

**PERSONALITY TRAITS, POLITICAL EFFICACY AND
ELECTORAL OUTCOMES: A SURVEY OF SELECTED FEMALE
PARLIAMENTARY CONTESTANTS IN KENYA**


**JONATHAN KATHUNGU MAWEU (MA)
C82/10026/2008**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF HUMANITIES
AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN COUNSELLING
PSYCHOLOGY OF KENYATTA UNIVERSITY**

APRIL 2016

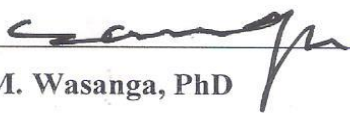
DECLARATION


This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university or any other award. The thesis has been complemented by referenced works that are duly acknowledged. Where text, data, graphics, pictures or tables have been borrowed from other works including the internet, the sources are specifically accredited through referencing in accordance with the anti-plagiarism regulations.

Signature  Date 29/4/16
Jonathan Kathungu Maweu, MA CA82/10026/2008
 Department of Psychology

SUPERVISORS

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

Signature  Date 4/5/2016
Christine M. Wasanga, PhD
 Department of Psychology
 Kenyatta University

Signature  Date 03/05/2016
Jacinta A. Kwena, PhD
 Department of Educational Psychology
 Pwani University

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I acknowledge and appreciate the following people for their input and assistance, at various levels, in the course of doing my doctoral studies. First, I thank my supervisors Dr. Christine Wasanga and Dr. Jacinta Kwena for their many valuable ideas, suggestions and comments which shaped the course of this dissertation. While their input is acknowledged, the researcher bears responsibility for any shortcomings in the study. Secondly, I thank members of my family for their love, support and prayers throughout the doctoral studies; Evelyn, my wife, prayed for me while Mwendwa, my son, gave me time to do my assignments. Third, I thank Africa Inland Church [AIC] Mtito Andei District Church Council [DCC], who gave me study leave, and the Africa Inland Mission [AIM], for the award of the Advanced Training Fund (ATF) Scholarship that covered a large part of my fees. Fourthly, I thank my lecturers my lecturers Dr. Christine Wasanga, Dr. Margaret Mwenje, Dr. Marecia Sirera, Dr. Philomena Ndambuki, Dr. Njonge, Dr. Francisca Ongecha, Dr. Pacifica Onyancha, Dr. Muchiri Karega, Dr. Solomon Mumah and Dr. Beatrice Kathungu for the knowledge they imparted on me during doctoral classes. Lastly, I appreciate my colleagues from the doctoral class at Kenyatta University -Dr. Peterson Mwangi, Dr. Alice Ronoh, Mrs Evelyn Kathungu, Dr. Naomy Wangai and Dr. Eunice Mvungu - for their moral support during the shared journey.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my dear wife, Evelyn Kathungu and my son Mwendwa Kathungu whose love and support gave me the reason to persist; my loving parents Mrs Rose Maweu and Mr. Willie Muindi and the late Mrs Rachael S. Ingati and Mr. Walker Andolo for their enduring prayers; my brothers and sisters who called for resilience in tough times and grace in success; and to members of my church family, at AIC – Mtito Andei and FBC – Athi River for their diverse support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENT	iii
DEDICATION	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS	xi
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS.....	xiii
ABSTRACT	xv
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background to the Study.....	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem.....	6
1.3. Purpose of the Study	7
1.4. Objectives of the Study.....	8
1.5. Research Questions	8
1.6. Hypotheses of the Study	9
1.7. Justification and Significance of the Study.....	10
1.8. Assumptions of the Study	10
1.9. Limitations and Delimitations of the Study	11
CHAPTER TWO.....	12
LITERATURE REVIEW	12
2.1 Introduction	12
2.2 Theoretical Framework.....	12

2.3	The Big Five Model of Personality.....	12
2.4	The Self-Efficacy Theory.....	17
2.5	Review of Related Literature	21
2.5.1	The Relationship between Personality Traits and Electoral Outcomes	21
2.5.2	The Relationship between Political Efficacy Judgments and Electoral Outcomes	37
2.6	Summary of Reviewed Literature	46
2.7	Conceptual Framework	49
2.8	Summary	51
CHAPTER THREE:		52
METHODOLOGY OF STUDY.....		52
3.1	Introduction	52
3.2	Study Design	52
3.3	Study Variables	53
3.4	Location of the Study	53
3.5	Target Population.....	54
3.6	Sampling Procedure	54
3.7	Sample Size	55
3.8	Research Instruments	55
3.9	Pilot Study	58
3.10	Reliability and Validity.....	58
3.11	Data Collection Procedure	60
3.12	Data Analysis	60
3.13	Logistics and Ethical Considerations.....	62
CHAPTER FOUR		63

PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS.	63
4.1	Introduction63
4.2	Demographic Data of the Participants 63
4.2.1	Age of Respondents 63
4.2.2	Participants Number of Years in Formal Education 64
4.2.3	Participants Number of Years in Politics 65
4.2.4	Distribution of Personality Traits among Respondents 66
4.2.5	Distribution of Political Efficacy Judgments Among Respondents..... 70
4.2.6	Relationship between Personality Traits and Electoral Outcomes 75
4.2.7	Relationship between Political Efficacy and Electoral Outcomes..... 78
4.2.8	Difference in Personality Traits Scores between Successful and Non- Successful Contestants 82
4.2.9	Differences in Political Efficacy Judgement between Successful and Non- Successful Contestants 90
5.1	Summary95
CHAPTER FIVE:	96
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	96
5.1	Introduction96
5.2	Summary of the Findings 96
5.3	Conclusions99
5.4	Recommendations 100
5.5	Recommendations for Further Study 104
REFERENCES	106
APPENDICES	126
Appendix 1: Transmittal Letter 126

Appendix 2: University’s authorization	127
Appendix 3: Research authorization letter NACOSTI.....	128
Appendix 4: Identity card from NACOSTI.....	129
Appendix 5: Statement of Informed Consent	130
Appendix 6: Instruction For Scoring The Big Five Inventory (BFI)	131
Appendix 7: Instruction for Scoring Political Efficacy Scale	132
Appendix 8: Demographic Data Tool	133
Appendix 9: The Big Five Inventory.....	134
Appendix 10: The Political Efficacy Scale	135

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Sampling frame	55
Table 4.1: Age distribution of study participants	64
Table 4.2: Distribution of respondent's number of years in politics	66
Table 4.3: Cross-tabulation of electoral outcomes versus personality traits	75
Table 4.4: Chi-Square analysis for association between personality traits and Electoral outcome	76
Table 4.5: Cross-tabulation between political efficacy judgements and electoral outcomes	79
Table 4.6: Chi-Square analysis for association between Political Efficacy Judgements and Electoral outcome	80
Table 4.7: BFI personality trait cross tabulated with electoral outcomes.....	83
Table 4.8: Analysis of variance of personality traits scores across electoral outcomes	84
Table 4.9: Political Efficacies cross tabulated with electoral outcomes.....	91
Table 4.10: Analysis of variance of political efficacy judgements across electoral outcomes	92

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Sources of political efficacy	18
Figure 2.2: The critical path to electoral outcomes	50
Figure 4.1: Participants level of education	65
Figure 4.2: Distribution of predominant personality traits among contestants	66
Figure 4.3: Distribution of predominant political efficacy judgements among contestants	71

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

- Electoral outcomes:** It refers to the two possible outcomes of an electoral contest. In this study, winning and losing the election were the two possible outcomes.
- External Efficacy:** The term refers to the extent to which a contestant believes that change can be realized based on the responsiveness of the political system.
- Internal Efficacy:** The term refers to the extent to which a contestant thinks he or she is capable of causing political change due to personal competencies. People with high internal efficacy believe that success is more likely due to their competencies than any other factor
- Personality Traits:** In this study, personality traits refer to the five unique qualities that are used to identify the five basic individual differences among people as described in the big five model and initialised using the acronym OCEAN.
- Political Cynicism:** The term refers to a contestant's distrust or deep conviction of inherent evil of politicians, political institutions and/or the political system as a whole.
- Political Efficacy:** Refers to people's confidence in the government or the people in government concerning their willingness to identify and respond to citizens needs; or confidence on their level of political knowledge and ability to influence political affairs of their country.

Political Participation: Political Participation: it refers to the degree and forms of involvement of citizens in the governance, the decisions making processes and related institutions of the society, such as the economy and culture

Self-efficacy: A person's beliefs about their capability to execute a certain task and realize positive results.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANES	American National Election Survey
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BFI	Big Five Inventory
CCAP	Cooperative Campaign Analysis Project
CCES	Cooperative Congressional Elections Study
CES	Congressional Elections Survey
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CPS	Centre for Political Studies
CS	Cynicism Scale
CT	Connecticut
DDT	Demographic Data Tool
DO	District Officer
EACC	East African Community Countries
EE	External Efficacy
EES	External Efficacy Scale
EPQ-R-S	Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Revised Scale
FFI	Five Factor Inventory
GOTV	Get Out the Vote
GSS	General Social Survey
HLQ	Health and Lifestyle Questionnaire
IAEA	International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
IDEA	International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance
IE	Internal Efficacy

IEBC	Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission			
IES	Internal Efficacy Scale			
IPU	Inter-Parliamentary Union			
IRI	International Republican Institute			
ISSP	International Social Survey Project			
K.sh	Kenya Shillings			
KEWOPA	Kenya Women Parliamentary Association			
KGSS	Korean General Social Survey			
MCS	Media Consumption Scale			
MCQ	Media Consumption Questionnaire			
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals			
MODP	Multi-disciplinary Opinion on Democracy Project			
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation			
NPI	NEO-Personality Inventory			
OCEAN	Openness	Conscientiousness	Extraversion	Agreeableness
	Neuroticism			
PES	Political Efficacy Scale			
POMP	Percentage of Maximum Possible			
RWA	Right Wing Authoritarianism			
SDO	Social Dominance Orientation			
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences			
TIPI	Ten Item Personality Inventory			
UN	United Nations			
USA	United States of America			
WEIRD	Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich and Democratic Populations			

ABSTRACT

Personality traits and political efficacy judgments independently influence the types and the level to which people participate in political activities. All reviewed studies on the role of personality traits and political efficacy judgements in political participation were done in the West, and the Eastern countries. Studies on women's political participation show that by November 2015, their global average stood at 22.6%, 23.4% in Sub Saharan Africa and accounted for 19% of legislators in Kenya. This study investigated effects of personality traits and political efficacy on electoral outcomes among selected female parliamentary contestants during 2007 general elections in Kenya. It used purposive and snowball sampling methods. Data was collected using the BFI and PES Scales. Descriptive statistics were used to analyse participant's demographic information. A One-way ANOVA was used to examine differences while a Chi-Square was used to examine associations between successful and non-successful contestants. The participants mean age was 49.45, ranging from 25 to 68 years. Their personality traits distribution was 35.71% conscientiousness, 33.33% agreeableness, 21.43% extraversion, 9.52% openness and 0% neuroticism. The distribution of political efficacies was 54.76% internal, 2.38% external and 42.86% cynicism. Chi-Square results yielded no evidence for association between personality traits and electoral outcomes $\chi^2 (2, n=42) = 1.367, p = .242$; but, the distribution of traits among participants and their differences in personality traits across electoral outcomes showed that personality traits determine electoral outcomes. The study found a positive association between external efficacy and electoral outcome $\chi^2 (2, n=42) = 8.04, p = .005$. An ANOVA yielded no significant difference in extraversion between successful ($M = 4.18, SD = 1.00$) and non-successful ($M = 0.519, SD = .519$) participants ($F (1, 40) = .984, p = .327$); no significant differences in neuroticism between successful ($M = 2.00, SD = .54$) and non-successful ($M = 1.99, SD = .533$) participants ($F (1, 40), .005, p = .946$); no significant difference in openness between successful ($M = 3.89, SD = .563$) and non-successful ($M = 3.72, SD = .734$) participants ($F (1, 40), .717, p = .402$). But, there was a significant mean difference in conscientiousness between successful ($M = 4.43, SD = .319$) and non-successful ($M = 4.05, SD = .54$) participants ($F (1, 40) = 7.232, p = .010$); and a significant difference in agreeableness between successful ($M = 4.03, SD = .266$) and non-successful ($M = 4.38, SD = .446$) participants ($F (1, 40) = 9.615, p = .004$). In political efficacy, it found a significant difference in internal efficacy between successful ($M = 3.956, SD = 1.525$) and non-successful ($M = 4.476, SD = .5063$) participants ($F (1, 40) = 10.69, p = .002$); a significant difference in external efficacy between successful ($M = 3.06, SD = .604$) and non-successful ($M = 2.603, SD = .7468$) participants ($F (1, 40) = 4.820, p = .034$); but, there was no significant difference in cynicism between successful ($M = 4.437, SD = .730$) and non-successful ($M = 4.14, SD = .712$) participants ($F (1, 40) = .919, p = .191$). In conclusion, the study found personality traits and political efficacy judgments as able to determine electoral outcomes. It was evident that external and internal political efficacy associated with electoral success and moderate the effect of personality traits. It is proposed that female political aspirants should seek personality assessment and counselling to enhance self-understanding, harness the strengths of their personality trait and manage its weaknesses and they should nurture personality traits and political efficacy judgements that enhance their connection and favour with the electorate.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

Studies on the role of personality traits, self-efficacy judgements and political participation have been recently increasing, at a time when electoral outcome seem to depend more on voters likes, dislikes, and heuristics, more than a candidate's social-political ideology (Caprara & Zimbardo, 2004). The increased interest on efficacy judgements and personality traits gained momentum at a time of sustained efforts to increase women representation in legislative bodies to a level of parity with their male counterparts (Ballington, 2005; Inter-Parliamentary Union [IPU], 2005; Palmieri & Jabre, 2005). It has been established that personality traits and political efficacy judgements influence the extent of an individual's political participation and possibly their possible electoral outcomes (Craig, 1979; De Vreese, 2008; Gerber, Hurber, Doherty, Dowling, Raso, & Ha, 2011; Opdycke, Segwa, & Vasquez, 2013; Ha, Kim, & Jo, 2013).

Personality traits and political efficacy judgements are distinct personal qualities that influence political involvement and outcomes at different levels. Personality traits refer to multifaceted, enduring, internal psychological structures (Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Salegson, & Anderson, 2010). Personality traits are also described as enduring tendencies to act in ways associated with certain patterns of thought and feelings while self-efficacy judgements are knowledge structures and convictions regarding the possible degree of control over events that affect a people's lives (Vecchione & Caprara, 2009; Verduyn & Brans, 2012). Political

efficacy is a type of efficacy judgement which refers to one's belief on whether their political decisions and actions can influence and determine the political process and electoral outcomes.

The big five model is considered to be a practical, comprehensive and hierarchical model for understanding and studying personality and individual differences (Barbaranelli, Caprara, Vechione, & Fraley, 2007; Weinschenk & Panagopoulos, 2014). Its factors are empirically derived and represent personality and individual differences at their broadest level of abstraction (Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003). It provides an objective, quantifiable description of the main surface tendencies of personality (Caprara, Barbaranelli & Livi, 1994). It is a comprehensive and a reasonably adequate summary of major individual differences (McCrae & John, 1992). It captures all possible variations within personality, collectively organizes them, and summarizes them into subsidiary traits (Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Salegson, & Anderson, 2010). The acronym OCEAN is used in reference to the components traits of the Big Five Model which are Openness to Experience [or Intellectual Culture], Conscientiousness [or Dependability], Extraversion [or Energy or Surgency], Agreeableness and Neuroticism [or Emotional Stability] traits (Goldberg R., 1990; John & Srivastava, 1999; Caprara, Barbarnelli, Consiglio, Picconi & Zimbardo, 2003; Gallego & Oberski, 2011). Each of these factors is bipolar and summarizes several more specific facets, which, in turn subsume a large number of even more specific traits or human qualities (Weinschenk & Panagopoulos, 2014).

Neuroticism trait refers to the extent to which an individual manifests absence or presence of anxiety, depression, and other negative feelings (Gallego &

Oberski, 2012). Extraversion trait incorporates qualities such as sociability, assertiveness, activity level, and positive emotions among those who are more extraverted; while less extraverted people tend to be reserved, less energetic and less likely to experience positive feelings (Lee, Johnston, & Dougherty, Fall 2000). Conscientiousness trait covers two basic factors; achievement orientation and dependability. Therefore, it assesses the extent to which a person is organised, reliable and hardworking (Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Salegson, & Anderson, 2010). Highly conscientiousness individuals are focused, organised and not easily distracted; and have a non-social strive for accomplishment (Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001). Openness to experience trait explores factors which include imagination, tolerance of a range of values, and appreciation for the arts (Lee, Johnston, & Dougherty, Fall 2000). In west European and American politics, studies have noted its association with holding liberal, progressive, right wing political ideologies (Barbaranelli, Caprara, Vecchione, & Fraley, 2007). Lastly, agreeableness trait pertains to interpersonal relationships. It covers the extent to which an individual is friendly, altruistic, and flexible when dealing with others (Lee, Johnston, & Dougherty, Fall 2000). Studies have yielded mixed findings on how this trait associates with political participation (Fowler, 2006; Ha, Kim, & Jo, 2013).

Earliest studies that focused on the relationship between personality traits and political behaviour appeared between 1950s and 1970s (Saleh, El Kahhal, & Seif, 2011). Greenstein (1969) did a study that established a relationship between personality traits and electoral participation. In different studies, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Consiglio, Picconi and Zimbardo (2003) noted a relationship between the personal qualities of the voters and those of their preferred candidates; while

Gerber et al. (2011), Mondak (2010), and Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Saegeson, and Anderson (2010) found a relationship between the elements of the big five traits model and political participation.

Studies on self-efficacy have been widely done since 1950's (Hu, 2011). Today, the self-efficacy theory plays a prominent role on political behaviour and political socialization (Schulz, 2005). It is also employed as a primary tool in the evaluation and prediction of the likelihood of individual political involvement (Hu, 2011). Political efficacy, is generally described as, the expectation that participation in politics will be successful (Shingles, 1987); or the conviction that an individual's political actions have, or can have, an impact upon the political process, and therefore, it is worthwhile to perform one's civic duties (Hu, 2011). It is the feeling that political and social change is possible, and that the individual citizen can play part in bringing about this change (Camp, Gurin & Miller, 1954).

At first, political efficacy was considered a single dimension concept (Caprara, Vecchione, Capanna, & Mebane, 2009); however, later studies considered it a multidimensional concept that encompassed Internal Efficacy [IE] (also Internal Political Efficacy [IPE]) and External Efficacy [EE] (also External Political Efficacy [EPE]) (Schulz, 2005). On the other hand, internal political efficacy is the belief that individual can understand politics and is capable of achieving preferred results in the political domain through personal engagement and efficient use of one's own capabilities and resources (Lane 1959; Miller, Miller & Schneider, 1980; Dyck & Lascher, 2008); while, external efficacy refers to belief that the public can influence the political outcomes as governments are responsive to its people. In 1974, political cynicism was introduced by Miller as a component of political efficacy (Sullivan &

Riedel, 2001; Fu, Mou, Miller, & Jalette, 2011), to refer to the negative affect that may be held toward the government, the political system and/or people in government.

Past studies on the relationship between political efficacy and political behaviour use the terms political self-confidence (Janowitz & Marvick, 1956), political sense of efficacy (Campbell, Gorin & Miller, 1954) and subjective political competence (Almond & Verba, 1963), to refer to political efficacy; and their main focus was the relationship between political efficacy and political involvement (Vecchione & Caprara, 2009; Opdycke, Segwa, & Vasquez, 2013). Early political efficacy studies indicate that individuals who were the most efficacious were significantly more likely to take part in politics (Dyck & Lascher, 2008; Vecchione & Caprara, 2009).

