

PERCEPTIONS AS AN ANTECEDENT OF WOMEN LEADERSHIP PERFORMANCE IN PARASTATALS IN KENYA

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ABSTRACT

Women leadership has been of great interest to researchers in Africa and the entire world today. This is why there have been certain requisites that influence women leadership performance. This has contributed to the intense debate on their representation and performance in top leadership positions in parastatals in Kenya. It is due to the backdrop 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 hence, this study sought to fill this knowledge gap. The study was guided by the general objective of the study which was to determine the effects of perceptions as an antecedent of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. Two theories formed well-grounded premises significant for this study: Role Congruity theory and Transformational 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 carried out to test the data collection instrument to check for its reliability and validity for the study. A total of 132 questionnaires were received translating to a 61.68%. Both descriptive and inferential statistics used to analyse the data. Multi and linear regression models were used in explaining the effects of perceptions as an antecedent of women leadership performance in Parastatals in Kenya. Findings revealed that there was a weak but significant correlation between perceptions and leadership performance. The study concluded that there was abandonment of some cultural roles that impeded women from ascending to leadership positions in their places of work. The study recommends that reinforcing the complaint mechanisms are actions that could be employed to address past discrimination. The study further recommends that men should also be involved in women matters and help them address their work place challenges that prevent them from accessing leadership positions.

Key Words: *perceptions, antecedent, women leadership, performance, parastatals, Kenya*

INTRODUCTION

Leadership as a research topic has received extensive scholarly attention over the past few decades. Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal Northouse (2012). This means that leadership is a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow. It is the quality of relationship that matters most when we are engaged in getting extraordinary things done (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). In many societies today, leadership is seen from a patriarchal point of view, and a gender difference in leadership is an area that is still full of ambiguity and

paradox. This has been caused by underrepresentation of women in key leadership positions where there are still a few women in top leadership positions worldwide (Thornton, 2013).

Notably, Diehl and Dzubinski (2016) observed that such challenges facing women leadership cannot be targeted in isolation. According to a recent study, the first step is to recognize that women are required to possess certain requisites in society, in groups or organizations and within the individuals (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016). In a global perspective, governments across the globe are increasingly recognizing the significance of harnessing the full contribution and involvement of women in strategic decision-making arenas (Hinds 2015). The United Nations' focus on the post-2015 development goals strongly aligns women's empowerment and gender equality with women leadership to enhance economic development. Commonwealth Heads of Government have affirmed the importance of women's leadership (UN Women, 2013). International organizations such as the United Nations and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) have gender equality monitoring mechanisms in place and report on these regularly, although not all refer to women's leadership (Hinds, 2015).

In addition, although the number of women in senior management has risen, the pace is still very slow based on current trends the Sustainable Development Goals of gender equality in political representation is likely to take another half century to achieve. For example, from 2004 to 2012, the percentage of women in senior management has risen five per cent at most and in 2012 it stood at 21 per cent. In 2013, the number of women in senior management rose again to 24% per cent globally. Zheng (2015) posits that, it is apparent that there is a disparity in leadership patterns in males versus females. Interestingly, regardless of the key factors contributing to unrelenting debate concerning women performance, women have continued to participate in positions at all levels within the organization including the executive levels (Kellerman & Rhode, 2014). For example, according to Liu (2013) China has made a great step in promoting women to senior posts. According to the researchers, evidence shows that female board directors in China have made outstanding and positive impact on the performance of Chinese listed companies. Barsh and Yee (2011) notes that it is significant to observe that despite factors that hinder a woman's success, she does not lose her self-efficacy perceptions and beliefs based on leadership roles. This means that perceptions on gender stereotypes and cultural norms has great impact on her performance in carrying out her respective managerial duties. For example, there is a general agreement that women face more perceptual barriers trying to gain the position of a leader (Zheng, 2015).

In a regional perspective, there are few women leaders at the helm of public organizations. For example, 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 number of female leaders is still low in many parts of the world. For example, statistics on women leadership in the higher education sector in South Africa demonstrated that in 2003 the average number of women in senior management 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 perceptions, the reasons given for the inequalities are diverse and are relative.

