THE INFLUENCE OF CULTURAL BELIEFS, STEREOTYPES AND SELECTION MERIT ON EXECUTIVE SELECTION OUTCOME IN MULTINATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS IN KENYA

RACHEL M. MONYONCHO

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DECLARATION

I the undersigned hereby declare that this thesis is my original work and has not in part or its entirety been presented to any institution for any academic award.

Signed..... Date 24/11/2014

Rachel Monyoncho

D80/60112/2011

SUPERVISORS

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

Signed..... Date 24/11/2014

Prof. Martin Ogutu, PhD

Department of Business Administration,

School of Business,

University of Nairobi

Signed..... Date 24/11/2014

Prof. Peter K'Obonyo, PhD

Department of Business Administration

School of Business,

University of Nairobi.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to all those who seek to make the society a better place to live and work in. A place where all individuals are measured by the quality of their contribution, strength of character and positive values and not by the colour of their skin, gender or ethnic group. A society where as long as you have what it takes to succeed, you will have an opportunity and space to be the best that God created you to be. Leaders who strive to be liberated from the bondage of negative ethnicity and stereotypes that hold humanity back from God's intended purpose here on earth. I also dedicate this thesis to posterity, especially my two daughters Valerie and Stacey, and my nephews and nieces.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....**Error! Bookmark not defined.**

DEDICATION..... iv

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS v

LIST OF FIGURES xii

LIST OF TABLES xiii

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS xvi

ABSTRACT..... xvii

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.....1

1.1 Background of the study 1

1.1.1 Cultural beliefs.....3

1.1.2 Concept of Stereotypes 7

1.1.3 Merit in Executive Selection Outcome 12

1.1.4 Executive Selection Outcome 15

1.1.5 Multinational Organizations in Kenya.....19

1.2 Research Problem 20

1.3 Research Objectives.....22

1.4 Value of the study 23

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW.....25

2.1 Introduction.....25

2.2 Theoretical Foundation 25

2.3 Cultural beliefs and Executive Selection Outcome 31

2.4 Cultural beliefs and Stereotypes 32

2.4.1 Cultural beliefs and gender stereotypes 32
2.4.2 Cultural beliefs and Ethnic Stereotypes 36
2.5 Stereotypes and Executive Selection Outcome 39
2.5.1 Gender Stereotypes and Executive Selection Outcome 40
2.5.2 Ethnic Stereotypes and Executive Selection Outcome 42
2.6 Stereotypes, Selection Merit and Executive Selection Outcome 43
2.7 Cultural beliefs, Stereotypes, Selection Merit and Executive Selection Outcome 44
2.8 Summary of previous studies and Knowledge gap 46
2.9 Conceptual framework 52
2.10 Conceptual Hypotheses 54

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 55
3.1 Introduction 55
3.2 Research philosophy 55
3.3 Research design 56
3.4 Population of study 57
3.5 Sample design 57
3.6 Data collection 58
3.7 Operationalizing Variables 59
3.8 Test of Validity and Reliability 62
3.9 Test for Normality 63
3.10 Test for Homogeneity 63
3.11 Test for multicollinearity 64
3.12 Data analysis 64

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS.....72

4.1 Introduction.....72

4.2 Response rate 73

4.3 Tests of appropriateness of data.....74

4.3.1 Test for Reliability and Goodness of fit.....74

4.3.2 Test for Multicollinearity.....75

4.3.3 Test for Normality.....79

4.3.4 Test for homogeneity 80

4.4 General information 80

4.4.1 Gender distribution of respondents.....81

4.4.2 Age profile of respondents.....81

4.4.3 Number of employees in the organization.....82

4.4.4 Cultural beliefs.....82

4.4.5 Stereotypes.....86

4.4.6 Selection Merit.....90

4.4.7.Executive Selection Outcome.....94

4.5 Test of relationships 98

4.5.1 Cultural beliefs and Executive Selection Outcome 100

4.5.2 Cultural Beliefs and Stereotypes.....103

4.5.3 Stereotypes and Executive Selection outcome 106

4.5.4 Stereotypes, Merit and Executive Selection Outcome.....108

4.5.5 Cultural Beliefs, Stereotypes and Executive Selection Outcome 119

4.5.6 Cultural Beliefs, Stereotypes, Merit and Executive Selection Outcome.....126

4.6 Discussion of findings.....133

4.6.1. Influence of Cultural Beliefs and Executive Selection Outcome 133

4.6.2 Influence Cultural beliefs and Stereotypes 134

4.6.3 Influence effect of stereotypes on Executive Selection Outcome 135

4.6.4 The moderating effect of Merit on the relationship between Stereotypes and Executive Selection Outcome.....136

4.6.5 The intervening effect of stereotypes on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome.....138

4.6.6 Combined effect of Cultural beliefs, Stereotypes and Merit on Executive Selection outcome.....139

4.7 Empirical conceptual model 141

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....153

5.1 Introduction.....153

5.2 Summary of research findings 153

5.3 Conclusions.....160

5.4 Implications of the study.....163

5.4.1 Implications for Theory 164

5.4.2 Implications on Social Learning Theories 165

5.4.3. Implacations for Learning Theories.....167

5.4.4 Implications for managerial policy and practice.....169

5.4.5 Implications for Merit based Executive Selection 172

5.5 Recommendations from the study 179

5.6 Limitations of the study 181

5.7 Suggestions further research 182

REFERENCES.....184

APPENDICES.....209

Appendix I: Data Collection Questionnaire.....209

Appendix II: Scatter diagrams 222

Appendix III: Statistical Tables 227

Appendix IV: List of Targeted Organizations 246

Appendix V: Introductory Cover Letter 251

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1:1: Fiske's Stereotype Content Model 9

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Model 53

Figure 4.1: Interrelationship among factors influencing executive selection outcome.....143

Figure 4.2: Empirical conceptual model.....144

Figure 5.1: Scatter diagram of cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome 222

Figure 5.2: Scatter diagram of cultural beliefs and stereotypes.....223

Figure 5.3: Scatter diagram of stereotypes and executive selection outcome 224

Figure 5.4 :Scatter diagram of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome.....225

Figure 5.5 :Scatter diagram of cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome.....226

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Summary of Previous Studies and Knowledge gap.....47

Table 3.1: Random numbers of the 96 selected organizations. 58

Table 3.1: Operational Definition of Variables 60

Table 3.3: Summary of hypothesis and analytical models 67

Table 4.1: Summary of Chronbach's Alpha reliability test 74

Table: 4.2: Summary of Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factors.....76

Table 4.3: Results of Correlation test for multicolinearity 77

Table 4.4: Guideline for interpretation of correlation Coefficient.....79

Table 4.5: Summary results of normality test.....79

Table 4.6: Levene's test for homogeneity.....80

Table 4.7: ANOVA test for homogeneity.....80

Table 4.8: Gender of respondents 81

Table 4.9: Distribution of age profile of respondents (in years).....82

Table 4.10: Number of Employees 82

Table 4.11: Cultural beliefs at organizational level 83

Table 4.12: Cultural beliefs at National level 85

Table: 4.13: Gender stereotypes 87

Table 4.14: Ethnic stereotypes.....89

Table: 4.15: Qualifications and experience 91

Table 4.16: Shows responses to questions relating to knowledge and skills.....92

Table 4.17: Behavioural competencies 93

Table 4.18: Fit between candidate attributes and job requirements.....95

Table 4.19: Length of engagement 96

Table 4.20: Executive Performance 98
Table 4.21: Regression of Cultural beliefs and Executive selection outcome.....101
Table 4.22: ANOVA for Cultural beliefs and Executive Selection Outcome 101
Table 4.23: Coefficients of Cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome.....102
Table 4.24: Relationship between cultural beliefs and stereotypes 104
Table 4.25: ANOVA of Cultural beliefs and stereotypes 104
Table 4.26: Coefficients of cultural beliefs and stereotypes.....105
Table 4.27: Relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome.....106
Table 4.28: Stereotypes and executive selection outcome ANOVA 107
Table 4.29: Coefficients of stereotypes and executive selection outcome 107
Table 4.30: Summary of regression results of stepwise regression analysis 111
Table 4.31: Relationship between stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome 113
Table 4.32: ANOVA of Stereotypes, Merit and Executive Selection Outcome.....114
Table 4.33: Coefficients of stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome.....114
Table 4.34: Regression of Stereotypes, Merit, Interaction term (IE) and.....116
Table 4.35: ANOVA of Stereotypes, Merit, Interaction term and Executive Selection Outcome 116
Table 4.36: Coefficients of Stereotypes, Merit, Interaction term and Executive Selection Outcome 117
Table 4.37: Summary of regression results showing the moderating effect of merit 118
Table 4.38: Relationship between Cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome 122

Table 4.39: ANOVA of Cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome.....122
Table 4.40: Coefficients of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome.....123
Table 4.41: Summary of regression results of intervening effect of stereotypes on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome 124
Table 4.42: Regression of Merit and Executive Selection Outcome 128
Table 4.43: ANOVA of Merit and Executive Selection Outcome 128
Table 4.44: Coefficients of Merit and Executive Selection Outcome 128
Table 4.45: Relationship between Cultural Beliefs, Stereotypes, Merit and Executive Selection Outcome 129
Table 4.46: ANOVA of Cultural beliefs, Stereotypes, Merit and Executive Selection Outcome 130
Table 4.47: Coefficients of cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome.....130
Table: 4.48: Summary regression results showing combined effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome 131
Table 4.49: Summary of regression analysis, statistical results and findings.....147
Table 4.50: Summary of Objectives, hypothesis, statistical tests and findings 149
Table 5.1: Summary of objectives, hypothesis and findings 158
Table 5.2: Summary of contributions of the study 176

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CCL	Centre for Creative Leadership
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CIMMYT	International Maize and Wheat Improvement Centre
IE	Interaction Term
KNCIC	Kenya National Cohesion and Integration Commission
KNBS	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
MNCs	Multinational Corporations
NCIC	National Cohesion and Integration Commission
NGEC	National Gender and Equality Commission
PPMC	Pearson's Product Moment Correlation
SCM	Stereotype Content Model
SID	Society for International Development
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

ABSTRACT

Culture refers to the underlying values, beliefs and codes of practice that makes a community what it is. It reflects the meanings and understandings that people typically attribute to situations, the solutions that they apply to common problems. They inform the stereotypes, which people have against other ethnic groups and gender, as a result find their way into organizational decision making process. In any executive selection process, it is assumed that final decisions are based purely on merit. However, studies have shown that other than merit, there are other factors that influence organizational decision making process such as executive selection decisions. This study intended to determine the influence of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit on executive selection outcome. Ninety six (96) organizations were randomly selected from among the multinational organizations operating in Kenya for the study, out of which fourty seven (47) responses were received making a response rate of fourty nine percent (49%). The key findings of this study show that cultural beliefs influence executive selection outcome, stereotypes and merit. It also found that the existence of stereotypes weakens the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome and that merit influence executive selection outcome. Stereotypes on the other hand was found to have an influence on merit but no direct influence on executive selection outcome, however this relationship is reversed by the introduction of merit. These finding are in line with previous studies. Studies have found that feminized job description resulted to discrimination of agentic women, who were perceived not to be nice enough for the job. Organizations need to take a critical look at what constitutes "merit" in executive selection, this includes how it is defined, developed, acquired and measured. The first conclusion from the study is that cultural beliefs do influence executive selection outcome and that stereotypes have an intervening effect on this relationship. Secondly, that gender and ethnic stereotypes do exist in organizations and are deeply entrenched in the minds of senior executives, thirdly that executives can modify their behaviour to act in contrast to these deeply held beliefs in order to conform to organizational culture and values; fourthly that stereotypes by themselves do not have a direct influence executive selection outcomes, however they do so when embedded in merit instruments. A major implication of this study is the introduction of use of the principle of "bush fire effect" in social learning and attitude change strategies.

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

This thesis examined the influence of cultural beliefs on executive selection outcome and the effect or stereotypes and merit on this relationship. Most organizational theorists believe that quality leadership is key to organizational success (Fiedler and House,1998). People involved in executive selection hold certain beliefs, which influence their perceptions, behaviours and attitudes. These beliefs are acquired from their communities and environments and are passed on from one generation to another in form of culture and cultural beliefs. Culture refers to the underlying values, beliefs and codes of practice that makes a community what it is (Aaltio and Mills, 2002). It can therefore be powerfully subjective and reflects the meanings and understandings that people typically attribute to situations, the solutions that they apply to common problems. They inform the stereotypes, which people have against other ethnic groups and gender, as a result find their way into organizational decision making process. In any executive selection process, it is assumed that final decisions are based purely on merit. However, studies have shown that other than merit, there are other factors that influence organizational decision making process such as executive selection decisions (Takeda et. al., 2006).

Cultural beliefs are known to be passed down from one generation to another in a social learning process, hence the social learning theory. The theory of social learning (Bandura, 1977) states that social behaviour is learned primarily by observing and imitating the actions and behaviours of others around you.

The society has a way of rewarding or punishing behaviours of its members, in so doing eliminating or reinforces certain behaviours and actions. This is why stereotypes spread and are generalised in entire communities or groups. Stereotypes are generalised beliefs held by people against specific groups of people or gender. Stereotypes are generally negative, although there are few instances where people have been positively stereotyped. Stereotypes arising from cultural beliefs are dynamic and evolve with changes in the environment. Because cultural beliefs are learnt, individuals and groups can also change their cultural beliefs through social leaning processes by exposure to modifying influences (Smedley, 1998).

The promulgation of the new Kenyan Constitution in 2010 and the legislation of a minimum one third gender requirement and ethnic diversity in constitutional offices generated a heated debate in the country. A section of male members of parliament even suggested that the legislation should be changed claiming difficulty in its implementation in the Kenyan context. The debate in Kenya and subsequent high profile executive appointments locally and globally created the researcher' interest in the influence of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit on executive selection outcome. In an attempt to determine the state of governance in Kenya, two years after the new constitution, a study by the Society for International Development (SID) showed that cultural beliefs are responsible for strong negative stereotypes of women in leadership roles (SID, 2012). Every community has a unique cultural identity that sets it apart from other communities (Osland and Bird, 2000).

It is still possible for organizations to have cultures of their own as they possess the incredible ability of being both 'part' of and 'apart' from the society in which they

operate. Laurent and Derr (1989), argued that national cultures have sometimes been found to be more powerful and engrained than organizational cultures. The new constitutional requirements in Kenya that legislated a regional balance and mandatory one third gender requirement in public offices introduced interesting debates on gender and ethnic balancing in executive appointments. Multinational organizations operating in Kenya brings a different perspective into this debate as they are governed by different legislations in their home countries and their values and beliefs are influenced by dominant cultures in their home countries. The concept of cultural beliefs hence arise from viewing organizations as social entities, with a socialization process, norms and structures (Fobrum, 1984).

1.1.1 Cultural beliefs

The term culture has been defined as a learned system of meaning and behavior that is passed from one generation to the next (Carter and Qureshi, 1995) in every culture there is a set of people with shared values and belief system that govern their behavior, perceptions and interactions between individuals. According to Sen(1999), the social dimension of culture refers to the cultural skills and values, inherited from the community's previous generation and undergoing adaptation and extension by current member of the community that influence how people express themselves in relation to others and how they engage in social interaction. This definition focuses on the social outcomes of culture that are shared with other people and reflect the relations between them and other communities. It also focuses on how one community perceives other communities, in terms of respect, cohesion and how it empowers its citizens.

Among all the different ways of living together it is important to identify the social dimensions of culture that have an influence on capabilities and on the criteria by which people make their choices. Social dimensions of culture, which have an effect are based on universally accepted standards and practices. They have an important role in fostering a system of beliefs and values which influence human behaviours. Cultural changes that foster these dimensions have an important role in human development and they can be measured.

Hofstede (1984) developed cultural dimensions, which provide a framework for cross-cultural communication. He proposed the following four dimensions along which cultural values could be analyzed: individualism-collectivism; uncertainty-avoidance; power distance and masculinity-femininity. He later added a fifth dimension, long-term orientation, to cover aspects of values not discussed in the original paradigm. Further research has refined some of the original dimensions, and introduced the difference between country-level and individual-level data in analysis. Hofstede's work established a major research tradition in cross-cultural psychology and has also been drawn upon by researchers and consultants in many fields relating to international business and communication. It continues to be a major resource in cross-cultural fields. It has inspired a number of other major cross-cultural studies of values, as well as research on other aspects of culture, such as cultural beliefs.

Hofstede’s (1984) model of cultural dimensions identified as culture and values, are theoretical constructions. They are tools meant to be used in practical applications. Generalizations about one country's culture are helpful but they have to be regarded as guidelines for a better understanding.

They are group-level dimensions which describe national averages which apply to the population in its entirety. Cultural dimensions by Hofstede (1984) do not take into consideration individual personalities. National scores should never be interpreted as deterministic. Hofstede's work can be contrasted with its equivalence at individual level, institutional and national level. In this study, cultural beliefs were considered at two levels; organizational and national levels. At organizational levels the researcher considered beliefs on equity, gender roles and diversity. At national level, the researcher looked at beliefs on diversity, gender roles and ethnic diversity.

Within and across countries, individuals are also parts of organizations. Hofstede (1984) acknowledges that dimensions of national cultures are not relevant for comparing organizations within the same country. In contrast with national cultures, which are embedded in values, organizational cultures are embedded in policies, procedures and practices. He identified six different dimensions of practices, or communities of practice, these include: Process-Oriented vs. Results-Oriented; Employee vs. Job Oriented; Parochial vs. Professional oriented; Open System vs. Closed System oriented; Loose Control vs. Tight Control oriented and Pragmatic vs. Normative orientated.

Managing international organizations involves understanding both national and organizational cultures. Communities of practice across borders are significant for multinationals in order to hold the company together. Cultural beliefs differ from knowledge in the sense that they are not empirically discovered or analytically proved. They become identical through a socialization process by which culture is unified, maintained and communicated (Davis, 1949).

Past cultural beliefs provide focal points and coordinated expectations, thereby influencing the behaviours in organizations, they usually form rules of how things are done.

Cultural beliefs also influence societal organizations, since interactions occur within a specific social and historical context. Self-expression and individualism increase with economic growth (Inglehart, 1997), are independent of any culture, and they are vital in small populations faced with outside competition for resources. Entitled individuals in positions of power embrace autonomy even if they live in a collective culture. Like the power index, the individualism and collectivism surveys scatter countries according to predictable economic and demographic patterns (Triandis, 2004), so they might not really inform us about any particular organizational dynamic, nor do they inform us about the organizational and individual variations within similar socio-economic circumstances.

Whereas individuals are the basic subject of psychological analysis (Smith, 2004), the socialization of individuals and their interaction with society is a matter to be studied at the level of families, communities, institutions and nations each with its own statistical imprint of culture (Smith, 2004). The assumed isomorphism of constructs has been central to deciding how to use and understand culture in managerial sciences (Fischer, 2009). As no individual can create his or her discourse and sense-making process in isolation to the rest of society, individuals are therefore poor candidates for cultural sense-making. Attitudes arise from deeply held beliefs and convictions about something. This study focused on beliefs arising from culture, hence the term “cultural beliefs”.

It is probably true to say that every individual groups have stereotypes of other groups. Some psychologists argue that, ethnic stereotypes are a natural aspect of human behaviour, which can be seen to benefit each group. Because it helps in the long-run to identify with one's own group, find protection, to promote the safety and success of the group. There is no evidence to support this view; however, many writers argue that it is merely a way of justifying cultural behaviours. Ethnicity is identity with or membership in a particular racial, national, tribal or cultural group and observance of that group's customs, beliefs, values and language.

1.1.2 Concept of Stereotypes

A stereotype is a belief that can be held by anybody about specific types of individuals or certain ways of doing things, which may or may not always reflect the reality. There are different concepts and theories of stereotyping that provide their own expanded definition of a stereotype. There may be common aspects between the different definitions. The term stereotype is believed to have originated from the Greek word "stereos", which means firm, solid and "typos", which means impression. Stereotype therefore means solid impression. The first reference to the word stereotype in modern English was in 1850s in a noun meaning "image perpetuated without change". However, it was not until 1922 that "stereotype was first used in modern psychological sense by American Journalist Walter Lippmann (1922).

Some of the most common stereotypes include; ethnic stereotypes, gender stereotypes, religious stereotypes, hair colour stereotypes, skin colour stereotypes, national stereotypes among others. The scope if this paper is limited to gender and ethnic stereotypes.

This is because most stereotypes can fit into any of these two groups and also these are the most common stereotypes encountered in the work place. The stereotypes have been of interest to various disciplines and depending on their school of thought, they tend to give different account on how stereotypes develop. Social psychologists have for a long time been interested in stereotypes and prejudice, concepts that are typically viewed as being very much interrelated. For example, those who subscribe to the tri-partite model of attitudes hold that, a stereotype is the cognitive component of prejudiced attitudes. Psychologists may focus on an individual's experience with groups, patterns of communication about those groups (Allport,1954).

Sociologists, on the other hand may focus on the relations between different groups in a social structure. They suggest that stereotypes could be as a result of conflict, poor parenting, and inadequate mental and emotional development. Stereotype Content Model (SCM) by (Fiske et. al (2002), hypothesizes that stereotypes possess two dimensions: warmth and competence. Social groups are perceived as warm if they do not compete with their in-group for the same resources. They are considered competent if they are high in status, thus contradicting earlier theories of stereotype content which assumed that stereotypes reflected one-dimensional and uniformly negative attitudes.

Fiske's (2002) model, is further divided to four sub groups depending on whether they high or low on warmth or competence: First is non-competitive, low-status out-groups are perceived as warm but incompetent and are usually liked and pitied but disrespected, second, feelings of pride and admiration are aroused by groups considered both competent and warm, this is also referred to as the in-group, third is

groups regarded as incompetent and not warm and they elicit feelings of contempt and pity. The fourth group comprises those who are high in status but low in warmth. They and are subject to an envious stereotype which is accompanied by feelings of admiration and resentment. The figure 1.1 is an illustration of Fiske's content model.

Figure 1:1: Fiske's Stereotype Content Model

	Competence		
		Low	High
Warmth	High	Paternalistic stereotype Low status/non competitive Pity Behaviour: Active	Admiration High status/non competitive Pride Behaviour: Facilitative
	Low	Contemptuous stereotype Low status/competitive Disgust Behaviour: Passive	Envious stereotype High status competitive Envy Behaviour: Harmful

Source: adapted from Fiske et. al., (2002).

The stereotype content model was empirically tested on a variety of national and international samples and was found to reliably predict stereotype content in different cultural contexts and affective reactions toward a variety of different groups. The model has also received support in such domains as interpersonal perception. The Social Content Model (SCM), posits that intergroup emotions and stereotypes predict distinct behaviours which can be active, passive, facilitative or harmful.

Members of a social group considered incompetent but warm elicit active behaviour and the desire to assist them. A passive behaviour is one in which the observer perceives the individual as low in both warmth and competence; therefore, they do not engage with the individual at all. A facilitative behaviour stems from the observer's belief that the individual is high in both competence and warmth; therefore, they provide them with necessary assistance, but allow for independence. A harmful behaviour is displayed when an observer views an individual as high in competence but low in warmth; therefore, they engage in negative behaviours against the individual.

One explanation for why stereotypes are shared is that they are the result of a common environment that stimulates people to react in the same way. Hamilton and Gifford (1976) first applied the idea of illusory correlations into intergroup contexts. In an intergroup context, an illusory correlation is a perception that a group is related to a certain characteristic. Some psychologists believe that although stereotypes can be absorbed at any age, they are usually acquired in early childhood under the influence of parents, teachers, peers, and the media (Harding et. al, 1969). If stereotypes are defined by social values, then stereotypes will only change as per changes in social values (Lippman, 1922). Studies emerging since the 1940s refuted the suggestion that stereotype contents cannot be changed at people’s will. It is important to note from this explanation that stereotypes are the consequence, not the cause, of intergroup relations. According to Harding et. al, (1933), stereotyping leads to racial prejudice when people emotionally react to the name of a group, ascribe characteristics to members of that group, and then evaluate those characteristics.

So far studies on mixed stereotypes based on Fiske's content model have relied heavily on explicit stereotypes measures. Implicit measures have been found to have two qualities; first, they are less susceptible to social desirability concerns, secondly they may tap biases that are not readily identifiable by means of normal introspection. Implicit measures can therefore be used with explicit measures (Fiske et.al, 2002). The fact that stereotypes have a strong evaluative is a strong key factor in stereotype research. The evaluative structure of a person and group has been found to be multidimensional and allows for selective evaluative appraisals. The psychological categorization of people into ingroup and outgroup members is associated with a variety of phenomena. This refers to the fact that under certain conditions people will have preference and have affinity for one's in-group over the out-group, or anyone viewed as outside the in-group. This can be expressed in evaluation of others, linking, allocation of resources and many other ways.

Discrimination between ingroups and outgroups is what manifests as favouritism towards the ingroup and the absence of equivalent favouritism towards the outgroup. Outgroup is the phenomena in which an outgroup is perceived as being threatening to the members of an ingroup. This phenomenon often accompanies ingroup favouritism, as it requires one to have an affinity towards their ingroup. Some research suggests that outgroup derogation occurs when an outgroup is perceived as blocking or hindering the goals of an ingroup. It has also been argued that outgroup derogation is a natural consequence of the evaluation and categorization process. Social identity theory states that the in-group will discriminate against the out-group to enhance their self-image.

The central hypothesis of social identity is that group members of an in-group will seek to find negative aspects of an out-group, thus enhancing their self-image. Such prejudiced views between cultures may result in discrimination. Tajfel (1974) proposed that stereotyping is based on a normal cognitive process, which involves the tendency to group things together. In doing so we tend to exaggerate the differences between groups of people and the similarities within the same group and categorize them in the same way. People see the group to which they belong as being different from the others and members of the same group as being more similar than they really are. Social categorization is thus, one explanation for prejudiced attitudes. In this study, the researcher looked at two dimensions of stereotypes that is ethnic and gender stereotypes. The dimensions were further considered in three sub-dimensions namely, perception of ability, discrimination and promotability.

1.1.3 Merit in Executive Selection Outcome

Merit has been defined as a combination of a candidate's attributes, qualities, skills and traits required to perform a job as specified in a job description (Sessa and London, 1999). Selection on merit is a process of determining which job seeker has the optimum qualifications, skills, abilities, knowledge and experience deemed to be most suitable for the job. In a merit based system, applicants effectively compete for a job (Sessa and San, 1998). If the selection process is said to be "Closed Merit", a vacant position is advertised only within the organisation and only applicants from within the organisation are able to compete for the position. On the other hand, if the selection process is "Open Merit" then the vacant position is advertised widely to attract a pool of applicants from outside the organisation.

It is generally assumed that jobs are awarded on the basis of merit. In practice jobs may be awarded on any other basis like friendship, relationship or class, gender, ethnicity or race.

Merit-based recruitment incorporates the principles of equal opportunity to ensure that the most capable person is selected for a position on the basis of merit (Robinowitz, 2009). It refers to the right of every individual to be given fair consideration for any job for which they are skilled and qualified. Equal opportunity principles aim at ensuring that individuals have the chance to compete with others for positions, and not be denied employment opportunities because of attitudes, procedures, restrictive job requirements or physical barriers which discriminate against them. In making selection decisions, organizations take into account how well the knowledge, skills, experience and abilities of the potential candidates match the demands and responsibilities of the executive role. The successful executive match also requires careful consideration of other variables, including candidate's personality, attitude, behaviour, the nature of the existing executive team and the overall organizational culture.

Industrial psychologists often conduct internal empirical studies to identify which specific skills and abilities are critical to executive effectiveness in organizations. These studies also frequently identify and validate assessment tools predictive of current and future executive success. These tools can help organizations identify individuals with executive potential early in their careers, so that they can be given the appropriate developmental support and opportunities to help them maximize the likelihood of their later executive success.

In building such programs, it is essential to identify the individual's unique abilities, the individual's current strengths, future potential and development needs (Karaveli and Hall, 2003).

Merit based executive selection outcome is where the best possible match of the applicant’s educational qualifications, experience, knowledge, skills, behavioural competencies and the selection criteria. Proponents of merit selection offer it as a preferable alternative to the politics inherent in executive selection (Easterly and Anderson,1999). Opponents maintain that executive selection itself is a political process. Despite lingering doubts by some about merit selection's effectiveness in eliminating politics from executive selection, and the lack of evidence that it results in the selection of better executives, merit selection has gained widespread acceptance (Vinnicombe et. al.,2010). There are several arguments raised in favour of merit selection, the most common one being that, it addresses the weaknesses of both partisan and nonpartisan selection systems.

Arguments against merit selection include among others that, it does not take politics out of selection process, while its proponents have found the road to its adoption a rocky one. In organizations where the board either participate in the executive selection process or appoint individuals the selection panel. It has been found that there are general interests in executive selection, and these include, organizational needs and organizational political system. Viewed in this context, it would be naive to believe that merit selection automatically eliminates politics from executive selection process.

Most often, politics is usually integrated in the composition of the selection panel, selection criteria, selection tools, selection methods and selection instruments. It incorporates the various interests that are thought to be legitimate in the job, while discouraging other alternative interests. These interests are believed to greatly influence who is selected and who is not.

The issue then, is to balance the need for the articulation of interests by a variety of interest groups in the panel that could potentially jeopardize the fairness of the process. Easterly and Anderson (1999), observe that, notwithstanding the existing studies and anecdotal evidence in support of merit selection, it remains a superior criteria in executive selection. In this study the researcher examined four dimensions of merit, these include education and experience, knowledge and skills and behavioral competencies.

1.1.4 Executive Selection Outcome

One of the challenges faced by leaders in organizations is finding the right executives to fill vacancies in the organization's leadership (Barrington & Silvert, 2004). Increasingly high turnover rates among corporate executives is making headline news. This challenge seems to be growing as the current generation of leaders begins to retire, and organizations frequently fail to find executives who excel in leadership jobs. Increasing numbers of organizations are reporting serious issues with leadership succession, as their current selection practices result in unsuccessful placements either because the manager fails to deliver results or he or she is unhappy in the job and leaves (Pomeroy, 2005). Because executive failures can be very costly for a company, the need to find the right executives is imperative.

Executive selection outcome is the final end product of executive recruitment and selection process. Recruitment and selection of executives is to a large degree characterized by uncertainty (Stuffsud, 2003). Executive Selection outcome is a function of the extent to which the executive fits the job requirements (job fit), length of engagement and performance on the job. Executive performance is sometimes difficult to evaluate, as their responsibility consists of many different aspects. These aspects may not always be observed due to executive discretion and due to the fact that their work is affected by factors in their environment, which may be outside their control.

Executive selection has been broadly defined as the entire process of selecting an executive (Cambell,1998). This process has been described as starting with organizational needs assessment, job definition, candidate requirements, candidate pools and decision making process. Researchers believe that the process does not stop with the selection of the executive, but includes managing the executive once on board, performance management and organizational results. Their definition differs from the standard selection process as prescribed in the industrial and Organizational psychology literature, which is based on mass production model of executive selection (Sackett & Arvey,1993). An executive is a person or group responsible for administration of a business or a person having supervisory authority over others in a business. There are different levels of executives, for the purpose of this paper, we will limit our scope to the Chief Executive Officer and his direct reports and criteria that organizations apply to select these executives.

Executive Selection decisions are also based on executive's future potential, which is inferred from their track record of past performance. Due to such difficulties, organizations will try to reduce information uncertainty by using various sources of information. Internal recruitment of executives may be preferred, due to the value of firm-specific knowledge. Stuffsud (2003) found that in selection process, decision makers tend to reproduce themselves by attracting those who are like them. In this era of rapidly changing organizational environments, executive selection is increasingly becoming more critical as performance demands are affected by multiple forces. The apparent failures of many top level selections have left many organizations wondering what they are doing wrong. Sessa et. al., (1998) of Centre for Creative Leadership (CCL) conducted a study on Executive Selection to determine what works and what does not work. One of their findings was the need to consider diversity of candidates in the selection pool and the need to gather balanced information that shades light on the executive's soft side as well. The soft side includes issues around cultural fit, character, personality and values.

According to the Kristof (1996), job performance is related to how well an executive skills and abilities are matched to the job. Thus, if we assume that outstanding performers are matched to their jobs, then we can also expect that executives in jobs with different demands will display different competencies. When executives are moved to new jobs new demands and challenges are placed on them. According Kristof (1996), executive failure when making a transition from one role to another can be ascribed, in part, to a mismatch between the demands of the new job and the characteristics of the executive.

