

Full Length Research Paper

The role of women in corporate governance on organizational performance, a Kenyan case

Dr. Charles Kombo Okioga

Senior Lecturer Department of Accounting and Finance, Kisii University
E-mail: bwokioga@yahoo.co.uk

Abstract

Women's corporate role has evolved in an ideological and structural environment that is sex-typed and gender specific. Some corporate jobs were ear-marked as female: secretaries, typists, and stenographers. Women managers filled female-defined niches, such as personnel or "women's departments," or predominated among staff rather than line positions. As entrepreneurs, they were most successful in industries characterized as female, such as food preparation, cosmetics, certain retail sales areas, and women's clothing. The gender-typed world created in the nineteenth century held sway well into the twentieth century. World War II often is touted as a watershed for working women because more married women worked at better-paying (that is, male-defined) jobs than ever before. Indeed, the percentage of employed married women has continued to rise ever since, from 25.9% of the labor force in 1940, to 30.5% in 1960, to 60.5% in 2012. Quotas and other special measures open more space for women's participation. New skills help women realize their full leadership potential. Women lag far behind men in access to land, credit and decent jobs, even though a growing body of research shows that enhancing women's economic options boosts national economies. The paper concludes by recommending for the formulation of Macroeconomic policies to make the connections to gender equality and reduce multiple barriers that prevent women from seizing economic opportunities.

Keywords: Equity, collateral, gender.

INTRODUCTION

Months after the global economy narrowly escaped a complete crash whose roots have been traced to the oversized egos and greed in America's Wall Street, the corporate world has been soul searching as to how best a recurrence of such turbulence can be avoided. Tones of ink and paper has been spent in the past examining what may have gone wrong behind the closed doors of financial engineering wizards and the corporate management in general with the consensus coming ever closer to the overdose of testosterone hormones not only in Wall Street but also in the captaincy of the ship of capitalism. (Blackmore, J. 199) The argument is that because corporate value systems, culture and governance matrix is to a large extent determined by the composition of their management teams and boards, the absence of women in high echelons of management and boardrooms exposes organizations to the risk of missing certain perspectives of governance, social, economic and people management. (Amadiume Ifi, 2000).

Geister (1995) observes that Men are seen to have certain characteristics that predispose them to taking

excessive risks in business. Excess testosterone is being blamed for the generation of toxic subprime products that pushed the global financial system to the brink. Throughout the world, management experts are intensely examining the emerging proposition that had Wall Street retained within its ranks a sizeable number of women in key decision-making positions, the high level of risk-taking that drove the global financial system to the abyss may have been avoided. (Coale, 1999) argues that Women who were originally shunned for being risk averse are now being seen as risk aware, opening a window that could pave the way for more women to occupy not only top positions in the financial services sector but also in boardrooms.

In Kenya, the story of financial markets crash, the ensuing global economic recession and its aftermath is unfolding in different ways for women. (Onsongo, 2005) It has on the one hand given many of the women sitting at the peak of local corporations and businesses a chance to show that they have what it takes to keep the ship afloat in a storm. On the other hand, a number of Kenyan

women, perhaps riding on the old adage that there is a silver lining around every cloud, saw opportunity in the global economic turbulence and used it to climb the corporate ladder. (Kanogo, 2005)

Women corporate governance has come to mean many things, traditionally and at a fundamental level, the concept refers to corporate decision making and control, particularly the structure of the women leaders and its working procedures. (Kearne, 2005)) Defines Women corporate governance as a set of interlocking rules by which corporations, shareholders and management govern their behaviour. In each country, this is a combination of a legal system that sets some common standards of governance and systems of behaviour determined by firms themselves.

According to Maendeleo Ya Wanawake (2000) women representation on the boards of companies around the world remains uneven. While a large number of companies include women on their boards in some of the major OECD economies (Norway – 100 percent of companies surveyed by CWDI have women on boards, United States – 87 percent, Germany 82 percent, UK – 75 percent) many other countries lag far behind. Only 33 percent of surveyed companies in Russia, 30 percent in Portugal and Italy, 27 percent in India, and 16 percent in Japan have women on their boards.

The percentage of women directors, despite a few success stories like Norway (44.2 percent) is rather low across the world, especially in the Middle East and North Africa region: Kuwait is one of the regional leaders with 2.7 percent of women directors, followed by Oman (2.3 percent), Bahrain (1 percent), UAE (0.8 percent), Qatar (0.3 percent), and Saudi Arabia (0.1 percent). One solution, in countries like Norway, Italy, Spain, South Africa, and France has been to institute quotas for women's representation on boards – whether for publicly listed companies of certain size, state-owned enterprises, or a combination of both. Regulators are also pressuring companies to diversify beyond imposing quotas. The U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC), for example, now requires companies to disclose how they deal with diversity on the board (Njoya, 2008).

According to Okumu (2012) Africa has two women presidents Jane Banda of Malawi and Johnson of Liberia. Hellen Johnson Sirleaf, a Nobel Peace Prize winner, was elected as Africa's first female president in 2005 and reelected in 2011. While her first term in office focused on reconstructing a country devastated by two civil wars, one from 1989 to 1996 and the second from 1999 to 2003, she has set out to use her second term as president to make women's rights and health a national priority.

