

**ANTECEDENTS OF WOMEN LEADERSHIP
PERFORMANCE IN PARASTATALS IN KENYA**

SCHOLASTICA NKIROTE RATANYA

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
(Leadership and Governance)**

**JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY OF
AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY**

2021

**Antecedents of Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in
Kenya**

Scholastica Nkirote Ratanya

**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Leadership and Governance
of the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology**

2021

DECLARATION

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

Signature:Date:

Scholastica Nkirote Ratanya

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as University supervisors.

Signature:Date:

Professor Elegwa Mukulu, PhD
JKUAT, Kenya

Signature:Date:

Professor Maurice Sakwa, PhD
JKUAT, Kenya

DEDICATION

To my husband Mr. Oliver Wanga, my daughters Sharon Namatsi and Daniella Neema

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to sincerely thank God for his Grace through this process. I thank my Supervisors Professor Elegwa Mukulu and Professor Maurice Sakwa for their wisdom, guidance and intelligence all through my entire research process. I would also like to acknowledge and extend my sincere appreciation to Jomo Kenyatta University of Science and Technology (JKUAT). In addition, gratitude to my colleagues at JKUAT Nairobi Central Business District (CBD) Campus, Doctor of Philosophy in Leadership and Governance 2014 class for their ideas and critique. Gratitude and appreciation also goes to my husband Mr. Oliver Wanga for his utmost support and my two adorable daughters Sharon and Daniella for their patience when mum was away and busy. To my parents Mr. and Mrs. Domiziano Ratanya; thank you for your endless motivation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES	xvi
LIST OF FIGURES	xxi
LIST OF APPENDICES	xxii
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS.....	xxiii
DEFINITION OF TERMS.....	xxiv
ABSTRACT	xxvi
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background of the Study.....	1
1.1.1 Representation of Women leadership in Kenya	5
.....	5
1.1.2 Parastatals in Kenya.....	7
1.2 Statement of the Problem	8
1.3 Objectives of the Study	10

1.3.1	General Objective.....	10
1.3.2	Specific Objectives.....	10
1.4	Research Hypotheses	10
1.5	Justification of the Study.....	11
1.5.1	Human Resource Professionals	11
1.5.2	Organizations and Management	11
1.5.3	Government Ministries	12
1.5.4	Policy Makers and Researchers	12
1.5.5	Parastatals in Kenya.....	12
1.6	Scope of the Study	13
1.7	Limitations of the Study.....	13
1.8	Chapter Summary.....	14
	CHAPTER TWO	15
	LITERATURE REVIEW.....	15
2.1	Introduction.....	15
2.2	Theoretical Review	15
2.2.1	Role Congruity Theory	16
2.1.2	Transformational Leadership Theory	18
2.2.3	Social Role Theory	22

2.2.4 Upper Echelon Theory	24
2.3 Conceptual Framework	26
2.4 Review of Variables	27
2.4.1 Perceptions.....	27
2.4.2 Competency Skills	28
2.4.3 Workplace policies	31
2.4.4 Role Models.....	33
2.4.5 Organizational Culture.....	35
2.4.6 Leadership Performance	36
2.5 Empirical Review	38
2.5.1 Perceptions and Leadership Performance.....	38
2.5.2 Competency Skills and Leadership Performance	41
2.5.3 Workplace Policies and Leadership Performance	43
2.5.4 Role models and Leadership Performance	45
2.5.5 Organizational Culture.....	46
2.5.6 Leadership Performance	49
2.6 Critique of the Existing Literature Relevant to the Study	51
2.7 Chapter Summary.....	52
2.8 Research Gaps	53

CHAPTER THREE	54
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	54
3.1 Introduction.....	54
3.2 Research Design.....	54
3.2.1 Research Philosophy.....	55
3.3 Target Population.....	55
3.4 Sampling Frame	57
3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Technique.....	57
3.6 Data Collection Instruments.....	58
3.6.1 Primary Data.....	59
3.6.2 Secondary Data.....	60
3.7. Data Collection Procedure	60
3.8 Pilot Study.....	62
3.8.1 Pilot Analysis Report.....	62
3.8.2 Reliability of the Questionnaire.....	63
3.8.2 Validity of the Questionnaire.....	65
3.9 Data Analysis and Presentation.....	65
3.9.1 Measurement of the Variables.....	66
3.9.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis	67

3.9.3 Multiple Linear Regression Model	68
3.9.4 Moderated Multiple Regression Model	70
3.9.5 Variable Definition and Measurement.....	71
3.9.6 Hypotheses Testing	72
3.9.7 Data Normality Tests	73
3.9.8 Multicollinearity Test	74
3.9.9 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Test.....	74
3.9.10 Correlation Analysis	75
CHAPTER FOUR.....	76
RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION.....	76
4. 1 Introduction.....	76
4.2 Response Rate	76
4.3 Reliability Analysis.....	77
4.4 Background Information	77
4.4.1 Age of Respondents	78
4.4.2 Duration Worked in the Organization	78
4.4.3 Number of Years in Current Management Position	79
4.4.4 Management Level of Respondents.....	79
4.4.5 Level of Education.....	80

4.5 Leadership Performance.....	81
4.5.1 Sample Adequacy Results on Leadership Performance	81
4.5.2 Factor Analysis Results of Leadership Performance	82
4.5.3 Leadership Performance Rotation Component Matrix Test.....	83
4.5.4 Descriptive Results of Leadership Performance.....	84
4.6 Organizational Culture and Leadership Performance	86
4.6.1 Sample Adequacy Results on Organizational Culture.....	86
4.6.2 Factor Analysis Results of Organizational Culture	87
4.6.3 Organizational Culture Component Matrix Test	88
4.6.4 Descriptive Results of Organizational Culture	89
4.6.5 Organizational Culture Normality Test	90
4.7 Perceptions and Leadership Performance	92
4.7.1 Sample Adequacy Results on Perceptions.....	92
4.7.2 Factor Analysis Results of Perceptions	93
4.7.3 Perceptions Rotated Component Matrix Test.....	94
4.7.4 Descriptive Results of Perceptions	96
4.7.5 Perceptions Normality Test	97
4.7.6 Perceptions Autocorrelation Test (Durbin-Watson).....	98
4.7.8 Perceptions Multicollinearity Test.....	99

4.7.8 Perceptions and Leadership Performance Correlations Test	100
4.7.9 Perceptions Analysis of Variation (ANOVA) Test	101
4.7.10 Perceptions Goodness-of-fit Model Test	102
4.7.11 Regression Results of Perceptions and Performance.....	102
4.8 Competency Skills and Leader Performance	106
4.8.1 Sample Adequacy Results on Competency Skills	107
4.8.2 Factor Analysis Results on Competency Skills	108
4.8.3 Competency Skills Rotated Component Matrix	109
4.8.4 Descriptive Results of Competency Skills	110
4.8.5 Competency Skills Normality Test Results	111
4.8.6 Competency Skills Autocorrelation Test (Durbin-Watson)	112
4.8.7 Competency Skills Multicollinearity Test	113
4.8.9 Competency Skills ANOVA Test.....	114
4.8.10 Competency Skills Goodness-of-fit Model Test	115
4.8.11 Regression Results of Competency Skills and Leadership Performance...	116
4.9 Workplace Policies and Leadership Performance.....	119
4.9.1 Sample Adequacy Results on Workplace Policies	120
4.9.2 Factor Analysis Results on Workplace Policies	121
4.9.3 Workplace Policies Rotated Component Matrix Results	121

4.9.4 Descriptive Results of Workplace Policies.....	123
4.9.5 Workplace Policies Normality Test Results	124
4.9.6 Workplace Policies Autocorrelation Test (Durbin-Watson) Test.....	125
4.9.7 Workplace Policies Multicollinearity Test	126
4.9.8 Workplace Policies and Leadership Performance Correlation Test	126
4.9.10 Workplace Policies Goodness-of-fit Model Test.....	128
4.9.11 Regression Results of Workplace Policies	129
4.10 Role Models and Leadership Performance	132
4.10.1 Sample Adequacy Results on Role Models.....	133
4.10.2 Factor Analysis Results of Role Models	133
4.10.3 Role Models Rotated Component Matrix Test.....	134
4.10.4 Descriptive Results of Role Models	135
4.10.5 Role Models Normality Test	136
4.10.6 Role Models Autocorrelation Test (Durbin-Watson).....	138
4.10.7 Role Models Multicollinearity Test.....	139
4.10.8 Role Models and Leadership Performance Correlations Results	140
4.10.9 Role Models ANOVA Test	141
4.10.10 Role Models Goodness-of-fit Test.....	142
4.10.11 Regression Results of Role Models and Leadership Performance	142

4.11 Summary of Study Variables	145
4.11.1 Overall Goodness-of-fit Model Test.....	146
4.11.2 Overall Correlations Test.....	146
4.12 Overall Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Test	148
4.13 Overall Multiple Regression Test	149
4.14 Summary of Research Hypotheses.....	150
4.15 Discussion of Key Findings	151
4.15.1 Perceptions.....	151
4.15.2 Competency Skills	152
4.15.4 Role Models.....	154
4.15.5 Organizational Culture.....	156
4.15.6 Leadership Performance	157
CHAPTER FIVE.....	158
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	158
5.1 Introduction.....	158
5.2 Summary of the Findings	158
5.2.1 Effect of Perceptions on Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya.....	158
5.2.2 Effect of Competencies on Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya.....	159

5.2.3 Effect of Workplace Policies on Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya	160
5.2.4 Effect of Role Models on Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya.....	161
5.2.5 The Moderating Effect of Organizational Culture and Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya.....	163
5.3 Conclusions	164
5.3.1 Effect of Perceptions on Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya.....	164
5.3.2 Effect of Competency Skills on Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya.....	164
5.3.3 Effect of Workplace Policies on Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya.....	165
5.3.4 Effect of Role Models on Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya.	165
5.3.5 Moderating Effect of Organizational Culture on Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya.....	166
5.4 Recommendations	166
5.4.1 Recommendations for Perceptions and Women Leadership Performance...	166
5.4.2 Recommendations for Competencies and Women Leadership Performance	167
5.4.3 Recommendations for Workplace policies and Women Leadership Performance.....	167

5.4.4 Recommendations for Role Models and Women Leadership Performance.	168
5.4.5 Recommendations for Policy.....	169
5.5 Study Implications	169
5.6 Suggestions for Further Research	170
REFERENCES.....	172
APPENDICES	200

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Cronbach alpha(1975).....	65
Table 3.2: Likert Scale Response Items (Babbie, 2012).....	66
Table 3.3: Variable Definition and Measurement.....	72
Table 3.4: Study Hypotheses and Analytical Models	73
Table 3. 5: Guidelines for Strength of Relationship.....	75
Table 4.1: Response Rate Results	76
Table 4.2: Reliability Analysis Test Results	77
Table 4.3: Age of Respondents Results	78
Table 4. 4: Duration Worked in the Organization Results.....	78
Table 4.5: Number of Years in Current Management Position.....	79
Table 4.6: Management Level Results	79
Table 4.7: Level of Education Results	80
Table 4.8: Leadership Performance KMO and Bartlett's Test Results	81
Table 4.9: Leadership Performance Total Variance Explained Test Results.....	83
Table 4. 10: Leadership Performance Rotated Component Matrix Test Results.....	84
Table 4. 10: Leadership Performance Rotated Component Matrix Test Results	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Table 4.11: Descriptive Results of Leadership Performance Test Results	85
Table 4.12: Organizational Culture KMO and Bartlett's Test Results	87

Table 4.13: Organizational Culture Total Variance Explained Test Results	87
Table 4.14: Organizational Culture Component Matrix Test Results.....	89
Table 4.15: Organizational Culture Descriptive Test Results.....	90
Table 4.16: Organizational Culture Skewness and Kurtosis Test Results	91
Table 4.17: Organizational Culture One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test	91
Table 4. 18: Perceptions KMO and Bartlett's Test Results	93
Table 4.19: Perceptions Total Variance Explained Test Results	93
Table 4.20: Perceptions Rotated Component Matrix Test Results	95
Table 4.21: Descriptive Results of Perceptions Test Results.....	96
Table 4.22: Perceptions Skewness and Kurtosis Test Results	97
Table 4. 23: Perceptions One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Results.....	98
Table 4.24: Perceptions Durbin-Watson (Autocorrelation) Test Results	99
Table 4.25: Perceptions Multicollinearity Test Results	100
Table 4. 26: Perceptions Correlation Test Results	100
Table 4.27: Perceptions ANOVA Test Results.....	101
Table 4.28: Perceptions Model Summary Test Results	102
Table 4.29: Regression Coefficients of Perceptions Test Results.....	104
Table 4.30: Perceptions Combined Regression Model Test Results	105
Table 4.31: Moderated Regression Coefficients of Perceptions Test Results	106

Table 4.32: Competency Skills KMO and Bartlett's Test Results	107
Table 4.33: Competency Skills Rotated Component Matrix Test Results.....	109
Table 4. 34: Descriptive Results of Competency Skills Test Results	110
Table 4.35: Competency Skills Skewness and Kurtosis Test Results.....	111
Table 4.36: Competency Skills One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Results .	112
Table 4.37: Competency Skills Durbin-Watson (Autocorrelation) Test Results....	112
Table 4.38: Competency Skills Multicollinearity Test Results	113
Table 4.39: Competency Skills Correlation Test Results	114
Table 4.40: Competency Skills ANOVA Test Results	115
Table 4. 41: Competency Skills Model Summary Test Results.....	116
Table 4.42: Competency Skills Coefficients Tests Results	117
Table 4. 43: Competency Skills Combined Coefficients Test Results	118
Table 4. 44: Competency Skills Moderated Regression Analysis Test Results.....	119
Table 4.45: Workplace Policies KMO and Bartlett's Test Results	120
Table 4.46: Workplace Policies Total Variance Explained Test Results.....	121
Table 4.47: Workplace Policies Principal Component Analysis.	122
Table 4. 48: Workplace Policies Descriptive Results	123
Table 4.49: Workplace Policies Skewness and Kurtosis Test Results.....	124
Table 4.50: Workplace Policies One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Results	125

Table 4.51: Workplace Policies Durbin-Watson Test (Autocorrelation) Results...	126
Table 4.52: Workplace Policies Multicollinearity Test Results.....	126
Table 4.53: Workplace Policies Correlation Test Results	127
Table 4.54: Workplace Policies ANOVA Test Results	128
Table 4. 55: Workplace Policies Model Summary Test Results.....	129
Table 4.56: Regression Coefficients of Workplace Policies Test Results	130
Table 4. 57: Workplace Policies Coefficients Test Results	130
Table 4. 58: Moderated Regression Coefficients of Workplace Policies	131
Table 4. 59: Role Models KMO and Bartlett's Test Results	133
Table 4.60: Role Models Total Variance Explained Test Results	134
Table 4.61: Role Models Rotated Component Matrix Test Results	135
Table 4.62: Role Models Descriptive Results.....	136
Table 4.63: Role Models Skewness and Kurtosis Test Results	137
Table 4. 64: Role Models One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Results.....	138
Table 4. 65: Role Models Durbin-Watson Test Results.....	139
Table 4.66: Role Models Multicollinearity Test Results	139
Table 4.67: Role Models Correlation Test Results	140
Table 4.68: Role Models Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Test Results	141
Table 4. 69: Role Models Model Summary Results	142

Table 4.70: Regression Coefficients of Role Models Test Results.....	143
Table 4.71: Role Model Combined Regression Model Test Results	144
Table 4.72: Role Models Moderated Regression Analysis Test Results	145
Table 4.73: Overall Model Summary Test Results	146
Table 4.74: Overall Correlation Test Results.....	147
Table 4.75: Overall ANOVA Test Results.....	149
Table 4.76: Overall Multiple Regression Test Results	150
Table 4.77: Summary of Research Hypotheses	151

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework	26
Figure 2.2: Measures of Leadership Performance	37
Figure 5.1: A Role Model - Driven Framework for Aspiring Women Leaders	162

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire.....	200
Appendix II: List of 147 Parastatals in Kenya	205
Appendix III: List of 107 Sampled Parastatals in Kenya.....	213
Appendix IV: Operationalization of Variables	218
Appendix V: Dennison’s Organizational Culture Model	221
Appendix VI: Research Authorization from Nacosti	222

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AFD	African Development Bank
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CBD	Central Business District
CMA	Capital Markets Authority
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CGC	Corporate Governance Code
DW	Durban-Watson
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
IGAD	Inter-Governmental Authority on Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
KAM	Kenya Association of Manufacturers
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
MMR	Moderated Multiple Regression
NACOSTI	National Commission of Science and Technology and Innovation
NSE	Nairobi Securities Exchange
OCAI	Organization Culture Assessment Instrument
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
ROK	Republic of Kenya
SADC	South African Development Community
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programs
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SRT	Social Role Theory
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Economic and Social Council
UNIFEM	United Nations Development for Women
US	United States
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

DEFINITION OF TERMS

- Affirmative Action** This is an active effort to improve the employment or educational opportunities of members of minority groups and women (WiLDAF Ghana, 2010).
- Antecedents** Preceding significant events, conditions, and traits of one's earlier life (Collins & Cooke, 2013).
- Competency skills** This comprises of the knowledge, skills and abilities that enable one to have a defined performance outcome (Boyatzis, 2011).
- Customer satisfaction** This is the way the customer think about the company or organization or business and deals with the gathering or exceeding of expectation over the duration of the products and/or services (Eckert & Grant, 2007).
- Glass ceiling** This is an invisible barrier which impede a woman in advancement to senior management positions (Bolat, Bolat, & Kili, 2011).
- Leader** A leader is one who holds a certain position of power within an organization (Turkel, 2008).
- Leadership** A process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve common goals (Northouse, 2012).
- Organizational Culture** It is a set of key values, assumptions, understandings and norms that are shared by members of an organization and taught to new members as correct (Daft & Bodla, 2010).
- Perception** Process by which individuals (leaders) organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment based on their perception of what

reality is, not on reality itself; the world as it is perceived is the world that is behaviorally (Robbins, 2004).

Role Model A person whose behavior in a particular role is imitated by others (Ibarra, Herminia, Ely & Kolb, 2013).

Stereotype This is an idea that is used to describe a particular type of person or thing or thought to represent such an idea (Cambridge University Press, 2017).

Skill An ability which can be developed not necessarily inborn, and which is manifested in performance not merely potential (Katz, 1955)

Workplace Policies Are those practices applied in organizations to influence work operations to enhance positive organizational outcomes (Caillier, 2012).

Affirmative Action A deliberate move to reforming or eliminating past and present action discrimination using a set of public policies and initiatives designed to help on the basis of colour, creed, geographical location, race, origin and gender among others (WiLDAF, 2010).

Women/female Leadership This specification of leadership refers to women being leaders or sometimes to a specific style of leading (Lahti, 2013).

ABSTRACT

Women leadership is of great interest to researchers in Africa and the entire world today. There was great need to undertake this study due to the low number of women representations in leadership positions in public organizations. Due to the need to fill this knowledge gap, the study sort to determine antecedents that influence women leadership performance. Women leadership has contributed to the intense debate on their representation and performance in their leadership roles. It is due to the background of this information that scholars are increasingly showing an interest in women leadership in the world today and Kenya is no exception. Previous studies have not identified a significant link between antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals and this study sought to fill this knowledge gap. The study was further guided by four independent variables. Four theories formed well-grounded premises significant for this study: Role Congruity theory, Transformational theory, Social Cognitive Career theory and Upper Echelon theory. Positivism philosophy was adopted. Descriptive research design was used and solely focused on the total population of 147, parastatals in Kenya. Simple random sampling and convenience sampling were used to get a sample size of 214 women leaders from 107 parastatals. The study used a structured questionnaire as the main data collection tool. A pilot study was conducted to test the data collection instrument to check for its reliability and validity for the study. Only 132 questionnaires were received which showed a 61.68%, which was a good response. Data was organized, discussed and interpreted by regression analysis through Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), (version 22.0) where both descriptive and inferential statistics were presented. The model of analysis used multiple linear regression model which was also used to explain the antecedents of women leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya and the moderating effect of organizational culture on antecedents of women leadership performance. The study findings revealed a weak but significant correlation between perceptions and leadership performance. For example, majority of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that their organizations often supported with efforts in pursuing leadership positions. Another significant finding of this study was that women leaders agreed that their performance was enhanced when they expanded their business and social networks. A combined regression model was run between performance and workplace policies and it was discovered that there is significant relationship between performance and workplace policies. The pearson coefficient of correlation (R) ($r=0.775$, $p=0.000$) also indicated a strong moderating positive relationship of organizational culture on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. However, the study showed no moderation effect on antecedents of women i.e. perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. The study therefore concluded that there was abandonment of some cultural roles that impeded women from ascending to leadership positions. The study also concluded that there was availability of enabling culture in most parastatals in engaging leaders. Another conclusion was that culture makes a significant influence in the work environment of women leaders in parastatals in Kenya. The study recommends that policies should be enhanced to address past discrimination of women in leadership by reinforcing the complaint mechanisms. In particular, the study recommends the engagement of male leaders in women mentorship to help address their work place challenges. This study

proposes that further research should focus on antecedents of women leadership performance of women-owned firms in Kenya. This would provide more literature on women leadership performance.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Leadership as a study theme has generated widespread scholarly attention in the past. Leadership is a practice in which an individual can influence a team of people to achieve a collective objective (Northouse, 2012). This implies that leadership is a relationship between followers and those who want to lead others. When people are involved in doing extraordinary things, this increases the quality of their relationship (Ely, Ibarra & Kolb, 2011). In many societies today, leadership is seen from a patriarchal point of view and perceptions in gender difference is still a paradox. This has been caused by underrepresentation of women in key leadership as few women are in top leadership positions world over (Thornton, 2013). This study sought to establish the antecedents of women leadership performance namely; perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models.

Antecedent is defined as a thing that existed before or logically precedes another Bailery, Madden, Alfes and Fletcher (2015) and in the contest of this study are the requirements or requisites that women require in order for them to enhance their leadership performance. There are other various types of requisites that women require to enhance their leadership for example characteristics of followers, leadership styles, however only four antecedents were used as variables for this study to reduce on the scope of the study. These were perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. This was due to the need for a broad scope to necessitate the study.

In the past, certain perceptions held by society presumed that men held a great number of leadership and management positions and the successful career paths are much easier for men to undertake. This is because according to Block and Crawford (2013) individuals display gender stereotyping by ascribing to behaviors, deeds as well as roles to different personalities based on gender. According to Ely, Ibarra and Kolb (2011) women leaders also need to be involved in leadership roles.

Hoyt and Simon (2011) suggest that perceiving success to be attainable is particularly important for women who have to perform in a negatively stereotyped leadership domain. In California, Diehl and Dzubinski (2016) saw that such experiences ladies face in leadership should be fundamentally examined. As indicated by a new report, the paramount aspect is that ladies are needed to have certain perceptual and competency requirements in the society, in groups or associations (Diehl and Dzubinski, 2016). Further, in a worldwide viewpoint, different governments around the globe are bit by bit perceiving the meaning of connecting the competency requisites and inclusion of ladies in policymaking stages (Hinds, 2015). Further, in the United Kingdom, Barsh and Yee (2011) takes note that it is important to see that in spite of elements that prevent a woman's prosperity, she doesn't lose her self-adequacy perceptions and beliefs dependent on leadership roles. This implies that discernments on gender stereotypes and cultural standards extraordinarily affects her presentation in completing her particular administrative duties. This is on the grounds that there is an overall agreement that ladies face more perceptual barriers attempting to acquire the position of a pioneer (Zheng, 2015).

The United Nations' focus on the post-2015 development goals sturdily support women empowerment and gender equal opportunity of women leaders to enhance economic progress. This means that the negative perception directed towards women leaders is being addressed significantly. Commonwealth Heads of Government have affirmed the significance of women's leadership (UN Women, 2015). United Nations and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) initiated gender equality mainstreaming tools and regular reports were made (Hinds, 2015). In addition, some latest evidence suggest that efforts are being made toward improving workplace policies and gender parity 14.6% percent of Fortune 500 companies Catalyst (2013). Comparable statistics can be seen in businesses and other fields including law, medicine, etc. In addition, McKinsey and Company (2009) revealed that the companies had a great ratio of women in leadership positions. They are likely to experience enhanced leader performance. In light of this view, Daft and Bodla (2010) assert that leadership has been found to be people-driven in the United States of America. The availability of women leaders as role models is still a concern in women leadership (Zheng (2015).

This is because although the ratio of women in senior management has escalated, the pace is still very slow. Gender parity targets for sustainable growth presume that it will take more time to gain legislative equality. For example, the percentage of women in senior management increased by five per cent from 2004 to 2012 and grew to 21 per cent in 2012. The percentage of women in senior leadership roles rose again to 24% globally in 2013 (Zheng, 2015). Zheng (2015) suggests that it is evident that there is a difference in male and female leadership practices. Interestingly, amid the unrelenting controversy regarding women's success, women have continued to hold roles in organisations at all levels, particularly at the executive level (Kellerman & Rhode, 2014). For example, according to Wang and Shirmohammadi (2016) China has made great efforts in enhancing women involvement in leadership. These female board members in China have boosted performance of Chinese listed companies.

In a regional perspective, it can be noted that there are few women leaders at the helm of public corporations in Africa. For example, Kulik and Metz (2015) revealed that perceptions and cultural distinctions have an impact on appointment of women on boards. For example numerous recent studies have concentrated on gender stereotypes and cultural norms challenges in comparison to gender (Ballenger, 2010; Mason, Griffin & Parker 2014). Consequently, Opstrup and Villadsen (2015) posit that gender equity has been revealed to spur creativity through the advancement of new knowledge and perceptions to nurture new talent. Hence feminine characteristics are valuable in today's corporation leadership.

It is worth noting that some effort has been made to enhance the qualifications and professional requisites of women in Africa. For example in Malawi, the Corporate Governance Code (CGC) (2011) recommends that the selection process of new board members should consider competency and diversity of gender as well as their social and economic backgrounds (Catalyst, 2013). Equally, in Nigeria, the Nigerian Governance body has ensured that gender equity is enhanced in public corporations to ensure integrity in key decision making positions (Ajogwu, Mordi & Nwabulu, 2012). In addition, competency skills of women leaders have also been of great concern today. For example, Weldeeyesus (2013) from Ethiopia found out that the involvement of women was low as professionals and managers as compared to males. However, their participation was high in jobs that require less competency

skills as clerical and lower managerial levels. Equally in South Africa, only 24 per cent of women occupy top leadership positions in public and private sectors of South African Development Community (SADC) (SADC Gender Protocol, 2010). According to this report, this is due to lower academic and professional qualifications. On the aspect of workplace policies, a study from Ethiopia revealed that, middle and upper management positions are widely dominated by men (Jimma Zone Administration Office, 2012). In light of this, South Africa pledged to realize a 50% representation and significant involvement of women in the decision making arena (South African Government, 2012). This was enhanced by integrating affirmative action policies to inspire more women to pursue leadership positions.

Consequently, as revealed by Zulu (2007) there is often a lack of adequate number of women role models, who can inspire other women to seek top leadership positions. This is why the percentage of women leaders is still lower world-over. In South Africa it was demonstrated that on average, the number of women in senior leadership positions was approximately 24 per cent across 17 institutions of higher learning (Gumbi, 2006). At that time, there were only three women vice-chancellors, while 82% of professors were men and only 18 per cent were women. In light of leadership role models, the reasons given for the inequalities are diverse and are relative. Women participation continues to be low in decision making positions around the globe. More evidence is provided by Commonwealth Plan of Action for Gender Equality (2005-2015).

The report stipulates that there is need for a 30 per cent target for women leaders in governmental or private corporations. The figure was proposed by the Beijing Platform for Action (1995) as the target certified by the United Nations Economic and Social Council (UNESCO). This would ensure enhanced female leadership in decision making positions. This means that about 30 per cent of total leadership should be dominated by women so as to enhance gender equity in decision making (UNIFEM, 2010).

In a local context Onsongo (2010) posits that women leaders are indeed acknowledged in the Kenyan society. This means that women are perceived as

inferior to men due to societal perceptions strive to safeguard the African culture to rationalize the subordination of women. It has also been noted that organizations with more women leadership roles outperform their competition (Muoria, Gachunga & Waititu, 2013). Indeed, there is need to prioritize leadership programs for women leaders in order to enhance their leadership competency skills (Felix, Ahmad & Arshad, 2016). Consequently, Kamau (2010) recommends that Kenya should emulate Tanzania, Rwanda and Uganda who are ahead in terms of women's representation globally in elective politics at 30, 56.3 and 31 respectively. This can be done by reviewing the existing workplace policies to ensure they are favourable to both gender to enhance their leadership performance (Kamau, 2010).

In addition, Women of Africa Leadership Development Program research report from Kenya, noted that there is need to adopt role modelling programs for aspiring Kenyan women leaders (Felix, Ahmad & Arshad, 2016). The report therefore, recommended that efforts must be made to ensure women identify the characteristics of role models and their influence on their leadership performance. The current study therefore seeks to determine the antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The present study was necessitated by the need to understand the requisites that women required in order for them to enhance their leadership. Most importantly, the failure to pass the two thirds gender rule in Kenya has ignited debate on the requirements that women should have preceding engagement in any leadership roles. The researcher is also an aspiring woman leader and hence was motivated to determine the significance of antecedents women should have and leadership performance.

1.1.1 Representation of Women leadership in Kenya`

Leadership in the Kenya public corporations is typically dominated by the male gender (ROK, 2011). Although the larger population is made up approximately 52 per cent of women, only 25 per cent of the positions (Job group P-U) are held by women (ROK, 2011). In Kenya, women involvement in leadership is specifically recognized by the Constitution of Kenya, 2010. The Constitution states that women have served and need to continue to participate significantly in the success of public

corporations and the country in general. Women leadership has been of much debate and is just one of the key concepts that researchers have narrowed on. Commonwealth Plan of Action for Gender Equality (2005-2015) endorsed a 30 per cent representation of women in senior positions. For example, Kenya intended to have a target of 24 per cent by 2017 spearheaded by industry and Capital Markets Authority (CMA) (*Daily Nation*, 2014, 16). Equally, a 2015 research by the African Development Bank (AFD), Kenya scored the highest at 19.8 per cent representation compared to 17.4 per cent in South Africa and 16.9 per cent in Botswana.

Substantive efforts have been made in Kenya to improve gender equity in decision making. This was by enhancing women representation in high-level corporate leadership. For example, the Strathmore Governance Centre and the Coady Institute of St Francis Xavier University in Canada, hosted the first residency of African Women's Leadership and Mentoring Initiative (IGAD, 2010). The meeting focused on new strategies to ensure more women are inspired to seek leadership positions. Consequently, this idea was first conceptualized in 2008 and it was designed to nurture and develop a new cadre of African women leaders.

Abu-Tineh (2012) asserts that the absence of women in top governance positions in various countries world over is a telling sign that there exists challenges that women often face. Equally, in Kenya, women occupy only 44 out of 462 seats on the boards of the 55 companies listed on Nairobi Securities Exchange (NSE) (Capital Markets Authority (CMA). This is noted in a study by Jebessa, Amentie, Kaushik and Akessa (2015) that low involvement of women leadership positions is attributed to different personal, societal and organizational factors. In Kenya, although there have been milestones achieved on gender activism and sensitization of engagement of women in leaders in public corporations, there has been no clear link to women leadership performance (Kamau, 2010). Due to absence of this literature, this study sought to fill this knowledge gap and measure the effect of perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models on women leadership performance.

1.1.2 Parastatals in Kenya

The State Corporation Act Cap 446(1987) of Kenya define a parastatal as, a state corporation or a corporate established as an Act of Parliament. It is also a corporate body established by order of the president to perform the functions specified in that order, it also incorporated under the Company Act. Parastatals carry out a significant role in the provision of efficient public service delivery. Over the last few years, parastatals in Kenya have fostered broader development goals. The history of parastatals in Kenya can be dated back to the pre-independence days. The capacity of public servants determines the extent of the quality of services delivered in this sector. Measures are in place to increase the level of competence skills in the public service. This includes furthering the expansion of competencies, comprising of transformative leadership to enhance progressive learning and professional ethics (Kenya Vision 2030, 2007). According to the precepts of vision 2030, this was motivated by a national desire to fast-track economic, societal development, restore local economic inequalities. Hence, effectiveness of public corporations is key to the Kenya economic development goals. Notably, this national desire was expressed in the *Sessional Paper No. 10 of 1965* (Republic of Kenya, 1965) on African Socialism and its influence to development in Kenya.

Despite these essential socioeconomic roles, majority of parastatals in Kenya are characterized by inefficiency and mismanagement (Mati, 2013). This is the reason why international organizations including the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank recommended the privatization of Kenyan parastatals in 1994. Further the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) were aimed at decreasing government input in the economy and to intensify the production of parastatals. However, the performance of most parastatals in the recent past have been characterized by corruption (Mati, 2013). Nevertheless, expectations for improved efficiency and effectiveness remain high. In Kenya, women represent approximately 52 per cent of the total population and therefore play a key role economic development and a quest for global competitiveness (Stouracova, 2016). For example, seven companies (12%) have a female Chief Executive Officer (CEO): British American tobacco Kenya, Diamond Trust Bank (DTB) Kenya, Eveready East

Africa, KenGen, Limuru Tea (Gender Equality in Kenya, Special Report November, 2019). The Kenyan society is patriarchal where men do not give women challenging leadership tasks; especially responsibilities concerned with making autonomous decisions making (Njiru, 2013). It can be noted that Article 27(8) of the Kenya Constitution 2010 obliges the State to implement the principle that requires not more than two-thirds of the members of elective or appointive bodies shall be of the same gender. Interestingly, employment leaves the women to tussle in the informal segment which offers minimal wages which are insufficient for the women to sustain their families. These studies do not sufficiently focus on the antecedents of women leadership performance, hence this study intended to fill this gap and determine the requisites required for women leadership performance.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In today's modern world, women have often been under-represented in higher managerial and leadership positions in organizations. This reality has reflected a range of requisites being studied and remedied from varying perceptual and cultural perspectives. This is why several authors agree that climbing the leadership ladder has not been easy, or even manageable, for women today (Ahrens, Landmann, & Woywode, 2015; Felix *et al.*, 2016). According to Felix *et al.* (2016) lack of adequate professional skills and conceptual abilities about their societal roles has been of great influence in undermining women leaders' aspirations. For example it is noted that only 25 per cent of the ministerial leadership (Job group P-U) are women (ROK, 2011). Kenya's new Constitution passed in 2010 offers a great framework for addressing traditional perceptions and segregation of women in promoting their full contribution in every facet of development. It requires that appointments to public offices should not have more than a third of one gender (Constitution of Kenya, 2010). This is yet to be achieved in Kenya in regard to the existing workplace policies (Okioga, 2013). For example, according to Onsongo (2010) women seem to be underrepresented in public corporations because of unsuitable family-friendly policies. This is against the gender disquiets that are anchored in Article 81 (b) of the Constitution of Kenya. It states that the gender rule also applies in the public service appointments. Okioga (2013) notes that female

representation in governmental institutions has only improved marginally. For example, women account for 23% of board members (Board Diversity Report, KIM). This shows that the percentage of women ascending to leadership positions is still marginal. However, it is imperative to note that women have also made efforts to access leadership positions in parastatals. For example, a recent study reveals that there are very few female managers who have set new standards of success and are actually role models of other women leaders (Chawla & Pandit, 2018).

In agreement, a substantial ratio of Kenyan women have penetrated into the executive suites, performed exemplary despite the societal and organizational challenges they face (Okioga, 2013; Felix *et al.*, 2016). For example, six women have managed to be appointed to the position of Cabinet Secretaries in Kenya today against 10 from male gender. Currently, there are only three women who managed to be elected as County Governors in Kenya during the 2017 general elections. Equally, the first woman Chairperson of the Kenya Association of Manufacturers (KAM) since its establishment in 1959 recognized the importance of women taking up leadership positions (Chairperson, KAM, 2016). Further, according to these revelations, performance of women in senior positions today in both public and private corporations has been of great concern.

In spite of apparent efforts the Kenya Government has made since independence in 1964, there has been a knowledge gap. This is because women remain marginalized in many ways. This is because their contribution in decision-making in parastatals remains insignificant. In a study of women principals in Kenya, Barng'etuny (2008) research found that women are viewed as 'unsuitable' for leadership due to the widely held perceptions of their innate feminine characteristics. It is unfortunate that this trend has seen immense potential women leaders' attributes go unutilized in an environment where all effort is considered necessary (Njiru, 2013). However, research shows that companies with more diverse boards have greater returns and lower risk profiles (Onsongo, 2010). Some studies have been done and theoretical models exist offering diverse perspectives on women leadership performance. For example, Okioga (2013) on women in leadership and Mwangi (2007) on women affectionate in leadership among others. However, a knowledge gap still exists as

few studies have agreed on the actual precursors of women leadership performance (Felix *et al.*, 2016; Okiogo, 2013). This is why there has been insignificant percentage of women in top leadership positions in parastatals in Kenya. It is against this background and lack of significant literature that this study sought to fill the knowledge gap in determining the antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Therefore, the main aim of this present study was to initiate scientific inquiry of this topic.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective of this study was to determine the antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The study was guided by the following specific objectives:

1. To examine the effect of perceptions on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.
2. To establish the effect of competency skills on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.
3. To identify the effect of workplace policies on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.
4. To determine the effect of role models on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.
5. To examine the moderating effect of organizational culture on the antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

1.4 Research Hypotheses

For this study to achieve the above objectives, quantitative and qualitative data was tested and evaluated by use of the following null hypotheses:

H₀₁: Perceptions have no significant effect on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

H₀₂: Competency Skills have no significant effect on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

H₀₃: Workplace policies have no significance effect on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

H₀₄: Role models have no significant effect on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

H₀₅: Organizational culture have no moderating effect on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

1.5 Justification of the Study

The study was relevant in many ways and is anticipated to be beneficial to several groups:

1.5.1 Human Resource Professionals

Human resource specialists are often placed in leadership positions that assist them to institute a greater impact on establishments. Hence, this study will expose them to the precursors of women leadership performance. These professionals are required to be knowledgeable of various aspects of perceptions, competency skills that influence women leadership performance. This would help provide the requirements needed when engaging human resources.

1.5.2 Organizations and Management

The outcome of this study will add to the body of literature on matters concerning women leadership. The findings of this study will help public and private corporations understand the antecedents of women leaders in organizations. This knowledge will be useful to companies when motivating women leaders and hopefully help reduce negative perceptions on female gender. Further, these corporations will get insights on how to create a culture of favorable workplace

policies to ensure that more women are given opportunities to take leadership positions.

1.5.3 Government Ministries

Government ministries in Kenya will benefit from the outcome of this study. For example, the State Department of Gender under the Ministry of Public Service, Youth and Gender Affairs has the responsibility of ensuring equality in gender representation in all public appointments. The department is also concerned with gender mainstreaming policies and programmes in government institutions. Hence this study will provide more insights to ensure the negative precursors of women leadership performance are eliminated. This will improve performance in both public and private corporations.

1.5.4 Policy Makers and Researchers

The findings of the study could be valued by policy makers, academicians and advocates of gender equity and integrity. This would enhance women leadership performance in public and private corporations in Kenya and beyond. The study therefore, aims to add to the pool of knowledge on policy matters regarding perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models that impede women leadership performance. As evidenced from literature, the glass ceiling effects or antecedents of women leaders requires varied research across all environments and cultures, hence this study will provide some insights on some of the antecedents facing women leaders in the public sector.

1.5.5 Parastatals in Kenya

The findings will also enable Parastatals to analyze their role, structure and performance in terms of their potential contribution to economic development. This will help the management of Parastatals to achieve more efficient decision making, planning and control. The outcome of this study will also benefit Parastatals to provide adequate and equal opportunities for appointment. This will enhance the formulation, enactment and implementation of gender-based policies.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The geographical scope of the study was limited to 147 parastatals in Kenya. Parastatals are well spread within various counties in Kenya. The study used Parastatals as they play a key role in helping the Government to run its essential functions. Parastatals are also key in contributing to the achievement of Vision 2030. This study specifically focused on determining the antecedents of women leadership performance. It was limited to four variables namely; perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. The study narrowed on these variables because as demonstrated in the review of literature, they form the basis of factors and other requisites of women leadership performance in Kenya. The dependent variable was women leadership and was measured by the two constructs; efficiency and effectiveness, and customer satisfaction. The moderating variable was organizational culture and was measured by involvement culture and consistent culture. The entire study was to be conducted from January, 2015 to March, 2019.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

In spite of realizing the general objective of this study, certain limitations were inevitable. First, there was the challenge of subjectivism. This is in agreement with Muijs (2004) who assert that outcomes of a study could have been prejudiced by private opinions and opinions of the respondents, which may possibly lead to biasness. This was mitigated by clearly defining to the respondents the significance of their honest and unbiased opinions. There was also failure by some respondents to provide responses to the questionnaires. Out of 214 questionnaires distributed, only 132 were received. Some questionnaires had missing data. Hence, it was found necessary to omit the questions from the analysis but other responses were retained. This was also mitigated by giving reminders to respondents by telephone and office visits on the need to provide their responses in full. The data collection process recognized some gaps on how data on women in leadership are documented and conveyed. This showed how inaccessible data was on women in leadership in certain departments across ministries. Other limitations include lack of a representational sample and outdated data (Creswell, 2013).