Executive abilities have been known to manifest differently depending on the combination of job characteristics that earned them an executive job in the first place. Boyatzis (1982) identified one of these abilities as leadership behavioral competencies. Executives are normally assessed against predetermined set of leadership competencies. Different organizations have different combinations of preferred leadership competencies depending on the unique requirements of the organizations. Competencies represent abilities and personal characteristics that are relatively enduring, an underlying characteristic of an individual which is causally related to effective or superior performance in a job.

Length of engagement is another indicator of good match between executive, the organization and the job. Studies have however shown that even good high performing executives leave organizations for various other reasons other than performance. Some of these reasons include lack of conducive work environment, culture shock, stress, burn out, lack of recognition, limited opportunities for growth and development (Branham, 2005). Length of engagement alone is therefore not a good prediction of a good executive selection outcome. Studies have found that executives may mentally and emotionally disengage from the organization but continue to show up as long as they are paid. Executive performance on the other hand has been found to be a good predictor of executive selection outcome. In this study, the researcher examined three dimensions of executive selection outcome. These dimensions include: job fit, length of engagement and executive performance.

1.1.5 Multinational Organizations in Kenya

A multinational organization is one that, has its facilities and other assets in at least one country other than its home country. Multinational organizations, also known as Multinational Corporations (MNCs), have operations in different countries and usually have a centralized head office where they co-ordinate global management. Organizations operating globally face a unique set of challenges in formulating consistent strategies that work in local markets while supporting global goals, causing many organizations eventually to cross national borders. Multinational organizations in Kenya have adopted a number of strategies to remain competitive including: better quality, excellent customer service, innovation, differentiation, diversification, cost cutting measures, strategic alliances, joint venture, mergers and acquisitions and pricing.

According to Ogutu and Samuel (2011), 61% of the multinational corporations are foreign owned, while 39% are both locally and foreign owned suggesting that the majority of the Multinational Corporations (MNCs) are owned by non citizens. Majority of Multinational corporations in Kenya are greatly influenced by the cultures of their mother countries. Some have tried to adapt their corporate cultures to fit the local cultures and regulatory requirements, while those that that have not find it extremely difficult to establish their businesses in Kenya.

In a bid to remain competitive in geographically and culturally diverse environments, multinational organizations have endeavoured to recruit executives with international perspective, with multicultural backgrounds and extensive overseas experience.

As a result, the number and influence of non-U.S executives among multinational companies is rapidly growing (Ettore et. al.,2009). Organizations seeking to establish and maintain global presence have selection criteria that include cross cultural experience and cross cultural sensitivity. Because globalization is a relatively new phenomenon, little is known of how to identify and select executives who can operate effectively in a global environment. Sessa and London (1999) sought to address this need in their book: “Selecting International Executives”: A Suggested Framework and Annotated Bibliography.

1.2 Research Problem

We have seen how previous research has shown that decision makers in organizations hold certain beliefs, which are acquired from their communities and other socialization agents. These beliefs are usually passed down from one generation to another in form of culture and values. These cultures and subsequent beliefs inform the stereotypes, which people hold against other groups of people, and which influence their decisions. Merit has been explicitly recognised as the key determinant of executive selection outcome in organizations. However, Takeda (2006), showed that, besides merit, there are other factors that influence executive selection outcome. Laurent (1989), argued that national cultures have sometimes been found to be more powerful and more engrained than organizational cultures. Every community has a unique cultural identity that sets it apart from other communities (Osland and Bird, 2000).

The world has become a global village and the advent of technological advancement has introduced additional challenges to organizations that operate across different cultures as is the case with multinational organizations. These challenges come into play when identifying, recruiting and selecting executives to manage their businesses in different locations of the world (Tailor, 1991). The fact that they operate in different cultural environments from their countries of origin, they have to contend with cultural influences from their home countries and those of their host countries. The Kenyan constitutional requirement, that requires regional balancing and mandatory one third gender constitution in public offices introduces a new challenge in executive selection in Kenya.

Society for International Development (2012) survey report on "The Status of Governance in Kenya", shows that despite the constitutional requirement of one-third gender representation in leadership positions, negative stereotypes against women leaders is still very strong and women continue to be grossly underrepresented in top leadership roles in Kenya. The report also found that cultural beliefs on women leadership played a big role in stereotypes against women in Kenya. Tabuka (2013), on the other hand, found that deep seated stereotypes that defined women as homemakers greatly influenced their participation in political leadership in Kimilili, Bungoma County in Kenya.

Campbell et.al., (1998) found that executive selection decisions are influenced by cultural lenses of the selection panel, through which they judge the candidates. This study, however, did not consider social aspects of executive selection process.

Another study close to this by Ogutu (1994) found that conservative males are more likely to perceive the leadership of female managers less favourably. His study was an experiment conducted in Japan and focused more on cognitive aspects of perception that influenced stereotypic attitudes of leadership abilities of women managers in Japan.

Studies cited above examined stereotypes, culture and executive selection separately as the basis for judgment and decisions in organizations. These studies considered motivational and cognitive influences on stereotyping. There are however, no studies that have conceptually integrated the cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome in a common framework. This is the gap that this study seeks to address. This study is expected to close the existing gap in concept, methodology and context, by providing a conceptual integration of social aspects of executive selection decisions. The study aims at answering the question: “What is the Influence of Cultural Beliefs on Executive Selection in Multinational Organizations in Kenya?” It further aims at determining the influence of cultural beliefs and stereotypes and the intervening and moderating effect of stereotypes and merit, respectively in this relationship.

1.3 Research Objectives

This study aims at determining the relationship between Cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome in multinational Organizations in Kenya. Specifically, it aims at achieving the following specific objectives:

i) To establish the influence of cultural beliefs on executive selection outcome.

ii) To establish the influence of cultural beliefs on stereotypes.

iii) To determine the influence of stereotypes on executive selection outcome.

iv) To determine the moderating effect of merit on the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome.

v) To determine the intervening effect of stereotypes on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome.

vi) To establish that the combined effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit together on executive selection outcome is greater than their individual effects.

1.4 Value of the study

Many Multinational Organizations have policies that are expected to guide the practices and decisions in executive selection. A closer look at the executive selection outcome of these organizations reveal some interesting trends that this study expects to bring out. This study is expected close the gap between application of policy and practise, with specific reference to executive selection outcome of executives in multinational organizations. Multinational organizations operate in culturally diverse environments. This study aimed at determining the influence of cultural beliefs, if any, on executive selection outcome and the relationship between cultural beliefs and stereotypes.

It also sought to determine intervening effect of stereotypes on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome, the moderating effect of merit on the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome and the combined influence of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit on executive selection

outcome. By knowing how cultural beliefs influence executive selection outcome, and effect of stereotypes and merit, organizations can manipulate these factors to enhance the quality of executive selection outcome. By so doing, the study will help organizations revamp their executive bench strength and build strong sustainable organizations.

Government law and policy makers will also be expected to benefit from the results of the study in regards to making laws against work place discrimination and equal opportunity in executive recruitment and selection. By understanding the theoretical underpinning of stereotypic behaviour and attitudes, institutions like the National gender and equality commission (NGICC), are able to design programs to address the root course of stereotypes and discrimination in executive selection. Universities and other Institutions of higher learning are also expected to benefit from the results of the study, especially departments involved in Curriculum Development and research in ethnic and gender studies. International, Non-governmental Organizations and Civil Society will find the results of this study useful for their advocacy work.

This thesis is divided into five chapters. Chapter one covers introduction, background of the study, research problem, objectives of the study and value of the study. Chapter two deals with literature review, knowledge gap and conceptual framework. Chapter three covers research design, research population, sampling and data collection. Data analysis, findings and discussion is covered in chapter four. Chapter five on the discusses research summary, it also discusses conclusions drawn from the study, its limitations and implications. In this chapter, the researcher also makes recommendations for future research work.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter covers literature review on cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome. It starts by examining the theoretical foundation of the study and continues to review existing literature in regard to: the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome; cultural beliefs and stereotypes; stereotypes and executive selection outcome; stereotypes, merit, and executive selection outcome; cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome. It goes further to determine the knowledge gap in existing studies. The conceptual framework and conceptual model is discussed towards the end of the chapter.

2.2 Theoretical Foundation

The main theoretical foundation of this study is the theory of social learning. This theory was first put forward by Miller and Dollard (1941) who posited that, if humans were motivated to learn a particular behavior, that particular behavior would be learned through clear observations. The theory was broadened by Bandura and Walters (1963) with the principles of observational learning and vicarious reinforcement. According to the theory of vicarious reinforcement, by imitating the observed behaviour the individual observer would solidify the learned behaviour and would be rewarded with positive reinforcement.

Bandura (1977), refuted the traditional learning theory, believing that direct reinforcement alone could not account for all types of learning. He argued that most

human behaviour is learned by observation through modelling, and that by observing others, one acquires the fundamentals which guide future action. The social learning theory is believed to be the most influential theory of learning and development. It deals with cognitive and emotional and aspects of behaviour and behavioural change, it provided new insights in behavioural research.

The theory of social learning, also known as observational learning or modeling added a social element to understanding learning process and can be used to explain a wide variety of human behaviour. Bandura and Walters (1963), identified three core concepts at the heart of the social learning theory. First is the idea that people can learn through observation. Next is the idea that internal mental states are an essential part of this process. Finally, this theory recognizes that just because something has been learned, it does not mean that it will result in a change in behaviour.

Another closely related theory is, the theory of social influence by Kelman (1958). Social influence on the other hand occurs when one's emotions, opinions, or behaviours are affected by others and explains how people acquire and maintain certain behavioural patterns, while also providing the basis for intervention strategies. Social influence can take many forms including compliance, socialization, peer pressure, obedience, leadership persuasion and identification. Differential reinforcement can be broadly understood as the process by which individuals experience and anticipate the consequences of their behaviours. That is, a person’s actions are in part, determined by what they perceive as the consequences of their action or lack of action (Akers, 1998).

The theory of planned behaviour by Ajzen (1991), derived from the theory of social learning on the other hand links attitudes and behaviour. It has been used to understand social processes like culture, influence, feelings and emotions. It has been applied to studies of the relationship between beliefs, attitudes, behavioural intentions and behaviours in various fields such as advertising, public relations, campaigns and healthcare.

Environment and situation provide the framework for understanding behaviour (Parraga,1990). The situation refers to the cognitive or mental representations of the environment that may affect a person's behaviour. The situation is a person's perception of the place, time, physical features and activity (Glanz et. al., 2002). The three factors including environment, people and behaviour are constantly influencing each other. Behaviour is not simply the result of the environment and the person, just as the environment is not simply the result of the person and behaviour. Observational learning occurs when a person watches the actions of another person and the reinforcements that the person receives (Bandura, 1997). Bodenhausen and Macrae (1998), developed a theoretical framework that explains the processes underlying both the activation of stereotypes and attempts to suppress their influence. They considered several stages of processing, including, the categorization of a stimulus person; the influence of this categorization on the interpretation of information about the stimulus person; and the social judgments and behavioural decisions that are ultimately made.

By stereotyping, it is assumed that a person or group has certain typical characteristics. Quite often, people have stereotypes about persons who are members of groups with which they have not had any contact with. Judging people based on prejudices and stereotypes gives rise to discrimination.

Discrimination creates subtle or overt pressures which discourage the stereotyped group or persons from participating in certain activities. Despite overwhelming scientific evidence to the contrary, there are people who maintain that their own race is superior to all others. Such people, generally known as "racists," are most likely to engage in discrimination, persecution, and violence against those they deem to be members of "inferior" races. Attitudes are usually defined as a disposition or tendency to respond positively or negatively towards a certain thing.

According to Hovland et. al., (1953), changes in opinions can result in attitude change depending upon the presence or absence of rewards. Abelson (1968) developed the theory of cognitive consistency, which suggests that people will try and maintain consistency among their beliefs. Festinger (1957) developed the theory of cognitive dissonance, which is one of the best known and most researched frameworks pertaining to attitude change. He argues that a number of factors determine the strength of dissonance and hence how much effort is required to change attitudes. He believes that by manipulating these factors, attitude change can be facilitated or inhibited.

Social learning fall under the wider framework of learning theories. Learning theories are conceptual frameworks, which describe how information is absorbed, processed, and retained. Cognitive, emotional, and environmental influences, as well as prior experience, all play a part in understanding how world view is acquired or changed, and knowledge, skills, behaviours and attitudes are retained. Behaviourists look at learning as an aspect of conditioning and advocate a system of rewards and targets.

They believe that, the definition of learning as a change in behaviour is too narrow and they prefer to study the learner rather than the leaner's environment, in particular the complexities of memory and retention. Those who advocate constructivism believe that an individual's ability to learn relies to a large extent on what he or she already knows and understands, and that the acquisition of knowledge should be an individually tailored process of construction. Transformative learning theory focuses upon the often-necessary change that is required in a learner's preconceptions and world view.

Cognitivism became the dominant force in psychology in the late 20th Century, replacing behaviourism as the most popular paradigm for understanding mental processes. According to Fetsinger (1957), cognitive psychology is not a wholesale refutation of behaviorism, but rather an expansion that accepts that mental states exist. This was due to the increasing criticism towards the end of the 1950's of simplistic learning models. One of the most notable criticisms was the argument that language could not be acquired purely through conditioning, and must be at least partly explained by the existence of internal mental states. The main issues that interest proponents of cognitive models are the inner mechanisms of human thought and the processes of knowing.

Cognitive psychologists have attempted to shed some light on the alleged mental structures that stand in a causal relationship to our physical actions. Cognitivism is key in understanding social learning process, how cultural beliefs and stereotypes are acquired and passed on from one generation to another Abelson (1968).

It is also key in understanding why imparting knowledge and skills alone is not enough to change long standing beliefs in a society. So far all the learning theories that have been developed, Bandura's (1977) model of social learning and cognition is the one that most helps in understanding and explaining how culture and subsequent stereotypes are acquired and passed on in families and communities from one generation to another. This is because it integrates behavioural, cognitive and social aspects of learning.

Bandura (1977) argued that not all observed behaviours could be learned effectively, nor learning can necessarily result to behavioural changes. He proposed the following four steps in the modelling in determining whether social learning is effective, the first step is ability to pay attention to the new behaviour, the second ability to retain the newly learned behaviour is necessary, third is the ability to reproduce the new behaviour, this is done through constant practice and the fourth step is the motivation to repeat the behaviour, this is where the concept of reinforcement and punishment comes in.

Stereotyping being deeply held beliefs, it requires intervention approaches that challenge core beliefs that drive stereotypic attitudes and reinforce newly acquired behaviours. It is for this reason that Social learning theory has been adopted as the key theory on which this study anchored. Other theories like vicarious reinforcement by Bandura and Walters (1963), social influence by Kelman (1958) and Planned behaviour do not adequately explain how culture and stereotypes and acquired, sustained, reinforced and passed on.

2.3 Cultural beliefs and Executive Selection Outcome

Previous research has demonstrated that executive selection decisions are highly risky and subjective. It becomes even more complicated and risky when considered from a cultural perspective, especially if the candidates and decision makers come from culturally diverse backgrounds (Campbell et.al.,1998). Berry (1969) defined culture as shared constraints that limit behaviour, it has also been defined as shared values that give preferences for certain behaviours, attitudes and practices (Wilson, Hope and Sayles,1996). In this paper, we will adopt the latter definition.

Campbell et.al.(1998), developed the term cultural lens framework, to describe how cultures create a lens through which decision makers view global executive selection decisions. It is through these lenses that they define organizational needs, position requirements and requirements for executive success, hence candidate success. Cultural lens is therefore the filter with which decision makers view the situation and people from other cultures other than their own. Broad elements of cultural lens include among other things: language, attitude on time, information flow, and interpretation of context, equality and power differences between people. At organizational level, these lenses include: values, management characteristics and leadership styles. In a global environment, the context and process of executive selection process is defined by the cultural lenses of the decision makers, hence the developers of the process need to recognize and understand the lenses of each culture represented. In Kenya, the lenses may represent beliefs about abilities or inabilities of certain tribes or ethnic groups and gender biases.

2.4 Cultural beliefs and Stereotypes

A stereotype has been defined as “a fixed, over generalized belief about a particular group or class of people” (Cardwell, 1996). Stereotypes have been used to simplify the social world because they reduce the amount of processing that people do when they meet a new person. By stereotyping it is assumed that a person has a whole range of characteristics and abilities that we assume all members of that group have or do not have. This social categorization leads to prejudiced attitudes, which leads to the formation of “in-groups” and “out-groups”. Most stereotypes tend to convey a negative impression. Positive examples of stereotypes include judges, who are often perceived to be sober, hence the phrase “sober as a judge”. Such a phrase suggests this is a stereotype with a very respectable set of characteristics.

Overweight people are often seen as jolly and television newsreaders as highly dependable, respectable and impartial. Negative stereotypes, however, seem far more common. Researchers have studied different types of stereotypes, including physical appearance, body size, height, hair colour, racial and gender stereotypes. This research focuses on gender and ethnic stereotypes. This is because these are the most common stereotypes encountered in Kenya.

2.4.1 Cultural beliefs and gender stereotypes

When discussing culture, gender differences are largely not taken into consideration (Aaltio and Mills, 2002). However, there are certain factors that are useful to analyze in the discussion of cross-cultural communication. Within each society, men culturally differ from women.

Although men and women can often perform the same duties from a technical standpoint, there are often symbols to which each gender has a different response (Minkov, 2007). In situations where one gender responds in an alternative manner to their prescribed roles, the other gender views the alternative gender role as deviant. The level of reactions on towards people exhibiting foreign cultures can be compared to the reactions towards people not displaying typical roles ascribed to their gender (Hofstede et. al., 2010).

According to Aatio and Mills (2002), the degree of gender differentiation in a country depends primarily on the culture within that nation and its history. While liberal economies value assertiveness, autonomy, materialism, aggression, money, competition and rationalism, welfare socialism seeks protection and provision for the weak, greater involvement with the environment, an emphasis on nature and well-being, and a strong respect for quality of life and collective responsibilities.

According Hofstede (1984), masculine societies (like U.S Japan and Germany) happened to include the most successful economically during the period of Hofstede's (1984) study, with the successful feminine societies (like Scandinavia, Costa Rica, France and Thailand) having either smaller populations, less economic scale and strong collective welfare philosophies . This masculine-feminine dichotomy divides organizations into those exhibiting either compassion, solidarity, collectivism and universalism, or competition, autonomy, merit, results and responsibility. Organizational culture hence provides a useful way of studying gender dynamics in the work place.

Gender is a cultural phenomenon, where culturally specific patterns of behaviour are associated with individual differences associated with beliefs about male and female roles (Aaltio and Mills, 2002). Gender stereotypes present a conventionally simplified and standardized conception or image concerning the typical social roles of male and female, both domestically and socially (Diekma and Eagly, 2000). To simplify this definition, gender stereotypes are beliefs held about characteristics, traits, and activity domains that are deemed to be appropriate for men and women. For example, traditionally, typical characteristics for women are piety, submissiveness, and domesticity, while authority, and social behaviour, are traits commonly attributed to men. However, as the product of social activity, gender stereotypes are neither perpetual nor static.

According to Diekman and Eagle (2000), dynamic stereotypes characterise social groups that are thought to have changed from the attributes they manifested in the past and even to continue to change in the future. According to social role theory's assumption that the role behaviour of group members shapes their stereotype, groups should have dynamic stereotypes to the extent that their typical social roles are perceived to change over time. Applied to men and women, this theory makes two predictions about perceived change. First that, perceivers should think that gender differences are eroding because of increasing similarity of the roles of men and women, secondly that the female stereotypes should be particularly dynamic because of greater change in the roles of women than of men.

Tracing the reasons for gender stereotypes, one can perceive the influence of a male-dominated social system where the male dominates the activities related to economics. The economic mode, to a certain extent, decides the social position of men and women. Men are perceived to be the centre of family and society, and women as a part of property of men. Followed by this gender stereotype, corresponding to social characteristics emerge, such as the family mode of one husband having several wives; men are the definite economy-controller of family and society among others. Diekman's and Eagly's (2000) gender stereotypes has changed, with increased participation of women in paid labour force along with social transformation. Statistics show, women's participation in the labour force in China increased from 34% to 60% between 1950 and 1998 and conversely men decreased from 86% to 75% Diekman and Eagly (2000). Employment has given women opportunities to improve their social status and transform their social roles. This essentially has challenged the stereotypical gender roles that have been long held for women.

In an effort to find out, the extent to which male and female managers are perceived differently in today's work place, a study was conducted based on measuring attitudes toward women managers. The study confirmed the findings of Heilman et al. (1989) who suggested that negative gender stereotypes still persist among male managers. Heilman (1989) measured the attitudes of male managers towards female executives. The attitudes of Human Resource professionals were an important addition because these professionals influence the work climate by selecting and socializing new employees through a variety of human resource programs.

The students' attitudes were also considered important because they represent the attitudes of potential new employees and future managers. Each group contained both men and women, giving a good gender comparison of attitudes toward women managers. This is exactly the type of situation in which stereotypes exert a strong influence on beliefs and hence attitudes. They found that lack of experience frequently leads people to fall back on generalized beliefs about the situation at hand.

To offset the influence of stereotypes, generalized beliefs need to be addressed before an individual is faced with an unfamiliar situation (Fisher,1992). Fisher (1992) found that the potential for discrimination against women as managers will not, as some experts have suggested, disappear very soon. The subtle form of discrimination, based on beliefs about how men and women differ in their managerial ability, will continue unless companies make a concerted and continuing effort to dispel those beliefs through education and training. Without such an effort, the potential exists for firms to underutilize their management resources, a costly move for organizations facing an increasingly competitive environment in today's global economy.

2.4.2 Cultural beliefs and Ethnic Stereotypes

Katz and Braly (1933), studied ethnic stereotyping at Princeton University. They found that students held clear, negative stereotypes of students of other ethnic groups. Some psychologists argue that, ethnic stereotypes are a natural aspect of human behaviour, which can be seen to benefit each group because it helps in the long-run to identify with one’s own ethnic group and so find protection and promote the safety and success of the group. There is no evidence to support this view, however, many writers argue that it is merely a way of justifying ethnic attitudes and behaviours.

Ethnicity is identity with or membership in a particular racial, national, tribal or cultural group and observance of that group's customs, beliefs, values and language. Chartrand and Bargh (1999) in their examination of stereotypes found that stereotypes are not under any motivational control, but they are uncontrollable and the result of unconscious action. He further argues that the evidence of controllability is weaker and more problematic than previously realized.

Fiske et.al. (2002) found that stereotypes of an “out-group” are usually characterized by a mixture of negative and positive reactions, either liking but disrespecting or respecting but disliking. Prejudice includes mixed emotions, such as pity and envy, as well as straightforward contempt and admiration. They found that high-status, allegedly competitive groups tend to be characterized by a stereotype of high competence and low warmth. Low-status, allegedly non-competitive groups tend to be characterized by a stereotype of low competence and high warmth. The data linking stereotypes to a group’s own status and relations with other groups suggest that prejudice is likely to be affected by changes in a group’s social status. Fiske et.al. (2002), believe that stereotypes and prejudice come from the relative positions of groups in society. Accidents of social history put groups in certain power positions, defining their seeming status and competitiveness.

Glick and Rudman (2001) challenged the long held assumption that stereotypes were largely role based, grounded in historical roles and embedded in the human psyche from generations of historical story telling. They hypothesized and later discovered that an arbitrary dynamic exists within all stereotyped groups, regardless of their historical foundation.

In United States for example, two immigrant subgroups generate more complicated predictions based on model by (Fiske et.al., 2002). African immigrants do not receive the same stereotype as ‘‘blacks’’, this is because perceptions of black sub-groups resulted in an averaged aggregate neutral rating for blacks as a group. Voluntary African immigrants to the US now include many high-status people. However, this reality is complicated by media images of Africa, thus casing the predictions to go either way. In previous Social Content Model (SCM) research, Arabs received average competence and low warmth ratings.

(Fiske et. al., 2002), on the other hand, found that immigrants from Middle Eastern nations, received average competence stereotypes compared to other groups. This was attributed to mixing of low and high-status perhaps because of the difficult relationship between the U.S. and the Middle East. Overall, then, stereotypes are not confined to national, racial, and ethnic categories, but also socioeconomic status, which cuts across the former. The aforementioned stereotypes of black Americans is one illustrative example. That poor blacks and professional blacks received distinct stereotypes demonstrates the influence of socioeconomic status in intergroup perception. As noted, the social structural hypothesis of the SCM posits that stereotypes reflect the perceiver’s knowledge of power relations in society. Perceived status leads to perceived competence, and the people perceived as competent are begrudgingly given respect. On the other hand, those perceived as non-competitive are consequently perceived as warm, in order to placate them in their lower status in society. Certain immigrant groups will be stereotyped based on occupations associated with them.

A report by Kenya's National Cohesion and Integration Commission (KNCIC) (2013), showed that Kenya also has its own typical ethnic stereotypes. Various ethnic carry typical stereotypes some generalised examples include, Kambas as very loyal people, Luos as elite and very proud, Kikuyus as business minded, Luhyas as lovers chicken dishes, coastal groups as lazy and Kalenjins as runners. These stereotypes manifest especially when recruiting people for certain jobs, for example many Masaais' are employed as security guards as they are stereotyped as strong and brave and when one is looking for domestic worker, Luhyas will fit the bill as they are stereotyped to be hard working, while Luos are perceived to be elites in the society because of the number of highly educated among this ethnic group. These stereotypes are very generalised, and it is not uncommon to find individuals in these ethnic groups who do not fit these generalised groups.

2.5 Stereotypes and Executive Selection Outcome

Stereotypes are more ambivalent than typically considered. Takeda et al (2006) in their study on hair colour stereotyping and CEO selection in the United Kingdom, found that blondes were underrepresented in corporate leadership positions in U.K. Thus stereotyping blondes as incompetent affects their status in society particularly in the work place and in leadership positions. Bargh (1999) showed that stereotyping is unconscious and moving its awareness to selection instruments like job screening forms could help counter such seemingly discriminatory actions and minimize its effects in executive selection.

Hollenbeck (2009) in his article executive selection, what's right and what's wrong discusses some of the variables routinely considered when selecting executives, which

include: personality, leadership ability, ability to manage relationships and global experience is an integral part of our thinking. He argues that every executive selection process is faced with the uncomfortable reality of executive failure. According to Gupta (1992), meritocracy is a social concept in which a candidate's success on a job depends primarily on their knowledge, skills, experience, talents, abilities, track record and effort. Selection based on merit and non-discrimination dictates that all differences, including ethnicity, gender and social class, be ignored. If the concept of meritocracy was strictly adhered to, then it would be assumed that social inequality results from unequal merit rather than prejudice or discrimination, however this is not always so in practice.

Despite the incidences of CEO and executive failures, Hambrick and Mason (1984) suggest that organizations are not paying enough attention to selecting the right executives. Devries (1993), decries that CEO failure has increased exponentially in the last ten years. Bennis and Otolle (2000) argue that CEOs hired after 1985 are more likely to be fired than those hired before 1985, bringing the need to better understand the critical factors that contribute to executive success. These factors form part of the executive selection criteria, which among other things include personality fit, behavioural fit, cultural fit and character fit.

2.5.1 Gender Stereotypes and Executive Selection Outcome

Acker (1990), showed that employers are guilty of constructing to gender stereotypes either intentionally and unintentionally. This include assumptions on qualities of good workers (available at short notice, work long hours, willingness to travel widely), which generally favour male employees.

Such assumptions result to operating procedures and practices that become part of organizational culture, which discriminate against female employees. Other assumptions include ideas such as the best workers have no other lives other than work (Acker, 1990). Vinnicombe (2010) found that 20.7% of all board positions at the largest European companies are executive positions, of which only 4.2% are taken by women. 101 Global Survey Report of 2010 reports that, U.K alone will need an additional five million highly qualified workers within the next ten years to compete globally.

Raising the proportion of women in the workplace to equal that of men would cut the gap to three million. It has become clear that there are many women who are ready to serve on corporate boards, but complex barriers and challenges stand in their way (Reskin and Padavic,1994). Women with corporate experience are frequently overlooked for development opportunities and there were differences in the way that men and women were mentored and sponsored. A relatively low number of successful female role models often compounds the problem of stereotypes and reinforces perceived difficulties women experience in rising up the corporate ladder. A report of "The State of Governance in Kenya by (SID, 2012) shows that stereotype against women in leadership roles is still very strong, thus impacting their representation on executive and political leadership roles.

The inter-parliamentary Union report (2013) ranks Kenya at position 76 worldwide among countries with highest number women in parliament with 18.3% and 26.5% representation in the lower and upper house respectively.

In this report, Kenya does not even appear in the top 10 position in Africa, trailing behind Rwanda, South Africa, Mozambique, Ethiopia, Uganda, Tanzania and Zimbabwe. Cann and Siegfield (1990), found that effective leadership is perceived as characterized by traits similar to those associated with masculine gender roles. They found that these perceptions would appear to be at odds with extensive research indicating that effective leadership requires consideration and structuring behaviours that seem to represent both masculine and feminine styles.

In a separate study, by Reskin and Padavic (1994), the correspondence between gender stereotypes and dimensions of effective leadership were assessed. Results indicate that consideration behaviours are perceived to be feminine, while structuring behaviours are perceived to be masculine. Similarly, qualities that characterize the masculine gender role are perceived to be consistent with structuring, while qualities associated with the feminine gender roles are perceived to be consistent with consideration. It is suggested that an increased awareness of the androgynous nature of effective leadership behaviours might in future weaken the biases that favour male executives.

2.5.2 Ethnic Stereotypes and Executive Selection Outcome

In Kenya, leadership and wealth is considered a very important Wagner (1970). This is because a person in leadership is able to influence all the activities and affairs of that culture. Thus, traditional cultures in Kenya attach great importance to being in leadership, inspite of the fact that almost all the cultures did not have centralized systems of government. People are considered influential if they possess the following qualities: seniority in age, wealth and fame.

This explains the tendency for different ethnic groups clamouring for executive roles in government and corporate organizations. When a community has more of its people in powerful leadership positions, the more powerful a community is seen to be. This explains why communities expect their members in influential positions to provide jobs and business opportunities to members of their own communities, hence the culture of tribalism in executive appointments both in private and state corporations. By entrenching the need for regional balance and meritocracy in the constitution, it is believed that this will force boards to balance the ethnic constitution of their executive teams.

2.6 Stereotypes, Selection Merit and Executive Selection Outcome

Singer (1992) examined procedural fairness in managerial selection practices, he found that process factors were significantly associated with candidate variables but decision factors were not. Hede and Dingsdag (1994), observed that, although a large majority of managers professed pro-equity attitudes, most displayed a belief in gender stereotypes in executive selection. There is a strand of selection research that focuses on the question of whether individual characteristics of executives is linked to their effectiveness and success on the job. There is a general observation that until individual characteristics of executives are more meaningfully linked to success and effectiveness on job, it would be worthy to note that executives selected using a different selection criteria possess marginally different attributes and these different characteristics do not seem to affect their abilities to perform their jobs. Subsequent studies have not provided evidence of a correlation between the executive selection criteria and selection outcome (Jona, 1994).

In these studies, most selection decisions appear to have been based on merit-related factors, but a surprisingly high proportion of managers admitted to potentially discriminatory attitudes. Other than merit, other factors such as age, good looks and the absence of physical disability were rated as having been important in more than a third of selection decisions. In addition, factors such as gender, marital status, race and colour were found to have greatly influenced managerial selection decisions.

2.7 Cultural beliefs, Stereotypes, Selection Merit and Executive Selection Outcome

According to Tomilson (1999), the advent of globalization has brought about a range of cultural identity questions. This is because, cultural influence across national boundaries, integrating and connecting diverse cultures in the global village. Males and females in different cultures acquire different roles and are active in different spheres. Some researchers claim that gender roles can be explained exclusively by reference to social processes irrespective of biological differences (Aaltio and Mills, 2002). A combination of work force demographic trends and increasing globalization of business has placed the management of cultural diversity on the agenda of most corporate leaders (Taylor, 1991). Sociologists and psychologists have discovered hidden barriers that help to explain the glacial pace of change in executive selection in many industries. They found that decision makers tend to define organizational needs and selection criteria from their cultural lens, which influence the cultural biases.

Because they operate at an unconscious level, stereotypes have their most power when people make subjective choices or must rely on incomplete information. Steele and Aronson(1995) found that implicit stereotypes, are known to limit people's

opportunities in executive roles, but may go unnoticed and unquestioned. Existing studies show that merit selection is at least not an obstacle to diversity.