Studies describe political participation as the degree and forms through which citizens are involved in governance and its related institutions of the society, such as economy and culture (Kivoi, 2014). Studies on the participation of women in politics indicate that, by November 2015, the global average of women representation in National Assemblies stood at 22.6% (IPU, 2015). The Nordic countries had the highest average of 41.1%; the average of the Sub-Saharan African countries stood at 23.4%; while the Pacific Countries had the lowest average of 13.1%. In Africa, Rwanda had the highest representation of 64%, while Swaziland had the lowest representation of 6.2%. In Kenya, despite women constituting over fifty per cent of the voters, they constitute only 19% of the total membership of the Kenya National Assembly both the upper and lower houses ([AMWIK], March 2015). According to the International Republican Institute [IRI], a total of 2,547

people contested for parliamentary positions in the 2007 general elections; out of the 2,547 contestants, 267 were women and only 16 contested successfully. Kivoi (2014) blames the low rates of women participation and representation in public political institutions such as the Senate, the National Assembly and County Assemblies to prohibitive social, cultural, economic and political barriers and notes such low participation and representation negates the equity that is affirmed in the national constitution.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Research indicates that personality traits and political efficacy influences the type, the level and the effectiveness of a person's participation in politics (Gerber, Hurber, Donherty, Dowling, Raso, & Ha, July 2011; Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Salegson, & Anderson, 2010). Different personality traits have been found to influence the various ways in people participate in politics. For example, it is documented that people with openness to experience trait tend to hold liberal, progressive, right wing political views (Weinschenk & Panagopoulos, 2014); those with Conscientious trait tend to engage in political activities that are either a civic duty or a norm (Ha, Kim, & Jo, 2013); while those marked by extraversion trait tend to take part in certain type of political activities such as speaking at political meetings, contacting elected officials, wearing campaign batons and donating to political causes among others (Gerber et al., July 2011).

Past studies on the role of personality traits in political participation were done in America (Mondak & Halperin, 2008), West Europe (Gallego & Oberski, 2011), the Middle and Far Eastern Countries (Steinberg, 2005) and Latin America (Mondak, et al., 2010). In the same way, research on the role of political efficacy

judgements in political participation were done in Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine, Russia, Portugal, Poland, Norway, New Zealand, Netherlands, Ireland, Iceland, Hungary, Germany, Finland, Denmark, United Kingdom, North America (Opdycke, Segwa & Vasquez, 2013), Korea, Japan, Israel and Australia (Karp & Banducci, 2007).

Although, there is evidence that personality traits and political efficacy judgements determines political participation behaviours and probably political outcomes; it is noted that past studies on the topics were done in America, West European Countries, the Middle and the Far Eastern Countries and that there were no similar studies done generally in Africa and Kenya in particular. Also, it is documented that the global average of women participation and representation in legislative assemblies stood at 22.6% by November 2015. Documented evidence on participation of women in politics in Kenya shows that there are very few women who contest for the legislative assembly position and that those who win are even fewer. Although the Kenyan constitution provides 47 special parliamentary seats for women, the number of seats held by women in the Kenya National Assembly amount to 19.6% which is below the mandatory 33.33%. This study was interested in finding out whether personality traits and political efficacy judgements have a similar role in political participation in Kenya; and how they relate to electoral outcomes in Kenya. Therefore, the aim of the study was to explore the role of personality traits and political efficacy judgements in electoral outcomes in Kenya.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to establish the role of personality traits and political efficacy judgments on women parliamentary electoral outcomes in Kenya.

1.4. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to;

1. Find out personality traits that characterized female parliamentary candidates in the 2007 election,
2. Determine the kind of political efficacy judgements that marked female parliamentary contestants in the 2007 election,
3. Establish the relationship between personality traits and electoral outcomes among female parliamentary contestants in Kenya.
4. Find out the relationship between political efficacy judgments and electoral outcomes among female parliamentary contestants in Kenya.
5. Establish whether there were significant differences in personality traits between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants in Kenya.
6. Establish whether there were significant differences in political efficacy judgements between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants in Kenya.

1.5. Research Questions

The study sought answer to the following questions

1. What personality traits marked female contestants to the legislative assembly in the 2007 Kenyan general election?
2. What political efficacy judgements characterized the female contestant who contested during the 2007 general election?

3. What relationship exists between the personality traits and electoral results?
4. What is the relationship between contestants' political efficacy judgements and the electoral results?
5. Are there differences in personality traits between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections?
6. Are there differences in political efficacy judgments between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections?

1.6. Hypotheses of the Study

Based on the above questions, the following four hypotheses were tested.

H₀₁; There is no significant association between personality traits and female parliamentary electoral outcomes in Kenya.

H₀₂; There is no significant association between political efficacy judgments and female parliamentary electoral outcomes in Kenya.

H₀₃; There is no significant difference in personality traits between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants in Kenya.

H₀₄; There is no significant difference in political efficacy scores between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants in Kenya.

1.7. Justification and Significance of the Study

Studies have indicated that personality traits and political efficacy influence the type, the level and the impact of a person's involvement in politics (Weinschenk, 2013). Therefore, it is necessary to understand the role personality traits and political efficacy judgments in political processes and outcomes in order to apply them in a manner that is strategic to positive electoral outcomes.

The findings of this study have both theoretical and practical import. Theoretically, it generated data that will benefit political psychologists, political analysts and gender mainstreaming champions. The study findings will also help enhance equity in gender representation in legislative bodies by opening new areas of focus when seeking electoral success. The findings will also highlight areas where female politicians should focus on as the contest for political positions. The governments department that handles gender mainstreaming and corresponding non-governmental actors like the International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA) and the UN Women may utilize the findings as they pursue their agenda.

1.8. Assumptions of the Study

The study was based on the following assumptions, that;

- i. Women who contest for legislative assembly positions have unique personality traits and political efficacy judgments.
- ii. That various personality traits and political efficacy judgements make a person more or less suited for political participation.

- iii. Contestant's unique personality traits and political efficacy judgments influenced their behavioural responses to challenges faced during the electoral process.
- iv. Contestants' personality traits and political efficacy judgements influence the way they are perceived by the electorate.
- v. Respondents would willingly participate in the study and provide accurate information.

1.9. Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

The study recruited respondents among female contestants for the legislative assembly during the 2007 general elections. Thus, the findings of the study may not be generalizable outside those contesting at the parliamentary level in the country. The study could not fully standardize the method of administering data collection tools. It was noted that the researcher could not control the level of education of study participants. Therefore, the educational difference among respondents comes as a limitation to the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The chapter covers the theoretical models, reviews studies on the role of the five traits enshrined in the big five model and self-efficacy judgements in electoral outcomes, and ends with a summary and a conceptual framework of the study. The Big Five model and the Self-efficacy Theory form the theoretical thrust of the study. The chapter ends with a summary and the conceptual framework. Based on the theoretical models, the independent variables of the study are the five personality traits and the three political efficacy judgements while the dependent variables are the two possible electoral outcomes.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The study is based on the ‘Big Five’ model of personality (McCrae & Costa, 2006) and Albert Bandura’s self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1995).

2.3 The Big Five Model of Personality

The Big Five model is also referred as the “Big Five”, the ‘Big 5 Taxonomy’, the ‘Big Five Personality Traits’, also called the ‘Five Factor Model’ [FFM] is a contemporary version of the trait theories of personality (McCrae & Costa, 2008). The Big Five model proposes that human personality is made up of five broad dimensions which represent all variations in individual personal differences (Goldberg, 1990). The acronym OCEAN is sometimes used in reference to the ‘big five’ model is based on the initials of its five component traits

which are openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism and usually the usage adheres to this order (John & Srivastava, 1999). According to Goldberg (1990), the big five factors were traditionally numbered and labelled as follows: (I) Surgency [or Extraversion], (II) Agreeableness, (III) Conscientiousness [or Dependability], (IV) Emotional Stability [vs. Neuroticism], and (V) Openness [or Culture].

A number of studies have focused on how personality traits develop, what factors work together to shape it and the debate remain unsettled. Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Salegson and Anderson (2010) and James and Gilliland, (2002) have argued that inherited biological qualities (genes) accounts for only 50% of the variation in individual differences while environment accounts for the rest. Mondak et al. (2010) argues for what they call a fuller explanation of personality traits. They argue that a fuller explanation requires that we view personality traits within the broader context of the various forces that combine to influence political behaviour. They consider it unwise to assert that the environment is inconsequential or to put forth a similar claim about genetics. Therefore, there seems to be a consensus that both biological and environmental factors play a role in the development of personality traits.

Although the big five model is not a theory of personality, McCrae and Costa (2008) argues that it implicitly adopts the basic tenets of the trait theory: First, it assumes that each person possesses unique and stable patterns of traits that can be measured (James & Gilliland, 2002). Secondly, it assumes that each occupation requires a unique trait combination for successful performance of its critical tasks. Thirdly, it assumes that it is possible to match peoples' traits with the

trait requirements of an occupation or job; and that the closer the fit between a person's traits and the trait-requirements of their occupation or job, the higher the likelihood of a successful job performance and personal satisfaction (Klein & Weiner, 1977). Lastly, that personality trait helps a person to blend into the environmental system within which he/she operates (James & Gilliland, 2002).

The big five model evolved out of Allport's trait factor theory which was designed for use in career counselling in 1940's (James & Gilliland, 2002). The trait factor theory was designed to address concerns in education, vocations and careers. As such, it assumes that career problems result from a poor fit or match between personal traits and the trait requirements of a certain occupation; and that counselling based on trait theory facilitates personal growth as the vehicle for change in the person and environment fit (Klein & Weiner, 1977).

The immediate goal of a traits counsellor is to help the clients to stop irrational, non-productive thoughts and behaviours and start using rational problem solving skills and effective decision making (James & Gilliland, 2002). The counsellor helps the clients discover unique abilities, aspirations and plans within the context of the values and alternatives within the society and its institutions (James & Gilliland, 2002). In this study, the five traits of the big five model provided the five personality domains that were assessed among sampled respondents. Given the role of a trait factor counsellor, the researcher will consider areas in which the sampled study participants can improve their political experience by matching their personality trait with their preferred types of political participation behaviours.

According to Lee, Johnston and Dougherty (Fall 2000), the big five model provides a structure for organizing a variety of lower level traits. Emotional stability refers to the degree to which people experience negative emotions including anxiety, anger, and depression among others. Ha, Kim and Jo (2013) use the neuroticism scale and note that people who score highly on this scale are prone to disorders of affect, while those low scores on neuroticism trait are calmer and more even tempered. On the contrary, those who score highly on emotional stability scale are mostly calm; while those who score low emotional stability scale frequently feel stressed and upset (Lee, Johnston, & Dougherty, Fall 2000).

The extraversion scale assesses the degree to which an individual is characterised by such qualities such as sociability, high energy, enthusiasm and assertiveness in their engagement with the social world (Ha, Kim & Jo, 2013). highly extraverted individuals are assertive, sociable, confident and energetic and therefore are more likely to take part in political activities (Ha, Kim & Jo, 2013); while those who are less extraverted tend to be more reserved, have lower energy levels, and are less likely to experience positive feelings (Lee, Johnston & Dougherty, Fall 2000).

The openness to experience scale assesses the extent to which an individual tends towards novelty seeking, intellectual curiosity, a vivid imagination, deep appreciation of arts and complex mental and experiential life (Weinschenk & Panagopoulos, 2014). Other studies refer to openness trait as “intellect”; however, the focus of ‘intellect’ is relatively narrow encompassing only analytical, curious and imaginative tendencies (Mondak, 2010). Initial applications of the big five in political participation reported positive effects of openness on a variety of

variables (Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Salegson, & Anderson, 2010). In West European and American politics, individuals inclined to openness have an affinity to liberal, progressive, left-wing political views while those who score low on the openness trait scale prefer conservative, traditional, right wing political positions (Barbaranelli, Caprara, Vecchione & Fraley, 2007).

Lee, Johnston and Dougherty (Fall 2000), propose that conscientiousness trait assesses two basic factor; the achievement orientation and dependability. The achievement orientation involves two the degree to which it is important for an individual to succeed and how hard are they willing to work hard, organised, diligent, self-disciplined and achievement oriented to achieve the results (Weinschenk & Panagopoulos, 2014). Highly conscientious individuals are focused, organized and not easily distracted. On political participation, they tend to engage on activities that are considered as a civic duty or a norm (Ha, Kim, & Jo, 2013). People who are high conscientiousness scores correlate with strong job performance generalizing across a range of positions (Blickle, et al., 2008), a non-social strive for accomplishment (Barrick, Mount & Judge 2001). Conscientiousness trait associates negatively with liberal political ideologies and positively with conserve political ideologies (Barbaranelli, Caprara, Vecchione, & Fraley, 2007).

Agreeableness trait scale assesses an individual's capacity for interpersonal relationships and especially how one treats and deals with others (John & Srivastava, 1999). The agreeableness trait subscale scale employs terms like warm, kind, and sympathetic, whereas, neuroticism (emotional stability) scale uses terms like calm, relaxed and stable (Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Salegson, & Anderson,

2010). Highly agreeable persons are trustworthy, altruistic, affectionate and capable of empathy; they work better in groups and have relationships with little conflict (Ha, Kim & Jo, 2013). Studies report mixed findings on effects of agreeableness on political participation. Fowler (2006) concluded that high level of altruism correlates with a likelihood of voting; Ha, Kim and Jo (2013) cites Ulbig and Funk (1999) who found a relationship between agreeableness trait and lower political participation which associate with a tendency for conflict avoidance..

2.4 The Self-Efficacy Theory

Political efficacy is based on self-efficacy theory which is a component of the Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory in 1986 (Zulkosky, 2009). Perceived self-efficacy is concerned with people's belief in their ability to accomplish specific goals and/or the personal ability to exercise control over their own functioning and over events that affect their lives (Zimmerman, 2000). Beliefs in personal efficacy affect life choices, level of motivation, quality of functioning, resilience to adversity and vulnerability to stress and depression (Bandura, 1994). Studies that investigate source of efficacy judgements identify social and environmental factors as well as internal factors such as personality and genetic factors.

Efficacy judgements inform human behaviour by influencing thoughts, feelings and motives (Bandura, 1995). Low perceived efficacy associates with stress, depression, anxiety and the beck's triad syndrome; whereas high perceived efficacy facilitates strong cognitive and physical performances in a variety of settings. In relation to behaviour, perceived efficacy may enhance or undermine human motivation (Bandura, 1989). People with high perceived efficacy attempt more challenging tasks; set themselves higher goals and stick to them; select

challenging settings and explore their environment or create new ones (Luszczynska & Gutierrez-Dona, 2005). Actions are pre-shaped in thoughts, and once an action is taken, highly efficacious people invest more efforts than those low in perceived efficacy. In the face of setbacks, highly efficacious people recover quickly and remain committed to their goals (Bandura, 1994). This study considers the applicability of efficacy in political behaviour such as choosing to contest for parliamentary office; and how it relates to the two possible electoral outcomes.

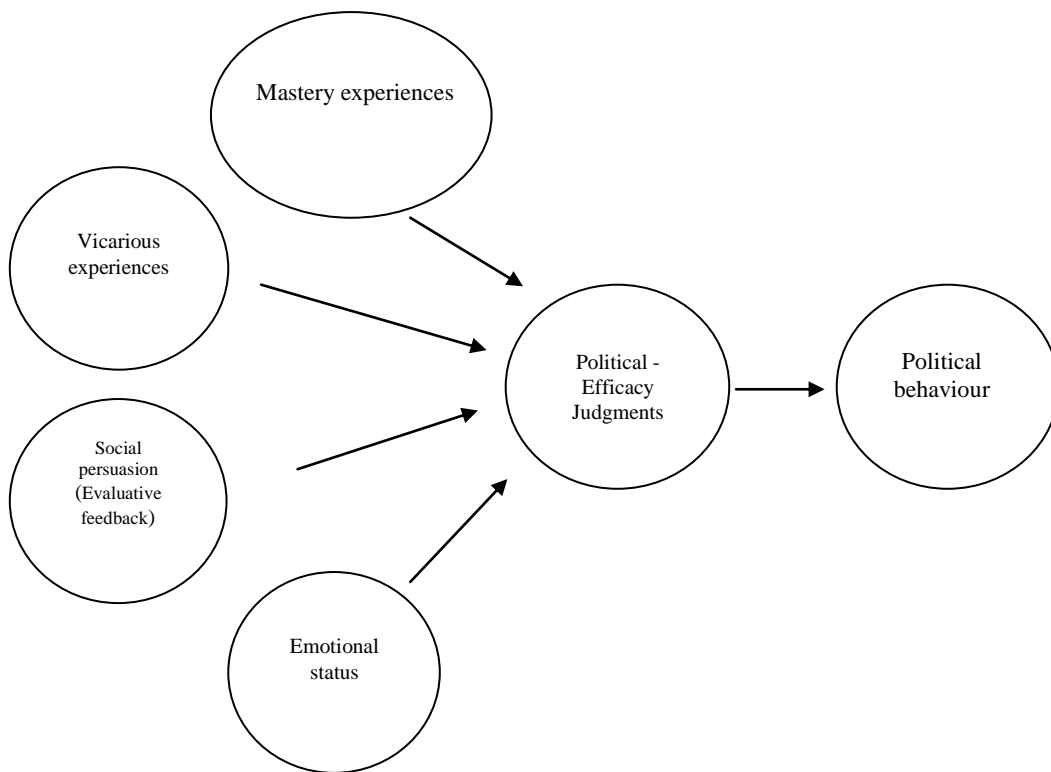


Figure 2.1: Sources of political efficacy (Adapted from Bandura, 1997)

There is evidence that people's beliefs in their efficacy result from complex cognitive processing of information from four diverse sources (Bandura, 1994). This complex process is, to some extent, influenced by someone's' socio-economic factors, such as income, social status, education, and age (Anderson,

2010). Figure 2.1 shows that sources of self-efficacy judgments include ones past mastery experiences, past or present vicarious experiences, social persuasions from significant others and the emotional state of a person (Bandura, 1997). Past successes, especially those that resulted from hard work, influence self-efficacy beliefs by convincing a person that they can manage similar tasks in future (Schultz, 2005). On the contrary, when success comes easily, it nurtures expectations of quick results and rapid discouragements in case of failure (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Vicarious experiences are the second source of self-efficacy judgements. Through vicarious experiences, model's successful efforts exhibit, to an observer, a possible task strategy, a basis for judging personal abilities and provide an encouragement that personal effort can bear fruits (Bandura, 1994). Social persuasions are the third source of efficacy. Social persuasions affect perceived efficacy especially if they are from a valued, a trusted and an attractive source (Maddux, 2000; Schulz, 2005; Klinker & Mariani, 2007). The last source of efficacy judgements is the learner's emotional states (Appelbaum & Hare, 1996). Emotional states influence perceived efficacy when learners come to associate failure with aversive physiological arousal and success with pleasant experiences (Maddux, 2000).

While there is a general perceived efficacy that refers to a global confidence in one's coping ability across a wide range of demanding or novel situations; perceived efficacy beliefs are multidimensional, they differ based on task and/ or on the domain of functioning (Luszczynska & Gutierrez-Dona, 2005). Task specific efficacies estimate of one's ability to perform a certain activity – giving a speech, performing well on an academic subject – while domain specific efficacy refers one's estimated ability to perform in a certain context. As a result,

perceived efficacy measures are designed to be responsive to variations in the task and the context of performance (Zimmerman, 2000).

Perceived political efficacy is both a task and a domain oriented efficacy that refers to the feeling that political change is possible and that an individual citizen can play a part in bringing about this change (Schultz, 2005). Therefore, political efficacy helps an individual determine their political competence and decide whether to engage in politics (Sohl, 2014). Schultz (2005) identified internal efficacy, external efficacy and cynicism as the three components of political efficacy. Internal efficacy is the confidence in one's abilities to understand politics and act politically, whereas external efficacy is the individual's belief in the responsiveness of the political system. Unlike external efficacy, political cynicism is the negative affect toward the government; especially, the belief that the government is not functioning and not meeting citizen's expectations. It reveals feelings of distrust in politics, politicians, and governmental institutions by the public.

One's perceived political efficacy influence thought patterns, actions, and emotional arousal which in turn shape the capacity to cope with different situations in life (Bandura, 1982). Strong efficacy judgements correlate with higher performance rates, more accomplishments, better psychological balance, more persistent, and less likelihood to give up in difficult situations (Sohl, 2014). The decision to engage in politics is usually a result of one's attitude and thoughts towards their capacity for effective participation and the effects of their participation (Harel, 2010). In this study, perceived political efficacy was the task specific efficacy that was explored using political efficacy scale and analysed for

their association with electoral outcomes. The five domains covered by the big five inventory and the three categories covered by political efficacy scale provide the framework of the literature reviewed and determined the data collection tools used in the study. Therefore, given the two theories, the study reviewed documented literature on role of personality traits (agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism and openness to experience) and political efficacy (internal efficacy, external efficacy and cynicism) in electoral outcomes.

2.5 Review of Related Literature

Personality traits and political efficacy judgments are distinct components of personality that impact on political behaviours (Vecchione & Caprara, 2009). Today, several studies have been done on the role of personality and self-efficacy judgements in social processes. This section encompasses studies about the big five traits, self-efficacy, political efficacy, activism orientation and their relationship with electoral outcomes.