However, to mitigate on this aspect, the researcher sort data from various journals and empirical data. Inadequate time and funds meant that the researcher did the research in three major counties of Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu. This is because the regional offices of the parastatals are strategically located and easily available in the three counties. In addition, there was also a limitation of the sample size. Since Parastatals are spread across the country, a larger sample of Parastatals would have been appropriate to help derive solutions to antecedents of women leadership performance.

1.8 Chapter Summary

The chapter has focused on background to the study, given an overview of parastatals in Kenya. Statement of the problem has also been presented together with a highlight of the general objective, specific objectives and research questions for the study. Significance of the study has also been covered as well as the scope of the study. The chapter has also discussed the limitations of the study and ended with the chapter summary.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the theoretical foundations and their components regarding the research model, which summarizes viewpoints of theories relating to antecedents of women leadership performance. Theoretical framework was given as well as empirical literature based on the study's independent, dependent and moderating variables. A conceptual framework aligned to the study provided the relationship between independent, moderating and dependent variables guiding the study. A discussion of review of related literature of the study's independent and dependent variables will also be presented. The chapter also focused on some knowledge gaps where research can be focused. The chapter ends with a summary.

2.2 Theoretical Review

To simplify understanding of the antecedents of women leadership performance, the researcher presented a theoretical framework. Mugenda and Mugenda (2008) a theoretical framework is a diagrammatic representation which gives the investigator the lens to view the world. In addition, Ochola and Le Roux (2010) posits that it generates the foundation for a study which supports a reader in making a clear understanding of relations between variables. The theoretical framework was founded on four theories: The theories sought to synchronize the independent, moderating and dependent variables.

The joint effort of analogy of female leaders and their balance of work and family roles (Role Congruent Theory) which emphasizes the behavioral style based on transforming workplace practices and competencies aimed at influencing their leadership behavior (Transformational Leadership Theory). This would ensure greater details on social inhibitions and networks to women leadership (Social Role Theory). In addition, the enhanced performance was a manifestation of their decision making practices in regard to their competencies (Upper Echelon Theory) to

influence leader performance. An overview of the theories to show the application and contextualization of the study variables of the antecedents of women leadership performance is presented below:

2.2.1 Role Congruity Theory

Eagly (1987) was the proponent of Role Congruity Theory. Role incongruity have some well documented statistics on its effect on gender discrimination based on workplace discrimination. Eagly and Karau (2002) role congruity theory of prejudice has been progressive and explains the absence of women in senior leadership positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Role congruity theory involves the aspect of bias toward female leaders (Eagly, 1987). It states that perceived incongruity between women leadership roles and their representation leads to two forms of prejudice. The first kind of prejudice foreseen by role congruity theory necessary for effective leadership originates from the descriptive customs of gender roles. It describes opinions about women's features which are different from attributes anticipated in leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). This comes from inconsistencies of female-stereotypical individualities ordinarily ascribed to women and the agentic attributes requisites of a leader (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

The second type of prejudice is evidenced in less favorable evaluations of agentic behaviors of women who hold leadership positions than the comparable norms of men. Agentic traits are a group of characteristics more commonly ascribed to males, which concerns an assertive and controlling behavior type (Eagly, 1987). This type of prejudice results from an alleged inconsistency between the female stereotype and the attributes deemed necessary for effective leadership. Role congruity theory recommends that a team is positively weighed then its characteristics are acknowledged and support the group's usual social roles (Eagly & Diekmann, 2005). The second type comes from anticipations on how women should behave. This type of prejudice arises from agentic behavior produced by a woman who differs from stereotype-based prescriptions about acceptable female behaviors (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Researchers posit that role congruity occurs because women are often ascribed communal traits while the leadership role is associated

with agentic traits. For example Elsaid and Elsaid (2011); Rudman and Phelan (2010) note that women are perceived to have lower competency skills than men and kept from ascending the corporate ladder. According to these studies, women ought to have the right interpersonal abilities, be courteous, gallant and agreeable.

It was also found indicated that women have difficulty in realizing high ranking positions in the place of work and in sustaining these positions (Elsaid & Elsaid 2011; Rudman & Phelan, 2010). These authors suggest that prejudice towards women leaders occur frequently in circumstances where large variations concerning female leaders and their leadership roles are present. Therefore, this study needed to find out the antecedents of women leadership performance. Role Congruity Theory proposes that female leaders are underprivileged due to the perceived incongruence between masculine notions and the ideal traits related to female gender roles (Elsaid & Elsaid 2011; Eagly & Carli, 2003). According to these studies, if women were to portray masculine traits equivalent to male leaders, then they (women) would seem to be contrasting with their gender.

Elsaid and Elsaid (2011) confirms that when women show characteristics congruent with their gender, then they are often rated much more favorable in terms of leadership. Professional women who conduct themselves in a competent, confident practice may suffer undesirable societal repercussions through being perceived as having interpersonal deficiency (Rudman & Phelan, 2010). According to the proponent of this theory, women who exhibit such stereotypically masculine or agentic characteristics may meet with rejection in male oriented settings. This is because the women leaders may cause the possibility of being shunned for disrupting female-stereotypic anticipations for womanlike “niceness” (Rudman & Phelan, 2010). Such negative responses to agentic females may reveal a criticism effect (Rudman & Phelan, 2010).

Role Congruity Theory is significant to this study as it provides prove that appreciating the contribution of women leaders today is still complex. This theory is concerned with a person’s aptitude for a role in society which is determined by the perceived difference between his or her ascribed role traits and the role she is looking

to achieve (Rudman & Phelan, 2010). This is because of the shared perception that women possess lower leadership ability, exhibit their capabilities and take part in communal, compassionate behavior. In the context of this study, this theory demonstrates that stereotypical beliefs that women possess are typically communal.

This current study measured participants' perception of gender stereotypes and cultural norms of women leaders. This study attempted to provide an updated design to study how gender stereotypes and cultural norms play a role in encouraging women to pursue leadership roles, thus endeavoring to resolve methodological limitation of previous research. Role congruity theory is also significant to this study due to its contribution of information regarding perceptions, descriptive and prescriptive characteristics expected of female gender. This is because the general objective of this study based on examining the preexisting gender-based perceptions that emerge in the realms of leadership (Rudman & Phelan, 2010). This theoretical conflict becomes significant in evaluating successful women leaders who adopt higher leadership roles despite predominant gender stereotypes. This current study has therefore brought the scenario in a modern setting. The current study has also measured whether indeed there exists, gender perceptions against female leadership and what are the expectations in terms of the cultural values and norms.

2.1.2 Transformational Leadership Theory

The conception of transformational leadership theory was initially conceptualized by Burns (1978) in a perspective of political science and was thereafter articulated in the theory of organizational leadership by Bass (1985). Bass (1987) expanded upon Burns' original ideas to develop what is today referred to as transformation leadership theory. It can be noted that the main aspect of transformational leadership is concerned with the process of instituting modifications that influence a change of the followers (Northouse, 2015). According to his study, women encouraged participation in policy formulation and implementation, power and information hence increasing their efficiency and effectiveness.

In support, Brandt (2011) and Denti and Hemlin (2012) posit that the role of leaders is very significant and supportive resourceful individuals is and should be of interest to leaders. These studies seem to suggest that transformational leadership needs new evidence and renewed perspectives because the present prejudiced organizational policies and managerial cultures, are hindering their performance. A transformational leader exhibits four mechanisms of varying degrees to exhibit desirable organizational behaviors (Bass & Riggio, 2006). These are idealized influence, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. This approach supports the individual and professional growth of others through inspiration, consideration for the individual, intellectual stimulation, motivation and influence (Northouse, 2015; 2012). Idealized influence integrates two distinct characteristics of the follower relationship. First, followers appreciate certain qualities from leaders that they wish to emulate. Second, leaders will aim to impress followers through their accepted traits that influence innovative performance (Hunter & Cushenbery, 2011). These leaders are have self-confidence, persistence, very competent, and are risks takers. These authors assert that leaders should exhibit high morals and ethical conduct and stop using power for personal gain (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).

Inspirational motivation comprises of behaviors to influence and inspire followers by delivering a mutual sense and a challenge of the groups. Transformational leaders inspire and motivate followers using modest language, signals, and metaphors (Northouse, 2012). Enthusiasm, positivity and creativity are significant elements of inspiration motivation which ought to enhance general organizational performance (Kyrgidou & Spyropoulou, 2013). This type of optimistic motivation is centered on behaviors adopted by a leader to matters as interactive with potentials and exhibiting the most acceptable behavior. This is why Everly (2011) asserts that leaders engage in this by portraying four key traits of optimism, decisiveness, integrity, and open communication. This means that women leaders are no exception. This has been energizing and motivates followers to query what has been done to resolve challenges and encourage them to improve such abilities (Campbell, 2010).

According to the proponents of transformational leadership theory, intellectual stimulation allows leaders to intensify their followers' efforts by interrogative expectations and enquiring known challenges (Bass & Riggio, 2006). This study aimed to determine the significance of workplace policies on women leadership performance. This is because an intelligently inspiring leader enthuses followers to be innovative and to challenge their individual views and beliefs as well as those of the leader (Northouse, 2012; 2015). Individualized consideration comprises of being coach or mentor so as to encourage followers in reaching their full potential. Individualized consideration is a situation where leaders offer assistance and individualized attention to followers. These leaders show appreciation of their followers' work thus enhancing their self-confidence (Bass, 1987). Leaders who engage in individualized consideration offer a supportive environment and treat each member independently. Equally, Hamstra, Van, Wisse and Sassenberg (2011) argue that customizing explicit leadership behaviors to followers require self-regulatory orientation which may enhance commitment of the members. These type of leaders are good listeners and share a member's anxieties while at the same time helping them to build their self-confidence (Northouse 2015; Yukl, 2013). Here, leaders are seen at act as mentors who give attention to specific individual needs for growth and work with them to develop their full potential. According to transformational leadership theory, leaders motivate their followers to greater achievements and self-development (Yukl, 2013). This enhances supporters to be more innovative and creative. This is supported by Campbell (2010) asserts that there is evidence that transformational leadership results in improved performance.

Empirical research supports the idea that transformational leadership theory clearly impacts leader performance (Diaz-Saenz, 2011). This theoretical encounter becomes significant in evaluating need for work and family-friendly policies meant applied by successful women leaders. This current study has therefore brought the scenario in a contemporary setting. This study is agreement with Hamstra *et al.* (2011) who argue that followers prefer self-regulatory orientation which may progress commitment of followers. This happens when their leaders adopt preferred leadership behaviors. This shift to transformational leadership is predominantly significant given a generational change in anticipation of leaders and organizations in general (Kezar &

Lester, 2008). However, there are some conflicting views on the effectiveness of transformational leadership. However, Yukl (2013) argues that the theory lacked satisfactory documentation of the impact of situational and context variables on leadership effectiveness. In addition, it can be noted that a charismatic style is often too intimidating and they assess employees may fail to possess such behaviors negatively (Green, Miller, & Aarons, 2013).

Transformational leaders have also been criticized on the fact that followers risk satisfying their leader's vision however over-ambitious or impractical it may be (Avramenko, 2014; Northouse, 2014). This current study measured participants' capabilities and abilities in an effort to balance work and family roles. This is because according to the proponent of transformational theory, Bass (1985) leadership for transformation as a concept refers to leadership that brings about fundamental changes to systems. Transformational leadership theory also plays a significant role for this research because it supports the notion that women who possess transformational behaviors and conceptual skills such as integrity, self-confidence, openness and feminist, enhanced their leadership performance. This is in agreement with Kouzes and Posner (2012) and Northouse (2012) who assert that transformational leaders usually exhibit high ethical standards and moral behavior. Transformational theory is significant for this study because it offers an avenue of appreciating the high degree of interconnectedness of workplace policies and competencies on women leadership. This means that women leaders are able to achieve the desired changes to enhance their performance.

Transformational leadership theory is significant to this study as it reflects on the need to enhance leadership performance. This is because, a leader exhibits certain traits and behaviors to inspire and motivate a team or organization to rally around a common vision or goal. The effectiveness of transformational leadership has been examined in much theoretical and empirical research, which suggests that it enhances and affects members' task performance and helping behavior (Chun *et al.*, 2016). Other merits of transformational leadership theory include the ability to initiate changes and inspire followers to excel in their capabilities and attributes that are more affiliated to women leaders (Tse, Huang & Lam, 2013). In support,

transformational theory also provides an understanding of how women leadership nurtures the best in their employees and work-teams by showing authentic concern and respect for other stakeholders (Campbell, 2010). Evolving transformational leadership, in particular intellectual stimulation, continues to be of great significance as it has shown to improve members' overall performance (Tse, *et al.*, 2013).

The concept of inspirational motivation is also significant for this study. This is because organizational leaders get insights on gender mainstreaming in the work place as well as encourage women to pursue higher leadership positions. Further, this theory offers a general idea of understanding the concepts of transformational style of leadership (collaboration, relational, consensus-building) that promote women leadership participation.

2.2.3 Social Role Theory

Alice Eagly came up with the core concepts of social role theory in the 1980s from a various theoretical perspectives and empirical traditions. These include: aspects of gender stereotypes; behaviour approval, and status creation; views of gender individuality and self-regulatory processes (Eagly, 1987). Social Role Theory (SRT) recognizes historic separation in labor between women and men and the everyday jobs they assumed (Peters, Kinsey & Malloy, 2004). Eagly (1987) asserts that Social Role Theory is a means to better understand how gender roles and social roles interact to produce sex differences in social behavior. The theory forms the basis of the study seeking to provide a background and foundational constructs of the concept of social inhibitions to women leadership performance.

Social role theory consists of a process which recommends a person's development by standardizing their conduct based on masculine and feminine values (Eagly & Wood, 2012). Fundamentally, Social Role Theory recommends that humans are predestined to conduct themselves differently in communal situations mainly owing to societal expectations. According to Peters *et al.* (2004) SRT has the possibility to guide women to gauge their probability of attaining a leadership position. People perform their gender roles as they endorse specific social roles (e.g. parents,

employee) to equip men and women for their usual family and employment role (Eagly & Wood, 2012). Societies embark on all-encompassing social activities to support personality behaviors and abilities that facilitate role performance. In addition, gender roles influence behavior through a trio of biological and psychological processes. Socialization simplifies these typical gender role performances by facilitating people to progress suitable personality traits and skills.

In agreement, according to McDonald and Westphal (2013) lack of effective board performance is correlated with the lack of positive mentorship from the executive. Eagly and Wood (2012) assert that Social Role Theory is a means to better understand how gender and social roles interact to produce sex differences in social behavior. The theory highlights social roles and interweaves role-related processes with these other perspectives to produce a powerful analysis of female sex roles Witt and Wood (2010) as stipulated by the study. This is because of the contribution of information regarding professional development models and social networking is immense. This theoretical conflict becomes noteworthy in evaluating successful women leaders who seek role models for professional guidance.

This current study measured participants' opinion of the influence of role models on women leadership performance. Social Role Theory provides support for this study in various ways. This is because it has attempted to provide an updated design to study how professional development models and social networking models play a role in encouraging women to pursue leadership roles. This is consistent with the concept of Social Role Theory. Thus endeavoring to resolve methodological limitation of previous research.

Social Role Theory is also significant for this study as it emphasizes on the societal roles that women perform and hence provide a better understanding on the application of organization culture in leadership performance. It is important to understand that when employees are involved in decision making in matters regarding their work, their performance is often enhanced. According to the theory, these members share values of high humane orientation and high gender equity. This theory also gives significance to the role of and expectations of role models in

leadership, this study established that Social Role Theory is suitable for this investigation. It comprises of status and influence in the larger framework of society, but concentrates precisely on these paradigms and their link to performance. This present study has therefore brought this concept in a modern setting and intended to find out whether there exists a relationship between professional development models and social networking models.

2.2.4 Upper Echelon Theory

Hambrick and Mason (1984) defines Upper Echelons as top management team, alleged to be the principal coalition of discernible dominant actors in the corporations. He also stated that a firm is a manifestation of its top management team. They are the managerial elites who occupy formal definite positions of authority or those in strategic positions Hambrick and Mason (1984) developed Upper Echelon's Theory on the basis of self-accountability to standards of governing excellence as an important component of leader performance.

According to Hambrick and Mason (1984) Upper Echelons theory centers on demographic characteristics of top executives in the development of the theory. From this point of view, demographic physical appearance are essential to gauge individuals' perceptual bases; these cognitive bases generate definite team abilities. This is because the functions of each of the groups counter each other. Leading authors in the field of leadership have discussed various constructs of Top Management Team (TMT) (Eagly & Wood, 2012; Jensen & Zajac, 2004). In addition, the organizational leaders are significant in deciding the direction in which the organization intends to go. For example, Madsen (2013) suggest that top executives or powerful actors in the organization including top management teams matter in determining strategic outcomes.

Overall, these leaders in any public corporation are the key decision making actors and their prime function is to express strategic approach of the firm. According to some authors there are characteristics applicable to women leaders that have enabled them to thrive on new positions and opportunities (Hibel & Madsen, 2013; Madsen,

2013). This is consistent, with Graham, Harvey and Puri (2013) who assert that characteristics of managers are significant in any organization. This is supported by Nielsen and Nielsen (2012) study of Swiss based firms that showed that nationality diversity in the Top Management Team (TMT) is a driver to performance. An earlier study by Carpenter, Geletkanycz and Sanders (2004) affirm that Upper Echelons identifies three fundamental principles: firstly strategic adoptions in firms are outcomes of the principles of influential actors. Secondly, the values of these actors are a task of their visible features like professional skills and work experience. Third, according to Carpenter *et al.* (2004) fundamental organizational outcomes can be linked to observable characteristics of those leaders. Therefore, these three fundamental tenets outline the upper echelon suggestion that leadership performance was a manifestation of its top decision makers. A more recent study by Talke, Salomo and Kock (2011) investigated the effect of TMT characteristics on an organization's strategic planning and direction.

Generally top executive's diversity is measured by different professional skills, functional, industry and organization background of members. According to Ter, Bogt and Scapens (2012) parastatals have changed with comparable forms of authority, structure and roles. However, research done on competence characteristics of upper echelon in leaders is diverse but not much has been done on its effect on leadership performance. A critique of Upper Echelon Theory is that there has been some inconsistency in determining whether to focus the research on a single individual or a group of managers. However, this study was able to overcome this challenge as it was presumed that leadership performances is directly linked to the decisions made and executed by top management. This study endeavored to provide a simplified design to study how conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills support women leaders. Thus striving to resolve methodological limitation of past research as these limitations include lack of a representative sample as well as use of outdated data (Creswell, 2013).

Upper Echelon Theory was significant for this study, as it focused on examining demographics of women leaders to suggest managerial competency skills are practical in determining their performance. Findings of this study indicated that

professional knowledge and conceptual skills could be used to explain the levels of competency for women leaders included in the sample. This current study has, therefore, brought the situation in a modern setting. Hence, Upper Echelon Theory provides a great impact of understanding generic behavioral competencies that apply to leaders including aspiring women leaders in the organization.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is the system of conceptions, assumptions, anticipations, views, and models that backs and informs your study (Creswell, 2013). It is a graphical demonstration of variables, displaying the link among different variables. The operationalization of variables is presented in details as shown on Appendix IV. The diagrammatic arrangement of the conceptual framework was grounded on perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models (independent variables) and women leadership performance (dependent variable) as well as organizational culture (moderating variable) as shown in Figure 2.1.

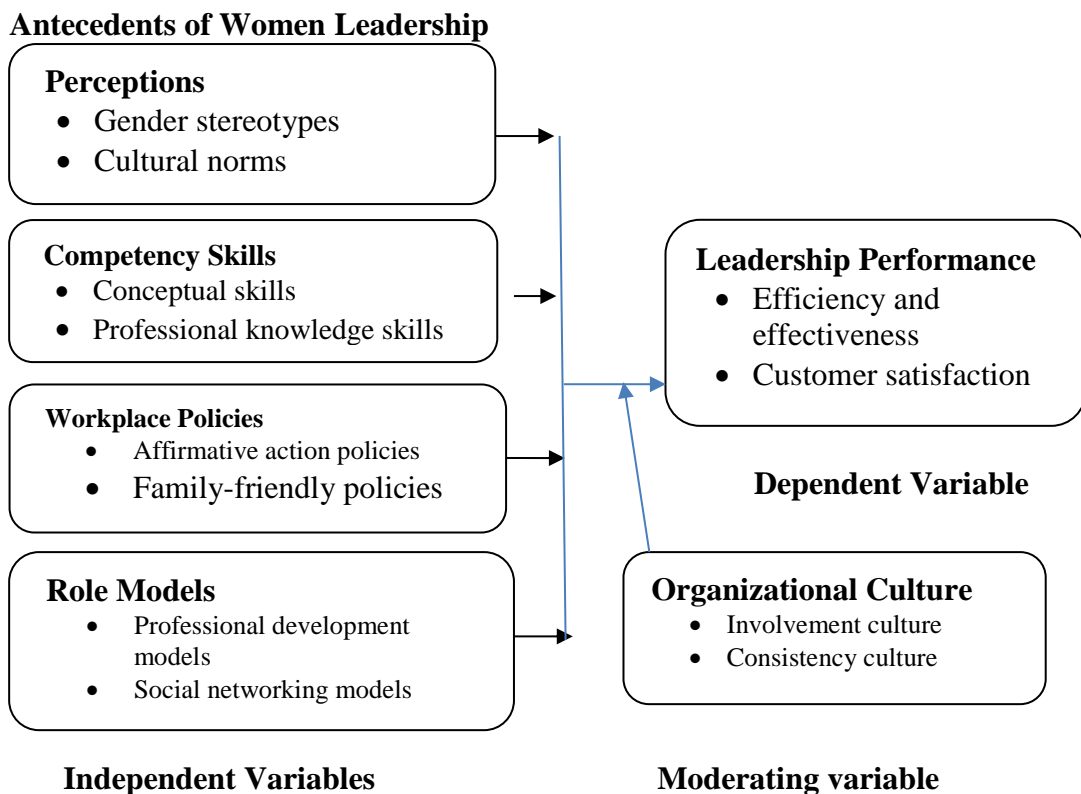


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

This study investigated antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals. This is because women leadership significantly contribute to building high-performing organizations however, various challenges inhibit them from exerting their fullest potential towards this end. The antecedents of women leadership performance were perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. This is in agreement with Diehl and Dzubinski (2016) who assert that societal, group or organizational and individual factors have an effect on women leaders. The following is a comprehensive discussion of independent variables, moderating variable and dependent variable.

2.4 Review of Variables

2.4.1 Perceptions

Bagandanshwa (1993) defines perception as the practice of attaining sensual information on individuals, things and happenings and the psychological practice. For the purpose of this study, perceptions was measured by gender stereotypes and cultural norms. Change in perception is a challenge to realize because the traditional standards of leadership are firmly entrenched on gender. Many Scholars have observed a leadership gap from a gendered viewpoint, specifically stereotyping and discrimination literature to explain gender variances (Ely, Ibarra & Kolb, 2011). For example, according to Ely and Rhode (2010) women seeking leadership positions face a variety of stereotypical behavioral hurdles administrative functions. This is because even though there has been an influx of eminently qualified women engaging in formal employment, women are still discriminated against in accessing top management (Ely *et al.*, 2011).

For example numerous recent studies have concentrated on gender stereotypes and cultural norms challenges in comparison to gender (Ballenger, 2010; Mason, Griffin & Parker 2014). However, these studies have failed to concentrate on their role in enhancing their performance. It is worth noting that public and private sectors present diverse challenges to women leaders, it remains to be seen whether there was any positive change. For example, Ryan *et al.* (2011) assert that women are seen as

better executives in non-performing firms as they are regarded as having superior interpersonal relations and more capable of accepting responsibility. Equally, according to Block and Crawford (2013) some of these undesirable stereotypes bring about a distinction of women. According to Murphy (2016) women employed in the corporate world regularly experience stereotype threats. The assumption is that they offer priority to family roles over business functions and do not have enough passion for success in business. Manzoor (2015) also notes that cultural norms are major barriers to successful careers of females. For example, Von Hippel, Walsh and Zouroudis (2015) assert that women working in these environments are in situations where the job involves behaviours that are unpredictable to their gender identity.

This helps in continuing to apply learning and adaptive approaches that integrate gender into its activities and interventions, which align with the Government of Kenya's priorities and commitments (Niru, 2013). This enhances gender activism and sensitization of engagement of women in leaders in public corporations to enhance their leadership performance (Kamau, 2010).

This study adopted perceptions as a measure of women leadership as it concerned with perceived beliefs, norms, concealed morals, and actions that transform lives in today. This is because women who accept this stereotyping or cultural influences show motherhood behavior and do not involve in intellectual tasks and other professions (Catalyst, 2012). This means that women simply accept the cultural influences and they are swallowed up in their cultural traditions. Hence, this study intended to fill a significant literature gap by examining perceptions based on gender stereotypes and cultural norms as antecedents of women leadership performance. From the above discussion, H₀₁: This study hypothesizes that perceptions has no significant relationship with women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

2.4.2 Competency Skills

Competency is the knowledge, skills and abilities that enable one to have a defined performance outcome (Boyatzis, 2011). This study intends to explore the requisite of competency skills and its contribution to women leadership performance.

Competency skills will be measured by conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills. The study adopted Katz (1955) conceptual skills approach as the first construct to measure competency skills. Katz (1955) humanized three types of skills essential for leaders: technical skills, human skills, and conceptual skills. Each of these skills indispensable for effective leadership. The extent of each skill may be dependent on the position the leader hold in an organization's structure. Technical skills are fundamental for operational levels of an organization and the conceptual skills are more critical at the top management levels (Katz, 1955). As a leader scales up the organizational chain of command, he/she depends on technical skills of the people he leads more than on his own technical skills. Conceptual skills are essential at upper levels of management Katz (1955) wherever policy choices, long-term forecasting and broad-scale schedules are required. Novel approaches to management and leadership skills are built upon conceptual skills (Northouse, 2014).

This study adopted Northouse (2010) skills model professional knowledge as the basis of the second construct namely the professional knowledge skills. Northouse (2014) describes competencies as one part of the "Skills Model" of leadership and includes problem-solving skills, social judgment skills and knowledge. This study has operationalized competency skills and used professional knowledge (Northouse, 2010) and conceptual skills (Katz, 1955). These skills are precursors for a leader to perform optimally and support the organizational in meeting the expected leadership performance outcome. According to Northouse (2014) competencies emphasizes the capabilities that enhances leader performance (Northouse, 2014). This is because according to Lahti (2013) proficient skills are basic precedencies for women to be better leaders. For example, Manzoor (2015) females face inequality in the form of access to professional knowledge training. This is because use of expertise, skills and knowledge of women leaders in an organizational setting is of great significance (Tahnua, 2012).

The skills approach suggests that majority of people can learn from their experiences to become effective leaders (Northouse, 2010). These authors seem to agree that, it is important for leaders to share their professional experiences and seek the positive attributes and values of roles models. Northouse (2014) study also used the approach

and assert that the skills based approach comprise of professional competencies. These competencies give emphasis to the capabilities that facilitate women leadership performance because they can be measured and learned. Competencies are key for aspiring leaders as they guide them in attaining their desired performance and can be measured and acquired. This is why Northouse (2014) asserts that competencies highlight the aptitudes that enable leadership performance. This study is operationalizing conceptual skills and professional knowledge as key competencies that enable leaders to perform optimally. World over, women are have engaged in a never-ending fight to get equal rights and opportunities. A study of competencies in leadership is a well-researched area and numerous articles have discussed leadership competencies (Northouse, 2014; Boyatzis, 2011).

On the basis of a leader's visionary skills and capabilities, Rudman and Phelan (2010) study advocates that this is a characteristic observed in women leaders whose leadership styles have major impact on the behavior of the group. The authors further assert that leader competencies and knowledge will enhance their self-confidence and trustworthiness. These competencies are usually applied in the future, reassigned to novel circumstances, and used in achieving organizational goals. Leadership is very significant in guiding human actions to be in line with ideals (Mberia, 2016). According to the Scholar, where the right leadership is exercised, organizations will often experience development in many spheres of life. Further the study notes that, leaders help members to become aware of new possibilities and more significant goals. The concept of leadership comprises the aspects of people, goals, and influence (Onsongo, 2010). It should be noted that women leadership significantly contribute to building high-performing organizations. This is because competencies have turned out to be the typical narrative for discussing the necessary components of leadership performance. However, Manzoor (2015) posits that even though more and more women are highly qualified, there is no assurance they will be appointment in management. However, a recent study found out that, nowadays they are ready to take challenges of the practical life and do not limit them to the domestic roles only (Hossain & Noor, 2016). From the above discussion, the study hypothesizes that: H_{02} : This study hypothesizes that

competency skills has no significant effect on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

2.4.3 Workplace policies

Workplace policies are those practices applied in organizations to influence work operations to enhance positive organizational outcomes (Caillier, 2012). Women who work in white-collar jobs are stained by factors such as affirmative action policies and any aspiring organization should play its role in ensuring that leaders are given the support and working conditions they need to carry out their duties effectively. These novel leadership practices such as open decision making policies and other flexible workplace policies were found to contribute to enhanced performance of the leaders (Boatman & Wellins, 2011). This study adopted affirmative action policies and family-friendly policies as measures of workplace policies.

Affirmative action is a practice that addresses discrimination in the social order and as a result it is meant to encourage equal opportunities among men and women (Amnany, 2013; WiLDAF Ghana 2010). According to Zhang and Liu (2011) work-family balance is a wide-ranging concept that is defined in various ways by various researchers. The Kenya Government concept of affirmative action takes a gender perspective. Hon. Phoebe Asiyo and Hon Beth Mugo tabled the motions on affirmative action in in 1997 and 2000 respectively. Their aim was to upsurge women involvement in decision making fora in public corporations to at least 33% (Amnany, 2013). The Constitution of Kenya, 2010 has been gender sensitive as it demands strategy choice on the basis of affirmative action.

The Constitution seeks to retract from the historical segregation of women from the societal leadership structure and create liberty for women to exercise their leadership attributes in management. Article 27 (8) is responsible for affirmative action where the State is obliged to take jurisdiction. As well as other actions to make sure that there is a minimum of two-thirds of the elected or appointed members who are from different gender. The constitution also takes care of the principle of equality before the law, it states that, 'every person is equal before the also and has the right to equal

protection and equal benefit of the law' (Constitution of Kenya, 2010). It is the responsibility of the State Department of Gender Affairs under the Ministry of Public Service, Youth and Gender Affairs to ensure formulation, review and management of gender related policies as well as establishment and implementation of gender management system. Organizations have realized the need to encourage female workers to balance work and family activities to enhance job satisfaction and increased performance (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). Scholarly attention is now placed on determining the effect of family-friendly policies on work performance (Caillier, 2012). Burgoyne (2010) study seems to suggest that leadership is a practice of social influence, concerned with the behaviors, styles and values of a person that inspire others to follow them. This is why a recent study revealed that companies that offer family-friendly benefits and nurture a family-friendly culture and attract prospective female employees (Beierlein, Gibson & Tibbs, 2011).

This study narrowed down on workplace policies as an antecedent of women leadership performance in parastatals. This is because according to Caroff and Lubart (2012) structured policies and programs that provide insight into benefits and strategies to develop relationships would be supportive as a central element of their leadership (Caroff & Lubart, 2012). This empowers women to do their work in a practical environment that allows them to feel confident and secure and this gives them the opportunity to work freely and independently. According to Gonnah, & Ogollah (2016) workplace policies enhance performance as it depends on the relationship a manager/ leader will have with some of these organizations or factors. Hence, a company may have some influence on them which will leave it better equipped to deal with any of their decisions that affect the company (Njiru, 2013).

In addition, this study selected workplace policies as a construct of antecedents of women leadership performance. This is because according to Catalyst (2012) the main hurdles to women progression is the absence favorable work policies and practices in organizations. The drive for this study was to explore of family-friendly policies such as child-care leave, maternity leave as an antecedent of women leadership performance. From the above discussion: H₀₃: This study hypothesizes

that workplace policies has no significant effect on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

2.4.4 Role Models

A role model is an individual whose engagements in a specific activity is imitated by others and is basically a person you look up to and try to emulate (Taylor, Taylor & Stoller, 2008). A role model in some cases mentors, knows and cares about others and tries to help them succeed. According to Omran, Alizadeh and Esmaeel (2015) women have minimal interaction with influential and powerful people in organizations. Therefore, they are often isolated from the main power networks. This is because role modeling is viewed as an efficient approach used by prospective leaders to learn both professional and leadership skills. (Fitzsimmons, Callan & Paulsen, 2014). Role models have an influential outcome on individuals in the course of leadership progress. According to Bandura and Walters (1993) Social Cognitive theory proposes that persons are more probably driven to select role models who they identify with and consider as being similar to themselves. Failure to access powerful female role models lead to a never ending circle. This is because women who do not take up leadership positions deny prospective younger leaders experiences on effective leadership (Latu, Mast, Lammers & Bombari, 2013).

Social networking means building relationships and knowing people (Lahti, 2013). Social networking is significant in the growth of human capital and accessing promotion and authority (Fitzsimmons, Callan & Paulsen, 2014). However, according to Lahti (2013) women do not have a variety of networking opportunities available due to certain obstacles related to their gender. Moreover, women leaders could explore their beliefs regarding gender and how they might make positive contributions to their performance. Cheryan, Siy and Vichayapai *et al.* (2010) study also notes that role models are critical in inspiring future leaders as they positively influence aspirations and self-perceptions by means of social comparison processes. Interestingly, according to Omran *et al.* (2015) in the contemporary world, women have improved their presence in numerous social fora. Interestingly, according to Women in Management (WIM) (2014) if organizations do not get female role

models, men may step in to actively act as role models for aspiring women leaders. They recommended that if an organization wishes to inspire women leaders to seek senior positions, then women should be hired to enhance better performance.

However, Rice (2012) study posit that women tend to underestimate their potential for success but their expectations can be modified if exposed to role models they can identify with. This is because women do not have full access to various informal networks and in some cases they disregard women due to their nature of activities or the perceptions based on gender perspectives (Catalyst, 2012). These authors seem to agree that role models are very significant for aspiring leaders.

Another source of networking which provides both contacts and valuable professional experience is involvement in professional associations. This is because senior women have an obligation as role models as they can inspire other women to seek leadership roles. According to a study by Cheryan *et al.* (2010) social networking is extremely valuable for a leader because it permits individuals to share their views and experiences. While women's networks had their origin in the women's movements' consciousness raising support groups more formal networks have developed. Gonnah, & Ogollah (2016) asserts that role models provide cushion in interpersonal relationships and performance is partly perceptually based on what an observer considers to be valuable. However, lack of female professionals and business role models has been seen as a noteworthy obstacle to women's career development (Onsongo, 2010).

Another source of networking which provides both contacts and valuable professional experience is involvement in professional associations. It can therefore, be noted that women are not well represented in managerial positions (Moran-Miller & Flores, 2011). It is for this reason that this study adopted professional development models and social networking models as constructs to measure role models as an antecedent of women leadership performance. Equally, according to Ernst and Young (2011) women have shown to seek fewer sponsors, and have fewer skills to pursue such a relationships. Hence, they may not be exposed to effective role models. This study intended to fill a significant knowledge gap to determine whether

role models has any effect on women leadership performance in parastatals. From the above discussion: H₀₄: This study hypothesizes that role models has no significant effect on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

2.4.5 Organizational Culture

The moderating variable of this study was organizational culture, measured by involvement culture and consistency culture. A culture must be established that enables each organization to operate within its knowledge demands. Organizational culture is assumed to have some impact on leadership performance when antecedents of women leadership are eliminated. In support, Stok, Markic, Bertoneclj and Mesko (2010) posit that organizational culture has endeavored to provide guidance to organizations. In addition, they have emphasized the importance of human factors such as beliefs, values, obligations, and opinions. According to Obasan (2012) management should embrace responsibility of sharing morals. According to Kuli and Metz (2015) organizational culture acts as a crucial role *in* moderating the relationship between leadership behavior and organizational commitment behaviors to ensure enhanced performance.

Equally, several authors agree that organizational culture may therefore be interpreted as an important factor to strengthen leadership performance and has been examined by many researchers (Gipson, Pfaff & Mendelsohn *et al.*, 2017). This is because leaders adopt new culture by first understanding the old culture and then restoring the organization's culture with a new vision. This is because mounting a culture that nurtures customer gratification can enhance competitive advantage for an organization. According to Dennison (2000) model of organizational culture, involvement culture encompasses providing satisfactory conditions where members of an organization have a chance to engage in decision making. This means that leaders who encourage such cultures and nurture followers normally display a sense of vision and determination.

Stok *et al.* (2010) asserts that leadership requires not only awareness into the dynamism of culture but the inspiration and ability to intervene in one's own cultural

process. Hence these authors seem to suggest that since leaders create organizational culture, they are also accountable in maintaining such culture, practices, procedures and structures that accompany it. Many scholars agree that organizational culture has great impact in enhancing organization performance as well as its impact on individuals in improving their performance in general. For example according to Mbah and Ikemefuna (2012) and Nyamubarwa (2013) organizational culture can be an imperative factor in building a strong organization and a main element of representing and promoting the way things are done. This means that a capable leader provides direction for the organization and inspire members to achieving desired goals. In addition, Helgesen and Johnson (2010) it characterizes the individual and proficient journey of women leaders, as well as their practices in leadership. This study adopted Dennison (2000) model of organizational culture which will also be the study's moderating variable. This means that organizational culture studies need to be done within the wider framework of norms and values of the society in which the organization operates. This study applied organizational culture as a moderating variable as supported by a study by Kulik and Metz (2015). The study recommends integrating moderators into explores of gender and leader performance. From the above discussion: H_{05} : This study hypothesizes that organizational culture has no significant moderating effect on women leadership performance.

2.4.6 Leadership Performance

Women/female leadership is a specification of leadership which refers to women engaged in leadership roles or it sometimes refers to a specific style of leadership (Lahti, 2013). According to the author, some people prefer it not to be used and others do not see a problem with using it. According to Tanhua (2012) past research only focused on putting great emphasis on female leader traits, rather than demonstrating women's ability to work in senior positions. Further, this study determined to establish the effect of the antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya as shown in Figure 2.2.

Leadership Performance

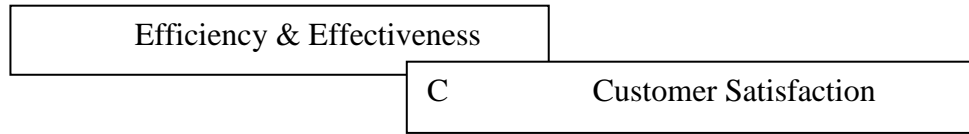


Figure 2.2: Measures of Leadership Performance

The measures of leadership performance were efficiency and effectiveness, and customer satisfaction. Numerous studies have affirmed that there are positive contributions of women leaders to actively pursue the involvement of women in organizational leadership (Kezar, 2014; Catalyst, 2013; Post, 2015; Helgesen & Johnson, 2010). For example, Strom, D’Espallier and Mersland (2014) assert that women leaders have often been engaged in continuous progress of organizational performance. This is by ensuring that their goals have been achieved within the certain periods of time. This means that these leaders strive to ensure that positive outcomes have been achieved in order to prove their worth as effective leaders.

According to Chawla and Pandit (2018) there are countless other studies that support the idea that female managers are way more effective in certain situations. Studies reveal that women leaders have also influenced the corporate culture and the work performance. Equally, Catalyst (2012) has also proven that the presence of female leaders can revolutionize the scenario of the corporate world. Customer satisfaction is a fundamental topic in the philosophy of total quality management. This is because according to Strom *et al.* (2014)) satisfied customers from the organization or any successful business leads to replicate purchases and use positive word of mouth because of their personal need fulfillment.