People generally tend to be more comfortable with those like themselves and emphasizing diversity may undermine that comfort level Deitch et.al. (2003). Cultural norms are known to shift relative to language, technological expectations, social organization, face-saving, authority conception, nonverbal behaviour and the perception of time (Deitch et.al., 2003). Dion (1989), posited that work place discrimination could be manifested in unfair or discriminatory treatment that are more subtle and may be missed when looking for objective discrimination.

According to Inman (2001), perception of workplace discrimination may be driven by two factors. First, the actual existence of inequality, employees who are disadvantaged or treated unfairly are usually most likely to feel the discrimination. Second, perception of discrimination is driven by employees' awareness of their rights and their sensitivity to unfair treatment. Thus, individuals' expectation for equity also plays a role in their perception of discrimination (Inman, 2001). Reskin and McBrier (2000) argues that workplace discrimination can be explained by social cognition theory. Social cognition theory posits that individuals automatically and unconsciously classify others into one of two groups that is "ingroup" or "outgroup". Once these categorizations have been made, individuals have a tendency to mentally exaggerate between group differences and minimize within group differences (Fiske, 1998). Categorization is usually also accompanied by stereotyping, attribution bias and evaluation bias (Fiske, 1998).

2.8 Summary of previous studies and Knowledge gap

Existing studies have focused on stereotypes as the basis for judgment and behavioural decisions. Although motivational and cognitive influences on stereotyping have been considered, there is no study that has conceptually integrated them within a common theoretical framework. This study aims at closing the existing gap in methodology, concept and context by providing a conceptual integration of motivational and cognitive influences of executive selection decisions.

Since no such a study has been done in Kenya, it provided the Kenyan context. It demonstrated the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome and the intervening and moderating effect of stereotypes and merit on this relationship respectively. The researcher used Bandura's (1977) social learning model to propose a practical solution to societal negative cultural beliefs and subsequent stereotypes. Table 2.1 summaries the key studies and subsequent knowledge gaps addressed by this study arranged according the gaps identified.

Table 2.1: Summary of Previous Studies and Knowledge gap

Study	Focus	Objective	Findings	Knowledge gap	Focus of the study
Conceptual Gaps					
Takeda et. al. (2006)	Hair colour stereotyping in UK	Determine if hair colour stereotyping affected career progression to CEO level.	Blondes are underrepresented in corporate leadership because they are stereotyped as incompetent.	Study limited to stereotyping of one aspect of physical characteristic, and was the independent variable, and did not look at other stereotypes like gender and ethnic stereotypes.	In this study stereotyping is an intervening variable and focuses on ethnic and gender stereotypes.
Osland and Bird (2000)	Studied sophisticated stereotyping and cultural paradoxes.	To demystify existing cultural paradoxes and attempted to contextualize culture.	They developed a useful framework for people working in multicultural environments to understand different	The study did not show the link between cultural paradoxes, stereotypes and managerial decisions.	This study aims at showing the link between the three variables cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome.

Study	Focus	Objective	Findings	Knowledge gap	Focus of the study
			cultures.		
Easterly and Anderson (1999)	Merit selection process in the judiciary in Chicago U.S.A.	They aimed at showing the relationship between merit selection process and diversity in the judiciary.	Merit selection only marginally promotes gender and minority on the bench.	In the study, merit was an independent variable and diversity the dependent variable.	In this study, merit was a moderating variable and not independent variable .
Chartrand and Bargh (1999)	They were interested in studying unconscious mimicry.	To investigate if people acquire attitudes and behaviors from the people they interact with.	Stereotypes are not under any motivational control and that they are the result of unconscious actions.	In the stereotypes was the dependent variable. It ignored the fact that people can control their attitudes, it further ignored the moderating effect of the environment.	In this study stereotypes is an intervening variable as opposed to dependent variable.
Campbell et.al. (1998)	Studied the selection of top three levels of	Improve quality of leadership in organizations.	They found that executive selection decisions are	Study was limited to systems, tools and methods of executive	This study seeks to deviate from examining systems tools and

Study	Focus	Objective	Findings	Knowledge gap	Focus of the study
	management.		influenced by cultural lenses of the panels through which they judge the candidates.	selection and did not explore the social aspects of executive selection process.	processes and focus on social aspects of executive selection process that affect the final outcome.
Katz and Braly (1933)	Studied how attitudes towards large social groups is manifested among individual members.	To investigate stereotypical attitudes of white American students.	Ethnic stereotypes are widespread and shared by members of particular social groups. The study set the stage of research on stereotypes.	The study relied heavily on verbal feedback and did not link the stereotypes to the individual behaviors and decision making processes.	This study seeks to close the conceptual gap by linking cultural beliefs to stereotyping attitudes that subsequently affect executive selection outcome.
Methodology gaps					
Tabuka (2012)	Women participation in political leadership.	Factors Influencing women participation in political leadership in Bungoma.	Deep seated stereotyping of women as homemakers influenced their participation in political leadership.	Gap: Methodology and contextual. The study was a case study and focused in one community in Kenya.	This study was a cross sectional survey and focused on corporate leadership.

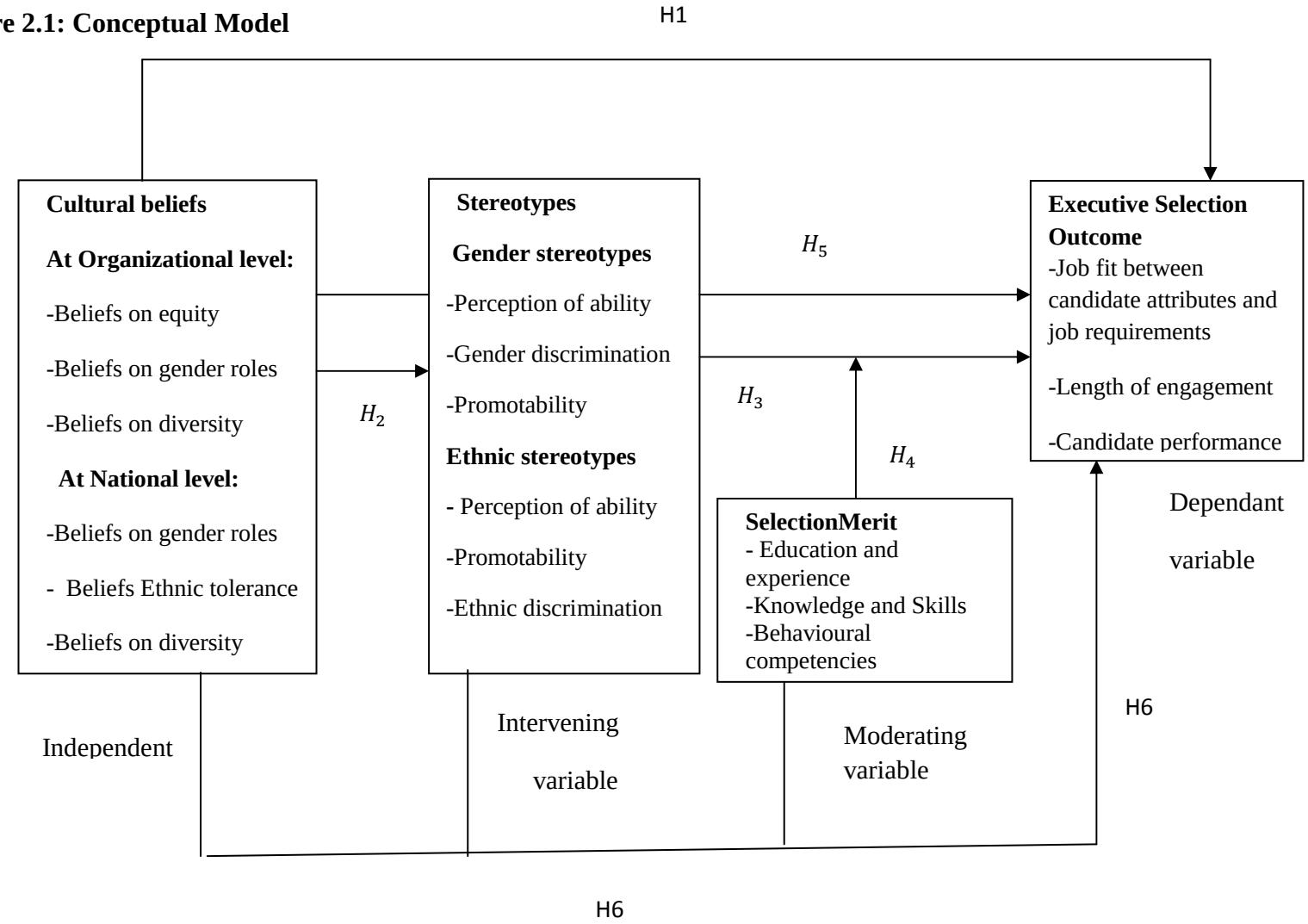
Study	Focus	Objective	Findings	Knowledge gap	Focus of the study
Glick and Rudman (2001)	They studied discrimination of agentic women in selection decisions.	They examined job description and applicant attributes as moderators of negative evaluation for agentic women.	They found that a feminized job description resulted to discrimination against agentic women, who were perceived as not being nice enough, referred to implicit .agency stereotype.	The research methodology was an experiment and the moderating factor was the women's social skills, which could be controlled by the researchers.	This research used a different methodology which is cross sectional survey and not an experiment.
Contextual gaps					
Society for International Development-SID (2012)	Examined the status of Governance in Kenya.	Following the enactment of the new constitution that legislated ethnic balancing and minimum one third gender requirement for constitutional offices.	It found that there is still strong negative stereotypes of women in leadership roles.	The study was a national baseline survey, with sample size picked from the general public on knowledge, attitudes and practices on leadership.	This is very specific study targeted multinational corporations.

Study	Focus	Objective	Findings	Knowledge gap	Focus of the study
Ogutu (1994)	Studied Cognitive categorization of perception leadership of managers in Japan.	He sought to examine the effect of gender on leadership perception of managers in Japan	He found that conservative males are more likely to perceive the leadership of a female manager less favorably.	The study was an experiment carried out in Japan	This study will close the contextual and methodology gap in that it will give a local context and will be cross sectional.
Theoretical gaps					
Bandura (1977)	He challenged the traditional learning models alone could to be used to account for all types of learning	He sought to explain the other forms of learning that is not explained by reinforcement of behavior.	Extended the traditional models of learning by integrating cognitive, behavioral and social approaches to learning.	Proposed a practical application of Bandura's social learning model in sustainable change of negative cultural beliefs and subsequent attitudes arising from it	Proposed the term "Bush fire effect" as a process to attain sustainable societal change in attitudes and behavior.

2.9 Conceptual framework

Stereotypes are deeply held and over generalized beliefs about particular group or class of people (Cardwell, 1996). Decision makers are believed to be influenced by these cultural beliefs, which form the lenses through which they see and evaluate the candidates when selecting and appointing candidates for executive positions as represented in the conceptual model below. Figure 2.1 is the conceptual model, which shows the relationship between cultural beliefs, stereotypes, selection merit and executive selection outcome.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Model



2.10 Conceptual Hypotheses

H_1: Cultural beliefs have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.

H_2: Cultural beliefs have a significant influence on stereotypes

H_3: Stereotypes have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.

H_4: Merit has a moderating effect in the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome.

H_5 : Stereotypes have an intervening effect in the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome.

H_6: Cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit together have a significant influence on executive selection outcome and that effect is stronger than the effects of the individual variables.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research methodology used in the study. It covers research philosophy, design, study population, sampling frame, data collection and analysis. The objectives of the research have been discussed in previous chapters. This chapter focuses on the research process from design to how the data was analysed.

3.2 Research philosophy

Philosophy of science is the foundation of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge. Two dominant research philosophies exist in social research, namely positivism and phenomenology. According to Amedeo (2009), phenomenology is concerned with what things mean, rather than what they are. It is more interested in the idea that human experience is a valuable source of data, as opposed to the idea that true research or discovery lies in simply measuring the existence of physical phenomena.

Positivism, on the other hand, recognize observable events that can be seen and measured and takes little account of beliefs and feelings. It replaces experience and intuition with factual observable events, as the means of investigating the research problem. This study is founded on positivism, which stresses the importance of scientific rigour in the quest for knowledge (Indick, 2002). It was deemed appropriate because it is quantitative and based on facts, neutrality, impartiality, consistency in the measurement and validity of results. The other reason is that positivism is anchored on theory and hypotheses, which are crucial in this study. Saunders et. al.

(2009), argues that positivism adopts a natural science stance that leads to production of credible data.

3.3 Research design

This study was a cross sectional survey, where data was collected from a cross section of multinational organizations operating in Kenya. There are other studies that have been used in social studies, these include, experimental design, cases studies and longitudinal designs. Experimental design is where the researcher manipulates the study variables and observes the behavior of the variables under different experimental conditions. They are generally expensive and require a long period of time.

Cross-sectional research studies are based on observations that take place in a group or different groups at one time. This means that there is no experimental procedure, so no variables are manipulated by the researcher. In cross sectional studies, the researcher simply records the information that is observed in the groups you are examining at a particular period and this informs the reason why the researcher opted for this method over the other research designs. Cross sectional studies can be used to describe the characteristics that exist in a group, it is used to gather information only. The information gathered is then used to develop other methods to investigate the relationship observed. Cross sectional survey design was deemed to be appropriate because the study seeks to determine the relationship among four variables across a broad section of firms. Cross sectional survey is known to be effective in studies of relationships (O'Sulliva and Abela, 2007).

3.4 Population of study

The population of study comprised all multinational organizations operating in Kenya. A research population is generally a large collection of individuals or objects that form the main focus of a scientific query. It is also known as a well-defined collection of individuals or objects known with similar characteristics. All individuals or objects within a certain population usually have a common, binding characteristic or trait. The description of the population and the common binding characteristic of its members are the same. It is for the benefit of the population the research is done.

Due to the large sizes of populations, researchers often cannot test every individual in the population because it is too expensive and time-consuming. The 2012 Statistical Abstract lists 213 multinational organizations operating in Kenya. Multinational corporations come from different countries with different cultures and beliefs, which in turn have different cultural influences on their subsidiaries operating in Kenya.

3.5 Sample design

Since it was not possible to study the entire population, the researcher took a sample of the population for the study. Assuming a confidence interval of 95% (Z=1.96), a standard deviation of 25 and standard error of (Z) 5.0%, the sample size was derived using the formula:

$$n= \left(\frac{ZS}{Z}\right)^2 = (1.96\text{x}\ \frac{25}{5})^2 = 96.$$

A simple random sampling technique was used to select 96 organizations from the population forming a sample proportion of 45%. The researcher used an internet based random sampling generator select organizations from the following key sectors, Manufacturing, services, ICT, Energy, Logistics, Mobile telecommunication,

Banking, Insurance hospitality and trading sectors. Each of the organizations in the population was given three digit numbers ranging from 001 to 213. These numbers were then entered into an internet based random number generator, which then generated the random numbers. Table 3.1 shows the randomly selected numbers corresponding to the selected organizations. Organizations which could not be reached were replaced by the next available organization.

Table 3.1. Random numbers of the 96 selected organizations.

032 138 033 079 054 129 060 154 087 131 155 139 187 044 104 136 142 180 064 043
163 171 091 117 196 016 186 103 083 086 099 038 066 095 056 122 081 092 058 161
192 184 110 063 147 107 070 126 169 098 097 045 157 030 145 013 141 026 100 149
101 090 065 140 128 008 198 010 207 041 111 115 203 209 035 132 174 025 159 185
051 084 170 151 153 146 167 105 076 106 017 127 067 133 148 160

3.6 Data collection

In this study primary data was collected using a questionnaire (shown in appendix I), which was administered by use of an online web based tool. The target respondents were CEOs of selected organizations, this is because in most cases the CEOs usually take charge of the recruitment and selection of senior executives who report directly to them. This was later revised to include senior executives, who are direct reports to the CEO. This is because the CEOs delegated the responsibility of completing the questionnaire to their direct reports. In instances where the CEO was not available, for instance, some of them were out of the country and were going to be away for a long time, then a member of the senior executive team completed the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was divided into five sections: the first section comprised data on the profile of the organization, section two covered cultural beliefs, section three focused on stereotypes, while section four focused on merit and section five covered questions on executive selection outcome.

3.7 Operationalizing Variables

The study examined four variables, namely cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome. This section provides operational definition of these variables. In other words, was concerned with how the variables will be measured. In this study cultural beliefs was measured at both organizational and national level. Cultural beliefs were the independent variable and were measured using a five point likert scale. The dimensions that were used to measure cultural beliefs at organizational level were, beliefs on equity, gender roles and diversity. At national level, the dimensions were beliefs in gender roles, ethnic tolerance and diversity.

Stereotypes were the intervening variable and were measured using a five point likert scale. The dimensions of stereotypes were, gender stereotypes and ethnic stereotypes. The sub-dimensions of gender stereotypes were, perception of ability, gender discrimination, and promotability. The sub-dimensions of ethnic stereotypes were, perception of ability, promotability and ethnic discrimination. Merit, on the other hand, refers to various attributes considered in executive selection decisions. In this study, merit was the moderating variable and was measured using a five-point likert scale. The dimensions used to measure merit were, education and experience, knowledge and skills and behavior.

Executive selection outcome is the final product of an executive selection process and it was measured using a five-point likert scale. Indicators used to measure executive selection were; Job fit between the candidate attributes and job requirements, length of engagement and executive performance. A comprehensive operationalization of the variables is presented in Table 3.1, which shows the operational definition of variables.

Table 3.1: Operational Definition of Variables

Variable	Operational definition	Indicators	Measurement	Questions
Cultural beliefs	Cultural beliefs is a cumulative set of beliefs held by a group and acquired over a period of time through experience and is reflected in attitudes, values and practices (Carter & Qureshi,1995).	**At organizational level**1. 1. Beliefs on ability 2. Beliefs on gender roles 3. Beliefs on diversity **At national level** 1. Beliefs on gender roles 2. Beliefs on ethnic tolerance 3. Beliefs on diversity	Likert scale Likert scale Likert scale Likert scale Likert scale Likert scale	9-10 11-17 18-21 22-26 27-31 32-34

Stereotypes	Stereotype is a generalized beliefs held by one group of people about another and may lead to lead to prejudicial judgment or discrimination of the stereotyped group (Katz and Braly, 1933).	**Gender stereotypes** 1. Perception of ability 2. Gender discrimination 3. Promotability **Ethnic stereotypes** 1. Perception of ability 2. Ethnic discrimination 3. Promotability	Likert scale Likert scale Likert scale Likert scale Likert scale Likert scale	35-38 39-44 45-48 49 50 51-52
Merit	Is the selection of individuals based on their superior ability as determined by knowledge, experience, skills and educational background as per laid down requirement of a job (Easterly and London, 1999).	1. Qualification and experience 2. Knowledge and skills 3. Behavioral competencies	Likert scale Likert scale Likert scale	53-57 58-63 64-67

Executive Selection outcome	Executive selection outcome is the extent to which an executive selection exercise of an executive is successful (Stuffsud, 2003).	1. Fit between selected candidate attributes and the job. 2. Length of engagement 3. Performance of selected candidate	Likert scale Likert scale Likert scale	68-73 74-81 82-85

Once data was collected cleaned and entered into SPSS, it was important to ensure that the data met the minimum assumptions for statistical tests before it is analyzed. The data needed to pass the assumption of reliability, validity, homogeneity, multicollinearity and normality.

3.8 Test of Validity and Reliability

Data validity refers to the degree to which research results represent the phenomenon being studied (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). In this case, it refers to the extent to which the data collection instrument provide the kind of information required for the study. Six organizations were selected for a pilot study to test the data collection instruments generate.. The organizations used in the pilot study were not included in the main study. The questionnaire was administered to the pilot organizations by email and feedback sought on clarity, scales, length among other characteristics of the instrument. Reliability refers to the extent to which the research instrument yields consistent results. This reflects the consistency with which the respondents interpret the research questions and hence the responses they give.

In this study, Chronbach's alpha technique was used to measure reliability. In a scale of 0 to 1, a high alpha coefficient value implies consistency in the constructs being measured, while a low value show low or lack of consistency. As a rule of thumb any value above 0.7 is acceptable according to Chronbach (1971) hence in this study, the researcher adopted an alpha coefficient value of 0.7 as a cutoff point.

3.9 Test for Normality

The data collected was expected to meet the assumption of normal distribution. It is expected that when data is plotted on a graph it will form the normal bell-shape. To test for normal distribution, means, standard deviations and P-value statistics were used at 95% confidence interval. A P-value greater than 0.01 was indicative that the data met the assumption of a normal distribution.

3.10 Test for Homogeneity

Before the data was subjected to statistical test, it must pass the assumption of homogeneity. It relates to the validity of the assumption that the statistical properties of any one part of a dataset are the same as any other part. Homogeneity is a measure of the similarity within a data set. In this study, Levene's (1960) test was used to test for homogeneity in the sample. Using a cut-off point of 0.01, a P-value of less than 0.01 shows consistency in data set and hence is indicative of homogeinity in the sample. Analysis of variances should show no differences in data set. Assuming the hypothesis that there is significant differences in the variances. A P-value of less 0.01 shows that there is significant differences in variances. A value of more than 0.01 on the other hand shows there is no significant differences in variances hence the sample is homogeneous.

3.11 Test for multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is where two or more predictor variables in a multiple regression model are highly correlated. In this study multicollinearity was determined using Pearson's Moment correlation coefficient and Variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance value. A tolerance value of less than "1" and VIF value of more "2.5" was indicative of existence of multicollinearity.

3.12 Data analysis

Data collected was cleaned, validated, edited, coded and entered into SPSS with the help of a data entry clerk. Descriptive analysis was used to examine the quantitative nature of the data collected. Descriptive statistics is the discipline of quantitatively describing the main features of a collection of information, or the quantitative description itself. Descriptive statistics aim to summarize a sample, rather than use the data to learn about the population that the sample represents . In this study the descriptive statistics used include measures of central tendency and measures of variability, these include means, standard deviation. Descriptive statistical tables are shown in Tables 2.5a, 2.5b, 2.5c and 2.5d in Appendix II.

Regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses and to determine the relationship between two variables. Linear regression models of the following form were used:

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

X_1 = Independent variable (Cultural beliefs)

Y = dependent variable (Executive selection outcome)

β_0, β_1 = Beta coefficients of the constant and cultural beliefs respectively

e = Error value

Regression analysis is a technique used to measure the influence between the predictor variable and independent variable (Hair et. al., 1998). R^2, F-statistic, t-value and P-value value were used to determine the appropriateness of the model. The higher the value of R^2 the better the predictive ability of the model. For regression analysis involving multiple variables, multiple linear stepwise regression analysis was done using linear regression models of the following form were used:

$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + e$ where:

X_1 = Independent variable (Cultural beliefs)

X_2 = Intervening variable (stereotypes)

X_3 = Moderating variable (Merit)

Y = Dependent variable (Executive selection outcome)

$\beta_0, B_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ = Beta coefficients of constant value cultural beliefs, stereotypes, and merit respectively

e = Error value

Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Analysis (PMMC) was used to test the nature and strength of correlation between the variables, it was also a measure of multicolliearity between the predictor variables. Pearson correlation coefficient "R" can take a range of values from +1 to -1. A value of 0 indicates that there is no association between the two variables. A value greater than 0 indicates a positive association. A value less than 0 indicates a negative association; that is, as the value of one variable increases, the value of the other variable decreases. Achieving a value of +1 or -1 means that all the data points are included on the line of best fit and that there are no data points that show any variation away from this line. Values between +1 and -1 indicate that there is variation around the line of best fit.

The closer the value of "*R*" to 0 the greater the variation around the line of best fit. Acceptance or rejection based on value of 0.01 level of significance as commonly used in social studies (Kohen, 2002). Scatter diagrams were used to determine the nature and direction of correlation between the study variables as shown on Appendix II. Table 3.3 shows the summary of research objectives, hypotheses, statistical models and corresponding tests used to test the hypotheses.

Table 3.3: Summary of hypothesis and analytical models

Objective	Hypothesis	Statistical model	Statistical Tests
To determine the influence of cultural beliefs on executive selection outcome	Cultural beliefs have a significant influence on executive selection outcome	Linear regression analysis The following simple linear regression equation will be used: Y=B_0+B_1 X_1+ e where: Y=1.749 +0.531X_1+e X_1= Cultural beliefs (Independent variable) Y = (Executive Selection outcome (Dependent variable) B_0= Constant e= Error value B_1 = Beta Coefficient	P value is used to compare the means of the observed and expected statistics. At 0.01 level of significance. A P-value of less than or equal to 0.01 accept the alternative hypothesis (H_1) and reject the null hypothesis (H_0). Use of coefficient of determination Used Pearson's moment (R^2) 2-tailed correlation test to determine the strength and nature of correlation between the variables at 0.01 level of significance. F and t statistics are used to test the hypothesis. F and t values greater than 1 accept the alternative hypothesis (H_1) and reject the null hypothesis (H_0).
To determine the influence of cultural beliefs on stereotypes	cultural beliefs have a significant influence on stereotypes	Linear regression analysis The following simple linear regression equation will be used: X_2=B_0 +$\beta_1 X_1$+e where:	P value is used to compare the means of the observed and expected statistics. At 0.01 level of significance. A P-value of less than or equal to 0.01 accept the alternative hypothesis (H_2)

Objective	Hypothesis	Statistical model	Statistical Tests
		X_2 = 1.659 + 0.523X_1+ e X_2= Stereotypes X_1= Cultural beliefs β_1 =Beta Coefficient B_0= Constant e= Error value	and reject the null hypothesis (H_0). Use of coefficient of determination Used Pearson's moment (R^2) 2-tailed correlation test to determine the strength and nature of correlation between the variables at 0.01 confidence level. F and t statistics are used to test the hypotheses. F and t values greater than 1 accept the alternative hypothesis (H_2) and reject the null hypothesis(H_0)
To determine the influence of stereotypes on executive selection outcome	Stereotypes have a significant influence on executive selection	Linear regression analysis The following simple linear regression equation will be used: Y=B_0+ β_2 X_2+α where: Y=2.433 +0.227X_2 Y= Executive selection outcome X_2= Stereotypes β_2 = Beta Coefficient B_0= Constant	P value is used to compare the means of the observed and expected statistics. At 0.01 level of significance. A P-value of less than or equal to 0.01 accept the alternative hypothesis (H_1) and reject the null hypothesis (H_0). Use of coefficient of determination Used Pearson's moment (R^2) 2-tailed correlation test to determine the strength and nature of correlation between the variables at 0.01 level of significance. F

Objective	Hypothesis	Statistical model	Statistical Tests
		e= Error value	and t statistics are used to test the hypothesis. F and t values greater than 1 accept the alternative hypothesis (H_3) and reject the null hypothesis (H_0).
To determine the moderating effect of selection merit on the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome	Merit moderates the relationship stereotypes and executive selection	Stepwise multiple linear regression analysis The following simple linear regression equation was be used: where: Y= B_0+ B_2 X_2+ B_3X_3+e Y=2.846 -0.76X_2 + 0.761X_3+0.231X_{IE}+ e Where: Y= Executive selection outcome X_2 =Stereotypes X_3= Merit X_{IE}=Interaction Term (IE) B_0, B_2, B_3 =Beta	P value is used to compare the means of the observed and expected statistics. At 0.01 level of significance. A P-value of less than or equal to 0.01 accept the alternative hypothesis and reject the null hypothesis (H_0). Use of coefficient of determination Used Pearson's moment (R^2) 2-tailed correlation test to determine the strength and nature of correlation between the variables at 0.01 confidence level. F and t statistic is used to test the hypothesis. F and t values greater than 1 accept the alternative hypothesis and reject the null hypothesis

Objective	Hypothesis	Statistical model	Statistical Tests
		coefficients e= Error value	
To determine the intervening effect of stereotypes on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome	Stereotypes has an intervening effect on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome	Stepwise multiple linear regression analysis The following simple linear regression equation was used: Y=B_0+ β_1 X_1 + β_2 X_2 + e Y= 1.810+0.568X_1-0.70X_2+e Where: Y= Executive selection outcome X_1= Cultural beliefs X_2 = Stereotypes B_0 , B_1, B_2= Beta coefficients e= Error value	P value is used to compare the means of the observed and expected statistics. At 0.01 level of significance. A P-value of less than or equal to 0.01 accept the alternative hypothesis (H_2) and reject the null hypothesis (H_0). Use of coefficient of determination Used Pearson's moment (R^2) 2-tailed correlation test to determine the strength and nature of correlation between the variables at 0.01 confidence level. F and t statistics are used to test the hypotheses. F and t values greater than 1 accept the alternative hypothesis (H_5) and reject the null hypothesis(H_0)

Objective	**Hypothesis**	**Statistical model**	**Statistical Tests**
To determine that the combined effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and selection merit on executive selection outcome is greater than the individual variables	Cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit combined have a greater influence on executive selection outcome	Stepwise multiple Linear regression analysis of the form: Y= B_0 +B_1 X_1+B_2 X_2+ B_3 X_3+ e Y=1.170 +0.3297X_1- 0.209 X_2+0.573X_3+e Y=Executive selection outcome X_1 =Cultural beliefs X_2 = Stereotypes, X_3= Merit B_0, B_1, B_2, B_3= Beta coefficients e = Error value	P value is used to compare the means of the observed and expected statistics. At 0.01 level of significance. A P-value of less than or equal to 0.01 accept the alternative hypothesis (H_2) and reject the null hypothesis (H_0). Use of coefficient of determination Used Pearson's moment (R^2) 2-tailed correlation test to determine the strength and nature of correlation between the variables at 0.01 confidence level. F and t statistics are used to test the hypotheses. F and t values greater than 1 accept the alternative hypothesis (H_6) and reject the null hypothesis(H_0)

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with data analysis and findings. Data Analysis is the process of systematically applying statistical techniques to describe, illustrate and evaluate data. According to Shamoo and Resnik (2003) various analytic procedures provide a way of drawing inductive inferences from the data. While data analysis in qualitative research can include statistical procedures, many times analysis becomes an ongoing iterative process where data is continuously collected and analyzed almost simultaneously. In data analysis, researchers look for patterns in observations displayed by the data (Savenye, 2004).

An essential component of ensuring data integrity is the accurate and appropriate analysis of research findings. Improper statistical analyses distort scientific findings, and may negatively influence the public perception of research (Shepard,2002). The key features of analysis in this study were the descriptive statistics and statistical analysis for hypothesis testing. The analytical techniques used are Pearson's moment correlation test (R^2), stepwise regression analysis involving multiple variables to test the moderating and intervening effects, F-test and t- tests and P-value. The first section of this chapter presents the descriptive statistics and the second section deals with inferential statistics and hypothesis testing. Tolerance and VIF values were used to determine multicollinearity of test variables. The descriptive statistics discussed include means and standard deviations.

4.2 Response rate

The response rate of a survey is a measure of how many people approached actually completed the survey. It is usually assumed that the higher the response rate, the more likely the results are representative of the population, provided the sampling is appropriate. Response rate actually depends on the way that the sample was designed and data collection methodology. Sampling theory establishes procedures to ensure samples are chosen to avoid biases. In principle, the more the interaction between the potential respondents and the people collecting the data, the higher the response rate.

In this study, the data collection strategy was adapted to enhance maximum interaction between the researcher and potential respondents. The researcher contacted each of the respondents personally either by phone, email or social media (LinkedIn and Facebook).

Data collection questionnaires were sent to ninety six (96) organizations. A total of fourty seven (47) responses were received giving a response rate of fourty nine percent (49%). Multinational organizations have a confidentiality policy, which means that before any information is revealed to an outsider it must follow a prescribed procedure. The approval process from the head offices was taking long, prompting the researcher to make it optional to reveal their name of the organization. Ten (10) organizations out of the ninety six (96) approached flatly declined to respond citing the confidentiality policy, while majority of them responded anonymously, making it impossible to identify the organizations that had responded. The rule of thumb requires a minimum of thirty (30) responses, a response of 47 is therefore acceptable. The response rate of 49% achieved in this study is above other

response rates achieved in previous studies for example Green et. al.,(2006) achieved 15.5% while Youndt, et. al., (1996) managed 26% response rate.