Jane Banda succeeded former President Bingu wa Mutharika after his sudden passing on Apr. 5.2012 After she was elected vice president in 2009, she had a falling out with Mutharika, and was subsequently expelled from the ruling Democratic People's Party and essentially barred from participating in government. However, she

remained vice president, and in 2011 she formed the opposition People's Party. Since Mutharika's death a number of MPs have left the former ruling party to join her. (Okumu, 2012).

Both women presidents Sirleaf and Banda govern countries with significant development challenges. So devastating were Liberia's civil wars that nearly a decade since the end of the conflict, the country is still in a state of reconciliation and reconstruction. In Malawi, Mutharika's last years in office were characterized by an economy crumbling under government mismanagement, which was compounded by the withdrawal of the aid because of human rights abuses. (Okumu, 2012) Yet despite the fact that Sirleaf has had to focus her efforts on reconstruction and Banda is barely three months into her time as president, there is concrete evidence indicating that both women have put the advancement of women at the top of their agendas.

Women are on the rise all over Africa in significant positions. And this is not only due to the corruption and incompetence surrounding the performance of male incumbents over the last fifty years but also because of the good legacy of women in high positions and in power, during this same period. Former Nigerian Finance Minister Ngozi Okonjo Iweala was praised for her professionalism, transparency, and brevity, and was highly regarded around the world. Indeed she was made Nigerian of the year in 2006. It was the high esteem and professionalism with which she was associated that also led to her exit from the Nigerian Obasanjo Government (Kihoro, 2007).

When Goodluck-Jonathan, acting President of Nigeria, after dismissing the head of the country's national oil company Mohammed Sanusi Barkindo, appointed a former employee of Royal Dutch Shell PLC's Nigerian subsidiary as the country's first female Petroleum Minister. Diezani Allison-Madueke held Nigeria's Petroleum Ministry. And according to several of the country's daily newspapers, the decision to employ a woman was in part an attempt to "wipe away years of corruption that saw the oil-rich nation struggle to produce power for its 150 million people". Allison-Madueke former Transport Minister previously worked as a director for the Shell Petroleum Development. Shell struck oil in Nigeria 50 years ago and remains the main force in the national consortium for exploration in the country, though attacks by militants upset by environmental and poor living conditions in the Niger Delta have halved national oil output since 2006. The recent truce in the area is however expected to restore previous production levels. Other women in the acting President cabinet include Dora Akunyili appointed as Information Minister (Kihoro, 2007).

In Kenya, the situation is worse, as women occupy only 44 out of the 462 seats on the boards of the 55 companies listed at the bourse, according to filings made to the Capital Markets Authority (CMA). This is a meager

nine per cent. Kenya is, in fact, doing far much worse than Uganda and Rwanda, with the latter registering more than 50 per cent of women in boardrooms (Kamau, 2008) Njeri Rionge, who has been a member and chair of several boards and committees, and is now a life coach and business mentor, attributes the women's under-representation in boardrooms to the recruitment style, which is mostly done via the 'old-boys' network. "Over a decade ago, best practices in women corporate governance agreed to incorporate gender diversity, but sadly, this has not been matched by appropriate action," Rionge says. This disparity, she observes, poses the risk of boards missing vital aspects of leadership that have to do with social economics and people governance (Kamau, 2008).

House Midambi, (1990) unless the disparities are addressed to the root, women under-representation in corporate leadership will not end, even for decades to come. Felicity Biriri, the Chairperson of Federation of Women Entrepreneurs Association (Fewa) says this disparity in boardrooms boils down to power and control. "After the promulgation of the Constitution, Kenyans thought the 30 per cent gender representation applied only in political positions, but it applies also in women corporate governance," she says. Women have also been accused of contributing to their snail-paced upward mobility in the corporate world (Njoya, 2008).

Many women have the double-burden syndrome, where they are expected to balance work and domestic responsibilities of being the wife, the mother and the homemaker. (Kee, 2005) This double-burden syndrome is irreconcilable with the 'anytime, anywhere' performance model and many women in the women corporate governance always have to know how they will balance family and work. Many women today would rather forfeit plum appointments for fear that their family responsibilities may suffer in the process.

Merill (1999) argues that there is a great need for gender mainstreaming, which starts from the political system and trickles down to the corporate world. While it may not be obvious to many, political goodwill is extremely important in solving this disparity. Women corporate governance has always and will always be intertwined with political influence. Most of these boards are parastatals and appointments heavily rely on political influence. (Nzomo 2003a) Political goodwill and commitment to gender mainstreaming is, therefore, vital in solving this issue." Women have also been challenged to come out strongly to claim their slots in the boardroom by putting their credentials out there and applying for the advertised posts.

According to Kiragu (2006) observes a bias towards the quota system in appointment of directors would break male domination of the boardroom. This law is set to bring far-reaching changes in corporate Kenya. Of the 55 firms listed at the Nairobi Securities Exchange (NSE), more than 23 have no women directors and those with

female board members are majority-owned by multinationals. At the moment, only Kenya-RE, one of the 55 firms listed at the NSE, has a woman at its helm Nelius Kariuki, who was appointed in 2007. Only two women Maria Msiska (BOC Kenya) and Nasim Devji (DTB Bank) are CEOs in publicly listed companies. Kenya-RE had a woman CEO, Eunice Mbogo, until 2010, when Jadhiah Mwarania replaced her.