These authors seem to agree that customer satisfaction can improve employees’ sense of accountability or obligation to their organization. This is because a leader can formulate actions needed to fulfill customer needs. For example, Skelly and Johnson (2011) notes that Social Role Theory emphasizes that managers need to have prospects from society of the need to have the required strong technical and relational skills. In addition, for the past few years female managers have

contributed a lot but due to certain reasons the contribution they have made have not come to the foreground (U.S Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011). This study adopted efficiency and effectiveness and customer satisfaction as measures of women leadership performance. This study was in agreement with other studies that have found these constructs to be significant to women leadership performance.

2.5 Empirical Review

Empirical research is founded on pragmatic and certain occurrences, where knowledge is derived from actual experience and not from theory (Punch, 2013). It offers a description, summary, and critical assessment of the process relative to the problem under study. This study discussed empirical studies under perceptions, competency skills, workplace polices and roles models. These are projected as the antecedents of women leadership performance and organizational culture acts as the moderating variable.

2.5.1 Perceptions and Leadership Performance

Interestingly, Social Role Theory maintains that there are behaviors of a leader such as aggressiveness, that are societal linked to the abilities of men and not women cannot be promoted to top management positions (Skelly & Johnson, 2012). According to a recent study of public corporations, individuals naturally emphasize on being effective leaders whereas organizations place attention on hiring for prospective leaders (Pasmore, 2014). This study found out that individuals should strive to ascend the leadership ladder through various prospective methods for example possessing self-efficacy values.

According to a study of 96 corporations, Monyoncho (2015) found out that stereotypes have been used to simplify the social world. This is because they reduce the amount of processing that people do when they meet a new person. Further, this is because women become intensely subtle to the probability of being stereotyped (Von Hippel *et al.*, 2011). However, few studies have emphasized on the impact of this threat on leader performance (Sheaffer, Bogler & Sarfaty, 2011). The study noted that stereotypical threats hinder potential leaders from pursuing their potential.

Further, a study of educational women leaders revealed that gender stereotypes continue to take place in organizations (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2010). The study revealed that these stereotypes appear as an obstacle to transformational leadership. Gender stereotypical perceptions on women are seen to lack the abilities associated with effective decision making e.g. assertiveness and emotional stability (Sheaffer, *et al.*, 2011). According to this study, these perceptions have a negative influence and are partly to blame for the existence of few women leaders in public as well as private organizations. Existing literature from a recent study revealed that gender aspects like gender stereotypes can be significantly unified with individuals (Kyrgidou & Spyropoulou, 2013). These studies assert that women on the helm of leadership go extra miles to perform extra duties. This helps them to create positive outcomes in the organizations by adopting appropriate leadership personalities. Interestingly, according to a study by Bosse and Taylor (2012) women-led organizations weakens the ability of creditors and capital controllers to allocate their funds to such organizations. The study found out that, this discourages women from further progression in various fields. Notwithstanding the traditional stereotypes remain. This is why Block and Crawford (2013) study posit that individuals show gender stereotyping when they display behaviors, deeds and characteristics to specific people based on gender.

According to public and private corporations study by Monyoncho (2015) stereotypes in organizations operate in culturally diverse environments. This study has projected the influence of cultural beliefs and stereotypes on women leadership performance. Pflanz (2011) study revealed that stereotypical male images on gender roles are still in existence (Pflanz, 2011). This study reveals that it has brought an emphasis of the acquisition of the male agentic attributes in order to access leadership positions. Recent studies on the myth of illusion of gender equality suggests that opportunity for advancement does not equate to the elimination of barriers (Fitzgerald, 2013; Karelaia & Guillen, 2014). These researchers found that women with more positive perceptions of their gender identity experienced less of a sense of conflict between being a leader and a woman. This means that an assertive female leader may be viewed as “pushy”. They posited that common behaviors of women leaders could be effective in leading others and may essentially be helpful.

In another study, it was revealed that the experiences women have in relation to their gender has fundamental implications on how they perceive themselves as leaders. This is because most stereotypes tend to convey a negative impression (Monyoncho, 2015). The study reveals that a person is confronted with a situation or stimuli but what an individual interprets or perceives may be considerably different from reality. In addition, culture norms are a unique way of life has great impact on every group or organization is and varies from organization to organization. For example, Egan, Shollen and Campbell *et al.* (2017) and Pflanz (2011) studies are in consensus that cultures has continued to significantly influence leadership in various contexts. The study revealed that that culture nurtures the perspective of individuals approach to life. Cultural norms have recently become the focus of attention in women leadership, development and growth to enhance work-life balance.

According to some studies done to eliminate the influence of both individual and organizational barriers. For example, Egan *et al.* (2017) encouraged the application of an expansive model to enumerate women leaders' proficiencies and progress. In support, a recent study discovered that women pursuing higher leadership positions must traverse these various cultures because these cultural dynamic forces can create challenges for women (Kellerman & Rhode, 2014). These studies suggest that, by knowing how cultural beliefs influence selection outcome, organizations can manipulate these factors to enhance the quality of executives selected.

A further study of perceptions of women leaders revealed that it is believed that women display weaker credentials for leaders (Diekman & Schneider, 2010). This assumption leads many organizations to appoint leaders based on gender and cultural stereotypical evaluations. For example, due to the disparity in corporate leadership, more senior positions are less likely to be occupied by a woman (Pande & Forde, 2011). According to this study, in Europe, although a work force of 45% female, only 11.9% are women appointment in company boards (Pande & Forde, 2011). The study revealed that cultural values played a key role in aspiring women to seek such leadership positions.

Ryan, Haslam, Hersby and Bongiorno (2011) study also found that certain aspects related to cultural norms and values were significant in successful and unsuccessful firms. According to the study, some weaker companies were more likely to be linked to female leaders than in more successful companies. Indeed, the success of the organization may change the perceptions and cultural norms subjected to women leaders' in significant ways. This reflected by a study by Rudman, Moss-Racusin, Phelan and Nauts (2012) which revealed confidence and assertiveness as requisites for effective leadership. The study found out that agentic characteristics are of great significance when portraying leadership prowess. Hence, this study intended to fill the knowledge gap and determine the effect of perceptions on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

2.5.2 Competency Skills and Leadership Performance

However, according to a study by Lahti (2013) women leaders are usually underutilized, considering their professional skills and knowledge they can bring to organizations. Competency is the knowledge, skills and abilities which enable one to have a defined performance outcome (Boyatzis, 2011). Women's professional knowledge skills and their status in society are currently more on increase due to efficient and dedicated role played by them in different organizations. Interestingly, Manzoor (2015) study in Pakistan revealed that females do not lack necessary professional skills and abilities. According to this study, female leaders are faced with concealed societal barriers that are predominant to gender discrimination in a work environment. Although women are being placed at least equal to men in leadership positions, there is still a disparity in the distribution of the highest paying jobs.

According to this study there are indeed some barriers that slow the progress of the most successful women. A study of eight women leaders from large and middle scale organizations in Ethiopia revealed that women leadership positions have been increasing significantly (Bahiru & Mengistu, 2018). The study revealed that as a result they have been involved in seeking formal education. Further, according to a study by O'Connor (2015) professional skills have a great influence on appointment

of leaders in organizations in today's working environment. This study found out that these attributes are a typical narrative for discussing the necessary components of a leader. In addition, a study in Fiji focusing on public perceptions of women in leadership, revealed the significant of leader characteristics. The study revealed that 80 per cent of the respondents were of the opinion that a focus on leadership competency characteristics may increase women's leadership outcomes (International Women's Development Agency, 2014). They give prominence to the attributes that facilitate effective leadership and hence contribute to enhanced performance. Further, Northouse (2014) posits that the skills-model based approach is a significant model as it encompasses among them professional knowledge competencies which this study intends to use as the main construct of competency skills. This means that identifying antecedents of women leadership performance in terms of competency skills may enable the leader to improve their performance. Boyatzis (2011) study of corporations affirms that leadership professional skills may be comparable across industries and functions.

The study revealed that such competencies within an explicit industry or area may be an additional way to research further on competency assessment. This is noted there has been acceptance of this concept of leaders competences as evident in leadership literature. This means that leadership competencies are not distinctive to a particular industry or area. Hence, may be applied across industry to function as revealed by a recent study (Arditi, Gluch & Holmdahl, 2013).

Further, it has been argued that leader competencies are the critical resource enabling organizations to reach strategic and competitive objectives. For example, Laguna, Wiechetek and Talik (2012) study posit that competencies are used to determine the performance necessary to achieve desired outcomes of a leader. Katz(1955) skills model advocates what competencies leaders can achieve. A study of leaders in these professional skills include: gathering information associated to the issue of concern and developing exceptional ways to understand each problem(Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly & Marks, 2000). In agreement, study of textile industries, it was found out that women leaders communicate their expectations of a given task and allow more opportunity in accomplishing a goal (Northouse, 2010). This study found out that a

leader with high levels of conceptual competencies was a more effective in helping an organization attain its desired aims. It is against the backdrop of this knowledge gap that this study seeks to establish the effect of competencies on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

2.5.3 Workplace Policies and Leadership Performance

Moon and Roh (2010) study of public and public corporations revealed that a balance between work and family are significant for increasing leader performance. Aspects of affirmative action are significant for any government or organization as it gives preference to women, or other groups that are often treated unfairly. The Constitution of Kenya (2010) seeks to disclaim the historical segregation of women from the conventional societal structure. According to the Constitution, allowing women to exercise their freedom on equal measures with men.

Several provisions pinpoint that aspects of affirmative action have been embraced. For example, Article 81 further states that the rule specified should also be applicable in public institutions filled voting leaders. Equally, the constitution highlights the principle of equality states that every person is has equal rights before the law and has the right to equal protection (Constitution of Kenya, 2010). However, past research has revealed that numerous social demographic variances support the aims of affirmative action (Shteynberg, Leslie, Knight & Mayer, 2011; Mason *et al.*, 2014). For example, a study by Mason *et al.* (2014) asserts that these policies send a strong message of support of potential leaders. The study revealed that, it is important to introduce employee hiring and promotion policies to help remove prejudices against under-represented groups in society. Further, a recent study also found out that it is important to note that to increase the resourceful capabilities of managers, training opportunities ought to be harmonized with individual necessities (Caroff & Lubart, 2012). According to their study, upholding gender equality cannot only be about numbers but by providing those positive perceptions and conditions that enable them to succeed. However, according to a study of 87 female supervisors, Yukl (2013) it is not all about subjecting leaders to these policies and programmes. The study found out that an organization has to play its role in

ensuring that leaders are given the support and working conditions they need to carry out their role properly. Further, according to a study by Burgoyne (2010) leader development policies tend to be concerned with nurturing the softer skills of leadership. The study notes that this can be done through formal learning events and coaching. In an interesting study of Tajik women, the family was viewed as more vital than work. The study revealed that this was because they were brought up in a social system where the family is paramount (Igarashi & Kumo, 2016). Hence, women were not inspired to pursue educational as well as professional qualifications are requisites for ascending the leadership ladder. Interestingly according to a study by Barreto, Ryan and Schmitt (2010) of Scandinavian countries, women who pursued leadership positions are likely to fail. This was because they are threatened by indirect stereotyping and discrimination once they joined traditionally male-dominated fields. Interestingly, a study in Ethiopia revealed that participation of women in paid work has been increasing (Mengistu, 2012). This has brought unintended consequences in discharging their work and family demands in a reasonably balanced manner (Mengistu, 2012).

However, Omran *et al.* (2015) study showed that women leadership needs to learn how to fight against time limitations regardless of the nature of their nature of work. The study revealed that it was significant for women to pursue their potentials in all fields. In a study by Bae and Goodman (2014) of 158 public organizations in South Korea, it was revealed that family-friendly policies is positively associate with labor productivity in public organizations. This means that these policies enhance participation of women in leadership positions. This is supported by another study that revealed that based on job/work placements, the rate of women leaders who shift into senior management positions decreases as the position becomes more senior (Mitchel, 2012). According to this study, women hold between 3% and 5% of the top management posts. In another study carried out by Delina and Raya (2013) on the perceptions of 180 working married women of Pondicherry, India. It was found that the working married women experience difficulties in balancing work and individual roles. The findings also showed the significance placed work-life balance. According to Fitzgerald (2013) study also posit that it is well known that, family issues can interfere with work issues. According to Omran *et al.* (2015) study of Iran

organizations revealed the importance of coming up with systematic strategies and suitable plans. The study revealed that the plans would enable survival of women in society. Equally, in an African context, a study of Nigeria corporations revealed that there is a major problem that confines women in employment (Okonkwo, 2012). The study found out that that women who combine paid work activities with their domestic duties, including childcare are often faced with certain challenges (Okonkwo, 2012). Hence, the study suggests that as the women increase in government appointments, family-friendly policies should be availed to enhance a balance of work and personal life. According to this study, this means that these challenges can have an effect on women progression in leadership. This is because women are the primary family caregivers. According to Catalyst (2012) where organizations may not offer suitable workplace policies particularly for senior positions, women leadership performance may be affected. It is for this reason that this study sought to identify the effect of workplace policies on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

2.5.4 Role models and Leadership Performance

A role model is an individual whose behavior in a certain role is copied by others (Taylor, Taylor & Stoller, 2008). Role modeling is seen as one of the most appropriate approaches to acquire leadership abilities and competencies. Role models are looked up to and revered and provide concrete examples to follow. According to studies by some scholars, lack of role models was identified as one of the barriers of successful career of female leaders especially those in senior positions (Manzoor, 2015; Catalyst, 2012). Role modeling was differentiated from mentoring, as purely observational learning i.e. “Watching leaders’ actions” (Taylor, *et al.*, 2008).

Some of the reputable leaders labeled role-modeling as superior to mentoring in enhancing for their professional career growth (Taylor, *et al.*, 2008). Hence, according to these authors, mentoring varies from role modeling as it pre-supposes the intent to provide guidance and direction in various aspects of their professions. In agreement Naidoo (2014) asserts that lack of female role models is noted in a recent

research study as an inhibiting factor for growth of professional women in South Africa.

The study revealed that aids in their principal-ship role and also provides reference for those newly appointed. WIM (2014) study of women revealed that role models ought to reassure women to have confidence in their aptitudes. According to the study, aspiring women leaders required professional development role models to provide the challenge. In addition, Srivastava (2015); Bowers, Rosch and Collier (2015) studies revealed that aspiring women leaders can identify professional and experienced leaders. The study found out that this allows for nurturing and inculcation of new ideas to aspiring leaders. Researchers have advised that access to and involvement in networks are essential for women to progress in sport organizations (Bower, 2009; Bowers, Rosch & Collier, 2015). The studies revealed that these social networks can help address requisites for women leadership performance. This is supported by a study of female sports coaches which discovered that networking is paramount in enhancing women leadership performance (Lussier & Achua, 2013). The study revealed that social networking demonstrates to be an effective performance booster.

According to Social Cognitive theory, people learn other's attitudes, values, and beliefs and ultimately express their own. Bandura (2001) posits that this is known as social modelling. Further studies need to be conducted to establish the effect of these social networking models on their performance. It is against the backdrop of this knowledge gap that this study sought to determine the effect of role models on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

2.5.5 Organizational Culture

According to a study by Hofstede, Geert, Gert and Minkov (2010) culture is defined as the unrecorded rules of the social inclinations and the indoctrination of the mind that differentiates one category of people from others. Cultural values are in often replicated in actual behavioural patterns. Culture in an organization was found to include values, behavior, expectations, experiences, philosophy, self-image, inner

workings, attitudes, beliefs and custom (Onifade, 2014). According to these authors pursuing open dialogue on matters concerning organizational culture would provide inspiration to women in pursuing goals that align to their personal convictions. This study applied organizational culture as a moderator variable to the antecedents of women leadership performance. A moderator is a variable that stipulates situations under which a given predictor is associated to a consequence (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

The moderator clarifies the relationship between a dependent and independent variable. The study will also adopt organizational culture constructs formulated by Dennison Culture Model. The organizational culture model has four construct including: involvement culture, adaptability culture, consistency culture and mission culture. However, this study has adopted two dimensions of Dennison's organizational culture model; involvement culture and consistency culture. This is because they are more appropriate in this study. This is because according to Sofijanova and Zabijakin-Chatleska (2013) basic aspects of involvement are; employee contribution, empowerment and self-managed groups. In this case, leaders should strive to seek a culture that blends with new strategic demands. This is because culture itself may well need to change as strategy progresses.

Schmiedel, Brock, Vom and Recker (2014) study of women found that despite modifications, shared aims among the members of a cultural group are built on shared beliefs. These shared beliefs impact on the outcome of the individuals in a certain set up. Consequently, Gochhayat, Giri and Suar (2017) revealed that culture should be extensively mutual and practiced. According to the study, it offers collective and unified growth in individuals. Kenya Vision 2030, recognizes the need for more stakeholder involvement and more firm mechanism for the determination of effective priorities in performance. Involvement culture is also argued to help with the implementation of decisions within the organization since it provides for inclusion of everyone in the firm (Ahmadi, Salamzadeh, Darai & Akbari, 2012; Imam, Abbasi, Muneer & Qadri, 2013). These studies are consistent with Hsiao and Chang (2011) on the view that a leader focuses on creating a context favorable for employee involvement. For example, a study of Amman Stock

Exchange Industries in Jordan revealed a statistically noteworthy level of developing an organizational culture which resulted to team effectiveness (Judeh, 2011). Equally, Sofijanova and Zabijakin-Chatleska (2013) findings from their study suggest that organizations may also benefit from involving supervisors with prospective effective transformational leadership traits.

The study also found out that employee participation allows the organization benefit from better insights on the functionality of their organization. Halim, Ahmad, Ramayah and Hanifa (2014) study also revealed that involvement of individuals boost their capability development. Consequently, this is aimed at enhancing their leadership performance. According to Dennison (2000) model of organization culture, an adaptive organization is founded on a vibrant web of acquaintances who contribute in the consistent development of the organization. Stok, *et al.* (2010) study revealed that this is anchored on how knowledge management practices are associated with an organization's processes. Equally according to a study by Lillbacka (2010) female leaders are commonly described as encouraging, supporting and sharing power and information with others. These studies suggest that leadership is about influence on other people. A recent study revealed that this consistency in values and their contribution enhances leader performance (Gochhayat, *et al.*, 2017).

In addition, according Dennison (2000) consistency is where organizations have reliable sturdy cultures and are well coordinated and integrated work environments. According to their study, consistency refers to the shared values, efficient system and processes. Consistency is measured by three indices: basic values, contract, and synchronization and incorporation (Denison, Javonics, Young & Cho, 2006). This is because employees pick up these messages about expected behavior and adjust their own accordingly (Muzel, 2018). The study revealed that this trait is believed to be a prevailing source of permanency and integration that comes from general awareness and conformism (Ahmad, 2012; Halim *et al.*, 2014). This is culture with a dominant basis of constancy and internal integration that emerges from a shared approach and a higher level of conformism. This means that organizational culture influences leadership as much as leadership influences culture.

In an interesting study by Ayman and Korabit (2010) organizational cultures tend to be based on gender. The study revealed that assumptions on leadership is characteristically male-normed. These authors exclaim that such cultural outlooks and influence the opinions, actions and practices of those in leadership. There seems to be consensus from the authors that, culture displays a prominent role in organizations and provides a sense of identity of its members. Given the variety of organizational cultural barriers of an organization, individuals face numerous difficulties in their work environment. These experiences clearly influence women leadership ambitions and prospects for professional progression.

According to their study, Ibarra, Herminia, Ely and Kolb (2013) noted that it is significant to understand whether a person's sense of resolution is consistent with that of the organization. This can enhance an individual's opportunities for advancement. In their study, organization culture is a good moderator of performance as it examines the organization's informal culture in terms of refined actions, behaviors and values that may work against women (Catalyst, 2012). This can be done by identifying, changing and adopting the organizations' best practices that support professional women careers. It is against the backdrop of this knowledge gap that this study seeks to establish the moderating effect of organizational culture on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

2.5.6 Leadership Performance

According to Lahti (2013) women leadership has received great attention in scholarly work currently and this ignites the debate on why more female leaders are needed. Some studies have shown that CEOs who are of female gender accomplish better results in large, medium and as well as small sized companies (Vieito, 2012). For example, Mc Kinsey and Company (2009) study of women leaders revealed that companies who engage in diversity in leadership benefit from enhanced competitive advantage. However, a study by Vinnicombe (2010) of boards found that few women are appointed as executive board members due to prevailing stereotypical perceptions. Equally, Manzoor (2015) study in Pakistan revealed that females are more than half the country's population. However, only 20 percent of them are part

of the country's working force. This is due to cultural stereotypes and other societal affiliations. This study revealed that females are capable of working but face certain inevitable hurdles. An interesting study by Alhuzeim (2015) of how Saudi Arabian Society can invest in this untapped human energy resource was conducted.

The study revealed that the Saudi women can be portrayed as, the oil that has not yet been discovered. The women should therefore be allowed to participate in decision making in organizations. This is because it is important to understand that efficiency and effectiveness is a paramount outcome expected of leaders. A study in Fiji focusing on public perceptions of women in leadership, revealed that increased women participation in leadership enhances their decision making (International Women's Development Agency, 2014). Equally, a study of 1,500 public U.S companies found that female CEOs have the ability to perform the tasks of a top executive effectively (Vieito, 2012). The study also revealed that exposure to leadership enables women leaders to enhance their performance.

Further, a study by Liu (2013) in China, revealed that 69% of women are finance managers, 37% manage sales, and 23% are CEOs. The study also found out that placing women in these customarily gendered positions is a reflection of China's acknowledgment of women's proficiency. This is why Daft, Kendrick and Vershinina (2010) study revealed that leadership is viewed as a tool or a process of inspiring others to pursue their goals. In a study by McKinsey and Company (2009) 115,000 employees from 231 public and private companies concluded that women are more effective in leadership. In a recent study of women supervisors, it was revealed that woman leaders are responsible of the outcomes (Chawla & Pandit, 2018). The study found out that their efforts influence the society positively and their performance contributes to long term positive changes. These authors seem to suggest that reaching the goals of the organization are most important regardless of gender. For example, it was revealed that leaders be more proactive as they are evaluated by their actions (Daft *et al.*, (2010). According to this study. In an interesting study by Omran *et al.* (2015) female leaders are compelled to provide higher levels of performance in their work. They are required to have the best performance because their performance receives particular attention. It is against the

backdrop of this knowledge that this study aims at determining the antecedents of women leadership performance.

2.6 Critique of the Existing Literature Relevant to the Study

A review of literature highlighting antecedents of women leadership performance has also attracted some critique. In regard to perceptions, Talouselama (2013) revealed that more than 70 per cent of females asserted their performance is lessened due to that traditional gender values and viewpoints about them. Equally, Rahkomen (2013) revealed that gender is irrelevant and that an individual has to shape their leadership style by their own views, visions and personality. According to this study, performance of a leader is not based on their gender. Further, even in situations where women manifest similar behaviors like men they may still be viewed different (Cuadrado, Navas & Molero *et al.*, 2012). In agreement Sperandio (2011) studies in Bangladesh revealed that such stereotypes discourage women advancing in their careers.

In an interesting study, Collins and Cooke (2013) asserts that a person's competency skills and knowledge depends on an individual's capability in regard to performance. The study revealed that the success of women leaders is based on their creativity and innovativeness. According to their findings, these aspects enable them to be open to change hence boost their performance. Interestingly, these authors seem to agree that affirmative action reduces the self-confidence and self-respect of women. As one may not understand their superior abilities or it was simply due to the need to fulfill the requirements of the policy. This becomes detrimental to the efforts of women leaders, as little effort is made to cushion them at their workplaces.

In consistent, because of society's perceptions about women's nature, they are not seen as good leaders despite their distinguished characteristics (Gonzalez, 2010). Germain-Driscoll (2014) suggested having or creating support systems within their own lives to help them be successful. Hence, the study revealed that work policies may not hinder leadership performance in all individuals. According to Northouse (2010) women leaders attempted to reduce their performance at work or opt out of

leadership positions in an effort to balance their lives. This is because, according to Rudman and Phelan (2010) work-life balance programs enhance employee performance.

Bowers, Rosch and Collier (2015) study of youth revealed that role models did not display attributes characteristic of effective leaders, hence could not be imitated. This was an interesting finding as people emulate what other do and hence enhance their performance. However, according to Delina and Raya (2013) the need for professional models alone cannot be the answer to addressing the imbalance of women leaders in upper echelons. This means that there is need for further research to merit such generalizations. Further, a study by Siegel and Kodama (2011) concluded that companies that appoint female managers for longer periods fail to benefit from significant competitive advantage. This means that women have no significant role in their leadership positions due to pre-determined factors.

Equally, according to Judeh (2011) where leadership was concerned, there were no significance differences in employee involvement based on gender. This study showed that, it was not all about gender in enhancement of leadership performance. However, these studies fail to show the actual requites required of women to enable them perform their duties well. These studies show that leadership is the perceived outcomes of an individual and is not based on gender.

2.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed and analyzed the theoretical foundations and their components regarding women leadership, various constructs of organizational effectiveness and the relationship between these essentials. Theoretical framework of the study was highlighted and included four theories. The researcher examined the review of literature which led to suggestions that there are indeed antecedents of the women leadership performance in corporations.

2.8 Research Gaps

Although, past studies by numerous researchers have argued for and against the effect of women leadership performance but more research is required. This study examined the antecedents of women leadership performance based on perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. Therefore other variables may not be included in the study. Hence other researchers should consider carrying out a similar study based on other antecedents of women leadership against different environments like the male dominated environments Overall these findings would help understand the influence of the strategies put in place to enhance leadership performance.

Both quantitative and qualitative methods could also be employed in attaining measures that are more consistent with organizational culture and women leadership performance. On the other hand, other studies should also employ other moderating variables to women leadership performance. Further, this study was conducted in public corporations thus research may be done in other sectors to authenticate the findings of this study. This would provide more input on the actual requisites that enhance women leadership performance. For example, further studies can be conducted on private corporations as well as family enterprises. A larger sample of the target population can also be considered so as to authenticate the research findings and enhance more generalizations.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an all-inclusive methodology used in conducting the research study. Further, methodology was used to obtain, process the data, define the study variables and provide answers to the research questions and test the proposed hypothesis. The chapter gives the study design, target population, sampling frame, sampling techniques and sample size. It also gives the data collection instrument and procedure. The statistical models were applied to investigate the antecedents of women leadership performance. This chapter ends with data analysis and presentation.

3.2 Research Design

Babbie (2012) states that research design refers to a blueprint or the way in which a study is structured to conduct it successfully. Similarly, Cooper and Schindler (2006) asserts that, research design has five key essentials; an action and time bound design, a plan founded on the research question, a guide for choosing sources and types of data. Descriptive research is an appropriate choice when the research aim is to identify characteristics, frequencies, trends, and categories. It is useful when not much is known yet about the topic or problem. Before you can research why something happens, you need to understand how, when and where it happens (Creswell, 2013). This study is based on deductive approach which is affiliated to positivism philosophy which emphasizes on theory setting (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). This study selected a descriptive research design which applied quantitative approach.

According to Creswell (2013) descriptive design is suitable as a set of variables are measured in their natural setting. This design enabled quantitative data to be collected and was explored through descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive research design involves determining the specific characteristics of a phenomenon

existing within a population and providing a broad depiction of the research topic. According to Babbie (2010) the quantitative approach uses objective data, rigorous measurement and statistical techniques of analysis. This approach facilitates generalization of the outcome of the expected results to a large population for easier processing. This approach is suitable for examining the relationships linking numerous studies (Creswell, 2014) by collecting data involving descriptions, perceptions and other attributes. This is because according to Mugenda (2008) quantifiable approach also referred to as the scientific technique has been conventionally used as the traditional style of research. This type of approach was suitable for this study as it helped identify the antecedents of women leadership performance parastatals in Kenya.

3.2.1 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy is acceptance about information of a situation and how it should be collected, evaluated and applied (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). This study adopted positivism philosophy. This philosophy was suitable for this study as it emphasizes genuine, actual and realistic actions which are studied, observed empirically and analyzed (Aliyu, Umar, Kasim & Martin, 2014). The positivist philosophy is associated with impartial accuracy in evaluating results. Expectations were based on previously observed and clarified realisms and how they are related. Using this philosophical approach it was possible to transform believes and assumptions into a reality. This was to establish the antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

3.3 Target Population

Target population is the whole number of units from which samples are selected for measurement and a full set elements that provides the sample of the study (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). The target population of this study was 147 parastatals in Kenya as shown in Appendix II. The selection of these corporations was based on opinions given by R.O.K. (2009). The report shows that Kenya Vision 2030 has earmarked the parastatals for rapid growth and development. The researcher also wanted to use

parastatals as the target population as they play a key role in economic growth (R. O. K., 2009). The study targeted all the women managers of the parastatals in Kenya. This was because according to Metz and Simon (2010) only a very small proportion of women advance to senior management positions. Hence, women leaders in parastatals would provide a good basis for determining the antecedents of women leadership performance. The unit of analysis for this study is seen in two facets: One is the view on the antecedents of women leaders which was the independent variables of the study based on perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. Secondly, unit of analysis is the women leadership performance which is the dependent variable of the study where analysis is centered on efficiency and effectiveness and customer satisfaction key indicators. Further, organization culture was the moderating variable for the study and it was measured by involvement culture and consistency culture.

The unit of observation was the level at which data was collected from women leaders who worked in parastatals. This data was used for gauging performance of the women leaders. Another component of the unit of observation was the women leaders who were from both the senior management and other lower cadre line managers. The study narrowed on female top management and line managers because they are often engaged in routine managerial activities of the organization. On the other hand, women leaders in these categories were in a position to provide a wider view of precursors of women leadership performance.

The women leaders were in a position to understand the antecedents of perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models in the course of performing their duties. Parastatals have great potential of boosting performance in all sectors by improving general competitiveness in a developing country like Kenya and hence increasing national revenue Njiru (2013). Therefore, the performance of women leaders in these corporations was a significant aspect. Notwithstanding, the parastatals have formal procedures and systems of operations, hence it was be much easier and convenient to access information from these corporations.

3.4 Sampling Frame

Sampling is an action, method, or procedure of choosing a sample from a target population (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). According to Cooper and Schindler (2006) a sampling frame represents a list of elements where the sample is drawn. The sampling frame for this study consisted of 147 parastatals in Kenya. It was obtained from the Government official website (*Source: www.ombudsman.co.ke*) as shown in Appendix II.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

Saunders *et al.* (2012) posit that a sample is a set of participants selected to represent a population. Sampling authorizes an investigator to gather data from fewer elements that represent the general population. This is why Saunders *et al.* (2012) asserts that this sampling offers adequate time to collect data from selected respondents. Sample size is a vital aspect of any empirical study in order to make suggestions from a sample of a population. Punch (2013) defines sample size, as the number of sample units selected from the entire population to participate in the research exercise. According to Babbie (2012) there was sufficient probability of the respondents to be selected. There are a total of 147 parastatals, this population is fairly large since the researcher targets both female top management and female line managers of the parastatals. However, this would not be possible because of the diverse nature of different corporations. In addition, there was limitation of time, costs and respondent availability. The sample size therefore, was directly relative to the desired confidence level. It was also equally comparative to the error that the researcher is prepared to accept. A formula was used to define the sample size. Yamane (1967) offers a basic formula to compute sample sizes as cited by Adekola, Allen and Tinuola (2017). This formula gives a 95% confidence level as shown below:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where n is the sample size, N is the population size, and e is the level of precision (in this case $e=.05$). There are 147 government parastatals in Kenya, thus applying the formula; a sample of one hundred and seven (107) parastatals was used.

$$n = \frac{147}{1 + 147(.05)^2} = 107$$

Through simple random sampling method, the actual parastatals were identified. Two women leaders from each of the sampled parastatals, comprised the study sample. Thus a total of 107 parastatals were involved in the study concerning antecedents of women leadership performance. Two women leaders were picked by convenience sampling to participate in the study. The researcher will approach the respondents at their places of work and issued them with research consent letters. Only the women leaders who will be available during the data collection week will participate in the study. The women respondents from each firm were arrived at on the basis that they provided a fairly large sample ($n=214$). The women leaders were of different management levels hence they provided a richer blend of views and information regarding leadership antecedents in the parastatals for generalization. Convenience sampling is non-probability sampling method which depends on data collected from respondents who are accessible to take part in a study (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). There is no entry behavior recognized preceding the selection of the individual participants. In addition, convenience sampling was adopted for this study as it was centered on the assumption that typical managers (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2008). This was because managers have strict schedules due to unpredictable work schedules.

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

Data collection involves the procedure of collecting data of variables of the study. It is technique that helps one answer hypothetical questions, test assumptions, and evaluate results (Kothari & Garg 2014). Data collection was classified in both primary and secondary data.

3.6.1 Primary Data

Primary data is data collected afresh and is original in nature (Kothari, 2009) specifically for the function of a particular research study. This means that the primary data was exclusively customized for the current study. The study adopted self-administered questionnaires to collect original data from women leaders concerning antecedents of women leadership as shown on Appendix 1. According to Kothari and Garg (2014) a questionnaire is a research instrument involving a series of pre-prepared questions in a certain order on a sheet or set of sheets.

Self-administered questionnaires was applicable for this study as it enhances privacy and enables trustworthiness of responses (Mugenda, 2008). All items on the questionnaire were rated using a 5- point scale extending from 1 - strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree. This method is convenient for this study as it comprises of scales which comprise of responses formulated to measure participants' judgments, feelings or expressions, opinions and attitudes of respondents (Babbie (2012). The questionnaire used closed-ended questions which were most suitable for the study. The questions were grounded on four independent variables, a moderating variable and dependent variable. Questions were phrased on active voice basis as this enhances clear understanding of the information (Creswell, 2013). Leading statements, generalizations and ambiguous expressions were also avoided. The front page included the introduction letter of the researcher to the respondents and basic guidelines. The questionnaire was itemized in six sections where the first cohort sought to find personal information from respondents. The other sections were centered on the independent, dependent and moderating variable. The questionnaire mainly focused on the respondents' views on antecedents of women leadership performance. The questionnaire had a pleasant background design. It was presented in a pamphlet for an added professional look to facilitate easy and convenience reading and writing.

3.6.2 Secondary Data

Secondary data is data that was previously collected, analyzed and recorded by someone else and gone through the statistical process (Kothari & Gard, 2014). This study used secondary data to complement and validate the data collected. More emphasis was placed on library (external sources) and the internet because they are key sources of secondary data where fewer applications are utilized (Babbie, 2012). In addition, this study specifically collected literature from government publications, the Kenya Gazette, company newsletters, previous studies and the unpublished theses and reports.

3.7. Data Collection Procedure

Two months prior to the data collection period, the researcher was issued with an authorization letter from the National Commission of Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) as shown on Appendix VI. This was for the purpose of the conducting a study in the sampled parastatals as shown on Appendix III. The researcher also sought permission from the management of each of the Parastatals to collect data within their premises. This was done via email. Thereafter, the researcher received a list of all women leaders from the sampled Parastatals. The sample frame was of women leaders from the top management and line managers' cadres. This helped contact, identify and trace the respondents to take part in the study. A notification letter was issued to the corporations one week preceding the actual data collection period. On the data collection week, the researcher visited the parastatals under study to issue questionnaires to the respondents. The researcher and the research assistants issued questionnaires in Nairobi City then proceeded to Kisumu City and ended with Mombasa City. The parastatals' offices were all based within the cities. Hence, it was convenient to trace them. This was done on the one-week data collection period between Monday and Friday during working hours only (8.00a.m to 5.00p.m). Participants were briefed on how to go about in giving their feedback. An introduction letter giving details about the research study was also issued to the respondents. Two questionnaires were issued to two women leaders from each of the sampled 107 parastatals.

The researcher administered questionnaires by hand to the respondents who were present to give their opinions. The researcher approached the respondents in their offices or during their meeting breaks to fill the questionnaires. The researcher anticipated that the sampled 107 Parastatals may not have any women leaders, however, during the data collection exercise this was not a major concern as all Parastatals had at least two women leaders who participated in the study. Some respondents filled the questionnaires on-the-spot and handed them back to the researcher. However, some other respondents were engaged in office work. Hence they provided the researcher with a particular day and date on when to collect the questionnaires. This helped the respondents to get adequate time to fill the questionnaire as required. It also mitigated against missing data.

Saunders *et al.* (2012) posit that there are numerous methods of distributing and gathering questionnaires. For example, internet mediated, postal survey, telephone questionnaire and drop-and-pick questionnaire. However, respondents who were away from their work stations for long periods of time were contacted via telephone. This means that a few respondents were issued with electronic questionnaires. According to Babbie (2010) electronic questionnaires were suitable for this study as they helped the researcher obtain data. This is because it would have been difficult to obtain the same information face to face. Further, for the response rate to be enhanced, the respondents were sent reminder letters three days before the questionnaires were issued. The researcher settled on three days so that the respondents do not get so busy. This would also help them not forget about the crucial research exercise or misplace the questionnaire altogether. According Minichilli, Zattoni and Zona (2009) reminder letters have proved to enhance the response rate, as noted by study of Italian boards. Their study achieved a seventy per cent response rate. Data collection period took a period of two weeks from 20th July, 2018 to 30th July, 2018 working days. Upon collection of all questionnaires, they were collected, coded and filed to facilitate further processing.

3.8 Pilot Study

A pilot-study was done two weeks prior to the actual study. Pilot testing of the questionnaire is essential prior to using them to collect data (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). An exploratory design study was carried out. This exploration study was beneficial in formulating objectives concepts, setting up priorities, formulating operational terms and refining the final study design. Exploratory research was appropriate for the pilot study because important variables may not be clear or precisely defined and assists a researcher understand the practicability of the study (Shields, Patricia & Rangarjan, 2013; Babbie, 2010).

The rule of the thumb that 10% of the respondents is often used for a pilot study was applied as recommended by (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). Ten per cent of the sampled 107 Parastatals is eleven and were issued for pilot study. However, only seven respondents from sampled parastatals returned questionnaires on time for analysis. As part of the pretesting procedure, the researcher also issued a questionnaire to one superior scholarly academia with broad understanding in survey study. This was to give significant appraisal of the content validity of each item of the questionnaire. The scholar was identified by convenience sampling and was a Senior Lecturer at Technical University of Mombasa where the researcher is based. Hence, a total of eight (8) questionnaires were analyzed for pilot analysis report. The participants of the pilot survey were picked through convenience sampling. These respondents did not participate in the final study.

3.8.1 Pilot Analysis Report

The purpose of this pilot survey was to get direct feedback from respondents about the structure of the questionnaire. In particular, the researcher was interested in acquiring information about the difficulty of the questions, length, content and flow of questions. Finally, is to identify potential practical problems in following the research procedure and response rate. The overriding aim of the piloting is to develop and test adequacy of the research instrument. Data collected was fed into the SPSS

software for analysis. The mean and frequencies of each item was used to explore the data for decision making whether to modify the question or not.

The items had a total of 47 items, of which 5 were on demographic characteristics of the respondents. The other remaining 46 items were on the main study variables. Most of the main items were on a Likert scale questions and were positively worded. A total of 11 questionnaires were sent out to the women leaders. The questionnaires were delivered by the researcher and informed the respondents that the questionnaires will be collected after two days. The researcher was able to collect eight (8) questionnaires in a period of two days. This is a 72% return rate. This is an indicator that majority of the women leaders were generally able to respond to most questions.

In the pilot analysis, most of the closed ended questionnaire items were retained without modification. However, all open ended items were expunged. Making the questions clear is makes it easy to complete and therefore the time taken to complete it reduced. The questions that seemed difficulty to the responds were rephrased a new to capture the concepts that was intended to be captured. The structure of the final survey instrument remained basically the same comprising of closed and open ended items. The final questionnaire was improved in spacing and general appearance. Finally grammatical errors were collected in the final questionnaire

3.8.2 Reliability of the Questionnaire

Saunders *et al.* (2012) defines reliability as the consistency of a research study of measuring test. It has to do with the precision and accuracy of a measurement technique. Reliability has the capability to produce consistent and reliable results at different periods and under different circumstances (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). In this context, reliability test helped measure whether different test items were able to give similar outcomes. An instrument is considered to be reliable or consistent when its items are standardized or homogeneous. Proper measures were put in place to ensure the data collection exercise was credible and acceptable. The researcher sort to give enough time for the respondents to provide the appropriate responses. Reminders

were also given to the respondents to clarify on the importance of filling the questionnaires in-person and honestly. Questionnaires were also printed in higher quality paper that assured formality and authenticity of the set items.

The internal consistency and reliability for the questionnaire formulated and piloted was tested with Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Cronbach (1975) defines Cronbach's Alpha as a measure of consistency, or internal reliability, of a set of test items. This means that the reliability of a tool is considered as the degree of its dependability. Cronbach's alpha test therefore, assesses the significance of that consistency. Cronbach Alpha is calculated by linking the total for all items on the scale (of the independent and dependent variables) with the total score for each opinion(Cho & Kim, 2015). It is then equated with the variance for all item scores and presented. Cronbach's Alpha ranges from 0 to 1 and lower than 0.6 value is insufficient (Kothari, 2009).