4.3 Tests of appropriateness of data

As a prerequisite for statistical analysis, the data is expected to meet the basic assumptions for statistical analysis. These assumptions include reliability and goodness of fit, multicollinearity, homogeneity and normality

4.3.1 Test for Reliability and Goodness of fit

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results. Reliability does not mean that the data collected is error free, but that any existing error is not significant enough to warrant to any doubt of findings, conclusions and recommendation based on it. A research instrument is considered reliable when it produces data is considered reliable when data collected is complete, accurate and consistent. In this study, Chronbach's (1971), alpha reliability test was conducted on all the variables. Table 4.1 shows the summary results of Chronbach's alpha reliability test, the details are shown in Tables 2.1c, 2.2c, 2. 3c and 2.4c in Appendix III.

Table 4.1: Summary of Chronbach's Alpha reliability test

Variable	**Label**	**Score**	**Items**	**Reliability**
Cultural beliefs	X_1	0.831	26	Reliable
Stereotypes	X_2	0.896	18	Reliable
Merit	X_3	0.880	15	Reliable
Executive selection outcome	Y	0.803	18	Reliable

Table 4.1 shows the results for cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome as 0.831, 0.896, 0.880, 0.803 respectively. Based on the rule of thumb, all these scores were above 0.7, which means that the instruments used were reliable and therefore acceptable.

The first step in any formal research is specification of a model, either explicitly or implicitly. Data collected is then fitted to a defined model, which is then accepted or rejected based on whether they meet the set decision criteria. This kind of investigation in social research is also referred to as predictive testing (Basmann, 1965). Predictive research consists of fitting data into the defined model and testing that the results support the conclusions made. In this study R^2,F-statistic, t-statistic and P-value statistics were used to determine the goodness of fit of the selected statistical models. Analysis of goodness of fit has been discussed under inferential statistics.

4.3.2 Test for Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is a statistical phenomenon in which two or more predictor variables in a multiple regression model are highly correlated, meaning that one can be linearly predicted from the others with a good degree of accuracy. Multicollienarity can be measured by examining tolerance and the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) in regression analysis. A small tolerance value indicates that the variable under consideration is almost a perfect linear combination of the predictor variables already in the equation and that it should not be added to the regression equation. Multicollinearity does not reduce the predictive power or reliability of the model as a whole, at least within the sample data themselves, it only affects calculations regarding individual predictors.

A multiple regression model with correlated predictors can indicate how well the entire bundle of predictors predicts the outcome variable, but it may not give valid results about any individual predictor, or about which predictors are redundant with respect to others. As a general rule, a low tolerance value of less than 0.1 and a high VIF value of more than 2.5 should cause concern and call for further investigation. Table 4.2 shows the summary of tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF).

Table:4.2: Summary of Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factors

Regression variables	**Tolerance**	**VIF**
Cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome	1.0	1.0
Cultural beliefs and stereotypes	1.0	1.0
Stereotypes and executive selection outcome	1.0	1.0
Stereotypes merit and executive selection outcome	0.788	1.269
Cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome	0.726	1.377
Cultural beliefs stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome	0.611 0.682, 0.663	1.637 1.466 1.508

Table 4.2 shows the tolerance value ranged from 0.611 to a maximum of 1 and VIF value ranged between 1 and a maximum of 1.637, which shows that there were no multicollinearity concerns between predictor variables.

Another method used to test for multicollinearity between the predictor variables is Pearson Product Moment Correlation.

Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) is a measure of the strength and direction of a linear association between two variables and is denoted by (R). It shows the relationship and associations between predictor variables, which are used to detect the strength of association between pairs of variables, which is a measure of multicollinearity. Table 4.3 shows the result of 2-tailed Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test of all the three main predictor variables tested at 0.01 significance level.

Table 4.3: Results of Correlation test for multicolinearity

Variables	**Pearson correlation**	**Cultural beliefs** (X_1)	**Stereotypes** (X_2)	**Merit** (X_3)	**Executive selection Outcome** (Y)
Cultural beliefs (X_1)	Pearson Correlation	1			.
Stereotypes (X_2)	Pearson Correlation	.523**	1		
	Sig (2-tailed)	0.00			
Merit (X_3)	Pearson Correlation	.542**	.460**	1	.
	Sig(2-tailed)	0.000	0.001		
Executive selection outcome (Y)	Pearson Correlation	.531**	.227	.656**	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	0.000	0.124	0.000	

N=47. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to Kumar (1975), a strong correlation coefficient value between two predictor variables is an indication of existence of multicollinearity. In this case the values range between 0.227 and 0.656 once again showing that there is no multicollinearity between the predictor variables.

In linear regression analysis, Pearson product-moment correlation attempts to draw a line of best fit through the data of two variables being analysed. Pearson correlation coefficient (R), indicates how far all these data points are from the line of best fit. The Pearson correlation coefficient, "R", can take a range of values from +1 to -1. A value of 0 indicates that there is no relationship between the two variables. A value greater than 0 indicates a positive relationship; that is, as the value of one variable increases, so does the value of the other variable. A value less than 0 indicates a negative relationship; that is, as the value of one variable increases, the value of the other variable decreases.

According to Kumar (1975), the stronger the association of the two variables, the closer the Pearson correlation coefficient will be to either +1 or -1 depending on whether the relationship is positive or negative, respectively. Achieving a value of +1 or -1 means that all the data points are included on the line of best fit. Values for "R" between +1 and -1 (for example, R= 0.8 or -0.4) indicate that there is variation around the line of best fit. The closer the value of *"R"* to 0 the greater the variation around the line of best fit. The closer the correlation coefficient value is to 1 or -1 the stronger the correlation. On the other hand, the closer the correlation value is to zero, the weaker the correlation. According to the guidelines in table 4.4, the analysis on table 4.3 shows that there is no multicollinearity between the predictor variables.

Table 4.4: Guideline for interpretation of correlation Coefficient

Positive correlation	Negative correlation	Strength
0	0	No correlation
0.1 to 0.4	-0.1 to 0.4	Weak
0.5 to 0.6	-0.5 to -0.6	Moderate
0.7 to1.0	-0.7 to -1.0	Strong

Source: Laerd statistics website (www.https://statitics.com)

4.3.3 Test for Normality

To test for normality, the Kolmogrov-Smirnov and Shapiro test for normality was conducted. Table 4.5 shows a summary of normality test at 95% level of significance.

Table 4.5: Summary results of normality test

Variable	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk			Missing values	
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.	N	%
Cultural beliefs	.099	47	.200	.968	47	.216	N=47	0.0%
Stereotypes	.111	47	.191	.934	47	.011	N=47	0.0%
Merit	.102	47	.200	.968	47	.221	N=47	0.0%
Executive selection outcome	.088	47	.200	.991	47	.966	N=47	0.0%

From the table the P-value of X1,X2,X3 and Y is greater 0.01, which shows that the data collected for cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome is normally distributed.

4.3.4 Test for homogeneity

To test for homogeneity, analysis of variance was used. Table 4.6 and 4.7 shows the results of Levene's and ANOVA test for homogeneity.

Table 4.6: Results of Levene's test for homogeneity

Levene's Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4.964	13	18	.001

Table 4.7: ANOVA test for homogeneity

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.382	28	.157	1.291	.290
Within Groups	2.182	18	.121		
Total	6.565	46			

Table 4.6 shows levene's statistic of 4.964 and a P-value less than 0.01. Assuming the hypothesis is that there is significant difference in sample variances, this means that the difference in variances in the sample is not significant and that the sample is homogeneous. Table 4.7 shows the P-value of more than 0.01 and F-value of 1.291, which also shows that the difference is sample variances is not significant and that the data collected from the sample is homogeneous.

4.4 General information

This section shows the findings of general information derived from descriptive statistics. In this section, the researcher provides the quantitative description of the

data collected and the findings of descriptive statistics, mainly means and standard deviations. All the mean scores indicated are out of 5.0.

4.4.1 Gender distribution of respondents

Table 4.8 shows the distribution of respondents by gender.

Table 4.8: Gender of respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	18	38.3
Male	29	61.7
Total	47	100.0

Table 4.8 shows that 61.7% of the respondents were males and 38.3% of respondents were females, which, indicates that senior executive positions are generally dominated by males.

4.4.2 Age profile of respondents

Table 4.9 shows the distribution of age profile of the respondents. It shows that 59.6% fell in the 35-45 age bracket, 31.9% were over 45 years and 6.4% were between 28-35 age bracket. These results show that the executive level is dominated by fairly young people.

Table 4.9: Distribution of age profile of respondents (in years)

Age	Frequency	Percent
Below 28	1	2.1
28-35	3	6.4
35-45	28	59.6
Over 45	15	31.9
Total	47	100.0

4.4.3 Number of employees in the organization

Table 4.10 shows the size by number of employees in the respondent organizations.

Table 4.10: Number of Employees

Employees	Frequency	Percent
Less than 100	11	23.4
101-250	3	6.4
Over 250	33	70.2
Total	47	100.0

The results show that 70.2% of organizations which responded were fairly large with had over 250 employees. 6.4% of the respondent organizations had between 102-250 employees and 23.4% had less than 100 employees.

4.4.4 Cultural beliefs

Tables 4.11 and 4.12 shows the responses to questions on cultural beliefs. The grand mean of cultural beliefs at organizational level is 3.3 and that at national level is 2.8. The combined grand mean for cultural beliefs was obtained by adding the grand

means of cultural beliefs at organizational level and national level and dividing by two, giving a combined grand mean of 3.0, shown in Table 2.5a in Appendix III which shows an existence of moderate cultural beliefs.

4.4.4.1 Cultural beliefs at Organizational level

Respondents were asked fourteen questions relating to cultural beliefs at organizational level. Table 4.11 shows the responses to each of the questions.

Table 4.11: Cultural beliefs at organizational level

Cultural beliefs at organizational level	**Mean**	**Std. deviation**
We believe that male and female executives have equal ability at executive level	3.91	1.039
We believe that male and female executives perform equally well as senior executives	3.98	1.113
This firm has a gender diversity policy	3.60	1.439
We observe gender diversity when appointing executives	3.34	1.340
Female executives are given equal opportunities as male executives	3.81	1.329
This organization believes in gender diversity	3.81	1.262
There are certain roles that are specifically performed by males	2.23	1.289
There are certain roles that specifically performed by females	2.02	1.207
Men and women are equally represented in senior executive positions	2.66	1.340
We have an equal opportunity policy	4.00	1.234
We practice diversity policy when selecting senior executives	3.47	1.316

We adhere to ethnic diversity policy when making executive appointments	2.96	1.367
We have a system to monitor and take action against any form of discrimination	3.47	1.412
In Kenya males are considered culturally more superior to women	3.11	1.220
N= 47 Grand mean	**3.3**	

The Table 4.11 shows that cultural beliefs have grand mean of 3.3 out of 5.0, which indicates moderate cultural beliefs at organizational level. Specifically when asked about whether the organization has an equal opportunity policy, the mean score of this response 4.0 and a standard error of 1.234, which shows that most organizations, have an equal opportunity policy. Equal opportunity policy stipulates that all people should be treated equally, unhampered by artificial barriers or prejudices or preferences.

The purpose of an equal opportunity policy is to remove arbitrariness from the selection process and base it on some pre-determined basis of fairness, with the assessment process being related to the type of position, and emphasizing procedural means. With an equal opportunity policy, individuals are selected based on their own characteristics and abilities, and not on extraneous circumstances such as gender, ethnicity or connections. A mean score of 3.98 and a standard deviation of 1.113, shows most respondents believe that male and female executives perform equally well at senior executive level. The mean score to the question if there are certain roles that are specifically performed by males is 2.02 and standard of deviation of 1.207, which means that at organizational level, there are no roles that are performed by males only.

4.4.4.2 Cultural beliefs at National level

Respondents were asked thirteen questions relating to cultural beliefs at national level. Table 4.12 shows the responses on cultural beliefs at national level.

Table 4.12: Cultural beliefs at National level

Cultural beliefs at National level	Mean	Std. Deviation
In Kenya males are considered culturally more superior to women	3.11	1.220
When selecting executives it is easier for a male candidate to be considered than a female	2.55	1.316
People in this country still largely believe that males make better executives than women	2.94	1.187
Culturally, females are believed to be the same as males	1.87	.850
Culturally the Kenyan society is open to having women occupy senior executive roles	2.72	1.036
Kenya is an ethnically diverse country	3.94	1.309
There is a good degree of ethnic tolerance among various ethnic groups	2.52	1.027
In Kenya some ethnic groups are considered superior to others	3.06	1.325
In Kenya there are laws against ethnic discrimination	3.15	1.383
There are systems to monitor and take action against any form of ethnic discrimination	2.55	1.265
There are laws against any form of discrimination	3.36	1.390

There are systems that monitor and take action against any form of discrimination	2.55	1.396
Diversity laws are practiced when selecting at appointing executives at national level	2.45	1.299
N=47 Grand mean	**2.8**	

Table 4.12 shows a grand mean of 2.8 out of five indicates the existence of moderate cultural beliefs at national level. Asked whether they believe that Kenya is an ethnically diverse country, the mean of 3.94 and standard deviation of 1.309, which indicates that, they believe Kenya is an ethnically diverse country. When asked if there are some ethnic groups that are considered superior to others, the mean was 3.06 and standard deviation of 1.325 shows that there are some ethnic groups that are considered more superior than others. When asked whether they believed that males and females were the same, a mean of 1.87 and standard deviation of 0.850 indicates that respondents did not agree with this statement.

4.4.5 Stereotypes

The combined grand mean of stereotypes was obtained by adding the grand mean of gender stereotypes and that of ethnic stereotypes, giving a combined grand mean of 3.775, which is shown on table 2.5b in Appendix III.

4.4.5.1 Gender Stereotypes

Respondents were asked questions relating to gender stereotypes. Table 4.13 shows responses to questions relating to gender stereotypes.

Table: 4.13: Gender stereotypes

Gender stereotypes	Mean	Std. Deviation
Women are believed to have the ability to occupy senior executive positions	4.00	1.022
Male executives are believed to make better executives	3.49	1.231
Female executives are perceived to be less competitive compared to the Male	3.79	1.141
Females are believed to perform better in executive positions	3.70	.976
Male and Female executives in the same job group receive equal benefits	4.00	1.142
Male and Female executives receive equal benefits for equal job done	4.06	1.205
Incidents of discrimination against women has been reported	4.21	.954
Male executives have strong negative stereotypes against Female executives	3.91	1.158
Female executives have strong negative stereotypes against fellow Female executives	3.91	1.100
Male executives have strong negative stereotypes against fellow Male executives	3.94	1.071
Females and Males have equal chances of being promoted	3.98	1.125

If you are Male, you are more likely to be promoted to senior executive positions	3.74	1.359
If you are Female, you are more likely to be promoted to senior executive positions	4.09	.929
Female executives are believed to be less ambitious than their Male counterparts	2.23	1.202
N=47 **Grand mean**	**3.78**	

A grand mean of 3.78 indicates the existence of very strong gender stereotypes. When asked if they believe that women have the ability to occupy senior executive roles, a mean of 4.0 and standard deviation of 1.022 indicates that, respondents believe that women can occupy senior executive positions. When asked if they believe that males make better executives, a mean of 3.49 and standard deviation 1.231 shows that respondents believe that males make better executives than females. When asked if there has been incidences female discrimination when selecting executives a mean of 4.21 and standard deviation of 0.954 indicates strong agreement with the statement that, there has been discrimination against women.

Gender stereotypes and roles can also be supported implicitly. Implicit stereotypes are the unconscious influence of attitudes a person may or may not be aware that they hold. A person is influenced by these attitudes even though they are not aware. Gender stereotypes can also be held in this manner. One example of an implicit gender stereotype is that males are seen as better at certain roles than are females. It has been found that men have stronger positive associations with executive roles than do women. Women on the other hand have stronger negative associations with

executive roles. When respondents were asked if males executives have strong negative stereotype on women executives a mean value 3.91 and standard deviation of 1.158 shows they agree with this statement. A mean value of 3.91 and standard deviation of 1.100 confirms that female executives have strong negative stereotypes against fellow women executive.

4.4.5.2 Ethnic stereotypes

Respondents were asked four questions relating to ethnic stereotypes. Table 4.14 shows responses to questions relating to ethnic stereotypes.

Table 4.14: Ethnic stereotypes

Ethnic stereotypes	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
All employees of different ethnic origins are perceived to have the ability to occupy executive positions	3.68	1.337
There have been incidents of ethnic discrimination when it comes to executive appointments in this organization	3.70	1.382
You stand a higher chance of being promoted to executive position if you come from the same ethnic group ethnic group as recruiting executive	3.79	1.366
Ethnicity is considered above merit when it comes to promotion to executive positions	3.91	1.365
N=47 Grand mean	**3.77**	

A grand mean of 3.77 shows the existence of strong ethnic stereotypes. When respondents were asked if there has been incidences of ethnic discrimination when it comes to executive selection a mean of 3.70 and standard deviation of 1.382 shows that there has been incidences of ethnic discrimination. Ethnic stereotype is a fixed, over generalized belief about a particular group or class of people (Cardwell, 1996). One advantage of a stereotype is that it enables us to respond rapidly to situations because we may have had a similar experience before. One disadvantage is that it makes us ignore differences between individuals; therefore we make generalizations and think things about people that might not be true. Both gender and ethnic stereotypes have a combined grand mean of 3.7, which shows a strong existence of stereotypes.

4.4.6 Selection Merit

Respondents were asked to respond to questions on merit, divided into three sections namely, qualifications and experience, knowledge and skills and behavioural competencies. Table 2.5c shows the combined grand mean was obtained by adding each of the grand means of qualifications and experience, knowledge and skills and behavioural competencies. It shows the combined grand mean of 3.95 , indicating a strong reliance on merit when selecting executives.

4.4.6.1 Qualifications and experience

Respondents were asked five questions relating to qualification and experience. Specifically they were asked to rate the items they give greatest weight to, when selecting executives. A grand mean of 3.88 shows a strong reliance on qualification

and experience in the executive selection process. Table 4.15 shows the responses on the questions relating to qualifications and experience.

Table: 4.15: Qualifications and experience

Qualification and experience	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Past relevant Experience	4.45	.717
Professional Qualifications	4.11	1.026
Basic University Degree (bachelors	3.91	1.080
International Experience	3.48	1.278
Post Graduate Education/training	3.45	1.157
N=47 Grand mean	**3.88**	

When the respondents were asked to rate the aspects they give greatest weight to when selecting executives, Table 4.15 shows that past relevant experience has mean of 4.45 and standard deviation of 0.717, which indicates a very strong reliance on past relevant qualifications and experience. This is followed by professional qualifications, with a means score 4.11 and standard deviation of 1.026, then basic university degree with mean score 3.91 and standard deviation of 1.080 and lastly post graduate education and training with a mean score of 3.45 and standard deviation of 1.157

These findings are in line the findings of the study by Sessa et. al (1998). When examining what works and does not work in executive selection, they found that, for internal candidates, candidates were selected because of their track record, if they are

well known in the industry and their knowledge of business in that order. External candidates on the other hand were hired because of their business knowledge, interpersonal skills and Technical knowledge. What is common in both studies is that past experience (track record), is on top of the list.

4.4.6.2 Knowledge and skills

Respondents were asked to rate five items on knowledge and skills according to the weight they give when selecting executives.

Table 4.16 shows responses to questions relating to knowledge and skills.

Table 4.16: Knowledge and skills

Knowledge and skills	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Unique skills (E.g. restructuring organizations	3.81	.825
Special abilities (E.g. transforming organizations	4.11	.866
Future potential of the candidate	3.72	.971
Technical knowledge	3.96	.955
People Management Skills	4.34	.891
General Business knowledge	4.17	.789
N= 47 Grand mean	**4.0**	

Table 4.16 shows a grand mean of 4.0 shows a strong focus on knowledge and skills when selecting executives. It indicates that, organizations give greatest weight to people management skills which has a mean of 4.34 and standard deviation 0.891. This is followed by general business knowledge has a mean of 4.17 and standard deviation of 0.789, special abilities with a mean of 4.11 and standard deviation of 0.866.

People management skills involves the ability to design and implement strategies that maximize employee potential and foster high ethical standards in meeting the organization's vision, mission and goals. General business knowledge involves the ability to acquire and administer business information and resources in a manner which accomplishes the objectives of the organization and enhance business decision making.

4.4.6.4 Behavioural competencies

Respondents were also asked to rate four behavioural skills according to the weight they give when selecting executives. Table 4.17 shows the results of responses on questions relating to behavioural competencies.

Table 4.17: Behavioural competencies

Behavioural competencies	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Candidate's personality profile	3.79	.999
Candidate's character	3.83	1.148
Candidate's values	4.11	1.088
Candidate's leadership skills	4.19	.992
N=47 Grand mean	**3.98**	

Table 4.17 shows behavioural competencies has a grand mean of 3.98, indicating a strong focus on behavioural competencies. The candidate's leadership skills has a mean of 4.19 and standard deviation of 0.992, indicating a very strong consideration of candidate's leadership skills when making executive selection decisions. This is followed by values, which has a mean score of 4.11 and standard deviation of 1.088 then character with, a mean score of 3.83 and standard deviation of 1.148. Although

personality profile is the least, it is still fairly strong with a mean score of 3.79 and standard deviation of 0.999, which shows strong consideration for candidate's personality profile.

When hiring executive organization go beyond knowledge and abilities and examine the executive behaviour as well. Executive behaviour is determined by executive personality character and values. There is need to align individual values with those of the organization. When recruiting executives the behaviour that is given greatest weight is leadership skills. Leadership behavioural competencies refer to skills and behaviours that contribute to superior executive performance and effectiveness. While some leadership competencies are essential to all firms, each organization defines leadership attributes that are distinctive to the success of that particular organization.

4.4.7 Executive Selection Outcome

Respondents were asked to respond to questions relating to executive selection outcome divided into three sections, namely fit between candidate attributes, length of engagement and executive performance. The combined mean for executive selection outcome was obtained by adding the grand means of fit between candidate attributes and job requirement, length of engagement and executive performance, which gave a combined grand mean of 3.09, shown in Table 2.5d in Appendix III, shows a moderate executive selection outcome.

4.4.7.1 Fit between candidate attributes and job requirements

Respondents were asked six questions relating to fit between candidate attributes and job requirements. Table 4.18 shows the results of questions relating to fit between candidate attributes and job requirements.

Table 4.18: Fit between candidate attributes and job requirements

Candidate attributes and job requirements	Mean	Std. Deviation
The selected candidates have the required behavioural skills for the job	3.83	.916
The selected candidates have the technical skills for the job	3.96	1.042
The selected candidates have the necessary knowledge for the job	3.94	1.111
The selected candidates have the necessary experience for the job	3.85	1.215
The selected candidates do not meet the job requirements	1.57	.950
The selected candidates usually require further development to meet the job requirements	1.96	1.141
N=47 Grand mean	**3.81**	

A grand mean of 3.81 shows a strong fit between selected candidates' attribute and job requirements. Fit between an executive and job requirements was measured using several dimensions. These include the extent to which the selected candidate meets the behavioural, technical, job knowledge and experience for the job.

When asked if the selected candidates have the necessary knowledge for the job, this question had a mean score of 3.94 and standard deviation of 1.111, which indicates a strong agreement that the selected candidates have the necessary experience for the job. . A mean score of 3.96 and standard deviation of 1.042 shows that selected candidates have the necessary technical skills for the job. When asked whether the selected candidates usually required further development to meet job requirements, a mean score of 1.96 and standard deviation of 1.141 indicates that the selected candidates do not usually require development to meet the job requirements.

4.4.7.2 Length of engagement

Respondents were asked eight questions relating to length of engagement. Table 4.19 shows the results to questions related to this question.

Table 4.19: Length of engagement

Length of engagement	Mean	Std. Deviation
Candidates normally successfully complete their probation period	4.00	.885
Candidates normally get confirmed after their probation period	3.87	1.076
Candidates are normally not confirmed at the end of probation period	1.55	1.080
Candidates normally leave within 12 months of their appointment	1.53	.952
Candidates normally last within 1 to 2 years of appointment	2.32	1.235

Candidates normally stay for more than 3 years on the job	3.55	1.194
There is a high turnover in our executive positions	1.79	1.197
The turnover in our executive positions is very low	3.19	1.597
N=47 Grand mean	**2.7**	

A grand mean of 2.7 shows that selected candidates normally stay long enough in the organizations. Length of engagement also is a measure of the period that executive stays with the organization. Although studies have shown that there are many reason why executives leave organization, it is a measure of a successful recruitment outcome. To the question on whether the selected candidates normally successfully complete their probation period, Table 4.19 shows a means score of 4.00 and standard deviation of 0.885, which indicates that selected candidates normally successfully complete their probation period. The question on whether the newly appointed executives get confirmed in their new role, had a mean of 3.87 and a standard deviation, which indicates that newly appointed executives are normally confirmed on their new role. A mean score of 3.55 and standard deviation of 1.194 shows that selected executives stay with the organizations for more than 3 years.

4.4.7.3 Executive performance

Respondents were asked four questions relating to executive performance. Table 4.20 shows the results of responses relating to performance.

Table 4.20: Executive Performance

Executive performance	Mean	Std. Deviation
Selected candidates meet the performance expectations of the Job	3.70	.976
Selected candidates perform above expectations on the job	3.30	1.061
Selected candidates perform below expectations on the job	1.51	1.040
selected candidates normally require further training and development to meet	2.55	1.316
N=47 Grand mean	**2.76**	

A grand mean of 2.76 out of 5 shows that the selected candidates usually meet performance expectations of the organizations. It is assumed that organizations only keep those executives that meet or exceed their performance expectations as agreed in the performance contracts. Executive performance is therefore used as a measure of executive selection outcome. Table 4.20 shows that selected candidates usually meet performance standards for the job, with a mean score of 3.70 and standard deviation of 0.976. The statement that selected candidates perform above expectations had a mean score of 3.30 out of 5 and standard deviation of 1.061 which means that they normally exceed performance expectations.

4.5 Test of Relationships

This section deals with tests of the research hypotheses, findings and discussions of the findings arising from the data analysis. In this section inferential statistical was used to test the hypotheses, using regression analysis. Cultural beliefs being the

independent variable, stereotypes the intervening variable, selection merit the moderating variable and Executive selection outcome the dependent variable, the variables were represented by symbols as follows:

Cultural beliefs = X_1

Stereotypes = X_2

Selection Merit = X_3

Executive selection Outcome = Y

While B_0,B_1, B_2 and B_3 represent the Beta Coefficients of predictor variables.

Inferential statistics is concerned with making predictions or inferences about a population from observations and analyses of a sample. That is, we can take the results of an analysis using a sample and can generalize it to the larger population that the sample represents (Wonnacott and Wonnacott, 1990). In order to do this, however, it is imperative that the sample is representative of the group to which it is being generalized. Tests of significance is further used to address the issue of generalization. Tests of significance tell us the probability that the results of our analysis on the sample are representative of the population that the sample represents. In other words, these tests of significance tell us the probability that the results of the analysis could have occurred by chance when there is no relationship at all between the variables studied in the population. In this study, P-value and T-test was used to test for significance.

The overall objective of the study was to examine the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome. It further sought to establish the relationship

between cultural beliefs and stereotypes and the intervening effect of stereotypes in the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome and the moderating effect of merit in this relationship. Finally the study also sought to establish the combined effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit on executive selection outcome. Inferential statistics was used to analyze data from the sample drawn from the population study in the context of the study hypothesis. The outputs were interpreted and discussed in a later part of this section. Linear regression and correlation techniques were used to analyze the data on SPSS version 20. Stepwise regression was used where multiple variables were involved.

4.5.1 Cultural beliefs and Executive Selection Outcome

Hypothesis 1 states that, cultural beliefs have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.

In order to test for hypothesis one, cultural beliefs was conceptualized as a function of beliefs on equity, beliefs on gender roles, and beliefs on diversity at two tow levels. These levels are organizational level and national level. Executive selection outcome on the other hand was conceptualized as a function of job fit between candidate attributes and job requirements, length of engagement and candidate's performance on the job. Table 4.21 shows that the beta coefficient of executive cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome is 0.531, which shows that there is there is no multicollinearity between the test variables. Hypothesis 1 was tested using linear regression analysis. Tables 4.21, 4.22 and 4.23 show the results of linear regression of cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome.

Table 4.21: Regression of Cultural beliefs and Executive selection outcome

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.531	.282	.266	.32363	.282	17.681	1	45	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural beliefs. b. Dependent Variable: Executive Selection Outcome

Table 4.22: ANOVA for Cultural beliefs and Executive Selection Outcome

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1.852	1	1.852	17.681	.000
Residual	4.713	45	.105		
Total	6.565	46			

Dependent Variable: Executive selection outcome. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural beliefs.

Table 4.23: Coefficients of Cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome

Model	Dimension	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	0.01 Confidence Interval		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.749	.275		6.366	.000	1.196	2.303		
	Cultural beleifs	.370	.088	.531	4.205	.000	.193	.547	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Y

Tables 4.21, 4.22 and 4.23 show the values of R^2, P,F, β_1 and t were as follows: of R^2=0.282, P<0.01, F=17.681, β_1=0.531 and t=6.366. R-squared value of 0.282 show that 28.2% of variance is explained by the model. Beta coefficient of 0.531 shows that a unit change in cultural beliefs accounts for 53.1% change in executive selection outcome. The tolerance and VIF values were both 1.0, which indicates that there was no multicollinearity between the predictor variables. P value was less than 0.01, which means the model was statistically significant hence the Hypothesis (H_1) was accepted, that is there is a positive relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome. An F value of 17.681 shows that the model was appropriate. The model was fitted onto to the linear regression equation model of the form:

Y=B_0 + B_1X_1 + e and it fitted as follows:

Y= 1.749 + 0.531X_1+e

Figure 5.1 in Appendix II shows a scatter plot of regression of values from the regression of cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome, the plot shows a positive linear relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome.

According to Tague (2004), scatter plots are used to plot data points on a horizontal and a vertical axis in an attempt to show how much one variable is affected by another. Each row in the data table is represented by a variable, whose position depends on its values in the columns set on the X- and Y-axes. Additional values can be set to correspond to the variables selected, thus adding dimensions to the plot. If the values corresponding to the variables are close to making a straight line in the scatter plot, the two variables are said to have a high correlation. If the values on the other hand are equally distributed in the scatter plot, the correlation is said to be low, or zero. A line of best fit through the plots shows that the two variables are highly and positively correlated; this means that an increase in cultural beliefs causes an increase in the executive selection outcome.

4.5.2 Cultural Beliefs and Stereotypes

Hypothesis 2 states that, cultural beliefs have a significant influence on stereotypes.

Cultural beliefs was operationalized in three dimensions namely beliefs in equal opportunity, beliefs on gender roles and beliefs on diversity. These dimensions were examined at two levels: organizational and national levels. Stereotypes were also examined in two broad dimensions namely gender and ethnic dimensions. Each of these dimensions were further considered in three sub dimensions namely: perception

of ability, discrimination and promotability. This hypothesis was tested using a linear regression analysis.

Tables 4.24, 4.25, and 4.26 shows the values of R^2, P,F, β_1 and t as follows:

R^2=0.274, P<0.01,F=16.975, β=0.523 and t=4.120, P<0.01.

Table 4.24: Relationship between cultural beliefs and stereotypes

Model	Dimensions	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
						R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	Constant Cultural beliefs	.523	.274	.258	.61666	.274	16.975	1	45	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural beliefs b. Dependent variable: Stereotypes										

Table 4.25: ANOVA of Cultural beliefs and stereotypes

Model	Dimensions	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.455	1	6.455	16.975	.000
	Residual	17.112	45	.380		
	Total	23.567	46			
a. Dependent Variable: stereotypes. B. Predictors (Constant), cultural beliefs						

Table 4.26: Coefficients of cultural beliefs and stereotypes

Model	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	0.01 Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	Constant	1.659	.524		3.169	.003	.605	2.714		
	Cultural beliefs	.690	.168	.523	4.120	.000	.353	1.028	1.000	1.000
a. Dependent Variable: stereotypes										

R-square value of .274 show that 27.4% in variance is accounted for by the model. A Beta coefficient of 0.523 shows that a unit change in cultural beliefs results in 52.3% change in stereotypes. The tolerance and VIF values are both 1.0 respectively, which shows that there is no multicollinearity between the test variables. P<0.01 means that cultural beliefs influence stereotypes, and that the relationship between the two variables statistically significant. As a result, the hypothesis (H_2) is accepted, that is cultural beliefs influences stereotypes. An F-value of 16.975 and t=4.120 shows that the model is appropriate, the variables were fitted in the regression model of the form:

$X_2 = B_0 + B_1X_1 + e$ and it fitted as follows:

$$X_2 = 1.659 + 0.523X_1 + e$$

Figure 5.2 in Appendix II shows a plot of the values of cultural beliefs and stereotypes. A line of best fit through the points shows that there is a positive linear relationship between cultural beliefs and stereotypes.