Companies in the commercial and agriculture sectors have male-dominated boards unlike those in the financial sector. Firms with women-friendly boards include Safari com and Ken Gen, which have four women each. Barclays Bank, Standard Chartered Bank, Nation Media Group and East African Breweries Limited have three women each. While the use of quota system will guarantee fair playing ground for both sexes, it is bound to generate debate, with some indicating that board seats should be based on merit (Okumu, 2008).

Purpose of the study

The recent economic changes affecting women's participation in the labour market where the labour market has undergone transformation forcing Women to seek a better balance in the division of labour and in the domestic household. The women have sought personal and professional development through their involvement in the corporate governance in the workplace in their bid to achieve financial independence, and to participate fully in decision-making, men have engaged women in tussle for governance hence the researcher undertook to study the contribution of women in corporate management in developing countries in Africa with special emphasis on Corporate women in Kenya.

Literature Review

An outline of women corporate governance in Kenya

Chege and Namusonge (2006) observe that although women corporate governance is now a buzzword, in 1990 it was a backwater. Despite some notable exceptions, such as the Cadbury Report in the UK in 1992, or the first King Report on Women corporate governance in South Africa in 1994, the rise of women corporate governance began in the late 1990s. The Commonwealth Association for Women corporate governance was only founded in 1998; the OECD didn't issue its first guidelines on women corporate governance until 1999. Within this context, that cutting-edge work in the area of women corporate governance was underway in Kenya in 1998 is laudable.

Organizations which promote women corporate governance may do so either at the level of the corporate entity, or at the level of the individual director, or both. It

is important to target governance from both levels, as the outcomes for each may be quite different. (Geister, 1995) A significant problem in many countries is getting the right people to nominate as directors. As stated in the *women corporate governance Guidelines*, they should be "persons of caliber, credibility and who have the necessary skills and expertise to exercise independent judgment on issues that are necessary to promote the Company's objectives and performance in its area of business." In addition to the individual skills of directors, there needs to be a mix of executive, non-executive, and women directors. The presence of women directors, that is, essentially, directors who have no conflict of interest, is essential to ensure impartiality in decision-making (Kamau, 2002).

Top careers preferred by Kenyan women

Coleman, M. (2002) indicated that there is a marked difference between the careers that men prefer and those that women opt for. When it comes to top careers for women, some may want a job that would pay them well and give great benefits; whereas others search for those they have interest in, would give them time for personal life, and are not too hectic. There are many good careers for women, which they would find comfortable working in and are also remunerative.

Human Resource Manager- A woman naturally has the capability to manage people, which she can use in the corporate industry to manage employees. Since a career as a human resource manager requires a lot of communication and managerial skills, this is an ideal choice for women. Sales and Marketing Walk into the marketing department of any major Kenyan corporation and you will realize that this is practically a female colony. (Anyang' Nyongo, 1989) From the rank and file to the top managers this is the segment of modern corporations where men have completely lost out. This job requires the one is qualified in marketing, sales and communication. Some knowledge of statistics and the media is also useful. Public Relations Professionals Are women better spin doctors than men? It all depends on the type of client and nature of the job at hand. (AWF Features, 2004) Generally, women have held their forte in corporate PR but have yet to break into the minefield that is political spin. PR is about nurturing and managing public understanding and expectation of a company, an agency or an individual and women have proved to be good at it. The job has increasingly required a proper understanding of the business and legal landscapes making business and law qualifications critical to succeeding in it (AWF Features, 2004).

Coleman M (2002) further indicates that Lawyer/Company Secretary Another ideal career opportunity for women is becoming a lawyer. But the earning potential also depends on the level of skill and

the quality of clients. Qualification in areas such as criminal and commercial law, legal research and labour law is necessary. IT Professionals There are some women who prefer IT jobs over any other type of careers. There are many careers in the information technology industry such as computer and software programmers and systems analysts. One may have to possess related education or certifications in the field to succeed. (Coleman, M. 2002) Market Research The primary job of a market research analyst is to research on the various aspects on the seller and consumer market and derive some understandings that will be beneficial for the employer. This profession, which has only taken root in Kenya in the past 10 years, has proved to be in the past 10 years, has proved to be very attractive to women. One just has to visit Synovate, Consumer In Insight, Nielsen and Info track offices to confirm this. Hospitality and Leisure Women have also come to dominate the hospitality industry. This being another service industry that greatly involves managing people's expectations and relationships, women has beaten men at it hands down. This is a job many women have confessed offers them a chance to meet and network with people from all corners of the globe. Corporate Social Responsibility (Foundation) Manager have a liking for social service, Most managers of CSR foundations have a degree in social service, marketing or public relations. (Coleman, 2002) This is a job many women have confessed offers them emotional satisfaction even as they reap the financial gains. Financial Planner a woman can also get into financial management as a career. Like managing people in companies, handling and planning company finances is a crucial job that women can carry out easily. Teachers/Educational Administrators It is true that a majority of teachers in schools and colleges are women. Educational jobs are ideal for women; and consist of teachers, trainers, principals, director of student services, etc. The nurturing instinct in women has ensured that most easily fit into this profession (Coleman, 2002).