2.5.1 The Relationship between Personality Traits and Electoral Outcomes

The role of personality and individual differences in political involvement and behaviour has been researched since 1950's (Saleh, El Kahhal, & Seif, 2011). Initial studies were based on the psychoanalytic theory (Jost, 2006; Barbaranelli, Caprara, Vecchione, & Fraley, 2007); by 1970's, studies were using the left-wing [liberal] versus right-wing [conservative] orientations to study individual differences and how they impact on politics (Chirumbolo & Leone, 2010). By late 90's, most of personality psychologists were in agreement that personality and

individual differences can be best summarised using the big five traits model (Gallego & Oberski, 2011; Mondak & Halperin, 2008; Mondak, 2010); and used the big five inventory to study and understand individual differences (Judge et al, 1999).

Koppensteiner and Stephen (2014) investigated the relationship between voter's first impressions and the tendency to favour candidates regarded as having a personality trait that is similar to that of the voter. They recruited 80 participants, 42 females and 38 males, representing a wide diversity within the University of Vienna. Their study was experimental whereby respondents were asked to rate themselves and rate unidentified politicians who were presented to them in short silent video clips giving a speech, they were to use scales that measure the big five personality traits and to give an estimate of the probability that they would vote for each politician they evaluated. They found significant effects of self-ratings and observer rating on openness to experience, agreeableness and emotional stability on voting probability. Their study agreed with past studies that found that participants perceive themselves as being more open, more agreeable, more emotionally stable, and more extraverted than the average politician. It also found that when participants rely on non-verbal cues, people tend to vote for politicians in whom they perceive personality traits they ascribe to themselves. It was also established that first impressions could influence the participant's electoral choice despite the perceived preferred personality trait. This study established that voter cast their ballots in favour of politician with a certain perceived personality trait; yet, their first impression could sway the decision. This study wanted to find out whether Kenyan voters favoured any personality trait as they voted for women who contested for parliament in the 2007 general election.

Weinschenck and Panagopoulos (2014) investigated the extent to which negativity in political messages mediates the relationship between personality traits and political participation behaviours. They used the Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) interface to recruit 724 respondents, 54% male and 46% female, 76 % white, and were living in the United States of America. Respondents were administered a tool to collect demographic data, the Ten Item Personality Index (TIPI) and were exposed to either a negative or a positive political message before being asked if they would participate in a range of political activities. The study found evidence that negativity in political messages does influence the relationship between a number of big five personality traits and the decision to a number of political participation behaviours. The researcher acknowledges that negativity in political campaigns is a permanent feature in Kenyan politics. The reviewed study found evidence that individuals with high agreeableness were less likely to participate in high negative politics while those high on extraversion were likely to take part. Therefore, this study was interested in finding out the distribution of personality trait among women who contested for legislative assembly office in the 2007 Kenyan general election.

Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Salegson and Anderson (2010) did a research to develop an integrative framework that explains the complex process through which personality traits affect political behaviour. In that study, they used data collected using the Ten Item Personality Inventory (TIPI) for a U.S. National Survey administered during the 2006 Congressional Elections Survey (CES). The survey focused on the 2006 U.S. midterm elections where 1,195 respondents were interviewed before the November elections, 766 reinter-viewed after the Election Day, and another 400 respondents participated only in a supplemental post-election

survey. Respondents were drawn from 155 congressional districts selected randomly across the United States of America and some had been determined as positions that open for competitive contests. The postelection instruments included participation items and a brief discussion generator that asked respondents to provide information on up to four political discussion partners. Each personality trait was analysed for its direct effects on civil engagement behaviours and controls for education, income and the strength of partisanship provided.

The study yielded results which were consistent with past studies on the mediation effect of personality on political participation. It yielded significant positive effects for openness, a mix of insignificant and significant negative effects for conscientiousness, extraversion and a null effect for agreeableness. The findings of the study on emotional stability did not agree with results of past studies. Mondak and colleagues identified four challenges which should be navigated in the course of studying the role of personality political behaviour. First is challenge of developing holistic accounts of political behaviour which cater for both situational factors and personality. Secondly, there is a need to strike the right balance between reliability of the study and its parsimony. Thirdly, there is to address the uncertain outcomes such as the results on emotional stability in their study. Lastly, they note that scholars who focus on the field of personality and political behaviour must be ready to face scepticism and questions from readers who are new to the field. The current study notes that there is a need to recognize that personality traits inform political behaviour with environmental context and therefore there is need to understand political behaviour holistically. This study also points a possible area of further study that could not be covered in this study. The reviewed study used data that was collected using the ten item personality

inventory; thus, it shows that the current study is more reliable as it used the 44-item Big Five Inventory.

Gerber, Hurber, Doherty, Dowling, Raso and Ha (July 2011) examined the relationship between personality traits and political participation. In their study, they used two data sets; the first was from the 2007 – 2008 Cooperative Campaign Analysis Project (CCAP) an internet based surveyed of 20,000 registered voters and a Connecticut Telephone Survey (CT Survey) that recruited 1,800 respondents. The CCAP and the CT surveys respectively recruited 20,000 and 1,800 registered voters who had participated in elections that took place between 2000 and 2006 in US. Through an online platform, respondents were administered and responded to the Ten Item Personality Inventory [TIPI]. They examined the relationship between personality traits, voter turnout and other forms of participation; and the relative importance of personality traits compared to education and income in political participation.

This study found a statistically significant and behaviourally important relationship between personality traits and key measures of political participation. Specifically, extraversion and emotional stability (low neuroticism) correlated with higher levels of participation in a range of political activities. Secondly, the relationship between the remaining elements of the ‘big five’ and political participation varied across modes of participation. For example, agreeableness correlated with low participation activities such as hostile modes of political participation. This study was carried out within the general electorate focusing on the relationship between personality traits and political participation behaviours. The study compared the relative importance of personality traits to political

behaviour compared to importance of cardinal predictors of political participation such as education and income. The current study differs with the reviewed study by focusing the distribution of personality traits among women who contested for a parliamentary office in the 2007 Kenyan general election as well as exploring the relationship between traits and electoral outcomes.

Ha, Kim and Jo (2013) studied the link between personality traits and various modes of political participation in South Korea. They analysed data from the nationally representative survey of 1,602 respondents to the 2009 Korean General Social Survey [KGSS]. The KGSS has been conducted annually, since 2003, and uses a methodology that compares to the one used by General Social Survey [GSS] and the International Social Survey Project [ISSP] in the US. The sample was administered a carefully translated Korean version of the TIPI on face to face interview. The depended variables were voter turnout and other types of non-electoral political participation behaviours. The study found that personality traits directly affect political participation even after controlling for primary determinants of political participation. Agreeableness and openness to experience traits were respectively found to correlate with lower or higher participation levels within a broad range of political activities. The magnitude of the association was comparable to that of canonical predictors of political participation such as education, income, attending religious service, partisan versus nonpartisan character of the election and among others. Specifically, conscientiousness was found to affect modes of participation that require deliberation before action and less affect activities that require collective action and responsibility. Although the reviewed study sourced its respondents from among the general electorate, its findings noted a significant relationship between personality traits and political

participation behaviours. The current study focuses on the female political contestants and the relationship between their personality traits and electoral outcomes.

Mattila, Wass, Sonderlund, Fredriksson, Fadjukoff and Kokko (2011) studied the relationship between personality traits and voter turnout in Finland. They based their study on the Jyväskylä Longitudinal Study (JYLS) of personality and social development that was launched in 1968 and recruited 369 second grade pupils (196 males and 173 females), born in 1959. The second grade pupils were recruited from randomly picked schools which were within urban and sub urban areas of Jyväskylä in Central Finland. Data was collected while respondents were 42 years old by mailing the 60-item five-factor inventory. The study established that the effects of personality traits on voter turnout were mediated by the cardinal predictors of political participation such as education and income. For example, the effect of extraversion on voter turnout was found to vary depending on the respondent's level of education. Respondents who were more educated had a significantly higher propensity to vote regardless of scores on extraversion; while among the less educated, traits have a more considerable impact. This study established that the personality effects of personality traits on political participation are moderated by level of education and income of the participant. The current study looks at the distribution of electoral outcomes among female contestants and how the traits relates to electoral outcomes and did not have an objective on exploring the effect of education and income on either contesting and the electoral outcomes. However, it takes note that personality traits lone cannot account for contesting and electoral outcomes.

Blais and St-Vincent (2011) examined the relationship between personality traits, political attitudes and the propensity to vote in elections. The two gathered data through an Internet Panel Survey [IPS] administered a week before the Canadian Federal elections held in British Columbia and Quebec on October 2008 and the Canadian Provincial elections held in British Columbia and Quebec held on May 2009. First panel survey sampled 4,014 respondents (2013 from Quebec and 2004 from British Columbia) and 2,025 respondents (1,025 from Quebec and 998 from British Columbia) in the second survey. The study discovered that political interest and sense of civic duty were the two most proximate attitudes that shape the propensity to vote. The focus of this study is relevant as it focuses on the role personality traits, alongside political attitudes, on the propensity to vote in elections. The study was done within the general population; however, the current study looks at the role of personality traits and political efficacy on electoral outcomes.

Other studies have focused on the role of personality traits in moderating and predicting political attitudes and behaviour which is essential to electoral outcomes. Chirumbo and Leone (2010) studied the role of personality traits in the development of a person's political ideology and the decision to turn up for voting. The study used the snowball method to recruit 517 Italian citizens who included 252 males, 264 females and one person who did not provide information on gender. They collected data using four tools which included the 96-item version of the HEXACO PI-R, the 60-item version of the Big Five inventory, a 2-item Political Ideology Orientation tool, and a 1-item tool on voting preference. Personality traits were found to influence people's political ideology and preferred type of political participation. They also found a relationship between traits and

political ideology orientation. Specifically, honesty-humility trait was found to negatively associated right-wing political ideology. The reviewed study discovered a relationship between personality traits, political ideology and preferred political behaviours. Its contribution enriches the findings of the current study by providing information on why certain personality traits dominated the list of contestants than others.

Vicchione and Caprara (2009) examined the mediating role political efficacy in linking personality traits with political participation. They used students majoring in psychology, at the University of Rome, to recruit 1,353 respondents, who completed questionnaires assessing personality traits, political efficacy and political participation. Data was collected using a 60-item version of the big five inventory, a 10-item political efficacy questionnaire, and another 1-item tool on political engagement. The findings of their study were as follows; first, the study found that the five traits, as measured by the BFI, contribute to self-reported efficacy beliefs which in turn affect political participation. Second, they agreed with previous studies which concluded that basic dispositions are central to understanding people's behaviour including political choices. Third, their study found a relationship between political efficacy and extraversion and openness traits; they established that although both traits had concurrent validity; only extraversion consistently predicted adult political participation. This study was carried out in Italy where politics revolve around political parties and political turnout is high and therefore its outcomes are an indicator of party loyalty. This study compares with the current study by using the same independent variables focused on how they relate with preferred political participation activities; however, it differs on the populations which were used on the study. Therefore,

the current study used contestants for legislative assembly position as respondents and was interested in finding how personality traits and political efficacy judgements are distributed among the female contestants for National assembly office in Kenya. Therefore, this study was interested in finding whether a similarity on the between and Italy; especially the role of extraversion trait on political participation.

Leone, Chirumbolo and Desimoni (2012) investigated the relationship between interest in politics and personality traits, as measured using the HEXACO model. They used the snowball method to recruited 344 Italian-citizens respondents who included 162 males, 180 females and 2 other respondents who did not provide their information on gender. Data was collected using the 96-item version of the HEXACO-PI-R model, the Social Dominance Orientation Scale [SDO], the Right Wing Authoritarianism scale [RWA] and one item scale on interest in politics. This study agreed with previous research findings which found a relationship between personality traits and political attitudes. The Honesty – Humility and openness to experience traits were found to influence socio-political attitudes as well as the fit between personality trait and political ideology. Interest in politics was found to predict the strength of political attitudes with stronger effects being reported among respondents with more political interest. Lastly, honesty-humility trait was uniquely related to low social dominance orientation while the more experimental facet of openness were uniquely linked to low right wing authoritarianism. Although the reviewed study uses the HEXACO model which categorizes personality traits into six, the current study uses the big five inventory which categorizes personality traits into five. The current study looks beyond the impact of personality traits on political attitude to how it impacts on the

decision to contest among female politicians. It informs the current study by indicating that traits influence political attitudes which determine political participation behaviours.

Studies have found that personality traits can predict the level and the type of civic engagement and that their effects are mediated by interpersonal discussions on politics, a candidate's political ideology, interest in politics and political efficacy judgments. Galego and Oberski (2011) used the log-linear path model to study the effect of personality traits on political participation and especially voter turnout and political protests. They used data collected from 8,187 participants in a two-wave nationwide survey by the Spanish Centre for Sociological Research before (29th April 2009) and after (17th May 2009) elections for the European Parliament.

The study found that the effects of personality traits on political participation are mediated by interest in politics, internal efficacy and the prevailing political concerns. The study found that traits indirectly affect political participation by shaping the propensity to acquire certain attitudes and behaviours which are essential to political participation. The study found that extent to which traits moderate political participation varies from one trait to another. For instance, the effect of Conscientiousness on voter turnout was found to be fully mediated by the type of political participation. The effect of extraversion on turnout depended on internal efficacy and discussions with other people. Lastly, the effect of agreeableness on turnout was negatively affected by participation activities that appear confrontational or illegal.

Personality traits also influence the political platform that is held by voters as well as the candidate chosen in election. Barbaraneli, Caprara, Vecchioine and Fraley (2007) investigated the role of personality traits in shaping the voters political orientation and electoral. The study used the 44 – item big five inventory and a single-item tool to identify the voter’s preferred presidential candidate between Bush and Kerry in the 2006 US Midterm Elections. It involved 6,094 American (79% males and 21% females) voters and controlled for gender and education. Data was collected using three data collection tools which were administered through a website. It was discovered that personality traits accounted for 16% of the variance of voting intentions and that it predicts electoral tendencies amongst the electorate. For example, in the 2004 U.S. presidential elections, higher extraversion and conscientiousness traits, and lower agreeableness and openness to experience traits associated with an intention to endorse the Republican Party platform and its party candidate while respondents who had lower scores in extraversion and conscientiousness traits, and higher scores in agreeableness and openness to experience traits preferred the Democratic Party platform and the party candidate. Although the reviewed study was done among the general electorate, it indicate that personality traits predict the political ideology being supported by the voter and by extension the political part they will support. The current study did not have an objective on the role of traits in the electoral choices made by the electorate.

Verhulst, Hatemi and Martin (2010) investigated the relationship between personality traits and political attitudes. Their study collected data between 1988 and 1990 from a population of 20,559 Australian twins who had registered with the Volunteer Australian Twin Registry. They collected data by mailing the Health

and Lifestyle Questionnaire [HLQ] and the short version of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Revised Scale [EPQ-R-S] to two cohorts of adult Australian twins. Out of a population of 20,559 twins, the study recruited 7,234 individual twins comprising of 3,254 same sex pairs and 363 unlike sex pairs among other characteristics. The study analysed data from respondents who had completed both the political efficacy and personality trait measures. It found that political ideology had a strong negative correlation with psychoticism and a positive correlation with social desirability. It also established that personality traits and political attitudes are influenced by genes and environmental factors. The reviewed study used the Eysenck EPQ-R-S which differs significantly from the Big Five Inventory and found that personality traits are influenced by the environment. Therefore, it indicates that it is possible for female contestant to nurture a personality that appeals more to the electorate and enhance their electability.

Caprara, Barbarnelli, Consiglio, Picconi and Zimbardo (2003) studied the relationship between personality traits of politicians' and their competitors in the opposing political coalition. The study was done in Italy between April and June 2001, targeting members of the three regional parliaments (Italian National Parliament, European Parliaments, and the Provincial Councils of Turin, Rome and Catania). The study recruited 119 respondents who included 103 male and 16 female politicians. Data was collected using the Big Five Inventory and the Social Desirability Scale. Data collection tools were mailed to respective respondent's offices and follow up made through emails and phone calls.

This study found that politicians had significantly higher levels of social desirability, extraversion and agreeableness traits compared to the general population; they however, compared to the general public in emotional stability (neuroticism), Conscientiousness and openness to experience traits. The tendency to score highly on social desirability scale is associated with their inclination to convey a desirable public image. The study found that politicians from opposing coalitions differ on several personality dimensions. It was noted that politicians from Left of Centre Coalition generally scored higher on extraversion (energy) and consciousness traits compared to those of the Right of Centre Coalition. The findings of this study indicate that personality traits can influence a candidate's political affiliation and identities. Alternatively, it may be possible that the political party or coalition political platform may attract contestants or members who share a common position. The finding indicates that candidates can either be attracted to join a coalition due their personality trait or adjust to the trait of the majority members of the political party.

Hayes (2010) examined the role of personality traits in the United States senate elections. He specifically focused on the role of partisan stereotypes and the incumbency in the shaping the assessment of a candidates attributes; the importance of campaign intensity in conditioning the influence of personality traits on voter choice; the mediating role played by voter level of political awareness; and, the specific trait that voters care about. The study used data collected by Polimetrix. Inc., from 500 respondents during the 2006 midterm elections, for Cooperative Congressional Election Study [CCES], a collaboration of over 30 US Colleges and Universities. The study adapted items from American National Elections Survey [ANES] trait batteries to assess candidate's leadership, morality,

compassion, and care for people. In all, trait measures were administered to about 500 respondents from 30 states that had senate elections during the 2006 election cycle. The study found that voters' electoral choice were informed by traits or perceived qualities of a candidate. Also, information inequalities among voters was found to inform the tendency to make choices based on traits; that is, less educated voters were easy to influence. The study also shows that political candidates can skilfully manage their public image and enhance their chances of election. Therefore, the study indicates that female contestants can be guided to manage their public image to present personal qualities that are acceptable to the electorate.

In a different study, Caprara, Schwartz, Capanna, Vecchione and Barbaranelli (2006) used the BFI and the Schwartz (1992) theory of basic personal values to study the relative contribution of personality traits and personal attitudes to political choice in Italy. They recruited a sample of 3044 respondent's among voters of the major coalitions, left or right of the centre, in the Italian National Elections of 2001. Their study concluded that personal attitudes play a pivotal role in the process of making political choices. Further, it proved that personal values mediate the role of personality traits in predicting political orientation. The study found that personal values take priority over personality traits; thus, agreeing with studies that consider personality to be a proactive - agent which drive voluntary behaviour.

Fridkin and Kenney (2011) examined the role candidates' traits in 21 out of 28 U.S. senate races which featured a majority party incumbent and minority party challengers in the 2006 general elections. They coded and examined 302 online campaign posters for 42 candidates and 2077 newspaper articles published by

largest circulating newspaper in 21 states. To find out whether candidates were successful in impression management, they used an internet based pre-election and post-election survey of 1,000 respondents carried during the 2006 midterm elections by Cooperative Congressional Election Study [CCES] on behalf of 37 Colleges and Universities. The CCES questionnaire also included question items which required respondents to rate candidates running for US Senate on five personality traits. The trait items were adapted from ANES and assessed contestants' honesty, care, experience, intelligence, and leadership. Among others, the study found that news media influence voter's willingness to rate sitting senators along personality traits and that a candidate's perceived trait informs the electoral decisions of the electorate.

Gerber, Huber, Doherty, Dowling and Panagopoulos (2013) studied the relationship between the personality traits and responding appeals to get out and vote [GOTV]. The study adopted data from a survey conducted in 2010 using subjects recruited through Amazon.com's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) interface and another data from the Gerber, Green, and Latimer's (2008) field experiment. Participants were randomly assigned to either the control group or to a group where they were to receive social pressure treatment, the civil duty treatment, or the instrumental benefit treatment; so as to vote. Generally, the study established that individual traits influence responsiveness to get out the vote appeals. Specifically, it was found that appeals which leveraged on social pressure were most successful. Relative to the control group, it increased turnout by 8% points in the primary election. The findings of this study can inform female contestants who wish to contest successfully use social pressure treatment when appeal to the voter to vote for them.

2.5.2 The Relationship between Political Efficacy Judgments and Electoral Outcomes

This study also wanted to find out how participant's perceived political efficacy determines the electoral outcomes. Although there are no documented studies on the relationship between political efficacy and electoral outcomes; there are limited documented studies that focus on the relationship between political efficacy and political behaviour.

McCluskey, Deshpande, Shah and McLeod (2004) examined the difference between the actual and the desired levels of political efficacy and their relationship to demographic factors, community integration and use of media. They also examined the relationship between the two political efficacies and civil engagement behaviours. They used the conventional probability sampling procedures to recruit 657 adult residents of Dane County, Wisconsin, USA and interviewed them through telephone calls between October 18, 2001 and November 1, 2001. In their study, they were able to deduce efficacy gap by calculating the difference between actual efficacy and the desired levels of efficacy.