4.5.3 Stereotypes and Executive Selection outcome

Hypothesis 3 states that, stereotypes have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.

Stereotypes were operationalized in two main dimensions namely gender and ethnic stereotypes. Each of these dimensions were further considered as a function of perception of ability, discrimination and promotability. The hypothesis was tested using linear regression analysis. Tables 4.27,4.28, 4.29 show the values of $\boldsymbol{R^2}$, P, F, $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and t as follows: $\boldsymbol{R^2}$=0.052, P=0.124, F=2.454, $\boldsymbol{\beta}$=0.227, t=1.566,p<0.01.

Table 4.27: Relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome

Model	Dimensions	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
						R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	Constant Stereotypes	.227	.052	.031	.37194	.052	2.454	1	45	.124
Predictors: (Constant),Stereotypes. Dependent Variable : Executive selection outcome										

Table 4.28: Stereotypes and executive selection outcome ANOVA

Model	Dimensions	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.339	1	.339	2.454	.124
	Residual	6.225	45	.138		
	Total	6.565	46			
a. Dependent Variable: Executive selection outcome b. Predictors: (Constant), Stereotypes						

Table 4.29: Coefficients of stereotypes and executive selection outcome

Model	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	0.01 Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	Constant	2.433	.295		8.249	.000	1.839	3.028		
	Stereotypes	.120	.077	.227	1.566	.124	-.034	.274	1.000	1.000
Dependent Variable: Executive selection outcome										

R-square value of 0.052 show that on 5.2 % in variance is explained by the model. A beta coefficient value of 0.227 shows that a unit change in stereotypes results in 22.7% change in executive selection outcome. The tolerance and VIF values are both 1.0, which means there is no multicollinearity between the test variables. The value of P> 0.01, which shows that stereotypes has no influence in executive selection and that

the relationship between the stereotypes and executive selection outcome is not significant. As a result, hypothesis H_3 is rejected. An F-value of 2.454 and t-value of 1.566 indicates that the model was appropriate. The variables were fitted on the regression equation of the form:

Y= B_0 +B_2X_2 + e and it fitted as follows:

Y= 2.433+ 0.227X_2

Figure 5.3 in Appendix II shows the scatter plot of stereotypes and executive selection outcome. A plot of the values shows that there is no linear relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome**.**

4.5.4 Stereotypes, Merit and Executive Selection Outcome

Hypothesis 4 states that merit moderates the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome.

To test of this hypothesis, stereotypes was operationalized in two broad dimensions that is gender and ethnic level. These were further studies in three dimensions namely perception of ability, discrimination and promotability. Merit on the other hand was conceptualized in four dimensions, namely education and experience, knowledge and skills, and behavioural competencies. This hypothesis was tested using multiple linear stepwise regression analysis.

Stepwise regression involves regression models in which the choice of predictor variable is carried out by an automatic procedure. It was first proposed by Efroymson (1960) and has been used in regression analysis for model selection in cases where there is a large number of potential explanatory variables.

The main approaches in stepwise regression include: forward selection, which involves starting with two variables in the model, testing the effect of addition of each variable using a chosen model comparison criterion, adding the variables one at a time and observing the effect of the addition to the model.

The other method is backward elimination, which involves starting with all candidate variables, testing the deletion of each variable using a chosen model comparison criterion, deleting the variable (if any) that improves the model. Bidirectional elimination on the other hand is a combination of the forward and backward method. Moderating variable is that variable which alters the relationship between two variables independent and dependent variable. Baron and Kenny (1986), proposed the following four steps in determining moderation effect:

Step 1: Establish the relationship between the predictor variable $\boldsymbol{X_2}$ and dependent variable Y.

Step 2: Determine the relationship of predictor variable ($\boldsymbol{X_1}$) moderator (X_2) combined and the dependent variable Y.

Step 3: Create a dummy variable (IE) representing an interaction term. The interaction term (IE) is of the product of standardized predictor variable and standardized moderator variable.

Then run a regression analysis of standardized predictor variable, moderator, Interaction term (IE) and dependent variable and observe the significant effect of this interaction term as well as changes in P=value and $\boldsymbol{R^2}$.

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), if the relationship of the predictor variable, moderator variable, interaction term and dependent variable is not significant, then complete moderation has occurred. If on the other hand, the predictor variable, moderator and interaction term are significant, then moderation has occurred, however the main effects of interaction term are also significant. For ease of reference, the results of stepwise regression analysis have been summarised on Table 4.30 and have been referred to in the test of hypothesis 4 and also referred to in the test of hypothesis 5 and 6. In Table 4.26, $\boldsymbol{\beta_1}, \boldsymbol{\beta_2}, \boldsymbol{\beta_3}, \boldsymbol{\beta_{IE}}$ represent Beta coefficient values for cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and Interaction term respectively, while $\boldsymbol{t_1}, \boldsymbol{t_2}, \boldsymbol{t_3}$ and $\boldsymbol{t_{IE}}$ are t-statistic for cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and Interaction term (IE) respectively.

Table 4.30 Summary of regression results of stepwise regression analysis

Regression	**R**	R^2	**P Value**	**F**	β	**t**	**Finding**
Cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome.	0.531	0.282	P<0.01	17.681	0.531	4.205	Cultural beliefs have an influence on executive selection outcome.
Cultural beliefs and stereotypes.	0.523	0.274	P<0.01	16.975	0.523	4.120	There is a relationship between cultural beliefs and stereotypes.
Cultural beliefs, Stereotypes and executive selection outcome.	0.534	0.286	P<0.01	8.795	β_1=0.568 β_2=-0.070	t_1=3.795 t_2=-0.466	Cultural beliefs and stereotypes together have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.
Stereotypes and executive selection outcome.	0.227	0.052	P=0.124	2.454	0.227	1.566	Stereotypes have no direct influence on executive selection outcome.
Stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome.	0.437	0.437	P<0.01	17.01	β_1=-0.94 β_2=0.699	t_1= -0.741 t_2=5.492	Stereotypes and merit together have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.
Cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and	0.710	0.504	P<0.01	14.544	β_1=0.329 β_2=	t_1=2.396 t_2=-1.606	Cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit together have a significant

Regression	**R**	R^2	**P Value**	**F**	β	**t**	**Finding**
executive selection outcome.					-0.209 β_3=0.573	t_3=4.346	influence on executive selection outcome.
Cultural beliefs and merit.	0.542	0.294	P<0.01	18.748	0.542	4.332	Cultural beliefs a has a significant influence on merit.
Stereotypes and merit.	0.460	0.212	P,0.01	12.085	0.460	5.840	Stereotypes have a significant influence on merit.
Merit and executive selection outcome.	0.656	0.430	P<0.01	33.993	0.656	5.830	Merit has a significant influence on executive selection outcome.
Stereotypes, merit and Interaction term (IE).	0.697	0.485	P<0.01	13.516	β_2=-1.692 β_3=-0.535 β_{IE}=2.437	t_2= -2.095 t_3= -0.851 t_{IE}= 2.002	Stereotypes, merit and Interaction term (IE) together have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.

Step 1: This step involves regression of stereotypes and executive selection outcome. The results of this regression is shown on tables 4.27, 4.28, 4.29 and the summary on table 4.30. The values are shown as $\boldsymbol{R^2}$=0.052, P=0.124, F=2.454, $\boldsymbol{\beta}$=0.227 and t=1.566. R-square value of 0.052 show that only 5.2% of variance is explained by the model. A beta coefficient of 0.227 shows that a unit change in stereotypes results in 22.7% change in executive selection outcome. An F-value of 2.454 and t=1.566 shows that the model is appropriate.The tolerance and VIF values were both 1.0 meaning there was no multicollineariy between the predictor variables. P> 0.01 means that stereotypes has no direct influence on executive selection outcome and that the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome is not significant.

Step 2: This step involves the regression of stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome. The result of this regression is the result shown in Tables 4.31, 4.32, 4.33 and summarised on Table 4.30.

Table 4.31: Relationship between stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome

Model	Dimensions	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
						R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	Constant Stereotypes and Merit	.661	.437	.412	.28973	.437	17.101	2	44	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), Merit, Stereotypes. B. Dependent variable :Executive selection outcome.										

Table 4.32: ANOVA of Stereotypes, Merit and Executive Selection Outcome

Model	Dimensions	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.871	2	1.436	17.101	.000
	Residual	3.694	44	.084		
	Total	6.565	46			
a. Dependent Variable: Executive selection outcome .b. Predictors: (Constant), Merit, Stereotypes						

Table 4.33: Coefficients of stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome

Model	Dimensions	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	0.01 Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	Constant	1.333	.305		4.374	.000	.719	1.948		
	Stereotypes (X_2)	-.050	.067	-.094	-.741	.462	-.185	.086	.788	1.269
	Merit (X_3)	.440	.080	.699	5.492	.000	.278	.601	.788	1.269

a. Dependent Variable: Executive selection outcome

Tables 4.31,4.32 and 4.33 show the values of R^2, P, F, t and β_2 and β_3 as follows:

R^2=0.437, P<0.01, F=17.101, t= -0.741 and 5.492 for stereotypes and merit respectively and β_2 = -0.094 and β_3=0.699 for stereotypes and merit respectively. R-

squared value of 0.437 show that 43.7% of variance is explained by the model. Stereotypes has a beta coefficient –0.094, which means that a unit change stereotypes results in -9.4% in executive selection outcome. Similarly, merit has a beta coefficient of 0.699, which means a unit change in merit results in 66.9% change executive selection outcome. The value of P is less than 0.01, which means a combination of stereotypes and merit together have an influence on executive selection outcome and that the relationship between stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome is significant. The values of tolerance and VIF were observed to be 0.788 and 1.269 respectively, which shows that there was no multicollinearity between the predictor variables. In this case merit reversed the nature of relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome. An F-value of 17.101 and t=-0.741 shows that the model is appropriate.

The variables were fitted on to the regression equation of the model:

$$Y= B_0 + B_2X_2 + B_3X_3 \text{ and fitted as follows:}$$

$$Y= 1.333 - 0.94X_2 + 0.699X_3 + e$$

Step 4: This step involves introducing the interaction term (IE) in the relationship between stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome. Tables 4.34, 4.35 and 4.36 and the summary on summarised on Table 4.30 show the regression of stereotypes, merit, executive selection outcome and the interaction term (IE).

Table 4.34: Regression of Stereotypes, Merit, Interaction term (IE) and Executive Selection Outcome

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.697	.485	.449	.28031	.485	13.516	3	43	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), Interaction Term (IE), Stereotypes, Merit									

Table 4.35: ANOVA of Stereotypes, Merit, Interaction term and Executive Selection Outcome

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.186	3	1.062	13.516	.000
	Residual	3.379	43	.079		
	Total	6.565	46			
a. Dependent Variable: Y. b. Predictors: (Constant), Interaction Term (IE), Stereotypes, Merit						

Table 4.36: Coefficients of Stereotypes, Merit, Interaction term and Executive Selection Outcome

Model	Dimensions	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.846	.046		62.025	.000		
	Merit	.479	.080	.761	5.992	.000	.742	1.347
	Stereotypes	-.040	.065	-.076	-.612	.544	.784	1.276
	Interaction term (IE)	.215	.108	.231	2.002	.052	.902	1.108
a. Dependent Variable: Y								

Tables 4.34 4.35 and 4.36 show the values as: R^2=0.485, P<0.01, F=13.516, β_2=-0.76, β_3=-0.761 β_{IE}=0.231 and t_2= -0.612, t_3=-0.851 and t_{IE}=2.002. R-squared value of 0.485 show that 48.5% of variance is explained by the model. The beta coefficients of stereotypes, merit and interaction term (IE) show that a unit change stereotypes, merit and interaction term result in 76%,76.1% and 23.1% change in executive selection outcome respectively.

Tolerance values are 0.742, 0.784, and 0.902 for merit stereotypes and Interaction term (IE) respectively, while VIF values are 1.347, 1.276 and 1.108 respectively. The tolerance and VIF values show that there is no multicollinearity between the predictor variables. The P value is less than 0.01 which shows that stereotypes, merit and the interaction term (IE) have a significant influence on executive selection outcome and that their relationship is significant. An F-value of 13.516 and t-values of -0.612, 0.851 and 2.002 show that the model is appropriate. For ease of reference, the results of regression analysis showing the moderating effect is summarised in table 4.37.

Table 4.37: Summary of regression results showing the moderating effect of merit

Regression	R	R^2	P	F	β	T
Stereotypes and executive selection outcome	0.227	0.052	P=0.124	2.454	0.227	8.249
Stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome with Interactive effect	0.437	0.437	P<0.01	17.01	β_2=-0.094 β_3=0.699	t_2=-0.741 t_3=5.492
Stereotypes merit, Interaction Term and Executive Selection Outcome	0.697	0.485	P<0.01	13.516	β_2= -0.076 β_3=0.761 β_{IE}=0.231	t_2= -0.612 t_3= 5.992 t_{IE}= 2.002

Table 4.37 shows that the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome is not significant, (P>0.0). The addition of merit to the model reverses this relationship, the P< 0.01, which means the relationship is now significant. When the interaction term is added to the model, (P<0.01), which shows that the relationship is still significant. R^2 increases by 10% from 0.437 to 0.485. The F value decreases from 17.01 to 13.516. The P-value is still less than 0.01, which means the model is significant with the addition of interaction term(IE).

According the Baron and Kenny (1986), if the models are significant with and without the interaction term, it shows that moderation has occurred, however the effect of interaction term is also significant. In this case the predictor and moderators are significant with and without the interaction term, which shows that merit moderates the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome.

With the interaction term, the beta coefficient of stereotypes and merit change from -0.094 and 0.699 to -0.076 and 0.761, which means the influence of predictor variables on executive selection outcome became stronger . The F-values of 17.01 and 13.516 show that the both models are appropriate. The significant changes in beta coefficients of predictor variables and F value show that the main effects of interaction term (IE) is also significant. As a hypothesis H_4, is accepted, that is the merit moderates the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome.

4.5.5 Cultural Beliefs, Stereotypes and Executive Selection Outcome

Hypothesis 5 states that, stereotypes has an intervening effect on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome.

According to Efroymson (1960) stepwise regression is used to establish mediation effect. Baron and Kenny (1986), also proposed a four step process of determining mediation. These steps include:

Step 1: Establish the relationship between the causal variable X_1 with the dependent Y. This step establishes that there is an effect that may be mediated.

Step 2: Establish the relationship between the predictor variable X_1 and the mediating variable X_2.

Step 3: Establish the relationship the mediating variable X_2, and the dependent variable Y.

Step 4: Establish the relationship between the independent variable X_1, mediating variable X_2 dependent variable Y.

Mediation is established by observing changes in beta coefficient and F-values of predictor variables. Hypothesis 5 was tested using the four steps proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986).

Step 1: This step involves regression analysis of cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome was conducted as shown in Tables 4.21, 4.22 and 4.23 and the summary on Table 4.30. From these tables the values of of R^2, P, F, t and β_1 are observed and noted as follows:

R^2=0.282, P<0.01, F=17.681, t=4.205 and β=0.531. R-square value of 0.282 show that 28.2% of variance is explained by the model. A beta coefficient value of 0.531 shows that a unit change in cultural beliefs results in 53.1% change in executive selection outcome. An value of 17.681 and t-value of 4.205 shows that the model is appropriate. A value of P<0.01 show that cultural beliefs influence executive selection outcome and that the relationship is significant. The tolerance and VIF value was found to be 1.0 and 1.0 respectively, which means that there was no multicollinearity between the predictor variables.

Step 2: This step involved establishing the relationship cultural beliefs and stereotypes. Tables 4.24, 4.25, 4.26 and the summary on table 4.30 show the values of R^2, P,F, β_1 and t as follows: R^2=0.274, P<0.01, F=16.975, β=0.523, and t=4.120,P<0.01. R-square value of 0.274 shows that 27.4% of variance is explained by the model. A beta coefficient value of 0.523 show that a unit change in cultural beliefs result in 52.3% change in stereotypes. An F-value of 16.975 and t-value of 4.120 show that the model is appropriate.

The value of P was less than 0.01, which means there is a significant relationship between cultural beliefs and stereotypes and that this relationship is significant. The tolerance and VIF value was found to be 1.0 and 1.0 respectively, which means that there was no multicollinearity between the predictor variables.

Step 3: This step involves determining the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome. Tables 4.27, 4.28, 4.29 and the summary in Table 4.30 show the results of regression of stereotypes and executive selection outcome.R^2=0.052, P=0.124, F=2.454, β=0.227, t=1.566. An R-square value of 0.052 shows that only 5.2% of variance is explained by the model. An F-value of 2.454 and t-value of 1.566 show that the model is appropriate. Beta coefficient of 0.227 shows that a unit change in stereotypes result in 22.7% change in executive selection outcome. A P>0.01 shows that stereotypes do not have a direct influence on executive selection outcome and that the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome is not significant. The tolerance and VIF values were both 1.0 respectively, which shows that there is no multicollinearity between the predictor variables.

Step 4: This step involves regression of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome. The results of this regression are presented in Tables 4.38, 4.39, 4.40 and the summary in Table 4.41.

Table 4.38: Relationship between Cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome

Model	Dimensions	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
						R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	Constant Cultural beliefs and stereotypes	.534	.286	.253	.32648	.286	8.795	2	44	.001
a.Predictors: (Constant), Stereotypes, cultural beliefs. b. Dependent Variable: Executive selection outcome										

Table 4.39: ANOVA of Cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome

Model	Dimensions	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.875	2	.937	8.795	.001
	Residual	4.690	44	.107		
	Total	6.565	46			
Dependent Variable: Y. Predictors: (constant),Stereotypes and Cultural beliefs (X_2 and X_1)						

Table 4.40: Coefficients of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome

Model	Dimensions	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	0.01 Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.810	.307		5.905	.000	1.193	2.428		
	Cultural beliefs	.395	.104	.568	3.795	.000	.185	.605	.726	1.377
	Stereotypes	-.037	.079	-.070	-.466	.644	-.196	.122	.726	1.377
a. Dependent Variable: Executive Selection Outcome										

Tables 4.38, 4.39 and 4.40 show the values of R^2, P, F, t and β , as follows: R^2=0.286, P<0.01, F=8.795, t=3.795 and -0.466 for cultural beliefs and stereotypes respectively. and the values of beta coefficients of cultural beliefs and stereotypes observed as β_1=0.568 and β_2= -0.070 respectively. An R-square value of 0.286 shows that 28.6% of variance is explained by the model. Beta coefficient values of cultural beliefs and stereotypes of 0.568 and -0.070 respectively indicate that a unit change in cultural beliefs and stereotypes results in 56.8% and -7% change in executive selection outcome respectively. An F-value of 8.795 and t-values of 3.795 and -0.466 show that the model is appropriate. A P< 0.01 shows that cultural beliefs and stereotypes have a significant influence on executive selection outcome and that the relationship is significant.

The tolerance and VIF value of 0.726 and 1.377 respectively show that there is no multicollinearity between the test variables.

For ease of reference, the results of regression analysis showing the mediation effect of stereotypes is summarised in Table 4.41.

Table 4.41 : Summary of regression results of intervening effect of stereotypes on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome

Regression	R	R^2	P	F	β	T
Cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome	0.531	0.282	P<0.01	17.681	0.531	4.205
Cultural beliefs and stereotypes	0.523	0.274	P<0.01	16.975	0.523	4.120
Stereotypes and Executive selection outcome	0.227	0.052	P=0.124	2.454	0.227	1.566
Cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome	0.534	0.286	P<0.01	8.795	β_1=0.568 β_2=-0.070	t_1=3.795 t_2=-0.466

Table 4.41 shows that, cultural beliefs have a significant influence on executive selection outcome, and that cultural beliefs influence stereotypes. We also see that stereotypes on their own do not have any relationship with executive selection

outcome. The introduction of stereotypes significantly reduces the F-value from 17.681 to 8.75, while the values of R^2 only changes marginally from 0.282 to 0.286.

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), for a perfect mediation or intervening effect to exist, all the four steps must be met. These steps involve showing that there is a relationship between the independent variable (X_1) and the dependent variable (Y), next that there is a relationship between the independent variable (X_1) and the intervening (X_2) variable and that there should not be relationship between the intervening variable (X_2) and the dependent variable (Y) and lastly that the coefficient of predictor variables should be reduced to zero. If only some of the steps are met, then the mediation effect is only partial. They further argue that perfect mediation does not always occur.

Table 4.41 shows that there is a relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome, a relationship between cultural beliefs and stereotypes, and there is no relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome. The analysis also show that there is a relationship between the combination of cultural beliefs and stereotypes with executive selection outcome. The R-square value changes from 0.282 to 0.286, which is insignificant. The beta coefficient of predictor variables (-0.070 and 0.568 for stereotypes and executive selection outcome) are not both reduced to zero. The four conditions are only partially met, which indicates that there is partial mediation.

There are significant changes in F-value and t-value, however the changes in R-square and beta coefficients are minimal. The fact that the $P< 0.01$, shows that the

introduction of stereotypes in the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome is significant. This shows that indeed stereotypes has an intervening effect on the relationship between cultural believes and executive selection outcome. This intervening effect is minimal but significant. As a result, hypothesis 5 is accepted. An F-value of 8.795 and t-values of 3.795 and-0.466 for cultural beliefs and stereotypes respectively show that the model is appropriate, the variables were fitted onto regression equation of the model of the form:

$Y = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + e$ and they fitted as follows:

$$Y = 1.810 + 0.568X_1 - 0.070X_2 + e$$

Figure 5.4 in Appendix II shows the scatter plot of regression of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome. The line of best fit passing through the plots show that cultural beliefs and stereotypes together have a positive linear relationship with executive selection outcome.

4.5.6 Cultural Beliefs, Stereotypes, Merit and Executive Selection Outcome

Hypothesis 6 states that, cultural beliefs, stereotypes and Merit together have a combined effect on executive selection outcome, which is greater than the individual variables. This hypothesis was tested using a four step regression analysis, which include the following:

Step 1: This step involves regression analysis of cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome was conducted as shown in tables 4.21, 4.22 and 4.23 and summarised in Table 4.30. From these tables the values of R^2, P, F, t and β_2 are noted as follows: of R^2=0.282, P<0.01, F=17.681, t=4.205,P<0.01 and β=0.531. R-

square value is 0.282, which shows that 28.2% of variance is explained by the model. A Beta coefficient of 0.531 show that a unit change in cultural beliefs causes 53.1% change in executive selection outcome. An F-value of 17.681 and t-value of 4.205 shows that the model is appropriate The value of P< 0.01, which means that this relationship was significant The tolerance and VIF value was found to be 1.0 and 1.0 respectively, which means there was no multicollinearity between the study variables.

Step 2: This step involves determining the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome. The results of this regression are shown in Tables 4.27,4.28, 4.29 and the summary in Table 4.30. of R^2=0.052, P=0.124, F=2.454, t=1.566 and β=0.227. R-square value of 0.052 indicates that, 4.2% of variance is explained by the model. A beta coefficient value of 0.227 shows that every unit change in stereotypes caused 22.7% change in executive selection outcome. An F value of 2.454 and t-value of 1.566 shows that the model was appropriate. P>0.01 show that this relationship is not significant and that stereotypes does not influence executive selection outcome.

Step 3: This step involves determining the relationship between merit and executive selection outcome. The results of this regression are shown in Tables 4.42, 4.43 and 4.44 and the summary in Table 4.30

Table 4.42: Regression of Merit and Executive Selection Outcome

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.656	.430	.418	.28828
a. Predictors: (Constant), Merit				

Table 4.43: ANOVA of Merit and Executive Selection Outcome

Model	Dimensions	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.825	1	2.825	33.993	.000
	Residual	3.740	45	.083		
	Total	6.565	46			
a. Dependent Variable: Executive selection outcome b. Predictors: Constant , merit						

Table 4.44: Coefficients of Merit and Executive Selection Outcome

Model	Dimensions	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	0.01Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	Constant	1.253	.284		4.420	.000	.682	1.824		
	Merit	.413	.071	.656	5.830	.000	.270	.555	1.000	1.000
a. Dependent Variable: Executive selection outcome										

The results were noted as R^2=0.430, P<0.01, F=33.993, β=0.656 and t=5.830,P<0.01. An R-square value of 0.430 shows that 43% of variance is explained by the model. A beta coefficient value of 0.656 shows that a unit change in merit causes 65.6% change executive selection outcome an F value of 33.993 and t-value of 5.830 show that the model is appropriate. Tolerance and VIF values are both 1.0, which means there is no multicollinearity between the predictor variables .

Step 4: This step involves determining the combined effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome. Tables 4.45, 4.46,4.47 and the summary on Table 4.30 show the regression of cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome.

Table 4.45: Relationship between Cultural Beliefs, Stereotypes, Merit and Executive Selection Outcome

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.710[a]	.504	.469	.27528	.504	14.544	3	43	.000
a. Predictors: (Constant), Merit, Stereotypes, Cultural beliefs .b. dependent variable: Executive Selection Outcome									

Table 4.46:ANOVA of Cultural beliefs, Stereotypes, Merit and Executive Selection Outcome

Model	Dimensions	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.306	3	1.102	14.544	.000
	Residual	3.258	43	.076		
	Total	6.565	46			
a. Dependent Variable: Executive selection outcome. b. Predictors: (Constant).Merit, Stereotypes, Merit						

Table 4.47: Coefficients of cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome

Model	Dimensions	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	0.01 Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.170	.298		3.932	.000	.570	1.770		
	Cultural beliefs	.229	.096	.329	2.396	.021	.036	.422	.611	1.637
	Stereotypes	-.110	.069	-.209	-1.606	.116	-.249	.028	.682	1.466
	Merit	.361	.083	.573	4.346	.000	.193	.528	.663	1.508
a. Dependent Variable: Executive Selection Outcome										

Tables 4.45.4.46 and 4.47 show the results as: R^2=0.504, P<0.01, F=14.544 β_1 =0.329, β_2=-0.209, β_3= 0.573 respectively and t_1=2.396, t_2=1.606 t_3=4.346 at P<0.01 respectively. R^2 value of 0.504 shows that 50.4% of variance is explained by the model. Beta coefficients of 0.329. -0.209 and 0.577 for cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit respectively show that a unit change in cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit causes 32.9%, 20.9% and 57.7% change respectively in executive selection outcome. An F-value of 14.544 and t-values of 2.396, 1.606 and 4.346 show that the model is appropriate. For ease of reference the results of the four step regression analysis are summarised on Table 4.48.

Table: 4.48: Summary regression results showing combined effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome

Regression	R	R^2	P	F	β	T
Cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome	0.531	0.282	P<0.01	17.681	0.531	4.205
Stereotypes and Executive selection outcome	0.227	0.052	P=0.124	2.454	0.227	1.566
Merit and Executive Selection outcome	0.656	0.430	P<0.01	33.993	0.656	5.830
Cultural beliefs, merit and executive selection outcome	0.688	0.474	P<0.01	19.816	β_1=0.248 β_3=0.521	t_1=1.909 t_3=4005
Cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome	0.710	0.504	P<0.01	14.544	β_1=0.329 β_2= -0.209 β_3=0.573	t_1=2.396 t_2= -1.606 t_3=4.346

Table 4.48 shows that an R-square value of 0.504 for combined effect cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit is the greatest, which indicates that 50.4% of variance is explained by the model. The beta coefficients of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit are 0.329, -0.209 and 0.573 respectively. This indicates that a unit change in cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit causes 32.9%, -20.9% and 57.3% change in executive selection outcome respectively. A unit change in stereotypes causes 20.9% reduction in executive selection outcome, which means the two variables are negatively correlated.

Comparing R-square values in the four models, the R-square value of regression of combined cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome is the highest (0.504), followed by merit and executive selection outcome (0.430), then cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome (0.282) and lastly stereotypes and executive selection outcome (0.052). These results show that the combined effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit on executive selection outcome is greater than that of individual values. The VIF values for the combination of cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit are: 1.637, 1.466 and 1.508 respectively, and tolerance values are 0.611, 0.682 and 0.663 respectively, which indicates that there is no multicollinearity between the predictor variables.

P< 0.01 shows that the relationships are significant in all the models except in the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome (P>0.01). This shows that stereotypes has no direct influence on executive selection outcome. As a result, hypothesis (H_6) is accepted, that is the combined effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit on executive selection outcome is greater than that of the

individual variables. An F value of 14.544 and t-values of 2.396, -1.606 and 4.346 indicate that the model was appropriate. The variables were fitted onto the linear regression model of the form:

Y= B_0 +B_1X_1 +B_2X_2 +B_3X_3 + e and they fitted as represented as follows:

Y= 1.170 + 0.329X_1 -209X_2 +0.573X_3 +e

Figure 5.5 in Appendix II shows the scatter plot of regression of cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome. The diagram shows that cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit together have a linear relationship with executive selection outcome.

4.6 Discussion of findings

The objective of the study was to examine the influence of cultural beliefs on executive selection outcome. It further sought to establish the influence of cultural beliefs on stereotypes, the intervening effect of stereotypes in the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome, the influence of stereotypes on executive selection outcome, the moderating effect of merit on the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome. Finally the study also sought to establish that the combined effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit on executive selection outcome is greater than the individual variables. This section discusses the key findings of the study in relation to the objectives and hypotheses.

4. 6.1 Influence of Cultural Beliefs and Executive Selection Outcome

The first objective was to determine the influence cultural beliefs on executive selection outcome. It was hypothesised that cultural beliefs have a significant

influence on executive selection outcome. The findings showed that cultural beliefs have a significant influence on executive selection outcome. The relationship was found to be statistically significant. This finding agrees with that of Campbell (2004), who found that many beliefs are learned from the prevailing culture. All of us are subject to multiple cultural influences, especially at a young impressionable ages. The impact of cultural influence is particularly strong when emotional investment is high. For adults, social environments and workplace cultures play an important role in impacting and reinforcing beliefs.

According to Schein (1968), cultures are the aggregate of the emotions, attitudes, beliefs and values of the people who live in a community and work in organizations within those communities. Organizations are therefore huge transmitters of cultural beliefs and norms. Employees at work, either align themselves with organizational cultural beliefs or are constantly fighting against them, hence the need for cultural alignment as a critical tool for organizational success. Individual beliefs must first be self-aligned before they can be integrated with organizational beliefs and values. That's why it is important to understand the beliefs that shape the way we relate to others, conduct our work and make our decisions at work.

4.6.2 Influence Cultural beliefs and Stereotypes

The second objective was to determine the influence of cultural beliefs on stereotypes. The findings show that cultural beliefs have a significant influence on stereotypes and that the relationship was statistically significant. As indicated in the literature review, stereotypes are generalized beliefs about individuals or certain groups of people or

gender. Organizational culture and its external environment provide a useful way of studying gender and ethnic dynamics in the work place.

These findings are in line the findings of Aaltio and Mills (2002). They found that gender is a cultural phenomenon, where culturally specific patterns of behavior are associated with individual differences associated with beliefs about male and female roles. Males and females in different cultures acquire different roles and are active in different spheres. Aaltio and Mills (2002), argued that gender roles can be explained exclusively by reference to social processes irrespective of biological differences.

The findings also show that ethnic and gender stereotypes do exist in multinational organizations, and that stereotypes indirectly influence stereotypes and subsequent decisions of executives in organizations. The findings also slightly differed with the findings of Osland and Bird (2000), who found no link between cultural paradoxes and ethnic stereotypes. They found that despite the generalizations of ethnic communities, there are exceptions who do not conform to typical stereotypes assigned to their ethnic groups.

4.6.3 Influence effect of stereotypes on Executive Selection Outcome

The third objective was to determine the influence of stereotypes on executive selection outcome. Contrary to what was expected, the findings showed that stereotypes do not have a direct influence on executive selection outcome. The findings show that individuals may hold certain stereotypes against other ethnic groups and gender, but stereotypes on their own have no direct effect on executive selection outcome.

