Moderating Effect of Leaders’ Gender on the Relationship between Leadership Practices and Perceived Levels of Corruption in the Procurement Department in the Judiciary of Kenya

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Abstract - The aim of this study was to examine the moderating role of the gender of the procurement committee leader on the relationship between leadership practices and perceived levels of corruption in the procurement department in the Judiciary of Kenya. The research utilized the convergent parallel triangulation design and focused on key informants from six oversight bodies and 278 heads of procurement stations. Using the stratified proportionate random selection technique, 164 heads of procuring stations and 12 key informants were chosen as a sample for this research. Quantitative data was collected from the heads of procurement committees using questionnaires while qualitative data was collected by interviewing 12 key informants that were purposively selected from the six oversight organizations. The study found that the gender of procurement committee heads did not have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between leadership and levels of corruption in the judiciary procurement department. Based on the findings, the study concludes that gender does not significantly determine the way leadership practices impact corruption levels. The study thus recommends that policies aimed at reducing corruption in government procurements should pay attention to other factors that may have a more substantial impact on corruption levels than gender.

Keywords: Moderating, leaders, gender, leadership, practices, corruption, government, procurement

I. INTRODUCTION

Corruption is an issue of concern in both developed and developing countries because of adverse effect on economic outcomes such as economic growth, investment, and per capita income (Jha & Sarangi, 2014). Nyongesa (2019) opines that there are many forms of corruption, public procurement is one of the major points in which corruption thrives. Mariz et al. (2014) observed that public procurement accounts for 50% of government expenditure in Sub-Saharan African countries and 15% of these countries GDP. According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2016), public procurement is most vulnerable to corruption due to the volume of transactions and financial interest at stake. Over 50% of foreign bribery cases involving multinationals from OECD countries involve bribery to obtain public procurement contracts.

There is a widespread perception of corruption in Kenyan government institutions since independence. According to Osamba (2019), corruption was referred to as “ten percent” because government officials demanded kickbacks that were equivalent to 10% of the value of the contract from successful bidders. Corruption in the country heightened in the 1990s as evidenced by mega corruption scandals such as the Goldenberg that led to loss of billions of shillings in fictitious business deals. Since 2003, Kenya’s score on Transparency International’s Corruption Perception Index (CPI) has never exceeded 35/100 where 100 indicating lowest levels of corruption (AfriMAP, 2015). This implies that majority of the Kenyan citizenry perceive their government to be corrupt. The 31/100 score that Kenya received in the year 2020 was the highest in the in the past 25 years (Transparency International, 2021). Despite being the best score in 25 years, it still fell below the average for Sub-Saharan Africa region that stood at 32/100 and far below the global average score of 43/100. The lowest score that the country recorded within the same period was 19/100 in the years 2002 and 2003.
Mutangili (2019) found that tendering fraud in public institutions is the fastest growing economic crime. One third of all businesses that supply goods or services to government entities reported experiencing fraud in procurement. Vender selection is the stage of the public procurement process where corruption is most likely to occur. Most cases of procurement fraud are linked to politicians and senior government officials. David-Barrett and Fazeek (2020) opine that some politicians influence public institutions’ procurement procedures in order to direct personal benefits toward themselves or their acquaintances. They also influence procurement processes to allocate state resources in a manner that buys them loyalty that assist them to consolidate power. Omar (2020) observed that corruption in Kenya has adversely affected the growth of the service sector including education, transport, water supply, electricity and health.

Corruption is a major impediment to development. In their study Akkoynlulu and Ramella (2020), documented that countries with high levels of corruption do not prosper to the same extent as countries with low levels of corruption. Specifically, their research showed that corruption negatively influenced productivity, income per capita, and innovation in a country. The authors explained that corruption hampers development by disrupting the natural laws of the economy. In their study that involved examining data from 175 countries for a seven-year period (2012-2018, Grundler and Potrafke (2019)) also observed that corruption lowered the GDP per capital of a country by 17%. In particular, the study found that when a country reverse CPI index increases by one standard deviation, the GDP per capital reduces by 17%. In their study focusing on data from 52 countries for 1996 to 2003 period, Barassi and Zhou (2012) also observed that corruption reduces the chances of foreign direct investment taking place in a country by about 3%. Corruption deters foreign direct investment by creating hurdles that make it expensive for investors to set-up operations in a given country. For instance, corruption may make it necessary for an investor to pay a bribe to obtain permits and licences for setting up his operations.