McCluskey and colleagues found that the desired level of political efficacy exceeded the actual political efficacy and the gap between the two efficacies affected political behaviour. They found that demographics variables like age and level of education, community integration, and use of media affected both actual political efficacy and the desired levels of political efficacy. They also found that gap between perceived political efficacy and actual political efficacy negatively affects political participation; and that the difference between actual and perceived

political efficacy positively predicts individual forms of political participation and negatively predict collective forms of political participation. Their study focused on the antecedents of political efficacy and their effect on political participation but did not study how political efficacy relates to electoral outcomes. The findings of the study demonstrate that it is possible to ascertain the difference between contestants' perceived political efficacy and actual political efficacy and the effect of the have a gap between the two efficacies. Thus, it implies that contestants can be encouraged to cultivate the desired levels of efficacy so as to meet the expectations of the electorate.

Finkel (1987) investigated the causal interrelationship between a variety of political behaviours, such as voting, campaign activities, peaceful protest, aggressive political behaviour, on the sense of political efficacy and general support for a political system. The study assumed that different political behaviours and political attitudes influence each other in a causal and a bidirectional way. The reviewed study adopted data that had been collected during a longitudinal study done in West Germany in the mid 1970's. The study found a reciprocal causal relationship between several modes of political participation and internal and external political efficacies. Each political-behaviour causes a unique pattern of effects and in a manner that is unique to different citizens. For example, voting was found to heighten positive feelings towards government departments and increase appreciation of the values that these departments stand for; however, it had a minimal effect on efficacy. The study established that voting enhances external political efficacy. Therefore, the current study can recommend female contestants should take part in voting as one of the ways of enhancing external political efficacy.

Clerk and Acock (1989) studied the effects of political behaviour on political efficacy. The study built on a past survey that had been done by Centre for Political Studies [CPS] in 1968, 1972, and 1984, in the United States of America. In their study, they collected data using test items that had been adapted from political efficacy scale. The study found that different types of political participation behaviours do not significantly affect post-election internal or external efficacy. Secondly, that pre-election internal efficacy was found to influence post-election external efficacy, but pre-election external efficacy did not have influence on post-election internal efficacy. Therefore, supporting a successful candidate was found to cause increased levels of external efficacy. Lastly, the study also found internal efficacy to be more stable than external efficacy. This study focused on how political behaviour affects post-election perceived political efficacy; however, the study at hand looks the relationship between perceived political efficacy and electoral outcomes.

Kölln, Esaiasson and Turper (2013) analysed the difference between external political efficacy and the perceived responsiveness of the government with an interest of finding whether the two concepts refer to the same thing. Their study was based on the assumption that perceived responsiveness refers to cognitive beliefs about the representative process – how elected representatives and institutions act to accommodate the wishes and views of citizens – whereas external efficacy refers to a highly generalized beliefs about the outcomes of the representation processes. The study was done as a part of the Multi-disciplinary Opinion on Democracy Project [MODP] survey administered by University of Gothenburg. Data was collected through a series of comparative surveys administered through a web based, self-selected non representative sample of the

Swedish and the Netherlands population. In the first survey, two groups with a total of 717 respondents, were administered the external efficacy and the perceived responsiveness questionnaires. In the second survey, respondents were administered the external efficacy and perceived responsiveness batteries; however, the external efficacy tool had been amended in line with the American National Election Survey [ANES] in 1988. The third survey was aimed taking to account the response scale by presenting each group with external efficacy scale which had a different liker scale. The study used Confirmatory Factor Analysis to study the difference between external efficacy and perceived responsiveness. The study found that two concepts were not only distinct but each yielded an independent effect on political trust. The focus of the reviewed study differs with the focus of the current study and provides clarity on the difference between the two concepts.

Caprara, Vecchione, Capanna and Mebane (2009) studied the contributions of political efficacy towards political understanding and political involvement among psychology students at the University of Rome. The study involved assessing people's perceived political efficacy judgements alongside other primary predictors of political participation such as gender, age, education, income, employment status, and how they associate with a variety of political participation behaviours. They found that perceived political efficacy and political knowledge correlate with personality traits, socio-demographic variables like gender, age, education, income, employment status, and that they determine political participation. This study found a relationship between perceived political efficacy and levels of political participation behaviours. The results specifically showed significant difference in perceived political efficacy among voters, politicians and

partisans. This study was interested on the distribution political efficacies among women who contested for the legislative assembly. It was interested in finding whether there was a relationship between perceived political efficacy judgements and their eventual electoral outcomes.

Kahne and Westheimer (April 2006) studied ten nationally recognised programs through which the youth were engaged in community-based experiences that aimed at developing democratic values using service learning activities in USA. The study took two and half years; it involved many observations, 116 interviews and slightly fewer than 600 pre and post service learning activity surveys. The survey focused on changes in attitudes that are related to civic participation. First, the duo studied the Madison County Youth in Public Service, a program under Jefferson High School done by students studying government course, and found that if and when youths are incorporated into government agencies and if and when their contributions on improving the community are considered for implementation, their civic efficacy, leadership efficacy and their belief that their political knowledge and social capital are adequate for effective promotion of community development grows tremendously. Secondly, they also studied the Youth Action, a similar program belong to Woodrow Wilson High School, and found that when the youth are not guided to work with relevant government departments, they are frustrated, and as a result, they experienced a statistically significant decline in leadership efficacy, civic efficacy and sense of adequacy of their knowledge and social capital. It was noted that efficacious experiences promoted civic commitment among Madison County students while frustrating experiences caused diminished self-confidence and diminished commitment to future civic involvement. As a result of the study, the Madison

model was preferred for implementation as best suited to improve efficacy among the youth.

Russo and Amn  (2014) between November 2010 and February 2011 investigated the relationship between the personality traits and a variety of online and offline forms of political participation. They used data collected from 601 (45.1% women) respondents, aged 26 years, using mailed questionnaires. Data on personality traits was collected using the 44- items BFI, while information on online and offline political participation was assessed using a series of questions on political engagement. This study treated political efficacy, interest in politics, interpersonal discussions and internet usage as intervening variables. The study found a mix of both direct and indirect effects of personality predispositions on offline and online political participation. Besides providing support to previous studies, this study found that legal and illegal political participation activities were differently predicted by individual predispositions. Although online political participation positively relate to offline political participation, their predictors were not fully correspondent. Personality divide was found to affect both offline and online political participation activities. While the reviewed study focused on the role of the BFI personality traits on online and offline political participation behaviours, the current study was interested on how personality traits relate to electoral outcomes which results from the effectiveness of political participation behaviours.

Vecchione and Caprara (2009) examined the mediational role of perceived political efficacy in linking personality traits to political participation. They recruited 1,353 students from the University of Rome who filled and returned the

'big five' scale and political efficacy questionnaires. In this study, efficacy beliefs were found to moderate the effect of personality traits on modes of political behaviour. Although the objectives of the study under review were relevant to the concerns of the current study, the current study did not have an objective focusing on whether political efficacy moderates the effects of personality traits on political participation.

Michelson (2000) examined the distribution of perceived political efficacy scores among members of Chicago Latino community and compared them with those of the black and the Anglos community of Chicago. He recruited 867 respondents, including 66% (568) Mexicans, 27% (236) Puerto Ricans and 7% (68) Anglos, between February and March 1997. Respondents were administered a political efficacy questionnaire and the results compared with the 1996 NES scores. The study used logistic regression to control for socio-demographic variables such as age, income, and education. The study found that Chicago Latinos reported both lower internal efficacy and higher external efficacy than the national average. The study found that citizenship and the duration of naturalization associates positively with political efficacy. Latinos who had been naturalised for a longer period were more efficacious than those recently naturalized. Puerto Ricans were found to have higher internal and external efficacy compared to Mexicans. The study also discovered a relationship between political efficacy and political participation. Participants with higher efficacy scores reported a higher turn out to vote. On the extreme end, black voter who had less political power reported a low political efficacy judgement. While Michelson's focused on the distribution of political efficacy among the voting public within the minority communities of Chicago, the current study focused on the distribution of

political efficacies within women contestants for the legislative assembly in the 2007 general elections in Kenya.

Stewart, Kornberg, Clarke and Acock (1992) studied the expression of perceived political efficacy, within a federal system, in different areas of participation, government responsiveness, and political parties at the supra levels. They adapted their first data from a national representative sample of 3,377 adults that had been collected after 1984 Canadian National Election by Brown, Curtis, Kay, Lambert, and Wilson. Sampled participants had responded to two separate series of CPS-type of statements concerning political efficacy at the federal and provincial levels. The second data was collected using a survey of national representative sample of 2,107 respondents in 1983 where participants responded to the same statements as in the first survey. The study used Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using LISREL 7 to assess the alternative model of political efficacy. This study found that respondent's internal and external efficacy political efficacies differed along federal and provincial levels and areas. It also found that respondent's strength of internal and external efficacy corresponded to the national and the provincial party systems where differential strengths of political parties in provinces or nationally affected respondent's internal and external political efficacies. It was evident that the strength of a political party in a region has an impact on the perceived political efficacy of political candidates. This study is interested on finding the distribution perceived political efficacy and how they relate to electoral outcomes. It notes that political efficacy is influenced by the strength of political parties within regions and levels. The current study was interested in finding out whether political efficacies differently among respondents from different regions.

Fu, Mou, Miller and Jalette (2011), between 3rd and 23rd April 2009, studied the relationship between political cynicism, political empowerment and the antecedents for political empowerment. They used a web based platform to recruit and administer data collection tools to 439 students from various disciplines in the University of Connecticut, in the U.S. Data was collected using Political Involvement and Political Cynicism scales alongside other tools. The study established that media consumption, political information efficacy and political cynicism positively influence respondent's political behaviours. Increased political cynicism was found to positively influence political participation. The current study looked at the distribution of cynicism among the female contestants of the 2007 general elections and its relationship with electoral outcomes. It was interested in finding how the distribution compares with the findings of the study under review.

Opdycke, Segura and Vasquez (2013) examined how media consumption, political cynicism and political efficacy relate to the likelihood to vote. They used the Facebook social platform to recruit 238 participants, who completed surveys on political information efficacy, political cynicism scales and media consumption. The recruited participants included 69 males, 164 females and 5 people who did not provide information on gender. Data was collected using a 7-item political cynicism scale, a 14-item Media Consumption Scale [MCS] and a Media Consumption Questionnaire [MCQ] that had three items. The study found a significant positive relationship between both political information efficacy and political cynicism. There was a relationship between increased political awareness and political cynicism. Secondly, political information efficacy was found to positively influence a participant's likelihood to vote. Increased political

information efficacy associated with increased possibility of voting. Unlike Fu, Mou, Miller and Jalette, (2011), in this study, political cynicism negatively predicted voter turnout. The current study used a tool that considers political cynicism as part of political efficacy and therefore differs with the reviewed study; however, it was interested in finding whether its findings on the relationship between cynicism and political participation compared to findings of the study under review.

2.6 Summary of Reviewed Literature

Personality traits were found to be essential to understanding human behaviour including preferred political participation activities and choices (Vecchione & Caprara, 2009). In South Korea, personality traits were found to influence the types of political participation (Ha, Kim & Jo, 2013). In Italy, Gerber, Huber, Doherty, Dowling, Raso and Ha, (2011) established that the effects of personality traits on participation were moderated by a person's level of education and incomes. It was also found that personality traits, and especially extroversion, could predict political participation (Vecchione & Caprara, 2009), and could influence self-reported efficacy beliefs which in turn affect a person's political participation (Vecchione & Caprara, 2009). In Spain, it was established that the effects of personality traits on political participation were mediated by political interest, internal efficacy and the prevailing political concerns (Gallego & Oberski, 2011). In Italy, personality traits were found to influence the way people respond to Get-Out-The-Vote [GOTV] appeals (Gerber, Huber, Doherty, Dowling & Panagopoulo, 2013).

In Italy, personality traits were found to influence people's political ideology (Chirumbo & Leone, 2010), attitudes and the type of political participation (Leone, Chirumbolo & Desimoni, 2012), the preferred political platform and the political party candidate (Barbaranelli, Caprara, Vecchione & Fraley, 2007). In Canada's British Columbia and Quebec, a candidate's political interest and a sense of civic duty was found to have a positive relationship with the possibility of participating in voting (Blais & Labbe ST- Vincent, 2011). In Spain, the effects of personality traits on voter turnout were found to be mediated by the cardinal predictors of political participation such as education and income (Mattila, Wass, Sonderlund, Fredriksson, Fadjukoff & Kokko, 2011).

Other studies found that different personality traits, associated with different types of political participation behaviours. For example, extraversion and emotional stability correlated with a range of political participation activities (Chirumbo & Leone, 2010). In South Korea, agreeableness and openness traits were found to respectively correlate with lower or higher participation levels within a broad range of political activities (Ha, Kim & Jo, 2013). In Italy, a study established a relationship between personality traits, specifically extraversion and openness to experience traits and political efficacy (Vecchione & Caprara, 2009). Two studies based on the HEXACO model, honesty-humility trait was found to negatively associate with the right wing political ideology (Chirumbo & Leone, 2010); while honesty-humility and openness to experience traits were found to associate with social political attitudes (Leone, Chirumbolo & Desimoni, 2012). In the United States, negative political messages were found to influence the relationship between a number of big five traits and political participation

behaviours (Weinschenck & Panagopoulos 2014). For example, agreeableness trait was found to associate peaceful political participation behaviours.

Voters' electoral choices were found to be influenced by the perceived personality traits of the candidate. Insufficient information about a candidate makes voters to make their electoral choices based on personality traits (Hayes, 2010). In Austria, it was found that voter perceived themselves as more open, more agreeable, more emotionally stable, and more extraverted than the average politician; and that they tend to vote for politicians in whom they perceive personality traits that they ascribe to themselves (Koppensteiner & Stephen 2014). In Italy, politicians were found to score significantly higher on social desirability, extroversion and agreeableness traits compared to the general population; however, when they were compared to general public in neuroticism (emotional stability), conscientiousness and openness to experience Traits, they scored significantly lower (Caprara, Barbarnelli, Consiglio, Picconi & Zimbardo, 2003).

On the distribution of perceived political efficacies, a study found that citizenship status and the duration of naturalization among the members of minority groups associated positively with political efficacy. Also, political efficacy judgments among the minorities varied depending on country of origin, the population size of the minority subgroup, and the extent to which members of the minority group are involved in regional politics. Thirdly, minority community members had a relatively lower level of political efficacy compared to members of the mainstream community (Michelson, 2000).

The reviewed literature yielded mixed opinion on how perceived political efficacy relates with political participation. On the role of perceived political

efficacy in politics, McCluskey, Deshpande, Shah and McLeod (2004) found that there was a gap between the perceived and the actual political efficacy and that this political efficacy gap associates negatively with political participation behaviours. In Germany, Finkel (1987) found a reciprocal causal relationship between modes of political participation and perceived political efficacies. On the contrary, In the U.S., Clerk and Acock (1989) found that political participation behaviours did not significantly affect post-election internal and external political efficacies. However, they noted that pre-election internal efficacy appeared to influence post-election external efficacy while pre-election external efficacy did not have effect on post-election internal efficacy. Thus, Clerk and Acock did not find a reciprocal causal relationship between political efficacy and political participation. In Italy, political efficacy attitudes were found to moderate the effects of personality on political participation behaviours (Vecchione & Caprara, 2009). Fu, Mou, Miller and Jalette (2011) found a positive relationship between political information, political efficacy, political cynicism and voting.

It is evident that the reviewed literature was done outside Kenya in particular and Africa in general and focuses on the relationship between the independent variable and political participation. This study was done in Kenya and focuses on the relationship between personality traits, perceived political efficacy judgements and electoral outcomes among female contestants in Kenya.

2.7 Conceptual Framework

Figure 2.2 presents the conceptual framework of the study and it shows that perceived political efficacy and BFI personality traits are the independent variables, political behaviours are intervening variables, and the two possible

electoral outcomes are the dependent variables. The direction of the arrows shows that perceived political efficacy and personality traits influences the kinds of political behaviours of a contestant. Lastly, the types and the intensity of political behaviour determines whether a contestant win or loses the election.

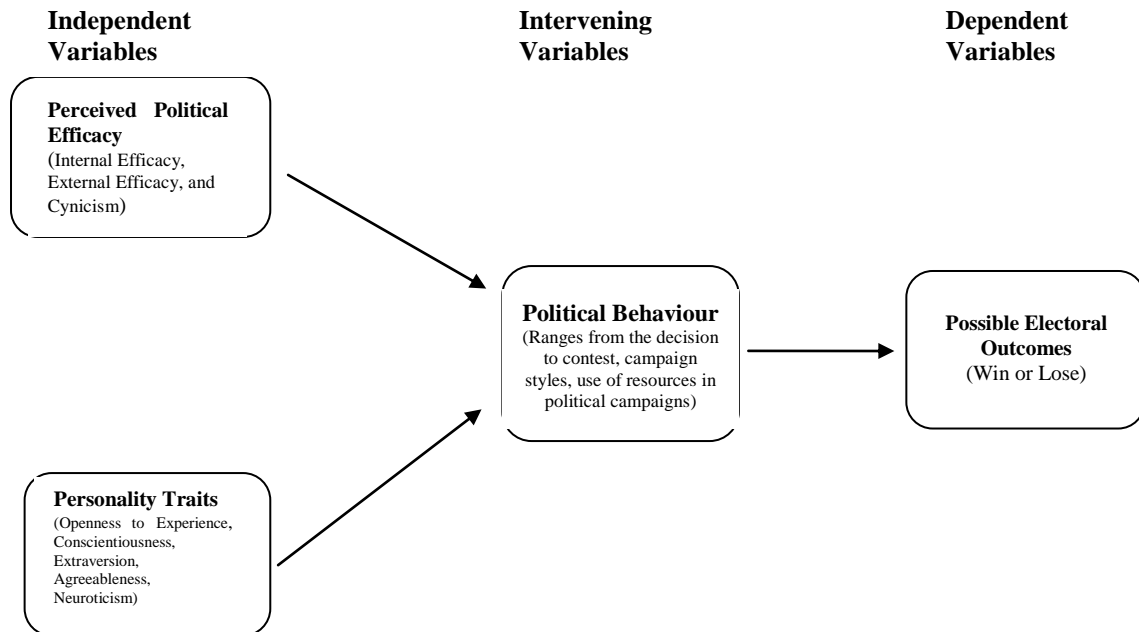


Figure 2.2: The critical path to electoral outcomes (Adapted from Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Saiegson & Anderson, 2010)

According to the conceptual framework, perceived political efficacy is the first independent variable and it shows that a contestant could have any of the three political efficacies; internal efficacy, external efficacy or cynicism. Personality traits, the second independent variable also shows that a contestant can have any of the five possible traits that a contestant can have (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism). The intervening variables are the various political behaviours that a contestant can engage in from the point of deciding to contest, the possible campaign styles and activities and deployment of resources in political campaigns. The last component of the

conceptual framework is the dependent variable and it shows that contestant's political behaviours can lead to either of the two possible electoral outcomes (win or loss). Therefore, the conceptual framework shows that having a particular political efficacy judgement or a certain personality trait may influence the political behaviours of a contestant and eventually the electoral outcomes realised.

2.8 Summary

This chapter presented the theoretical background of the study which includes big five traits and the self-efficacy theories, the reviewed literature, summary of the reviewed literature and the conceptual framework. In summary, the big five trait theory proposes that the variations within personality and individual differences can be captured in the five traits dimensions. It also postulates that each personality trait influences the type of political participation activities that a person engages on. The political efficacy theory proposes that people hold varying opinions towards the depth personal knowledge of political affairs, personal ability to execute certain political activity, and the responsiveness of the government. It also proposes that political efficacy judgements affect people's abilities to execute political activities, deployment of resources and eventual results in the performed task. The literature reviewed on personality traits generally proposes that there is a statistically significant and behaviourally important relationship between levels of certain traits and key measures of political participation and performance; while literature of political efficacy judgements opines that perceived political efficacy influences the decision whether to take part in a political activity, the amount of efforts invested and their effectiveness.

CHAPTER THREE:

METHODOLOGY OF STUDY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the methodological procedure that was followed to carry out the study. It covers the design of the study, the location, target population, sample size, sampling procedure, data collection tools and methods, data analysis methods, logistics and ethical concerns. The purpose of the study was to explore the role of personality traits and political efficacy judgments on electoral outcomes.