World corporate Women leaders

The corporate world of today does not have the same gender and ethnic composition as did the world of 1900. One of the most powerful leaders of the current media industry is a black woman (Oprah Winfrey), and highly-talented women, such as Paramount Pictures' Chairman Sherry Lansing, Linda Wachner of Warnaco Assocs. Inc., Heidi Miller of Citigroup Inc., and Meg Whitman of eBay Inc., are leaders in corporate America. However, in an important way women's corporate experience remains unchanged. (Kelly, R. M. A Saint Germanand Horn, J.D 1991). A labor department study of compliance reviews in the late 1980s found the glass ceiling still existed and "at a much lower level than first thought." The study identified the usual structural problems: the importance of

networking, while women and people of colour are outsiders; the absence of “advanced education programs and career-enhancing assignments”; and company leadership’s failure to support equal opportunity. In addition, essentialist notions about female management skills have had surprising longevity. Business wisdom holds that women are superior to male managers in any area where dealing with other people is critical (Landau, 1995).

Lawless Jenifer and Fox Richard (1999) points out that the myth of female supremacy in management began around 1900 among the first women managers, who argued for their place in business by pointing to women’s allegedly more nurturing character. This argument was reinforced in the 1980s and 1990s in the popular, scholarly, and business press. For example, the essentialist strain of modern feminism, best exemplified by Carol Gilligan’s 1982 blockbuster book, *In a Different Voice*, used psychology, anthropology, sociology, and women’s history to argue that women’s “ways of knowing” and acting grow out of their unique female experience. The best-selling *Feminine Leadership or How to Succeed in Business Without Being One of the Boys*, articles in magazines such as *Newsweek’s* and *Working Woman*, and articles in mainstream business journals like the *Harvard Business Review* all advanced the wisdom that men and women had different management styles. By the mid-1990s, the notion of women’s different approach to management had been embraced as a positive good for business. Countering this essentialist notion of managerial skills, studies have shown that “when matched by age, education level, and experience, female and male executives are more alike than different. In fact, executive women are more similar to their male peers than to females in occupations historically dominated by women, such as nursing.” (Merill, 1999).

Morley (2003) An important artifact of the historical position of women as corporate workers, and the evolution of corporate organization as gendered, is that issues that affect all workers often have a sex-specific formulation. For example, despite the similarities in outlook, background, and managerial competence noted earlier, there are systemic differences in women’s and men’s experience. A Canadian study “found that despite lower performance ratings than women, men receive more promotions,” in part because men rely on informal networks, while women go through formal channels a less effective strategy.

Mama Amina (1996) indicate that After two and a half decades of gender activism, gender sensitization, capacity building, lobbying and mobilizing Kenya women to take up various political leadership positions, civic, gender and human rights awareness has remarkably improved, alongside strategies for policy and advocacy interventions. Policy makers have also mastered the gender language and can rhetorically articulate gender

equality principles. (Nzomo, 2003a) Kenya, however, remains greatly challenged with regard to women’s ascendancy into public political leadership positions. Currently, the Kenyan parliament has only about 10 per cent women representation, trailing far behind the global average of 18.8 per cent women representation in parliaments. Some African countries have already attained the critical mass threshold of 33 per cent women’s representation in decision making. Over the past decade, all the countries in the East African region have overtaken Kenya on all measures of gender equality indices. In particular, Rwanda has rapidly recovered from genocide to become the leading country in the region and the world on its gender parity index, currently standing at 56 per cent women parliamentary representation.

Oduol and Kabira (2000) The dismal performance of Kenya in regard to women’s representation in political leadership, despite having pioneered and provided leadership to the post-1990 multi-party women empowerment programmes in the East African region, continues to raise concern both at the level of theory and praxis. Globally, the basic constraints women face as they attempt to participate in politics, though occurring in varying magnitudes in different countries, tend to be broadly similar. It has been argued that Kenya has some unique aspects that continue to keep the numbers of women in politics low, such as lack of an affirmative action law, and the gender insensitive male political culture, which continues to dominate key social and political institutions.

Women in corporate business governance: Historical Background

Clinton (2003) argues that Gender has been a category of organization and experience from the beginning of incorporation as a business form in the nineteenth century, and women are integral to the history of corporate enterprise and organizational evolution. Women were among the earliest corporate employees, managers, and customers, as well as some of the earliest entrepreneurs. However, assumptions about womanhood commonly held by many women and men have circumscribed women’s business experience. An assertion of women’s difference from men, and arguments about whether women were better than or not as good as men, have fueled debates over corporate workplaces and theories of how corporations make money. (Fox, Greer Litton, 1997) Similarly, a U.S. Department of Labor study suggested that “men are assumed capable of a higher level assignment unless they have performed poorly in their current position. Women are not automatically presumed capable; their past track record is scrutinized to determine whether or not they can handle a promotion.” Some women may allow the glass ceiling to discourage them from even

trying. Most CEOs believe that women have the aggressiveness needed to be top managers. A fair number, however, believe that strains associated with balancing personal lives and family obligations make promotion more difficult for women. This comes from the belief that women have primary responsibility for maintaining family relationships, a belief to which many women and men adhere.