The political leadership in Africa has for a long time fostered a desire for power abuse (Fagbadebo&Dorosamy, 2021). There are entrenched vested interests among the political elite that have encouraged corrupt practices and abuse of power as the tools of governance. These stakes have also diminished requisite statutory institutional oversight structures rendering ineffective. The crisis of governance created by the mismanagement of public resources by political leadership has propagated poverty across most African societies while the political elite live in opulence (Fagbadebo, 2019). Despite the continent having vast natural resources, leaders have been unable to transform this wealth into a decent standard of living for the citizens. Citizens in most parts of the continent are suffering from poverty, high unemployment, security challenges, heightened criminal activities, and infrastructural decay. This crisis is likely to persist because citizens continue to support unethical practices by political leaders. Khan (2006) opines that African countries ought to learn the right lessons from international experience and pick out reform agendas that are feasible to their own circumstances. It is also paramount for African nations to monitor their progress in terms of instituting good leadership and governance, identify gaps and endeavour to reduce them. This why research on leadership and its nexus with corruption is timely within the African continent.

In Kenya, the role of leadership in combating corruption in recognized by Chapter Six of Constitution of Kenya (CoK) 2010, which enshrines values that leaders who hold public office ought to exhibit (Republic of Kenya, 2010). The Leadership and Integrity Act of 2015 operationalizes Chapter Six of the CoK 2010 by prescribing procedures and mechanism for entrenching good leadership in public service (Okiri et al., 2019). The Act requires all public officers to uphold the values of independence and objectivity and not to propagate nepotism, favouritism, cronyism, tribalism, and religious bias. The act also bars public officers from engaging in unethical and corrupt practices, violating fundamental freedom and right of any person. In addition, the act requires all public officers to fulfil their duties in the most honest, efficient, professional, accountable, and transparent manner.

On the other hand, studies suggest the existence of an association between gender and corruption; with women exhibiting fewer corrupt practices as compared to men (Dollar, Fisman, &Gatti, 2001; Kubbe, Alexander &Wangnerud, 2012). The CoK 2010 also calls for inclusion of women within Kenyan government. The constitution entrenches the two third gender rule, which stipulates that no gender should hold more than two-thirds of positions in government. Further under clause (6), the CoK 2010 gives full effect to the realization of the rights guaranteed under this Article. It calls upon state to take legislative and other measures, including affirmative action programs and policies designed to redress any disadvantage suffered by individuals or groups because of past discrimination. It is not clear how inclusion of women in leadership position affects leadership practices and levels of corruption in Kenya.
There is a growing body of literature that suggests that the existence of a relationship between leadership and corruption is subject to the gender of the leader. Bauhr, Charron, and Wangnerud (2019) found that increased representation of women in elective position in 182 European regional governments was positively associated with decline in the levels of both petty and grand corruption. Similarly, Esarey and Schwindt-Bayer (2019) observed that high representation of women in government leads to lower levels of corruption while low levels of corruption also increase the level of women representation in government. The two studies suggest that the gender of leaders has differential effect on how leadership affects levels of corruption in government. These studies however focused on the gender of leaders holding elective positions. It is not clear whether the same effect can be observed among leaders holding appointive positions within government institutions.

The CoK 2010 in article 27 asserts the equality every person before the law and directs that every person be treated equally by the law (Republic of Kenya, 2010). In the same article clause (3), the constitution expressly gives women the right to equal treatment, including the right to receive equal opportunities Further, under clause (6), the CoK 2010 gives full effect to the realization of the rights guaranteed under this Article. It calls upon the state to take legislative and other measures, including affirmative action programs and policies designed to redress any disadvantage suffered by individuals or groups because of past discrimination. A study that examines how greater inclusion of women in appointive positions has affected the quality of leadership and consequently levels of corruption in government is timely.

The study by Jha and Sarangi (2014) examined whether there is a causal link between gender and corruption using longitudinal data from 134 countries from different parts of the world. The specific objectives of the study were to examine the effect of proportion of women in the general labour force, proportion of women in government clerical positions, proportion of women in bureaucratic position, and proportion of women in legislative position on levels of corruption in government. Results showed that proportion of women in the general labour force and proportion of women in legislative position was statistically and negatively associated with levels of corruption in government. The other two variables did not have a significant effect on level of corruption in government. The researchers noted that while the study has established a relationship between gender and corruption in government, it does provide an exhaustive explanation as how women participation in labour force affects the level of corruption in government. They recommended that future studies should explore the channels through which increased women representation reduces corruption.