In the local context Onsongo (2006) posits that women are recognized in the Kenyan society. However, according to the author, traditional perceptions of women as inferior to men continue to prevail as many people invoke the preservation of African culture to justify the subordination of women. It has been also noted that organizations with more women leadership roles outperform their competition (Muoria, Gachunga & Waititu, 2013). Equally, Women of Africa Leadership Development Program research report from Kenya, noted that there seems to be need to adopt role modelling programs for Kenyan women, particularly women leaders and this poses the challenge of creating continuum in leadership (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.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In today's modern world, women remain under-represented in higher leadership positions in organizations, a reality that reflects a range of requisites being studied and remedied from varying 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). Although Kenyan women constitute over 50 per cent of the entire population Felix et al. (2016) they hold less than a quarter of senior leadership positions in corporations across the globe, with a third of businesses having no women at all in senior roles due to various factors (Thornton, 2016). This means that, a few women have moved beyond these perceptions and norms into the executive suite, nevertheless their number is not proportionate to their representation at higher levels of management. Kenya's new Constitution passed in 2010 provides a powerful framework for addressing traditional perceptions and segregation of women in promoting their full contribution in every facet of development and requires that appointments to public offices should not have more than a third of one gender (Constitution of Kenya, 2010). However, even with the 2010 Constitution of Kenya providing for the two-thirds gender rule, female representation in governmental institutions has only improved marginally. According to a recent study, it is true 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 sizeable number of Kenyan women have broken into executive suites and 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. In spite of apparent efforts the Kenya Government has made since independence in 1964, there has been a knowledge gap because women remain marginalized in many ways as their contribution in decision-making in parastatals remains insignificant. In a study of women principals in Kenya, Barngetuny (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 leadership abilities of women go unutilized in a country where all effort is considered necessary so as to contribute to development of the economy (Njiru, 2013). Although some studies have been done and theoretical models exist offering diverse perspectives on women leadership performance. A knowledge gap still exists as few studies have agreed on the actual antecedents of women leadership performance (Felix et al., 2016; Okiogo, 2013) in parastatals in Kenya. It is against this background that and lack of significant literature that this study sought to fill the knowledge gap in determining the effect of perceptions as an antecedent of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

GENERAL OBJECTIVE

The general objective of this study was to determine effect of perceptions as an antecedent of women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

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

THEORETICAL REVIEW

Role Congruity Theory

Eagly (1987) was the proponent of Role Congruity Theory. Further, the effects of role incongruity on gender discrimination are well documented on the role congruity theory based on a meta-analysis of studies on workplace discrimination. Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders has been advanced to explain the relative dearth of women in the elite leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). According to the proponent, role congruity theory involves the aspect of prejudice toward female leaders. It states that perceived incongruity between the female gender role and leadership roles leads to two forms of prejudice. In addition, Role Congruity Theory of prejudice toward female leaders has been advanced to explain the relative dearth of women in the leadership roles. Firstly, it derives from discrepancies between the communal or female- stereotypical characteristics commonly ascribed to women and the agentic qualities required of leader's roles (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

On the other hand, agentic traits are a group of characteristics more commonly ascribed to males, which concerns an assertive and controlling behaviour type. This type of prejudice results from a perceived incongruity between the female stereotype and the attributes deemed necessary for effective leadership. Role congruity theory proposes that a group is positively evaluated then its characteristics are recognized as aligning with that group's typical social roles (Eagly & Diekmann, 2005). The first type of prejudice predicted by role congruity theory (necessary for effective leadership (e.g., women perceived less favourably than men as