3.2 Study Design

The study took a correlational study design. According to Punch (2005) correlational study design is suitable for analysing the relationship between two variables of interest which the researcher has no control over. Punch notes that correlational design is based on experimental reasoning in a non-experimental design for situations where variations occur in the independent variables of interest, but where it is not possible to control that variation for research purposes. A correlational study involves collection of two sets of data with a view of determining the relationship between them. Therefore, the correlational design was preferred due to its suitability in assessment of relationship, which was in line with the purpose of the study

3.3 Study Variables

In this study, personality traits and political efficacy judgements were treated as the independent variables while the two possible electoral outcomes were the dependent variable. Participants were administered the Big Five Inventory and Political Efficacy Scale which have several sub scales based on the number of traits and elements of political efficacy scale. Their score in each subscale was calculated through adding up their total subscale score and dividing the total figure by the number of items in the subscale. Participants were allocated the personality trait or the political efficacy that they had the highest score in. For purpose of entering data in the SPSS software, variables were assigned values as follows: 1 = agreeableness, 2 = conscientiousness, 3 = extraversion, 4 = neuroticism and 5 = openness to experience. In the same way, political efficacy variables were assigned values as follows: 1 = internal efficacy scale, 2 = external efficacy scale and 3 = cynicism. The two dependent variables were the two possible electoral outcomes where 1 = successful contestants while 2 = non-successful contestants.

3.4 Location of the Study

Data was collected in seven counties across the country. Specifically, the counties were Nairobi, Kajiado, Machakos, Kiambu, Kakamega, Muranga and Uasin Gishu counties of Kenya. These counties were preferred due to their cosmopolitan populations which encompass the ethnic diversity within the country. Women who successfully contested for legislative assembly in the 2007 general election were interviewed from their Nairobi offices while those who

contested non-successfully were met within their domestic towns and areas of convenience in the counties mentioned above.

3.5 Target Population

The target population of the study was all 267 female parliamentary contestants in the 2007 general election. This target population was preferred because their availability and that they contested before the 2010 constitutional change which introduced 47 special parliamentary positions for women. It was considered that including women who contested in the 2013 general election would have included a big sample group which joined the national assembly through women representative position which is not as competitively as the regular constituency parliamentary position.

3.6 Sampling Procedure

The study used two non-probability sampling procedures to recruit participants to the study; Purposive and snowball sampling procedures. Purposive sampling was used because it allows the researcher to recruit cases that have required information with respect to the objectives of the study (Mugenda, 2008). In this study, purposive sampling procedure was used to recruit all successful female contestants and 15 of non-successful contestants for parliament during the 2007 general elections. Mugenda (2008) refers to snowball sampling as a chain referral sampling which starts with sample that has the qualities under investigation and can refer the researcher to the next person. In this study, Snowball sampling was used to recruit six non-successful female contestants whereby a non-successful contestant introduced the researcher to next non-successful contestant.

3.7 Sample Size

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), descriptive studies should recruit a minimum of 10% of the target population; the total number of women who contested for the national parliament was 267 whose ten per cent would have been 27. This study recruited forty two (42) participants which more than 10% of the target population and therefore the sample was representative. The sampling frame below summarizes the population and the sample.

Table 3.1:

Sampling frame

Strata	Population	Sample Size
Successful female contestants for 2007 general elections	22	21
Non successful female contestants for 2007 general elections	245	21
Total number of female contestants during 2007 general elections	267	42

3.8 Research Instruments

The research employed used three (3) data collection tools; namely, the Demographic Data Tool [DDT], the Big Five Inventory [BFI] and Political Efficacy Scale [PES]. The demographic data tool had four items and was developed by the researcher. The first item sought information on the age of the contestant. The second item sought information on contestant's highest level of formal education whereby the numbers of years taken in formal education were converted to the highest level of education attained which could be primary, secondary and university level. The third item was looking for information on the number of year a contestant had been in active politics. The last question was on

the electoral results obtained by the contestant. Participants responded to the questions by identifying answer choices that best describe them. The demographic data tool is attached in appendix 8.

The second tool used was the BFI, is a 44-item, tool whose copyright is held by Oliver and Srivastara (John, Donahue & Kentle, 1991). It is a self-report assessment tool that consists of a battery of five schedules which assess the five traits (Goldberg, 1993). The five schedules that constitute the BFI are the extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness scales. The items for each schedule are spread arbitrarily within the tool; consequently, it is hard for respondents to identify items for the individual schedules. Items within the extraversion scale are 1, 6R, 11, 16, 21R, 26, 31R, and 36; and the possible total scores range from 8 to 40. Items that constitute the agreeableness scale are 2R, 7, 12R, 17, 22, 27R, 32, 37R, and 42; and the possible final scores range from 9 to 45. The items for conscientiousness scale are 3, 8R, 13, 18R, 23R, 28, 33, 38, and 43R; and the possible scores range from 8 to 40. The items for neuroticism scale are 4, 9R, 14, 19, 24R, 29, 34R, and 39; and the possible final scores range from 8 to 40. Lastly, the items for openness scale are 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35R, 40, 41R, and 44; and the possible final scores range from 10 to 50.

The BFI has descriptive test items and multiple choice answers which guide participants to indicate the extent to which the statements describe them. The answer choices range from 1 to 5; where 1 means I disagree strongly and 5 mean I agree strongly. The BFI has five sub scales based on the five personality trait. Each sub scale was scored independently in order to obtain the respondent's score in each trait. The BFI is provided in appendix 11.

The third tool that was used was the political efficacy scale and is attributed to Campbell, Gurin and Miller (1954) and Verba (1963). The tool has nine items and is designed to assess the extent to which a person feels that political and social changes are possible and their readiness to take part in bringing about that change. The PES has three subscales which include the External Efficacy Scale [EES], Internal Efficacy Scale [IES] and Cynicism Scale [CS]. In the PES scale, the internal efficacy sub scale is composed of items 1, 2, and 9; the external efficacy sub scale is composed of items 4, 5, and 8; while the cynicism sub scale is composed of items 3, 6, and 7. The total score that is possible for any of the three subscale ranges from 3 to 15.

The items in the political efficacy scale are descriptive and have multiple choice answers which help the participant to show the extent to which the statements describe them. The answer choices range from 1 to 5; where 1 means I disagree strongly and 5 mean I agree strongly. The political efficacy scale has three subscales based on the three political efficacy judgements. Each sub scale was scored independently in order to obtain the respondent's score in political efficacy. The political efficacy scale is provided in the appendix 12.

The researcher established that there were no contextual normative scores for the big five inventory and political efficacy scale. As a result, the researcher determined what would constitute a high or a low score for purposes of interpretation. It was noted that respondents' scores varied significantly from one schedule to another; so, their class boundaries for different scales. Interpretation of big five scores was based on following; extraversion (low 2.8 - 4.0, high 4.1 - 5.00), agreeableness (low 3.6 - 4.1, high 4.2 - 5.0), conscientiousness (low 2.8 - 4.2, high 4.3 - 4.9), neuroticism (low 1.25 - 1.9, high 1.91 - 3.37), and openness

(low 2.2 - 3.8, high 3.81 - 4.0). The political efficacy scores were also categorised for interpretation purposes as follows; internal efficacy (low 3.33- 4.55, high 4.56 - 5.0), external efficacy (low 2.0 – 2.70, high 2.71 - 4.0) and cynicism scale (low 2.67 – 4.28, high 4.29 – 5.0).

3.9 Pilot Study

The researcher piloted the research tools to assess their relevance, the clarity of the language used, estimate the time required for administration and make any necessary adjustment. The researcher ensured that the process of pre-testing the tool compared to the actual process of data collection by administering the tools to two female successful and two non-successful contestants for parliament in 2007 general election. At the pilot stage, the tools were administered to four at Thika, Kajiado, Machakos and Nairobi counties.

3.10 Reliability and Validity

The researcher used data collected during the pre-test stage to ensure reliability and validity of the tools. Reliability of the research tools was assessed through use of the intraclass correlation method to check internal consistency with cronbach alpha value of .70 and above ($\alpha \geq .7$) taken as acceptable. The intraclass reliability test was preferred because it suits the type of study where several data collection tools were used and scored separately. The test compares the scores across the tools for consistency within the participants. The cumulative alpha value for BFI was found to be slightly low (0.69) while the PES had an alpha value of 0.72. The slightly low reliability may be attributed to the variations within a subscale including have some items in reverse.

There is documented evidence that the 44-item BFI has been administered to both western educated industrialized, rich and democratic [WEIRD] populations (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Bermudez, Maslach & Ruch, 2000), as well as indigenous populations such as the Tsimane - Forager-Farmers - of Bolivia, Amazon (Gurven, Kaplan, Rueden, & Massenkoff, 2013). The above studies demonstrate reasonable validity and reliability of the big five inventory within diverse populations and by extension its universal applicability. The BFI also correlates highly with the three analogous dimensions of the revised NEO Personality Inventory [NPI] which are neuroticism, extraversion and openness, attesting to its construct validity (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Maslach, 1997). To enhance reliability and validity, test items of the various schedules, in the various assessment tools, are well distributed; the big five inventory has several items in reverse. Thus, such qualities enhance reliability and validity by negation of acquiescence bias and response set.

The study utilised standardised tools that are of sound theoretical grounding, designed by experts and exhaustively explores the entire theoretical framework covered in the objectives of the study. The researcher also ensured that the administration of the tools accurately communicated the authors intended meaning and attracted an accurate response. This was achieved by ensuring that the written instructions for scoring at the beginning of each tool were clear and simple, and ensuring that the assessment tools are simple to understand and relevant to the context.

3.11 Data Collection Procedure

To collect data from successful respondents, the researcher was facilitated by the clerk of the National Assembly and the Kenya Women Parliamentarians Association (KEWOPA), to access participants from their Nairobi offices. The Independent Electoral and Boundaries Commission (IEBC) gave the researcher the contacts, poll station names and locations which helped communicating, locating and accessing of non-successful contestants from wherever they were residing at the time of research. The researcher administered the data collection tools in face-to-face sessions with the respondents.

3.12 Data Analysis

The quantitative data collected using the data collection instruments was scored on coded tools and was keyed into Internal Business Machine's [IBM] Statistical Package for Social Sciences [SPSS] software (version 21) for analysis. Collected data was prepared for analysis through scoring and coding before entering it to the SPSS.

The first step in scoring was unique to the BFI questionnaire and involved decoding all negatively keyed items by subtracting the obtained score from six. For example, in case were a respondent scored 5, their real score was obtained by subtracting 5 from 6 and the recoded score is 1. Using this formulae, a score of 1 became 5, 2 became 4, 3 remained 3, 4 became 2, and 5 became 1. The second step in scoring applied to both BFI and PES. It involved calculation of the total scale score for each subscale. The last step applied to both tools and involved finding the average score for each subscale by dividing the sum score by the number of items in each subscale scale. By following these three steps, the possible final score

ranged between 1 and 5. The data for the item on electoral outcomes was given coded 1 for electoral success and 2 for non-successful outcome. To enable easy data entry into the SPSS software, each data collection tool was given an identity code that identified it and guided the entry of its data.

Descriptive statistics such as mean, median and mode were used to describe the participants and general trends of the study. The ordinal likert-scale data was linearly transformed into continuous Percentage of Maximum Possible (POMP) scores as recommended by Cohen, Cohen, Aiken, and West (1999). Both parametric (One-Way ANOVA) and nonparametric (Chi-Square) inferential test procedures were used in hypotheses testing.

These inferential statistical analyses were used in the testing the study hypotheses. The study's four hypotheses were as follows;

H₀₁; There is no significant association between personality traits and female parliamentary electoral outcomes during the 2007 general elections in Kenya.

Test statistic used was Chi-Square analysis for correlation

H₀₂; There is no significant association between political efficacy judgments and female parliamentary electoral during the 2007 general elections in Kenya.

Test statistics used was Chi-Square analysis for correlation

H₀₃; There is no significant difference in personality traits between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections in Kenya.

The statistical test that was used is one-way analysis of variance

H₀₄; There is no significant difference in political efficacy scores between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants in Kenya.

The statistical test that was used is one-way analysis of variance

The one-way analysis of variance test was used to analyse data from the 5-point likert scale due to its high statistical power compared to a 2-samples *t* test. All hypotheses were tested at the significance level of an alpha (α) being equal to 0.05.

3.13 Logistics and Ethical Considerations

To carry out the study, upon successful presentation of the thesis proposal, the researcher was given a research authorization letter which also served as the introductory letter to the National Council of Science, Technology and Innovations (NACOSTI), by the Graduate School of Kenyatta University. Furthermore, NACOSTI gave the researcher a written permission to collect data with the help of the clerk to the Kenya National Assembly and District Officers' offices in various parts of the republic.

As a matter of principle, practice and a way of augmenting respondents' willingness to participate in the study, the researcher addressed the following ethical issues. First, at the data collection stage, confidentiality and anonymity was ensured by coding the data collection tools rather than using respondents' name. Secondly, respondents' informed consent was secured before any data was collected (see Appendix 5); lastly, the researcher sought to debrief respondents in case of any psychological harm caused by participating in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The chapter presents the results and the interpretation and discussions of the findings of the study. The purpose of the study was to establish the role of personality traits and political efficacy judgments on women's' parliamentary electoral outcomes in Kenya. The presentation of study findings are guided by the four (4) objectives captured in chapter one. Each finding is immediately interpreted and discussed and implications noted before moving to the next. The chapter is divided into four sections which include the following: the introduction; the demographic data; the presentation, interpretation and discussion of the findings; and a summary of the chapter.

4.2 Demographic Data of the Participants

Out of the sampled group, the study successfully recruited forty two (42) participants who filled and returned the data collection tools. The demographic data analysed included age, participant's level of formal education and participant's duration in active politics.

4.2.1 Age of Respondents

Table 4.1 presents the age of the study participants. It shows that respondents' age varied from a minimum of twenty five (25) years to a maximum sixty eight (68) years. The participants mean age was 49.45 years with a standard deviation of 11.36. The sample group had two modal ages (55 and 57), meaning that participants who were aged fifty five (55) and fifty seven (57) years had the

biggest tally and were equal in number. The samples median age was fifty one (51) years, and was higher than the mean age. The participants' age distribution had a negative skew (-.33) and a negative kurtosis (-.7). Therefore, it showed that majority of women who contested for parliamentary during the 2007 general elections in Kenya were above the mean age (49.45). This is further demonstrated by the two modal ages 55 and 57 which are greater than the mean age.

Table 4.1:

Age distribution of study participants

	N	Min	Max	Range	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Age	42	25	68	43	49.45	51.00	55 ^a , 57 ^b	11.36	-.33	-.7

4.2.2 Participants Number of Years in Formal Education

Figure 4.1 presents the distribution of the level of education for women who contested for parliamentary during the 2007 general election. The results indicate that three (3) contestants who had an intermediate level of education. There were two (2) contestants who reported having post graduate level certificates at a masters or postgraduate diploma. Six (6) participants had done a post-secondary school diploma. Twenty (20) participants were university graduates while eleven (11) female parliamentary contestants reported secondary school as their highest level of education.

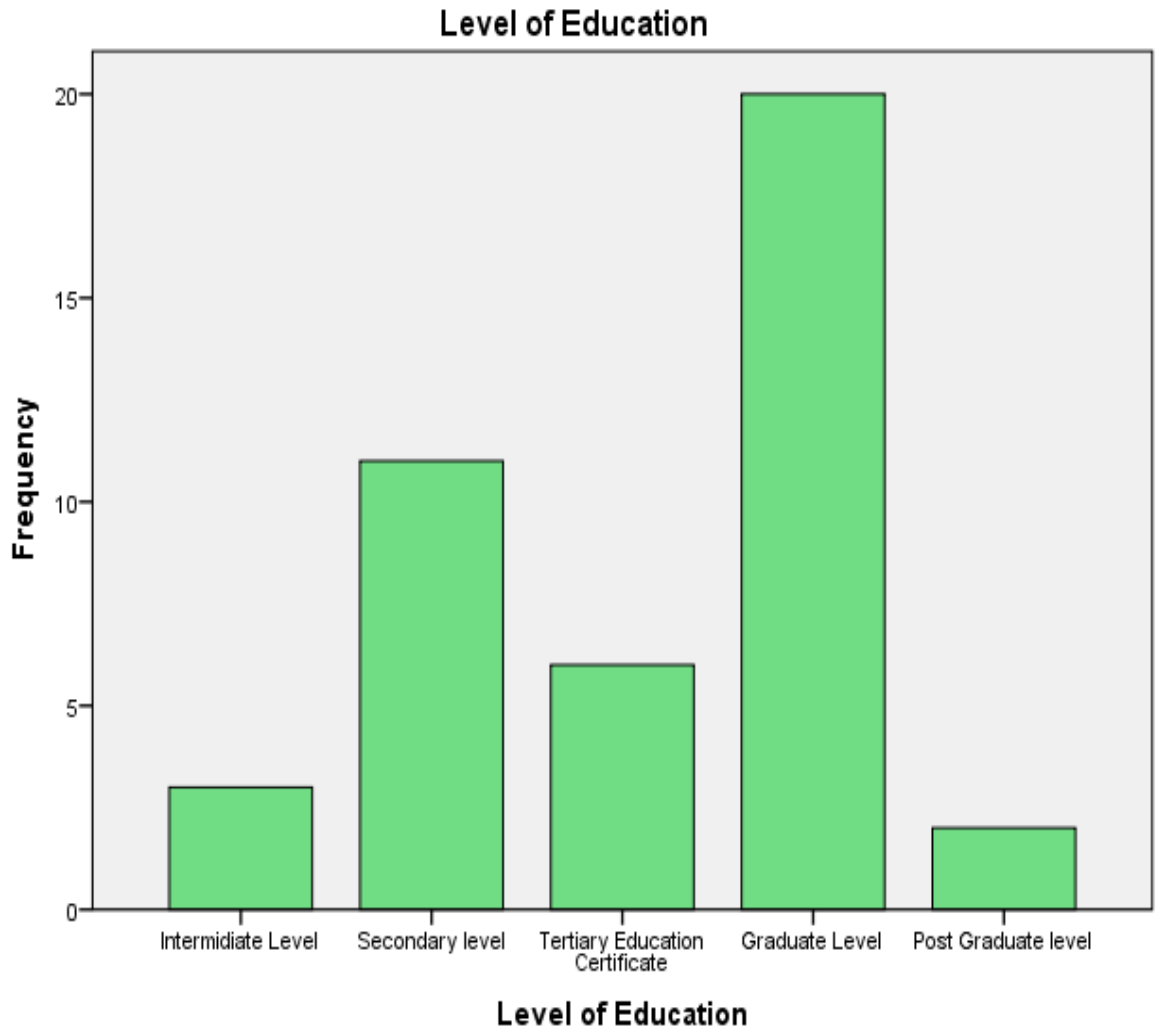


Figure 4.1: Participants level of education

4.2.3 Participants Number of Years in Politics

Table 4.3 presents the results on the distribution of the number of years that a participant had been in active politics. The number of years that the participant had been in active politics is considered to be indicative of their experience in politics. The results show that respondents' political experience varied from a minimum of three (3) to a maximum twenty one (21) years. The groups' average number of years in politics was 10.05; and the modal class of number of years in politics was five (5). It is also evident that participants' political experience was

skewed to the right (.47). These findings show that there were a number of women who had less than ten years since they joined politics.

Table 4.2:

Distribution of respondent's number of years in politics

	N	Min	Max	Range	Mean	Median	Mode	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Years in politics	42	3	21	18	10.05	8	5	6.07	.47	-1.35

4.2.4 Distribution of Personality Traits among Respondents

The first objective was to find out the distribution of personality traits among the female contestants for the legislative assembly during the 2007 general elections in Kenya. The big five inventory scale was administered to participants and the results are presented in the pie chart Figure 4.2.