Dola (2001) In both developed and developing nations around the world, women workers have increasingly called on unions, businesses, and governments to address issues of gender inequity and particularly sexual harassment, as well as created their own women's organizations to publicize the failures of the international human rights movement to address women's workplace issues. In addition, groups like the Korean Women Workers Association and the Committee for Asian Women have exposed the use of rape, sexual assault, and sexual harassment by government police called in to break up employee meetings. Workers in China have used human rights awards for production standards in Reebok factories to publicize the failure of those standards to protect women from sexual intimidation. In Indonesia, women form women's unions to demand equal rights in the workplace in spite of managers who tape workers mouths shut and threaten them with rape or worse (Blackmore, J.1999).

Women Economic Approaches to Governance

A variety of economic approaches to the phenomenon of women in the workplace appear in economics literature. Association of Media Women of Kenya (2006) for example, has done path-breaking work in analyzing the family as an economic unit of production, needing to make decisions about the allocation of time and resources for maximum well-being of the unit. Without denying the value of sociological, biological, and psychological understandings of gender behavior, classical microeconomic analysis contributes to knowledge by making it possible to employ a human capital model of human capital investments, time investments, and value-maximizing strategies in a manner analogous to other capital investments. This approach provides a structured way of thinking about the myriad decisions faced by members of different women as economic actors. (Kearney, 2000) There appears to be little extension of this work directed specifically at the phenomenon of women who are among the world's economic and business elite that is, among the highest earning women in business. On the other hand, promising new work in experimental economics addresses the relationship of women and competitive behavior as a factor in women's achievement and differential performance in organizations. Both strands of economic research appear ripe for development.

At a macroeconomic level, a substantial body of work relating to political and economic globalization of women participation in the work force and the relationships between economic development and gender equity in the workforce, and relationships between gender equity and firm performance contributes to an understanding of women business elites (Nzomo M, 2003a).

The Role of Women in Mentoring Women

Okumu (2012) observes that as of 2002, women accounted for only sixteen percent of corporate officers at Fortune 500 companies. Lack of women mentors may have contributed to the relatively weak representation of women at the top of the corporate hierarchy. In 2001, Association of Media Women (2006) found that the greater the number of mentors female managers and executives had, the greater the number of promotions they received. More than seventy percent of those with multiple women mentors were promoted compared to fifty percent of those without them, when women of colour were asked about career barriers, the number one barrier reported was that they did not have an influential woman mentor or sponsor. Women are also having difficulty finding a woman mentor with whom they can develop the rapport necessary to take the mentoring relationship beyond that of teacher to the realm of advocate and career launcher. (Association of Media Women, 2006) women are not mentoring women in significant numbers, perhaps because senior women are too busy or too stressed to find time to mentor. A recent survey showed that sixty-two percent of the women who responded reported having a formal or informal mentor. However, sixty-four percent of the women reported "that their most important mentors have been male."Only thirty-six percent of these women reported that women had been the most influential in their careers (Okumu, 2012).

The women paradigm shift

Onsongo, (2005) indicates that the Developing countries are starting to reform cultural barriers to women equality that limits their growth prospects. Morocco, Algeria, Egypt and some states of India are some examples of countries that are trying to reform institutional frameworks that limit women's participation in the labour force and their education and training. (Obbo, 1980) They are thus enhancing their growth prospects. They are clearly right to do so, but what obstacles do they face within the overall institutional setting, social institutions and cultural practices such as laws, norms, traditions and codes of conduct are often the main sources of persisting discrimination against women in developing countries. (Njoya, 2008) Examples include polygamy, unequal inheritance rights, obstacles to free movement and early,