potential leaders) derives from the descriptive norms of gender roles. Specifically, it describes beliefs about women's characteristics are incongruent with qualities expected and desired in leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The second type of prejudice is evidenced in less favorable evaluations of agentic behaviors of women who occupy leadership roles than the equivalent behavior of men. The second type stems from consensual expectations about how women ought to behave. This form of prejudice occurs because agentic behaviour enacted by a woman deviates from stereotype-based prescriptions about desirable female behaviours (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Prescriptive stereotyping can lead to discrimination when a woman violates consensual beliefs about how women should behave (Heilman, 2012). The second type of prejudice derives from inductive norms inherent in gender roles; that is, expectations about how women behave and how people observe a women engaging in an agentic versus communal manner. Researchers posit that role congruency occurs because women are often ascribed communal traits while the leadership role is associated with agentic traits. For example Elsaid and Elsaid (2011); Rudman & Phelan (2010) note that women are seen as less competent than men and kept form ascending the corporate ladder.

Elsaid and Elsaid (2011) confirms that women are rated much more favorable when they display characteristics congruent with their gender. Professional women who conduct themselves in a particularly competent, confident manner may suffer negative social repercussions in the form of being perceived as interpersonally deficient (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. In other words, although women who behave agentially may be perceived as competent, they run the risk of being disliked for violating gender- stereotypic expectations for feminine "niceness" (Rudman & Phelan, 2010). Such negative reactions to agentic women may reflect a backlash effect (Rudman & Phelan, 2010). Such a backlash effect may be explained by the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Role Congruity Theory provided prove that achieving leadership is more difficult for women than men. The 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. 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. The current study has measured whether indeed there exists, gender perceptions against female leadership and what are the expectations in terms of the cultural values and norms.

Transformational Leadership Theory

The concept of transformational model was first highlighted by Burns (1978) in a context of political science and was later formulated 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 description of transformational leadership is the process of creating changes that will yield a transformation of followers (Northouse, 2015). According to his study, women encouraged participation in policy formulation and implementation, power and information, and sought to enhance the status of employees hence increasing their efficiency and effectiveness. In support, Brandt (2011); Denti and Hemlin (2012) posit that the role of leaders is very significant and supporting creative individuals is and should be of interest to leaders. These studies seem to suggest that transformational leadership needs new information and fresh perspectives because the present myopic organizational policies and managerial cultures, are blocking their performance.

Transformational leader exhibits four components to varying degrees in order to bring about desirable organizational behaviors (Bass & Riggio, 2006). These are idealized influence, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. This approach supports the personal and professional growth in others through the use of inspiration, consideration for the individual, intellectual stimulation, motivation and influence (Northouse, 2015; 2012).

According to the transformational leadership theory, leaders encourage their followers to be more innovative and creative (Yukl, 2013). These behaviors are then supposed to affect followers in a positive way by elevating them to be the best they can be and in doing so are motivated by achievements and self-development. 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 positively influences leader performance (Diaz-Saenz, 2011). However, there has been some conflicting views on the effectiveness of transformational leadership. For example, Yukl (2013) argued that the theory lacked sufficient identification 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 has also been criticized that followers risk fulfilling their leader's vision however impractical, over-ambiguous or even deceptive it may be (Avramenko, 2014; Northouse, 2013).

Transformational theory is significant for this study as it provides an avenue of understanding the high degree of interconnectedness of workplace policies and competencies on women leadership. This is where women leaders are able to achieve the desired changes to enhance their performance within the public corporations. Transformational leadership theory also plays a significant role for this research because it supports the notion that women who possess transformational behaviours and conceptual skills such as integrity, self-confidence, openness and feminist, enhanced their leadership performance. This is in agreement with Kouzes and Posner (2012); Northouse (2012) who assert that transformational leaders usually exhibit high ethical standards and moral behaviour.

EMPIRICAL REVIEW

Interestingly, Social Role Theory argues that there are traits of a leader such as assertiveness, that are societal linked to the qualities of men and thus women cannot be promoted to top management positions (Skelly & Johnson, 2012). According to a recent study of public corporations, individuals typically focus on becoming more effective leaders while organizations focus on identifying the best leader to enhance overall organizational performance (Pasmore, 2014). According to a study of 96 corporations, Monyoncho (2015) found out that stereotypes have been used to simplify the social world, since they reduce the amount of processing that people do when they meet a new person. This is because women become acutely sensitive to the possibility that they are being stereotyped (Von Hippel et al., 2011).