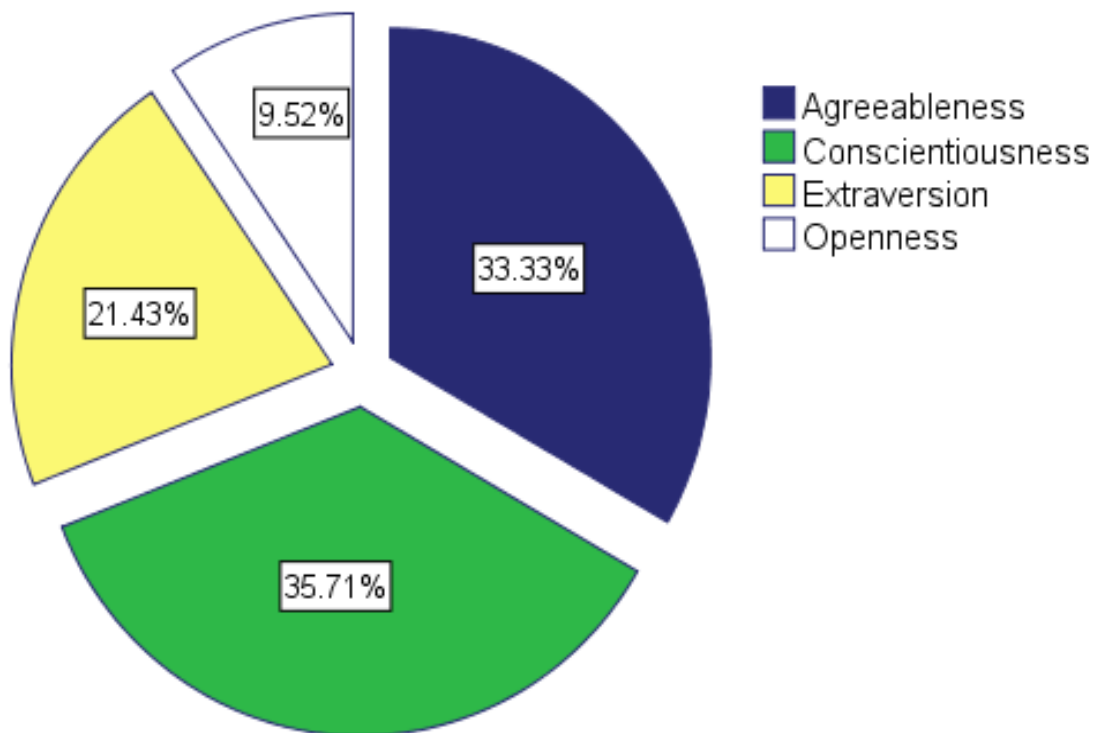


Figure 4.2: Distribution of predominant personality traits among contestants

The results show that study participants were distributed within four (4) out of the five (5) BFI personality traits. Most (35.71%) female contestants were marked by a predominant conscientiousness trait. Contestants whose characteristic matched the characteristic qualities of agreeableness trait constituted the second largest category (33.33%) of contestants. Contestants marked by extraversion trait were the second smallest category (21.43%). Participants with a predominant openness to experience trait were the smallest category (9.52%); and, there were no contestants marked by neurotic trait.

The results indicate that women marked by conscientiousness trait dominated the list of contestants. It is possible that their personality disposition made it more likely for them to contest while those with a dominant neurotic trait seem to have been most unlikely to contest. Gallego and Oberski (2011) described people with conscientiousness trait as responsible, ambitious, industrious, meticulous, reliable and sensible to social desirability and avoid forms of political engagement that contravene social norms. People with conscientiousness trait have been found to be dutiful when taking part in politics and orderly (Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Salegson & Anderson, 2010; Ha, Kim, & Jo, 2013). Ha, Kim and Jo (2013) did a study in Korea and found that people with conscientiousness and emotional stability trait were more likely to participate in activities that are considered to be civic duty or those that require individual deliberations. It is considered that this is due to both the qualities embodied in their personality trait, which include ability to plan, dutifulness, and/or their non-social competition among others or their proclivity to respond to civic duty (Ha, Kim, & Jo, 2013).

This study found women marked by personal qualities that characterise conscientiousness trait were the majority. The outcome is similar that of Ha, Kim

and Jo (2013) who established a positive relationship between conscientiousness, emotional stability and taking part in voting whose association was found to be statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) in Korea. Therefore, it is evident that having a conscientiousness trait personality or cultivating personal qualities that characterize conscientiousness trait may help navigate through the challenges of Kenyan politics.

According to Kivoi (2014), most political parties and/or coalitions in Kenya are controlled by men, are ethnic based, and it is expensive to contest for a parliamentary office. Getting the nomination to contest for parliament on the ticket of the popular political party or coalition is a highly patronised and difficult process for women (Kivoi, 2014). Therefore, it is not surprising that women who exhibit the characteristic qualities of conscientiousness trait are most likely to fit-in well. Their capacity to join-in successfully may be attributed to their ability to plan and implement well considered political participation activities which are strategic to electoral success. According to Kivoi (2014), women who join politics face challenges that range from lack of financial resources, cultural barriers and intimidations through organised and funded chaos. Therefore, it is women who are able to plan well their political activities, mobilize campaign resources better and who execute a focused political campaign, fit better in the male dominated politics and political parties.

This study found that no participant who had a predominant a neurotic trait. Goldberg (1990) refers this trait from a positive point of view and referred it as emotional stability. Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Salegson and Anderson (2010) describes people marked by emotional stability trait as calm, relaxed, and stable while those characterised by neuroticism (lack of emotional stability) as prone to

anxiety, fear and depression. Therefore, this study established that women who are prone to negative emotions were not likely to join politics. This finding was expected as characteristic qualities of neurotic trait pose a liability in politics and can hinder effective social connection with the electorate as well as undermine contestant's general life skills.

Another significant finding was that contestants with agreeableness trait constituted the second largest group (33.33%). According to Schumann and Schoen (2007), people with agreeableness trait are cooperative, good natured, forgiving, tendency for communal orientation and are generous. Political party leader look for political party members who are easy to lead, which is a hall mark of people marked by agreeableness trait; while the electorate prefer politician who are generous. Due to these personal qualities, women marked by agreeableness trait are likely fit well in a political party and/or gain acceptance with the electorate as they may be relatively easy to lead, are likely to consider positively the advice to join politics, and they may appear to be supportive to the electorate than their counterparts.

Lastly, people with extraversion trait constituted a third largest category of respondents (21.43%). Ha, Kim, and Jo (2013) described people with extraversion trait as assertive, sociable, confident, and energetic. According to Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Salegson and Anderson (2010), extraversion trait has the biggest link to civic engagement because of its social components. They found that the civil engagement activities which associate with extraversion trait included working on a petition drive, discussing politics with friends and neighbours and joining political associations as constituting social interactions. Based on the above, it appears that being assertive, sociable, confident and energetic may be

primary to joining a political contest but may not be central to electoral success. Mugambi and Ochola (2015) studied challenges that hinder women empowerment among pastoralist communities in Kenya. In their study, they demonstrate that most ethnic cultures of Kenyan communities may be misunderstanding extraversion trait and especially when it manifests among women. They identified unwritten cultural values which forbid women from speaking in public; they noted that women fear to speak in public and those who do fear are seen as *kimbelembele* women (Swahili for proud or show-off). Based on this background, extraverted women are likely to appear as being show offs as they speak in public or engage in civil activities; which may lead to their rejection at the ballot. Therefore, women politicians who are characterised by this trait are likely to be resisted by both male and female voters.

4.2.5 Distribution of Political Efficacy Judgments Among Respondents

The second objective was to establish the distribution of the political efficacy judgements among female political contestants for the legislative assembly in the 2007 Kenya general election. To achieve the objective, participants were administered the Political Efficacy Scale (PES) and the findings presented using a pie chart in Figure 4.3.

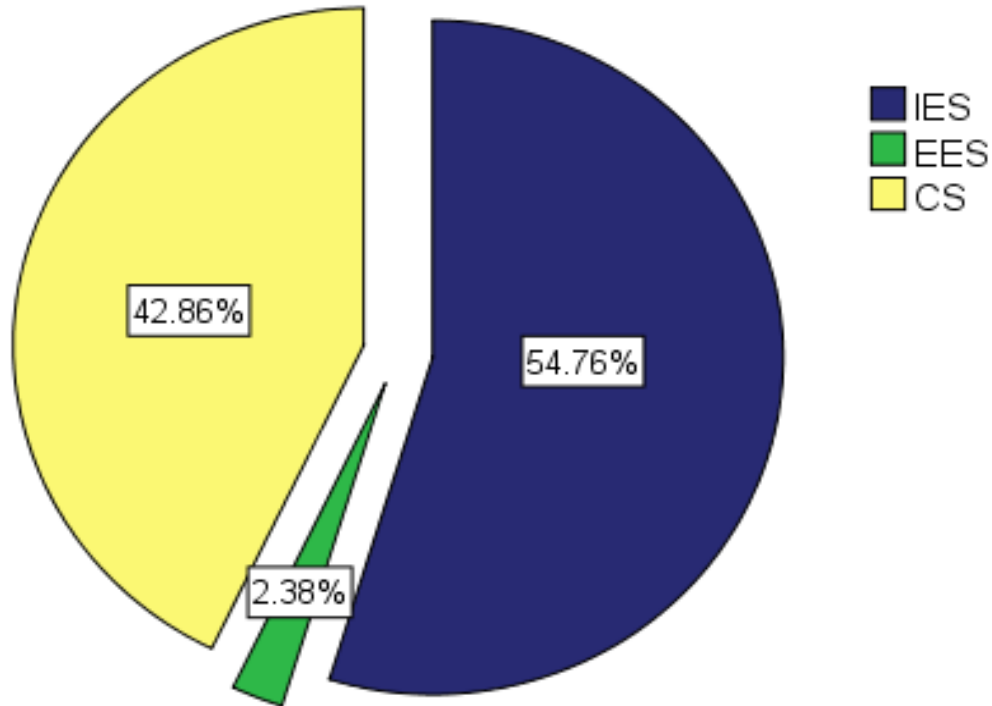


Figure 4.3: Distribution of predominant political efficacy judgements among contestants

The results in figure 4.3 indicate that most of respondents (54.76%) were inclined to internal efficacy judgement whereas 42.86% of the respondents were inclined towards cynicism, and only 2.38% contestants had a predominantly external efficacy. Schulz (2005) describes internal efficacy subscale as indicating the level of confidence of an individual in his or her ability to understand politics and to act politically in an effective way. The internal efficacy sub scale, in the political efficacy scale, consists of three items which tests the participant's judgement on their ability to understand most political issues; their level of knowledge of politics relative to people of their age; and their judgement on whether they consider themselves as able to make a contribution when people are discussing political issues. Participants with who had a predominant internal efficacy judgement considered themselves as more knowledgeable and more able to contribute on political discussion than their colleagues.

This study found that majority (54.76%) of female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general election had a predominant internal efficacy judgement. Internal efficacy is the extent to which a person affirms their ability to understand, and to participate effectively, in politics (Niemi, Craig, & Mattei, 1991). Therefore, most of female parliamentary contestants considered themselves as more knowledgeable and more competent to contribute in discussion focusing on politics than their counterparts. Therefore, this indicates that contestants' perceived internal political efficacy judgements may have a role during the stage of deciding to contest for a political office (Dyck & Lascher, 2008). It is highly possible that women, who consider themselves as more knowledgeable in politics and/or more able to contribute to a political discussion relative to the general population, are more likely to contest for the legislative assembly.

The outcomes of this study agrees with Caprara, Vecchione, Capanna and Mebane (2009) who established a relatively higher internal efficacy mean score among political contestants in Rome. According to Caprara et al. 2009, study participants' scores ranged from 1.83 to 2.63. According to Luszczynska and Gutierrez-Dona (2005), self-efficacy determines how people feel, think, and act. People with high self-efficacy choose to perform more challenging tasks; they set for themselves higher goals and stick to them and tend to recover more quickly in the face of setbacks. In his study, Schulz (2005) established that citizens who are confident of their political abilities are likely to take part in political processes. In their study, Caprara, Vecchione, Capanna and Mebane (2009) discovered that political efficacy judgements of contestant moderated the effects of personality traits on modes of political participation. They concluded that the relatively high

internal efficacy scores amongst political contestants pointed to the critical role played by perceived political efficacies in electoral success.

According to Kivoi (2014), the socio-cultural and religious heritages of most communities in Kenya obstruct equal gender representation in politics and governance. It is noted that stereotyped beliefs disaffirm the role played by women in politics by limiting them to subsidiary roles in the civil society. For example, many communities in Kenya are patriarchal and subscribe to or are heavily influenced by the Judaeo-Christian faith which proposes that leadership divinely belongs to men (Kivoi, 2014).

Besides challenges that emanate from socio-cultural and religious norms, it has been noted that women are also likely to shy from joining politics to avoid the anarchy, chaos and hooliganism that characterize some political activities. For example, in their international observation mission report for Kenya's 2007 general elections, the International Republican Institute [IRI] reported that chaos erupted spontaneously, in a number of places, immediately after the presidential election results were announced (IRI, 2007). Therefore, in societies where their cultural/religious values undermine women leadership and/or where political tensions abound, women may hesitate from joining politics. In such situations, it is only women who believe that they have the requisite internal efficacy, political knowledge and capability to contribute to a political discussion, are likely to join politics as candidates.

The study also found that very few contestants had dominant external efficacy judgements (2.38%). according to Shultz (2005), external efficacy constitutes the individual's belief in the responsiveness of the political system.

Thus, contestants with dominant external efficacy consider the political system to be responsive to the needs of the electorate and therefore effectively meet their needs and expectations. They consider the government or the political leadership as capable of delivering its pledges and/or meeting the needs of the citizen. The external efficacy items, in the political efficacy scale, question the extent to which people in government care about the law; the extent to which the government is working towards finding out what citizens want; and the extent to which citizens believe that they can cause the government to pay attention to their needs if they get together to demand for change. Therefore, contestants with dominant external efficacy judgements trust that the government (or senior government officials) does its best to find out citizen's needs; and that, if citizens get together to demand for change, the leaders in the government listen.

The Kenyan political environment is dominated by male led political parties or coalitions which hold sway in regional politics and the process for becoming the party candidate is highly patronised. It is worth noting that the political party system in Kenya rewards party loyalists and tendencies to contribute towards the success of political party or coalition rather than the ideals held by a particular candidate; and that the electorate in Kenya usually support these regional or ethnic based political parties or coalitions without questions. This study found that there were only a few women with dominant external efficacy judgement who contested parliament in the 2007 parliamentary election. Thus, there were few women who demonstrated trust in the political party or coalition.

4.2.6 Relationship between Personality Traits and Electoral Outcomes

The third objective was to establish the relationship between personality traits and electoral outcomes. To achieve this objective; the study was guided by the following hypothesis:

H₀₁: There is no significant association between personality traits and female parliamentary electoral outcomes in Kenya.

To test this hypothesis, a Chi-Square coefficient was used to analyse the relationship between BFI personality traits and electoral outcomes and the results presented in table 4.3 and table 4.4.

Table 4.3:

Cross-tabulation of electoral outcomes versus personality traits

		Big Five Inventory				Total	
		Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Extraversion	Openness		
Electoral outcomes	Won	Count	4	9	6	2	21
		Expected Count	7.0	7.5	4.5	2.0	21.0
	% within						
	Electoral outcomes	19.0%	42.9%	28.6%	9.5%	100.0%	
	Lost	Count	10	6	3	2	21
		Expected Count	7.0	7.5	4.5	2.0	21.0
	% within						
	Electoral outcomes	47.6%	28.6%	14.3%	9.5%	100.0%	
	Total	Count	14	15	9	4	42
		Expected Count	14.0	15.0	9.0	4.0	42.0
% within							
Electoral outcomes	33.3%	35.7%	21.4%	9.5%	100.0%		

The findings show that there are differences between the observed and the expected counts of women who won or lost for agreeableness and

conscientiousness traits. The findings show that participants marked by conscientiousness and extraversion traits enjoyed more electoral success where nine (9) out of fifteen (15) and six (6) out of nine (9) contestants respectively were successful. Contestants marked by agreeableness trait had the highest electoral failure rate where ten (10) out of fourteen (14) lost. Thus, contestants marked by conscientiousness and extraversion traits had a higher likelihood to succeed while contestants marked by agreeableness trait were less likely to win the election.

Table 4.4:

Chi-Square analysis for association between personality traits and Electoral outcome

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.171 ^a	3	.244
Likelihood Ratio	4.280	3	.233
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.367	1	.242
N of Valid Cases	42		

a. 4 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.00.

The results of Chi-Square test for association between BFI personality traits and electoral outcomes presented in table 4.4 found no significant association was found between personality traits and electoral outcomes, $\chi^2 (2, n = 42) = 4.171, p = .244$ (Table 4:4).

A number of studies have proposed an association between personality traits and certain types of political participation behaviours and the levels of involvement. For example, Mondak et al., (2010) found that variations in personality traits corresponded with a sizable change in the patterns of political participation although the change did not attain significance. Specifically, they

observed that with other factors held constant at mean or modal values, the predicted probability of having contacted a member of congress rises from 0.28 to 0.45 across the values of openness to experience, and from 0.27 to 0.49 across extraversion. Other studies found personality traits as able to reliably predict political participation (Leone, Chirumbolo & Desimoni, 2012; Gerber, Huber, Doherty, Dowling, Raso & Ha, 2011); yet another study found that personality traits moderate the effectiveness of a candidate's appeals to voters that they get out and vote for them on the Election Day (Gerber, Huber, Doherty, Dowling & Panagopoulos, 2013).

This study was particularly interested on the relationship between personality traits and electoral outcomes. It did not establish a significant association between the two. Although a number of past studies found personality traits as able to influence the nature and effectiveness of a person's civil engagement (Mondak, Hibbing, Canache, Salegson, & Anderson, 2010). In the Kenyan situation, the electoral outcomes which were enjoyed by the female legislative assembly contestants during the 2007 general elections could not be explained by the personality traits of the contestants alone.

According to Caprara et al. (2009) and Michelson (March 2000), perceived political efficacy is responsible for the degree or the amount of efforts and resources that people deploy in their political involvement, have long been shown to be related to a host of political outcome variables. This study has considered the role of the three component of political efficacy scale on electoral outcomes. Luszczyńska and Gutierrez-Dona (2005) have noted that people with high political efficacy are likely to undertake more challenging goals and have a high

self-regulation than those with low self-esteem and are therefore able to achieve ambitious goals. Opdycke, Segwa and Vasquez (2013) focused on the effects of cynicism alongside other variables on voter participation. They argued that political cynicism can either encourage people to work hard to realize a certain change or cause apathy and inaction. Therefore, the three elements of political efficacy judgments play a complimentary role to the personality traits and impact of electoral outcomes. It is probable that contestant's political efficacy moderated the role of personality traits in determining electoral outcomes.

4.2.7 Relationship between Political Efficacy and Electoral Outcomes

The fourth objective was to find out the relationship between political efficacy and electoral outcomes among female parliamentary contestants in Kenya. To explore this objective, the study was guided by the following hypothesis:

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between political efficacy judgments and female parliamentary electoral outcomes in Kenya.

A Chi-Square test was calculated to evaluate the relationship between political efficacy judgement and electoral outcomes and the results presented in table 4.5.

Table 4.5:

Cross-tabulation between political efficacy judgements and electoral outcomes

			Political Efficacy Scale			Total
			IES	EES	CS	
Electoral Outcomes (EO)	Lost	Count	11	0	10	21
		% within EO	52.4%	0.0%	47.6%	100.0%
		% of Total	26.2%	0.0%	23.8%	50.0%
	Won	Count	12	1	8	21
		% within EO	57.1%	4.8%	38.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	28.6%	2.4%	19.0%	50.0%
Total	Count	23	1	18	42	
	% within EO	54.8%	2.4%	42.9%	100.0%	
	% of Total	54.8%	2.4%	42.9%	100.0%	

Table 4.5 presents the results of a Chi-Square cross tabulation for respondents' political efficacy judgements against electoral outcomes. It shows that 23 (54.76%) participants had high internal efficacy and that 12 out of the 23 respondents were successful. They also show that 18 (42.86%) participants were inclined to cynicism and that eight (8) respondents out of the 18 were successful. There was only one (1) candidate (2.38%) who was characterised by external efficacy and she contested successfully during the 2007 general election. The results show that there was a higher success rate among participants marked by internal efficacy and a low success rate among those marked by cynicism.

The success rate among the various political efficacies varied. As noted earlier, 12 out of 23 contestants with predominant internal efficacy were successful; the only contestant with a predominant external efficacy was successful; while 8 of the 18 contestants with predominant cynicism contested successfully. A Chi-Square test for association between political efficacy judgements and electoral outcomes was done. The results are presented on Table 4.6.

Table 4.6:

Chi-Square analysis for association between Political Efficacy Judgements and Electoral outcome

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.400 ^a	1	.004		
Continuity Correction ^b	6.637	1	.010		
Likelihood Ratio	8.841	1	.003		
Fisher's Exact Test				.009	.004
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.200	1	.004		
N of Valid Cases	42				

The results of Chi-Square test for association between political efficacy judgments and electoral outcomes presented in table 4.6 found significant association was found between political efficacy judgments and electoral outcomes $\chi^2 (1, n = 42) = 8.400$, $p = .004$. Therefore, the electoral outcomes for women who contested for parliament position in the 2007 Kenyan general election appear to have associated with the contestants' political efficacy judgements.