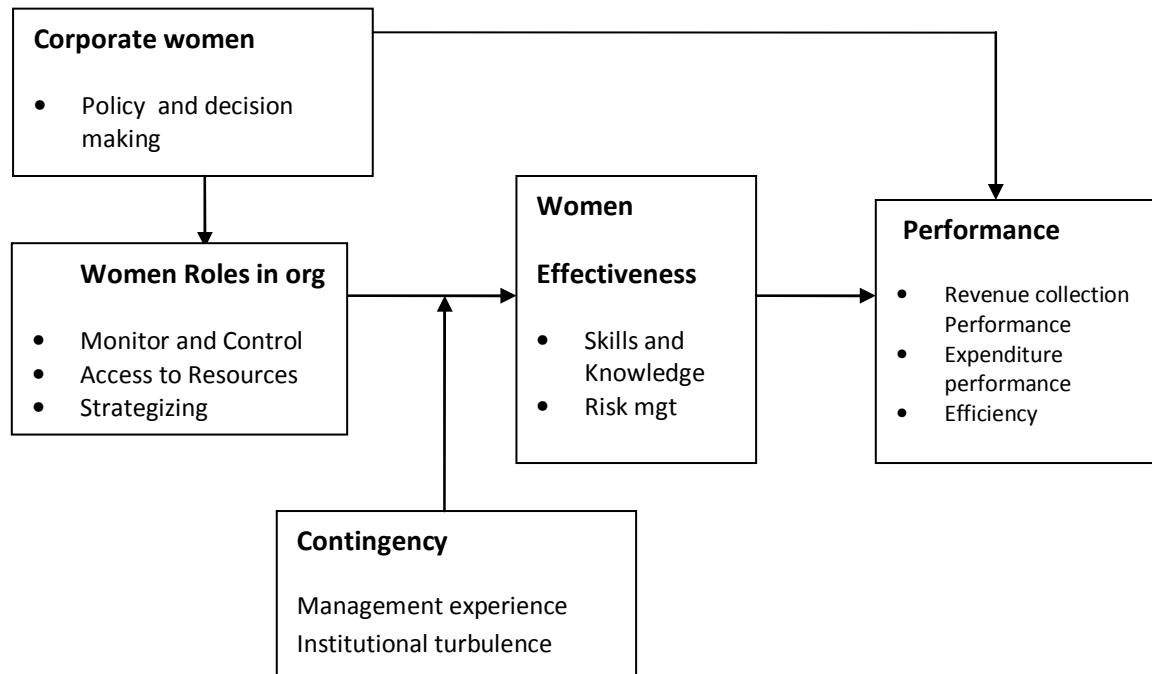


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework Source: A modification of the model by Blackmore (1999)

family-imposed marriages of teenagers. Traditions still largely determine people's behaviour; standard policies to promote gender equality building more schools, giving micro-credit to women and so on are important but not sufficient. (Kirago J, 2006) Building schools where custom or tradition forbids girls to leave the house alone after puberty will not make much difference. Giving micro-credit to women in rural villages where they are denied access to land, technology and information will not deliver the desired effect finding options to address unfavourable institutional frameworks presents a tremendous challenge. The intervention in social institutions is particularly difficult, because they are highly sensitive and action could easily be viewed as "cultural imperialism". Promoting change in social institutions is not a step against cultural liberty but allows women to make their own decisions. Promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women is not a "western" view imposed on developing countries. All 191 member states of the UN unanimously adopted it in the United Nations Development Declaration -Millennium Development Goal Three (Kirago, J.2006).

The important role women play in the economic, social and political development of the country is great and the need for women to be accorded high priority as partner in the development process, the areas of focus for community development in relation to social welfare. These include poverty alleviation programmes, eradication of adult literacy in the community, and the development and adoption of a common approach towards the disadvantaged and marginalized groups

(Figure 1).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This was an explanatory study where the research sought to establish The role of women in corporate governance on organizational performance, a Kenyan case The study was conducted using a survey questionnaire which was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical methods. The study used a mono-method technique to collect and analyze the data.

Instrument and Procedures

This study used primary data that was collected from the respondents. Data was collected through the use of detailed questionnaires issued to respondents. The questionnaire had open ended questions where the respondents filled out short descriptive or explanatory responses. The questionnaire also had some questions that required them to pick out a choice from given selection or fill in a response if none of the responses suited them. The results were numbered as the surveys were sent out and then grouped into two groups where one was the odd numbered surveys and the other even. From the two groups, the results were evaluated for internal consistency. Due to time constraints while undertaking the study it was difficult to repeat the surveys to determine repeatability of the study, however, some of

Table 1. Showing women in corporate governance

	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	106	71
No	44	29
Total	150	100

Table 2. Showing women leadership character

Characteristics	Mean	Standard deviation
Women character	4.5000	.96225
Capacity to lead	4.9643	.18898
Skillsand Knowledge	3.7857	.78680
Efficiency and effectiveness	3.8929	1.06595
Monitoring and control	3.685	.7868

Source; Researcher, 2012

the questions in the survey were repeated with slight changes in wording to evaluate the repeatability of the survey. An expert opinion was sought to verify the validity of the content.

Data Analysis

Data was captured and analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17. Regression analysis was used to determine the relationship between The role of women in corporate governance and development of Organizations. The Simple linear regression model was used to determine the nature of the relationship between women performance in corporate organization. The least squares method was used to find the estimated regression equation of best fit. Further analysis was conducted on the data where the coefficient of determination was calculated to check how well the equation fit the data used. In addition, the correlation coefficient was also computed to find the strength of the linear association between the variables. The t-test was used to test for significance where the P value approach was used. The regression equation used was derived from the equation of a straight line as follows; $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + e_i$ Where; Y was the performance in terms of efficiency and effective. x_i was the women in management experience. β_0 was the Y intercept β_1 was the gradient of the line fitted to the data determined by the formula $\beta_1 = \frac{h}{l}$ e_i represented the difference between the performance predicted by the line for subject i and the score that subject i actually obtained.

RESULTS OF RESEARCH

The research results show that 71% of the organization

had women in management while 29 percent did not have women in management positions.

The characteristics of women chosen in corporate management

The study went further to establish the various characteristics considered when evaluated for leadership in the organization. Data in this section was analyzed using a likert scale where 1=Least important, 2 = less important, 3= moderately important, 4= More important and 5 = Most important. Data was presented in mean and standard deviation. Results presented in table 1 show that the most important characteristics considered when evaluating the women in leadership, capacity to lead was shown by a high mean of 4.96 followed by women character shown by a mean of 4.50, efficient and effective leadership was shown by a mean of 3.89 and skills and knowledge shown by a mean of 3.78. The least cited characteristics was monitoring and control of management shown by a low mean of 3.68 (Table 2).