However, while research on stereotype threat in organizations is growing, a few studies have examined outcomes other than job performance (Sheaffer, Bogler & Sarfaty, 2011). Although more women are assuming leadership roles today than before, the notion of a woman as a leader is still foreign to many individuals and women alike. Another study of educational women leaders revealed that gender bias continues to occur in the workplace, and there appears to be a resistance to change (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2010). Equally, Skelly and Johnson (2011) study found out that women are less likely to be perceived as having male-type qualities which forms a gender stereotype against women for managerial evaluations. Another study reported that when it comes to gender stereotypes, women perceived to lack the qualities most associated with managerial success, including assertiveness, competitiveness, self-confidence, ambition and emotional stability (Sheaffer, et al., 2011). These perceptions might well be partially to blame for the lack of female leadership at some of the highest levels of an organization.

Existing literature from a recent study revealed that gender aspects like cultural stereotypes can be significantly unified with individuals' work-based selves (Kyriakdou, 2012). These studies assert that women on the helm of leadership go extra miles to perform extra duties to create positive outcomes in the organizations they lead by adopting appropriate leadership personalities and leaders perceptions of their roles. Interestingly, according to a study by Bosse and Taylor (2012) women-led organizations impairs the ability of creditors and financial capital controllers to distribute their funds to such organizations. Hence, despite the societal mandates used to increase the number of women in leadership positions, the traditional stereotypes remain. This is why Block and Crawford (2013) study posit people exhibit gender stereotyping when they assign traits, behaviors and roles to individual men and women on the basis of gender.

According to a study by public and private corporations by Monyoncho (2015) stereotypes in organizations operate in culturally diverse environments and this study is expected to bring out the influence of cultural beliefs and stereotypes on women leaders performance. Studies involving women in leadership roles indicate the majority of women believe a major requisite to advancement is the perception of possessing such characteristics fit in a male-dominated environment. This is supported by a study that revealed that stereotypical male images still

persist about gender roles and effective leadership (Pflanz, 2011). This has therefore 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; Karellaia & 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 communal traits of women leaders could be effective in leading works, and may actually be advantageous. In another study, it was revealed that how women experience their gender in relation to their leadership is expected to have fundamental implications on they see themselves as leaders. This is because most stereotypes tend to convey a negative impression (Monyoncho, 2015). This means that a person is confront with a situation or stimuli but what an individual interprets or perceives may be considerably different from reality.

Culture is a very unique practice and therefore its impact on every group or organization is very unique and varies from organization to organization. It is important to note that Hofstede et al. (2010) posits that research on cultures around the world documented have influenced issues of access and equity in all spears of life, including the workplace culture. This means that culture defines and shapes the approach of people towards life. This affects their behavior in general and in particular to different entities around them. 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 powerful influence of individual and organizational barriers, Egan, Shollen and Campbell et al. (2017) advocated for the implementation of a broader model to explain women’s leadership experiences and development.

In support, a study of women leaders revealed that women who are considering leadership must navigate these various cultures effectively because these cultural dynamics can create challenges for women who advance into leadership (Kellerman & Rhode, 2014). By knowing how cultural beliefs influence selection outcome, organizations can manipulate these factors to enhance the quality of executives selected. A study of perceptions of women leaders revealed that it is believed that women display weaker credentials for leadership roles (Diekman & Schneider, 2010). This assumption leads many organizations to gender cultural role of leadership positions. 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, despite a labor force that is 45% female, women only average about 11.9% membership of companies’ boards of directors (Pande & Forde, 2011). Ryan, Haslam, Hersby and Bongiorno (2011) study also found that aspects were wide- ranging for successful and unsuccessful firms. According to the study, in unsuccessful companies, ideal leaders were more likely to be associated with female stereotypes than in more successful companies. Indeed, the health of the organization may shape perceptions about women leaders’ perceived fitness in significant ways. This reflected by a study by Rudman, Moss-Racusin, Phelan and Nauts (2012) which revealed that agentic characteristics for example confident and assertive