Internal efficacy is the extent to which an individual is convinced that their knowledge political issues and their abilities of organizing and mobilizing in politics are superior to that of others; and as a result, he or she is readily to contribute or participate in political discussion (Dyck & Lascher, 2008). On the hand, external efficacy refers to the extent to which a person thinks that the political system and/or the government of the day are responsive to the citizen's needs. Internal efficacy also deals with the extent to which an individual believes that when people are organized and collectively demand for their right the government does listen or respondents to their demands (Schultz, 2005). This

study found a positive association between external efficacy and electoral success unlike the case of internal efficacy where a person trusts in their capabilities. According to Clapham (1993), most political systems in Africa are based on networks of patronage, personal and/or party loyalty and coercion. Lindberg and Morrison (2008) noted that there is a lot of non-evaluative voting which determine electoral results. Even in places where voters are expected to exercise objectivity while voting, a large percentage of voters vote for a political party rather than for the candidate's personal characteristics, or/and use retrospective evaluative rationale where they use elections to punish perceived less than sufficient performance of the incumbent. Therefore, it is possible that the Kenyan electorate rewarded female contestants who demonstrated trust in political parties which demonstrated capacity for organizing the electorate to demand their rights effectively as opposed to those who appeared to rely on their superior knowledge.

This study established a significant positive association between cynicism and electoral outcomes. The cynicism scale assesses the extent to which a person distrusts the government and/or people in the political system. The question items which test cynicism questions the concern and care of senior people in the government; the amount of power that is exercised by few individuals in the country; and whether they remember the needs of the voters. The findings of the study indicated that there was significant association between increased level of cynicism and electoral success. According to Opdycke, Segwa and Vasquez, (Fall 2013), cynicism can either elicit apathy and low voter turnout or cause more critical thinking and use of prospective evaluative rationale in voting. During the 2007 general elections, voters preferred contestants who appeared to question the

immense power that is seemingly exercised by a few individuals, their level of care for citizens and whether elected leaders remember them once they go to parliament.

4.2.8 Difference in Personality Traits Scores between Successful and Non-Successful Contestants

The fifth objective of the study was to establish whether there were differences in personality traits between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants in the 2007 general elections in Kenya. The following hypothesis informed the investigations into the objective:

H₀₃: There was no significant difference in personality traits scores between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections in Kenya.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was calculated to evaluate the differences in personality traits mean scores between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 Kenyan general elections. The dependence variables were the BFI personality traits while the independent variables were the two possible electoral outcomes. The results of the ANOVA tests are presented in table 4.7 and 4.8.

Table 4.7:

BFI personality trait cross tabulated with electoral outcomes

BFI Personality Traits		N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min.	Max.
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Extraversion	Won	21	4.178	1.000	.228	3.702	4.654	1.36	5.00
	Lost	21	3.925	.519	.113	3.688	4.161	2.79	4.67
	Total	42	4.051	.826	.127	3.794	4.309	1.36	5.36
Agreeableness	Won	21	4.032	.266	.058	3.911	4.154	3.64	4.74
	Lost	21	4.384	.447	.098	4.181	4.588	3.77	5.00
	Total	42	4.208	.405	.062	4.082	4.335	3.64	5.00
Conscientiousness	Won	21	4.427	.319	.070	4.282	4.572	3.92	5.00
	Lost	21	4.052	.549	.120	3.802	4.302	2.73	4.73
	Total	42	4.239	.482	.074	4.089	4.390	2.73	5.00
Neuroticism	Won	21	1.993	.541	.118	1.748	2.239	1.16	2.91
	Lost	21	2.005	.541	.118	1.759	2.251	1.29	3.00
	Total	42	1.999	.534	.082	1.833	2.166	1.16	3.00
Openness	Won	21	3.895	.564	.123	3.638	4.151	2.91	4.91
	Lost	21	3.724	.734	.160	3.390	4.058	2.40	4.50
	Total	42	3.809	.6521	.101	3.606	4.013	2.40	4.91

Table 4.7 presents descriptive statistics indicating differences in personality traits mean scores for both successful and non-successful study participants. The table shows that in extraversion trait, successful female contestants had a mean score of 4.18 ($SD = 1.00$); their lowest score was 1.36 while the highest score was 5.00. The non-successful contestants had a mean score of 3.92 ($SD = .519$) on the same trait, the minimum score was 2.79, while the maximum score was 4.67.

In agreeableness trait, successful female contestants obtained a mean score of 4.03 ($SD = .266$), their minimum score was 3.64 and the maximum score was 4.74. On the other hand, the non-successful contestants had a mean score of 4.21 ($SD = .446$), their minimum score was 3.77 and their maximum score was 5.00. In conscientiousness trait, successful female contestants obtained the mean score was

4.43 ($SD = .319$), the lowest score was 3.92 and the highest score was 5.00. The mean score for non-successful female contestants in conscientiousness trait was 4.05 ($SD = .549$); the minimum score was 2.73 while the highest score was 4.73.

In neuroticism trait, successful female contestants had a mean score of 1.99 ($SD = .54$), the minimum score was 1.16 and the maximum score was 2.91. The non-successful contestants' mean score in neuroticism was 2.00 ($SD = .533$), their minimum score was 1.29 and the maximum score was 3.00. In openness to experience trait, successful female contestants had a mean score of 3.89 ($SD = .563$), the minimum score was 2.91 and the maximum score was 4.91. Those who were non-successful had a mean score of 3.72 ($SD = .734$), the minimum score was 2.40 and the maximum score was 4.50.

Table 4.8:

Analysis of variance of personality traits scores across electoral outcomes

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Extraversion	Between Groups	.671	1	.671	.984	.327
	Within Groups	27.269	40	.682		
	Total	27.940	41			
Agreeableness	Between Groups	1.301	1	1.301	9.615	.004
	Within Groups	5.410	40	.135		
	Total	6.711	41			
Conscientiousness	Between Groups	1.476	1	1.476	7.323	.010
	Within Groups	8.065	40	.202		
	Total	9.541	41			
Neuroticism	Between Groups	.001	1	.001	.005	.946
	Within Groups	11.682	40	.292		
	Total	11.683	41			
Openness	Between Groups	.307	1	.307	.717	.402
	Within Groups	17.129	40	.428		
	Total	17.436	41			

Table 4.8 presents the ANOVA test results on differences in personality trait mean scores between successful and non-successful contestants. The results indicate the following: first, that there was no significant difference in extraversion trait mean scores between successful ($M = 4.18$, $SD = 1.00$) and non-successful ($M = 0.519$, $SD = .519$) female parliamentary contestants ($F(1, 40) = .984$, $p = .327$). The results showed that indicated that the p value was greater than .05; therefore, we accepted the null hypothesis which stated that there was no significant difference in extraversion trait scores between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections.

Secondly, the results indicated that there was a significant difference in agreeableness trait mean scores between successful ($M = 4.03$, $SD = .266$) and non-successful ($M = 4.38$, $SD = .446$) female parliamentary contestants during the 2006 general elections ($F(1, 40) = 9.615$, $p = .004$). It was noted that the p value was less than .05 and therefore the null hypothesis which proposed that there was no significant difference in agreeableness trait score between successful and non-successful contestants was rejected.

Thirdly, the results demonstrated that there was a significant mean difference in conscientiousness trait between successful ($M = 4.43$, $SD = .319$) and non-successful ($M = 4.05$, $SD = .540$) female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections ($F(1, 40) = 7.232$, $p = .010$). It was observed that the p value was less than .05; and thus, the study accepted that null hypothesis which stated that there were no significant differences in consciousness trait mean score between successful and non-successful female contestants was rejected.

Fourthly, the results indicated that there was no significant mean score differences in neuroticism trait between successful ($M = 2.00$, $SD = .54$) and non-successful ($M = 1.99$, $SD = .533$) female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections ($F(1,40) = .005$, $p = .946$). The study established that the p value was more than .05 and therefore accepted the null hypothesis which stated that there was no significant differences in neuroticism trait mean scores between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants.

Lastly, the study found that there was no significant mean score difference in openness trait between successful ($M = 3.89$, $SD = .563$) and non-successful ($M = 3.72$, $SD = .734$) female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections ($F(1, 40)$, $.717$, $p = .402$). It was observed that the p value was more than .05 and therefore the null hypothesis which assumed that there was no significant differences in openness trait mean score between successful and non-successful contestants was accepted.

The role of personality traits in determining the extent of people's participation in politics is documented in limited studies (Caprara, Barbarnelli, Consiglio, Picconi, & Zimbardo, 2003). Russo and Amnä (2014), who investigated the role of personality traits in both online and offline political participation, noted that each personality trait orients a person to participate limited types of political participation behaviours; and as such, traits determine in a general way the political activities that a person takes part in.

Agreeableness trait which characterizes a prosocially and a communal orientation favours being actively involved in political processes and non-political volunteering (Russo & Amnä, 2014). However, it may negatively relate to political

participation because it implies the tendency to avoid conflicting situation. Ha, Kim and Jo (2013) found agreeableness to be strongly and negatively related to different forms of non-electoral political activities in South Korea and noted that the finding may have been due to high degree which characterizes Korean politics. In the US, Barbaranelli, Caprara, Vecchione and Fraley (2007) found that agreeableness trait alongside openness trait had a positive impact on voting intentions. Barbaranelli et al. (2007) found that voters preferred candidates who are characterised by agreeableness and openness trait. The finding of this study on agreeableness trait disagrees with the above Korean study which found a negative association between agreeableness trait political participation. This study found that agreeableness trait accounted for 33% of study participants and female parliamentary contestants during 2007 general elections. It also found a significant difference in agreeableness trait scores between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants for the 2007 general elections ($F(1, 40) = 9.615, p. = .004$). Female contestants with high agreeableness trait score were not likely to contest successfully. On the level of participation, this study agrees with Mondak et al., (2010) who found high a participation rate between agreeableness and non-conflictual collective political participatory activities. In Kenyan politics, female contestants marked by agreeableness trait dominate the list of contestants as party leaders are likely to give party nomination to party loyalists and supporters more than candidates who join to contest for political party ticket during the election period.

Conscientiousness trait, the tendency to be dutiful, organized and reliable, has been found to be positively associated with political participation behaviours that are considered as duty. People who score highly on conscientiousness trait are

more sensible to social desirability and avoid forms of participation that contravene social norms. In this study, conscientiousness accounted for the 35% of female parliamentary contestants; and a One-Way ANOVA test yielded a significant difference in mean score between successful and non-successful female contestants ($F(1, 40) = 7.232, p = .010$). A number of past studies did not yield consistent effects of conscientiousness on traditional political activities (Russo & Amn , 2014). An example is Gerber et al. (2010), who established mixed findings regarding relationship between conscientiousness trait and political participation. In the Kenyan political context, contestants who were marked conscientiousness trait were the majority and that they positively associated with electoral success. Gerber and his colleagues did their study in Italy, a relatively mature democracy, where electoral politics coalesced around stable political party coalitions which represent distinct political ideologies. The Kenyan political contest is that of ever changing political parties which are used as electoral vehicles and without clear political ideologies. Therefore, in the Kenyan political scenario, it is possible that contestants marked by conscientiousness trait were assisted by their unique ability to plan and dutifully execute their campaign plans to win.

Extraversion trait, which is marked by an energetic approach towards the social world, positively correlates with civil activities which involve social contact (Russo, & Amn , 2014). This study found that extraversion trait contributed 21.43% of female parliamentary contestants and study participants; but did not yield clear extraversion mean score differences between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants ($F(1, 40) = .984, p = .327$). Extraverts are likely to be embedded on large social network and therefore have higher chances of engaging in interpersonal discussions on civic matters and take part in

group political activities (Russo, & Amnä, 2014). In a study investigating whether personality traits affect voting decisions, Koppensteiner and Stephen (2014) found the extraversion trait to have the lowest correlation coefficient indicative of a weak relationship between a contestants self-rating, the voter rating of the contestant on personality trait and the probability of voting for them. In this study, extraversion trait reported the third largest number of participants (21.43%) and did not have clear association with electoral outcomes. Therefore, findings of this study agree with other studies which did not find significant association between extraversion trait and electoral outcomes.

Openness trait, which is describes the breadth and depth of individual mental life, has been found to relate positively with political participation and civil engagement (Russo, & Amnä, 2014). Barbaranelli et al. (2007) identified openness and agreeableness as the only traits that had positive voting intentions among the US electorate during the 2006 general elections. In the Connecticut Survey, Gerber et al. (July 2011) found openness trait to associate with over reporting voter turnout, but the coefficient was both relatively small and not statistically significant. This study found that openness trait constituted 9.52% of the study participants and that there was no significant difference in mean scores in openness trait between successful and non-successful participants ($F(1,40) = 717, p = .402$). Therefore, it shows that the electorate did not prefer contestants who appear to have been interested in

Lastly, the study analysed the difference in neuroticism mean score between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections. Past studies found neuroticism to have null effect on a

variety of political participation indicators (Russo & Amnä, 2014). This study did not find a significant difference in neuroticism mean scores between successful and non successful female parliamentary contestants ($F(1,40) = .05, P = .946$). The findings of this study agrees with past studies which noted either a null effect or a null effect between neuroticism trait and electoral outcomes.

4.2.9 Differences in Political Efficacy Judgement between Successful and Non-Successful Contestants

The last objective was to determine whether there were significant differences in political efficacy judgements between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections in Kenya. In order to explore the objective, the researcher was guided by the following hypothesis:

H₀₄: There was no significant difference in political efficacy mean score between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during 2007 general elections Kenya.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was calculated to evaluate the differences in perceived political efficacy mean score between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 Kenyan general elections. The dependence variables were the political efficacy judgements while the independent variables were the two possible electoral outcomes. The results of the one-way ANOVA tests are presented in table 4.9 and 4.10.

Table 4.9:

Political Efficacies cross tabulated with electoral outcomes

Perceived Efficacy Judgements	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	95% Conf. Inter. for Mean		Min.	Max.	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Internal Efficacy	Won	21	3.956	.525	.115	3.717	4.195	2.87	4.54
	Lost	21	4.476	.506	.111	4.246	4.706	3.16	4.93
	Total	42	4.216	.573	.088	4.038	4.395	2.87	4.93
External Efficacy	Won	21	3.064	.604	.132	2.789	3.338	2.33	4.00
	Lost	21	2.603	.747	.163	2.264	2.943	1.85	4.17
	Total	42	2.833	.710	.110	2.612	3.055	1.85	4.17
Cynicism	Won	21	4.437	.730	.159	4.105	4.770	2.84	5.00
	Lost	21	4.141	.712	.155	3.817	4.466	2.90	4.95
	Total	42	4.289	.728	.112	4.063	4.516	2.84	5.00

Table 4.9 presents the descriptive statistics for political efficacy judgements for both successful and non-successful study participants. It shows that, in internal efficacy, successful female contestants had a mean score of 3.956 ($SD = .525$); the lowest score was 2.87 while the highest was 4.54. The non-successful contestants had a mean score of 4.476 ($SD = .506$) on the same trait, the minimum score was 3.16 and the maximum score was 4.93.

In external efficacy, successful female contestants had a mean score of 3.064 ($SD = .604$); their minimum score was 2.33 while their maximum score was 4.00. The non-successful female contestants had a mean score of 2.603 ($SD = .747$); their minimum score was 1.85 and the maximum score was 4.17.

Lastly, the cynicism results showed that successful female contestants had a mean score of 4.437 ($SD = .73$); their minimum score was 2.90 and their maximum score was 4.95. On the other hand, non-successful female contestant had

a mean score of 4.141 ($SD = .712$); their minimum score was 2.90 while the maximum score (4.95).

Table 4.10:

Analysis of variance of political efficacy judgements across electoral outcomes

		Sum of	df	Mean	F	Sig.
		Squares		Square		
Internal Efficacy	Between Groups	2.836	1	2.836	10.669	.002
	Within Groups	10.633	40	.266		
	Total	13.469	41			
External Efficacy	Between Groups	2.223	1	2.223	4.820	.034
	Within Groups	18.444	40	.461		
	Total	20.667	41			
Cynicism	Between Groups	.919	1	.919	1.767	.191
	Within Groups	20.807	40	.520		
	Total	21.727	41			

Table 4.10 presents the results of a one-way analysis of variance test calculated to evaluate the differences in political efficacy mean scores between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants. The results show that there was a significant difference in internal efficacy mean scores between successful ($M = 3.956$, $SD = 1.525$) and non-successful ($M = 4.476$, $SD = .506$) female parliamentary contestants ($F(1, 40) = 10.699$, $p = .002$). It was established that the p value was less than .05; the null hypothesis was rejected that there was no significant difference in internal efficacy scores between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections.

Secondly, the results showed that there was a significant difference in external efficacy mean scores between successful ($M = 3.064$, $SD = .604$) and non-successful ($M = 2.603$, $SD = .7468$) female parliamentary contestants during the 2006 general elections ($F(1, 40) = 4.82$, $p = .034$). It was noted that the p value

was less than .05 and therefore the null hypothesis which assumes that there was no significant difference in external efficacy score between successful and non-successful contestants was rejected.

Lastly, this study found that there was no significant difference in cynicism mean scores between successful ($M = 4.437$, $SD = .73$) and non-successful ($M = 4.141$, $SD = .712$) female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections ($F(1, 40) = .919$, $p = .191$). It was observed that p value was more than .05 and therefore the null hypothesis which assumes that there was no significant difference in cynicism score between successful and non-successful female contestants was accepted.

According to Dyck and Lacher (2008), people marked by high external efficacy belief that the government and/or the people serving in government do care and do their level best to meet the needs of the citizens; and that, when people get together and demand change, the government and/or the people serving in the government listen and respond. Therefore, the study found that the electorate voted for female parliamentary contestants who believed or demonstrated the belief that when people get together they can cause the government to respond to their needs.

Goetz (Dec. 2002) studied the challenges faced by women politicians in Uganda's no-party democratic state. She records that in Uganda's no-party democracy, women's access to power through reservations and affirmative action framework. This system leaves women without the means for asserting their right to equitable representation and especially the right to be fronted as candidates in a fair and robust electoral process. As a result, women politician depend on male

politicians for their positions in National Resistance Movement (NRM). The situation in Uganda compared a lot to what women go through in many African countries where they have to depend on men to be given the nomination to contest for parliament on a certain political party.

In the 2007 general elections, women who contested successfully believed that they would be part and parcel of a capable, caring and responsive government. Kenya politics are dominated by few dominant political parties which are controlled by men. Therefore, women look up to men who either control or own political parties to be given the party nomination to contest for parliamentary office. The process of becoming a candidate of a dominant party or coalition is highly patronised and a female aspirant has to have friends in the party leadership. Kenyan politicians and political parties appeal to the ethnic identity of the electorate to seek to have total control of an entire community (Friedrich Elbert Stiftung, 2010). In such a political environment, politicians who get the candidature of a dominant party are likely to contest successfully. Therefore, women who wish to contest successfully should seek to be in a political party or coalition that holds sway in a given region.

The study also noted that women who scored highly in internal efficacy did not enjoy high electoral success. This result was not surprising especially when one consider the description of people who score highly on this scale. They appear to believe that their knowledge of political issues is above average and who readily contribute to discussions on political matters. Their focus is on the individual candidate and not the party or the political coalition. It is evident that the political

system does not accommodate those who promote their capabilities at the expense of the group capabilities.

5.1 Summary

This chapter presented the findings of the study, data analysis and discussion. The study recruited 42 women who contested for Kenya National Assembly in the 2007 general election. The demographic variables of the participants included age which ranged from 25 to 68, years spent in formal education ranging from a minimum of 8 to a maximum of 17 years; and the number of year that one had been in active politics, 3 to 21 years. The presentation of the study findings is based on the objectives of the study. The study found that female political contestants in the 2007 general election were spread within four out of the five BFI personality traits. There was no contestant who had neuroticism. The study found that the contestants were spread in all three elements of political efficacy judgements; however, only one had a predominant external efficacy. On the relationships between personality traits, political efficacy and electoral outcomes; this study did not establish a unique relationship between personality traits and electoral outcomes. It however found a significant agreeableness and conscientiousness mean scores differences between successful and non-successful contestants. The study found a significant positive association between external efficacy and electoral success and a significant negative association between internal efficacy and electoral success.

CHAPTER FIVE:

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The chapter covers a summary of the study findings, conclusions and important recommendations based on this study.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

The study explored the role played by personality traits and political efficacy judgements in determining electoral outcomes in a competitive democratic process of electing female members of the legislative assembly. The study recruited 42 women who contested for the Kenya National Assembly [KNA] in the 2007 general election. Their demographic variables included age which ranged from 25 to 68, years spent in formal education where the least educated had intermediate level of education, the most educated respondent had a postgraduate certificates; and majority of respondents were university graduates; and the number of year that one had been in active politics, 3 to 21 years.