The positions the women hold in the organization

The study went further to establish the various positions the women hold in the organization. Data in this section was analyzed using a likert scale where 1= board of directors, 2 = chief executives, 3= general managers, 4= Managers and 5 = secretaries and support staff. Data was presented after calculating the mean and standard deviation. Results presented in table 3 shows that most women were secretaries as was shown by a high mean of 4.39 followed by general managers shown by a mean of 4.25 and managers shown by a mean of 3.8. The least were board of directors as was shown by a low mean of

Table 3. The positions the women hold in the organization

	Mean	Standard deviation
Board of directors	2.3214	1.56474
Senior management	2.9643	1.79469
General Managers	4.2500	1.26564
Managers	3.8571	1.35303
Secretaries	4.3929	1.19689
Support staff	3.1071	1.34272

Source; Researcher, 2012

Table 4. the model summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R square	Std Error of Estimate
1	.985a	.970	.969	2.24186

Table 5. Regressions analysis test done using performance of women in corporate organization as dependent variable.

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standard Coefficient		T	Significance
	B	Std error	Beta	T		
(constant)	1,570	.218		7.209		0.000
Women in corporate leadership	0.24141	.045	-.323	-1.602		.123

a Dependent Variable: performance of women in corporate organization

Table 6. Regressions analysis test done using Role of women in corporate organization as independent variable.

Unstandardised coefficients	Standardized coefficients		T	Significance	
	B	Std error		Beta	
Constant	2.539273	0.50667		0.87688	
Efficiency and effectiveness	0.229552	0.76767		0.25914	3.22432
Skill and knowledge	-0.0702	0.06594		-0.0818	-1.0651
Monitoring and control	0.082219	0.05495		0.11989	1.49627

2.32 (Table 4 and table 5).

The number of women in leadership is explained by only 19.4% as represented by the R². This therefore means the women in leadership only contribute about 19.4% to the general leadership while other factors not studied in this research contributes 80.6% of women in leadership.

Regression analysis was used to determine the relationship between women in corporate governance and organization performance.

Results from table 6 shows that there is a relationship between women participation in corporate governance and their organizational performance in Kenya. The researcher conducted a multiple linear regression analysis so as to determine the relationship between women involvement in corporate governance and the organizational performance.

The regression equation ($Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 +$

$\beta_3X_3 + \epsilon$) was: $Y = 2.539273 + 0.229552X_1 - 0.07023X_2 + 0.082219X_3 + \epsilon$ Whereby Y = Access to leadership and capacity to lead X₁ = efficiency and effectiveness X₂ = skills and knowledge X₃ = monitoring and control.

According to the regression equation established, taking all constant at zero, access will be 2.539273, leadership and capacity to lead. The data findings analyzed also shows that taking all other independent variables at zero, a unit increase in efficiency and effectiveness will lead to a 0.229552 increase in skills and knowledge a unit increase and monitoring and control will lead to a 0.082219.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion women's working conditions in the export sector are often far better than those in agriculture or in

domestically oriented production. Multinational enterprises generally follow corporate governance rules that do not discriminate against female employees and permit women to assume higher positions and to manage men. The Kenyan government has legislated rules governing the appointment of women to the government and other private institution where it insists that the 1/3 of any appointees must be women either in the national or local bodies. This is a sign of a renewed commitment to have more women in corporate positions (Kamau, N. 2002) indicates that such quotas would be recognition of the historical injustices that women faced, and had made it more difficult for them to compete equally with men. This kind of affirmative action would help more women to get into corporate leadership, therefore allowing for the critical mass needed to have more women friendly laws and provide young women and girls with a large pool of role models and mentors.

RECOMMENDATION

A study should be conducted looking into how the 'good girl' concept can be transformed into a strategy for effecting or sustaining women's corporate governance, aspirations may be useful in helping understand ways in which women can increase their participation in corporate Governance. This may be worthwhile given the trend established, which indicates that women who go against the expected norms and behaviour associated with the 'good girl' may be viewed as threatening to the patriarchal state.

There is need to create a database of competent women where governments and companies can refer to when making appointments to the boards.