as seen as requisite traits for leadership. This is because women of the early centuries were generally restricted to their kitchens and those who were in employment worked in factories, farms or shops. Hence, this study intended to fill the knowledge gap and determine the effect of perceptions on women leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study is based on deductive approach which is affiliated to positivism philosophy which emphasizes on theory setting (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). This study adopted a descriptive research design which applied both qualitative and quantitative approaches. According to Creswell (2013) descriptive design is suitable as a set of variables are measured in their natural setting. This study adopted positivism philosophy. This philosophy was suitable for this study as it emphasizes genuine, real and factual happenings which are studied and observed scientifically and empirically through logical and rational investigation and analysis (Aliyu, Umar, Kasim & Martin, 2014). Target population is defined as the total number of units from which samples are selected for measurement and a full set of cases form which a sample is taken (Saunders et al., 2012). For the purpose of this research, the target population was 147 parastatals in Kenya. The choice of these corporations was due to the following observations made by R.O.K. (2009); the report indicates that Kenya Vision 2030 has earmarked the parastatals for rapid growth and development. The research targeted all the women managers of the parastatals in Kenya. Saunders et al. (2012) define a sample as a set of respondents selected as representative individuals from a large population. Sampling permits the researcher to collect a smaller quantity of data that represents the overall population. The sample size therefore, was directly relative to the desired confidence level and equally comparative to the error that the researcher is prepared to accept. A formula method was adopted in order to determine sample size of the study. Yamane (1967) provides a simplified formula to calculate sample sizes as cited by Adekola, Allen and Tinuola (2017). In this formula, a 95% confidence level is assumed. The formula is as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + (e)^2} = \frac{147}{1 + 147(.5)^2} = 107$$

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.

This study used questionnaires to collect primary data from the 107 women leaders concerning the effects of perceptions as an antecedent of women in relation to performance. According to Kothari and Garg (2014) a questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions printed or typed in a definite order on a form or set of forms. All items on the questionnaire rated using a 5- point scale ranging from 1 - strongly disagree to 5 - strongly agree. The questionnaires were administered via face to face interactions or by telephone. Quantitative research was considered measurement of the variables as one of its critical aspects which was characterized by measurement of the study's variables. 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. This is one of the most commonly used scales, developed by Likert (1932) who developed a technique that increases the variation in the possible scores that a respondent can choose from. Multiple regression analysis was used to explain the extent to which perceptions as an antecedent of women leadership (independent variable) related with women leadership performance (dependent variable). The statistical model of the study is a multiple linear regression model. The general form of the model is:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

Where: Y= leadership performance; regression coefficients β_0 is the intercept; X_1 is perceptions as an antecedent; e is the error term.

RESEARCH RESULTS

The objective of the study was 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 and this meant that their leadership personalities had grown and developed within them since childhood and no personal 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. In the second theme of cultural norms, most of the respondents were of the opinion that their conventions were often clear hence they were able to meet these patterns of behavior expectations. This meant that people should respect their inherent values, norms and remain moral because society's growth started with individuals who embodied the education and principles they had 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 also gave findings and deductions.

Findings on correlation and regression analyses indicate that there was a statistically significant association between gender stereotypes (supported by $\beta = .688$, p-value = .000) and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. However, cultural norms (supported by $\beta = -.040$, p-value = .529) was found 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.

It was determined that respondents strongly agreed that women leaders are generally perceived positively and their decisions are also 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 as it did not change their perception towards women leaders as the discrimination they experienced was a result of more than just their gender. This was because taboos and stereotypes subjected against women had a great impact on their efforts to pursue or accept leadership roles.

According to the study, the cultural roles that women perform had a great influence on their leadership performance since their patterns of behavior expectations are often clear. 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.