This can be explained by the fact that individuals tend align their individual beliefs and attitudes to organizational expectations, hence these stereotypes do not manifest in organizational decision making process. These findings are consistent with the findings of Dion (1989), who found that work place stereotyping manifests in unfair treatment or discriminatory practices that are very subtle and could be easily missed by looking for obvious signs of unfair treatment. Employees in the work place spend countless hours learning new information, adopting the latest technologies and implementing grand strategies yet underneath they hold stereotypes that would indirectly influence how they behave and make decisions in the work place.

Due to socialization process, individuals tend to downplay these stereotypes to conform with organizational culture and expectations (Schein, 1968). These findings correlate with the study by Hede and Dingsdag (1994). They observed that despite a large majority of managers claim to possess pro-equity attitudes, most of them still displayed stereotypic attitudes in executive selection. The findings seem to contradict the findings by Takeda et. al. (2006), who found that blondes were under represented in corporate leadership roles because of the perception that they are incompetent. It also contradicts the findings by Easterly and Anderson (1999), who found that ethnic stereotyping influenced the selection of ethnic minorities in the Judiciary in Chicago U.S.A.

4.6.4 The moderating effect of Merit on the relationship between Stereotypes and Executive Selection Outcome

The fourth objective was to determine if merit has a moderating effect on the relationship between culture and executive selection outcome. The findings show that

merit indeed reverses the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome. This means that for stereotypes to have an effect on executive selection outcome, it has to be embedded in selection instruments and procedures, that manifest as merit. Meritocracy is a social concept, which depends on a candidate's knowledge, skills, experience, talents and abilities Gupta (1992). Merit based selection therefore means that selection instruments should mitigate subjective differences, like ethnicity, gender and social class. These findings corroborate the study by Singer (1992), which found that process factors of executive selection were linked with candidate variables while decision factors were not. They also agree with the findings of Bargh (1999), who demonstrated that stereotyping is an unconscious process and moving its awareness to selection instruments could help counter its effects.

These findings also reinforced the findings of Rudman (1998). In their experiment, job descriptions and applicants' attributes were examined as moderators of the backlash effect. Black clash effect was conceptualized as the negative evaluation of agentic women, who were perceived as not exhibiting typical female characteristics. Rudman and Glick (1999), replicated the study a year later and found that a feminized job description discriminated against agentic females because they were perceived as not being feminine enough. These findings suggest that the prescription for female niceness is an implicit stereotype embedded in a job description and labelled as "merit", which is a desirable attribute for a job.

Stereotyped merit instruments thus penalized agentic women candidates and forced them to alter their natural characteristics to conform with the requirements as detailed in the job description. The findings in this study show that stereotypes exist in the

minds of the respondents, however, they have to be embedded in the job descriptions and specifications for them to influence executive selection outcome.

4.6.5 The intervening effect of stereotypes on the relationship between cultural beliefs and Executive Selection Outcome

The fifth objective was to determine the intervening effect of stereotypes on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome.Following Baron and Kenny's (1986) four conditions for determining mediation:

Step 1: found that cultural beliefs have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.

Step 2: found that cultural beliefs have a significant influence on stereotypes.

Step 3: found that stereotypes have no influence on executive selection outcome.

Step 4: found that cultural beliefs and stereotypes together have an influence on executive selection outcome, however in this step the beta coefficients of predictor variables were not all reduced to zero. Three out of four conditions for mediation were fully met, the fourth condition was not met, which shows a partial mediation effect of stereotypes.

There were significant changes in F and t values which showed a slight weakening of the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome. The findings show that indeed stereotypes have a slight but significant intervening effect on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome. Studies show that stereotypes exist in organizations both intentionally and unintentionally. These include assumptions on qualities of good workers (available at short notice, work long hours, willingness to travel widely), attributes which generally favour male

employees. Acker (1990) found that such assumptions result in operating procedures and practices that become part of organizational culture, which indirectly discriminate against female employees.

4.6.6 Combined effect of Cultural beliefs, Stereotypes and Merit on Executive Selection Outcome

The sixth objective was to determine that cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome together have a combined effect on executive selection outcome, that is greater than the individual variables. The findings showed that the three variables together have a combined effect on executive selection outcome. An examination of the effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome, individually showed that the combined effect on executive selection outcome was greater than the individual effect. This confirms the intervening effect of stereotypes and moderating effect of merit in the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome. While stereotypes weaken this relationship, merit on the other hand strengthens it. Further analysis of the combined effect of cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome showed that there is a strong relationship between the two.

Steele et. al. (1995) found that implicit stereotypes are known to limit people's opportunities in executive roles, but may go unnoticed because of their subtle nature. It is important to note that despite there not being a relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome, there, however exists a relationship between stereotypes and merit and between merit and executive selection outcome.

There is even a relationship between cultural beliefs and merit. Reskin and McBrier (2000) posits that work place discrimination is as a result of unconscious categorization.

Fiske (1998) argued that this categorization is usually accompanied by stereotyping, attribution bias and evaluation, which indirectly manifest in organizational policies, procedures and processes, which in turn guide executive decisions. The question then is, why is it that despite diversity and non-discrimination policies and procedures, there is still evidence of ethnic and gender discrimination in the work place. The answer is that these stereotypes and discriminatory attitudes are engrained in organizational policies and procedures and presented as "merit". It explains why even after many years women are still grossly underrepresented in executive roles in organizations.

Cultural lenses shape perceptions in three ways. First, it focuses attention on dimensions of the organization's culture that have a differential impact on men, women and various ethnic groups (Campbell et. al., 1998). This would include, organizational culture, behaviours, work processes and practices; roles and types of work; core management practices; decision-making and communication processes (both informal and formal); resource allocation; accepted executive and management behaviours. Second, recognizing that most cultures focus on stereotypically "masculine" aspects of organizations, such as systems of power, influence and individual achievement, the gender lens on the other hand focuses on the more "feminine" aspects of organizing.

This includes aspects such as systems of support, caring, and collaboration, shining the light on the types of work that are often invisible in organizations. For example, work done to develop people is critical to organizational effectiveness, but is often not captured in the realm of "visible work or visible products" (Furguson, 1998).

As men's experiences have traditionally defined what is considered organizational "normal," the gender lens explicitly includes women's experiences, especially those aspects that they find problematic or constraining (Thomas and Ely, 2001). Their experiences can reveal not only different ways of working and innovative practices but also aspects of the work environment that are rarely noticed by those in the mainstream. Their perspectives can help to uncover core assumptions about work management systems, products, and organizational values that are gendered and might have unintended negative consequences, not only for women but also for men and in the organization. When the stereotype cannot be activated, it turns out that men and women are more or less indistinguishable in terms of their working style.

4.7 Empirical model

Following the data analysis and findings presented in this chapter, the study accepted five of the hypotheses tested and not failed to confirm hypothesis $\mathbf{H_3}$. It demonstrated the slight intervening role of stereotypes in the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome and further demonstrated the moderating role of merit on the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome.

The findings show that among the predictor variables, cultural beliefs, stereotypes and selection merit have the greatest influence on executive selection outcome (R=0.710)

followed by cultural beliefs and merit (R=0.688), merit (R=0.656), cultural beliefs and stereotypes (R=0.534),cultural beliefs (R=0.531), stereotypes and merit(R=0.437) and lastly stereotypes and executive selection outcome (R=0.227). From these findings and starting with the combination with the highest R-value, the researcher found the interaction of factors that influence executive selection outcome as follows:

Path A: Cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit ⟶ Executive selection outcome

Path B: Cultural beliefs, merit ⟶ Executive selection outcome

Path C: Merit ⟶ Executive selection outcome

Path D: Cultural beliefs, stereotypes ⟶ Executive selection outcome

Path E: Stereotypes, merit ⟶ Executive selection outcome

From the above interaction of factors that influence executive selection outcome, the interrelationship between the predictor variables is shown in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Interrelationship among factors influencing executive selection outcome

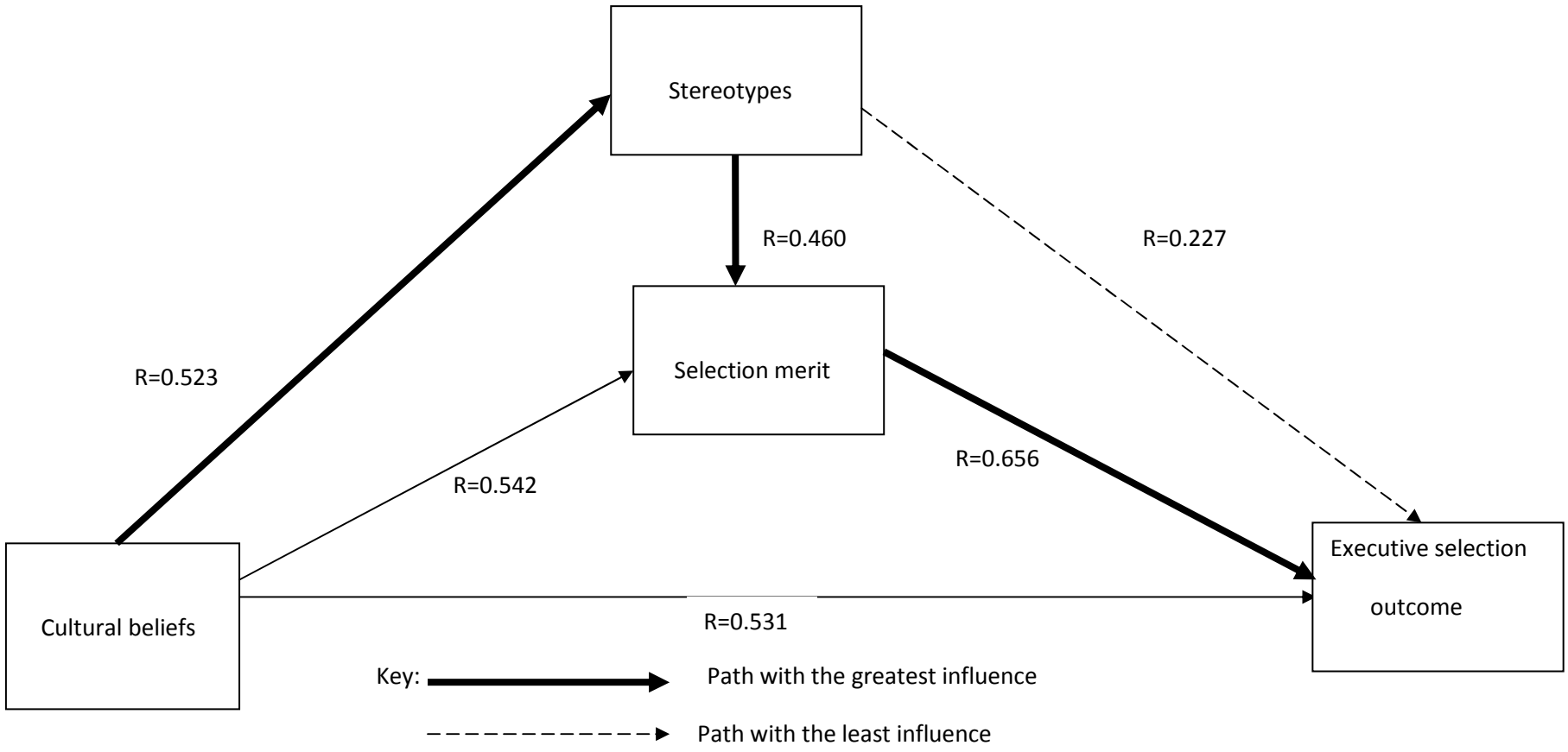


Figure 4.2: Empirical model

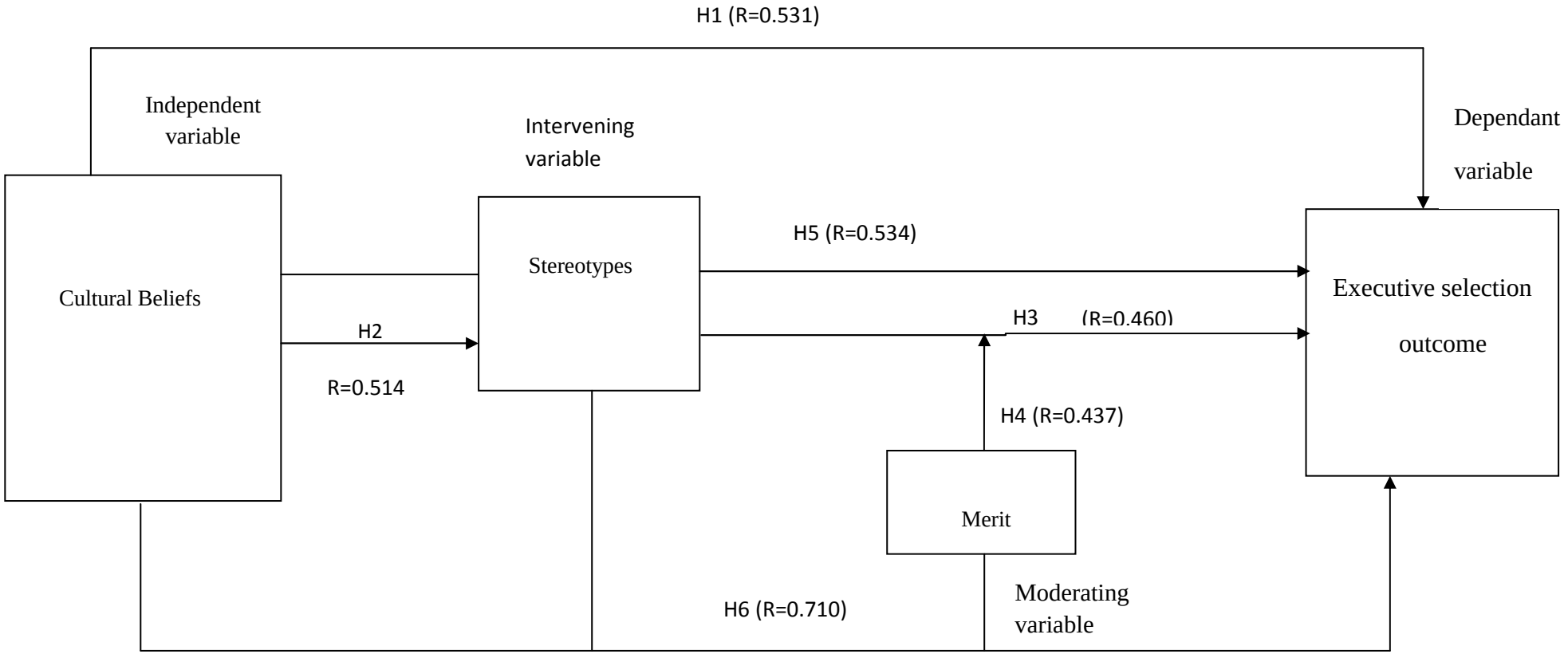


Figure 4.2 shows the empirical model derived from the findings of the study, it shows three predictor variables and one dependent variable. Cultural beliefs is shown to have a direct effect on executive selection outcome and this effect is supported by the findings of the study. The model also shows that stereotypes have an intervening effect on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome as deduced from the empirical evidence from this study.

Contrary to the conceptual model and existing literature, the empirical model shows that stereotypes does not have a direct influence on executive selection outcome and demonstrates the moderating effect of merit on the relationship in line with the findings of the study. It further shows the joint effect of the predictor variables on executive selection outcome. This finding is explained by the moderating effect of merit in executive selection. Due to the need to comply with organizational culture, policies and procedures, the effect of stereotypes are not directly observable in executive selection outcome.

4.8 Chapter Summary

In this chapter the researcher set out to present and discuss data findings. The first part of the chapter focused on the data findings and the later part of the chapter focused on discussions of data findings. It is in this chapter that the hypotheses were tested and were either accepted or rejected. Both descriptive and inferential analytical techniques were used. Descriptive data included means and standard deviation. Inferential data included findings regression analysis and hypotheses testing.

The findings of multiple regression analysis have also been presented and discussed. The findings of regression analysis, statistical results, test of hypotheses and subsequent findings are summarized in tables 4.49 and 4.50 at the end of this chapter. All the hypotheses tested in this chapter were accepted except hypothesis H_3.

The findings showed that there stereotype has no direct influence on executive selection outcome. Despite the fact that one hypothesis was rejected, the study by and large achieved the objectives set at the beginning of the study.

Table 4.49: Summary of regression analysis, statistical results and findings

Objective	**R**	R^2	**P Value**	**F**	β	**t**	**Findings**
To determine the influence of cultural beliefs on executive selection outcome.	0.531	0.282	P<0.01	17.681	0.531	4.205	Cultural beliefs have a significant influence on executive selection outcome
To determine the influence of cultural beliefs on stereotypes	0.523	0.274	P<0.001	16.975	0.523	4.120	Cultural beliefs have a significant influence of executive selection outcome
To determine the influence of stereotypes on executive selection outcome	0.227	0.052	P=0.124	2.454	0.227	1.566	Stereotypes has no influence on executive selection outcome
To determine the influence of merit on executive selection outcome	0.656	0.430	P<0.01	33.993	0.656	5.830	Merit has a significant influence on executive selection outcome
To determine the influence of stereotypes on merit	0.460	0.212	P<0.01	12.085	0.460	5.840	Stereotypes have a significant influence on merit
To determine the influence of cultural beliefs on merit	0.542	0.294	P<0.01	18.748	0.542	4.422	Cultural beliefs has a significant influence on executive selection outcome.

Objective	**R**	R^2	**P Value**	**F**	β	**t**	**Findings**
To determine the influence of stereotypes and merit on executive selection outcome	0.437	0.437	P<0.01	17.01	β_2=-0.094 β_3=0.699	t_2=-0.741 t_3=5.492	Stereotypes and merit have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.
To determine the influence of stereotypes, merit, Interaction term (IE) on executive selection outcome	0.697	0.485	P<0.01	13.516	β_2=-0.76 β_3=0.761 β_{IE}=0.231	t_2=-0.621 t_3=5.992 t_{IE}=2.002	Stereotypes, merit and interaction term have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.
To determine the influence of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome	0.534	0.286	P<0.01	8.795	β_1=0.568 β_2=-0.070	t_1=3.795 t_2=-0.466	Cultural beliefs and stereotypes have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.
Cultural beliefs, merit and executive selection outcome	0.688	0.474	P<0.01	19.816	β_1=0.248 β_3=0.521	t_1=1.909 t_3=4005	Cultural beliefs, merit have a significant influence on executive selection outcome
To determine the combined effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit on executive selection outcome	0.710	0.504	P<0.01	14.544	β_1=0.329 β_2=-0.209 β_3=0.573	t_1=2.396 t_2=1.606 t_3=4.346	Cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and combined have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.

Table 4.50: Summary of Objectives, hypothesis, statistical tests and findings

Objective	**Hypothesis**	**Statistical tests**	**Findings**	**Decision**
To determine the influence of cultural beliefs on executive selection outcome.	Cultural beliefs have a significant influence on executive selection outcome.	Linear regression analysis. P value is used to compare the means of the observed and expected statistics. At 0.01 level of significance. Use Pearson's moment (R^2) 2-tailed correlation test to determine the strength and nature of correlation between the variables at 0.01 level of significance. F and t statistics are used to test the hypothesis.	R^2 =.282 F=17.681 P<0.01 t=4.205 Tolerance=1.0 VIF=1.0	Accept hypothesis (H_1)
To determine the influence of cultural beliefs on stereotypes.	cultural beliefs have a significant influence on stereotypes	Linear regression analysis. P value is used to compare the means of the observed and expected statistics. At 0.01 level of significance. Use Pearson's moment (R^2) 2-tailed correlation test to determine the strength and nature of correlation between the variables at 0.01 level of significance. F and t statistics	R^2=0.274 F=16.975 t=4.120 P<0.01	Accept hypothesis (H_2)

Objective	Hypothesis	Statistical tests	Findings	Decision
		are used to test the hypothesis.	Tolerance=1.0 VIF=1.0	
To determine the influence of stereotypes on executive selection outcome.	Stereotypes have a significant influence on executive selection.	Linear regression analysis. P value is used to compare the means of the observed and expected statistics. At 0.01 level of significance. Use Pearson's moment (R^2) 2-tailed correlation test to determine the strength and nature of correlation between the variables at 0.01 level of significance. F and t statistics are used to test the hypothesis.	R^2 =0.052 t=1.566 F=2.454 P=0.124 Tolerance=1.0 VIF =1.0	Reject hypothesis (H_3)
To determine the moderating effect	Merit moderates the relationship stereotypes and executive	Multiple stepwise regression analysis to compare the relationship with and without the interaction term.	R^2 =0.437	Accept hypothesis (H_4)

Objective	Hypothesis	Statistical tests	Findings	Decision
of merit on the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome.	selection .	P value is used to compare the means of the observed and expected statistics. At 0.01 level of significance. Use Pearson's moment (R^2) 2-tailed correlation test to determine the strength and nature of correlation between the variables at 0.01 level of significance. F and t statistics are used to test the hypothesis.	F=17.01 t_2=-0.71; t_3=5.492 P<0.01 Tolerance=0.788 VIF=1.269 With interaction term R^2 =0.485 F=13.516 t_2= -0.612; t_3=-5.992 P<0.01	
To determine the intervening effect of stereotypes on the relationship	Stereotypes has an intervening effect on the relationship between cultural beliefs and	Stepwise multiple regression analysis. P value is used to compare the means of the observed and expected statistics. At 0.01 level of significance. Use Pearson's moment correlation test (R^2) 2-tailed to determine the strength and nature of	**Without stereotypes:** R^2= 0.282 F =17.681 t=4.205	Accept (H_5)

Objective	Hypothesis	Statistical tests	Findings	Decision
between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome.	executive selection outcome.	correlation between the variables at 0.01 level of significance. F and t statistics are used to test the hypothesis.	P<0.01 **With stereotypes**: R^2= 0.286 F =8.795 t_1=3.795; t_2= -0.466 P<0.01 Tolerance=0.726 VIF=1.377	

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of research findings, conclusions and recommendations. In this chapter, the researcher discusses the summary of research objectives and research findings. The researcher also discusses the conclusions drawn from the research findings and goes further to make recommendations for further research work. The chapter also reviews implications of the study for theory, policy and implications for practice. Limitations of the study are also discussed in this chapter.

5.2 Summary of research findings

The objective of the study was to determine the influence of cultural beliefs on executive selection outcome, the intervening effect of stereotypes on this relationship, the influence of cultural beliefs on stereotypes and further determine the moderating effect of merit on the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome. The study also sought to determine the combined influence of cultural belief, stereotypes and merit on executive selection outcome and if the combined effect is greater than that of individual variables. A cross sectional study design was used and data was collected from ninety six (96) organizations, where the CEOs of the sampled organizations were approached to complete an online questionnaire. Data was collected from fourty seven (47) respondents comprising a response rate of fourty nine percent (49%).

Before the study was conducted, an extensive literature review was carried out and presented in chapter two. The review demonstrated that, although previous studies focused on motivational and cognitive influences of stereotyping, no study, however has conceptualized the study variables in a common framework as has been done in this study. It also revealed that no such a study has been conducted in a Kenyan context. As a result the study aimed at contributing to body of knowledge by closing the conceptual and contextual gap in study of the relationship between cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome. The study was thus conceptualized to achieve certain specific objectives.

The first objective was to establish the influence of cultural beliefs on executive selection outcome. The researcher hypothesised that cultural beliefs significantly influence executive selection outcome. The analysis of the data and subsequent findings show that, indeed cultural beliefs do influence executive selection outcome. Cultures are an aggregate of beliefs, values attitudes of people in a community. Campbell et. al.(1998) found that cultures form a lens through which individuals in the organization view and perceive issues in the organization. It is through these lenses that they define organizational needs and requirements for executive success in organizations.

The second objective was to determine the influence of cultural beliefs on stereotypes. The researcher set to test the hypothesis that cultural beliefs significantly influence stereotypes. Findings showed that cultural beliefs do influence stereotypes. There is still existence of strong ethnic and gender stereotypes in multinational organizations.

Stereotyping is a social process and tend to be negative, leading to negative prejudice and discrimination against groups of people and gender.

The third objective was to determine the influence of stereotypes on executive selection outcome. The findings disapproved the hypothesis that stereotypes have an influence on and executive selection outcome. This was an interesting finding that stereotypes on their own do not have a direct influence on executive selection outcome. They have to be embedded in organizational policies, procedures and processes. Dion(1989) found that work place stereotyping manifest in subtle discriminatory practices and could be easily be missed when looking for obvious signs of discrimination.

The fourth objective was to determine the effect of merit on the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome. The researcher tested the hypothesis that merit has a moderating effect on the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome. The findings showed that indeed merit moderates the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome. Stereotyped selection instruments was found to discriminate against agentic women, in jobs where obvious feminised attributes are preferred (Rudman and Glick,1999).

The fifth objective was to determine the effect of stereotypes on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome. The hypothesis that stereotypes have an effect on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome was tested using stepwise regression analysis. The study found

that stereotypes have a slight intervening effect in the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome.

The final objective was to determine the combined effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome and that the combined effect was greater than the individual effects of the predictor variables. The findings showed that cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit have a combined influence on executive selection outcome that is greater than the effects of the individual predictor variable.

In order to create a framework for achieving these objectives, a conceptual model was developed, as informed by the empirical and theoretical literature. In order to test the hypotheses, the variables were operationalized in order to transform them into a suitable form for analysis. The central reasoning of the conceptual model was that there was a positive relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome, cultural beliefs and stereotypes, stereotypes and executive selection outcome, cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome and that stereotypes has an intervening effect on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome and that the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome is moderated by merit.

The lead predictor variable, which was cultural beliefs was, was operationalized as a function of beliefs on equity, beliefs on gender roles and beliefs on diversity at organizational level. At national level cultural beliefs was conceptualized as a function of beliefs on gender roles, ethnic tolerance and beliefs on diversity. Stereotypes were operationalized as a function of perception of ability, gender

discrimination and promotability at two levels, namely gender and ethnic level. Merit was operationalized as a function of education and experience, knowledge and skills and behavioural competencies. Executive selection outcome on the other hand was operationalized as a function of job fit between the candidate attributes and job requirements, length of engagement and candidate performance on the job.

The unit of analysis of this was the organization, as a result questionnaires were distributed to the heads of ninety six (96) organizations of which fourty (47) responses were received. This data was then cleaned and processed before being analysed. The cleaning processes included checking for completeness, serialising, coding and entering it into SPSS for further interrogation. In view of the way the variables were conceptualized, a number of analytical techniques were used to analyse the data. Linear regression techniques were used to test the hypotheses involving the relationship between two variables. Analysis involving two or more predictor variables was done using multiple linear stepwise regression analysis. Table 5.1 shows the summary of objectives, hypothesis, regression models and findings.

Table 5.1 Summary of objectives, hypothesis and findings

Objective	Hypothesis	Findings	Decision
To determine the influence of cultural beliefs on executive selection outcome	Cultural beliefs have a significant influence on executive selection outcome	R^2 =.282 F=17.681 P<0.01 t=4.205 Tolerance=1.0 VIF=1.0	Accept hypothesis (H_1)
To determine the influence of cultural beliefs on stereotypes	cultural beliefs have a significant influence on stereotypes	R^2=0.274 F=16.975 t=4.120 P<0.01 Tolerance=1.0 VIF=1.0	Accept hypothesis (H_2)
To determine the influence of stereotypes on executive selection outcome	Stereotypes have a significant influence on executive selection	R^2 =0.052 t=1.566 F=2.454 P=0.124 Tolerance=1.0 VIF=1.0	Reject hypothesis (H_3)
To determine the moderating effect of merit on the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome	Merit moderates the relationship stereotypes and executive selection	**Without interactive term** R^2 =0.437 F=17.101 t_2=-0.741, t_3=5.492 P<0.01 Tolerance=0.788 for both stereotypes and merit VIF=1.269 for both stereotypes and merit **With Interaction term (IE)** R^2 =0.485 F=13.516 t_2= -0.612, t_3=5.992	Accept hypothesis (H_4)

Objective	Hypothesis	Findings	Decision
		t_{IE}=2.002 P<0.01 Tolerance=0.742,0.784 and 0.902 (for merit, stereotypes and Interaction term respectively). VIF values=1.347, 1.276 and 1.108 (for merit, stereotypes and Interaction term respectively).	
To determine the intervening effect of stereotypes on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome	Stereotypes has an intervening effect on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome	R^2= 0.286 F =8.795 t_1=3.795, t_2=-0.466 P<0.01 Tolerance=0.726 VIF=1.377	Accept hypothesis (H_5) hypothesis
To determine that the combined effect of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit on executive selection outcome is greater than the individual variables	Cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit combined have a greater influence on executive selection outcome	R^2= 0.504 F=14.564 t_1=2.396, t_2=-1.606, t_2=4.346 P<0.01 Tolerance for cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit =0.611,0.682,0.663 respectively And VIF=1.637,1.466 and 1.508 respectively	Accept the hypothesis(H_6)

The findings discussed in chapter four showed that there is indeed a positive linear relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome. It also showed that there is a positive linear relationship between cultural beliefs and stereotypes; a positive linear relationship cultural beliefs, stereotypes combined and executive selection outcome. There was also a positive linear relationship between cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome and that the combined effect was stronger than the effect of the individual predictor variables.

The analysis, however, found that there is no direct relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome and that stereotypes have an intervening effect in the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome, while merit moderates the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome. The findings showed that whereas there is strong relationship between cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection, there is however no direct relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome.

5.3 Conclusions

The findings of this study engaged various learning theories in multinational organizations in a Kenyan context. With regard to the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome, the study established that cultural beliefs have a significant influence on executive selection outcome. It also established that cultural beliefs have a significant influence on stereotypes, that the combination of cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit have a significant influence on executive selection outcome and that the combined effect of these variables is stronger than the effect of the individual predictor variables. It further established a partial but significant

intervening effect of stereotypes on the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome. It however established that there stereotypes have is no direct influence executive selection outcome and that merit has a moderating effect on this relationship.

From these findings we can draw the following conclusions; first that gender and ethnic stereotypes do exist in organizations and that they indirectly influence executive decisions in organizations, second that executives can modify their behaviour and act in contrast to their deeply held beliefs in order to conform to organizational culture and values; thirdly that stereotypes by themselves do not have a direct influence executive selection outcomes, they have to be embedded in merit in order to influence executive selection outcomes, thus merit moderates the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection outcome, fourthly that cultural beliefs do indeed influence executive selection outcome and that stereotypes have a slight intervening effect on this relationship.

Senior executives in organizations are supposed to be the custodians of organizational culture and values. Despite the efforts to implement equal opportunity policies and diversity initiatives, gender and ethnic stereotypes still exist and continue to indirectly influence executive decisions. In order to take diversity and equal opportunity programs to the next level, organizations need to have a critical look at merit, that is how it is define, acquired and measured. They also need to appreciate how perceptions of merit is shaped and influenced across the organization through organizational cultural beliefs. Otherwise, they run the risk of appearing to pay lip service to gender and ethnic diversity programs, which in turn impacts on having

equal representation of women and various ethnic groups in executive levels in organizations.

From this perspective it is clear that creating gender and ethnic equitable workplace environments cannot be achieved simply by implementing diversity policies and legislation and increasing the numbers of women in executive roles, or by adapting policies and procedures to women's needs, or even by providing diversity training (Kolb et. al., 1998). These actions might relieve some of the blatant discrimination against women in the workplace, but they have 1ittle effect on the assumptions that drive behaviour and reproduce gender and ethnic inequality and negative stereotypes that affect organizational performance.

Linking gender and ethnic equity to strategic organizational objectives and performance provides a critical leverage for organizational change. It helps to mobilize leadership support and commitment, connect the interests of diverse constituencies with the goals of the change process, and provides a compelling motivation to engage in sustained long-term and systemic organizational change. Thus it is important to begin looking at organizations through the cultural, gender and ethnic lenses. It has been found that blind selection procedures assume that men and women are not distinguishable in terms of most leadership characteristics and executive abilities and that men and women do not differ significantly on the vast majority of personality and behavioural dimensions.

Blind selection in organisations is impossible to achieve, and the insidious nature of unconscious bias and stereotypes means that most people are firmly convinced their

decision making is already merit-based. Organisations can, and should, be made aware that a focus on merit does not inoculate decision-makers from bias and may even make them more susceptible to it. Organisations can develop their leaders' awareness of this bias and the contexts that activate it. Organisations can, as far as is possible, make aspects of their selection processes gender blind by removing gender-identifying information from resumes to even up the gender balance of selection short lists. Organisations can ensure that position descriptions are based only on criteria that actually predict performance, rather than on out-dated ideas of what the ideal job holder looks like. They can do these things if they have the will to. Either way, clinging to the belief that meritocratic processes make them free from gender bias only serves to further entrench inequality in organizations.

