yes ☐ No ☐
If your answer is 'yes', please explain the challenges: __________________________

__________________________

__________________________

B. Organizational policies on gender

21. Are there significant gender policies in your organization? (if yes, please answer the next two questions- if no skip them)

Yes ☐ No ☐

22. Briefly describe them:

__________________________
23. How effective have these policies been?


24. Has there been any significant development in gender policy at the leadership level during the last five years?
Yes □ No □
If yes, mention them:


25. Do you think that in your organization gender influences promotion or selection of candidates for senior management position?
Yes □ No □
If your answer is 'yes', please explain briefly:


C. Gender and leadership styles

26. Before assigning a task to the staff, I consult them ________

Never □
At times ☐
always ☐

27. How would you describe your relationship with the employees?
☐ Very friendly
☐ very formal
☐ respectable distance

28. What is the most effective way to ensure employees perform their task?
☐ Reward
☐ authority
☐ Involvement throughout the decision making process

29. How would you describe your leadership style?
☐ More relationship oriented
☐ More task oriented
☐ Both relationship and task oriented

1. In your view, do women and men possess different leadership qualities/style?
☐ Yes ☐ No
Explain your answer
Appendix 3: The letter of transmittal

Caspar Pedo
Nairobi Trust
Phone 557635
Or 0733803572

caspar@nairobitrust.com

07 March 2004

Dear sir/madam;

RE: REQUEST TO DISTRIBUTE QUESTIONNAIRES FOR A RESEARCH PROJECT

I am carrying out a research on

Gender Equality at leadership levels in non governmental organizations

The study aims at determining:
1. Representation of women at the management level
2. Reasons for gender inequality at the management level
3. Organizational policies on gender at the management level
4. Whether women and men have different leadership styles

The research is my project for a master's degree in management and organizational development at the United States International University.

I selected your organization to provide me with valuable information for this research. Kindly allow me to distribute questionnaires to members of the senior management. The questionnaires are of two kinds. One is meant to be filled by the human resources manager while the other one/s are for any other senior personnel in the organization.

For the sake of confidentiality, the responses will not be availed to anyone else while the report will not reveal the names of the respondents. At the end of the study I shall avail to the organization a copy of my research report.

Kind regards

Caspar Pedo