In another study, Bauhr, Charron, and Wangnerud (2019) assessed how women representation in elective positions influences both petty and grand corruption. They utilized a descriptive survey design to collect data from citizens of 182 European regional governments. The study found that increased representation of women in elective position was positively associated with decline in the levels of both petty and grand corruption. The authors however acknowledged that although the study has distinguished how female representation in elective positions affects different forms of corruption, it has not provided insights regarding the temporal dynamics in the relationship between female representation and the various forms of corruption. They recommended that future studies should examine the relationship between the gender representation in elective position and the two forms of corruption using longitudinal data. Similarly, Bauhret al. (2019) noted that the study does not identify specific mechanisms linking representation of women in elective position to reduced petty and grand corruption. They recommended that future studies should explore the specific mechanisms. The researchers also recommended that future studies should also investigate whether there is a relationship between women representation in non-elective government position and the petty as well as grand corruption.

In a different study, Kubbe, Alexander, and Wangnerud (2012) scrutinized the reason behind the gender disparities in corrupt behaviour using an experimental design. In particular, the study examined whether risk aversion and prosocial attitude explained the gender differences in corruption. Results showed that only prosocial attitude provided a sufficient explanation as to why women react different when confronted with a scenario that prompted them to engage in corrupt behaviours. Kubbe et al. (2012) however noted that the study was constrained by the use of a population of students in higher learning institution, which may differ from the general population in terms of education level, age and other variables that also impact corrupt behaviours. They recommended that future studies should focus on replicating the study with amore representative population. The experimental design also limited that external validity of the study as the participants’ behaviours may have been influenced by the knowledge that their behaviours were being observed and studied. The author thus
recommended that the role of risk aversion and prosocial attitude in explaining gender differences in corruption should be studied using non-experimental methods.

In their study, Barnes and Beaulieu (2014) investigated the relationship between presence of female candidates and perception of election fraud using an experimental design. Results showed that voters were less likely to suspect fraud where the candidate involved is female. This suggested that female candidates were perceived as honest and less corrupt. The authors however acknowledged that the experimental design raises questions regarding the applicability of the study results beyond the population of study (external validity). To address this limitation, they recommended that future studies need to assess voter perception towards female candidates using non-experimental designs in order to enhance the generalizability of findings.

On the other hand, Esarey and Chirillo (2013) examined the contexts in which female representation in government translates to reduced corruption. In particular, the study examined whether the gender differences in tolerance to bribery differed across different levels of institutionalized democracy. Findings revealed that gender differences in corruption tolerance were greater in more democratic countries than in autocratic countries suggesting that institutionalized democracy mediates the relationship between gender and corruption. The author noted that their study focused on the broad institutional context. They recommended that future studies should focus on a finer grained picture of the environment. For example, assessing how women join politics could clarify how they behave once entrenched in government. Future studies should also assess how specific aspect of gender representation affects the relationship between women participation in governance and corruption.

Frank et al. (2011) surveyed laboratory experiments that shed light on gender effects when it comes to offering or accepting bribes. Findings revealed that women who attempt to bribe are less likely to fail implying that gender disparities in corruption is as a result of women exclusion on male dominated corrupt network. Findings also showed that women were less willing to accept bribes where risks are higher suggesting that risk aversion also explains the link between gender and corruption. The authors nonetheless recognized that experiments only capture the decisions of female actors in just a few encounters with bribery scenarios. In a real-world setting, female managers and female public officials will encounter countless scenarios that urge them to bribe or receive a bribe. With time, trust between female managers and public officials may grow leading to more successful bribe attempts. It is not clear whether women’s actions will differ significantly from that of men where the women are engaged in repeated exchanges. A non-experimental study is needed to examine this issue.