5.4 Implications of the study

This study has identified an existing problem in executive selection, developed a conceptual framework and tested the hypotheses that demonstrated the influence of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and merit on executive selection in multinational organizations. The study demonstrated the dynamics of executive selection outcome by showing that although stereotypes do exists in multinational organizations, they do not directly influence executive selection outcome. Most multinational organizations have equal opportunity policies, which means that have taken a stand against discrimination based on gender and ethnic grounds. The study found that equal opportunity policy policies assist in moderating stereotypic attitudes and behaviours of those involved in executive recruitment and selection. However, non-discriminative policies alone is not enough to fight against ethnic and gender stereotyping at the work place, since these stereotypes could be embedded in

executive selection instruments. Those involved in selection decisions could also manipulate the scoring process on selection instrument to favour their preferred candidates.

5.4.1 Implications for Theory

According to Sodowsky et. al. (1991), in every culture there is a set of people who have common and shared values, beliefs, customs, habits, and rituals; systems of labelling, explanations, and evaluations; social rules of behaviour; perceptions regarding human nature, natural phenomena and interpersonal relationships. Culture, thus, acts as "a unifying influence. Because culture is a learned phenomenon, individuals and groups can and do change their ethnic or cultural identities and interests through such processes as migration, conversion, and assimilation or through socialization in the work place (Smedley, 1993). In multinational organizations, the exposure of employees to different cultures from their own can mediate individual cultural influences. Harry (1992) standards of social behaviour are culturally derived.

A closer look at preferred organizational practice, it is believed that organizations and executive roles are created largely by and for men, and tend to be driven by assumptions that reflect the values and situations that favour idealized masculinity (Ferguson, 1998). This bias has had two major effects. The first is that our conceptual knowledge of organizational life is quite narrow and limited. What is regarded as normal workplace behaviour and norms of success, commitment and leadership tends to value traits socially and culturally ascribed to males. These include independence, individuality, and rationality, while devaluing or ignoring those aspects socially ascribed to females such as support, collaboration, and connection.

Thus, the understanding of the workplace and the ability to envision alternative structures and systems have been constrained by gendered norms of effectiveness and success (Ely and Thomas, 1996). The second effect occurs when these norms are put into practice, creating idealized images of work, workers, and success that entrench gender segregation and ethnic inequity in the workplace.

The implications of this is that diversity initiatives need to challenge core beliefs that influence deeply held stereotypes (Thomas and Ely, 2001). This is because stereotypes are deeply engrained, many times passed on from one generation to another through social learning processes. Organisational socialization processes may influence external behaviour at the work place, but do not change the deeply held attitudes and beliefs which people feel very strongly about. This means that given a slight chance, employees tend to fall back to default stereotypic attitudes that would otherwise influence their behaviour and how they make decisions in the work place.

5.4.2 Implication on Social Learning Theories

The researcher proposed a practical use of Bandura's (1977) social learning model in sustainable culture change programs in a process called the "Bush-fire effect". This social learning theory states that people acquire new behaviours and attitudes through modelling and closely observing other people. It integrates the cognitive, behavioural, reinforcement and motivational models of learning. Learning is commonly defined as a process that brings together cognitive, emotional, and environmental influences and experiences for acquiring, enhancing, or making changes in one's knowledge, skills, values, and world views (Ileris, 2000).

Individuals in organizations undergo a continuous process of socialization into the organizational culture, through induction, coaching mentoring and continuous training development. In order for sustainable change of attitude and behaviour, the learner needs to observe the new behaviour, his mental states at the time of observation plays a key role on whether he/she will register the new behaviour and there needs to be inherent motivation to want to learn and change behaviour. However the findings of this study have shown that the employees can model the learned behaviour and attitudes, while still holding deep feelings, attitudes and beliefs that are not necessarily in line with these behaviours. This kind of situation would be a problem to the organization in the long run as a result of what psychologists call cognitive dissonance.

Cognitive dissonance refers to a situation involving conflicting attitudes, beliefs or behaviours (Macleaod, 2008). This produces a feeling of discomfort leading to an alteration in one of the attitudes, beliefs or behaviours to reduce the discomfort. The theory, which was first put forward by Festinger (1957), suggests that human beings have an inner drive to hold all our attitudes and beliefs in harmony and avoid disharmony (or dissonance). Attitudes may change because of factors within the person. The theory of cognitive dissonance is based on the principle of cognitive consistency, which states that people seek consistency in their beliefs and attitudes in any situation where two cognitions are inconsistent.

Festinger (1957) proposed that a powerful motive to maintain cognitive consistency can give rise to irrational and sometimes maladaptive behaviour. According to cognitive dissonance theory, when there is inconsistency, something must change to

eliminate the dissonance and this is the basis of behaviour change techniques. One method of reducing dissonance is to acquire new information that challenges the dissonant beliefs. Cognitive dissonance appears in virtually all human evaluations and decisions and is the central mechanism by which people experience view differences in the world. When we see other people behave differently from our images of them we experience dissonance.

5.4.3. Implications for Learning Theories

Most corporate socialization and training programmes succeed in altering observable behaviour, while leaving cognitive processes intact. In order to address negative stereotypes in organizations, there is need to design programmes that challenge deeply held negative attitudes and beliefs on which stereotypes are based. According to Ileris (2000, there are three main philosophical frameworks under which learning theories fall these are: behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism. Behavioural theories focus on the objectively observable aspects of learning. Cognitive theories look beyond observable behaviour to explain brain based learning. Constructivism on the other hand views learning as a process in which the learner actively constructs or builds new ideas and concepts.

Cognitive theories grew out of Gestalt psychology developed in Germany in the early 1900s and brought to America in the 1920s. The German word gestalt is roughly equivalent to the English configuration or pattern and emphasizes the whole of human experience. Gestalt psychologists criticize behaviourists for being too dependent on overt behaviour to explain learning. They propose looking at the patterns rather than isolated events. Two key assumptions that underlie this cognitive approach are, that

the memory system is an active organized processor of information and that prior knowledge plays an important role in learning.

Cognitive theories look beyond behaviour to consider how human memory works to promote learning. They view learning as an internal mental process where the educator focuses on building intelligence and cognitive development. Bandura and Walters (1963), identified three main concepts in social learning theory. The first one is that people can learn through observation, the second one is that internal mental states are essential part in the learning process and the third one is that the theory recognizes that just because something has been learned, it does not necessarily result in change of behaviour.

Cognitive theory has been used to explain social influences (Kelman, 1958), which believe that social influence, occur when people's opinions and emotions are affected by others and provide the basis of intervention strategies in dealing with addictions. It involves demolishing negative beliefs and attitudes and replacing them the desired ones and regularly reinforcing the new beliefs and attitudes. This theory gave rise to the theory of planned behaviour by Ajzen (1991), which links attitudes to behaviours.

At national level, the cognitive approach would be useful in attaining national integration and dealing with negative ethnicity and gender stereotypes that are culturally based and which bedevil many African countries, Kenya included. Attitude change among a group of people or a community can be achieved by what I call the "bush fire effect". Illeris (2001), showed that attitude whether good or bad spreads like bushfire.

According to this strategy, you identify a few people who are influential in the community and take them through an attitude change process by challenging their core beliefs about ethnicity. Once they have been convinced, use them as community change agents to further convince another group of people until you get a critical mass of people with new attitudes about causes and effects of negative ethnicity. Over a period of time, this attitude change process will increase exponentially till you will have whole communities with new belief system and attitudes about ethnicity. Network Marketing organizations use the same concept to market their products through independent sales people and through word of mouth. Some religious groups have also used it successfully to enrol new converts into their groups.

5.4.4 Implications for managerial policy and practice

Studies have shown that gender and cultural insensitive organizational policies and culture indirectly cause gender and ethnic discrimination at executive levels in organizations. As a result women and some ethnic groups (especially blacks and minorities) continue to be underrepresented at executive and board level in many international organizations. This calls for the need to create gender and ethnic equitable work place policies, processes and procedures. One such study by Sands et. al.(1999), while studying factors that influence the ability of the organization to create a gender and ethnically equitable work environment at International Maize and Wheat Improvement (CYMMYT), identified four practices that shape stereotypic beliefs and attitudes. According to the researchers, these practices include:

Organizational mission: organizational mission shapes the attitudes, behaviour and how people work and interact with each other. It shapes what is valued and devalued by organizational executives.

Most of these cultures favour male characteristics of dominance, aggression and ability to work and produce results in stressful environments. As a result, female executives with competing demands on their time such as families and child rearing struggle to fit in such organizational cultures. Cultures that recognize collaborative work provide more visibility and recognition for front line staff involved in direct production and service delivery, thus creating a demarcation between those who produce and those who support (Kotter and Heskett, 1992). This means that women, who mostly work in support roles tended to be sidelined when it came to promotion to executive appointments.

Belief in Individual Achievement has been built on beliefs that fostering individual achievement is the best route to ground breaking research at CYMMYT. While some aspects of autonomy and independence in scientific environment are appreciated. The organization no longer supports the need for collaboration and teamwork in solving more complex problems in a diverse environment. Women generally thrive in a more controlled and collaborative environments.

Organizational policies: it was found that many employees at CYMMYT are usually not aware of organizational policies and procedures, especially on reward and benefits. Reward and benefits vary across the organization and programmes, creating the perception that everything has to be negotiated individually. This means that employees, especially women and minority groups, who are less networked and connected within the organization and those who are unable to negotiate their packs end up with less pay compared to their male counterparts, creating the perception of competition and favouritism.

Women tend to be over-represented in formal support roles and support skills needed to collaborate, facilitate and enable were devalued when it came to promotion. There is therefore need to align the formal and informal reward system and structures. Instituting more uniform and transparent policies, systems, procedures and practices would help minimize bias and ensure equitable treatment of women and minority employees.

Organizational structure**:** the default belief that hierarchy was the best way to organize, defining lines of authority and decision-making vertically. In many organizations, there is strong reliance on top-down formation flow, power and influence were concentrated at the top. Core management systems-budgeting, planning, and performance reviews are vertically organized and relied on a hierarchical cascade. Lateral lines of authority and communication were almost invisible.

It is slowly emerging that top down management is not always ideal especially in complex and diverse environments (Kotter and Heskett, 1992). However, people have begun to recognize that top-down management is no longer working well. This mental model affects beliefs about who owns problems and whose responsibility it is to fix them. In multinational organizations, critical decisions are normally made at headquarters sometimes without consultation with local management, most of whom are blacks. This leaves them feeling disempowered resulting to frustration. Such organizations miss out on the valuable input of local expertise, resulting to decisions being made without sound basis and rationale.

This mental model has far reaching implication on organization's performance and gender equity. Because women are less represented at higher levels of the hierarchy, their perspectives, skills, and experience are not being accessed effectively, and their contribution to the organization's overall mission is not being realized. This observation is also true for race, class and ethnic diversity also. In many organizations, the ideal executive is one with missionary zeal, willing to sacrifice everything and endure hardship to get the job done (Kets de Vries, et. al,1988). This assumes that executives did not have competing responsibilities in private life. This value of commitment and dedication had some unintended consequences for women executives who struggle to balance, personal life, family and demands of their executive roles as it assumes that the executive is one who either has no personal life or who has someone to take care of it. In an African setting like Kenya, this assumption clearly puts women at a disadvantage, limiting their ascension to executive positions.

5.4.5 Implications for Merit based Executive Selection

While merit has become synonymous with fairness, equality, or objectivity, in practice, merit-based processes do not always eliminate discrimination and stereotypical attitudes in executive selection outcome. The findings in this study is in line with other studies conducted in other countries that found that discrimination is many times integral to a meritocratic system. Vinnicombe et. al. (2010) argue that despite lingering doubts on merit selection's effectiveness in eliminating politics from executive selection, it has gained widespread acceptance. Proponents of merit selection offer it as an alternative to the politics inherent in executive selection (Easterly and Anderson, 1999).

Opponents of merit selection on the other hand maintain, and I concur, that executive selection is a political process and that merit selection itself does not take the politics out of the selection process. A merit-based system was found to discriminate on the basis of how much "merit" a person has and how that merit is measured. According to Pfeffer (1991), assuming the pre-condition that everyone has equal opportunity to acquire merit, systems are many times designed to favour those who have more of it. In practice, there is need to have a more closer and critical look at what constitutes merit in executive selection and how perceptions of merit are shaped and influenced.

There are two immediate problems with the merit argument. Firstly, everyone must have equal access to acquiring whatever quality is defined as "merit" the so-called level playing field. Secondly, people must be assessed only on criteria that predict performance. Either of these conditions is never truly met in executive selection processes, which means that women and minorities will still remain under-represented in senior roles in virtually every professional sphere. While this playing field may start off level, it doesn't stay that way for long. This because equally qualified women are being denied the managerial exposure enjoyed by their male counterparts. The same applies to the drive for ethnic diversity in senior executive roles. In Kenya, it has been known that members of a recruiting panel usually favour people from their own ethnic group and tend to manipulate scores to give them an advantage over others. This means that the dominating tribe in the panel usually carries the day. This introduces a big challenge in achieving gender and ethnic balance in senior executive roles in organizations (NCIC, 2013).

Despite representing a greater proportion of the tertiary education sector, qualified women are still drastically underrepresented in executive roles. As for the second condition, the criteria that predict performance are difficult to quantify and assess. So, notions of “merit” are often defined and measured subjectively. As well as this, it is impossible to insulate decision makers from considering extraneous factors. More recent research such as Easterly and Anderson (1999), suggests a more fundamental problem with merit. The “merit paradox” refers to the phenomenon whereby a focus on merit paradoxically results in more biased outcomes Easterly and Anderson, (1999). Initial work on this phenomenon was prompted by the observation that many organisations have introduced performance pay and merit-based reward practices with the intention of making remuneration and advancement more objective, and minimising workplace inequality, but that these practices have not actually increased equality.

Studies such as the one by Easterly and Anderson (1999), established that in situations where merit was emphasised as a basis for selection men were more likely to be selected, and more likely to be awarded higher salary increases, compared to equally rated women (Hede and Dingsdag, 1994). This paradoxical effect only occurred where merit was espoused as an organisational value, and was observed in relation to both gender and ethnicity. The most likely explanation for this paradoxical effect relates directly to gender stereotypes and unconscious bias. Glick and Rudman (2001), found that men and women are stereotypically perceived to differ on two dimensions women are perceived as interpersonally warmer and less competent relative to men, and men are perceived as less interpersonally warm and more

competent relative to women. These perceptions form the basis of gender stereotypes and unconscious bias.

Once activated, stereotypes and unconscious bias exert an irresistible influence on decision-making, without our awareness. An emphasis on merit in decision making simply activates the stereotype that men and women differ in their degree of competence or capability. Once activated, the stereotype unconsciously influences decision making in the direction of favouring men and certain ethnic groups on perceived performance criteria that are loaded in favour of competence-related characteristics. The downside of this is that an organisational process that may have been introduced to make decision making more objective can actually have the reverse effect by activating more gender bias, and masquerading it as merit.

Rouse and Goldin (2001) found that blind selection process, if done correctly, can even up the gender balance of shortlist by focusing solely on the criterion that actually measures merit and merit alone. They found that representation of women among new hires at the New York Philharmonic Orchestra increased from a base of 10% to 45% after the adoption of a blind audition process.

Selectors had long insisted that the lack of women musicians was not a reflection of gender discrimination but simply that the preferred playing style just so happened to predominate among male musicians. The introduction of blind auditions, however proved otherwise. This is because the perception that men and women have different playing styles is a gender stereotype, and this stereotype exerted a largely unconscious effect on selection decisions. Notwithstanding, the existing studies and anecdotal

evidence in support of merit selection, it by far remains a superior criteria for executive selection (Easterly and London, 1999). Table 5.2 shows a summary of contributions of this study that has been discussed in this section.

Table 5.2: Summary of contributions of the study

Contribution	**Finding**	**Implications**
Conceptual: The study linked cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome in a common conceptual framework.	The study found that there is a link between cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome. It also found that there is no direct link between stereotypes and executive selection outcome and that merit moderates this relationship.	Policy and practice: Merit based recruitment does not eliminate stereotypic discrimination since stereotypes very often are embedded in merit instruments. There is therefore need to critically look at what constitutes merit in organizational processes including executive selection
The study drew attention to social aspects of executive selection as opposed to systems, tools and methods of executive selection	The study found that there is a strong relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome. Cultural beliefs are acquired from the socialization process	Policy and practice: Despite the socialization process of executives, they still hold very strong beliefs that directly or indirectly influence their attitudes, behaviour and decisions in the work place.

Contribution	Finding	Implications
The study determined effect of merit on the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection	Merit moderates the relationship between stereotypes and executive selection.	Despite stereotypes held by executives in the organization, they can modify their behaviour to comply with organizational culture, values and policies such that these stereotypes do not directly influence their decisions and behaviours.
The study determined the effect of stereotypes and the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome	The study found that stereotypes weaken the relationship between cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome.	Learning theories and methodology: Organizational training programmes need to target change at cognitive level. They should focus on challenging the core beliefs that influence attitudes and behaviours of executives
Methodology: Conceptual framework and how the study variables have been operationalized.	The study added to the body of knowledge by conceptualizing cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome in a manner that has not been done in the Kenyan	The study highlighted the social dynamics of executive selection outcome, by showing the influence of cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome

Contribution	Finding	Implications
	context. Previous studies have conceptualized the study variables different and used different methodology like case studies and experiments	
Conceptual framework: Understanding the concept of merit	The study raised additional questions on the concept of merit in executive recruitment and selection.	The implications of the questions raised has brought about the need for a more critical look at the concept of merit, specifically, what constitutes merit in executive selection, how it is defined and measured.
Theoretical.	The study found that executives are able to suppress their core cultural beliefs to comply with organizational policies.	The study proposed a practical use of Buanura's (1977) social learning model in implementing sustainable culture change programs, by introducing the concept of "Bush-fire effect"
Bandura's (1977)social learning model	The study proposed a practical use of social learning models	The study has implications on training course design and learning methodologies of

Contribution	Finding	Implications
		executive development programs, which should be aimed at sustainable change of behaviour and attitudes
The influence of stereotypes on executive selection outcome	The study found that stereotypes have to be embedded in selection criteria and instruments	The study has implications on merit based and equal opportunity policies. Organizational policy makers need to ensure that their policies are free from discriminative biases arising from ethnic and gender stereotypes
Contextual dimension of executive selection outcome in multinational organization in Kenya	The study highlighted the dynamics of executive selection in the Kenyan context.	The study introduced a Kenyan context in the understanding of the influence the predictor variables on executive selection dynamics

The contributions and implications of the study are summarised on table 5.1

5.5 Recommendations from the study

From the findings and subsequent conclusions made from the study the researcher would like to make the following recommendations:

Arising from the conclusion that cultural beliefs influence executive selection outcome, organization should develop selection policies, procedures and instruments that mitigate any biases arsing from cultural beliefs. From the finding that stereotypes weakens the influence of cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome, organizations should have job descriptions and selection instruments that are free from stereotypical biases that would influence executive selection decisions.

The study found that stereotypes have no direct influence on executive selection outcome, this is explained by the fact organizational policies that put emphasis in merit based selection. However merit based selection policy would not completely eliminate stereotypical biases in executive selection outcome because any existing biases are likely to be embedded in selection criteria, policies, procedures and instruments. To mitigate the effect of stereotypes, the researcher recommends the need to thoroughly examine what constitutes merit in any executive selection process. This includes how it is defined, acquired and measured.

The researcher also recommends the introduction of blind selection process, where possible. This is where the candidate's gender and ethnicity is concealed to ensure that selection decisions are made purely on merit and not on any other criteria. The study found that executives in organizations can conceal their deeply held cultural beliefs in an attempt to comply with organizational culture and values. This means that when the conditions are appropriate, these executives can fall back to their default beliefs. As a result, the researcher recommends that any culture change and diversity initiatives and training should target and challenge beliefs at cognitive level to achieve sustainable results, using Bandura's (1977) social learning model would be ideal.

They would do this by using opinion leaders to drive sustainable organizational culture change programs.

5.6 Limitations of the study

There were various limitations encountered during the study. The study was conducted among multinational organizations in Kenya. The culture in multinational organizations is distinct and tends to borrow a lot from the cultures of mother countries. It would be interesting to replicate the study in local, public owned or governmental organizations to see if the findings would be the same. Initially the questionnaires were supposed to be filled by the CEOs, it became apparent that it was not possible to access most of the CEOs and even some of the ones accessed, delegated the completion of the questionnaires to other staff members in the organization. As time was going, the researcher made it optional for the questionnaire to be completed by either the CEO or a senior executive in the organization preferably reporting directly to the CEO.

The other limitation was the requirement to indicate the name of the organization. Multinational organizations approached have a confidentiality policy, which prohibited disclosure of organizational information to outsiders. This requirement greatly affected the response rate, to the extent that after two weeks of data collection, only three organizations had responded. As a result, the researcher made the requirement to indicate the identity of the organization optional, this decision greatly increased the response rate, which resulted to a final response rate of 49%.

5.7 Suggestions for further research

A result of the limitations of the study, I recommend that the study be replicated in other institutions including local organizations, family owned organizations, state corporations and governmental organizations. Different organizations present different contextual environments and hence different cultural challenges. It would be interesting to determine if the same findings would be replicated in a different environmental context I also recommend further interrogation of the concept if merit. There are limited studies on the concept of merit in organizations, especially to determine what constitutes merit, how it is acquired, how it is measured and the instruments used to measure it. Merit based selection is still by far the most effective in eliminating discrimination in any selection process. It would be interesting to study the effectiveness of blind selection in eliminating stereotypic discrimination in executive selection.

Everyone in the organization should have equal access to whatever constitutes merit. By examining merit at the point of selection is rather limited, as discrimination at the point of access to merit is able to indirectly affect executive selection outcome. Examining women's access to education and specialised training, could further shed light on executive selection outcome. One such study would be examining the factors that influence or limit women's advancement to executive and board levels in organizations. Gallergar (2000) in her book "Going to the Top", a road map from America's leading women executives, found that women do not need to modify their behaviours and behave like men in order to advance to CEO level in organizations. According to her, women will be surprised to learn that becoming a CEO does not

mean playing the "man's game," networking or ruthlessly going after what they want, but it involves taking risks, helping others and just plain being yourself.

Future researchers could study whether indeed, women do modify their behaviours to achieve their career goals and if they do, examine the impact of this behaviour modification on their being appointed to executive positions. Executive selection outcome would not be complete with without examining why executives leave organizations. From the findings of this study, it showed that executives leave organizations for other reasons other than performance and their ability to do the job. Future researchers should examine executive retention the reasons why executives leave organizations. Research shows that executives tend to stay longest with those companies that offer the greatest opportunities for growth and personal development. A study of what organizations that keep their executives do differently would also be very useful as well.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Data Collection Questionnaire

Section 1: Personal data

1. Name of Organization (Optional, please indicate N/A if uncomfortable to disclose this information)…….

2. Location of Mother Company.

   Africa ☐ Europe ☐merica ☐Asia ☐

   Other (specify) ……

3. Designation of person filling the questionnaire 1. CEO ☐

   2. Head of HR ☐3. Other (Please specify) ☐……..

4. Gender of the person filling the questionnaire: 1. Male ☐. Female ☐

5. Age (in years) of the person filling the questionnaire

   1. Below 28 ☐ 2. 28-35 ☐ 3. 35-45 ☐ 4. Over 45 ☐

6. Number of employees: 1. Less than 100 ☐ 2. 101-230 ☐

   3. Over 250 ☐

7. Number of members of executive team (CEO and direct reports) 1. Less than 5 ☐
   2. 5-10 ☐ 3. 11-15 ☐ 4. More than 15 (Specify) ☐

8. Proportion of female members on the executive team 1. 0% ☐
   2. Below 25% ☐ 3. 25%-50% ☐ 4. 51%-99% ☐ 5. 100% ☐

(Note: In the sections below the term executive refers to the positions that report directly to the CEO or the head of the organization)

Section 2: Cultural beliefs

On a scale of 1 to5, rate the following statements, where **1 Not agree, 2-Moderately agree, 3 Agree, 4-Strongly** and **5 – Very strongly agree**

	a).Organizational Level	1	2	3	4	5
	i). Beliefs on ability					
9	We believe that male and female executives have equal ability at executive level.					
10.	We believe that male and female executives perform equally well as senior executives					
	ii). Beliefs on gender roles					
11.	This firm has a gender diversity policy					
12.	This observe gender diversity when appointing executives					
13.	Female executives are given equal opportunities as male executives					
14	This organization believes in gender diversity					
15.	There are certain roles that are specifically performed by males					
16	There are certain roles that specifically performed by females					
17.	Men and women are equally represented in senior executive positions					
	iii). Beliefs on diversity					
18.	We have an equal opportunity policy					

19.	We practice diversity policy when selecting senior executives					
20	We adhere to ethnic diversity policy when making executive appointments					
21	We have a system to monitor and take action against any form of discrimination					

	b) At National level					
	Beliefs on gender roles					
22.	In Kenya males are considered culturally more superior to women					
23.	When selecting executives it is easier for a male candidate to be considered than a female candidate					
24.	People in this country still largely believe that males make better executives than women					
25.	Culturally, females are believed to be the same as males					
26.	Culturally the Kenyan society is open to having women occupy senior executive roles					
	Beliefs on ethnic tolerance					
27.	Kenya is an ethnically diverse country					
28.	There is a good degree of ethnic tolerance among various ethnic groups					

29.	In Kenya some ethnic groups are considered superior to others					
30.	In Kenya there are laws against ethnic discrimination					
31.	In Kenya there are systems to monitor and take action against any form of ethnic discrimination					
	Beliefs on diversity					
32.	In Kenya there are laws against any form of discrimination					
33.	In Kenya there are systems that monitor and take action against any form of discrimination					
34.	In Kenya diversity laws are practiced when selecting at appointing executives at national level					

Provide any additional comments on cultural beliefs at Organizational level

…….

……

Provide any additional comments on cultural beliefs at National level

……

……

Section 3 : Stereotypes

On a scale of 1 to5, rate the following statements, where **1 is Strongly Disagree, 2-Disagree, 3-Neutral, 4-Agree** and **5 –Strongly agree**

		1	2	3	4	5
	A. Gender stereotype					
	Perception of ability					
35.	In this organization women are believed to have the ability to occupy senior executive positions					
36.	In this organization male executives are believed to make better executives					
37.	In this organization, female executives are perceived to be less competitive compared to the male					
38.	In this organization females are believed to perform better in executive positions					
	Gender discrimination					
39.	In this organization male and female executives in the same job group receive equal benefits					
40.	In this organization, male and female executives receive equal benefits for equal job done					
41	Incidents of discrimination against women when appointing executives has been reported in this organization					
42	In this organization male executives have strong negative stereotypes against female executives					

43	In this organization female executives have strong negative stereotypes against fellow female executives					
44	In this organization female executives have strong negative stereotypes against fellow male executives					
	Promotability					
45.	Females and males have equal chances of being promoted to senior executive positions in this organization					
46.	If you are male, you are more likely to be promoted to senior executive positions					
47.	If you are female, you're more likely to be promoted to senior executive positions					
48	Female executives are believed to be less ambitious than their male counterparts					
	B. Ethnic stereotypes					
	Perception of ability					
49.	In this organization all employees of different ethnic origins are perceived to have the ability to occupy executive positions					
	Ethnic discrimination					
50	There have been incidents of ethnic discrimination when it comes to executive appointments in this organization					

	Promotability					
51	In this organization you stand a higher chance of being promoted to executive position if you come from the same ethnic group ethnic group as recruiting executive					
52	In this organization ethnicity is considered above merit when it comes to promotion to executive positions					

Provide any additional comments on Gender Stereotype

……
……
……

Provide any additional comments on ethnic stereotype

……

…….....