The values obtained from Cronbach alpha for all the variables was greater than 0.6. This study generated the following Cronbach's alpha statistics: perceptions was 0.795, competency skills 0.679, workplace policies 0.663, role models 0.628, organizational culture 0.916 and leadership performance 0.719. All constructs had an average Cronbach alpha coefficient value of 0.6 on all the study variables. According to Kothari (2009) the Cronbach alpha coefficient value of a minimum of 0.6 is considered acceptable. In addition, Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin (2010) posit that the scales are deemed to be reliable where the Cronbach alpha coefficient value is greater than 0.5. The Cronbach's alpha is obtained by the formula below.

$$\alpha = \frac{N \cdot \bar{c}}{\bar{v} + (N - 1) \cdot \bar{c}}$$

Where; N = the number of items, \bar{v} = average variance, \bar{c} = average covariance between item-pairs. Cronbach Alpha describes the universally acceptable rule of the thumb for formulating internal consistency as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Cronbach alpha(1975)

Cronbach's alpha	Internal consistency - Cronbach's alpha
$\alpha > 0.9$	Excellent (high stakes
$0.7 \leq \alpha < 0.9$	Testing good (low stake testing
$0.6 \leq \alpha < 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.5 \leq \alpha < 0.6$	Poor
$\alpha \leq 0.5$	Unacceptable

3.8.2 Validity of the Questionnaire

This study was done on a natural background hence it improved and enhanced external validity. According to Kothari (2009) validity is the degree to which dissimilarity found in a measuring tool replicates accurate variance among other variables being tested. Punch (2013) asserts that for a study to have external validity, it should possess similar characteristics of the population. The study had no selection biases hence the questionnaire was projected to be a valid instrument for the study. The respondents of the study were all employees of parastatals in Kenya.

3.9 Data Analysis and Presentation

Data analysis involves comprehending and interpreting with the purpose of establishing reliable patterns and summarizing significant facts discovered in the study (Zikmund, *et al.*, 2010). Saunders *et al.* (2012) note that raw quantitative data becomes visible and worthy when processing, analyzing, and interpretation of data has been conducted. This means that the reason for data analysis is to test hypothesis and provide appropriate responses to hypothetical statements. Data will be analyzed by both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics are useful for describing the basic features of data, for example, the summary statistics for the scale variables and measures of the data. In a research study with large data, these statistics may help us to manage the data and present it in a summary table. Inferential statistics will use the mean to describe the sample with a single value that represents the center of the data. Many statistical analyses use the mean as a standard measure of the center of the distribution of the data. The median and the mean both

measure central tendency. The following sections provided other features of data analysis for this study.

3.9.1 Measurement of the Variables

a) Measures of Independent Variables

Quantitative research was considered measurement of the variables as one of its critical aspects which was characterized by measurement of four variables of the study namely. These variables were perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. Questionnaire items were based on the constructs of the variables as shown on Figure 2.1. Quantitative approach used questionnaires as its main data collection tool. This study applied a five - point Likert to be used for each of the statements corresponding to the constructs of women leadership variable. This is considered as ordinal scale of measurement which is analyzed using the mean and frequencies. Likert (1932) developed scales with different variation that the respondent can choose from. The five-step Likert-type response format ranging from 1 strongly agree to 5 strongly is recommended by Babbie (2012) as shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Likert Scale Response Items (Babbie, 2012)

5	4	3	2	1
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Table 3.2 shows that the Likert scale response items run from left to right. According to Likert-scale is beneficial for measurement of attitudes and perceptions Likert (1932) and a 5 - 7 Likert scale options are more generally used (Creswell, 2013).

b) Measures of Moderating Variable

The moderating variable for this study was organizational culture and it was measured by involvement culture and consistency culture. 5-7 Likert scale options were used. No single organizational culture measuring tool is applicable. Therefore, this study adopted some items from the Organization Culture Assessment Instrument

(OCAI) advanced by Cameron and Quinn (2011). However, not all items of this assessment tool was suitable for the study. Therefore, only six items were valid. According to Jun, Scott, Bower, Whalley, McNally and Mannion (2007) the OCAI tool is suitable for self-evaluation and there was not user restriction on use of this tool.

c) Measures of Dependent Variable

The dependent variable of the study was women leadership performance. It has two constructs namely; efficiency and effectiveness and customer satisfaction. Effectiveness and efficiency -- are exclusive performance measures, which entities can use to assess their performance. Efficiency is oriented towards successful input transformation into outputs, where effectiveness measures how outputs interact with the economic and social environment. Customer satisfaction surveys would provide data for the analysis. The customer satisfaction survey is the standard approach for collecting data on customer happiness. To measure leadership performance, the study adopted some items from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-Form 5X) by Bass and Avolio (2004). This is significant for this study because a study carried out on Finnish nurses in 2002 revealed that the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is a suitable instrument to measure multidimensional aspects of leadership. Four items were adopted from this instrument. Creswel (2013) instrument, designed to understand the participant's perception of their leadership competency. Two items were used from this instrument. This study also adopted the 5 - 7 Likert scale options which are more generally used.

3.9.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis

This study adopted factor analysis which is a method for modeling observed variables and their covariance structure in terms of unobserved variables (i.e., factors) (Cresswel, 2013). There are two types of factor analyses, exploratory and confirmatory. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is method to explore the underlying structure of a set of observed variables, and is a crucial step in the scale development

process. Common factor analysis models can be estimated using various estimation methods such as principal axis factoring and maximum likelihood. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a statistical technique used to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables (Punch, 2013). Other softwares were also used but gave similar results for example, SMARTPLS and IBM AMOS V. 23.

Further, the study also used Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test which is a measure of how suited your data is for Factor Analysis (Punch, 2013). The test measures sampling adequacy for each variable in the model and for the complete model. The statistic is a measure of the proportion of variance among variables that might be common variance (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The lower the proportion, the more suited your data is to Factor Analysis. KMO returns values between 0 and 1. A rule of thumb for interpreting the statistic and KMO values between 0.8 and 1 indicate the sampling is adequate. Bartlett's test for homogeneity of variances is used to test that variances are equal for all samples. It checks that the assumption of equal variances is true before running certain statistical tests like the One-Way ANOVA. It's used when you're fairly certain your data comes from a normal distribution.

3.9.3 Multiple Linear Regression Model

This study adopted multiple regression model as a reference for multivariate analysis. Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010) posit that multiple regression analysis is a statistical procedure that analyzes correlation between a dependent variable and several independent variables (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Multiple regression analysis is aimed to determine the strength and direction of variables and their effect. It is also used to analyze the correlation between a single dependent variable and several independent variables. Assumptions of multiple regression analysis were also conducted. Multiple regression analysis explained the degree of the relationship between antecedents (independent variables) and leadership performance (dependent variable). The statistical model of the study is a multiple linear regression model. The general form of the model is $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + e$.

The regression coefficients β_0 , β_1 , β_2 , β_3 , and β_4 are of the respective independent variables (X_1 , X_2 , X_3 , and X_4). The coefficient values are estimated by Ordinary Least Square (OLS) techniques. In order to determine whether the coefficients statistically are not equivalent to zero and thus reject the null hypotheses, the respective p-values were used. The significant level is set at 0.05 level of significance. The study hypothesized that organizational culture could be a moderator (M). As such hierarchical model was adopted to test for moderation. To achieve this moderation test objective, the study adopted the technique proposed by Aquinis and Gottfredson (2010) which involves two steps.

The first procedure of the technique is to fit an ordinary least squares (OLS) regression model predicting Y from the first order effects of independent variables (X_i , $i=(1, 2, 3, 4)$) and M observed values thus obtaining model 1 as shown:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 M + e \text{-----model 1}$$

This study used SPSS to test regression model and find out how well it will be suitable for data analysis. The significance of the independent variables was equally tested. Fischer description test also describes as the F-test was applied. The test denotes the measure between the model mean square divided by the error mean square. To test the significance level of the overall model, F-test was also used at a 5 per cent confidence level. The p-value of the F-statistic helped define the strength of the model. It was concluded that where null hypothesis of the beta was rejected, the overall model was deemed to be significant. In other words, the model was found to be significant where the p-value was less than 0.05 and that the results were good predictors of the dependent variable as they were not coincidental or centered on chance. Equally the t-test statistic tested the significance of every single predictor and hypothesis. The p-value for the F-statistic was useful in establishing the fitness of the model. The gauge for this study for failure to reject or failure to accept the null hypothesis was a level of significance of 5 per cent. Equally, if the p-value was larger than 5 per cent the null hypothesis failed to be rejected and the alternate hypothesis failed to be accepted.

Reject $H_0: \beta_x = 0$; if $p < 0.05$,

Otherwise fail to reject the $H_0: \beta_x = 0$

3.9.4 Moderated Multiple Regression Model

Moderated multiple regression were used to determine the approximate association effect and test the moderating effect of organizational culture on antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Test for Significance of Regression the test for significance of regression in the case of multiple linear regression analysis is carried out using the analysis of variance. The test is used to check if a linear statistical relationship exists between the response variable and at least one of the predictor variables. It was significant to fit a regression model with an interaction effect (the product of X and M values) included in the previous model 1 to obtain model 2. The R-square changed from the SPSS software output is then checked if it is statistically significant or not to reject H_{05} .

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_1 M + \beta_6 X_2 M + \beta_7 X_3 M + \beta_8 X_4 M + e \dots \text{model 2}$$

Y = leadership performance

β_0 = a regression constant or intercept

β_i = is the coefficient for $X_i = 1, 2, 3, 4$

X_1 = Perceptions

X_2 = Competency Skills

X_3 = Role models

X_4 = Workplace Policies

M = Organizational Culture (Moderator)

$X_i * M$ = Product term/interaction term of organization culture with each of the independent variables

e = represent error term reflecting other factors that influence the dependent variable (women leadership performance).

Tests on the constant moderator effects were conducted. Further, tests were done on the overall association of independent variables to identify their moderating effect. The moderated multiple regression was carried out to estimate the effect of a moderator variable, on the independent variable and the dependent variable.

3.9.5 Variable Definition and Measurement

This study used the likert scale for item analysis to establish the effect of antecedents of women on leadership performance. The assessment was done using the 5-point scale on the questionnaire and it was easy to use in respondent studies (Likert, 1932). The information is as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Variable Definition and Measurement

Variable	Scale	Indicators	Measurement
Perceptions		1. Gender stereotypes 2. Cultural norms	5 - point Likert Scale
Competency skills		1. Conceptual Skills 2. Professional knowledge skills	5 - point Likert Scale
Workplace policies		1. Affirmative-action policies 2. Family-friendly policies	5 - point Likert Scale
Role Models		1. Professional development models 2. Social networking models	5 - point Likert Scale
Organizational culture		1. Involvement culture 2. Consistency culture	5 - point Likert Scale
Leadership performance		1. Efficiency and effectiveness 2. Customer satisfaction	5 - point Likert Scale

3.9.6 Hypotheses Testing

The study was based on the assumption that antecedents of women had effect on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Five key hypotheses were presented and tested at 95 per cent confidence level (level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$). This p-value was applied to test the significance of each independent variable on the dependent variable.

This was done to test the hypotheses, where the p-value calculated is less than 0.05, we fail to reject the stated null hypothesis that the variable was significant. The summary is as shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Study Hypotheses and Analytical Models

Hypothesis	Hypothesis Test	Interpretation of the Decision Rule and Anticipated Model
H ₀₁ : Perceptions have no significant effect on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya	Karl-Pearson Coefficient of correlation; F-test (ANOVA)	Reject H ₀₁ if p-value ≤ .05, otherwise, fail to reject if p-value > .05. Analytical Model: $Y = a + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + e$, where, a=constant, β_1 and β_2 = correlation coefficient; X ₁ = gender stereotypes, X ₂ = cultural norms; e = error term
H ₀₂ : Competency skills have no significant effect on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya	Karl-Pearson Coefficient of correlation; F-test (ANOVA)	Reject H ₀₂ if p-value ≤ .05, otherwise, fail to reject if p-value > .05. Analytical Model: $Y = a + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + e$, where, a=constant, β_1 and β_2 = correlation coefficient; X ₁ = conceptual skills, X ₂ = professional knowledge skills; e = error term
H ₀₃ : Workplace policies have no significant effect on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya	Karl-Pearson Coefficient of correlation; F-test (ANOVA)	Reject H ₀₃ if p-value ≤ .05, otherwise, fail to reject if p-value > .05. Analytical Model: $Y = a + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + e$, where, a=constant, β_1 and β_2 = correlation coefficient; X ₁ = affirmative-action policies, X ₂ = family-friendly policies e = error term
H ₀₄ : Role models have no significant effect on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya	Karl-Pearson Coefficient of correlation; F-test (ANOVA)	Reject H ₀₄ if p-value ≤ .05, otherwise, fail to reject if p-value > .05. Analytical Model: $Y = a + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + e$, where, a=constant, β_1 and β_2 = correlation coefficient; X ₁ = professional development models, X ₂ = social networking models; e = error term
H ₀₅ : Organizational culture have no significant moderating effect on antecedents of women and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya	Karl-Pearson Coefficient of correlation; F-test (ANOVA)	Reject H ₀₅ if p-value ≤ .05, otherwise, fail to reject if p-value > .05. Analytical Model: $Y = a + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + e$, where, a=constant, β_1 and β_2 = correlation coefficient; X ₁ = involvement culture, X ₂ = consistency culture; e = error term.

3.9.7 Data Normality Tests

Data screening was done to identify any misplaced values or glaring errors that needed to be modified. The variables of the study were tested for normality before any statistical analysis was done. The assumption was that the variables had a normal distribution. Ali, Namusonge and Sakwa (2016) revealed that the suitability of the tests assumptions and use of statistical instruments were significant for statistical analysis. Stakeholder confidence is enhanced when data is verified and provides reliable analyses for formulation of policy. Therefore, to test for normality, Skewness

and Kurtosis test, Auto correlation test and One-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were conducted.

According to Babatunde, Kughur, Ogunmola and Oguntunde (2014) skewness is the degree where a dissemination of values diverges from symmetry round the mean. It tested normality of the data. A zero value showed that the distribution was symmetric. On the other hand, a positive skewness indicates a large number of smaller values and a negative value shows a bigger number of larger values. A kurtosis value close to zero showed the type of data was near to normal. A negative value shows that the distribution was much flatter than normal. In addition, a positive kurtosis shows a shape peaked than normal. According to Creswell (2008) Kurtosis and skewness values of +/-2 are sufficient for statistical analysis.

3.9.8 Multicollinearity Test

This study also tested for multicollinearity by use of the Variable Inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance statistics. According to Wooldridge (2011) multicollinearity happens when VIF is larger than 10 and tolerance is less than 0.1. This means that multicollinearity occurs when a greater degree of relationship exists between independent variables hence altering the outcomes of the study models. Where multicollinearity exists, it can be corrected by removing a highly correlated variable(s). This study corrected the problem by making sure that larger sample was used. This is because multicollinearity does not exist in large samples (Wooldridge, 2011).

3.9.9 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Test

The study used Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to determine if the entire model was fit for the data. According to Creswell (2013) ANOVA is a technique that provides information about the levels of inconsistency within a regression model and test of significance can be established. Assumption is tested by means of comparing two different estimates of the population differences. According to Walliman and Walliman (2011) the ANOVA test determines the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable in a regression model.

3.9.10 Correlation Analysis

Correlation is a technique concerned with the association between variables. The aim of this analysis was to identify the degree of which the two sets of variables are related. Pearson's correlation coefficient test was done to measure the statistical relationship between two variables. The test provides information on the extent of the correlation, or correlation and the extent of the relationship. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) it is a good method of assessing the relationship between particular variables since it is founded on the method of covariance. Choudhury (2009) rule of thumb recommends that it can be used in determining the strength of the correlation. The results are shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3. 5: Guidelines for Strength of Relationship

Value of r	Strength of the Relationship
-1 to -0.5 or 1.0 to 0.5	Strong
-0.5 to -0.3 or 0.3 to 0.5	Moderate
-0.3 to -0.1 or 0.1 to 0.3	Weak

Source, Choudhury (2009)

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the study findings, discussion and analysis based on the objectives of the study. The chapter gives the response rate, reliability and validity of the study tests. It also presents results of the background information of respondents and descriptive analysis. It further gives a review of the results of statistical analysis. The chapter ends with a discussions of the findings.

4.2 Response Rate

There are a total of 147 parastatals in Kenya. However, only 107 parastatals were sampled to participate in the study (Appendix III). Further, two women leaders from each of the 107 parastatals were targeted to participate in this study. A total of 214 questionnaires were issued to the women leaders in 107 parastatals in Kenya. Only 132 questionnaires were received, this represented 61.68% of the response. Seventy nine (79) questionnaires representing 38.32% were not returned. Mugenda and Mugenda (2008) revealed that a response ratio of 50% is adequate, 60% and above is good, while 70% regarded very well.

Table 4.1: Response Rate Results

Response	Frequency	Percent
Responded	132	61.68%
No Response	79	38.32%
Total	214	100%

Table 4.1 shows that the response rate was 61.68% which was good enough and was therefore considered satisfactory to make conclusions for this study. A study by Draugalis, Coons and Plaza (2008) obtained similar response rates of 60%, hence, the response rate of 61.68% was appropriate.

4.3 Reliability Analysis

Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was applied to measure data reliability for all the variables. Where the Cronbach alpha is low, it shows lower reliability. This means that the measuring tool is unreliable and hence cannot be used. According to Finchilescu (2002), reliability coefficients of at least 0.70 is acceptable for research instruments. This study showed some aspect of reliability because the overall Cronbach's alpha was higher than 0.7 and therefore, none of the variables were deleted. The Cronbach alpha values achieved for all the variables were greater than 0.6. The Cronbach's alpha statistic for perceptions was 0.748, competency skills 0.779, workplace policies 0.763, role models 0.728, organizational culture 0.916 and leadership performance 0.719. The average Cronbach alpha value for all the variables was 0.831. The results are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Reliability Analysis Test Results

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items	Acceptability
Perceptions	0.748	7	Acceptable
Competency Skills	0.779	7	Acceptable
Workplace Policies	0.763	7	Acceptable
Role Models	0.728	7	Acceptable
Organizational culture	0.916	7	Acceptable
Leadership Performance	0.719	7	Acceptable

Table 4.2 indicates that all the variables have a reliability coefficient of 0.7 and above. Therefore, all the variables for this study were considered to have met the reliability test. Hence, it is evident that the questionnaire for this study was suitable as its reliability was at an acceptable level.

4.4 Background Information

The demographic characteristics of the participants were: age of respondents, duration worked, and duration in management, management level and educational level. This information is provided in the subsections that follow:

4.4.1 Age of Respondents

The study established the ages of the participants. The study used age as a significant factor to determine the age at which majority of women ascend to leadership. Majority of the participants were aged over 40 years at 42.4% as indicated in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Age of Respondents Results

Age	Frequency	Percent
20-30 Years	22	16.7
31-40 Years	54	40.9
over 40 Years	56	42.4
Total	132	100.0

Table 4.3 shows a minority of the respondents were between 20 and 30 years at 16.7%. This implies that majority of women leaders surveyed enter management positions below 40 years and though fewer, women who are in very top levels of leadership are above 40 years of age (42.4%).

4.4.2 Duration Worked in the Organization

The study also established how many years the participants had worked in their organization. To understand how long the respondents worked within their organization was significant as it clearly showed the percentage of past employees or new entrants who ascended to leadership. According to this study, there were varying responses regarding this aspect. The results are shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4. 4: Duration Worked in the Organization Results

Number of years	Frequency	Percent
Less 10 Years	42	31.8
10-20 Years	56	42.4
Over 20 Years	34	25.8
Total	132	100.0

From the result in Table 4.4 majority of respondents had worked in their current stations between 10-20 years at 42.4% and over 20 years at 25.8% were the minority. The implication of the above finding is that the respondents had enough exposure to make significant observations from women leaders in their organization.

4.4.3 Number of Years in Current Management Position

The study also established the duration in terms of years that the respondents had worked as managers. This was important so as to find out the turnover of the women leaders. The results are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Number of Years in Current Management Position

Number of Years	Frequency	
	Percent	
less 5 Years	65	49.2
6-10 Years	37	28.0
Over 20 Years	30	22.7
Total	132	100.0

From the result in Table 4.5 the majority of respondents had worked in their current station for less than 5 years at 49.2%. The implication of the above finding is that there was indeed adequate time to gauge their performance in the organization. They also had adequate time to impact their leadership skills in their areas of jurisdiction. The study also revealed that 22.7% women leaders had held managerial positions for over 20 years. This finding implied that few women were retained in leadership positions by the appointing authority.

4.4.4 Management Level of Respondents

The management level of the respondents was also significant for this study. Management level of respondents was a significant factor for this study, as it clearly explains the percentage of the three levels of management that had majority or least of the women leaders. The study was to determine whether the respondents were in top, middle, or lower levels of management. The results are shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Management Level Results

Position	Frequency	Percent
Top Level	25	18.9
Middle Level	66	50.0
Lower Level	41	31.1
Total	132	100.0

From the result in Table 4.6 half of the respondents at (50%) were in middle class level of management. The results implied that there is a good number at middle level likely to rise to top level management. The results also showed that 31.1% of women held lower managerial positions. This implied that more women were appointed at the lower levels of management. Top level management had a significant proportion at 18.9% which implied that women were not appointed or were not able to access top leadership positions due to certain reasons.

4.4.5 Level of Education

It is important to understand the highest level of education which the respondents possessed in their managerial positions. The study used the factor of level of education as it was significant to understand the professional level of the respondents to respond to the second variable of the study i.e. competency skills. The levels of education were categorized as Diploma level, Graduate level and Post-Graduate level. The results are shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Level of Education Results

Level of Education	Frequency	Percent
Post Graduate	50	37.9
Graduate	58	43.9
Diploma	24	18.2
Total	132	100.0

Table 4.7 shows that majority of women leaders were graduates at 43.9%. This implied that more women with higher qualifications were indeed appointed in senior management positions in parastatals in Kenya. Only 18.2% had achieved diploma qualifications and 37.9% were of post graduate level. According to the findings, it

suggests that the level of education of leaders was significant in being placed in leadership positions.

4.5 Leadership Performance

The dependent variable of this study was leadership performance. It was measured by efficiency and effectiveness, and customer satisfaction. The study sought to determine the antecedents of women leadership in parastatals in Kenya.

4.5.1 Sample Adequacy Results on Leadership Performance

Varimax rotation of the principle component analysis was used to factorize leadership performance items. The KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity were used to measure the overall significance of all the correlations within the correlation matrix. There was need to determine whether data was appropriate for factor analysis. Therefore, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test was used to measure the sample adequacy of each variable in the model. Ali *et al.* (2016) showed that the KMO index ranges from 0 to 1, with 0.5 and above reflecting suitability for factor analysis. To check whether it was appropriate to continue with the analysis, the KMO and Bartlett's test were used. Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant when the p value is less than 0.05. The results are shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Leadership Performance KMO and Bartlett's Test Results

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.894
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	520.394
	df	21
	Sig.	.000

From the results in Table 4.8 Bartlett's test result was significant ($\chi^2(21) = 520.394$, $p < 0.001$), showing that it was idea to apply the factor analysis model on this set of data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy showed that the strength of the relationships among variables was high (KMO = 0.894). Therefore, it was appropriate to continue with the analysis.

4.5.2 Factor Analysis Results of Leadership Performance

The study used exploratory factor analysis to test for the validity of the construct extracted using the factor loading criterion. Construct validity was determined by showing that the item demonstrates both convergent validity and discriminant validity. Factor analysis is performed to identify factors among observed variables to give a small number of factors from a large number of variables which defines the perceived variance in the larger number of variables (Theuri *et al.*, 2015). Before extraction of the factors, several tests were run to assess the fitness of the respondent data for factor analysis. The tests involved Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. Convergent validity assesses the strength of the relationship between a measure and other measures that capture the same concept (Chin, 2010).

According to the criterion of assessment of validity, convergent validity can be assessed by the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). Variance Extracted is the square of the factor loading of each item. The AVE is obtained by summing all the variance extracted of all items in a construct then divided by the number of the items in the construct. AVE measures the level of variance captured by a construct against the level due to measurement error. Values greater than 0.7 are considered 'very good' and values of 0.5 is 'acceptable'.

Therefore convergent validity was established by only retaining factor loadings of at least 0.4, and AVE values are also each at least 0.5 (Chin, 2010). These two conditions are achieved as shown on Table 4.9, 4.10 and 4.11. This demonstrates convergent validity among customer satisfaction construct and leadership efficiency construct. Expunging items that double load ensures both convergent and discriminant validity.

Table 4.9: Leadership Performance Total Variance Explained Test Results

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.958	56.537	56.537	3.957	56.535	56.535
2	1.046	14.941	71.478	1.046	14.944	71.478
3	.919	13.134	84.612			
4	.355	5.065	89.677			
5	.342	4.884	94.561			
6	.211	3.011	97.572			
7	.170	2.428	100.000			

The results in Table 4.9 shows that factor analysis was used on leadership performance where constructs were exposed to a variance test by use of the principal component analysis test. Therefore, the principle component analysis was applied to reduce data and interpret the large set of data. All the measures of performance were exposed to factor analysis. The results show that there were two factors extracted explaining leadership performance. Factor analysis yielded two components explaining a total of 71.478% of the variance for the whole set of variables – effectiveness and efficiency, and customer satisfaction. These two variables were used to measure leadership performance.

The minimum required total variance recommended by Creswell (2013) is 60 per cent. Factor one was the highest with 56.535% while factor two had 14.944%. These two factors had their eigen values higher than 1 and had the highest influence on leadership performance as they explain about 71.478% of the total variance. The results imply that two factors are sufficient to explain the underlying structure of women leadership performance in Kenya parastatals.

4.5.3 Leadership Performance Rotation Component Matrix Test

Component 1 was efficiency and effectiveness which had five items, component 2 was customer satisfaction which had two items. According to Ali *et al.* (2016) every distinct variable need to take the value of 0.4 and above. Therefore, the study sought to measure whether the items of the components are interrelated. The table

below shows the distribution of the values on the two variables. The results are shown in Table 4.10

Table 4. 10: Leadership Performance Rotated Component Matrix Test Results

	Component	
	1	2
Customers in my organization drive satisfaction from the organization's leadership efficiency.	.850	
Service delivery is heightened by my role as a women leader my area of jurisdiction.	.844	
In my organization, success is attributed to the type of leaders in various levels of management.	.922	
Leaders in my organization often achieve organizational goals set-up in various work operations.	.904	
Customer services has been boosted by a team of motivated and committed leaders in my organization.	.891	
The strategies recommended by leaders are often inculcated in the organization's goals.		.734
My organization recognizes women strengths in their tasks as their performance is key in the success of the organization.		.701

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

The results in Table 4.10 shows that five out of seven items strongly loaded on factor 1. An assessment of the varimax rotated results indicated that component leadership performance loaded to both component one and component two. Five items under component one met the threshold value of 0.4. This means that component values had great correlation with one another. However, two items of component two (customer satisfaction) were negative hence, failed to meet the threshold value of 0.4. The items loading on the component two were therefore extracted

4.5.4 Descriptive Results of Leadership Performance

The general descriptive statistics of leadership performance are represented on this section. In light of this, descriptive analysis was carried out to give summaries through the use of means, standard deviation and coefficients. Descriptive statistics were calculated for all the variables in the study using SPSS Version 22. Large

values for the mean relatively show that respondents were of the opinion that the variable was significant. However, high values for standard deviation show large disparities in views. Leadership performance was assessed by two measures specifically efficiency and effectiveness as well as customer satisfaction. Descriptive data presented on Table 4.11 depicts the significant results on a scale of 1 to 5 where (5 = Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Disagree and 1 = Strongly Disagree). The mean score of efficiency and effectiveness was 3.5356, which implies that on average the respondents were in agreement with the statement. The mean score of customers' satisfaction was 3.2879 implying that the respondents were uncertain about the statements. The results are given in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Descriptive Results of Leadership Performance Test Results

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Efficiency_Effectiveness	3.5356	1.05260	.930
Customer_satisfaction	3.2879	.86959	.769
Valid N (listwise)			

Table 4.11 revealed majority of respondents did neither agreed nor disagreed on their perception that customers are mostly satisfied with their services. Implying that the needs of their clients are often addressed in a fulfilling manner and with contentment. A large majority of respondents also neither agreed nor disagreed that there is efficient use of time performing activities in their organization. The respondents implied that time management was well catered for. They neither agreed nor disagreed that the aspect of leadership was crucial for attaining their achievements. A majority of respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that they often met their organizational goals regardless of the circumstances.

Majority of women leaders neither agreed nor disagreed that they have a great culture where they strive to achieve the objectives set up by the organization. Respondents agreed that they have a motivated team of employees who are dedicated to customer service only. Majority of women leaders were in agreement that their employees were inspired and the culture had been emulated across the organization. Only a few neither agreed nor disagreed on the proper utilization of resources.

Majority of women leaders neither agreed nor disagreed that the organizational resources were well utilized and were put in maximum use, by a mean score of 3.5356. The study also indicated that their strategies are often implemented with ease, however, a few of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed. Most of the respondents agreed that strengths and capabilities of women leaders contribute to positive outcomes by a score of 3.2879. According to Ali *et al.* (2016) it was appropriate to use Cronbach's alpha. This is because it tests the reliability of the suggested assumptions. Findings indicated that efficiency and effectiveness had a coefficient of 0.930 while that of customer satisfaction had a coefficient of 0.769. Leadership performance measures depicted Cronbach's alpha of above 0.7 as per the recommended value, hence the study was reliable.

4.6 Organizational Culture and Leadership Performance

Organizational culture was the moderating variable for the study. Moderation implied an interaction effect, when a moderating variable was introduced, it alters the direction or degree of the relationship between two variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The study sought to determine the moderating effect of organizational culture on the antecedents of women leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya. The fifth objective was to determine the moderating effect of organizational culture on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. It was therefore imperative to determine the effect of the moderating variable on each of the independent variables i.e. perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models as antecedents of women affecting leadership performance. Organizational culture was measured by involvement culture.

4.6.1 Sample Adequacy Results on Organizational Culture

Organizational culture items in parastatals were factorized using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity were used to test the overall significance of all the correlations within the correlation matrix. To measure the fitness of the data for factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)

measure of sampling adequacy was used to test the sample adequacy of each variable in the model. The KMO and Bartlett's test result are shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.11: Organizational Culture KMO and Bartlett's Test Results

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.883
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	688.561
	df	21
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.12 shows that the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2(21) = 688,561, p < 0.000$), showing that it was suitable to use the factor analytic model on this category of data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy indicated that the strength of the relationships among variables was high (KMO = 0.883). This value shows good partial correlation displayed in the data for this study. Rusuli *et al.* (2013) revealed that measure of sampling adequacy should exceed 0.5 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was used at a significant level of 0.05. This was used to confirm sufficient correlation among the organizational culture variable. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p value should be less than 0.05 and a p value of 0.000 shows high significance.

4.6.2 Factor Analysis Results of Organizational Culture

The study sought to establish the moderating effect of organizational culture on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Organizational culture was assessed by involvement culture and consistency culture and was tested for factor analysis. The principle component analysis was therefore used for data reduction and interpretation of the large set of data as shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4.12: Organizational Culture Total Variance Explained Test Results

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.870	69.572	69.572	4.870	69.572	69.572
2	.708	10.110	79.682			
3	.423	6.042	85.723			

4	.352	5.033	90.756
5	.302	4.311	95.067
6	.189	2.697	97.764
7	.156	2.236	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 4.13 results reveal that the analysis yielded one factor explaining a total of 69.572% of the variance for the entire set of variable and considered reliable. This factor had an eigen value greater than 1 and had an influence involvement culture, thus imply that the factor is sufficient to explain the underlying structure of organizational culture in parastatals in Kenya. The factor accounted for significant proportion of variance of 69.572%. According to Hair *et al.* (2012) the satisfactory variance described in factor analysis for a construct to be valid is sixty per cent. Therefore, the high explained variance of 69.572% proves good construct validity.

4.6.3 Organizational Culture Component Matrix Test

Component 1 was organizational culture which had only one construct i.e. involvement culture which have a factor loading of higher than 0.4 as shown in Table 4.14. Only one component was extracted, thus the solution cannot be rotated. Therefore, the component values show that they are highly interrelated with each other as shown in Table 4.14.

Table 4.13: Organizational Culture Component Matrix Test Results

Opinion Statement	Component 1
In my organization we have an effective team network that supports organizational operations.	.856
There is inclusivity in my organization as all members believe that they can create a positive impact to the organization in their work.	.840
Flexible and easy to change culture has enhanced my leadership performance in my organization.	.869
Work in my organization is organized such that each person can see the relationship between their work and other departments.	.813
The organization's goals and strategies are clear and well elaborative to all within the organization.	.762
Routine policies in place give meaning and purpose in all aspects of work operations within my organization.	.866
Inclusivity in decision making is a key aspect in my organization in all levels of operations.	.827

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Results in Table 4.14 shows an inspection of the varimax rotated results indicated that component organizational culture items loaded to factor one which was labeled involvement culture variable. The results show that seven items strongly loaded on factor 1. All are above the threshold value of 0.4. An assessment of the varimax rotated results indicated that component organizational culture loaded to component one. Only one item loaded to component two (consistency culture). Hence, it did not meet the threshold of 0.4. The component was thus extracted. This is because according to Rusuli *et al.* (2013) each discrete variable must take the value of 0.4 and above.

4.6.4 Descriptive Results of Organizational Culture

Organizational culture was assessed by one construct namely involvement culture. Descriptive data shows the significant results on a scale of 1 to 5 (where 5 = Strongly Agree and 1 = Strongly Disagree). The results are shown in Table 4.15.

Table 4.14: Organizational Culture Descriptive Test Results

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Organizational_Culture	3.4113	1.01216	.927

Results in Table 4.15 shows that the mean score of involvement culture was 3.4113 which implies that on average neither the respondents agreed or disagreed the with the statement. Results also show that respondents were neutral that organizations comprise of teams that are effective in full-filling their mandate by aiming at achieving their individual as well as their organizational goals.

It was also established that the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that they often believe that effective culture can enhance positive impact in the organizational amidst flexible and accommodative change. The respondents were neutral that different departments need to collaborate and aim at creating the required change within the organization, change that encompasses all aspects of the organization. The study also established that respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that with consistent implementation and action of appropriate policies leadership performance is enhanced as indicated by a means score of 3.4113.

According to Ali *et al.* (2016) it was appropriate to use Cronbach's alpha to test the reliability of the suggested hypotheses. The findings indicated that involvement culture coefficient of 0.927. Organizational culture measures depicted Cronbach's alpha of above the suggested value of 0.7 hence the study was reliable.

4.6.5 Organizational Culture Normality Test

The study used the normality test to measure the significance and construction of confidence interval estimates of the factors. The notion is that variables are normally distributed. Ali *et al.* (2016) study showed that assumptions and application of statistical tools including appropriateness of the tests are significant aspects for statistical analysis. The study used the skewness and kurtosis tests for this purpose. The Kolmogorov-smirnov test was also used to check for normality (Frank & Massey, 2012). . The two tests were considered important to get the required results.

a) Skewness and Kurtosis Test

Measures of skewness test measures the mean and median. Kurtosis tests the peakedness of the curve of the frequency distribution (Kothari & Garg, 2014). The results are shown in Table 4.16.

Table 4.15: Organizational Culture Skewness and Kurtosis Test Results

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Organizational_Culture	132	-.643	.211	-.401	.419

Table 4.16 results reveal that a skewness coefficient of -0.643 and kurtosis coefficient of -0.401. It was concluded that the data had normal distribution as their statistic values were between -1 and +1.

b) One-Sample Kolmogorov-Sminorv Test

This test is used to measure the null hypothesis that a given sample of data was picked from a normally distributed population. The null hypothesis is always rejected wherever the p value is less than 0.05. The results of this test are shown in Table 4.17

Table 4.16: Organizational Culture One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

N		132
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.4113
	Std. Deviation	1.01216
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.156
	Positive	.067
	Negative	-.156
Test Statistic		.156
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.02 ^c

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

From Table 4.17 it can be seen that the p value (0.2) is more than the specified level of significance of 0.05. It therefore, means that according to the results, the data is normal and hence is applicable.

4.7 Perceptions and Leadership Performance

The first objective of the study was to establish the effect of perceptions on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. This objective was operationalized by two constructs namely; gender stereotypes and cultural norms and seven sub-variables were tested for factor analysis. To investigate the number of concepts and structure of perception items, principal component analysis was done. The objective was to identify latent constructs represented in the original items. Factor Analysis (FA) procedure is commonly used as a hypothesis generator for confirmatory factor analysis and studies recommend the FA to be conducted with items to identify any problematic items.

To get the number of factors to extract, the study took into consideration the two criterions; eigen value and number of factors. Using the baseline eigen value extraction criterion, two-factor were extracted. This suggested a two factor solution was also appropriate. That is to say the two factors were sufficient to explain the variance in the original variables. Varimax rotation maximizes the factor loadings, assuming no correlations between components. The number of factors to extract was finally adjusted at two. Varimax orthogonal rotation was used to interpret the two factors.

4.7.1 Sample Adequacy Results on Perceptions

The KMO and Bartlett's tests measured the correlation between perceptions variables. The tests done were Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. Perceptions items in parastatals were factorized using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity, were also used to test the overall significance of all the correlations within the correlation matrix. The results are as shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4. 17: Perceptions KMO and Bartlett's Test Results

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.852
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	333.582
	df	21
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.18 shows Bartlett’s test of sphericity, which tests the overall significance of all the correlations within the correlation matrix. It was significant at (χ^2 (21) = 333.582, $p < 0.001$). The results indicated the suitability to use the factor analysis model on this category of data. The results showed that correlation matrix is not diagonal and therefore, significant associations exist. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test revealed that the strength of the interactions between variables was great (KMO = 0.852). An overall KMO > 0.6 is adequate; > 0.8 is good (Ali *et al.* 2016). Thus the strength of the relationship is good. Therefore it was adequate to progress with the factor analysis.

4.7.2 Factor Analysis Results of Perceptions

Perceptions was assessed by two sub-variables namely gender stereotypes and cultural norms and six constructs were tested for factor analysis. Table 4.19 shows the total variance described by the components extracted. Seven questions relating to perceptions on women leaders were factor analyzed using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The results are shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.18: Perceptions Total Variance Explained Test Results

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Loadings		Sums of Squared
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	
1	3.382	48.310	48.310	3.382	48.310	48.310
2	1.139	16.273	64.583	1.139	16.273	64.583
3	.880	12.573	77.156			
4	.623	8.907	86.063			
5	.366	5.233	91.295			
6	.345	4.934	96.229			
7	.264	3.771	100.000			

Table 4.19 shows that the analysis yielded two factors which had a greater influence on perceptions with cumulative variance of 64.583% of the variance for the whole set of variables. The result imply that the two factors are sufficient to explain the underlying structure of perception of women leadership in parastatals in Kenya.

Factor one was higher with 48.310% while factor two had 16.273% of total variance as shown on Table 4.19. According to Hair *et al.* (2012) the adequate variance explained in factor analysis for a construct to be valid is sixty per cent. Therefore the high explained variance of 64.583% proves good construct validity.

4.7.3 Perceptions Rotated Component Matrix Test

Another way of assessing construct validity by use of convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity measures the degree of the relationship between a measure and other measures that reveal the same concept (Chin, 2010). Formulating convergent validity includes making sure that the factor loadings of indicators are each at least 0.4 i.e the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Hair *et al.*, Chin, 2010). Average Variance Extracted is the square of the factor loading of each item. The AVE is obtained by summing all the variance extracted of all items in a construct then divided by the number of items in the construct. As mentioned, AVE greater than 0.4 demonstrate convergent validity. Component 1 was gender stereotypes which had five constructs, Component 2 was culture norms which had two constructs. Therefore, component show that they have a high correlation with each other as shown in Table 4.20.