In addition, Esarey and Schwindt-Bayer (2019) examined the direction of the relationship between women representation and corruption. Results revealed that the relationship between the two variables was bi-directional. High representation of women in government leads to lower levels of corruption while low levels of corruption also increase the level of women representation in government. The authors though admitted that the study does not however demonstrate the causal mechanisms through which gender representation lowers corruption or how corruption lowers women representation. This understanding would play a significant role in shaping future policies. Similarly, this study has largely demonstrated how greater representation of women in the legislature affects levels of corruption. It is not clear whether greater representation of women in other arms of government or government bodies such as the judiciary would have an impact on levels of corruption. They recommended that future studies should fill these gaps.

The study by Benkraiem et al. (2017) examined how gender diversity influences the board supervision of the compensation of chief executive officers (CEOs) in France. Results showed that companies whose boards had higher proportions of female directors had significantly lower CEO compensation. The findings implied that greater inclusion of women into the board enhances the independence of the board in monitoring CEOs’ compensation. Bohren and Staubo (2015) also observed that gender balance was correlated with enhanced independence of boards in a sample of Norwegian firms. Results of the study further showed that gender balance had greater impact on the independence of the boards of new, small, profitable, and non-listed companies. The results support the position that female directors are more independent hence the improvement in the overall independence of boards when their representation in the board increases. However, these studies have largely examined women independence in the context of private profit-oriented sector.

In the non-commercial sector, Agarwal (2014) found that greater involvement of women in forest conservation groups in India and Nepal led to better conservation outcomes. The study examined 135 community forest groups in Nepal and India. Results demonstrated that groups with more women made stricter conservation rules.
despite pressure from community members to make lenient rules. These findings imply that the inclusion of more women reduced the groups tendency to give-in to pressure from the community members, which is in line with the principle of independence.

The study by Abad et al. (2017) found that the presence of women in company’s boards was associated with increased disclosure of company information to members of the public in sample of firms listed in the Spanish Stock Exchange. The author explained that when compared to males, women tend to exhibit greater interpersonal skills, trustworthiness, process-orientation, and participative communication that improve decision-making processes leading to greater disclosure of information. Pucheta-Martinez et al. (2016) further noted that a greater proportion of women in company’s boards creates a rich information environment that reduces the benefits of producing private information leading to a reduction in information asymmetry. In addition, Gul et al. (2011) argue that greater risk aversion and conservatism among female directors tend to reduce their probability of engaging in opportunistic behaviour leading to higher quality reporting of financial information to investors and members of the public.

McElhaney and Mobasseri (2012) that sought to examine how the presence of women in companies’ boards shape their sustainability practices also obtained similar findings. The study analysed secondary data belonging to American companies. Results showed that firms that had a higher proportion of women in their boards were more likely to have stronger governance structures and exhibit high level of transparency to avoid major controversies. The firms with greater women representation in their boards were also more likely to have guidelines, programmes, and clear policies that support disclosure and transparency. These findings support the position that women leadership is more likely to be characterized by greater transparency mainly because women are less risk averse. However, reviewed studies have largely focused on the commercial sector.

The study by Esarey and Schwindt-Bayer (2017) found that women in government were more likely to be accountable than their male counterparts in societies where corruption is punished. In particular, results showed that female legislatures were more likely to be accountable in countries with greater press freedom, strong systems of governance, strong electoral rules, and where corruption is not a norm. One of the mechanisms that explain greater accountability in women is their risk-aversion tendencies that make them avoid unethical behaviours where such behaviour is punished. The authors also noted that higher accountability could be explained by the tendency of voters holding female office bearers to a higher standard than males during polls. The authors observed a general tendency by voters to expect more from female leaders when it comes to ethical conduct. However, this study focuses on female representation in elective position where voters can punish corrupt behaviour. It is not clear whether women would exhibit the same level of accountability when holding non-elective positions where voters cannot punish them. The current study sought to address this gap.

Hussein and Musemb (2010) also observed that inclusion of women in the decision-making and accountability mechanism of community-level programmes was associated with greater effectiveness and efficiency in assisting rural families in India. The study adds weight to the argument that women have the tendency to be more accountable than males when placed in positions of authority. The author explained that in most society, power structures and corruption networks in the public sector are male dominated. Greater inclusion of women in public service helps to break these networks, enhance transparency and accountability. Kakabadse et al. (2015) also found that women chairing companies’ boards were more likely to comply with logic of the field and established requirements as a route for gaining legitimacy and credibility. This includes compliance to accountability requirements of the organization.