Section 4: Merit

a) Qualification and experience

	(On a scale of 1-5 where 1 Not agree, 2-Moderately agree, 3 Agree, 4-Strongly agree and **5 – Very Strongly agree**	1	2	3	4	5
	In selecting executives we give greatest weight to the following:					
53	Past relevant experience					
54	Professional qualifications					

55	Basic University degree (bachelors)					
56	International experience					
57	Post graduate education/training					

Provide any additional comments……

……

……

b). Knowledge and skills

	(On a scale of 1-5 where 1 is Strongly disagree 2-disagree 3-neutral 4-agree 5-strongly agree	1	2	3	4	5
	When selecting executives we greatest weight to:					
58	Unique skills (E.g. restructuring organizations)					
59	Abilities (E.g. transforming organizations)					
60	Future potential of the candidate					
61	Technical knowledge					
62	People management skills					
63	General business knowledge					

Additional comments……

c). Behavioural Competencies

	(On a scale of 1-5 where 1 is Not agree, 2-Moderately agree, 3 Agree, 4-Strongly agree and **5 – Very Strongly agree)**	1	2	3	4	5
	In selecting executives we give greatest weight to:					
64	Candidate's personality profile					
65	Candidate's character					
66	Candidate's values					
67	Candidate's leadership skills					

Provide any additional comments……

……

Section 4: Executive selection Outcome

Think about the most recent executive recruitment and respond to the following sections regarding the candidate selected

a). Fit between candidate attributes and job requirements

	On a scale of 1-5 where 1 Not agree, 2-Moderately agree, 3 Agree, 4-Strongly agree and **5 – Very Strongly agree**	1	2	3	4	5
68	The selected candidates have the required behavioral skills for the job					
69	The selected candidates have the technical skills for the job					
70	The selected candidates have the necessary knowledge for the job					
71	The selected candidates have the necessary experience for the job					
72	The selected candidates do not meet the job requirements					
73	The selected candidates usually require further development to meet the job requirements					

Provide any additional comments on job fit……

B). Length of engagement

	On a scale of 1-5 (where 1 Not agree, 2-Moderately agree, 3 Agree, 4-Strongly agree and **5 – Very Strongly agree)**	1	2	3	4	5
74	The selected candidates normally successfully complete their probation period successfully					
75	The selected candidates normally get confirmed after their probation period					
76	The selected candidates are normally not confirmed at the end of probation period					
77	The selected candidates normally leave within 12 months of their appointment					
78	The selected candidates normally last within 1to 2 years of appointment					
79	The selected candidates normally stay for more than 3 years on the job					
80	There is a high turnover in our executive positions					
81	The turnover in our executive positions is very low					

Provide any additional comments on length of engagement

……

C). Executive performance

	On a scale of 1-5 (where 1 Not agree, 2-Moderately agree, 3 Agree, 4-Strongly agree and **5 – Very Strongly agree)**	1	2	3	4	5
82	The selected candidates meet the performance expectations on the job					
83	The selected candidates perform above expectations on the job					
84	The selected candidates perform below expectations on the job					
85	The selected candidates normally require further training and development to meet performance requirements on the job					

Provide any additional comments: Performance of selected candidates on the job

……

Appendix II: Scatter diagrams

Figure 5.1: Scatter diagram of cultural beliefs and executive selection outcome

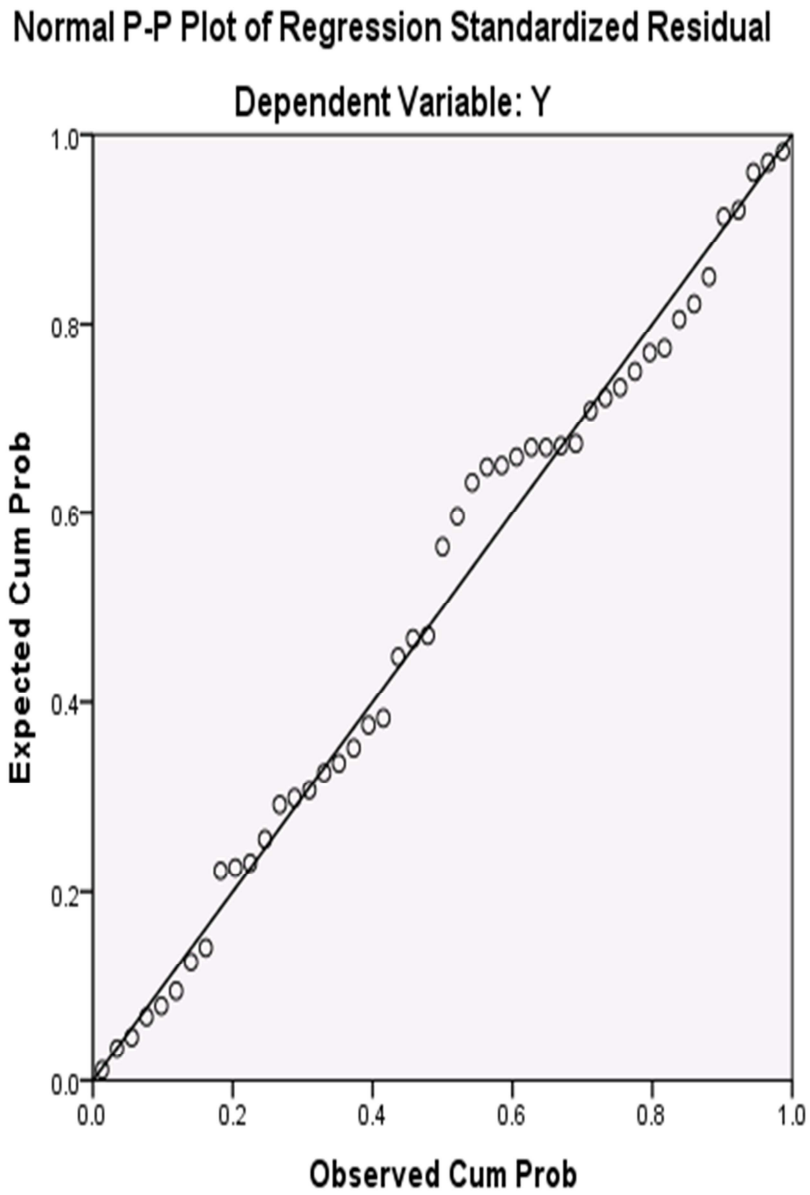


Figure 5.2: Scatter diagram of cultural beliefs and stereotypes

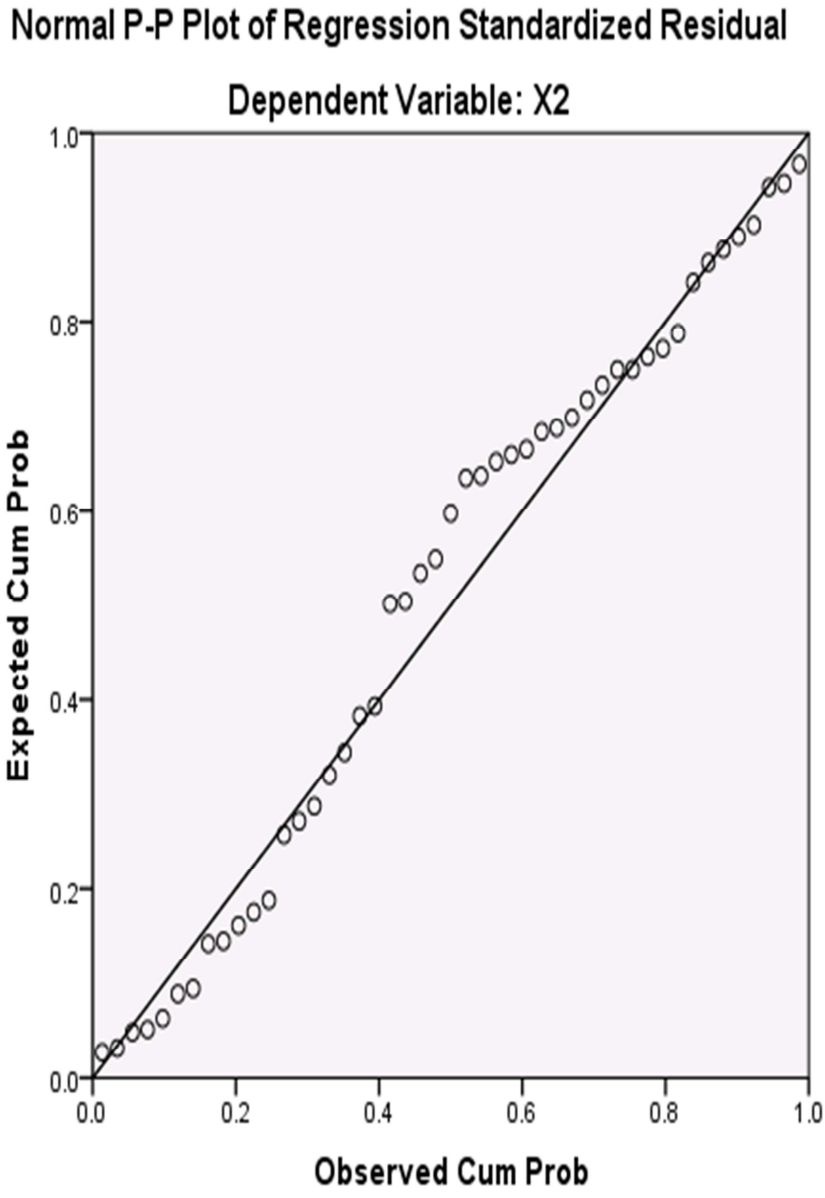


Figure 5.3: Scatter diagram of stereotypes and executive selection outcome

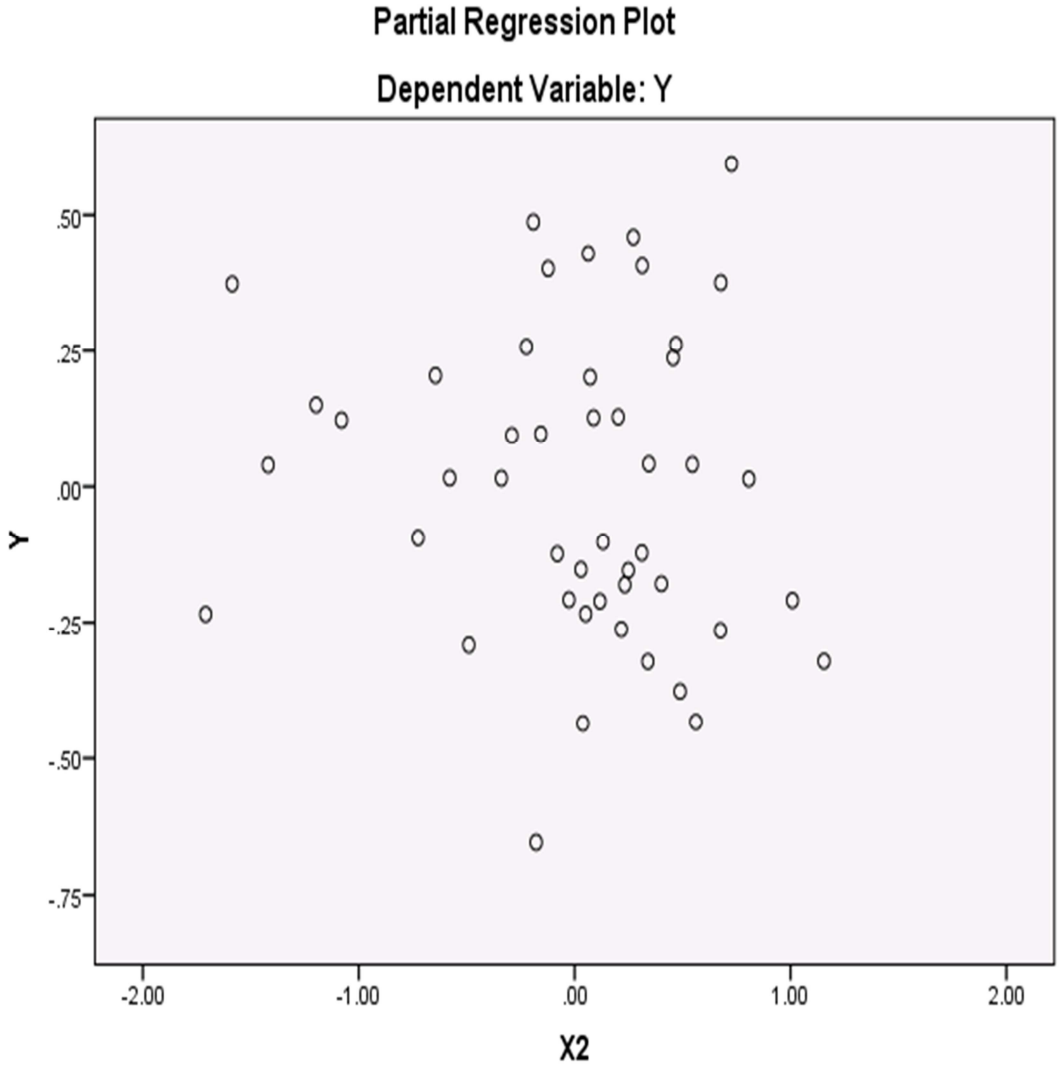


Figure 5.4 :Scatter diagram of cultural beliefs, stereotypes and executive selection outcome

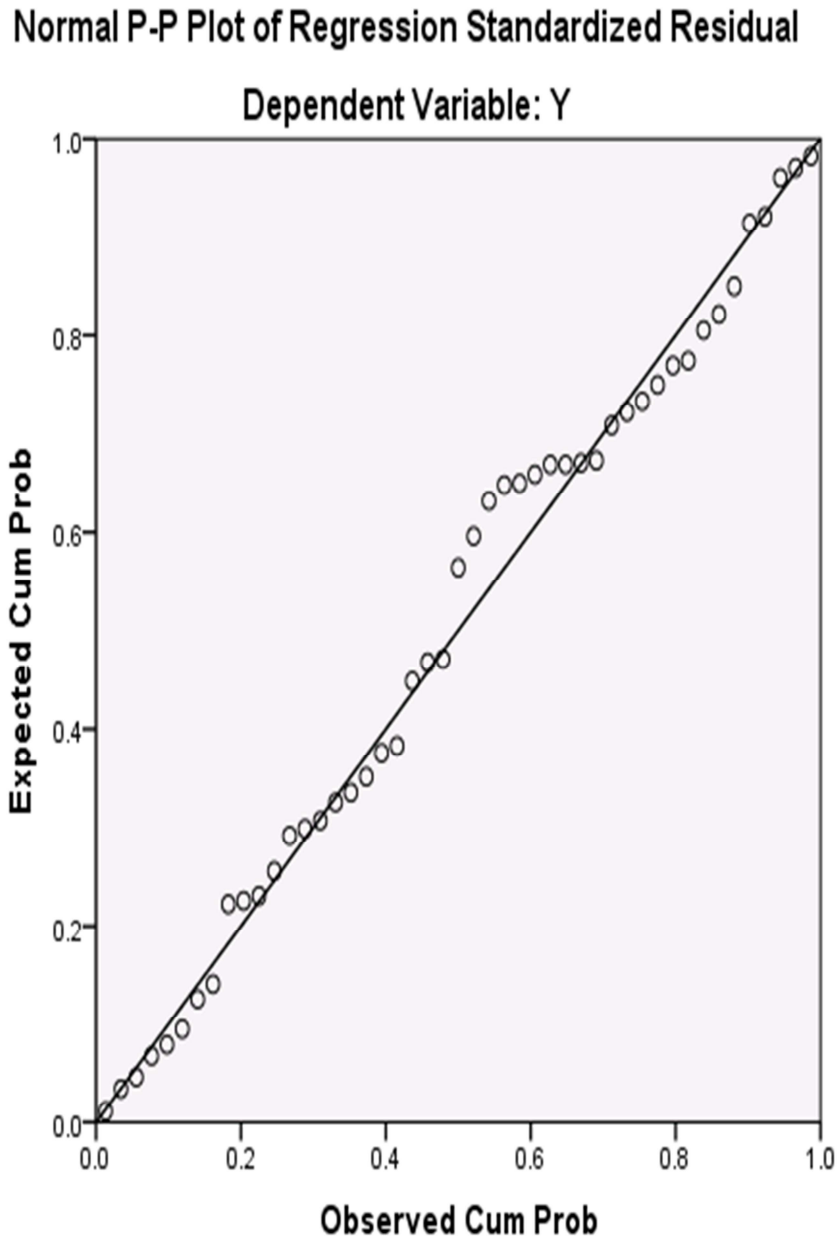
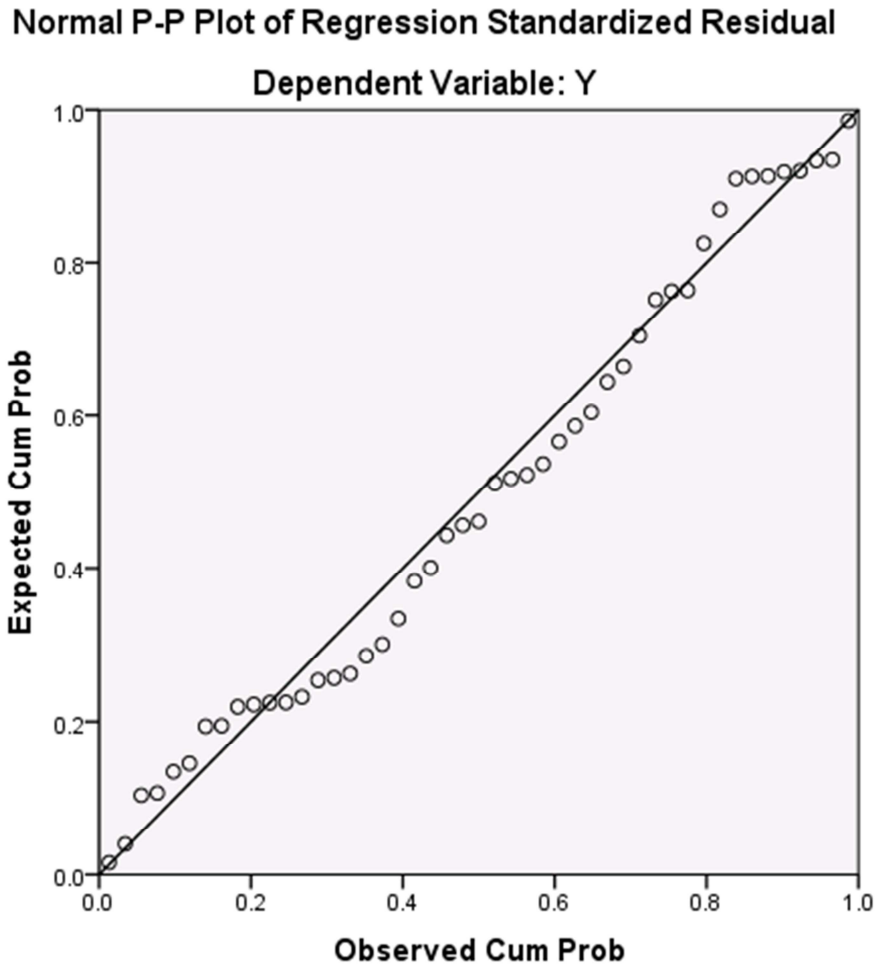


Figure 5.5 :Scatter diagram of cultural beliefs, stereotypes, merit and executive selection outcome



Appendix III: Statistical Tables

2.1 Reliability Tests

Table 2.1a Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	46	97.9
	Excluded	1	2.1
	Total	47	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Table 2.1b Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.831	26

Table:2.1c Reliability statics for Cultural beliefs

Cultural beliefs	**Scale Mean if Item Deleted**	**Scale Variance if Item Deleted**	**Corrected Item-Total Correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted**
We believe that male and female executives have equal ability at executive level	75.98	183.488	.639	.816
We believe that male and	75.96	181.865	.649	.815

Cultural beliefs	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
female executives perform equally well as senior executives				
This firm has a gender diversity policy	76.26	177.486	.620	.814
We observe gender diversity when appointing executives	76.52	177.588	.669	.813
Female executives are given equal opportunities as male executives	76.07	179.351	.611	.815
This organization believes in gender diversity	76.07	176.907	.728	.811
There are certain roles that are specifically performed by males	77.65	209.121	-.219	.847
There are certain roles that specifically performed by females	77.96	208.754	-.227	.845
Men and women are equally represented in senior executive positions	77.22	189.729	.303	.828
We have an equal opportunity policy	75.93	180.107	.631	.815

Cultural beliefs	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
We practice diversity policy when selecting senior executives	76.48	177.677	.665	.813
We adhere to ethnic diversity policy when making executive appointments	77.00	188.533	.332	.826
We have a system to monitor and take action against any form of discrimination	76.46	175.498	.664	.812
In Kenya males are considered culturally more superior to women	76.83	199.614	.043	.837
When selecting executives it is easier for a male candidate to be considered than a female	77.37	203.838	-.079	.842
People in this country still largely believe that males make better executives than women	77.02	197.800	.106	.834
Culturally, females are believed to be the same as males	78.11	196.455	.280	.828

Cultural beliefs	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Culturally the Kenyan society is open to having women occupy senior executive roles	77.24	189.919	.429	.823
Kenya is an ethnically diverse country	76.00	185.511	.430	.822
There is a good degree of ethnic tolerance among various ethnic groups	77.39	191.666	.348	.826
In Kenya some ethnic groups are considered superior to others	76.85	209.421	-.222	.848
In Kenya there are laws against ethnic discrimination	76.74	183.886	.447	.822
There are systems to monitor and take action against any form of ethnic discrimination	77.35	186.765	.408	.823
There are laws against any form of discrimination	76.50	187.411	.359	.825
There are systems that monitor and take action against any form of discrimination	77.41	182.603	.493	.820

Cultural beliefs	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Diversity laws are practiced when selecting at appointing executives at national level	77.48	182.522	.519	.819
N=47 Grand mean	**3.0**			

2.2 Stereotypes

Table 2.2a: Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	46	97.9
	Excluded	1	2.1
	Total	47	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Table 2.2b Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.896	18

Table 2.2c: Reliability statistics for Stereotypes

Stereotypes	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Women are believed to have the ability to occupy senior executive positions	64.52	142.566	.746	.885
Male executives are believed to make better executives	65.00	145.422	.512	.891
Female executives are perceived to be less competitive compared to the Male	64.70	139.994	.783	.883
Females are believed to perform better in executive positions	64.83	160.814	.010	.904
Male and Female executives in the same job group receive equal benefits	64.50	142.700	.659	.887
Male and Female executives receive equal benefits for equal job done	64.43	141.851	.651	.887
Incidents of discrimination against women has been reported	64.28	152.918	.351	.895
Male executives have strong negative stereotypes against Female executives	64.61	139.177	.778	.883

Female executives have strong negative stereotypes against fellow Female executives	64.59	140.959	.758	.884
Male executives have strong negative stereotypes against fellow Male executives	64.57	143.007	.696	.886
Stereotypes	**Scale Mean if Item Deleted**	**Scale Variance if Item Deleted**	**Corrected Item-Total Correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted**
Females and Males have equal chances of being promoted	64.54	143.098	.656	.887
If you are Male, you are more likely to be promoted to senior executive positions	64.74	135.842	.775	.882
If you are Female, you are more likely to be promoted to senior executive positions	64.39	153.399	.358	.895
Female executives are believed to be less ambitious than their Male counterparts	66.26	180.908	-.629	.925
All employees of different ethnic origins are perceived to have the ability to occupy executive positions	64.85	145.510	.451	.894
There have been incidents of ethnic discrimination when it comes to executive appointments	64.78	134.441	.807	.880

in this organization				
You stand a higher chance of being promoted to executive position if you come from the same ethnic group ethnic group as recruiting executive	64.72	135.274	.777	.882
Ethnicity is considered above merit when it comes to promotion to executive positions	64.57	139.585	.647	.887

2.3 Merit

Table 2.3a: Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	46	97.9
	Excluded	1	2.1
	Total	47	100.0

Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Table 2.3b: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.880	15

Table 2.3c: Reliability statistics for Merit

Merit	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Post Graduate Education/training	55.91	71.592	.514	.874
Basic University Degree (bachelors	55.41	76.070	.335	.881
Professional Qualifications	55.30	71.550	.592	.870
Past relevant Experience	54.93	74.996	.592	.872
International Experience	55.91	76.348	.221	.891
Unique skills (E.g. restructuring organizations	55.59	76.248	.410	.877
Abilities (E.g. transforming organizations	55.30	73.150	.609	.870
Future potential of the candidate	55.67	74.491	.440	.877
Technical knowledge	55.43	76.073	.351	.880
People Management Skills	55.07	72.329	.642	.868

Merit	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
General Business knowledge	55.22	74.796	.542	.873
Candidate’s personality profile	55.63	69.927	.722	.864
Candidate’s character	55.57	67.985	.710	.863
Candidate’s values	55.30	68.128	.754	.861
Candidate’s leadership skills	55.22	68.974	.783	.861

2.4 Executive selection outcome

Table 2.4a: Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	47	100.0
	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	47	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Table 2.4b:Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.803	18

Table 2.4c: Reliability statistics for Executive Selection Outcome

Executive Selection Outcome	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
The selected candidates have the required behavioural skills for the job	65.21	81.128	.718	.776
The selected candidates have the technical skills for the job	65.09	83.471	.487	.788
The selected candidates have the necessary knowledge for the job	65.11	79.010	.687	.774
The selected candidates have the necessary experience for the job	65.19	79.810	.577	.780
The selected candidates do not meet the job requirements	64.62	86.372	.371	.795
The selected candidates usually require further development to meet the job requirements	65.00	85.043	.355	.795
Candidates normally successfully complete their probation period	65.04	82.129	.681	.779
Candidates normally get confirmed after their probation period	65.17	84.014	.439	.790

Executive Selection Outcome	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Candidates are normally not confirmed at the end of probation period	64.60	89.377	.161	.807
Candidates normally leave within 12 months of their appointment	64.57	84.902	.457	.790
Candidates normally last within 1 to 2 years of appointment	66.72	100.509	-.331	.839
Candidates normally stay for more than 3 years on the job	65.49	84.429	.363	.795
There is a high turnover in our executive positions	64.83	84.449	.361	.795
The turnover in our executive positions is very low	65.85	84.521	.230	.809
Selected candidates meet the performance expectations of the Job	65.34	80.838	.686	.777
Selected candidates perform above expectations on the job	65.74	82.325	.539	.784
Selected candidates perform below expectations on the job	64.55	84.383	.438	.791
selected candidates normally require further training and development to meet	65.60	87.159	.201	.807

2.5 Descriptive statistics

2.5a:Descriptive statistics for cultural beliefs

Cultural Beliefs	Mean	Std. Deviation
We have an equal opportunity policy	4.00	1.234
We believe that male and female executives perform equally well as senior executives	3.98	1.113
Kenya is an ethnically diverse country	3.94	1.309
We believe that male and female executives have equal ability at executive level	3.91	1.039
This organization believes in gender diversity	3.81	1.262
Female executives are given equal opportunities as male executives	3.81	1.329
This firm has a gender diversity policy	3.60	1.439
We practice diversity policy when selecting senior executives	3.47	1.316
We have a system to monitor and take action against any form of discrimination	3.47	1.412
There are laws against any form of discrimination	3.36	1.390
We observe gender diversity when appointing executives	3.34	1.340
In Kenya there are laws against ethnic discrimination	3.15	1.383
In Kenya males are considered culturally more superior to women	3.11	1.220

Cultural Beliefs	Mean	Std. Deviation
In Kenya some ethnic groups are considered superior to others	3.06	1.325
We adhere to ethnic diversity policy when making executive appointments	2.96	1.367
People in this country still largely believe that males make better executives than women	2.94	1.187
Culturally the Kenyan society is open to having women occupy senior executive roles	2.72	1.036
Men and women are equally represented in senior executive positions	2.66	1.340
When selecting executives it is easier for a male candidate to be considered than a female	2.55	1.316
There are systems that monitor and take action against any form of discrimination	2.55	1.396
There are systems to monitor and take action against any form of ethnic discrimination	2.55	1.265
There is a good degree of ethnic tolerance among various ethnic groups	2.52	1.027
Diversity laws are practiced when selecting at appointing executives at national level	2.45	1.299
There are certain roles that are specifically performed by males	2.23	1.289

Cultural Beliefs	Mean	Std. Deviation
There are certain roles that specifically performed by females	2.02	1.207
Culturally, females are believed to be the same as males	1.87	.850
N=47 **Grand mean**	**3.0**	

Table 2.5b: Stereotypes

Stereotypes	Mean	Std. Deviation
Women are believed to have the ability to occupy senior executive positions	4.00	1.022
Male executives are believed to make better executives	3.49	1.231
Female executives are perceived to be less competitive compared to the Male	3.79	1.141
Females are believed to perform better in executive positions	3.70	.976
Male and Female executives in the same job group receive equal benefits	4.00	1.142
Male and Female executives receive equal benefits for equal job done	4.06	1.205
Incidents of discrimination against women has been reported	4.21	.954
Male executives have strong negative stereotypes against Female executives	3.91	1.158

Stereotypes	Mean	Std. Deviation
Female executives have strong negative stereotypes against fellow Female executives	3.91	1.100
Male executives have strong negative stereotypes against fellow Male executives	3.94	1.071
Females and Males have equal chances of being promoted	3.98	1.125
If you are Male, you are more likely to be promoted to senior executive positions	3.74	1.359
If you are Female, you are more likely to be promoted to senior executive positions	4.09	.929
Female executives are believed to be less ambitious than their Male counterparts	2.23	1.202
All employees of different ethnic origins are perceived to have the ability to occupy executive positions	3.68	1.337
There have been incidents of ethnic discrimination when it comes to executive appointments in this organization	3.70	1.382
You stand a higher chance of being promoted to executive position if you come from the same ethnic group ethnic group as recruiting executive	3.79	1.366
Ethnicity is considered above merit when it comes to promotion to executive positions	3.91	1.365
N=47 Grand mean	**3.775**	

Table 2.5c: Descriptive statistics for Merit

Merit	Mean	Std. Deviation
Post Graduate Education/training	3.45	1.157
Basic University Degree (bachelors	3.91	1.080
Professional Qualifications	4.11	1.026
Past relevant Experience	4.45	.717
International Experience	3.48	1.278
Unique skills (E.g. restructuring organizations	3.81	.825
Abilities (E.g. transforming organizations	4.11	.866
Future potential of the candidate	3.72	.971
Technical knowledge	3.96	.955
People Management Skills	4.34	.891
General Business knowledge	4.17	.789
Candidate's personality profile	3.79	.999
Candidate's character	3.83	1.148
Candidate's values	4.11	1.088
Candidate's leadership skills	4.19	.992
N=47 Grand mean	**3.95**	

Table 2.5d: Descriptive Statistics for Executive selection outcome

Executive selection outcome	Mean	Std. Deviation
The selected candidates have the required behavioural skills for the job	3.83	.916
The selected candidates have the technical skills for the job	3.96	1.042
The selected candidates have the necessary knowledge for the job	3.94	1.111
The selected candidates have the necessary experience for the job	3.85	1.215
The selected candidates do not meet the job requirements	1.57	.950
The selected candidates usually require further development to meet the job requirements	1.96	1.141
Candidates normally successfully complete their probation period	4.00	.885
Candidates normally get confirmed after their probation period	3.87	1.076
Candidates are normally not confirmed at the end of probation period	1.55	1.080
Candidates normally leave within 12 months of their appointment	1.53	.952
Candidates normally last within 1 to 2 years of appointment	2.32	1.235

Executive selection outcome	Mean	Std. Deviation
Candidates normally stay for more than 3 years on the job	3.55	1.194
There is a high turnover in our executive positions	1.79	1.197
The turnover in our executive positions is very low	3.19	1.597
Selected candidates meet the performance expectations of the Job	3.70	.976
Selected candidates perform above expectations on the job	3.30	1.061
Selected candidates perform below expectations on the job	1.51	1.040
selected candidates normally require further training and development to meet	2.55	1.316
N=47 Grand mean	**3.09**	

Appendix IV: List of Targeted Organizations

	Organization	**Nature of Business**
1.	BASF	Manufacturing
2.	CocaCola	Manufacturing
3.	PepsiCola	Manufacturing
4.	Uniliver	Manufacturing
5.	Reckit Benkinser	Manufacturing
6.	Procter and Allan	Manufacturing
7.	GlaxoSmithKline	Manufacturing
8.	Nestle Foods	Manufacturing
9.	Wriggleys	Manufacturing
10.	Cadbury's	Manufacturing
11.	Tetrapak	Manufacturing
12.	EABL	Manufacturing
13.	Bamburi	Manufacturing
14.	Carbacid Investment	Manufacturing
15.	Athi River mining	Manufacturing
16.	BOC gas	Manufacturing
17.	Eveready East Africa	Manufacturing
18.	BAT	Manufacturing

	Organization	Nature of Business
19.	Coca Cola	Manufacturing
20.	Magadi Soda	Manufacturing
21.	Bata Shoe	Manufacturing
22.	Colgate Palmolive	Manufacturing
23.	Cussons EA ltd	Manufacturing
24.	Johnson and Johnson	Manufacturing
25.	Weetabix E.A Ltd.	Manufacturing
26.	East African Cables	Manufacturing
27.	Henklel Chemicals	Manufacturing
28.	General Electric	Manufacturing
29.	Delmonte	Manufacturing
30.	Philips Africa	Healthcare
31.	Mitsubishi	Motor vehicles
32.	General Motors	Motor vehicles
33.	CMC	Motor vehicles
34.	Toyota	Motor vehicles
35.	L'oriele	FMCG
36.	Heineken	FMCG
37.	Safaricom	Mobile telecommunication
38.	Orange Telcom	Mobile telecommunication

	Organization	Nature of Business
39.	Yu-telcom	Mobile telecommunication
40.	Airtel	Mobile telecommunication
41.	Siemens	Mobile telecommunication
42.	Samsung	Mobile telecommunication
43.	Nokia	Mobile telecommunication
44.	Microsoft	ICT
45.	Cisco Systems	ICT
46.	Google	ICT
47.	Access Kenya	ICT
48.	IBM	ICT
49.	HP	ICT
50.	Google	ICT
51.	G4S security	Security
52.	Wells Fargo	Security
53.	Iber Africa	Energy
54.	Total Kenya	Energy
55.	Shell (Viva energy)	Energy
56.	Keno/Kobil	Energy
57.	Citibank	Financial
58.	General Electric	Trading

	Organization	Nature of Business
59.	LG	Trading
60.	Sony	Trading
61.	IMF	Financial
62.	World Bank	Financial
63.	Mastercard	Financial
64.	Diamond Trust Bank	Financial
65.	Standard Chartered Bank	Financial
66.	Barclays Bank	Financial
67.	Stanbic Bank	Financial
68.	CBA Bank	Financial
69.	Alexander Forbes	Financial
70.	British American Life Insurance	Financial
71.	TNT	Services
72.	DHL	Services
73.	Oxford University Press	Publishing
74.	Price Water House Coopers	Services
75.	KPMG	Services
76.	Deloitte and Touch	Services
77.	Tack International	Services
78.	British American Investment (Britam)	Services

	Organization	Nature of Business
79.	Scan Group	Services
80.	Express Kenya	Services
81.	Fedex	Services
82.	UPS	Services
83.	Red Cross	NGO
84.	World Vision	NGO
85.	Action Aid	NGO
86.	Care Kenya	NGO
87.	International Plan Parenthood	NGO
88.	Save the Children fund	NGO
89.	Oxfam	NGO
90.	Africa Wildlife Foundation	NGO
91.	USAID	UN
92.	UNICEF	UN
93.	WFP (world food program)	UN
94.	Hilton Hotel	Hospitality
95.	Finlays	Agricultural
96.	Syngenta	Agricultural

Appendix V: Introductory Cover Letter

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS
DOCTORAL STUDIES PROGRAMME

Telephone: 4184160/1-5 Ext. 225
Email: dsp@uonbi.ac.ke

P.O. Box 30197
Nairobi, Kenya

11th March, 2014

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: RACHEL MUGA MONYONCHO: D80/60112/2011

This is to certify that, **RACHEL MUGA MONYONCHO: D80/60112/2011** is a Ph.D candidate in the School of Business, University of Nairobi. The title of her study is: **"Influence of Cultural Beliefs, Stereotypes and Merit on Executive Selection Outcome in Multinational Organizations In Kenya".**

The purpose of this letter therefore, is to kindly request you to assist and facilitate in carrying out the research/study in your organization. A questionnaire is herewith attached for your kind consideration and necessary action.

Data and information obtained through this exercise will be used for academic purposes only. Hence, the respondents are requested not to indicate their names anywhere on the questionnaire.

We look forward to your cooperation.

Thank you.

Graduate Studies Co-ord nator Box 30197 NAIROBI Commerce Faculty

PROF. MARTIN OGUTU
FOR: ASSOCIATE DEAN
GRADUATE BUSINESS STUDIES
SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

MO/nwk