Table 4.19: Perceptions Rotated Component Matrix Test Results

	Component	
	1	2
	.845	
In my organization women leaders are generally perceived positively and accepted by the various stakeholders within the organization.		
The decisions and contributions made by women leaders are often regarded highly and taken with as paramount as there is no overt discrimination.	.848	
As the percentage of women leaders rises in my organization various stakeholders given them the support they need in their work.	.858	
In my organization, it is not about gender but the individual qualities and capabilities of a leader in influencing change that matters.	.859	
The cultural roles of women positively support and has a great influence in my leadership performance.	.688	
Patterns of behavior expectations of women leaders are often clear as they contribute to enhancing their performance.		.750
Conventions agreed upon are often met by women leaders in my organization in an effort to influence their leadership performance.		.746

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

The results in Table 4.20 shows all the variables of perceptions have a factor loading of higher than 0.4. Seven questions relating to perceptions on women leaders were factor analyzed using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. Three of the six items strongly loaded to factor 1. All these items relate to stereotypes, hence factor one was labeled gender stereotypes. The second factor derived was labeled cultural norms because two factors strongly loading to it all relate to cultural norms. Therefore, the component values show they are highly interconnected with one another, indicating convergent validity. All are above the threshold value of 0.4. According to Rusuli *et al.* (2013) each discrete variable must take the value of 0.4 and above.

4.7.4 Descriptive Results of Perceptions

The general descriptive statistics of perceptions are presented on this section. Perceptions was assessed by two measures specifically gender stereotypes and cultural norms. Descriptive data presented on Table 4.21 depicts the significant results on a scale of 1 to 5 (where 5 = Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Disagree and 1 = Strongly Disagree). The mean score of gender stereotypes was 3.4027 which implies that on average the participants agreed to the statements. The mean score of cultural norms was 3.2311 implying that the respondents were uncertain about the statements. The study investigated the mean and standard deviation of the two constructs, gender stereotype and cultural norms as shown in Table 4.21.

Table 4.20: Descriptive Results of Perceptions Test Results

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Gender_stereotypes	3.4027	1.02600	.876
Cultural_norms	3.2311	.89401	.705

Table 4.21 results established that the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that there were indeed perceptual issues that impeded women leadership performance. This is because women leadership was perceived positively since fellow managers regarded their decisions seriously. They neither agreed nor disagreed that leadership by women was well accepted as it was not all about gender. They also neither agreed nor disagreed that leadership quality required appropriate cultural support in their leadership mandate.

Implying that women in positions of leadership still face some stereotype in their leadership positions. They neither agreed nor disagreed that there was some stereotyping in their place of work as showed by a mean score of 3.4027. The respondents also neither agreed nor disagreed that expected cultural norms are real challenges facing women in leadership in Kenyan parastatals. This indicated that there was uncertainty that patterns of behavior of leaders are often clear in regard to their areas of jurisdiction. This implied that cultural norms are requisites that

influence women leadership in parastatals in Kenyan. This was an indication that the conventions agreed upon by the women leaders are often met in a bid to achieve their leadership goals showing a mean of 3.2311. The indicator items of perceptions represent stereotype and cultural norm constructs were positively worded. According to Ali *et al.* (2016) it was appropriate to use Cronbach's alpha to test the reliability of the suggested hypotheses. The results showed that gender stereotypes measures had a coefficient of 0.876 while that of cultural norms measures had a coefficient of 0.705. Perceptions measures represented Cronbach's alpha of above the suggested 0.7 hence the study was reliable.

4.7.5 Perceptions Normality Test

The study adopted the Skewness and Kurtosis test and Kolgomorov-smirnov test to check for normality. According to Ali *et al.* (2016) the most noteworthy facets for statistical analysis are assumptions, application of statistical tools and appropriateness of the tests.

a) Skewness and Kurtosis Test

The study carried out Skewness and Kurtosis Tests. According to Kothari and Gard (2014) measures of skewness is centered on mean and median and kurtosis measures the extent of the peakness of the curve of the frequency distribution as shown in Table 4.22.

Table 4.21: Perceptions Skewness and Kurtosis Test Results

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Perceptions	132	-.307	.211	-.394	.419

Table 4.22 results revealed a skewness coefficient of -0.307 and kurtosis coefficient of -0.394. It was established that data had normal distribution. This was because the statistic values were between -1 and +1.

b) One-Sample Kolmogorov Sminorv Test

This test is used to examine null hypothesis that a given sample of data was picked from a normally distributed population. The null hypothesis is always rejected wherever the p value is less than 0.05. The results of this test are given in Table 4.23.

Table 4. 22: Perceptions One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Results

N		132
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.3169
	Std. Deviation	.68885
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.056
	Positive	.054
	Negative	-.056
Test Statistic		.056
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.200 ^{c,d}

- a. Test distribution is Normal.
- b. Calculated from data.
- c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.
- d. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

From the results in Table 4.23 it can be seen that the p value (0.2) is more than 0.05 according to the specified level of significance. Therefore, according to this study, the data is considered normal hence it was appropriate for linear regression.

4.7.6 Perceptions Autocorrelation Test (Durbin-Watson)

The presence of serialized correlation among the OLS regressions is tested by Durbin and Watson’s test statistic (Yupitun, 2008). This is because a high degree of correlation among residuals of the regressions’ data sets could yield inadequate results. It has been shown that Durbin Watson test value of between 1.75 to 2.25 is always considered to be a sign of lack of autocorrelation. The Durbin Watson (DW) tests for autocorrelation.

The Durbin-Watson statistic values should be between 0 and 4 (Yupitun, 2008). According to Yupitun (2008) since an extraordinary degree of correlation between residuals of the regressions’ data sets could yield unproductive results, the

occurrence of successive association amongst the OLS regressions is tested. The results are shown in Table 4.24.

Table 4.23: Perceptions Durbin-Watson (Autocorrelation) Test Results

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.689 ^a	.474	.466	.76918	1.815

a. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural_norms, Gender_stereotypes

b. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4.24 shows the Durbin-Watson value of 1.815 which indicates that the model did not suffer from autocorrelation. Durbin-Watson statistic ranges in value from 0 to 4 with an ideal value of 2 showing that errors are not correlated, even though values from 1.75 to 2.25 may be considered satisfactory. Makori and Jagongo (2013) asserts that Durbin-Watson value between 1.5 and 2.5 are considered acceptable level designating no presence of collinearity

4.7.8 Perceptions Multicollinearity Test

There should be no exact correlation between any two independent variables. Linear regression assumes that the set of independent variables in a regression model are not highly correlated. That is to say; there should be no redundant variables in the regression model. Correlation matrix, tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) are techniques to check for multicollinearity (Chatfield, 2018).

Other alternatives to take care of such problems is carrying out a factor analysis and rotating the factors to ensure independence of the factors in the linear regression analysis (Esbensen, Guyot, Westad & Houmoller, 2002). Although various tests exist in literature, according to Chin (2010) VIF test is more appropriate. Variance Inflation Factor techniques were used for this study. According to Crowder (2017) multicollinearity is considered absent if $VIF < 10$. There the results are as shown in Table 4.25.

Table 4.24: Perceptions Multicollinearity Test Results

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)		
	Genderstereotypes_organizationalculture	.560	1.784
	Culturalnorms_organizationalculture	.560	1.784

Table 4.25 shows the VIF value is 1.784 hence the data is adequate for linear regression. The results suggest no multicollinearity among the independent variables.

4.7.8 Perceptions and Leadership Performance Correlations Test

To establish the relationship between perception and performance, a correlation analysis was performed. Correlation is a test procedure determining the relationship between variables. Pearson’s correlation coefficient test measures the statistical relationship between two variables. It is referred to as the most reliable method of measuring the relationship between variables of interest, as it is based on the method of covariance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Strong and significant relationship shows the desirable nature of relationships between the independent variable (gender stereotype and cultural norms) and leadership performance, as shown in Table 4.26.

Table 4. 25: Perceptions Correlation Test Results

Gender_stereotypes	Pearson Correlation	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
	N	132		
Cultural_norms	Pearson Correlation	.025	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.775		
	N	132	132	
Leadership_Performance	Pearson Correlation	.687**	-.023	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.793	
	N	132	132	132

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results in Table 4.26 shows that in Kenyan parastatals, gender stereotypes and leadership performance have strong ($r=0.687$, $p=0.000$) positive significant relationship at 5%. Level of significance. Leadership performance has weak ($r=-$

0.023, $p=0.495$) negative insignificant relationship. This is because, according to Kothari (2004) the closer the value is to 1 the higher the degree of correlation.

4.7.9 Perceptions Analysis of Variation (ANOVA) Test

Analysis of Variation (ANOVA) test was carried out to assess whether the entire model had a significant goodness fit of the data. According to Creswell (2013) ANOVA is a technique for testing the statement that there is no significant difference among three or more sample means. In addition, it measures the assumption by means of likening two different estimates of the population variances. While correlation analysis established relationship among the variables, regression analysis on the other hand established the relationship and also provided predictive features. The stereotypes and cultural norms were set as the predictor variables. Table 4.27 shows the analysis of variance of the study on perceptions and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

Table 4.26: Perceptions ANOVA Test Results

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	68.821	2	34.411	58.161	.000 ^b
	Residual	76.321	129	.592		
	Total	145.143	131			
2	Regression	91.201	3	30.400	72.138	.000 ^c
	Residual	53.941	128	.421		
	Total	145.143	131			

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural_norms, Gender_stereotypes

c. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural_norms, Gender_stereotypes, Organizational_Culture

Table 4.27 results disclose that there was a significant relationship between gender stereotypes, cultural norms and leadership performance ($F=58.161$, $p=0.000$) as indicated in Model 1. When moderating variable i.e. organizational culture was included, the F value increased ($F=72.138$, $p=0.000$) as shown in Model 2, and indicated a significant relationship between perception measures and leadership performance. The P value for both models is less than 0.05, thus signifying that the predictor variable describe the variation in the dependent variable. If the significance

value of F was larger than 0.05 then the independent variable would not explain the dissimilarity in the dependent variable (Lakew & Rao, 2009).

4.7.10 Perceptions Goodness-of-fit Model Test

The results in Table 4.28 show that perceptions measures i.e. gender stereotypes and cultural norms, had some influence on leadership performance as it is accounted for 47.4% of its variability (R Square=0.474) on Model 1. This shows a moderate positive relationship between perceptions and leadership performance i.e. the variations in efficiency is accounted for by gender stereotyping and cultural norms in parastatals in Kenya. The results are shown in Table 4.28.

Table 4.27: Perceptions Model Summary Test Results

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R St. Error of the Estimate
1	.689 ^a	.474	.466	.76918
2	.793 ^b	.628	.620	.64917

a. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural_norms, Gender_stereotypes

b. Predictors:(Constant), Cultural_norms, Gender_stereotypes, Organizational_Culture

On Model 2 Table 4.28 shows the explanatory power of perceptions measures i.e. gender stereotypes and cultural norms, changed when organizational culture is incorporated into the model (R Square = 0.628). This suggests that the moderating variable, organizational culture has a high significant influence on antecedents of women leadership performance.

4.7.11 Regression Results of Perceptions and Performance

The multiple linear regression procedure to test for moderation is applied in this study. The hierarchical addition of variables is done in steps. The first stage involved addition of only the independent variable(s) to get the main effect of the independent variables on performance. This block of variables together with the dependent variable formed the Model 1. In step 2, the hypothesized moderator is introduced into

Model 1 to form Model 2. To make interpretations easier all variables are centered to avoid multicollinearity.

The first approach in test for moderation involved testing the moderation of one component of culture on the relationship between a single independent variable on performance. This enabled the study to establish the unique interaction among the independent variable in the model and the culture component. The final part of test of moderation involve, the joint test of moderation of organizational culture on the relationship between women antecedents and performance. As noted earlier, in interaction moderation analysis, there are several indicators that moderation has actually occurred or not.

One and most effective way is the change in R square on addition of the interaction term into the Moderated Multiple Regression (MMR) model. Another one is the significance of the regression coefficient of the interaction term. The R square change approach is used to measure the significance of moderation. To determine the influence of perceptions on leadership performance i.e. gender stereotypes and cultural norms on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya, the following hypotheses was stated:

Hypothesis One

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant influence of perceptions on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Regression analysis was conducted to empirically establish whether perception measures i.e. gender stereotypes and cultural norms had any significant influence on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya as shown in Table 4.29.

Table 4.28: Regression Coefficients of Perceptions Test Results

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.286	.332		3.868	.000
Gender_stereotypes(X ₁)	.706	.066	.688	10.779	.000
Cultural_norms (X ₂)	-.047	.075	-.040	-.631	.529

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4.29 shows the regression coefficients results of the measures of perceptions. Gender stereotypes and cultural norms were the measures of perceptions. Gender stereotypes (supported by $\beta = 0.688$, p-value = 0.000) and cultural norms (supported by $\beta = -0.040$, p-value = 0.529). Gender stereotypes is statistically significant in explaining leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya while cultural norms is not statistically significant in explaining leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

The regression model is summarized as shown below:

$$Y_i = 1.286 + 0.706X_1 \dots\dots\dots (4.1)$$

Where, X₁ – Gender Stereotypes

It is therefore concluded that there is statistically significant relationship between gender stereotypes and leadership performance. To test hypothesis one, a combined regression model was run between leadership performance and perceptions. The results are shown in Table 4.30.

Table 4.29: Perceptions Combined Regression Model Test Results

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.017	.394		2.581	.011
Perceptions	.759	.116	.497	6.530	.000

From the results in Table 4.30 perception has significant influence on performance since the p value of the slope is less than 0.05. This implies that the null hypothesis is rejected. It was concluded that there is significant relationship between leadership performance and perceptions. The model is presented by equation 4.2 as:

$$Y_i = 1.017 + 0.759X_1 \dots\dots\dots (4.2)$$

Where X_1 is perceptions

To establish the moderation effect of organizational culture on perceptions and leadership performance, the following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis Five

H₀₅: There is no statistically significant moderating effect of organization culture on perceptions and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Moderated regression analysis was conducted to establish whether perception measures moderated with organizational culture had any significant influence on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya as shown in Table 4.31.

Table 4.30: Moderated Regression Coefficients of Perceptions Test Results

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.630	.289		2.178	.031
	Perceptions	.080	.106	.052	.758	.450
	Organizational_Culture	.774	.072	.744	10.757	.000
2	(Constant)	.763	.825		.925	.357
	Perceptions	.036	.278	.023	.129	.898
	Organizational_Culture	.729	.269	.701	2.712	.008
	Perception_organization_culture	.014	.082	.065	.172	.863

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4.31 shows that the regression coefficients results of the moderated perception measures with perceptions and organizational culture measure i.e. involvement culture with a p-value of 0.863 ($p > 0.05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that the null hypothesis is not rejected.

$$Y_i = 0.763 + 0.14X_1 \dots\dots\dots (4.3)$$

Where X_1 is perceptions

It was concluded that there was no moderation effect between perceptions and involvement culture.

4.8 Competency Skills and Leader Performance

The second objective of the study was to establish effect of competency skills on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. This objective was operationalized by two constructs namely; professional knowledge skills and conceptual skills. Seven sub-variables were tested for factor analysis. To investigate the number of constructs and structure of competency skills items, principal component analysis was carried out. The objective was to identify latent constructs represented in the original items. Factor analysis procedure is commonly used as a hypothesis generator for confirmatory factor analysis and studies recommend the factor analysis to be conducted with items to identify any problematic items.

To find out the number of factors to remove, the study took into consideration the two criterions; eigen value and number of factors. Using the baseline eigen value extraction criterion, a two-factor structure was extracted. The results suggested a two-factor solution was appropriate. That is to say the two factors were sufficient to explain the variance in the original variables. The varimax rotation maximizes the factor loadings, assuming no correlations between components. The number of factors to extract was finally adjusted at two. Varimax orthogonal rotation was used to interpret the two factors.

4.8.1 Sample Adequacy Results on Competency Skills

Competency skills items in parastatals were factorized using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity were used to test the general significance of all the correlations within the correlation matrix. It was also important to measure how suitable the data was for factor analysis. Therefore, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was able to test sample adequacy of each variable in the model. The results are shown in Table 4.32

Table 4.31: Competency Skills KMO and Bartlett's Test Results

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.840
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	375.243
	df	21
	Sig.	.000

The results in Table 4.32 show the KMO and Bartlett's test sample adequacy for factor analysis. A study by Ali *et al.* (2016) showed that the KMO index ranges from 0 to 1, with 0.5 and above considered appropriate for factor analysis. For factor analysis to be suitable, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity should be at significant $p < 0.05$. The study Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant at 5% level of significance. This means that it was suitable to use the factor analytic model on this set of data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy revealed that the strength of the relationships among variables was high (KMO = 0.840). Therefore, it was satisfactory and reliable. An overall KMO > 0.6 is adequate; > 0.8 is good (Ali

et al. 2016). Thus the strength of the association is good. Therefore it was satisfactory to progress with the factor analysis.

4.8.2 Factor Analysis Results on Competency Skills

The study used the principle component analysis for data reduction and interpretation of the large set of data. Seven questions relating to perceptions on women leaders were factor analyzed using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The results are shown in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33 Competency Skills Total Variance Explained Test Results

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.554	50.770	50.770	3.554	50.770	50.770
2	1.127	16.106	66.876	1.127	16.106	66.876
3	.862	12.311	79.187			
4	.512	7.308	86.495			
5	.402	5.750	92.245			
6	.297	4.250	96.495			
7	.245	3.505	100.000			

Table 4.33 results showed the analysis produced two factors which had a greater influence on perceptions with cumulative variance of 66.876% of the variance for the whole set of variables, the result show that the two factors are satisfactory to explain the primary structure of competency skills of women leadership in parastatals in Kenya. Factor one had a higher value of 50.770% while factor two had 16.106% of total variance as shown. According to Hair *et al.* (2012) the acceptable variance explained in factor analysis for a construct to be valid is sixty per cent. Therefore the high explained variance of 66.876% demonstrates good construct validity.

Construct validity can also be measured through convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity assesses the strength of the relationship between a measure and other measures that define the same concept (Chin, 2010). Determining convergent validity ensures that the factor loadings of indicators are each at least .4, and AVE values are also each at least 0.4 (Hair *et al.*, 2006; Chin, 2010). The AVE is

obtained by summing all the variance extracted of all items in a construct then divided by the number of items in the construct.

4.8.3 Competency Skills Rotated Component Matrix

Component 1 was conceptual skills which had five items, Component 2 was professional knowledge skills with two items. All the allocation of competency skills variables have a factor loading of higher than 0.4. Therefore, the component values

Table 4.32: Competency Skills Rotated Component Matrix Test Results

Opinion Statement	Component	
	1	2
Women leaders are visionary with the required theoretical skills to support their leadership roles.	.809	
In my organization, women are often adequately skilled in interpersonal skills that support their day to day interactions as leaders.	.839	
Creative thinking skills are well incorporated as prospective attributes that support women leaders mentoring role.	.876	
Women leaders have sequential planning skills that support their roles as leaders.	.850	
In my organization, problem-solving skills are key attributes that women leaders utilize in improving their scope as leaders.	.760	
My organization has partnered with learning institutions to help support women leaders in acquisition of the required professional knowledge and skills as they pursue leadership excellence.		.713
Professional knowledge success is a key determinant of successful leadership in my organization.		.718

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

In Table 4.34 an assessment of the varimax rotated results indicated that component competency skills items loaded to both component one and component two. The results show that five out of seven items strongly loaded on factor 1. All these items relate to professional skills, hence factor one was labeled conceptual skills variable. The second factor derived was labeled professional skills because the three factors strongly loading to it all relate to professional knowledge. According to Rusuli *et al.* (2013) each discrete variable must take the value of 0.4 and above.

4.8.4 Descriptive Results of Competency Skills

Competency was assessed by two constructs namely conceptual skills and professional skills. Descriptive data shown on Table 4.38 shows the significant results on a scale of 1 to 5 (where 5 = Strongly Agree and 1 = Strongly Disagree). The mean score of conceptual skills was 4.0568 which implies that the respondents on average agreed with the statement. The mean score of professional skills was 3.0833 implying that the respondents were uncertain about the statements. The mean standard deviations of the two constructs are as shown in Table 4.35.

Table 4. 33: Descriptive Results of Competency Skills Test Results

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	Cronbach's alpha
Conceptual_skills	4.0568	.80487	.886
Professional_knowledge skills	3.0833	.96931	.125
Valid N (listwise)			

Table 4.35 shows that on average women leaders in parastatals agreed that they are visionary as they possess the necessary theoretical skills and possess good interpersonal skills coupled with creative thinking skills in their organizations. These skills have enabled them acquire the much needed conceptual skills necessary to become good leaders to enable planning and tackle difficult and complex issues in their areas of jurisdiction as shown by a mean score of 4.0568. Results also show that the respondents were uncertain that parastatals have partnered with educational and professional institutions to support leaders. They neither agreed nor disagreed that professional skills highlights the key determinant of successful leaders as shown by a mean score of 3.0833. It was appropriate to use Cronbach's alpha to test the reliability of the suggested hypotheses (Ali *et al.*, 2016). The findings show that conceptual skills measures had a coefficient of 0.886 while that of professional knowledge skills measures had a coefficient of 0.725. Competency skills measures depicted Cronbach's alpha of above the suggested 0.7 hence, the study was rendered reliable.

4.8.5 Competency Skills Normality Test Results

The study adopted the Skewness and Kurtosis test and Kolmogorov-smirnov test to check for normality. The assumption is that variables have normal distribution. Ali *et al.* (2016) revealed that utmost significant facets for statistical analysis are assumptions and application of statistical tools. Fitness of the tests was also considered. Skewness, and Kurtosis test, Kolmogorov- Sminorv test were adopted to check for normality.

a) Skewness and Kurtosis Test Results

Skewness and Kurtosis Tests were carried out. According to Kothari and Gard (2014) skewness test is based on mean and median while kurtosis measures the peakness of the curve of the frequency distribution. The results in Table 4.36.

Table 4.34: Competency Skills Skewness and Kurtosis Test Results

Variable	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Competency_skills	132	-.177	.211	-.234	.419

Table 4.36 shows that a skewness coefficient of -0.177 and kurtosis coefficient of -0.234. The results showed that data was normally distributed. This was because their statistic values were between -1 and +1.

b) One-Sample Kolmogorov Sminorv Test

Kolmogorov Sminorv test is used to assess the null hypothesis that a given sample of data was picked from a normally distributed population. The null hypothesis is always rejected wherever the p value is less than 0.05. The results are shown in Table 4.37.

Table 4.35: Competency Skills One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Results

N		132
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.5701
	Std. Deviation	.62501
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.068
	Positive	.037
	Negative	-.068
Test Statistic		.068
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.200 ^{c,d}

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

d. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

From the results in Table 4.37 the p value (0.2) is more than 0.05. This is as per the specified level of significance of >0.05. This data was therefore considered normal.

4.8.6 Competency Skills Autocorrelation Test (Durbin-Watson)

The existence of sequential correlation among the OLS regressions is assessed using Durbin and Watson's test statistic (Yupitun, 2008). This is because a high degree of correlation among residuals of the regressions' data sets may produce inefficient results. Durbin-Watson results are shown in Table 4.38.

Table 4.36: Competency Skills Durbin-Watson (Autocorrelation) Test Results

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.390 ^a	.152	.139	.97663	1.982

a. Predictors: (Constant), Professionalknowledge_skills, Conceptual_skills

b. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4.38 shows that Durbin-Watson statistic ranges from 0 to 4 with an ultimate value of 2 demonstrating that errors are not correlated, though values from 1.75 to 2.25 may be considered satisfactory. For example, Makori and Jagongo (2013) consider Durbin-Watson value between 1.5 and 2.5 as satisfactory level showing no existence of collinearity. Hence, the Durbin-Watson value of 1.982 shows that the model did not suffer from autocorrelation.

4.8.7 Competency Skills Multicollinearity Test

There should be no exact correlation between any two independent variables. Although various tests exist in literature, VIF test will be more appropriate (Chin, 2010). The results are shown in Table 4.39.

Table 4.37: Competency Skills Multicollinearity Test Results

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	
	Conceptual_skills	1.000
	Professional_knowledge_skills	1.000

Table 4.39 results show that the VIF value is 1.000 hence the data is adequate for linear regression analysis. This is because when the VIF is more than 10 then there is a serious problem of multicollinearity (Yupitun, 2008).

4.8.8 Competency Skills and Leadership Performance Correlation Test

To understand the relationship between competency skills and leadership performance, a correlation analysis was performed. Correlation is a test concerned with relationship between variables (Chin, 2010). Pearson's correlation coefficient tests the statistical relationship between two variables. It is also referred to as the most ideal method of assessing the relationship between variables of interest as it is based on the method of covariance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

The study investigated correlation between independent variable (conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills) and leadership performance. The aim was to determine degree to which the two sets of variables are associated. The Pearson correlation coefficient was generated at 0.01 significance level (2-tailed). The results are shown in Table 4.40.

Table 4.38: Competency Skills Correlation Test Results

Conceptual_skills	Pearson	1		
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
Professionalknowledge_skills	N	132		
	Pearson	-.016	1	
	Correlation			
Leadership_Performance	Sig. (2-tailed)	.856		
	N	132	132	
	Pearson	.385**	.060	1
	Correlation			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.495	
	N	132	132	132

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.40 results indicate correlation matrix showing the correlation analysis with varying degree of interrelationship amongst conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills norms and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Results show that in Kenyan parastatals conceptual skills and leadership performance have moderate ($r= 0.385$, $p= 0.000$) significant relationship. Further, results show that in Kenyan parastatals, professional knowledge skills and leadership performance have very weak ($r= 0.060$, $p= 0.495$) positive significant relationship. According to Kothari (2004) the closer the value is to 1 the greater the degree of correlation.

4.8.9 Competency Skills ANOVA Test

Analysis of Variation (ANOVA) test was conducted to determine whether the whole model had any significant fitness of the data. According to Creswell (2013) ANOVA is a technique for testing the statement that there is no significant variance among three or more sample means. It measures the assumption by means of associating two different estimations of the population differences. The results are shown in Table 4.41.

Table 4.39: Competency Skills ANOVA Test Results

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	22.101	2	11.050	11.585	.000 ^b
	Residual	123.042	129	.954		
	Total	145.143	131			
2	Regression	89.029	3	29.676	67.694	.000 ^c
	Residual	56.114	128	.438		
	Total	145.143	131			

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Professionalknowledge_skills, Conceptual_skills

c. Predictors: (Constant), Professionalknowledge_skills, Conceptual_skills, Organizational_Culture

Results in Table 4.41 show that a significant relationship exists between conceptual skills, professional knowledge skills and leadership performance ($F= 11.585$, $p= 0.000$) as indicated in Model 1. When moderating variable i.e. organizational culture, is incorporated, the F value increased ($F = 67.694$, $p= 0.000$) as indicated in Model 2. However, the results still revealed a significant relationship between the competency skills and leadership performance. The p value for both models is less than 0.05. Hence, showing that predictor variables explain the variation in the dependent variable which is leadership performance. According to Lakew and Rao (2009) where the significance value of F is larger than 0.05 then it would be difficult to explain the variation in the dependent variable with the independent variables.

4.8.10 Competency Skills Goodness-of-fit Model Test

The results in Table 4.45 showed that competency skills measures i.e. conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills illustrative power on leadership performance as it accounted for 15.2% of its variability ($R\text{ Square} = 0.152$) as indicated in Model 1. This implies a weak positive relationship between competency skills and leadership performance i.e. the variations in effectiveness and efficiency is accounted for by conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills in parastatals in Kenya. The results are shown in Table 4.42.

Table 4. 40: Competency Skills Model Summary Test Results

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.390 ^a	.152	.139		.97663
2	.783 ^b	.613	.604		.66211

a. Predictors: (Constant), Professionalknowledge_skills, Conceptual_skills

b. Predictors: (Constant), Professionalknowledge_skills, Conceptual_skills, Organizational_Culture

Table 4.42 Model 2 shows the explanatory power of allocation of competency skills measures i.e. conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills changed when organizational culture was incorporated into the model (R Square = 0.613). This implies that the moderating variable, involvement culture had some significant influence on competency skills and leadership performance.

4.8.11 Regression Results of Competency Skills and Leadership Performance

Regression analysis was conducted to empirically establish whether competency skills measures i.e. conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills had any significant influence on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Table 4.43 displays the regression coefficients results of the competency skills measures i.e. conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills. To determine the influence of competency skills measures i.e. conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya, the following hypothesis was stated as shown:

Hypothesis Two

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant influence of competency skills on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

Table 4.41: Competency Skills Coefficients Tests Results

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.268	.519		2.443	.016
Conceptual_skills	.504	.106	.386	4.757	.000
Professionalknowledge_skills	.072	.088	.066	.815	.417

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4.43 results show that the regression coefficients result of the competency skills measures i.e. conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills. Conceptual skills (supported by $\beta=0.386$, p value=0.000) and professional knowledge skills (supported by $\beta=-0.066$, p value= 0.417). Conceptual skills are statistically significant in explaining leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya while professional knowledge skills is not statistically significant in explaining leadership in parastatals in Kenya.

$$Y_i = 1.268 + 0.504 X_1 \dots\dots\dots (4.4)$$

Where, X_1 – Conceptual Skills

It was concluded that there is statistically significant relationship between conceptual skills and leadership performance. To test hypothesis two, a combined regression model was run between performance and competency skills and results given in Table 44.

Table 4. 42: Competency Skills Combined Coefficients Test Results

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.767	.512		3.455	.001
Competency_skills	.495	.141	.294	3.508	.001

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4.44 shows that competency skills has significant influence on performance since the p value of the slope is less than 0.05. This implies that the null hypothesis is rejected. This means that there is significant relationship between performance and competency skills, the model is presented by equation 4.5 as shown:

$$Y_i = 1.767 + 0.495X_1 \dots\dots\dots (4.5)$$

Where X_1 is Competency Skills

To determine the moderation effect of organizational culture on competency skills and leadership performance. The hypothesis was stated as shown.

Hypothesis Five

H_{01} : There is no statistically significant moderating effect of competency skills on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

Moderated regression analysis was also conducted. This was to empirically determine whether competency skills measures moderated with organizational culture had any significant influence on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The results are shown in Table 4.45.

Table 4. 43: Competency Skills Moderated Regression Analysis Test Results

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.767	.512		3.455	.001
Competency_skills	.495	.141	.294	3.508	.001
2 (Constant)	.307	.354		.868	.387
Competency_skills	-.621	.126	-.369	-4.944	.000
CompetencySkills_ OrganizationalCultu	1.561	.119	.981	13.146	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4.45 shows the regression coefficients results of the moderated allocation of competency skills measures. The interaction variable between competency skills and organizational culture has a p-value of 0.000 ($p < 0.05$). This implies that the moderating variable, organizational culture, has significant moderating effect on competency skills and leadership performance. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. The moderated regression model is summarized as shown below:

$$Y_i = 0.307 + 0.621X_1 \dots\dots\dots (4.6)$$

Where X_1 is Competency Skills

It was concluded that, there is moderation effect of organizational culture on competency skills measures i.e. conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills in parastatals in Kenya.

4.9 Workplace Policies and Leadership Performance

The third objective of the study was to determine the effect of workplace policies on women leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya. This objective was operationalized by two constructs namely; affirmative action policies and family-friendly policies and seven sub-variables were tested for factor analysis. To investigate the number of constructs and structure of workplace policies items, principal component analysis was carried out. The objective was to identify latent

constructs represented in the original items. Factor analysis procedure is commonly used as a hypothesis generator for confirmatory factor analysis Reio and Shuck (2015) and studies recommend the factor analysis to be conducted with items to identify any problematic items. To define the number of factors to remove, the study took into consideration the two criterions; eigen value and number of factors. The study used the baseline eigen value extraction criterion, two- factor structure was extracted. The results suggested a two-factor solution was appropriate. This means that the two factors were adequate to explain the variance in the original variables. The varimax rotation maximizes the factor loadings, assuming no correlations between components. The number of factors to extract was eventually adjusted at two.

4.9.1 Sample Adequacy Results on Workplace Policies

Workplace policies items in parastatals were factorized using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity were used to test the overall significance of all the correlations within the correlation matrix. To measure the suitability of the data for factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was used. The results are shown in Table 4.46.

Table 4.44: Workplace Policies KMO and Bartlett's Test Results

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.872
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	410.089
	df	21
	Sig.	.000

The results in Table 4.46 shows the KMO and Bartlett's test sample adequacy for factor analysis. Bartlett's test of sphericity, tests the total significance of all the correlations within the correlation matrix. It was found to be significant (χ^2 (21) = 410,089, $p < 0.001$) as shown on Table 4.59 showing that it was suitable to use the factor analytic model on this set of data.

The results indicates that correlation matrix is not diagonal and significant correlations exist. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy showed

that the strength of the relationships among variables was high (KMO = 0.872). An overall KMO >0.6 is adequate; >0.8 is good Thus the strength of the relationship is good. Therefore it was acceptable to progress with factor analysis.

4.9.2 Factor Analysis Results on Workplace Policies

The principle component analysis was used for data reduction and interpretation of the large set of data. Seven questions relating to perceptions on women leaders were factor analyzed using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. Total variance explained by the extracted components is shown in Table 4.47.

Table 4.45: Workplace Policies Total Variance Explained Test Results

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.725	53.212	53.212	3.725	53.212	53.212
2	1.143	16.327	69.539	1.143	16.327	69.539
3	.804	11.493	81.032			
4	.424	6.062	87.094			
5	.349	4.979	92.073			
6	.311	4.440	96.513			
7	.244	3.487	100.000			

Table 4.47 shows that the seven questions relating to workplace policies of women leaders were analyzed by use of principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The analysis generated two factors which had a greater influence on workplace policies with cumulative variance of 69.539% of the variance for the entire set of variables. The result imply that the two factors are sufficient to explain the underlying structure of workplace policies of women leadership in parastatals in Kenya. Factor one was higher with 53.212% while factor two had 16.327% of total variance as shown on Table 4.47. According to Hair *et al.* (2012), sixty per cent is acceptable variance explained in factor analysis for a construct to be valid. Therefore the high explained variance of 69.539% demonstrates good construct validity.

4.9.3 Workplace Policies Rotated Component Matrix Results

Another way of assessing construct validity is through convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity measures the strength of the relationship between a measure and other measures that reflects the same concept (Chin, 2010). Determining convergent validity ensures that the factor loadings of indicators are each at least 0.4 and AVE values are also each at least 0.4 (Chin, 2010). Variance extracted is the square of the factor loading of each item. The AVE is obtained by summing all the variance extracted of all items in a construct then divided by the number of items in the construct. As mentioned, AVE greater than 0.5 demonstrate convergent validity. The results are shown in Table 4.48.

Table 4.46: Workplace Policies Principal Component Analysis.

Opinion Statement	Component	
	1	2
Organizational policies have often supported equality in accessing leadership opportunities in various scopes of jurisdiction.	.882	
The policies set up in my organization support individual development of women leaders as they pursue to enhance their leadership performance.	.812	
Women leaders in my organization know and understand the existing gender sensitive policies.	.842	
Appropriate affirmative action policies in place help support and nurture my efforts to be a successful leader.	.855	
Policies set up in my organization have been helpful to create a balance between my work and family responsibilities.	.842	
Top management in my organization publicly advocate for the need for gender diversity.		.768
In my organization, childcare and family commitments are often regarded as women roles.		.790

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

The results in Table 4.48 show that all the variables of workplace policies have a factor loading of higher than 0.4. An inspection of the varimax rotated results indicated that component loaded to both component one and component two. The element with double loading weakens construct validity, and hence should be deleted. In this case, no item had double loading. An assessment of the varimax rotated results indicated that the elements were loaded to both component one and

component two. The five items in the first component (affirmative action policies) have good loading values of 0.4 and above. All are above the threshold value of 0.4. The other two items of the second component (family-friendly policies) similarly had values above 0.4. All are above the threshold value of 0.4. Hence, the component values show they have a high interrelationship each other demonstrating convergent validity.

4.9.4 Descriptive Results of Workplace Policies

Workplace policies was assessed by two constructs namely professional development models and social networking models. Descriptive data results shown in Table 4.62 shows the significant results on a scale of 1 to 5 (where 5 = Strongly Disagree to 1 = Strongly Agree). The mean score of affirmative action policies was 3.1606 which implies that the respondents agreed with the statements. The mean score of family-friendly policies was 2.9268 implying that the respondents were uncertain about the statements. The results are shown in Table 49.

Table 4. 47: Workplace Policies Descriptive Results

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	Cronbach's alpha
Affirmativeaction_policies	3.1606	1.08937	.906
Family-friendly_policies	2.9268	.70778	.781
Valid N (listwise)			

Table 4.49 shows that the respondents were uncertain that policies aligned to the need to ensure equality of opportunities in the parastatals are significant in enhancing women leadership performance. They also neither agreed nor disagreed that they contribute in improving individual development of the women leaders. The respondents were also uncertain that other stakeholders are required to be committed in ensuring that these affirmative action as well as other family friendly policies are implemented as indicated in a means score of 3.1606.

The results show that the respondents neither agreed or disagreed that top management of most parastatals are publicly involved in advocating favourable policies that ensure diversity in leadership positions. Respondents also neither

agreed or disagree that child care and family commitments are only seen as women issues as indicated in a means score of 2.9268. Cronbach’s alpha is appropriate to test the reliability of the proposed sub-variables (Ali *et al.*, 2016). The findings indicated that affirmative action policies measures had a coefficient of 0.906 while that of family-friendly policies measures had a coefficient of 0.781. Both variables affirmative action policies and family-friendly policies measures depicted Cronbach’s alpha of above the suggested 0.7 hence the study was reliable.

4.9.5 Workplace Policies Normality Test Results

It is usually critical to carry out normality tests before confidence interval estimates of the parameters and testing constructs. The assumption is that the variables have normal distribution. Ali *et al.* (2016) revealed that utmost significant facets for statistical analysis are assumptions and application of statistical tools. Fitness of the tests was also considered. Skewness, and Kurtosis test and Kolmogorov-Sminorv tests were conducted.

a) Skewness and Kurtosis Test

The study carried out Skewness and Kurtosis Tests to check for normality. According to Kothari and Gard (2014) skewness test is based on mean and median while Kurtosis measures the peaked-ness of the curve. The results are shown in Table 4.50.

Table 4.48: Workplace Policies Skewness and Kurtosis Test Results

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Workplace_Policies	-.061	.211	-.354	.419

Table 4.50 shows a skewness coefficient of -0.061 and kurtosis coefficient of -0.354. The results indicate that data had normal distribution because their statistic values were between -1 and +1.

b) One-Sample Kolmogorov Sminorv Test

Kolmogorov smirnov test is used to test null hypothesis that a given sample of data was picked from a normally distributed population. The null hypothesis is always rejected whenever the p value is less than 0.05. The results of the one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of this study are shown in Table 4.51.

Table 4.49: Workplace Policies One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Results

N		132
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.0437
	Std. Deviation	.61696
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.036
	Positive	.036
	Negative	-.031
Test Statistic		.036
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.200 ^{c,d}

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

d. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

Table 4.51 shows that the p value (0.2) is more than the specified level of significance of 0.05. This therefore, means that the data is normal for this study. The greatest significant aspects for statistical analysis are assumptions and application of statistical tools as well as suitability of the tests (Ali *et al.*, 2016).

4.9.6 Workplace Policies Autocorrelation Test (Durbin-Watson) Test

A great degree of association among residuals of the regressions’ data sets may result in inefficient results. Therefore, the existence of sequential correlation among the OLS regressions is tested by Durbin and Watson’s test statistic (Yupitun, 2008). Yupitun (2008) asserts that since an extraordinary degree of correlation between residuals of the regressions’ data sets could yield unproductive results. The occurrence of successive association amongst the OLS regressions is tested. The results are shown in Table 4.52.

Table 4.50: Workplace Policies Durbin-Watson Test (Autocorrelation) Results

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.696 ^a	.484	.476	.76206	1.867

a. Predictors: (Constant), Family-friendly_policies, Affirmativeaction_policies

b. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4.52 results show Durbin-Watson value of 1.867. This means that the model did not suffer from autocorrelation. It is important to note that Durbin-Watson statistic ranges in value from 0 to 4 with an ultimate value of 2. This shows that errors are not correlated. However, values from 1.75 to 2.25 may be considered satisfactory. For example, Makori and Jagongo (2013) consider Durbin-Watson value between 1.5 and 2.5 as acceptable level showing no presence of collinearity.

4.9.7 Workplace Policies Multicollinearity Test

There should be no exact correlation between any two independent variables. Various tests exist in literature, but VIF test will be more appropriate (Chin, 2010). When the VIF is more than 10 then there is a serious problem of Multicollinearity. The Multicollinearity Test results are shown in Table 4.53.

Table 4.51: Workplace Policies Multicollinearity Test Results

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)		
	Affirmativeaction_policies	.989	1.012
	Family-friendly_policies	.989	1.012

Table 4.53 shows that the VIF value is 1.012. The value is not more than 10. There was no exact correlation between affirmative action policies and family friendly policies implying that the data is acceptable for linear regression.