Clabots (2013) also made similar observation in a study that examined the effect of women inclusion in the management of community-based Marine Protected Areas (CB-MPAs). Results showed that women involved in the CB-MPAs management improved project accountability by enhancing enforcement of MPA policies. The study also documented that women involvement in CB-MPAs management reduced local conflicts, enhanced the effectiveness of patrolling, and led to better policy compliance. Agarwal (2014) also found that women who were involved in forest conservation groups in India and Nepal were more likely to comply with the conservation rules formulated by the groups and participate more in patrolling than their male counterpart. The findings imply that women are more likely to be accountable to rules formulated by the groups and fulfil their supervision roles. While these studies reinforce the view that women are likely to be more accountable than men are, they do not statistically test the link between women involvement in management and corruption. This study sought to address this gap.
The study by Jackson (2020) established that the gender difference in corrupt behaviour can be explained by difference in risk aversion and social mindedness between males and female. In a society where women display higher levels of risk aversion and social mindedness than men, women in leadership exhibited lower tendencies to engage in corrupt practices. Results also showed that in most of the studied societies, women had higher levels of risk aversion and social mindedness than men. Jackson (2020) defined social mindedness as the predisposition to consider the collective good when making decisions. Results of the study thus suggest that women are more predisposed to consider collective good when making decisions than men and therefore, are more likely to be fairer than men.

Atari et al. (2020), who examined gender differences in moral judgment using a sample of 336,691 individuals from 67 countries, made similar findings. Results showed that on average, women recorded higher scores than men on fairness, care, and purity. Women exhibited higher concern for fairness, care, and purity than men. The gender difference on these issues was more pronounced in countries with individualistic culture and low socioeconomic gap between men and women. These findings support the position that women are the fairer sex and their inclusion in public sector leadership is likely to promote fairness, which is an important governance principle. The current study sought to explore this assumption.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study employed the convergent parallel triangulation mixed method research design. It is founded on the pragmatism research philosophy that focuses on solving problems (Johnson et al., 2017). It emphasizes practicality and the importance of context in understanding and solving problems. Triangulation in research refers to the use of multiple methods, perspectives, or sources of data to confirm the findings from a research study. The term is derived from the idea of a surveyor using multiple measuring instruments to triangulate the exact location of a point (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Similarly, in research, triangulation involves using multiple approaches to provide a more complete and accurate understanding of the research question. Qualitative and quantitative data are gathered separately although during the same phase of data collection with integration being done at the analysis and interpretation stage.

To collect quantitative data, the study targeted 278 heads of procurement from the 278 court stations in the Kenyan judiciary (Judiciary of Kenya, 2023). The procurement process of the department of the Judiciary of Kenya has a decentralized structure where each court station has a procurement committee that procures goods and services that it needs. Procurement committees are responsible for procuring goods and services needed by a given court station. Each court station has its committee that comprises of a chair and its members. The study targeted the chair/head of the committee because it presumed that the heads were best placed to articulate their leadership practices. The heads of the committees are also best placed to provide information regarding corruption in procurement activities. The study adopted the stratified sampling method where a sample of 164 heads of procurement committee was selected. Quantitative data was collected using a questionnaire.

Qualitative data was used to triangulate and cross-validate the information collected through questionnaires. Qualitative data was collected from key informants using a structured interview guide. Twelve key informants were selected from six oversight organizations; two informants per organization. These oversight organizations were: EACC, the Judiciary Ombudsman, Office of Public Prosecutor, Auditor General’s office, Transparency International and Open Society Foundation. Interviewees were selected purposively. The selection criterion included the availability of the person during the period of study, willingness to participate, and the experience of the person on matters of corruption and governance in the judiciary.

IV. RESULTS

Out of the 164 questionnaires that were distributed, 153 were completed accordingly and returned to the researcher translating to a response rate of 93.3%. Twelve interviewees were also conducted. The objective of the study was to examine the moderating role of leaders’ gender in the relationship between leadership practices and levels of corruption in the procurement department of the judiciary. The study paid attention to the gender of the procurement committee leader of the sampled stations. Table 1 summarizes this information.
Table 1: Gender of Procurement Committee Leader

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>64.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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Results in Table 1 show that nearly two-thirds (64.7%) of the sampled procuring stations had a male leader while the remaining 35.3% had a female leader. The findings imply that when it comes to leadership appointments in government institutions, the country has met the Constitutional principle that limits the number of positions that can be held by the same gender to two-thirds. These findings are consistent with the Economic Survey conducted in 2018, which showed that women representation in appointive positions stood at 30% at the time (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2020). The findings also imply that the proportion of women holding appointive leadership positions is on the increase.