REFERENCES

- Amadiume I (2000). *Daughters of the Goddess, Daughters of Imperialism: African Women Struggle for Culture, Power and Democracy*, London: Zed Books.
- Anyang' Nyong'o P (1989). 'State and Society in Kenya: The Disintegration of the Nationalist Coalition and the Rise of Presidential Authoritarianism, 1963-78', *African Affairs*, 88:351.
- Association of Media Women of Kenya (2006). *Media Reporting with Gender in Mind: A Media Toolkit for Women and Gender Based Organizations*. Nairobi, AMWIK.
- AWC Features (2004). *A Journey of Courage: Kenyan Women's Experiences of the 2002 General Elections*. Nairobi: AWC Features.
- Blackmore J (1999) *Troubling Women: Feminism, Leadership and Educational Change*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Chege F, Namusonge SD (2006). *Girls' and Women's Education in Kenya: Gender Perspectives and Trends*, Nairobi: UNESCO.
- Ciulla J (2006). *Ethics: The Heart of Leadership*, London: Routledge
- Clinton-Rodham H (2003) *Living History*, London: Headline.
- Coate K (1999). 'Feminist Knowledge and the Ivory Tower: A Case Study', *Gender and Education*, 11(2):141-159.
- Coleman M (2002). *Women as Head Teachers: Striking a Balance*, Stoke on Trent: Trentham Books.
- Dodson D (2005). 'Making a Difference: Behind the Scenes', in S. Thomas and C. Wilcox, *Women and Elective Politics*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dolan J (2001). 'Political Appointees in the United States: Does Gender Make a Difference?' *Political Science and Politics*, 34(2).
- Fox GL (1977). 'Nice Girl: Social Control of Women through a Value Construct', *Signs*, 2(2):805-817.
- Geisler G (1995). 'Troubled Sisterhood: Women and Politics in Southern Africa: Case Studies from Zambia, Zimbabwe and Botswana', *African Affairs* 94(377).
- Hansen K (1992). *African Encounters with Domesticity*, New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.
- House-Midamba B (1990). *Class Development and Gender Inequality in Kenya, 1963-1990*, New York: The Edwin Mellen Press.
- Kamau N (2001). 'The Status of Women and Management in Kenyan Universities: A Study of One Private University', *Educational Foundations and Policy Studies*, London: University of London.
- Kamau N (2002). 'The Status of Women in Higher Education Management: A Study of One Private University in Kenya', *Eastern Afr. J. Humanities and Sci.* No. 2 pg.1-7
- Kamau N (2003). 'Do Women Bring a Different Perspective into Political Leadership?' In M. Nzomo, *Perspectives on Gender Discourse: Women in Politics, Challenges of Democratic Transition in Kenya*, Nairobi: Heinrich Böll Foundation.
- Kamau N (2008). 'A Gender Blind Budget', *Journal of the Institute of Certified Public Secretaries of Kenya*.
- Kanake L (1995). *Gender Disparities among Academic Staff in Kenyan Public Universities*, Nairobi: Education Research Series.
- Kanogo T (2005). *African Womanhood in Colonial Kenya: 1900-50*, Nairobi: East African Educational Publishers.
- Kearney ML (2000). *Overview: From Rhetoric to Reality. Women, Power and the Academy*, Paris: UNESCO.
- Kee SMJ (2005). *Women, Gender and Media*, APC Women's Networking Support Programme.
- Kelly RM Saint-German MA, Horn JD (1991). 'Female Public Officials: A Different Voice?' *American Feminism: New Issues for a Mature Movement* 515.
- Kihoro W (2007). *Politics and Parliamentarians in Kenya 1944-2007*, Nairobi: Centre for Multiparty Democracy, Kenya.
- Kiragu J (2006). 'Is there a Women's Movement?', in J. Muteshi, *Mapping Best Practices: Promoting Gender Equality and the Advancement of Kenyan Women*, Heinrich Böll Foundation, East and Horn of Africa Region.
- Landau J (1995). 'The Relationship of Race and Gender to Managers' Ratings of Promotion Potential', *J. Org. Behavior*, 16 pg.4-10.
- Lawless J, Fox R (1999). 'Women Candidates in Kenya: Political Socialization and Representation', *Women and Politics*, 20(4).
- Maathai MW (2006). *Unbowed: A Memoir*, London: William Heinemann.
- Maendeleo Ya W (2000). *Maendeleo ya Wanawake Organization*, Nairobi: Taver Network Solutions, 2005.
- Mama A (1996). *Women's Studies and Studies of Women in Africa During the 1990s*, Dakar: CODESRIA Working Paper Series 5/95.
- Merrill B (1999). *Gender, Change and Identity: Mature Women Students in Universities*, Aldershot: Ashgate.
- Morley L (1999). *Organizing Feminisms: The Micro Politics of the Academy*, Hound mills: Macmillan Press.
- Neuman W (1998). *True to Ourselves: A Celebration of Women Making a Difference*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Njoya T (2008). *The Crisis of Explosive Masculinity*, Nairobi: Men for the Equality of Men and Women (MEW).
- Nzomo M (2003a). 'The 2002 General Elections in Kenya: Women's Performance and Prospects in Parliamentary Politics', *J. Soc. Relig. Conc.* 18(1-2).
- Obbo C (1980). *African Women: Their Struggle for Economic Independence*, London: Zedd Press.
- Oduol W, Kabira WM (2000). *The Mother of Warriors and Her Daughters: The Women's Movement in Kenya*, in B. G. Smith, *Global Feminisms Since 1945*, London: Routledge.
- Okumu D (2008). '(Re)Configuring Gender-Based Violence as 'Political Rape'', in N. Kamau
- Omtatah OO (2008). *The Affirmative Action Debate: Developing Winning Strategies*, in N. Kamau, *Perspectives on Gender Discourse: Enhancing Women's Political Participation*, Nairobi: Heinrich

Böll Foundation.
Onsongo JK (2005). 'Outsiders Within': Women's Participation in

University Management in Kenya, London: University College
London.