4.9.8 Workplace Policies and Leadership Performance Correlation Test

To determine the relationship between workplace policies and leadership performance, a correlation analysis was performed. Correlation is a procedure concerned with relationship between variables. Pearson's correlation coefficient measures the statistical relationship between two variables. It is also considered as an appropriate method of assessing the relationship between variables of interest. This is because, according to (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) it is founded on the technique of covariance. The study investigated correlation between variables (affirmative action policies and family friendly policies) and leadership performance. The results are shown in Table 4.54.

Table 4.52: Workplace Policies Correlation Test Results

Affirmativeaction_policies	Pearson Correlation	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
	N	132		
Familyfriendly_policies	Pearson Correlation	-.107	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.222		
	N	132	132	
Leadership_Performance	Pearson Correlation	.695**	-.040	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.653	
	N	132	132	132

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.54 results show that leadership performance and affirmative action policies have a strong ($r= 0.695$, $p= 0.000$) positive relationship while leadership performance and family friendly policies have very weak ($r=- 0.040$, $p= 0.653$) negative significant relationship. According to Kothari (2004) the closer the value is to 1 the higher the degree of correlation. The aim was to define degree to which the two sets of variables are related. The pearson correlation coefficient was conducted at 0.01 significance level (2-tailed).

Workplace Policies ANOVA Test

Analysis of Variation (ANOVA) test was also done to determine whether the entire model had a significant fitness of data. According to Creswell (2013) ANOVA is a method for testing the statement that there is no significant variance among three or more sample means. It measures the assumption by means of associating two different estimations of the population differences. The results are shown in Table 4.55.\

Table 4.53: Workplace Policies ANOVA Test Results

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	70.229	2	35.114	60.466	.000 ^b
	Residual	74.914	129	.581		
	Total	145.143	131			
2	Regression	91.421	3	30.474	72.608	.000 ^c
	Residual	53.722	128	.420		
	Total	145.143	131			

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Family-friendly_policies, Affirmativeaction_policies

c. Predictors: (Constant), Family-friendly_policies, Affirmativeaction_policies, Organizational_Culture

Table 4.55 shows a significant relationship between workplace policies and leadership performance ($F=60.466$, $p=0.000$) as shown in Model 1. After the moderator was introduced i.e. organizational culture F value increased ($F=75.620$, $p=0.000$) as indicated in Model 2. A significant relationship between workplace policies and leadership performance was observed. The P value for both models is less than 0.05, signifying that predictor variables describe the variation in the dependent variable. If the significance value of F was larger than 0.05 then the independent variables would not explain the variation in the dependent variable (Lakew & Rao, 2009).

4.9.10 Workplace Policies Goodness-of-fit Model Test

The results on Table 4.70 shows that workplace policies measure (i.e. affirmative action policies and family friendly policies) had explanatory power on leadership performance as it accounted for 48.4% of its variability ($R\text{ Square} = 0.484$) as

indicated in Model 1, implying a strong positive relationship between workplace policies and leadership performance. The results are shown in Table 4.56.

Table 4. 54: Workplace Policies Model Summary Test Results

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.696 ^a	.484	.476	.76206
2	.794 ^b	.630	.621	.64784

a. Predictors: (Constant), Family-friendly_policies, Affirmativeaction_policies

b. Predictors: (Constant), Family-friendly_policies, Affirmativeaction_policies, Organizational_Culture

Results on Model 2 on Table 4.56 shows that the explanatory power of workplace policies measures i.e. affirmative action policies and family friendly is incorporated into the model (R Square=0.630). This implies that the moderating variable, organizational culture has a significant influence on workplace policies and leadership performance. This therefore, shows that the variables are good predictors of leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya.

4.9.11 Regression Results of Workplace Policies

Regression analysis was carried out to empirically determine whether workplace policies measures i.e. family friendly policies and affirmative action policies had any significant influence on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Table 4.57 shows the regression coefficients results of the workplace policies measures i.e. family friendly policies and affirmative action policies. To determine the influence of workplace policies i.e. family friendly policies and affirmative action policies and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya, the following hypotheses were stated:

Hypothesis Three

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant influence of workplace policies on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

Table 4.55: Regression Coefficients of Workplace Policies Test Results

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.249	.361		3.459	.001
	Affirmativeaction_policies	.675	.061	.698	10.979	.000
	Family-friendly_policies	.052	.095	.035	.554	.580

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4.57 shows the regression coefficients results of workplace policies measures i.e. affirmative-action policies and family-friendly policies. Affirmative-action policies (supported by $\beta=0.698$, p-value=0.000) and family-friendly policies (supported by $\beta=0.035$, p value=0.580). It explains that affirmative-action policies has statistically significant influence on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya, while family-friendly policies has no significant influence on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The model is presented by equation 4.7 as shown below:

$$Y_i = 1.249 + 0.675X_1 \dots\dots\dots (4.7)$$

Where, X_1 – Affirmative-action policies

It was concluded that a statistically significant relationship exists between affirmative-action policies and leadership performance. To test hypothesis three, a combined regression model was run between performance and affirmative-action policies and results given in Table 4.58.

Table 4. 56: Workplace Policies Coefficients Test Results

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.468	.375		1.249	.214
	Workplace_Policies	1.008	.121	.591	8.346	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Results in Table 4.58 show that perception has significant influence on performance since the p value of the slope is less than 0.05. This implies that the null hypothesis is rejected. It can be concluded that there is significant relationship between

performance and workplace policies. The model is presented by equation 4.8 as shown below:

$$Y_i = 0.468 + 1.008X_1 \dots\dots\dots (4.8)$$

Where X_1 is Workplace Policies

To determine the moderation effect of organizational culture on perceptions and leadership performance, the following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis Five

H₀₅: There is no statistically significant moderating effect of organizational culture on workplace policies on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Moderated regression analysis was carried out to empirically establish whether workplace policies measures moderated with organizational culture had any significant influence on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The results are shown in Table 4.59.

Table 4. 57: Moderated Regression Coefficients of Workplace Policies

Model	Unstandardi	Standardized	t		
	zed	Coefficients	Sg		
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	.468	.375		1.249	.214
workplace_policies	1.008	.121	.591	8.346	.000
2 (Constant)	.275	.289		.955	.342
workplace_policies	-.401	.174	-.235	-2.307	.023
WorkplacePolicies_ organization_culture	1.389	.145	.976	9.568	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4.59 shows the regression coefficients results of the moderated competency skills measures. The interaction variable between workplace policies has p value of 0.000 (p<0.05). This implies that the moderating variable, organizational culture has significant moderating effect on workplace policies measures on leadership

performance in parastatals in Kenya. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. The moderated regression model is summarized as shown below:

$$Y_i = 0.275 + 1.389 X_1 \dots\dots\dots (4.8)$$

Where X_1 is Workplace Policies

It was concluded that, there is moderation effect of organizational culture on workplace policies i.e affirmative-action policies and family-friendly policies in parastatals in Kenya.

4.10 Role Models and Leadership Performance

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the effect of role models on women leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya. This objective was operationalized by two constructs namely; professional development models and social networking models. The sub-variables were tested for factor analysis. To investigate the number of constructs and structure of competency skills items, principal component analysis was conducted. The objective of factor analysis was to identify latent constructs represented in the original items.

Factor Analysis (FA) procedure is commonly used as a hypothesis generator for confirmatory factor analysis Reio and Shuck (2015) and studies recommend the FA to be conducted with items to identify any problematic items. To define the number of factors to extract, the study took into consideration the two criteria; eigen value and number of factors. Using the baseline eigen value extraction criterion, only one factor structure was extracted.

The screech plot suggested a two factor solution was also appropriate. That is to say the two factors were sufficient to explain the variance in the original variables. The varimax rotation maximizes the factor loadings, assuming no correlations between components. The number of factors to extract was finally adjusted at two. Therefore, varimax orthogonal rotation was used to interpret the two factors.

4.10.1 Sample Adequacy Results on Role Models

The KMO and Bartlett's tests were carried out to measure the relationship between role models variables. Role models items in parastatals were factorized using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. To measure the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of Sampling Adequacy was used to test the sample adequacy of each variable in the model. The results are shown in Table 4.60.

Table 4. 58: Role Models KMO and Bartlett's Test Results

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.700
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	223.336
	df	21
	Sig.	.000

Table 4.60 shows that Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2(21) = 223,336$, $p < 0.001$), showing that it was appropriate to use the factor analysis model on this category of data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy showed that strength of the relationships among variables was high (KMO = 0.700), thus it was suitable to proceed with the analysis. This value designates good partial correlation shown in the data for this study. Ali *et al.* (2016) shows that KMO index ranges from 0 to 1, with 0.5 and above are considered suitable for factor analysis.

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ought to be significant at $p < 0.05$ for factor analysis to be appropriate. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity p value is 0.000. Rusuli *et al.* (2013) revealed that the measure of sampling adequacy ought to exceed 0.5 and Bartlett's test of Sphericity should be less than 0.05.

4.10.2 Factor Analysis Results of Role Models

Factor analysis was conducted on role models variables and constructs were exposed to different tests through the principal component analysis test. The principle component analysis was used. All the measures of role models were subjected to

factor analysis and the results showed that there were two factors extracted that were explaining aspects of role models which had a cumulative value of 55.785% of the total variance. The results are shown in Table in 4.61.

Table 4.59: Role Models Total Variance Explained Test Results

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.766	39.521	39.521	2.766	39.521	39.521
2	1.138	16.264	55.785	1.138	16.264	55.785
3	.888	12.690	68.475			
4	.834	11.912	80.387			
5	.734	10.489	90.877			
6	.334	4.773	95.650			
7	.305	4.350	100.000			

Results in Table 4.61 show that factor one which was the highest had 39.521% influence while factor two had 16.264%. The two factors had their eigen values greater than 1 and were considered to have the greatest influence on role models as it explain about 55.785% of the total variance.

4.10.3 Role Models Rotated Component Matrix Test

Component 1 was professional development models which had four items, component 2 was social networking models which had three items. All the allocation of role models variables have a factor loading of higher than 0.4. Hence, the component values show that they have a high interrelationship with each other. An inspection of the varimax rotated results show the component role models items loaded to both component one and component two. The results are shown in Table 4.62.

Table 4.60: Role Models Rotated Component Matrix Test Results

Opinion Statement	Component	
	1	2
I get encouragement from senior women leaders in my organization who inspire me to pursue future professional aspirations.	.786	
Successful women leaders in my organization are well versed with the required leadership competencies.	.787	
Leadership mentorship programs are available in my organization for mentoring aspiring women leaders.	.723	
The input from women role models have enhance my leadership capabilities in my scope of jurisdiction.	.820	
Female incorporated with male co-leadership has contributed in modelling positive leadership behaviors of leaders.		.627
Gender expectations of leadership roles facilitate growth of women leaders.		.708
Senior leaders in my organization focus or building respect and positive ethical behaviors for potential women leaders to emulate.		.572

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Table 4.62 shows that five out of seven items strongly loaded on factor 1. An assessment of the varimax rotated results indicated that component competency skills loaded to both component one and component two. All are above the threshold value of 0.4. According to Rusuli *et al.* (2013) each discrete variable must take the value of 0.4 and above.

4.10.4 Descriptive Results of Role Models

Role Models was assessed by two constructs namely professional development models and social networking models. Descriptive data shown on Table 4.63 shows the significant results on a scale of 1 to 5 where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. This section shows the mean scores are all less than 3.5 which implies that they did not agree or disagree to the statements. The mean and standard deviations of the two constructs are as shown in Table 4.63.

Table 4.61: Role Models Descriptive Results

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	Cronbach's alpha
Professionaldevelopment_models	3.4773	1.00971	.873
Socialnetworking_models	3.4798	.63841	.754
Valid N (listwise)			

Table 4.63 shows the mean score of professional development models was 3.4773 which implies that the participants on agreed with the statement. The mean score of social networking models was 3.4798 implying that the respondents were neutral about the statements.

It was established that the respondents were uncertain that role models at the place of work were significant in improving women leadership. Respondents were also uncertain that indeed they got encouragement from senior women leaders who support other women to progress professionally and hence develop positive performance goals. It was also established that respondents were uncertain that it was important to avail women role models for example by allowing female and male co-leadership which contributes to model new behaviours in women as shown by a mean score of 3.4773.

It was established that respondents were also uncertain that it was important for women leaders to seek mentorship from teams. They did not agree or disagree that the value expectations in a group also facilitate women leadership. The respondents did not agree or disagree that they focus on building respect and consider the ethical consequences of decisions taken as indicated by a mean score of 3.4798. Cronbach's alpha was used to test reliability of the proposed sub-variables (Ali *et al.*, 2016). The findings indicated that professional development models measures had a reliability coefficient of 0.873 while that of social networking measures had a coefficient of 0.754. Both variables affirmative action policies and family-friendly policies measures shows Cronbach's alpha value of above the suggested 0.7 hence, the study was reliable.

4.10.5 Role Models Normality Test

To check for normality, the study adopted the Skewness, and Kurtosis test and Kolmogorov-smirnov test. According to Ali *et al.* (2016) their study showed that the most significant aspects for statistical analysis are assumptions and application of statistical tools as well as suitability of the tests.

a) Skewness and Kurtosis Test

Skewness and Kurtosis Tests were carried out and according to Kothari and Gard (2014) measure of skewness is based on mean and median. Kurtosis measures the peaked-ness of the curve of the frequency distribution. The results are shown in Table 4.64.

Table 4.62: Role Models Skewness and Kurtosis Test Results

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Role_Models	132	-.225	.211	-.455	.419

Table 4.64 shows a skewness coefficient of -0.225 and kurtosis coefficient of -0.455. The results show that data had normal distribution since their statistic values were between -1 and +1.

b) One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

This is used to test the null hypothesis that a given sample of data was picked from a normally distributed population. The null hypothesis is always rejected wherever the P value is less than 0.05. The results are shown in Table 4.65.

Table 4. 63: Role Models One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Results

N		132
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	12.2478
	Std. Deviation	4.80461
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.070
	Positive	.061
	Negative	-.070
Test Statistic		.070
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.196 ^c

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

The results in Table 4.65 shows that p value 0.7 is more than 0.05 which is the specified level of significance. According to the results the data was found to be normal.

4.10.6 Role Models Autocorrelation Test (Durbin-Watson)

The Durbin Watson (DW) tests for autocorrelation. This is because a high degree of correlation among residuals of the regressions' data sets could yield inadequate results. It has been shown that Durbin Watson test value of between 1.75 to 2.25 is always considered to be a sign of lack of autocorrelation. The Durbin-Watson statistic values should be between 0 and 4 (Yupitun (2008). According to Yupitun (2008) since an extraordinary degree of correlation between residuals of the regressions' data sets could yield unproductive results, the occurrence of successive association amongst the OLS regressions is tested. The results are shown in Table 4.66.

Table 4. 64: Role Models Durbin-Watson Test Results

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.594 ^a	.353	.343		.85301	1.946
a. Predictors: (Constant), Socialnetworking_models, Professional development_models						
b. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance						

Table 4.66 results show that Durbin-Watson value of 1.946 indicating the model did not suffer from autocorrelation. Durbin-Watson statistic ranges in value from 0 to 4 with an ultimate value of 2 demonstrating that errors are not correlated. However, values from 1.75 to 2.25 may be considered satisfactory. For example, Makori and Jagongo (2013) consider Durbin-Watson value between 1.5 and 2.5 as acceptable level showing no presence of collinearity.

4.10.7 Role Models Multicollinearity Test

There should be no exact correlation between any two independent variables. Various tests exist in literature. However, when VIF is more than 10, then there is a serious problem of Multicollinearity Chin (2010). The results are shown in Table 4.67.

Table 4.65: Role Models Multicollinearity Test Results

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)		
	Professionaldevelopment_models	.999	1.001
	Socialnetworking_models	.999	1.001

Table 4.67 shows that the VIF value is 1.001. This means that the data is adequate for regression analysis. It does not suffer from multicollinearity. This is because there was no exact correlation between professional development models and social networking models.

4.10.8 Role Models and Leadership Performance Correlations Results

To appreciate the relationship between role models and leadership performance, a correlation analysis was performed. Correlation is a method concerned with relationship between variables. Pearson's correlation coefficient measures the statistical relationship between two variables. It is also referred to as the most appropriate method of assessing the relationship between variables of interest as it is founded on the method of covariance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

The study investigated the relationship between independent variable - professional development models and social networking models and leadership performance. The aim was to establish the degree extent to which the two sets of variables are related. Strong and significant relationship shows the desirable state to enable the women leadership. The pearson correlation coefficient was produced at 0.01 significance level (2-tailed). Correlation matrix shows the correlation analysis with a differing degree of interrelationship between professional development models and social networking models and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The results are shown in Table 4.68.

Table 4.66: Role Models Correlation Test Results

Professionaldevelopment_models	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 132		
Socialnetworking_models	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.025 .773 132	1 132	
Leadership_Performance	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.592** .000 132	-.073 .403 132	1 132

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.68 shows that leadership performance and professional development models have a strong ($r=0.592$, $p=0.000$) positive relationship while leadership performance and social networking models have very weak ($r=-0.073$, $p=0.403$) negative insignificant relationship.

4.10.9 Role Models ANOVA Test

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test was conducted to determine whether the entire model had significant fitness of the data. According to Creswell (2013) ANOVA is a technique for testing the statement that there is no significant variance amongst three or more sample means. It measures the assumption by means of associating two different estimations of the population differences. The results are shown in Table 4.69.

Table 4.67: Role Models Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Test Results

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	51.279	2	25.639	35.237	.000 ^b
	Residual	93.864	129	.728		
	Total	145.143	131			
2	Regression	89.100	3	29.700	67.834	.000 ^c
	Residual	56.043	128	.438		
	Total	145.143	131			

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Socialnetworking_models, Professionaldevelopment_models

c. Predictors: (Constant), Socialnetworking_models, Professionaldevelopment_models, Organizational_Culture

Results in Table 4.69 show that a significant relationship exists among professional development models and social networking models and leadership performance. ($F = 35.237$, $p = 0.000$) as indicated in Model 1. When moderating variable i.e. involvement culture was introduced, the results indicated that the F value increased ($F = 67.834$, $p = 0.000$) as indicated in Model 2.

The p value for both models is less than 0.05. This shows that the predictor variables explain the variation in the dependent variable (which is role models) on leadership performance. According to Lakew and Rao (2009) where the significance value of F

is larger than 0.05 then the independent variables would fail to explain the disparity in the dependent variable.

4.10.10 Role Models Goodness-of-fit Test

The results on Table 4.83 showed that role models measures i.e. professional development models and social networking models illustrative power on leadership performance is significant as it accounted for 35.3% of its variability (R Square = 0.353) as indicated in Model 1. This implies a strong positive relationship between professional development models and leadership performance. The results are shown in Table 4.70.

Table 4. 68: Role Models Model Summary Results

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.594 ^a	.353	.343		.85301
2	.784 ^b	.614	.605		.66169

a.Predictors:(Constant),Socialnetworking_models,Professionaldevelopment_models

b.Predictors:(Constant),Socialnetworking_models,Professionaldevelopment_models, Organizational_Culture

Table 4.70 shows that when the moderator i.e. involvement culture was introduced, on Model 2, the explanatory power of role models measures i.e. professional development models and social networking models was increased (R Square = 0.614). This implies that the moderating variable, organizational culture has a high influence on role models and leadership performance.

4.10.11 Regression Results of Role Models and Leadership Performance

To establish the influence of role model measures i.e. professional development models and social networking models, on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya, the following hypothesis was stated:

Hypothesis Four

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant influence of role models on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Regression analysis was conducted to empirically determine whether role models measures i.e. professional development models and social networking models, have significant influence on leadership performance in Kenya. The results are shown in Table 4.71.

Table 4.69: Regression Coefficients of Role Models Test Results

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.732	.492		3.521	.001
Professionaldevelopment_models	.615	.074	.590	8.331	.000
Socialnetworking_models	-.096	.117	-.058	-.824	.412

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4.71 displays the regression coefficients results of the workplace policies measures i.e. professional development models (supported by $\beta=0.590$, p-value = 0.000) and social networking (supported by $\beta=-0.058$, p-value = 0.412). Professional development models is statistically significant in explaining leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. However, social networking models is not statistically significant in explaining leadership in parastatals in Kenya. The regression model is summarized by equation 4.9.

$$Y_i = 1.732 + 0.615X_1 \dots\dots\dots (4.9)$$

Where, X₁ – Professional Development Models

It was concluded that there is statistically significant relationship between professional development models and leadership performance. To test hypothesis four, a combined regression model was run between performance and role models and results shown in Table 4.72.

Table 4.70: Role Model Combined Regression Model Test Results

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.603	.175		9.145	.000
	Role_models	.158	.013	.720	11.839	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

From Table 4.72 it can be seen that role models has significant influence on performance since the p value of the slope is less than 0.05. This implies that the null hypothesis is rejected. It can be concluded that there is significant relationship between performance and role models, the model is presented by equation 4.10 as:

$$Y_i = 1.603 + 0.158X_1 \dots\dots\dots (4.10)$$

Where X_1 is Role Models

To determine the moderation effect of organizational culture on role models on leadership performance, the following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis Five

H_{01} : There is no statistically significant moderating effect of organization culture on role models and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Moderated regression analysis was done to empirically establish whether role model measures moderated with organizational culture had a significant influence on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The results are shown in Table 4.73.

Table 4.71: Role Models Moderated Regression Analysis Test Results

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.603	.175		9.145	.000
	Role_models	.158	.013	.720	11.839	.000
2	(Constant)	.704	.235		2.999	.003
	Role_models	-.951	.213	-4.340	-4.473	.000
	RoleModels_Organizationalculture	1.849	.354	5.068	5.224	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4.73 displays the regression coefficients results of the moderated role models measures. The interaction variable between role models and organizational culture has a p-value of 0.000 ($p > 0.05$). This implies that the moderating variable, organization culture, has significant moderating effect on role models measures and leadership performance. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. The moderated regression model is summarized by equation 4.11:

$$Y_i = -0.951 + 1.849X_1 \dots\dots\dots (4.11)$$

Where X_1 is the interaction effect between role models and organization culture.

It was concluded that, there is moderating effect of organizational culture on the role models measures i.e. professional development models and social networking models and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

4.11 Summary of Study Variables

The study sought to establish the moderating effect of organizational culture on antecedents of women leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya. Correlation and regression analyses were done to establish the relationship and strength of the antecedents of women leadership performance to draw conclusions for this study.

4.11.1 Overall Goodness-of-fit Model Test

The overall Goodness-of-fit model test was conducted to find out the relationship between organizational culture and independent variables i.e. perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies, role models as well as the dependent variable i.e. leadership performance. The results are shown in Table 4.74.

Table 4.72: Overall Model Summary Test Results

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.777 ^a	.603	.591	.67336
2	.794 ^b	.631	.623	.65476

a. Predictors: (Constant), Role_models, Competencyskills, Perceptions, Organizational_culture

b. Predictors: (Constant), Role_models, Competencyskills, Perceptions, Organizational_culture, WorkplacePoliciesInvolvementCulture, CompetencySkillsInvolvementCulture

Table 4.74 shows that with the moderating variable, organizational culture, the explanatory power of antecedents of women i.e. perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models changed by less than 1 per cent when organizational culture is incorporated into the model (R Square = 0.623). This implies that the moderating variable, organizational culture has no influence on antecedents of women leadership performance.

4.11.2 Overall Correlations Test

Pearson Bivariate correlation coefficient was generated to compute the strength of the relationship amongst the dependent variable (leadership performance) and the independent variables (perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models). Pearson's correlation coefficient tests the statistical significance of relationship between two variables. It is also referred to as the best method of assessing the relationship between variables of interest as it is founded on the method of covariance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The results are shown in Table 4.75.

Table 4.73: Overall Correlation Test Results

Perceptions	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
	N	132				
Competency_skills	Pearson Correlation	.166	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.058				
	N	132	132			
workplace_policies	Pearson Correlation	.616*	.230**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.008			
	N	132	132	132		
Role_models	Pearson Correlation	.609*	.269**	.601**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002	.000		
	N	132	132	132	132	
Leadership_performance	Pearson Correlation	.380*	.241**	.511**	.555**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.005	.000	.000	
	N	132	132	132	132	132

Table 4.75 shows the overall correlation matrix indicating the correlation analysis with varying degree of interrelationship between all the independent variables, the moderating variable and the dependent variable. Pearson correlation coefficient was generated at 0.01 significance level (2-tailed). Specifically, the relationship between perception about women leaders in Kenyan parastatals and their performance is weak but the correlation is significant ($r=0.380$, $p<0.001$). The results imply that the more women leaders in Kenyan parastatals are positively perceived by employees and significant others, the higher they perform. The positive relationship is in line with the argument with the assumption that work-related attitudes and job performance are correlated to variances in leader–follower perceptions (Schyns, & Sanders, 2007). Further, competence skills and women leadership performance are positively correlated, the correlation is weak but significant ($r=0.241$, $p<0.001$). In this regard, the more competent skills a woman leader in Kenyan parastatals exhibit, the higher she performs.

This positive relationship is expected because competency is a set of skills, aptitudes, qualities, knowledge, behaviours and traits which predicts improvement of work performance by an individual (Müller & Turner, 2010). In addition, work place policies challenges and perceived women leadership performance are positively correlated, the correlation is strong and significant ($r=0.511$, $p<0.001$). In this regard, the more the company policies are favourable (less leadership challenges), the higher she performs. This positive relationship is expected because as the policies are more accommodative and ensure equal opportunities and also minimizes family-work conflict, they pose fewer challenges for women leaders to implement (Jones, 2017).

Finally, availability and effectiveness of role models for women leaders and perceived performance are positively correlated, the correlation is strong and significant ($r=0.555$, $p<0.001$). The result suggests that a woman leader in a Kenyan parastatals with access to effective role models, perform better than their counterparts without such role models. Karam, Gardner, Gullifor, Tribble and Li (2017) argued that role models who exhibit good leadership should set sound principles of accountability for themselves and their actions, as prerequisites for enhanced performance.

4.12 Overall Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Test

Overall Analysis of Variance was carried out to establish if there was any significant relationship that exists between antecedents of women and leadership performance in parastatals. Overall Analysis of Variance was conducted to show whether the predictor variables describe the differences in the independent variables. The results are shown in Table 4.76.

Table 4.74: Overall ANOVA Test Results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	87.559	4	21.890	48.277	.000 ^b
	Residual	57.584	127	.453		
	Total	145.143	131			
2	Regression	91.554	6	15.259	35.593	.000 ^c
	Residual	53.589	125	.429		
	Total	145.143	131			

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Role_models, Competencyskills, Perceptions, Organizational_culture

c. Predictors: (Constant), Role_models, Competencyskills, Perceptions, Organizational_culture, WorkplacePoliciesOrganization_culture, CompetencySkillsOrganization_culture

Table 4.76 results reveal that significant relationship exists between antecedents of women and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya ($F = 48.277$, $p = 0.000$) as indicated in Model 1. When moderating variable i.e. organizational culture, is incorporated, the F value reduced ($F = 35.593$, $p = 0.000$) as indicated in Model 2.

This implies that there is still a significant relationship that exists between antecedents of women i.e. perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies, role models, organizational culture and leadership performance i.e efficiency and effectiveness. Therefore, showing that the predictor variables describe the differences in the independent variables which are perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies, role models and organizational culture on leadership performance.

4.13 Overall Multiple Regression Test

Multiple regression analysis was performed to assess the relationship between the dependent variable i.e. leadership performance and the independent variables i.e. perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. The results are shown in Table 4.77.

Table 4.75: Overall Multiple Regression Test Results

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.038	.446		.084	.933
	Perceptions	.87	.108	.57	8.08	.000
	Competencyskills	.182	.048	.108	3.792	.000
	Organizational_culture	.796	.170	.769	4.673	.000
	Role_models	.115	.026	.166	4.423	.000
2	(Constant)	.199	.448		.444	.658
	PerceptionsOrganization_culture	.223	.065	.268	3.417	.001
	CompetencySkillsOrganizationCulture	.138	.066	.152	2.085	.039
	WorkplacePoliciesOrganizationCulture	.269	.073	.295	3.700	.000
	RolemodelsOrganizationCulture	.540	.260	.379	2.074	.040

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_performance

Table 4.77 presents multiple regression models where the regression results of perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models had significant influence on leadership performance with p-values <0.05. The regression results showed that perceptions influenced leadership performance by 57 per cent ($\beta=0.57$), competency skills influenced leadership performance by 10.8 per cent ($\beta=0.108$), workplace policies influenced leadership performance by 76.9 per cent ($\beta=0.769$) and role models influenced leadership performance by 16.6 per cent ($\beta=0.166$) as indicated in Model 1.

4.14 Summary of Research Hypotheses

The study sought to determine the moderating effect of organizational culture on antecedents of women and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Antecedents of women was assessed by four independent variables i.e. perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. Correlation and regression analyses were used to determine the relationship and strength of the antecedents of women leadership to draw conclusions on this study. The results are shown in Table 4.78.

Table 4.76: Summary of Research Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis	Comments
1. There is no statistically significant influence of perceptions on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.	Rejected
2. There is no statistically significant influence of competency skills on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya	Rejected
3. There is no statistically significant influence of workplace policies on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.	Rejected
4. There is no statistically significant influence of role models on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.	Rejected
5. There is no statistically significant moderating effect of organizational culture on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.	Rejected

4.15 Discussion of Key Findings

The general objective of the study was to establish the antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The variables of concern were perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. The results of the study indicate that particular key outcomes provide answers to the research findings.

4.15.1 Perceptions

The first objective was to determine the effect of perceptions as an antecedent of women leaders on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Perceptions was measured by two indicators namely; gender stereotypes and cultural norms. The results show that perceptions has a significant and positive effect on leadership performance in parastatals. The Pearson coefficient (R) ($r=0.687$, $p=0.000$) showed a strong positive relationship between gender stereotypes and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. On the other hand, the study showed no moderation effect of organizational culture on perceptions measures i.e. gender stereotypes and cultural norms.

An interesting finding was that the cultural roles that women perform had a great influence on their leadership performance. This was caused by lack of clarity in their patterns of behavior expectations. The findings showed that respondents strongly agreed that women leaders are generally perceived positively. As a result, their decisions are regarded highly because it was not about gender but the qualities they possess as leaders. These findings were in consistent with Kamla-Raj (2016) whose studies established that indeed gender did not have an effect on how people view women leaders. This did not change their perception towards women leaders as the discrimination they experienced was a result of more than just their gender.

However, according to the findings, taboos and stereotypes subjected against women and had a great impact on their efforts to pursue or accept leadership roles. It is for this reason that Basar and Sigri (2015) also agree that gender discrimination is relatively low in decision making processes in organizations. This study also supports Role Congruity Theory view of prescriptive stereotyping which can lead to women being discriminated upon. The study therefore shares the same ideology that it is this type of discrimination that leads to few women pursuing leadership positions.

4.15.2 Competency Skills

The second objective was to establish the effect of competency skills on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Competency skills was measured by two operational variable; conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills. The study results show that competency skills has a significant and positive influence on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

The pearson coefficient of correlation (R) ($r=0.060$, $p=0.495$) also showed a strong positive relationship between professional knowledge skills and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The results show there was no moderation of organizational culture on competency skills i.e. conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills. The study established that majority of respondents agreed that women leaders had made some progress in acquiring the expected conceptual skills

to support their leadership roles. This is because they have been able to access the most appropriate requisites that support their roles as leaders in their organizations. This is consistent with findings of Acker (2010) who established that female-only development programmes are likely to help achieve gender equality. This would in turn improve their leadership skills and enhance their performance.

In an interesting finding, respondents were neutral on whether parastatals have partnered with professional institutions to support emerging leaders as they pursue leadership excellence. In consistent, Shepherd (2017) established that this type of arrangement helps women to boost their confidence and skills of self-promotion. According to these studies, these programmes would help women leaders in their quest to pursue leadership prowess. This study revealed that both professional success were the main determinants of enhanced leadership performance. This is supported by O'Connor (2015) who assert that with these type of support provide women managers the opportunity to take decisions and make a difference in their organizations.

Further, the findings of this study supports Upper Echelon theory as it emphasizes the need for enhancing standards of competence excellence as a key element of better leader performance. This is because different aspects of expertise and skills are relevant for leaders in different cadres of management. The study also reveals that organizational success is a manifestation of its top management team. As a result, identifying the conceptual skills of leaders would contribute immensely to increased performance as better strategies are formulated and policy decisions made.

4.15.3 Workplace Policies

The third objective was to determine the effect of workplace policies on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Workplace policies was measured by two operational variables; affirmative-action policies and family friendly policies. The study results revealed that allocation of workplace policies has a significant and positive influence of leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The pearson coefficient of correlation (R) ($r=0.695$, $p=0.000$) also indicated a strong positive

relationship between affirmative action policies and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The study also revealed that there was no moderation effect of organizational culture on workplace policies measures i.e. affirmative-action policies and family friendly policies. In an interesting finding, the study established that the respondents were uncertain that top management in parastatals publicly advocate for the need for gender diversity. This is contrary to Leahy (2011) who established that the significance of gender equality legislation is to achieve equal opportunities for women and their job security.

The study revealed that majority of the participants were uncertain that their organizations have often supported equality in accessing leadership opportunities. Their jurisdiction and these policies help support and nurture their efforts to be successful leaders. Hence, in regard to work/life balance women are inspired to pursue more leadership roles. This is consistent with Kassily and Onkware (2010) study which established that stereotypes against women have frustrated them as they have often shied away from seeking leadership positions. This study found that when women have been incorporated in setting up work place policies, their representation in higher leadership positions is enhanced.

This study also reveals that affirmative action policies promote the aspect of diversity for women leaders. The study findings are consistent with the ideologies of transformational theory. This is because the theory provides an opportunity of appreciating the extent of interconnectedness of workplace policies and leader behavior. Hence, there is need achieve the desired changes to enhance leadership performance within the public corporations in Kenya.

4.15.4 Role Models

The fourth objective was to determine the effect of role models on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Role models was operationalized by two variables namely; professional development models and social networking models. The study results reveal that role models has a significant and positive influence of on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The Pearson coefficient of

correlation (R) ($r=0.592$, $p=0.000$) also showed a strong positive relationship between professional development models and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Nevertheless, the study showed that there was no moderation effect of organizational culture on role models measures i.e. professional development models and social networking models.

In an interesting finding, this study established that respondents agreed that there was need for male role models. According to the findings, male leaders would provide mentorship in tackling certain organizational challenges especially related to leader behavior. This would provide the necessary skills and attitudes for women leaders and encourage them to seek more leadership positions. This was because the study established that gender expectations of leadership roles facilitate the growth of women leaders.

Therefore, it was important to incorporate female leaders with male leaders in the role model framework. In other words, women leaders in the parastatals need to expand their social contacts and make connections through individuals and social sites. According to the study, the requirement for role models was attributed to the need for women leaders to enhance their networks which was significant in enhancing leadership performance. This is supported by Moran-Miller and Flores (2011) who agrees that the presence of female coaches boosted positive effect over professional choices of female leaders. These results suggest that women were keen on professional development from their role model. This indicated that women leaders benefit from role model by discovering themselves and relating with others them. According to this study, the women benefit in improved awareness and individuality, cultivate abilities and enhance achievement of their visions and goals.

This study supports transformational theory that proposes that aspiring leaders required inspiration from more senior and experienced leaders. This inspiration is centered on behaviors adopted by the leader to such things as communicating with anticipations and exhibiting the expected behavior. This current study also supports social role theory which highlights the significance of role models in inspiring women to pursue leadership positions.

4.15.5 Organizational Culture

The fifth objective was to assess the moderating effect of organizational culture on antecedents of women leaders (i.e. perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models) and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Organizational culture was assessed by involvement and consistency culture. The study sought to establish the effect of the moderating variable, organizational culture on each of the independent variables. The independent variables were; perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models, that showed significant and positive influences of on leadership performance. The findings show organizational culture measured by involvement culture has a significant and positive moderating of antecedents of women on leadership performance. The pearson coefficient of correlation (R) ($r=0.775$, $p=0.000$) also indicated a strong moderating positive relationship of involvement culture on antecedents of women and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

However, the study showed no moderation effect on antecedents of women i.e. perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. The study provide that a majority of respondents strongly agreed that decisions are usually made at all levels where the required information can be availed. Consistently, Boedker *et al.* (2011) found that when this information is widely shared, members within the organization are able to get the right information when they need it. This would help in imparting strong integrated behaviors and values are developed, a strong involvement culture emerges. According to the study, these teamwork networks support organizational operations as women in the organization believe that they can create a positive impact to the organization in their leadership roles. According to this study, organizational rules of behavior, goals and strategies were presented to enhance achievement of organizational goals. This would contribute to better decision making. However, although these studies support the significance of involvement culture in leadership effectiveness, some studies contradict the findings. For example, Hajipour and Ghanavatin (2012) showed that there was no significant association between organizational values and norms on the outcome of leaders.

4.15.6 Leadership Performance

The study sought to determine the moderating effect of organizational culture on antecedents of women leaders and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The antecedents of women leaders were: perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. Leadership performance was measured by efficiency and effectiveness. The correlation matrix showed the correlation analysis with varied degree of association amongst all the independent variable and the dependent variable. The Pearson correlation coefficient was computed at 0.01 significance level (2-tailed).

The study indicated positive relationship between perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. The results therefore, imply that the antecedents of women in this study significantly influenced leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. However, when moderation variable, organizational culture measured by involvement culture was incorporated into the study model. The study revealed an influence on leadership performance but no moderation effect on all the antecedents of women i.e. perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. The study established that majority of responses agreed that customers derived satisfaction from the organizations' leadership efficiency.

Women leaders were expected to heighten service delivery as success of the organization was attributed to the type of team effort projected by leaders in various levels of management. This was because the leaders in these organizations were able to achieve organizational goals in their work operations in their quest to serve customers effectively. This study is consistent with Kieu (2010) who established that effective leadership can be achieved and requires leader commitment. These strategies were recommended by the respondents of this study. It is important, therefore, to inculcate them in the organizational goals. This would help aspiring women leaders to recognize their strengths in particular tasks. These study findings were also in agreement with Muchiri, Cooksey, Di Milia, and Walumbwa (2011) who posit that gender and management level have a significant influence on effective leadership.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the key findings of this study. Conclusions and recommendations of the study are also given and the chapter ends with the areas for further research.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

The summary of key findings were based on specific objectives of this study as follows:

5.2.1 Effect of Perceptions on Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya

The first objective of the study sought to establish the effect of perceptions on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Perceptions was measured by two constructs namely gender stereotypes and cultural norms. The study used descriptive statistical methods to achieve the results. According to the study, most respondents agreed that their personalities were consistent. This meant that their leadership personalities had grown and developed within them since childhood. It also revealed that no personal aspects or interests influenced their assessments. This meant that it enabled them to be regarded highly in their organizations as the number of women leaders' role in parastatals in Kenya. Majority of respondents also agreed that their daily roles as women had a great influence on their leadership performance. This means that one who asserts the awareness of stereotypes against women may undermine women's performance in leadership tasks.

In the second theme of cultural norms, most of the respondents believed their conventions were often clear. Hence they were able to meet these patterns of

behavior expected as women leaders. This meant that people respect their inherent values and norms often remain ethical. This is because societal development was initiated by individuals transferred what they learned in their homes.

From the findings it was noted that taboos and stereotypes subjected against women had a great impact in their prospects for leadership. Inferential statistical methods were used to produce findings and deductions. Findings on correlation and regression analyses indicate that there was a statistically significant association between gender stereotypes (supported by $\beta = 0.688$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$) and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. However, cultural norms (supported by $\beta = -0.040$, $p\text{-value} = 0.529$) was established to be statistically significant in explaining leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Gender stereotypes was found to be statistically significant in explaining the effect of antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. It is depicted from the results that a slight change in gender stereotypes of women in parastatals in Kenya resulted in a change in their leadership performance.

5.2.2 Effect of Competencies on Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya

The second objective of the study sought to determine the effect of competency skills on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. It had two themes, the effect of conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills on their leadership performance. The study applied descriptive statistical methods to reach at the results. Majority of respondents were in agreement that it was important to improve their knowledge, skills and attitudes to enhance their professional and career growth. Majority of respondents also agreed that higher professional accomplishment was a prerequisite for enhanced leadership performance.

A few of the participants had higher aspirations to excel in their areas of specialization professionally. This meant that they applied this knowledge in their life experiences to improve their professions and their relationships with colleagues and personnel in parastatals in Kenya. A common theme that emerged was that women have to put more effort to prove their visionary and knowledge skills to be

appointed in senior positions in their organizations. This meant that majority of women leaders in parastatals in Kenya had the access to upgrade their conceptual and professional knowledge skills. They had opportunities to attend trainings that enable them to acquire the appropriate knowledge and leadership skills. On the aspect of professional knowledge skills, majority of the respondents agreed that it was important for leaders to utilize their sequential planning techniques. This means that when organizations are unable to offer attractive career prospects to their female employees, this is likely to lower women's motivating to performing well.