The multiple linear regression analysis was used to assess the moderating role of gender in the relationship between leadership and corruption. A composite leadership score was obtained by computing the statistical mean of all the Likert items that were used to measure leadership practices. The leadership practices included independence, transparency, accountability, and fairness. A composite perceived corruption score was also computed by obtaining the statistical mean of all Likert items that were used to measure perceived corruption. The composite corruption score was then regressed against leadership score, gender and interaction between gender and leadership. Table 2 presents the results of the analysis.

Table 2: Moderating Effect of Gender on Leadership-Level Corruption Relationship

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>6.614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leadership score</td>
<td>-.872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leaders’ gender</td>
<td>-.299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leadership * Gender</td>
<td>.208</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Levels of corruptions

Adjusted r square 0.729

The moderating effects of the leader’s gender was tested using the t-statistic for the interaction variable (leadership * gender). Results in Table 2 shows that the interaction between gender and leadership does not have a statistically significant effect on level corruption in the procurement department ($\beta=0.208$, $t=0.897$, $p=.371$). These findings imply that the leaders’ gender does not make a notable difference in how leadership affects levels of corruption in government. This is contrary to earlier studies such as Jha and Sarangi (2014), Bauhr et al. (2019), and Kubbe et al. (2012), which found that greater representation of women in leadership reduced the levels of corruption in government. However, all the past studies focused on women representation in elective position such as parliament. Current findings suggest that the effect of gender on leadership and level of corruption may not be substantial in appointive positions.

While previous research suggests that women’s participation in leadership can lead to reduced levels of corruption, there are instances where this may not be effective. One of the instances is when women leadership is treated as tokenism. This is where women leaders are appointed to positions of authority simply to meet a quota or to create a perception of diversity, rather than based on their actual qualifications or abilities (Kubbe et al., 2012). If women leaders are not given the necessary resources or support to carry out their responsibilities effectively, they may not be able to have an impact on reducing corruption in government. Women leaders may
also face negative stereotypes and biases in the media or society, which can undermine their credibility and effectiveness as leaders (Bauhr et al., 2019). This can make it difficult for them to garner support for anti-corruption measures or to implement reforms.

Women leadership may also be less effective where corrupt systems in government are deeply rooted in patriarchal structures that may not change even with the appointment of women in leadership positions (Jha & Sarangi, 2014). Women may face discrimination and bias within these structures, which can limit their power and influence. Lack of support can also be a hindrance to the effectiveness of women leadership in addressing corruption in government. Women leaders may face resistance or lack of support from their male counterparts or other stakeholders, which can make it difficult for them to implement policies or reforms aimed at reducing corruption.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Results showed that 35.3% of the procuring stations have a female leader. This implies that the country has met the two-third gender principle when it comes to appointment of leaders of the procurement committees in the judiciary. However, inferential analysis showed that the leader’s gender does not have a statistically significant moderating effect on the relationship between leadership practices and levels of corruption in the procurement department of the judiciary ($\beta=0.208, t= 0.897, p= .371$). The findings led to the inference that leader’s gender does not have a notable moderating effect on the relationship between leadership practices and levels of corruption in the procurement department of the judiciary. This implies that the leader’s gender does not impact leadership practices and how it impacts on corruption. Findings contradict the argument that when there are more women in leadership positions, they can serve as role models for good governance, and promote values such as transparency, fairness, and accountability. While previous studies suggested that women leadership can lead to reduced corruption, there are factors that can make women leadership less effective including tokenism, patriarchal structures, lack of support, and stereotyping.

The study recommends that the Judiciary should explore other mechanisms for strengthening the effect of leadership on corruption because gender has minimal effect. The current study confined its analysis to procuring stations within the Judiciary procurement department. Since Kenya has three arms of government, it is difficult to tell whether current findings reflect the situation in the legislative and executive arms of government. Future studies should replicate this study in the legislative and executive arms to enhance generalizability of findings. Similarly, since the country has two levels of government, national and county, it is difficult to tell whether these findings reflect the situation in entities run by county governments. Future studies should consider replicating this study in county government entities to enhance the generalization of findings.

VI. REFERENCES