INFERENCE STATISTICS

To understand the relationship between perception and performance, a correlation analysis was performed. Correlation is a technique concerned with relationship between variables. Pearson’s correlation coefficient is a test statistics that measures the statistical relationship between two variables. It is known as the best method of measuring the relationship between variables of interest because it is based on the method of covariance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Strong and significant relationship shows the desirable state to enable the women leadership performance. The study investigated correlated independent variable (gender stereotype and cultural norms) and leadership performance, as shown in Table 1.

The results in Table 1 shows that in Kenyan parastatals, gender stereotypes and leadership performance have strong ($r=.687$, $p=.000$) positive significant relationship while cultural norms. This relationship is significant at 5%. Leadership performance have weak ($r=-.023$, $p=.495$) negative significant relationship. This is because, according to Kothari (2004) the closer the value is to 1 the higher the degree of correlation.

Table 1: Correlation

		Gender_st ereotypes	Cultural_ norms	Leadership_ Performance
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).

Analysis of Variation (ANOVA) test was also done to establish whether the whole model had a significant 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 tests the assumption by means of comparing two different estimates of the population variances. While correlation analysis established relationship between the variables, regression analysis on the other hand established the relationship and also provided predictive features. The two perception constructs – stereotypes and cultural norms constructs from factor analysis were regressed with the performance construct. The stereotypes and cultural norms were set as the predictor variables. Leadership performance formed the dependent variable. Table 2 shows the analysis of variance of the study on perceptions and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya.

Table 2: ANOVA

Model		Sum 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 2 results reveal that a significant relationship exists between gender stereotypes, cultural norms and leadership performance (F=58.161, p=.000) as indicated in Model 1. When moderating variable i.e. organizational culture was included, the F value increased (F=72.138, p=.000) as shown in Model 2, and indicated a significant relationship between perception measures and leadership performance. P value for both models is less than .05, thus indicating that the predictor variable explain the variation in the dependent variable (leadership performance). If the significance value of F was larger than .05 then the independent variable would not explain the variation in the dependent variable (Lakew & Rao, 2009).

The results in Table 3 shows 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=.474) on Model 1. This implies 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.

Table 3: Perceptions Model Summary Results

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	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 3 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 = .628). This suggests that the moderating variable, organizational culture has a high significant influence on antecedents of women leadership 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. All variables are centered to make interpretations easier afterwards and 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 research to determine the unique interaction between 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 test 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 were stated:

H01: There is no statistically significant influence of perceptions on leadership performance in parastatals in 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.

Table 4: Regression Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.286	.332		3.868	.000
Gender_stereotypes(X1)	.706	.066	.688	10.779	.000
Cultural_norms (X2)	-.047	.075	-.040	-.631	.529

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership_Performance

Table 4 displays the regression coefficients results of the perceptions measures i.e. gender stereotypes and cultural norms. Gender stereotypes (supported by $\beta = .688$, p-value = .000) and cultural norms (supported by $\beta = -.040$, p-value = .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:

$$Y_i = 1.286 - 0.706X_1$$

Where: X1 – Gender Stereotypes

It was 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 and results as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Combined Regression Model

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 5 it can be seen that perception has significant influence on performance since the p value of the slope is less than .05. This implies that the null hypothesis is rejected. It can be concluded that there is significant relationship between leadership performance and perceptions. The model is presented by equation as:

$$Y_i = 1.017 + 0.759X_1$$

Where: X1 is perceptions

CONCLUSIONS

The regression results reveal statistically significant positive relationship between gender stereotypes and leadership performance in parastatals in Kenya. The study concluded that this was as a result of the healthy early environments in which the women leaders grew up in which provided a solid foundation on which to build their leadership personality. 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 impeded 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.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The study recommends that more needs to be done to improve women’s participation and involvement in leadership and management roles in organizations. Despite the fact efforts have been made by the Kenya government as well as public organizations to encourage pursuit of women in leadership positions, this study notes that the disconnect between theory and practice when it comes to women’s role in leadership is aspect that needs further improvement. Hence campaigns against discrimination, reinforcing the complaint mechanisms are actions that could be employed to address past discrimination.

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