Some respondents also indicated that setting goals as well as achieving them was significant for leaders. Correlation and regression analyses results showed there was a significant and strong positive relationship between competency skills and leadership performance. In particular, conceptual skills (supported by $\beta=0.386$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$) is statistically significant in explaining leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya while Professional knowledge skills (supported by $\beta=-0.066$; $p\text{-value} = 0.417$) is not statistically significant in explaining leadership in parastatals in Kenya. The conceptual skills measures were found to be statistically significant in explaining women leadership performance. As such, it is depicted from the results that a slight change in conceptual skills of women leaders in parastatals in Kenya resulted in a change in their leadership performance.

5.2.3 Effect of Workplace Policies on Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya

The third objective of the study sought to determine the effect of workplace policies on women leadership performance. This variable had two themes: affirmative action policies and family-friendly policies and their influence on women leadership performance. Descriptive statistical methods were used to reach at the results. This study found that women leaders experienced the workplace differently, with fewer individuals considering that the organizational process was fair in terms of job advancement opportunities. This meant that favourable workplace policies helped women feel assertive by their potential performance and strive for higher leadership positions in organizations. However, some respondents reported that while their

organization had policies and practices in place for diversity they have seldom observed senior management commitment in this aspect. This means that organizational leaders should be aware of the positive effects of family-friendly programs on employee performance. This aspect also helps in supporting the careers and advancement of women in public service (Feeny & Stritch, 2014)

The participants of the study agreed that they were required to put more effort in their private life and family responsibilities. This was to enable them pursue individual and organizational goals effectively. Generally, this meant that the feeling of most women leaders was that the gender related policies were available but needed to be updated and reviewed regularly. Findings on correlation and regression analyses showed that there was a significant and strong positive association between workplace policies and leadership performance. In particular, it explains that affirmative-action policies (supported by $\beta=0.698$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$) has statistically significant effect on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Family-friendly policies (supported by $\beta=0.035$, $p\text{-value} =0.580$) has no significant influence on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Therefore, it is depicted from the results that a unit change in affirmative action policies in parastatals in Kenya resulted in a change in leadership performance.

5.2.4 Effect of Role Models on Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya

The fourth objective of the study sought to determine the effect of role models on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. This variable was based on two themes; professional development models and social networking models. The study had an intention to show the usefulness of role models for enhanced leadership. Descriptive statistical methods were used to generate the results. Majority of the participants were in agreement that role models knowingly or unknowingly influenced their leadership performance. The study came up with the following role model development framework for women in leadership as shown in Figure 5.1.

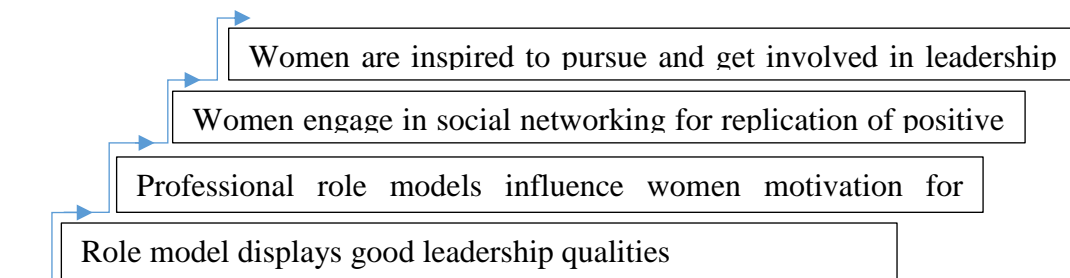


Figure 5.1: A Role Model - Driven Framework for Aspiring Women Leaders

According to the findings of this study, role model-driven framework for women leadership can be used to show the significance of professional role models and social networks. Role models are able to display acceptable leadership attributes. This is because according to the majority of participants, role models help to influence and inspire prospective leaders. Those already in leadership positions portray acceptable leadership attributes and hence will also be able to provide professional advice to the aspiring women leaders. Thereafter, they engage in social networks in their environments. This means that social networking theme shows that it is one of the most influential factors in increasing social capital. This is because the aspiring leaders are able to boost the likelihood of promotional prospects and ascending to power. These leaders are also inspired to pursue higher leadership positions with their newly acquired leadership skills, knowledge and attitudes.

This study thus provides practical suggestions for role models. For example, most respondents agreed that role models encourage women to believe in their own abilities. This meant that female networks, female coworkers and female professional peers play a significant role in coaching other aspiring women leaders in parastatals in Kenya. This enables women leaders to try and mimic the dominant body attitudes of successful female role models, this leads to having enhance knowledge, attitudes and behaviour and better performance. Findings on correlation and regression analyses showed that there was a significant and strong positive association between role models and leadership performance. In particular, professional models (supported by $\beta=0.590$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$) is statistically

significant in explaining leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Social networking models (supported by $\beta=-0.058$, p-value =0.412) is not statistically significant in explaining leadership in parastatals in Kenya. It is depicted from the results that a slight change in the application of professional development models in parastatals in Kenya resulted in a change in leadership performance.

5.2.5 The Moderating Effect of Organizational Culture and Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya

The fifth objective of the study sought to determine the moderation effect of organizational culture measured by involvement culture on antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Descriptive statistical methods were used to generate the results. Before the moderator was introduced the findings of the study showed that perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and roles models had a positive statistically significance influence on leadership performance. This was evidenced by reliability tests which should that all the values of the variables were above 0.7 which showed that the variables were good predictors of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Thereafter the moderator was introduced and an analysis made. The moderation analysis showed that organizational culture had significant moderation effect on antecedents of women leadership i.e. perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models. However, most of the respondents agreed that organizational culture indicator i.e. involvement culture greatly influenced women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

Findings and deductions were given by inferential statistical methods. Findings on regression coefficients results of organizational culture (supported by $\beta=-0.775$, p-value =0.000) is statistically significant in explaining leadership performance in parastatals in in Kenya. It was established that there is statistically significant correlation between organizational culture and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The findings of this study are consistent that organizational culture is an excellent predictor of leadership performance. The study indicated that

organizational culture as having a positive significant influence on leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

5.3 Conclusions

The study conclusions were based on specific objectives of this study as follows:

5.3.1 Effect of Perceptions on Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya

The regression results show statistically significant positive relationship between gender stereotypes and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. It was concluded that it was as a result of the healthy early environments in which the women leaders were exposed to. It provided a solid basis of an individual's leadership behavior. The results also revealed that cultural norms had negative statistically significant relationship between with leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The study generally concluded that this could be attributed to abandonment of some cultural roles that impede women from ascending to leadership positions in their places of work. However, there was no moderating effect of organizational culture on perception measures i.e. gender perceptions and cultural norms.

5.3.2 Effect of Competency Skills on Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya

The regression results reveal statistically significant positive relationship between conceptual skills and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The study concluded that women leaders did not experience numerous obstacles that would prevent them from attaining their full potential in their areas of jurisdiction. The study also concluded that parastatals in Kenya are required to hire leaders including women with the right conceptual skills. This would enhance leader performance in the organizations. The regression results showed there was negative statistically significant relationship with professional knowledge skills. The study concluded that this was because there were no special professional requirements for women gender

to ascend to leadership positions in parastatals. However, there was no moderating effect of involvement culture on competency skills. The study also concluded that parastatals in Kenya had appropriate and enabling culture to nurture aspiring leaders.

5.3.3 Effect of Workplace Policies on Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya.

The regression results reveal statistically significant positive relationship between affirmative action policies and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The study concluded that this was attributed to inclusion of the aspect of affirmative action in the Constitution of Kenya. Parastatals are required to adhere to the requirements of the constitution in regard to staff recruitment and promotion. The study also concluded that uncertainty in organizational structures and promotional processes discouraged women from pursuing senior managerial positions.

The findings also revealed that there was negative statistically significant relationship between family friendly policies and leadership performance. The study concluded that there were reduced instances of nonexistence or inappropriate enactment of policies that hinder women's involvement in leadership positions. It was therefore, concluded that women aspiring for leadership positions strive to keep balance of work and family roles in their leadership positions. However, there was no moderating effect of organizational culture on workplace policies in women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

Based on the findings of this study, it was, therefore, concluded that involvement of employees in enacting workplace policies was not a contributing factor in their leadership performance. This was because parastatals are required to adhere to certain regulations regarding formulation and implementation of work policies. This would hence enhance their overall performance.

5.3.4 Effect of Role Models on Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya.

The regression results reveal statistically significant positive relationship between professional development models and leadership performance in parastatals in

Kenya. This was attributed to the fact that modelling women is an important aspect that includes women's networks. In addition, it was also concluded that having women leaders more discernible by good use of female role models. This can be done by sharing successful career stories and successful strategies. The study also concluded that these role models provide enthusiasm and drive to aspiring women leaders. The regression results also revealed that there was negative statistically significant relationship between social network models and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The study concluded that collaboration with colleagues and other team players was not a specific requisite for only women aspiring to be leaders. This was because, women leadership performance may be dependent on other external factors. However, there was no moderating effect of organizational culture on role models on leadership performance. The study concluded that there was deliberate and consistent engagement of women leaders in encouraging them to pursue leadership positions in parastatals in Kenya.

5.3.5 Moderating Effect of Organizational Culture on Women Leadership Performance in Parastatals in Kenya

The study results indicated that organizational culture has no moderation effect on all antecedents of women leadership performance (i.e. perceptions, competency skills, workplace policies and role models). However, this is not meant that organizational culture has no effect on leadership performance. This is because, the regression results revealed statistically significant positive linear relationship between the moderating variable, organizational culture, and the dependent variable, leadership performance. Hence, the study concluded that organizational culture makes a significant difference in influencing the work environment of women leaders in parastatals in Kenya.

5.4 Recommendations

This study recommendations of this study are as stated below;

5.4.1 Recommendations for Perceptions and Women Leadership Performance

More improvement needs to be focused on women's participation and engagement in leadership and management roles in organizations. Although efforts have been made by the Kenya government as well as public organizations there is still a knowledge gap. More needs to be done to encourage women to pursue these leadership positions. This is because, this study notes that this disconnect between theory and practice in regard to women's role in leadership is an aspect that needs further review. This can be done by initiating campaigns against discrimination of women in leadership. Complaint mechanisms are actions that could also be reinforced and employed to address past discrimination. This could provide factual information when hiring, training and promoting women in organizations.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Competencies and Women Leadership Performance

This study recommends that special attention is required to enhance women competencies. This is because it is important to note that women need enhanced skills, reassurance, self-confidence and firmness to penetrate the predominant masculine environment. Further, the study also recommends that women's career objectives should be focused on their career paths. Parastatals should also recognize that the heightened competition in organizations and prospective women leaders need to attain appropriate expertise and much sort for positive leadership behaviors. For example, leadership development programs can be initiated targeting aspiring women leaders, women will be encouraged to pursue higher leadership positions.

5.4.3 Recommendations for Workplace policies and Women Leadership Performance

This study proposes that indeed affirmative measures should be enhanced. With regard to developing, explaining and promoting the appreciation of cultural differences, organizations should be encouraged to ensure the organizations culture in terms of mainly collaborative efforts towards developing strategies include female leadership. This will assist leaders to adopt behaviors that will enhance the organization's production and achieve its objectives. This is because when top management publicly advocate for the need for gender diversity in their

organizational leaders, more women are able to get to these positions without fear. The study also recommends that family-friendly policies should be adopted and fully implanted to guide employees on balancing work and family roles. Role models would also provide support on their perceived experiences. In addition, in regard to workplace policies it is recommended that a quota law is provided as an initial step that women need. This could break the fear of not being able to find qualified women in leadership positions in public organizations.

5.4.4 Recommendations for Role Models and Women Leadership Performance

The study recommends that senior women leaders should inspire upcoming leaders by sharing with them their aspirations, ambitions and success stories as leaders. It can also be recommended that enhancing interpersonal relationships at work would encourage self-confidence essential for enhanced leadership performance. In addition, it is significant for an organization to put more effort in addressing the aspect of having a mixture of role models in their leadership so as to enhance creativity. It can also be recommended that organizations encourage the formation of academic and leadership support networks for women and leadership programs to support aspiring women leaders.

Further, the study recommends that one should find their own role models by seeking leaders, who possess unique leadership characteristics and inspiring behaviours. This means that women aspiring to be leaders desire senior women leaders to effective role models. Equally, the researcher was of the opinion that women should engage men in pursuit of seeking solutions to their challenges. It can be recommended that when men are involved in women matters they are able to empathize with them and hence help seek solutions to their problems. In addition, organizations should also consider how one can support young women for example through coaching or mentoring schemes. This would enable younger aspiring women leaders to develop their talents and boost their self-confidence. These role models would encourage and share their leadership successes and precursors in pursuit of effective leadership.

5.4.5 Recommendations for Policy

This study therefore, recommends that a comparative analysis between public and private institutions could be carried out on the antecedents of women leadership performance. This could address specific literature on the implications of the antecedents in other sectors. This study also recommends that parastatals should come up with policy guidelines that will encourage women involvement in leadership despite their engaging in various family roles. This will encourage more women pursuing leadership positions. Further the study also recommends that parastatals should also adopt policy guidelines based on quota requirements for women appointment in parastatals. This could be done by reinforcing the complaint mechanisms are actions that could be employed to address past discrimination. This could also encourage more placement of women in these leadership positions.

The study also recommends that there is need to have more employee participation schemes employed in parastatals as well as other public and private organizations. This is because employee participation moderates the relationship between integrative workplace policies and leadership performance. It is also significant existing employee participation schemes to be enhanced and strengthened. The study further recommends that it would be meaningful to study other elements of organizational culture which includes norms, experiences, opinions and beliefs of any aspiring organization. Researchers and academicians could benefit from individual and professional experiences that women leaders gained from their work and leadership responsibilities.

5.5 Study Implications

As a result of the current study, social change in leadership engagement will include a more in-depth understanding of the requisites of women leadership performance. This study will add to the body of literature new insights regarding women leadership as one of the most researched areas today. Further this affirmative link encompasses the analysis of the influence women have on their overall performance. Parastatals have a key role in setting diversity goals, gender equality policies that

includes tackling organizational culture and enhancing efficiency. The findings of this study support earlier studies that highlight the influence of antecedents of women leadership performance. For example, Bear and Woolley (2011) assert that gender is a significant factor to consider in leadership today. Further it means that many organizations may utilize the findings of this study to build awareness to both women leaders as well as prospective organizations. The outcome of this study should therefore be used as to create positive drive to women leaders. This will enhance their status and help them to confront the leadership challenges they encounter.

Most respondents indicated that it is significant to improve the skills and abilities by motivating them to share their thoughts and aspirations with other aspiring women leaders. Further collaborative efforts should be focused on the organizations culture in terms of enhancing family-friendly policies in a way that will enable the leaders to improve efficiency. It can also be of great help to women ministries and human rights commissions to support the growth of women networks such as corporate women network, women in business networks etc.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Research

Future research could focus on identifying the comparison between the perception of female and male leaders. It would be appropriate to identify certain gender stereotypes of both gender and compare their effect on leadership performance. Future research can also outline gender and leadership in the male dominated sectors for example engineering, telecommunications etc. This will be open discourse to provide clear information on what factors contribute to the presence of some gender in particular occupations. Future research would also benefit from experiences of followers of the women leaders. Leadership behaviors can be improved through understanding perceptions of their followers.

Further, there is need to conduct studies to find out whether quota system on gender can ensure that a larger number of women aspire for top management positions in public corporations. Kulik and Metz (2015) recommend that upcoming researchers

should focus on leadership, gender and performance. The findings of this thesis will also contribute to new knowledge in regard to role models as shown on Figure 5.1 of the Role Models Framework formulated by the researcher.

REFERENCES

- Abu-Tineh, A. (2012). Jordanian Educational Institute: Leader Effectiveness. A Comparison of Jordanian female & Male Leaders. Retrieved from <https://org/10.1177/1741143212462703>.
- Acker, S. (2010). Gendered games in academic leadership. *International Studies in Sociology of Education* 20(2), 129–152.
- Adekola, P. O., Allen, A. A., & Tinuola, F. R. (2017). Socio-economic and Health Implications of Urban Renewal on Internally Displaced Persons in Ogun State, southwestern Nigeria, *Journal of Internal Displacement*, 7(1), 16-30.
- Ahmadi, A.S., Salamzadeh, Y., Darai, M., & Akbari, J. (2012). Relationship Between Organizational Culture and Strategy Implementation: Typologies and Dimensions. *Global Business Business and Management Research An International Journal*. 4 (3), 345.
- Ahrens, J. P., Landmann, A., & Woywode, M. (2015). Gender preferences in the CEO successions of family firms: Family characteristics and human capital of the successor. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 6(2), 86-103.
- Ajogwu, F., Mordi, C., & Nwabulu C. (2012). Nigerian Observatory on Corporate Governance Corporate Governance. Disclosure in Annual Reports for Public Quoted Companies in Nigeria, *Society for Corporate Governance Nigeria*. 6(2), 1-13.
- Ali, A., Namusonge, G., & Sakwa, M. (2016). Effect of Firm Managerial Risk Aversion on Corporate Hedging of Listed Firms in Nairobi Securities Exchange in Kenya. *Journal of Business Management*, 2(7), 45-64.
- Alimo-Metcalfe, B., & Alban-Metcalfe, J. (2001). The development of a new transformational leadership questionnaire. *The Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, 74(1), 1-27.

- Aliyu, A. T., Bellow, M. U., Kasim, R., & Martin, D. (2014). Positivist and Non-Positivist Paradigm in social Science Research: Conflicting Paradigms or Perfect Partners? *Journal of Management and Sustainability*, 4(3), 2-17.
- Alhuzeim, Y. (2015). My story with an outstanding woman. *Sabq News Paper*. Retrieved from: <https://mobile.sabq.org/>
- Amnany, D. (2013). Proposal to Secure Affirmative Action As Provided For In The Constitution Of Kenya. Retrieved from http://www.ke.boell.org/downloads/proposal_to_secure_affirmative_action_as_provided_for_in_the_constitution_of_kenya_2010_by_daisy_amdanY.pdf
- Aquinis, H., & Gottfredson, R. K. (2010). Best Practice Recommendations for estimating interaction effects using moderated multiple regression. *Journal of Organizational behavior*, 31(2), 776-786.
- Arditi, D., Gluch, P., & Holmdahl, M. (2013). Managerial Competencies of Female and Male Managers in The Swedish Construction Industry. *Construction Management and Economics*, 31(9), 979-990.
- Assefa, H. (2015). *Fostering Emerging Women Leaders of Tomorrow: Assessment of The Results of Leadership Succession in Selected Local NGOs in Ethiopia*. Unpublished Master of Arts thesis. Addis Ababa University College of Business Education, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- Avramenko, A. (2014). Inspiration at work: is it an oxymoron? *Baltic Journal of Management*, 9 (1), 113-130.
- Ayman, R., & Karen K. (2010). Leadership: Why gender and culture matter. *American Psychologist* 65 (4), 157.
- Babatunde, O., Kughur, A., Ogunmola, A., & Oguntunde, P. (2014). On the Effect of Autocorrelation in Regression Model due to Special Error. *International Journal of Modern Mathematical Science*, 10(3). 239-246.

- Babbie, E. R. (2010). *The practice of social research*. (3rd ed). Belmont: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Babbie, E. R. (2012). *The practice of social research*. (4th ed). Belmont: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Bae, K. B., & Goodman, D. (2014). The influence of family-friendly policies on turnover and performance in South Korea. *Public Personnel Management*, 43(2), 520-542.
- Bagandanshwa, E. T. (1993). *Community Perceptions of the Disabilities and its Effects to the Handicapped: The Case of Haya Society* (Unpublished Master of Education (Arts) Thesis). University of Dares Salaam, Dares Salaam.
- Bahiru, B. & Mengistu. N. (2018). The challenges of women leaders of business organizations in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, in balancing work-family responsibilities. *Journal of International Women's Studies*, 19 (2), 144-158.
- Bailey, C., Madden, A., Alfes, K. & Fletcher, L. (2015). The Meaning, Antecedents and Outcomes of Employee Engagement: A Narrative Synthesis. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijmr.12077>
- Ballenger, J. (2010). Women's access to higher education leadership: Cultural and structural barriers. *Forum on Public Policy Online*, 2010 (5). Retrieved from <http://www.forumonpublicpolicy.com/pdf>
- Bandura, A., & Walters, R. H. (1963). *Social learning and personality development*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social Cognitive Theory of Mass Communication, *Media Psychology*, 3(3), 265-299.
- Barngetuny, M. (2008). Women managers in Kenyan secondary schools. *Educational Management Review* 30 (2), 124-137.

- Barreto, M., Ryan, M., & Schmitt, M. T. (2010). *Introduction: Is the glass ceiling still relevant in the 21st Century?* Retrieved from <http://news.bbc.co.Uk/1/hi/business/4133669.stm>
- Barsh, J., & Yee, L. (2011). *Unlocking the full potential of women in the U.S. economy*. New York: McKinsey & Company.
- Basar U., & Sýgrý, U. (2015). Effects of teachers' organizational justice perceptions on intention to quit: Mediation role of organizational identification. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, 15(1), 45-59
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1987). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership*. Mahwah: Psychology Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2004). *The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*, (3rd ed.) Redwood City, New York: Mind Garden.
- Bear, J. B., & Woolley, A. W. (2011). The role of gender in team collaboration and performance. *Interdisciplinary Science Reviews*, 36(2), 146-153.
- Bear, S., Rahman, N., & Post, C. (2010). The impact of board diversity and gender composition on corporate social responsibility and firm reputation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 97(3), 207-221.
- Beauregard, T. A., & Henry, L. C. (2009). Making the link between work-life balance practices and organizational performance. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(2), 9-12.

- Beierlein, J. J., Gibson, S. G., & Tibbs, S. L. (2011). Intellectual human capital dependence, family-friendly firms, and the advancement of women, *Journal of Business Diversity*, 11(1), 66-86.
- Block, R. A., & Crawford, K. C. (2013). Gender stereotypes of leadership behaviors: Social metacognitive evidence. *Psychology & Social Behavior Research*, 1(1), 9-17.
- Boatman, J., & Wellins, R. S. (2011). *Global leadership forecast 2011: Time for Leadership Revolution*. Pittsburgh: DDI.
- Boedker, C. et al. (2011). Leadership, Culture and Management Practices of High Performing Workplaces in Australia. Literature Review and Diagnostic Instruments. *Society for Knowledge Economics*
- Bogt, T. & Scapens, W. R. (2018). Institutes situated, Rationality and Agency in Management Accounting: Extending the Burns and Scapens Framework. Retrieved from <https://10.2139/ssun.3167885>.
- Bosse, D. A., & Taylor, P. L. (2012). The second glass ceiling impedes women entrepreneurs. *The Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship*, 17(1), 52-68.
- Bowers, J. R., Rosch, D. M., & Collier, D. A. (2015). Examining the relationship between role models and leadership growth during the transition to adulthood. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(4), 235-256.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (2011). Managerial and Leadership Competencies A Behavioral Approach to Emotional, Social and Cognitive Intelligence. *Vision: The Journal of Business Perspective*, 15(2), 91-100.
- Brandt, T. (2011). *Persoonallisuudet työyhteisöissä: yhteisölliset johtajat ja esimiesalaissuhteet* (2nd ed.). Finland: Sugar House Publishing.

- Brandt, T., & Laiho, M. (2013). Gender and personality in transformational leadership context: An examination of leader and subordinate perspective, *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 34 (1), 44-66.
- Burgoyne, J. (2010). Crafting a leadership and management development strategy, in (3rd ed.) J Gold, R Thorpe and A Mumford, *Gower Handbook of Leadership and Management Development*, 19(8), 42–55.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership* (1st ed.). New York: Harper & Row.
- Caillier, J. G. (2012). Satisfaction with work-life benefits and organizational commitment/job involvement: Is there a connection? *Review of Public Personnel*, 33(3), 340-364.
- Cameron, K. S., & Quinn, R. E. (2011). Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture. *Competing Scientific Research Publishing*. 4(2), 34-48
- Campbell, S. L. (2010). *An exploration of the leadership style preferences among African-American women administrators of the 1890 cooperative extension system*. (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from <http://www.proquestdigital.com/dissertations>.
- Capital Markets Authority (CMA) (*Daily Nation Newspaper* 23rd August, 2014, page 20).
- Caroff, X., & Lubart, T. (2012). Multidimensional Approach to Detecting Creative Potential in Managers. *Creativity Research Journal*, 24(1), 13-20.
- Carpenter, M. A., Geletkanycz, M. A., & Sanders, W. G. (2004). Upper Echelons Research Revisited: Antecedents, Elements, and Consequences of Top Management Team Composition. *Journal of Management*, 30(3), 749-778.
- Catalyst (2012). *Women in the Workforce - India*. Retrieved from <http://www.catalyst.org/research/>.

- Catalyst, (2013). Why Diversity Matters. Retrieved from <http://www.catalyst.org/knowledge/why-diversity-matters>.
- Chairperson, (2016). Kenya Association of Manufacturers Speech at the Kenya Manufacturing Summit and Expo 2016.
- Chatfield, C. (2018). *Introduction to multivariate analysis*. Upper Saddle River: Pearson.
- Chawla, K. & Pandit, P. (2018). Professional identity of female managers as role models. *Imperial Journal of Interdisciplinary Research (IJIR)*. 4(1), 420-423.
- Cheryan, S., Siy, J. O., Vichayapai, M., Drury, B. J., & Kim, S. (2011). Do female and male role models who embody STEM stereotypes hinder women's anticipated success in STEM? *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 2(6), 656-664.
- Cho, E., & Kim, S. (2015) Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha: Well-known but poorly understood. *Organizational Research Methods*. 18 (2), 207-230.
- Choudhury, A. (2009). *Statistical Correlation*. Retrieved from <http://explorable.com/statistical-correlation>
- Chun, J., Cho, K., Sosik, J. J. (2016). A multilevel study of group-focused and individual-focused transformational leadership, social exchange relationships, and performance in teams. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37(3), 374–396.
- Collins, J., & Cooke, D. K. (2013). Creative role models, personality and performance. *Journal of Management Development*, 32(4), 336–350.
- Commerzbank AG (2011). Frauen und Männer an der Spitze: *So führt der deutsche Mittelstand*. Retrieved from <https://www.unternehmerperspektiven.de/media/Ansicht.pdf>.

- Cooper, D., & Schindler, P. (2006). *Market Research*: New York: McGraw Hill.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* publications. (2nd ed), Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1975). Beyond the two disciplines of scientific psychology. *American Psychologist* 30(5), 671 – 84.
- Crowder, M. J. (2017). *Statistical analysis of reliability data*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Cuadrado, I., Navas, M., Molero, F., Ferrer, E., & Morales, J. F. (2012). Gender Differences in Leadership Styles as a Function of Leader and Subordinates' Sex and Type of Organization. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 42(6), 3083-3113.
- Daft R. L., & Bodla, M. (2010). *Management*. Boston: Cengage Learning EMEA
- Daft, R. Kendrick, M., & Vershinina, N. (2010). *Industrial Management*. Boston: Cengage Learning EMEA
- Draugalis, J. R., Coons, S. J., & Plaza, C. M. (2008). Best practice for Survey Research Reports: A Synopsis for Authors and Reviewers. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*. 1 (11), 72
- Delina, G., & Raya, R. P. (2013). A Study on Work-Life Balance in Working Women, *International Journal of Commerce, Business and Management* (IJCBM), 2(5), 247-248.

- Denison, D., Javonics, J., Young, J., & Cho, H. J (2006). *Diagnosing Organizational Culture: Validating a Model and Method*. Retrieved from <http://www.businessinsider.com/http>
- Denison, D. R., & Mishra, A. K. (1995). Toward a theory of organizational culture and effectiveness. *Organizational Science*, 2 (6), 204-223.
- Dennison, D. R. (2000). Organizational culture: Can it be a key lever for driving organizational change. In S. Cartwright & C. Cooper (Eds.), *handbook of organizational culture*. London: John Wiley & Sons.
- Denti, L., & Hemlin, S. (2012). Leadership and innovation in organizations: a systematic review of factors that mediate or moderate the relationship. *International Journal of Innovation Management*, 16(3), 1–20.
- Diaz-Saenz, H. R. (2011). *Transformational Leadership*. *The Sage handbook of leadership*. 299-310, Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Diekman, A. B., & Schneider, M. C. (2010). A social role theory perspective on gender gaps in political attitudes. *Social Role Theory. Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 34(4), 486-497.
- Diehl, B., & Dzubinski, L. M. (2016). Making the invisible visible: A cross-sector analysis of gender-based leadership barriers. *Human Resource Development Quarterly* 27(3), 181–206.
- Durbin J., & Watson G. S (1950). *Testing for Serial Correlation in Least Squares Regression*. *Biometrika*. 38(1-2), 159-179.
- Eagly, A. H. (1987). *Sex differences in social behavior: A social-role interpretation*. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2003). The female leadership advantage: An evaluation of the evidence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14(3), 807-834.

- Eagly, A. H., & Diekmann, A. B. (2005). *What is the problem? Prejudice as an attitude-in-context*. Gospons: Blackwell publishing.
- Eagly, A., & Johannesen-Schmit, M. (2001). The leadership styles of women and men. *Journal of Social Issues* 57(4), 27-56.
- Eagly, A. H., & Karau, A. (2002). Role Congruity Theory of Prejudice Toward Female Leaders. *Psychological Review*, 9(2),573-598.
- Eagly, A., & Wood, W. (2012). Social Role theory. *Journal of Social Issues*. Retrieved from <https://www.doi.org/10.4135/9781446249222.n49>. 12(30, 346-356.
- Egan, S. L., Shollen, P., Campbell, C., Longman, K. A., Fisher, K. Fox-Kirk, W., & Neilson, B. G. (2017). Capacious model of leadership identities construction. *Information Age Publishing*, 4(2),121–140.
- Ellemers, N. (2016). Women at Work: How Organizational features impact career development. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1177/2372732214549327>.
- Elsaid, A. M., & Elsaid, E. (2011). Sex stereotyping managerial positions: A cross-cultural comparison between Egypt and the USA. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 27(2), 81 – 99.
- Ely, R. J., Ibarra, H., & Kolb, D. (2011). Taking Gender into Account: Theory and Design for Women's Leader development Programs. *Working Paper*, 10(3), 201-203.
- Ely R. J., & Rhode D. L. (2010). Women and leadership: defining the challenge. *Handbook of Leadership Theory and Practice*, Harvard Business Press; 7(2), 377–410.
- Ernst & Young. (2011). *The Corporate Sponsor as Hero: Advancing Women into Leadership Roles*. Retrieved from <http://www.businessinsider.com/>.

- Esbensen, K. H., Guyot, D., Westad, F., & Houmoller, L. P. (2002). *Multivariate data analysis in practice: an introduction to multivariate data analysis and experimental design*. *Multivariate Data Analysis*
<http://www.internationalbusinessreport.com/Reports/2013/index.asp>
- Everly, G. S. (2011). Building a resilient organizational culture. *Harvard Business Review*. Retrieved from <http://blogs.hbr.org/2011/06/building-a-resilient-organization/>.
- Feeny, M. K. & Stritch, J. M. (2017). Family-friendly Policies, Gender, and Work-life balance in the Public Sector. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X7733789>
- Felix, C. O., Ahmad, A. H. B., & Arshad, R. B. (2016). Examining ethical reasoning and transformational leadership style in Nigeria public sector. *Sage Open*, 6(2), 1-7.
- Finchilescu, G. (2002). *Measurements*. In C. Tredoux & K. Durrheim (Eds.), *Numbers, hypotheses & conclusions: A course in statistics for the social science*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.
- Fitzsimmons, T. W., Callan, V. J., & Paulsen, N. (2014). Gender disparity in the C-suite: Do male and female CEOs differ in how they reached the top? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(2), 245-266.
- Fitzgerald, T. (2013). *Women leaders in higher education: Shattering the myths*. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Frank, J., & Massey J. (2012). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for goodness of Fit. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*. 46(253) 68-78.
- Gender Equality in Kenya, Special Report November, 2019

- Germain-Driscoll, C. A. (2014). *Women Disrupted*: New York: McKinsey & Company.
- Gipson, A. N., Pfaff, D. L., Mendelsohn, D. B., Catenacci, L. T., & Nurke, W. W. (2017). Women and Leadership: Selection, Development, Leadership Style and Performance. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 53(1), 32-45.
- Gochhayat, J., Giri, V. N., & Suar, D. (2017). Influence of organizational culture on organizational effectiveness: The mediating role of organizational communication. *Global Business Review*, 18(3), 691-702.
- Gonzalez, C. (2010). Leadership, diversity, and succession planning in academia. *Center for Studies in Higher Education*, 8(10), 4.
- Gonnah, B. J., & Ogollah, K. (2016). Effect of transformational leadership on performance of commercial banks in Kenya: case of family bank limited. *International Academic Journal of Procurement and Supply Chain Management*, 2(1), 1-25.
- Graham, J., Harvey, C., & Puri, M. (2013). Managerial attitudes and corporate actions, *Journal of Financial Economics* 109(1), 103-121.
- Green, A. E. Miller, E. A., & Aarons, G. A. (2013). Transformational Leadership Moderates the Relationship Between Emotional Exhaustion and Turnover Intention Among Community Mental Health Providers, *Community Mental Health Journal*, 49(4), 373-379.
- Gumbi, R. V. (2006). *Women in Higher Education Leadership in the 21st Century*. Presidential Address at the Launch of Wheel, Pretoria Hotel: Cape Town.
- Hajipour, B., & Ghanarati, M. (2012). The Impact of Market Orientation and Organizational Culture on Performance: Case Study of SMEs. *Journal of contemporary*. 4(3), 32-45.

- Halim, H. A., Ahmad, N. H., Ramayah, T., & Hanifa, H. (2014). The Growth of Innovative Performance Among SMEs. Leveraging on Organizational Culture and Innovative Human Capital. *Journal of Small Business and Entrepreneurship Development*, 2 (1), 107-125.
- Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis: A global perspective*. (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River: Pearson Education.
- Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. (1984). Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers. *The Academy of Management Review*, 9(2), 193-206.
- Hamstra, M. R. W., Van Yperen, N. W., Wisse, B., & Sassenberg, K. (2011). Transformational-transactional leadership styles and followers' regulatory focus: Fit reduces followers' turnover intentions, *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 10(4), 182-186.
- Heilman, M. E. (2012). Gender stereotypes and workplace bias. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 32(4), 113-135.
- Helgesen, S., & Johnson J. (2010). *The Female Vision: Women's Real Power at Work*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.
- Hibel, A., & Madsen J. (2013). What we can all learn about careers from female leadership in academics. *Journal of Social Sciences*, Retrieved from <http://www.higheredjobs.com/HigherEdCareers/interviews>.
- Hinds, B. (2015). Strategies for Increased Participation of Women in Leadership across the Commonwealth, *Discussion Paper*, Commonwealth Secretariat, London.
- Hofstede, P. Geert, Gert and Minkov (2010). *Culture and Organizational Software of the mind: Intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival*. (3rd. ed) New York: McGraw-Hill

- Hossain, T., & Noor, M. A. (2016). Perception towards women leadership in Bangladeshi: a comparative study between public and private sector. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management*, 4(11), 319-328.
- Hoyt, C. L., & Simon, S. (2011). Female Leaders: Injurious or Inspiring Role Models for Women? *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 35(1), 143-157.
- Hsiao, H. C., Chen, M. N., & Yang, H. S. (2008). Leadership of vocational high school principals in curriculum reform: a case study in Taiwan. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 28(3), 669–686.
- Hunter, S. T., & Cushenbery, L. (2011). Leading for Innovation: Direct and Indirect Influences. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 13(3), 248–265.
- Ibarra, Herminia, Ely R., & Kolb, D. (2013). Women rising: The unseen barriers. *Harvard Business Review* 91(2), 60–66.
- IGAD. (2010). Strategy on Women’s Participation and Representation in Decision Making. *Discussion Paper*. Retrieved from <http://doi:10.1016/j.riob.2012.11.003>.
- Igarashi, N., & Kumo, K. (2016). Women’s Voices: Gender Survey in Tajikistan, *Hitotsubashi Journal of Social Studies*, 47(1), 11-30.
- Imam, A., Abbasi, A.S., Muneer, S., & Qadri, M.M. (2013). Organizational Culture and Performance of Higher Educational Institutions: The Mediating Role of Individual Readiness for Change. *European Journal of Business and Management* 5(20), 220.
- Jebessa, U. G., Amentie, C., Kaushik, K.K., & Akessa G. M. (2015). *Assessment of Factors Affecting Women Participation in Managerial Positions in Selected Public Organizations in Jimma Zone, Oromia, Ethiopia*. Abra State Institute of Sciences and Technology Ethiopia. Retrieved from <http://doi:10.1016/j.riob.2012.11.003>

- Jensen, M., & Zajac, E. J. (2004). Corporate elites and corporate strategy: how demographic preferences and structural position shape the scope of the firm, *Strategic Management Journal*, 25(6), 507-524.
- Jimma Zone Administration Office, 2012. *Workers Statistics*. Tien; Ethiopia.
- Jones, N. (2017). *Personal Lives and the Effects on Workplace Productivity*. Nova Southeastern University).
- Judeh, M. (2010). Transformational Leadership: A Study of Gender Differences in Private Universities. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, 6(4), 118-125.
- Kamau, N. (2010). *Women and Political Leadership in Kenya*. Nairobi: Heinrich Boll foundation.
- Kamla-Raj, (2016). The Effect of Gender and Seniority on the Perceptions of Organizational Justice of Teachers in Turkey: A Meta-analysis Retrieved from <https://www.genderpublications/.org.html>
- Karam, E. P., Gardner, W. L., Gullifor, D. P., Tribble, L. L., & Li, M. (2017). Authentic leadership and high-performance human resource practices: implications for work engagement. *Research in personnel and human resources management* 3 (4),103-153.
- Karelaia, N., & Guillén, L. (2014). Me, a woman and a leader: Positive social identity and identity conflict. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 125(2), 204–219.
- Kassily J. & Onkware, K. (2011). Struggles & Success in Engendering the African Public Sphere: Kenyan women in Politics, *Kenya Studies Review*. 3(3), 71-82.

- Katz, R. L. (1955). Skills of an effective Moore & Rudd Leadership Skills and Competition *Journal of Agricultural Education* 33 Volume 45, Number 3, 2004 administrator. *Harvard Business Review*, 33(1), 33-42.
- Kellerman, B., & Rhode, D. (2014). Women at the top: The pipeline reconsidered. In *Women and Leadership in Higher Education*. Edited by Karen A. Longman and Susan R. Madsen. Charlotte: *Information Age Publishing*, 6(3), 24–39.
- Kenya Vision 2030, (2007). Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007.
- Kezar, A. (2014). Pluralistic leadership: Bringing diverse voices to the table. *About Campus*, 2(1), 6-11.
- Kieu, H. (2010). *Leadership styles and organizational performance*. UMI Dissertation Publishing, ProQuest LLC, East Eisenhower Parkway.
- Kothari, C., & Garg, G., (2014). *Research Methodology*. New Age International (P) Ltd. Publishers: New Delhi.
- Kothari, C. (2009). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*. (3rd ed.) New Delhi: International Publishers.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. (2012). *The leadership challenge: How to make extraordinary things happen*. San Francisco: Mill City Press.
- Kulik, C., & Metz, I. (2015). Women at the top: Will more women in senior roles impact organizational outcomes? *Oxford handbooks online*. Retrieved from <http://www.oxfordhandbooks.com/view/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199935406.001.0001/oxfordhb-9780199935406-e-7>
- Kyrgidou, L. P., & Spyropoulou, S. (2013). Drivers and Performance Outcomes of Innovativeness: An Empirical Study. *British Journal of Management*, 24(3), 281–298.

- Laguna, M., Wiechetek, M., & Talik, W. (2012). The Competencies of Managers and Their Business Success. *Central European Business Review*, 1(3), 7-13.
- Lahti, E. (2013). *Women and Leadership: factors that influence women's career success*. Lahti University of Applied Sciences. Springer. Retrieved on 23rd August, 2017 from <http://doi:10.1080/03057925.2012.687891>
- Lakew, D., & Rao, D., (2009). Effect of Financial Management Practices and Characteristics on Profitability: A Study on Business Enterprises in Jimma Town, Ethiopia. *National Monthly Refereed Journal of Research In Commerce & Management*, 2(5), 64-75.
- Latu' J. M. (2013). Women's behavior in leadership tasks. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*. 49(3), 444-448
- Latu, J. M., Mast, M. S., Lammers, J., & Bombari, D. (2013). Successful female leaders empower women's behavior in leadership tasks, *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*. 23(2) 64–87.
- Leahy, M. (2011). Women and Work in Australia. *Australian Policy Online*. Retrieved from: <http://apo.org.au/node/27308#sthash.H2Mqt>
- Likert, R. (1932) A technique for the measurement of attitudes, *Archives of Psychology*. 140(2),1-55.
- Lillbacka, A. M. (2010). Female Leadership Motivation in Small and Medium-sized Enterprises. Degree Programme of International Business, Business Economic and Tourism University of Applied Sciences, Vasa Yrkeshogskola.
- Liu S. (2013). A few good women at the top: The China case. *Business Horizons*, 56 (4), 483-490.
- Lussier R. N., & Achua C. F. (2013). *Leadership. Theory, application, & skill development*. 5th edition. United States: Cengage Learning.

- Madsen, T. L. (2013). Business Policy & Strategy. In M. Augier & Teece, D. (eds.) *Palgrave Encyclopedia of Strategic Management*. Retrieved from <http://www.palgraveconnect.com/esm/>.
- Makori, D., & Jangongo, A. (2013). Working Capital Management and Firm Profitability: Empirical Evidence from Manufacturing and Construction Firms Listed on Nairobi Securities Exchange in Kenya. *International Journal of Accounting and Taxation*, 1(1), 1-14.
- Manzoor, S. (2015). The impact of indigenous culture on female leadership in Pakistan. *International Journal of Organizational Leadership*. Retrieved from <http://www.aimijournal.com>
- Mason, C., Griffin, M., & Parker, S. (2014). Transformational leadership development. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 35 (3),174-194
- Mati, M. (2013). Performance of Parastatals over the years. Retrieved from <https://www.media.co.ke.business.articles.marsgroup>.
- Mbah, S. E., & Ikemefuna, C. O. (2012). Job satisfaction and employees' turnover intentions in Total Nigeria Plc. in Lagos State. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*. 2(4), 275-287.
- Mberia, A., & Midigo, R. (2016). Leadership; relating employee satisfaction to leadership styles and gender in Kenya: *Manuscript submitted for publication*.
- Mc Donald, M. L., & Westphal, J. D. (2013). Low Mentoring of Women and Minority first-time directors and its negative effect is on appointments to additional boards. *Academy of Management Journal* 56(4), 1169-1198
- McKinsey & Company. (2009). *Women matter: gender diversity, a corporate performance driver*. New York: McKinsey & Company.

- Mengistu, A. B. (2012). Child Care in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia in Bosch A. (Ed.) South African Board for People Practices (SABPP) *Women's Report 2012*. 2(2), 3-6.
- Metz, I, & Simon, A. (2006). A focus on gender similarities in work experience in senior management. *Equal Opportunity International Journal*, 27(5), 215-220.
- Mitchel, V. (2012). Assessing the reliability and validity of questionnaires: an empirical example. *Journal of Applied Management Studies*, 5(2), 199-208.
- Minichilli, A., Zattoni, A., & Zona, F. (2009). Making boards effective: and empirical examination of board task performance, *British Journal of Management*, 20(3), 55-74.
- Moon, S. Y., & Roh, J. (2010). Balancing work and family in South Korea's public organizations: Focusing on family-friendly policies in elementary school organizations. *Public Personnel Management*, 39 (2), 117-131.
- Monyoncho, R. M. (2015). A review of the relationship between cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome. *DBA Africa Management Review*. 5(1), 113-123.
- Moran-Miller, K., & Flores, L. Y. (2011). Where are the women in women's sports predictors of female athletes' interest in a coaching career? *Research Quarterly Exercise & Sport*, 82(1), 109-117.
- Muchiri, M. K., Cooksey, R. W., Di Milia, L. V., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2011). Gender and managerial level differences in perceptions of effective leadership. Retrieved from <http://doi.org/10.1108/01437731111146578>.
- Mugenda, A. (2008). *Social Science Research. Theory and Practice*. Nairobi; Kijabe Printing Press.

- Mugenda, O., & Mugenda, A. (2008). *Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Nairobi: Acts Press.
- Muijs, D. (2004). *Doing Qualitative Research in Education with SPSS* London: Sage Publishers.
- Müller, R., & Turner, R. (2010). Leadership competency profiles of successful project managers. *International Journal of Project Management*, 28(5), 437-448)
- Mumford, M. D., Zaccaro, S. J., Connelly, M. S., & Marks, M. A. (2000). Leadership skills: Conclusions and future directions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(1), 155-170.
- Muoria, E. T., Gachunga, H. G., & Waititu, A. W. (2013). Linking ascending of women to leadership with conscientiousness and neuroticism: The Kenyan public sector. *International Journal of Business Management and Administration* 2(6), 142-151.
- Muzel, A. (2018). The moderator of organizational culture between intellectual capital and business performance: An empirical study in Iraqi industry. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(3), 82-91.
- Mwangi, B. (2007). African Business Women series: Why so Important. URL: *Journal of Women Studies*. Retrieved from <http://www.evancarmichael.com>.
- Naidoo, B. (2013). *Women Principals in Curriculum Leadership at Schools in Disadvantaged Communities in the Gauteng East District*. (Unpublished master's dissertation, University of Johannesburg. Retrieved from <https://ujdigispace.uj.ac.za>).
- Nielsen, B., & Nielsen, S. (2012). *Top Management Team Nationality Diversity Team diversity and firm performance*. Unpublished Thesis. Master in International Economics and Business, Utrecht School of Economics, University of Utrecht, Netherlands.

- Njiru, F. (2013). *Factors affecting career progression of women in the corporate sector: A case study of Standard Chartered Bank in Nairobi*. Unpublished Master of Arts in Rural Sociology and Community Development thesis, University of Nairobi. Kenya.
- Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Northouse, P. G. (2012). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Northouse, P. G. (2014). *Introduction to leadership*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications Limited.
- Northouse, P. G. (2015). *Leadership: Theory and Practice*: Sage Publications Limited.
- Norusis, M. J. (1994). *SPSS advanced statistics 6.1*. Chicago, IL: SPSS inc.
- Nyamubarwa, W. (2013). I am considering leaving soon – Turnover intentions of academic librarians in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Business Administration and Education*, 4(1), 76-90.
- Obasan, K. A. (2012). Organizational culture and its corporate image: A model juxtaposition. *Journal of Business Management Research*. 1(1), 5-12.
- Ochola, D. & LeRoux, C. (2010). Conceptions and Misconceptions of Theoretical Framework in Library & Information Sciences. A case study of selected theses and dissertations from Eastern and Southern African countries. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/273133088>.
- O'Connor P. (2015). Good jobs – but places for women? *Gender and Education* 27(3), 304–319.

- Okioga, C. K. (2013). The role of women in corporate governance on organizational performance, a Kenyan case. *Journal of Research in Peace, Gender and Development* 3(3), 38-48.
- Okonkwo, D. (2012). *Strain-based family interference with work and feeling of reduced personal accomplishment among mothers in human service profession: A paper presented at the inaugural meeting of the work and family researchers network*, New York: USA.
- Omran, M. S., & Alizadeh, H., & Esmaeel, B. (2015). The analysis of glass ceiling phenomenon in the promotion of women's abilities in organizations. *International Journal of Organizational Leadership*. 4(2), 315-323.
- Onifade, F. N. (2014). *Knowledge sharing and organizational culture as factors affecting organizational effectiveness among Federal University Librarians in Nigeria*. Being a Ph.D. thesis submitted to the Department of Library and Archival Studies, University of Ibadan,
- Onsongo, J. (2006). *Gender inequalities in Universities in Kenya. Gender inequalities in Kenya*. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images>.
- Opstrup, N., & Villadsen, A. R. (2015). The right mix? Gender diversity in top management teams and financial performance. *Public Administration Review*, 75(2), 291–301.
- Pande, R., & Ford, D. (2011). Gender quotas and female leadership: A review. *Gender Equality and Development. Background Paper for the World Development Report on Gender*. Retrieved from www.hks.harvard.edu/.
- Park, J. J. (2009). Taking race into account: Charting students attitudes towards affirmative action. *Research in Higher Education*, 50(2), 670-690.
- Pasmore, W. (2014). Developing a Leadership Strategy: A Critical Ingredient for Organizational Success. *Journal for Creative Leadership*, 8(2), 32-36.

- Peters, S., Kinsey, P., & Malloy, T. E. (2004). Gender and leadership perceptions among African Americans. *Basic & Applied Social Psychology*, 26(1), 93-101.
- Pflanz, M. (2011). Women in Positions of Influence: Exploring the Journeys of Female Community Leaders. Educational Administration Teses, University of Nebraska Lincoln Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/cehsedaddiss>
- Post, C. (2015). When is female leadership an advantage? Coordination requirements, team cohesion, and team interaction norms. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36(5), 1153-1175.
- Punch, K. F. (2013). *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*: New York: Avon Books.
- Republic of Kenya, (2011). *Government Appointments*. Nairobi, Government Printer.
- Republic of Kenya, (2010). *Constitution of Kenya 2010*. Nairobi, Government Printer.
- Republic of Kenya (1965). *Sessional Paper No. 10 of 1965*. Nairobi, Government Printer.
- Rice, C. (2012). Why not just any old role model will do: What early career men and women need. Retrieved from <http://curtrice.com/2012/01/13/why-not-just-any-old-role-model-will-do-what-early-careermen-and-women-need/>
- Rudman, I. A., & Phelan , J. E. (2010). Backlash effects for disconfirming gender stereotypes in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 28(3), 61-78.
- Rudman, L. A., Moss-Racusin, C. A., Phelan, J. E., & Nauts, S. (2012). Status incongruity and backlash effects: Defending the gender hierarchy motivates

prejudice against female leaders. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 48(6), 165-179.

Rusuli, S. M. (2013). Factor Retention Decisions in Explorative Factor Analysis Results: A study type of knowledge management process of Malaysia University Library. Retrieved on 06th July, 2018 from <http://www.10.5539/ass.v9n15P227>.

Ryan, M. K., Haslam, S.A., Hersby, M., & Bongiorno, R. (2011). Think crisis-think female: glass cliffs and contextual variation in the think-manager-think male stereotype. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(3), 470–84.

SADC Gender Protocol. (2010). *Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance*. URL. Retrieved from <http://www.genderlinks.org.za/page/sadc-research>.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2012). *Research Methods for Business Students* (6th ed.). Cape Town: Pearson.

Schmiedel, T., Brocke, J., Vom, P., & Recker, J. (2014). Development and validation of an instrument to measure organizational cultures' support of Business Process Management. *Information & Management*, 51(3), 43–56.

Schyns, B., & Sanders, K. (2007). In the Eyes of the Beholder: Personality and the Perception of Leadership. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 37(10), 2345-2363

Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2010). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach*: New Jersey: John Wiley.

Sheaffer, Z. Bogler, R., & Sarfaty, S. (2011). Leadership attributes, masculinity and risk taking as predictors of crisis proneness, *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 26 (2), 163-187.

Shepherd S. (2017). Why are there so few female leaders in higher education: A case of structure or agency? *Management in Education* 3(2), 80-87.

- Shields, F. Patricia, N., & Rangarjan, N. (2013). *A Playbook for Research Methods: Integrating Human Frameworks and Project management*. Los Angeles: Sage Publishers.
- Siegel, J., & Kodama, N. (2011). Labor market gender disparity and corporate performance in Japan. *RIETI Discussion Paper Series* 11-E-075.
- Skelly, J. J., & Johnson, J. B. (2011). Glass ceilings and great expectations: Gender stereotype impact on female professionals. *Southern Law Journal*, 21(1), 59-70.
- Sofijanova, E., & Zabijakin-Chatleska, V. (2013). Employee involvement and organizational performance: evidence from the manufacturing sector in republic of Macedonia. *Trakia Journal of Sciences*, 11(1), 31-36.
- South Africa Government, (2012). *Women Empowerment and Gender Equality (WEGE) Bill*, Section 9. Pretoria: SA.
- Sperandio, J. (2011). *Creating and Supporting Women's Leadership in Education: Charting the Effects of International, National and Organizational Cultures*. Paper Presented at the Gender Equality in Education: Looking Beyond Parity an IIEP evidence-based Policy Forum 3-4 October, Paris, France.
- Srivastava, P. (2015). The role of corporations in achieving ecological sustainability, *Academy of Management Review*, 20(2), 936-960.
- Stok, A. M., Markic, M., Bertoneclj, A., & Mesko, M. (2010). Elements of organizational culture leading to business excellence. *Journal of International Leadership*, 28 (2), 303-318.
- Stouracova, K. (2016). *The role of women in socio-economic development of Kenya*. Unpublished Bachelor Thesis. Mandel University, Faculty of Regional Development and International Studies, Brno, Czech Republic.

- Strøm, R. Ø., D'Espallier, B., & R. Mersland, (2014). Female Leadership, Performance, and Governance in Microfinance Institutions. *Journal of Banking & Finance*, 42(3), 60-75.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics*. (5th Ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Talke, K., Salomo, S., & Kock, A. (2011). Top management team diversity and strategic innovation orientation: The relationship and consequences for innovativeness and performance. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 28(6), 819-832.
- Talouselämä, P. (2013). Naisjohtajien määrä putoaa Suomessa taas - ensimmäinen kerta neljään vuoteen, Retrieved on 20th July, 2018 from <http://www.talouselama.fi/uutiset/naisjohtajien+maara+putoaa+suomessa+taas++ensimmainen+kerta+neljaan+vuoteen/a2173610>
- Tanhua I. (2012). Sukupuolten tasa-arvon hyvät käytännöt. Tasa-arvohankkeiden hyviä käytäntöjä seitsemästä teemasta. Työ-ja elinkeinoministeriö
- Taylor C. A, Taylor J. C., & Stoller J. K. (2008). Exploring leadership competencies in established and aspiring physician leaders: an interview-based study. *Journal General International Management*. 23(3), 748–754.
- Theuri, S., Mugambi, F. & Namusonge, G. (2015). Strategic Management Determinants of Value Addition of Industrial Fish Processors in the Sea Food Processing Sub-Chain in Kenya. Unpublished PhD Thesis. JKUAT.
- Thornton. G. (2013). Women in Senior Management: Setting the Stage for Growth. *Grant Thornton International Business Report*. Retrieved from <http://www.internationalbusinessreport.com/Reports/2013/index.asp>
- Tse, H. H. M., Huang, X., & Lam, W. (2013). Why does transformational leadership matter for employee turnover? A multi-foci social exchange perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(5), 763–776.

- UN Women. 2013. *A Transformative Stand-Alone Goal on Achieving Gender Equality, Women's Rights and Women's Empowerment: Imperatives and Key Components*. NY: UN Women.
- UNIFEM, (2010). Women representation and participation in the public and private sectors in Kenya. *Baseline report*. info@strategicafrica.com. Retrieved 23rd from <https://doi.org/10.1108/02610150910996399>
- Vieito, J. P. T. (2012). Gender, top management compensation gap, and company performance: Tournament versus behavioral theory. *Corporate Governance: An International Review*, 20(1), 46–63.
- Vinnicombe, S., & Singh, V. (2010). Women-only management training: An essential part of women's leadership development, *Journal of Change Management*, 3 (4) 294-302.
- Von Hippel, C., & Walsh, A. M., & Zouroudis, A. (2011). *Identity separation in response to stereotype threat*. *Sociological Psychological Personality Science*. 2(1), 321-254.
- Wang, J., & Shirmohammadi, M. (2016). Women Leaders in China, *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, Retrieved from <http://www.talouselama.fi/uutiset/naisjohtajien+maara+putoaa+suomessa+taas>
- Weldeeyesus, N. (2013). *Challenges and Opportunities of Women to be Leaders in Selected Governmental Secondary Schools of Addis Ababa*; Unpublished Thesis. Addis Ababa University, School of Graduate Studies, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
- WiLDAF Ghana (2010). Analysis of Affirmative Action Policy for Women's Participation in Development. Retrieved from <https://www.affirmativeaction.com/report>.
- Witt, A., & Wood, D. J. (2010). Measuring corporate social performance: a review, *International Journal of Management Review*. 12 (1), 50-84.

- Wooldridge, M. (2011). *Modern econometrics*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Women in Management (WIM), (2014). *The power of role models*. Chartered Management Institute, London: Savoy Court:
- Yamane, T. (1967). *Statistics: An Introductory Analysis*. 2nd ed., New York: Harper and Rao.
- Yukl, G. A. (2013). *Leadership in organizations* (8th ed.). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Yupitun, M. (2008). Agency Trade-offs in Family Firms: Theoretical Model, Empirical Testing and Implications. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Bond University.
- Zhang J., & Liu Y. (2011). Antecedents of work-family conflict: review and prospect. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 6(1), 89-103.
- Zheng, X. (2015). Gender Differences in Leadership. Chapman University *Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 39-52.
- Zikmund, G.W., Babin, B.J., Carr, C. J., & Griffin, M. (2010). *Business Research Methods* (8th ed.). South-Western: Cengage Learning.
- Zulu, C. (2007). *A Comparative Study of Women in Management in Higher Education in South Africa and the United Kingdom*. Unpublished Doctorate Thesis. University of South Africa, South Africa.

APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire

ANTECEDENTS OF WOMEN LEADERSHIP PERFORMANCE

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data pertaining to a study that is to examine the antecedents of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. All the information provided in this questionnaire remains absolutely confidential and would only be seen by the academic researchers involved in this study. Neither your identity nor that of your organization was mentioned in the report. The questionnaire consists of two main sections; Section A for background information and Section B on main study variables.

SECTION A - BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Put a tick [√] on any one of the boxes, where applicable.

1. What is your age?

20-30 years 31-40 years Over 40 years

2. How long have you worked in this organization?
 Less 10 years 10 - 20 years Over 20 years

3. Kindly select your level of management position in the organization.

Upper level Middle level Lower level

Less 5 year 6 – 10 years Over 10

4. How long have you been in this position?

5. Professional/educational qualifications of your managers.

Post graduate Graduate Diploma

Other,
specify.....

SECTION B: MAIN STUDY VARIABLES

This section B consists of statements of items of the six study variables. The statements refer to this organization. You are required to select the response that best describes your level of concurrence regarding each item statement. *Put a tick [✓] where applicable.*

Perceptions

You are required to select the response that best describes your level of concurrence regarding each item statement about gender stereotypes and cultural norms. *Put a tick [✓] where applicable.* Strongly Agree (SA) = 1, Agree (A) = 2, Neutral (N) = 3 and Strongly Disagree (SD) = SD.

No	Statements on Gender Stereotypes and Cultural Norms	SD	D	N	A	SA
6.	In my organization women leaders are generally perceived positively and accepted by the various stakeholders within the organization.					
7.	The decisions and contributions made by women leaders are often regarded highly and taken with as paramount as there is no overt discrimination.					
8.	As the percentage of women leaders rises in my organization various stakeholders given them the support they need in their work.					
9.	In my organization, it is not about gender but the individual qualities and capabilities of a leader in influencing change that matters.					
10.	The cultural roles of women positively support and has a great influence in my leadership performance.					
11.	Patterns of behavior expectations of women leaders are often clear as they contribute to enhancing their performance.					
12.	Conventions agreed upon are often met by women leaders in my organization in an effort to influence their leadership performance.					

Competency Skills

You are required to select the response that best describes your level of concurrence

regarding each item statement about conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills. *Put a tick [✓] where applicable.* Strongly Agree (SA) = 1, Agree (A) = 2, Neutral

(N) = 3 and Strongly Disagree (SD) = SD.

No	Statements on conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills	SD	D	N	A	SA
13.	Women leaders are visionary with the required theoretical skills to support their leadership roles.					
14.	In my organization, women are often adequately skills in interpersonal skills that support their day to day interactions as leaders.					
15.	Creative thinking skills are well incorporated as prospective attributes that support women leaders mentoring role.					
16.	Women leaders have sequential planning skills that support their roles as leaders.					
17.	In my organization, problem-solving skills are key attributes that women leaders utilize in improving their scope as leaders.					
18.	My organization has partnered with learning institutions to help support women leaders in their professional skills as they pursue leadership excellence.					
19.	Professional knowledge skills success is a key determinant of successful leadership in my organization.					

Workplace Policies

You are required to select the response that best describes your level of concurrence regarding each item statement about affirmative action policies and family-friendly policies. *Put a tick [✓] where applicable.* Strongly Agree (SA) = 1, Agree (A) = 2, Neutral (N) = 3 and Strongly Disagree (SD) = SD.

No	Statements on affirmative action policies and family-friendly policies	SD	D	N	A	SA

20.	Organizational policies have often supported equality in accessing leadership opportunities in various scopes of jurisdiction.					
21.	The policies set up in my organization support individual development of women leaders as they pursue to enhance their leadership performance.					
22.	Women leaders in my organization know and understand the existing gender sensitive policies.					
23.	Appropriate affirmative action policies in place help support and nurture my efforts to be a successful leader.					
24.	Policies set up in my organization have been helpful to create a balance between my work and family responsibilities.					
25.	Top management in my organization publicly advocate for the need for gender diversity.					
26.	In my organization, childcare and family commitments are often regarded as women roles.					

a)Role Models

You are required to select the response that best describes your level of concurrence regarding each item statement about professional development models and social networking models. *Put a tick [√] where applicable.* Strongly Agree (SA) = 1, Agree

(A)= 2, Neutral (N) = 3 and Strongly Disagree (SD) = SD.

No	Statements on professional development models and social networking models	SD	D	N	A	SA
27.	I get encouragement from senior women leaders in my organization who inspire me to pursue future professional aspirations.					
28.	Successful women leaders in my organization are well versed with the required leadership competencies.					
29.	Leadership mentorship programs are available in my organization for coaching aspiring women leaders.					

30.	The input from women role models have enhance my leadership capabilities in my scope of jurisdiction.					
31.	Female incorporated with male co-leadership has contributed in modelling positive leadership behaviors of leaders.					
32.	Gender expectations of leadership roles facilitate growth of women leaders.					
33.	Senior leaders in my organization focus or building respect and positive ethical behaviors for potential women leaders to emulate.					

Organizational Culture

You are required to select the response that best describes your level of concurrence regarding each item statement about involvement culture and consistency culture *Put a tick [✓] where applicable*. Strongly Agree (SA) = 1, Agree (A) = 2, Neutral (N) = 3 and Strongly Disagree (SD) = SD.

No	Statements on involvement culture and consistency culture.	SD	D	N	A	SA
32.	In my organization we have an effective team network that supports organizational operations.					
33.	There is inclusivity in my organization as all members believe that their capabilities can create a positive impact to the organization in their work.					
34.	Flexible and easy to change culture has enhanced my leadership performance in my organization.					
35.	Work in my organization is organized such that each person can see the relationship between their work and other departments to ensure empowerment.					
36.	The organization's goals and strategies are clear and well elaborative to all teams' orientation within the organization.					

37.	Routine policies in place give meaning and purpose in all aspects of work operations to enhance capability development.					
38.	Inclusivity in decision making is a key aspect in my organization in all levels of operations.					

Leadership Performance

You are required to select the response that best describes your level of concurrence regarding each item statement about efficiency and effectiveness, and customer satisfaction. . Put a tick [✓] where applicable. Strongly Agree (SA) = 1, Agree (A) = 2, Neutral (N) = 3 and Strongly Disagree (SD) = SD.

No.	Statements on efficiency and effectiveness and customer satisfaction.	SD	D	N	A	SA
41.	Customers in my organization derive satisfaction from the organization's leadership efficiency.					
42.	Service delivery is heightened by my role as a women leader my area of jurisdiction.					
43.	In my organization, success is attributed to the type of leaders in various levels of management.					
44.	Leaders in my organization often achieve organizational goals set-up in various work operations.					
45.	Customer services has been boosted by a team of motivated and committed leaders in my organization.					
46.	The strategies recommended by leaders are often inculcated in the organization's goals.					
47.	My organization recognizes women strengths in their tasks as their performance is key in the success of the organization.					

THANK YOU FOR TAKING YOUR TIME TO FILL THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix II: List of 147 Parastatals in Kenya

1. Ajira Digital Programme
2. Anti-Counterfeit Agency Board
3. Anti-money Laundering Advisory Board

4. Athi Water Services Board
5. Betting Control & Licensing Board
6. Bomas of Kenya Limited
7. Brand Kenya
8. Brand Kenya Board
9. Catering & Tourism Development Levy Trustees
10. Catering and Tourism Development Levy Trustees Board
11. Centre for Mathematics Science and Technology in Africa
12. Chemelil Sugar Company
13. Coast Water Services Board
14. Commission for Higher Education (CHE) Kenya
15. Commission on Revenue Allocation
16. Communications Commission of Kenya
17. Competition Authority of Kenya
18. Commission for Higher Education (CHE) in Kenya
19. East African Safari Air Ltd
20. Environmental Management and Co-ordination
21. Ewaso Ng'iro South Development Authority
22. Executive Secretariat & Technical Unit

23. Geothermal Development Company – GDC
24. Government Press Kenya
25. Higher Education Loans Board
26. Independent Electoral & Boundaries Commission
27. Industrial Development Bank
28. Insurance Regulatory Authority
29. Jomo Kenyatta Foundation – JKF
30. Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
31. Kenya Accreditation Service
32. Kenya Airports Authority – KAA
33. Kenya Airways – KQ
34. Kenya Animal Genetics Resource Center
35. Kenya Anti-corruption Authority
36. Kenya Broadcasting Corporation
37. Kenya Bureau of Standards
38. Kenya Civil Aviation Authority
39. Kenya Civil Aviation Authority – KCAA
40. Kenya Coconut Development Authority
41. Kenya College of Communication and Technology

42. Kenya Education Management Institute – KEMI
43. Kenya Education Staff Institute – KESI
44. Kenya Electricity Generating Company – KenGen Board
45. Kenya Electricity Generating Company Limited – KenGen
46. Kenya Energy Regulatory Commission – ERC
47. Kenya Ferry Service – KFS
48. Kenya Film Commission
49. Kenya Forest Service – KFS
50. Kenya Forestry Research Institute
51. Kenya Geothermal Development Corporation
52. Kenya ICT Board
53. Kenya ICT Board – KICTB
54. Kenya Industrial Estates
55. Kenya institute of Administration
56. Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development Board
57. Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development – KICD
58. Kenya Institute of Public Policy Research and Analysis
59. Kenya Institute of Special Education – KISE
60. Kenya Literature Bureau – KLB

61. Kenya marine and Fisheries Research Institute
62. Kenya Maritime Authority – KMA
63. Kenya Medical Research Institute
64. Kenya National Examinations Council – KNEC
65. Kenya National Highway Authority – KNHA
66. Kenya National Highways Authority Board
67. Kenya National Shipping Line
68. Kenya National Youth Service – NYS Kenya
69. Kenya News Agency – KNA
70. Kenya Nuclear Electricity Board
71. Kenya Ordnance Factories Corporation
72. Kenya Petroleum Refineries – KPRL
73. Kenya Pipeline Company – KPC
74. Kenya Pipeline Company (KPC)
75. Kenya Plant Health Inspectorate Services (KEPHIS)
76. Kenya Post Office Savings Bank
77. Kenya Power and Lighting Company Ltd – KPLC
78. Kenya Power Lighting Company – KPLC
79. Kenya Revenue Authority

80. Kenya Roads Board
81. Kenya Rural Electrification Authority
82. Kenya Rural Roads Authority – KeRRA
83. Kenya Safari Lodges & Hotels
84. Kenya School of Government – KSG
85. Kenya Tea Development Agency – KTDA
86. Kenya Tourist Board
87. Kenya Tourist Development Corporation (KTDC)
88. Kenya Trade Network Agency Board
89. Kenya Yearbook Editorial Board
90. Kenyan MPS – Members of Parliament Kenya (Mps in Kenya)
91. Kenyatta National Hospital
92. Kerio Valley Development Authority (KVDA)
93. Kerio Valley Development Authority (KVDA)
94. Kenya Urban Roads Authority Contacts (KURA)
95. LapFund
96. Local Authority Provident Fund
97. Maseno University
98. Media Council of Kenya

99. Micro and Small Enterprises Authority
100. Moi University
101. National AIDS Control Council
102. National Campaign Against Drug Abuse Authority Board
103. National Cereals and Produce Board – NCPB
104. National Co-ordinating Agency for Population and Development- NCPD
105. National Construction Authority
106. National Council for children’s services
107. National Council for Population & Development
108. National Development Fund For Persons With Disabilities
109. National Environment Tribunal
110. National Environmental Management Authority
111. National Irrigation Board, Kenya
112. National Land Commission in Kenya
113. National Museums of Kenya – NMK
114. National Water Conservation and Pipeline Corporation
115. New KCC
116. NGOs Co-ordination Board
117. Numerical Machining Complex Limited

- 118.Nzoia sugar company limited
- 119.Pest Control Products Board
- 120.Petroleum Institute of East Africa – PIEA
- 121.Policyholders Compensation Fund
- 122.Public Procurement Oversight Authority
- 123.Pyrethrum Board of Kenya
- 124.Pyrethrum Board of Kenya – PBK
- 125.Radiation Protection Board
- 126.Retirement Benefits Authority
- 127.Rift Valley Water Services Board
- 128.Schools Equipment Production Unit – SEPU
- 129.South Nyanza Sugar Company
- 130.Sports Kenya
- 131.State Corporations in Kenya
- 132.Tana & Athi Rivers Development Authority
- 133.Tana and Athi Rivers Development Authority
- 134.Tana Water Services Board
- 135.Teachers Service Commission (TSC) – Kenya
- 136.The Kenya Medical Supplies Agency – KEMSA

137. The Kenya Medical Training College – KMTC
138. The Kenya Railways Corporation – KRC
139. The National Intelligence Service (NIS)
140. The National Oil Corporation of Kenya – Nock
141. Tourism Fund Description and Contacts
142. Transition Authority
143. University Of Nairobi Enterprises & Services Ltd
144. Uwezo Fund
145. Water Services Regulatory Board
146. Water Services Trust Fund
147. Women Representatives in Kenya

Source: www.ombudsman.co.ke

Appendix III: List of 107 Sampled Parastatals in Kenya

1. Anti-Counterfeit Agency Board
2. Betting Control & Licensing Board
3. Anti-money Laundering Advisory Board
4. Bomas of Kenya Limited
5. Catering and Tourism Development Levy Trustees
6. Chemelil Sugar Company
7. Coast Water Services Board
8. Commission for Higher Education (CHE) Kenya
9. East African Safari Air Ltd
10. Environmental Management and Co-ordination

11. Ewaso Ng'iro South Development Authority
12. Executive Secretariat & Technical Unit
13. Geothermal Development Company – GDC
14. Government Press Kenya
15. Commission on Revenue Allocation
16. Communications Commission of Kenya
17. Government Press Kenya
18. Higher Education Loans Board
19. Independent Electoral & Boundaries Commission
20. Jomo Kenyatta Foundation – JKF
21. Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
22. Kenya Airports Authority – KAA
23. Kenya Airways – KQ
24. Kenya Anti-corruption Authority
25. Kenya Broadcasting Corporation
26. Kenya Bureau of Standards
27. Kenya Civil Aviation Authority
28. Kenya Coconut Development Authority
29. Kenya College of Communication and Technology
30. Kenya Electricity Generating Company – KenGen Board
31. Kenya Ferry Service – KFS
32. Kenya Film Commission
33. Kenya Forest Service – KFS
34. Kenya Forestry Research Institute
35. Kenya Geothermal Development Corporation
36. Kenya Industrial Estates
37. Kenya ICT Board – KICTB
38. Kenya institute of Administration
39. Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development – KICD
40. Kenya Institute of Public Policy Research and Analysis
41. Kenya Institute of Special Education – KISE
42. Kenya Literature Bureau – KLB

43. Kenya marine and Fisheries Research Institute
44. Kenya Maritime Authority – KMA
45. Kenya Medical Research Institute
46. Kenya National Examinations Council – KNEC
47. Kenya National Highway Authority – KNHA
48. Kenya National Shipping Line
49. Kenya National Youth Service – NYS Kenya
50. Kenya News Agency – KNA
51. Kenya Petroleum Refineries – KPRL
52. Kenya Animal Genetics Resource Center
53. Kenya Pipeline Company – KPC
54. Kenya Post Office Savings Bank
55. Kenya Power and Lighting Company Ltd – KPLC
56. Kenya Revenue Authority
57. Kenya Roads Board
58. Kenya Rural Electrification Authority
59. Kenya Safari Lodges & Hotels
60. Kenya School of Government – KSG
61. Kenya Tea Development Agency – KTDA
62. Kenya Tourist Board
63. Kenya Trade Network Agency Board
64. Kenya Yearbook Editorial Board
65. Kenyatta National Hospital
66. Maseno University
67. Media Council of Kenya
68. Micro and Small Enterprises Authority
69. Moi University
70. National AIDS Control Council
71. National Campaign Against Drug Abuse Authority Board
72. National Cereals and Produce Board – NCPB
73. National Co-ordinating Agency for Population and Development- NCPD
74. National Construction Authority

75. National Environment Tribunal
76. National Council for children's services
77. National Council for Population & Development
78. National Development Fund For Persons With Disabilities
79. National Environmental Management Authority
80. National Irrigation Board, Kenya
81. National Land Commission in Kenya
82. National Museums of Kenya – NMK
83. National Water Conservation and Pipeline Corporation
84. New KCC
85. Numerical Machining Complex Limited
86. NGOs Co-ordination Board
87. Nzoia sugar company limited
88. Pest Control Products Board
89. Petroleum Institute of East Africa – PIEA
90. Policyholders Compensation Fund
91. Public Procurement Oversight Authority
92. Pyrethrum Board of Kenya – PBK
93. Retirement Benefits Authority
94. Rift Valley Water Services Board
95. Schools Equipment Production Unit – SEPU
96. South Nyanza Sugar Company
97. Sports Kenya
98. Teachers Service Commission (TSC) – Kenya
99. The Kenya Medical Supplies Agency – KEMSA
100. The Kenya Medical Training College – KMTC
101. The Kenya Railways Corporation – KRC
102. The National Oil Corporation of Kenya – Nock
103. Tourism Fund Description and Contacts
104. Transition Authority
105. University Of Nairobi Enterprises & Services Ltd
106. Uwezo Fund

107. Water Services Regulatory Board

Source: www.ombudsman.co.ke

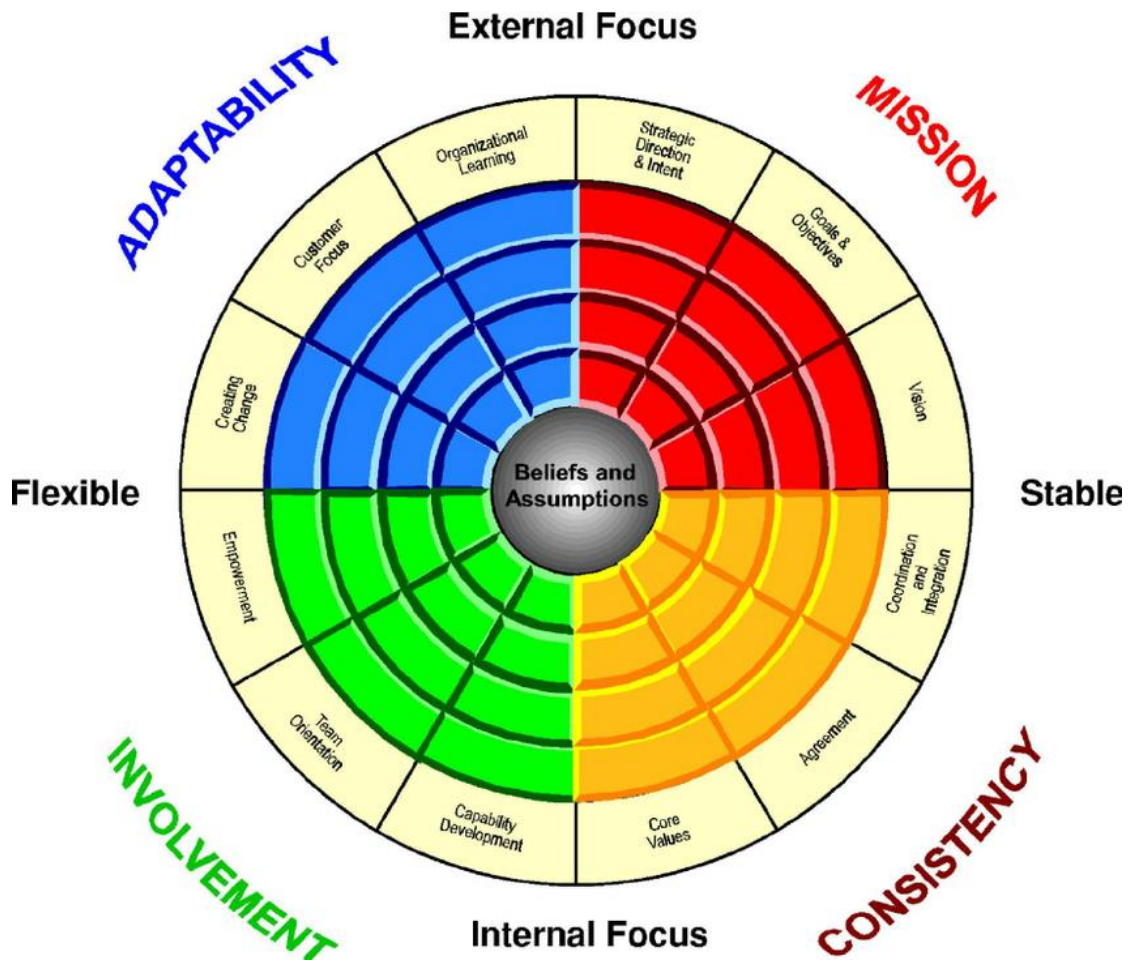
Appendix IV: Operationalization of Variables

Research Objectives	Type Variable	Indicators	Measurement of Indicators	Data Collection Method	Type of Scale	Type of Analysis	Level of Analysis
To determine the effect of perceptions as an antecedent of women leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya.	Independent Variable Perceptions	Gender stereotypes Cultural norms	Stereotypes on women Values and taboos	Questionnaire	Nominal Scale	Quantitative	Descriptive and inferential statistics
To establish the effect competency skills as an antecedent of women leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya.	Independent Variable Competency skills	Conceptual skills and professional knowledge skills	Integrity, Knowledge skills Technical skills Industry-related skills Career growth	Questionnaire	Nominal Scale	Quantitative	Descriptive and inferential statistics
To identify the effect of workplace policies as an antecedent of	Independent Variable Workplace policies	Affirmative action policies Family-friendly policies	Gender equity Family-centered policies Work-life balance	Questionnaire	Nominal Scale	Quantitative	Descriptive and inferential statistics

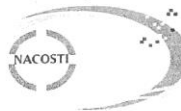
women leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya.	To determine the effect of role models as an antecedent of women leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya.	Independent Variable Role models	Professional development models and social Networking models	Positional role Coaching Network groups	Questionnaire	Nominal Scale	Quantitative	Descriptive and inferential statistics
women leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya.	To determine the moderating effect of organizational culture on the antecedents of women leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya.	Moderating Variable Organizational culture	Involvement culture Consistency culture	Employee involvement in decision making Dependability of values	Questionnaire	Nominal Scale	Quantitative	Descriptive and inferential statistics
Women Leadership	Women Leadership	Dependent Variable	Efficiency & effective	Realization of goals	Questionnaire	Nominal Scale	Quantitative Qualitative	Descriptive and

Performance	ness customer r satisfaction	Meeting customer needs Organization image	ive	inferential statistics
-------------	---------------------------------------	---	-----	---------------------------

Appendix V: Dennison's Organizational Culture Model



Appendix VI: Research Authorization from Nacosti



NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,
2241349, 3310571, 2219420
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
When replying please quote

NACOSTI, Upper Kabete
Off Waiyaki Way
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref. No. **NACOSTI/P/18/20320/25444**

Date: **4th October, 2018**


Scholastica Nkirote Ratanya
Technical University of Mombasa
P.O. Box 90420-80100
MOMBASA.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "*Antecedent of Women Leadership. A study of Parastatals in Kenya.*" I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **selected Counties** for the period ending **4th October 2019.**

You are advised to report to **the Chief Executive Officers of selected parastatals, the County Commissioners and the County Directors of Education, selected Counties** before embarking on the research project.

Kindly note that, as an applicant who has been licensed under the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 to conduct research in Kenya, you shall deposit **a copy** of the final research report to the Commission within **one year** of completion. The soft copy of the same should be submitted through the Online Research Information System.


BONIFACE WANYAMA
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:

The Chief Executive Officers
Selected Parastatals.

The County Commissioners
Selected Counties.