The presentation of the study findings is based on the objectives and the hypothesis of the study. The first objective was to explore the distribution of BFI personality traits among women who contested for national assembly during 2007 general elections in Kenya. It was found that personality traits among the participants were distributed within four (4) out of the five (5) BFI personality traits. The distribution was as follows; agreeableness 33.33%, conscientiousness 35.71%, openness to experience 9.52% and extraversion 21.43%; and that there were no contestant with predominant neuroticism trait. The second objective was

to find out the distribution of political efficacy judgements among female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections. The study found that the contestants were spread in all three elements of political efficacy as follows; internal efficacy 54.76%, external efficacy 42.86% and cynicism 2.38%.

The third objective was to establish the association between personality traits and electoral outcomes. A Chi-Square test for association between BFI personality traits and electoral outcomes was performed and found no significant association between personality traits and electoral outcomes $\chi^2 (2, n = 42) = 1.367, p = .242$.

The fourth objective was to find out the relationship between political efficacy judgements between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestant during the 2007 general elections. A Chi-Square test for association between political efficacy judgements and electoral outcomes was performed and findings were as follows; that there was a significant association between external efficacy and electoral outcomes $\chi^2 (2, n = 42) = 8.04, p = .005$, and found no association between and between cynicism and electoral outcomes $\chi^2 (2, n = 42) = 4.568, p = .133$ and between internal efficacy and electoral outcomes ($\chi^2 (2, n = 42) = 2.60, p = .107$).

The fifth objective was to establish whether there were differences in personality traits between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was calculated to evaluate the differences in BFI personality traits mean scores between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants. The results of the ANOVA test indicated the following: Firstly, that

there was no significant difference in extraversion trait mean scores between successful ($M = 4.18$, $SD = 1.00$) and non-successful ($M = 0.519$, $SD = .519$) female parliamentary contestants ($F(1, 40) = .984$, $p = .327$). Secondly, that there was no significant mean score differences in neuroticism trait between successful ($M = 2.00$, $SD = .54$) and non-successful ($M = 1.99$, $SD = .533$) female parliamentary contestants ($F(1, 40) = .005$, $p = .946$). Thirdly, there was no significant mean score difference in openness to experience trait between successful ($M = 3.89$, $SD = .563$) and non-successful ($M = 3.72$, $SD = .734$) female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections ($F(1, 40) = .717$, $p = .402$). Fourthly, there was evidence for a significant mean difference in conscientiousness trait mean scores between successful ($M = 4.43$, $SD = .319$) and non-successful ($M = 4.05$, $SD = .540$) female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections ($F(1, 40) = 7.232$, $p = .010$). Lastly, it established a significant difference in agreeableness trait mean scores between successful ($M = 4.03$, $SD = .266$) and non-successful ($M = 4.38$, $SD = .446$) female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections ($F(1, 40) = 9.615$, $p = .004$).

The last objective was to determine whether there were differences in political efficacy judgment between successful and non-successful female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections. A one-way ANOVA test was used to evaluate the differences in political efficacy mean scores between successful and non-successful contestants. First, the study found a significant difference in internal efficacy mean scores between successful ($M = 3.956$, $SD = 1.5247$) and non-successful ($M = 4.476$, $SD = .5063$) female parliamentary contestants ($F(1, 40) = 10.699$, $p = .002$). Secondly, it also found a significant difference in external efficacy mean scores between successful ($M = 3.064$, SD

=.6037) and non-successful ($M = 2.603$, $SD = .7468$) female contestants ($F(1, 40) = 4.820$, $p = .034$). Lastly, it did not find evidence for a significant difference in cynicism mean scores between successful ($M = 4.437$, $SD = .730$) and non-successful ($M = 4.141$, $SD = .7120$) female parliamentary contestants during the 2007 general elections ($F(1, 40) = .919$, $p = .191$).

5.3 Conclusions

This study set out to explore the role of personality traits and political efficacy judgements on electoral outcomes among selected female parliamentary contestants in Kenya. This study found that its participants were spread within four (4) out of the five (5) traits of the big five inventory model; with the exception of neuroticism trait. They were also within the three subtypes of political efficacy judgements. This study analysed the difference in personality traits between successful and non-successful participants and did not find evidence for significant mean score differences between successful and non-successful contestants in neuroticism, extraversion and openness to experience trait; however, it established evidence for mean score differences in conscientiousness and agreeableness traits. The findings on the distribution of the personality traits among female parliamentary contestants and the differences personality trait between those who were successful and the non-successful contestants indicates that personality traits are key determinants of political participation among female contestants in Kenya. On political efficacy judgments, participants were spread within the three political efficacy judgements; 4.76% internal efficacy, 42.86% cynicism and 2.38% external efficacy. It was found that internal efficacy negatively associated with electoral success, external efficacy associated positively with electoral success and cynicism did not have any association with electoral outcomes. Therefore, it was

evident that personality traits and political efficacy judgements play an important role in determining political participation and electoral outcomes and that their role in the electoral process complement each other.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings, several suggestions have been made for consideration by female politicians, political party leaders, the civil societies and the government. The study found an association between agreeableness and conscientiousness traits and electoral outcomes; it is evident that personality traits affect both political behaviour and their outcomes.

- i. First, the results underscore the need for integrating models of personality traits into models of political behaviour and human decision making process. For example, women who wish to contest for political offices should consider their personality traits and how it facilitates or hinders the realization of that political ambition.
- ii. Personality trait psychologists suggest that people perform tasks well when their personality trait matches the trait requirement of a particular job or task. Therefore, women who wish to join politics should consider among other things taking a personality assessment test to know their personality trait, how it manifest in relation to specific task performance and how it relates to the electorate.
- iii. This study has noted that there is a need for political parties, contestants for political positions, civil society organizations and the media to engage the services of political psychologists as a

critical step in political decision making process; yet the country does not have professional who have extensively explored this field of study. Therefore, it is critical for our universities to develop programs on the area of political psychology as a major or a minor.

- iv. Studies have demonstrated that personality traits and efficacy judgements are shaped by both biological (nature) and environmental (nurture) factors. This study recommends to potential contestants to nurture behavioural qualities that are associated with personality traits and political efficacy judgements which perform better in relationship with the electorate so as to advance their political career goals. This can be achieved through mentorship, coaching and working with a psychologist.
- v. This study noted clear differences in personality traits mean scores between successful and non-successful participants but did not yield clear association between personality trait scores and electoral outcomes. The outcome shows that personality traits may be an important contributor to electoral outcomes but are not the only determinants. Therefore, while a contestant must pay attention to personality trait and personal presentation, they should be alive to the importance of the other cardinal predictors of political participation and electoral outcomes.
- vi. It was noted that most successful contestants had a significantly higher external efficacy mean score. One of the major differences between internal efficacy and external efficacy is the belief in the

power of a team within the latter group. Therefore, women who wish to contest successfully should seek to be part of strong team (dominant political party of coalition) which appears as able to deliver their campaign manifesto.

- vii. Further to the above, there is need for civil society organization to facilitate civic education that empowers the electorate to vote or focus on the individual candidates as opposed to party candidates. The focus on the candidate rather than the political party would help in striking a balance between leaders personal qualities and abilities and the strength political party.
- viii. Secondly, individual candidates, interest and lobby groups, and political parties can also assess the personality traits disposition and perceived political efficacy of the candidates to determine the suitability as well as estimate the possibility of success. Thus, women who wish to join politics should go for personality trait assessment and career counselling so as to ascertain their fitness in the political field.
- ix. There is need to incorporate a component of personality trait and efficacy judgements assessment in political and career mentorship programs. This assessment would facilitate added understanding of the mentee, be able to relevantly train her and enhance her chances of electoral success.
- x. Through personality trait assessment, female politician can identify personal skills and capacity gaps and train in relevantly to make up

in the deficient areas. This study concurs with past studies that there is a correlation between the BFI personality traits and certain political behaviours and attitudes. For example, Gerber, Huber, Doherty, Dowling, and Ha (2010) established an association between Conscientiousness trait and political conservatism as well as a high possibility of voting; and another association between extraversion and neuroticism (emotional stability) with holding conservative economic policies and attitudes. Such correlations infer the possibility that political participation may attract individuals with certain distinct attitudes, creating a politically engaged citizenry whose views are not representative of the broader public.

- xi. In response to the findings, the ministry of education can develop a policy that articulates a research based, career counselling and mentorship program, which starts early as early as during secondary level of education with the purpose of guiding students towards career which are suitable to their personality and efficacy judgements. It was found that high external efficacy correlates with higher political involvement; thus, stakeholders in democracy who wish to see high voter turnout and increase success amongst female contestants for the legislative assembly should cultivate this virtue amongst the electorate as well as amongst the contestants.
- xii. There is need to offer civic education to potential female politicians to motivate participation of candidates who believe in the

responsiveness of political system to provide responsive leaders to citizenry. On the other hand, the electorates can be trained to use more prospective evaluative rationale when electing their leaders.

- xiii. There is evidence that sports teams that engage the services of a sports psychologist benefit from such an input; this study proposes the need for political parties and individual female politician to engage the services of political psychologists or mentors who through their professional input can help them to enhance their political performance and chances of success.
- xiv. The study used the big five inventory and political efficacy scale and found areas of agreement with past studies that used the same tools. Therefore, it confirms the validity and relevance within the Kenyan context and recommends their use within Kenyan populations.

5.5 Recommendations for Further Study

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations have been done;

- i. It is noted that this study was done when Kenya was guided by the immediate past Constitution that demarcated the republic into 210 constituencies, and did not provide for the 47 counties and county women representatives. It is therefore necessary to conduct a new study based on the new constitution and informed by the new constitutional realities.

- ii. It is noted that this study was done using the BFI model, current studies are utilizing the HEXACO model, which proposes that human personality can be described using six trait dimensions, it is also advisable that future studies be carried out using the HEXACO model to cross check the outcomes.
- iii. This study discovered that there was significant personality traits mean score difference between successful and non-successful contestants while a similar association between traits and electoral outcomes were not found. This shows that there are other significant factors besides personality trait that determine electoral outcomes for women in Kenyan politics. Therefore, another study can be carried out which seeks to establish other factors that determine of electoral outcomes when women contest for legislative assembly.
- iv. This study was done at a national level and among women who contested for the legislative assembly. A similar study can be carried out to assess the effect of personality traits and political efficacy judgements at regional or sector/institution based political organizations such as student unions or workers unions.

REFERENCES

- Abele, A. E., & Spurk, D. (2008). The Longitudinal impact of self-efficacy and career goals on objective and subjective career success. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour* (www.elsevier.com/locate/jvb), 53 – 62
- Acock, A., Clarke, H. D., & Stewart, M. C. (1985). A new model for old measures: A covariance structure analysis of Political Efficacy. *The Journal Politics*. Vol. 47, Issue 4, 1062 - 1084.
- Adorno, T., Frenkel-Brunswich, E., Levinson, D., & Sanford, R. (1950). *The Authoritarian Personality*. New York: Harper.
- Alford, R., & Hibbing, R., (2007). Personal, interpersonal and political temperament: *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. Vol. 614, pp. 196 – 212.
- Almond, G., & Verba, S. (1963). *The Civic Culture*. Princeton: Princeton University press.
- Andela, C., Daunt Escadon, O., Konah Galo, K. & Kamugi, P. C. (Nov 2007 - Oct 2008). *Women in African Leadership Development Program Combined Research Report: Kenya, Liberia & Cote-Devoir*. Nairobi: Africa Leadership Development.
- Anderson, M. R. (2010). Community psychology, political efficacy, and trust. *Political Psychology*. Vo. 31 (1), 59 - 84.
- Appelbaum, S. H., & Hare, A. (1996). Self-Efficacy as a Mediator of Goal Setting and Performance: Some Human Resource Applications. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. Vol. 11, No.3, 33 – 57
- Association of Media Women in Kenya [AMWIK]. (March 2015). *86 and Counting: Women Leaders in 11th Parliament*. Nairobi: Heinrich Boll Stiftung.

- Baker, J. (2002). *The Westbourne Dictionary of Marketing*. NJ: Westbourne Publishers
- Bakker, A. B., Van Der Zee, K. I., Lewig, K. A., & Dollard, M. F. (2002). The relationship between the big five personality factors and burnout: A study among volunteer counsellors. *The Journal of Social psychology, Vol. 135* (5), pp. 4 – 20.
- Balch, G. I. (1974). Multiple Indicators In survey: The concept 'sense of Political Efficacy'. *Political Methodology. Vol. 1 No. 2*, pp. 1- 43.
- Ballington, J. (2005). Introduction. In J. Ballington & A. Karram, *Women in Parliament; Beyond Numbers*. Stockholm, Sweden: International IDEA
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Towards a Unifying Theory of Behaviour Change. *Psychological Review. Vol. 84, No. 2*, 191 - 215.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social Learning Theory*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1978). The Self-System in Reciprocal Determination. In Moore, G. B. (Ed). *American Psychologist. Vol. 33*, pp. 344 – 358; New Jersey: Prentice Hall
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A Social Cognitive Theory*. Eaglewood Cliff, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1991). Social Cognitive Theory of Self-Regulation. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes. Vol. 50*, 248-287.
- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived Self-Efficacy in cognitive Development and Functioning. *Educational Psychologist, Vol. 28* (2), 117 - 148.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran, *Encyclopaedia of Human Behaviour. Vol. 4* (pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press.

- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control*. New York: W. H Freeman.
- Barasa, S. (2005, Dec 10). *Kenyan Women in Politics*. Retrieved July 28, 2010, from G21 Africa: <http://www.g21.net/africa.101.html>
- Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., Vechione, M., & Fraley, C. R. (2007). Voter's personality traits in presidential elections. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *42*, 1199 - 1208.
- Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G., & Maslach, C. (1997). Individuation and the Five Factor Model of Personality Traits. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, *Vol. 13*, 75 – 84.
- Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Judge, T. A. (2001). Personality and job performance at the beginning of the new millennium: What do we know and where do we go next? *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, *Vol. 9*, 9-30.
- Bem, J. (1967). Self-perception: an alternative interpretation of cognitive dissonance phenomena. *Psychological Review*. *Vol. 74*, *No. 3*, pp. 183 - 200.
- Benson, L. Karabenck, S. & Lerner, M. (1976). Pretty pleases: the effect of physical attractiveness, race and sex on receiving help. *Journal of Experiential Social Psychology*. *Vol. 12*, *No. 5*, pp. 409 415.
- Blaise, A., & Labbe-St-Vincent, S. (2011). Personality traits, political attitudes and the propensity to vote. *European Journal of Political Research*. *Vol. 50* (3), 395 - 417.
- Blickle, G., Meurs, J. A., Zettler, I., Solga, J., Noethen, D., Kramer, J., et al. (2008). Personality, political skill, and job performance. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *72*, 377-387.

- Boeree, G. (2006). Albert bandura. Retrieved on February 21, 2010, from Personality Theories: <http://www.ship.edu/%ecgboeree/persocontents.html>
- Bong, M. (2002). Predictive utility of subject -, task -, and problem specific self-efficacy judgments for immediate and delayed academic performances. *The Journal of Experiential Education*. Vol. 70, No. 2, 132 - 162.
- Boyle, G. J. (2008). Critique of the five factor model of personality. *Humanities and Social Science Papers*, 1 - 39.
- Bozionelos, N. (2004). The Big Five of Personality and Work Involvement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. Vol. 19, pp. 69 – 81.
- Buchanan, L. B. (1998). *The impact of the big five personality characteristics on group cohesion and creative task performance*. Blacksburg, Virginia: Dissertation presented to faculty of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.
- Bussay, K. & Bandura A. (1999). Social Cognitive Theory of Gender Development and Differentiation. *Psychological Review*. Vol. 106, 676 - 715.
- Buvinic, M., Morrison, A. R., Ofosu-Amaah, W. A., & Sjoblom, M. (2008). *Equality for Women: Where Do We Stand on Millennium Development Goal 3?* Washington: World Bank.
- Campbell, A., Gorin, G., & Miller, W. E. (1954). *The Voter Decides*. Everton: Harper.
- Caprara, G. V., & Zimbardo, P. G. (Oct. 2004). Personalizing Politics: A Congruency Model of Political Preference. *American Psychologist*, 581 - 594.
- Caprara, G. V., Barbarnelli, C., Consiglio, C., Picconi, L., & Zimbardo, P. G. (2003). Personalities of politicians and voters: unique and synergistic

relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 84, No. 4, 849-856.

Caprara, G. V., Schwartz, S., Capanna, C., Vecchione, M., & Barbaranelli, C. (Feb., 2006). Personality and Politics: Values, Traits, and Political Choice. *Political Psychology*, Vol. 27, No. 1, 1-28.

Caprara, G. V., Vecchione, M., Capanna, C., & Mebane, M. (2009). Perceived political self-efficacy: Theory, assessment, and applications. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 39, 1002-1020.

Caprara, G., & Zimbardo, P. G. (October, 2004). Personalizing Politics: A Congruency Model of Political Preference. *American Psychologist*, 581 - 594.

Caprara, G., Barbaranelli, C., Bermudez, J., Maslach, C., & Ruch, W. (2000). Multivariate Methods for the Comparison of Factor Structures in Cross-Cultural Research: An Illustration with the Big Five Questionnaire. *Journal of Cross - Cultural Psychology*. Vol. 31, 437– 464.

Caprara, G., Schwartz, S., Capanna, C., Vecchione, M., & Barbaranelli, C. (Feb., 2006). Personality and Politics: Values, Traits, and Political Choice. *Political Psychology*, Vol. 27, No. 1, 1 – 28.

Caprara, G., Vecchione, M., Capanna, C., & Mebane, M. (2009). Perceived political self-efficacy: Theory, assessment, and applications. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 39, 1002 – 1020.

Carney, D. R., Jost, J. T., Gosling, S. D., & Potter, J. (2008). The secret lives of liberals and conservatives: Person profiles, intervention styles, and the things they leave behind. *Political psychology*. Vol. 29. No.6, 807 - 840.

Cattell, R. (1943). The description of personality: basic traits resolved into clusters. *Journal of abnormal and social psychology*. Vol. 38, 476-506.

- Chan, M. C., & Guo, J. (2013). *The impact of political identity, efficacy and selective media exposure on political participation: A comparative study of young adults in the United States and Hong Kong*. Hong Kong: Centre for Chinese Media and Comparative Communication Research.
- Chirumbo, A., & Leone, L. (2010). Personality and politics: The role of the HEXACO model of personality in predicting ideology and voting. *Personality and Individual Differences*. Vol. 49, 43-48.
- Clapham, C. (1993). Democratization in Africa: Obstacles and Prospects, *Third World Quarterly*, Vol. 14: 423-438.
- Cohen, P., Cohen, J., Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1999). The problem of units and the circumstances for POMP. *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, Vol. 34, 315 – 346.
- Craig, S. C. (1979). Efficacy, trust, and political behaviour: An attempt to resolve a lingering conceptual dilemma. *American Politics Quarterly*, Vol. 7, 225 - 239.
- Crano, W. & Prislin, R. (2006). Attitudes and Persuasion. *Psychology Annual Review*. Vol. 57, 345 - 376.
- De Vreese, C. H. (2008). Political Cynicism. In D. Wolfgang, *The International Encyclopaedia of Communication*. Blackwel Publishing.
- De Winter, J. C., & Dodou, D. (Oct. 2010). Five-Point Likert Items: T Test versus Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon. Practical Assessment, Research and Evaluation. Vol. 15, No 11, 1 - 16.
- Digman, J., & Inouye, J. (1986). Further specification of the five robust factors of personality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. Vol. 50, 116-123.

- Dillard, P. & Pfau, M. (2001). Introduction. In J. P. Dillard, *The Persuasion Handbook, Developments in Theory and Practice* (pp. ix - xx). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.
- DiRenzo, G. J. (1967). Professional politicians and personality structures. *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 73, No. 2, 217 - 225.
- Dorn, L., & Mathews, G. (1992). Two further studies and personality correlates of driver stress. *Personality and Individual difference*. 13, 949 - 951.
- Dyck, J. J., & Lascher, E. L. (20 December 2008). Direct Democracy and Political Efficacy Reconsidered. *Journal of Political Behaviour*, DOI 10.1007/s1110-008-9081.
- Elms, A. C. (1976). *Personality in Politics*. San Diego: Harcourt Brace Jovanovill Publishers.
- Engender Organization UK (2001). Women and Leadership Research Report. Albany St, Edinburg: Engender Organization
- Engler, B. (1995). *Personality theories: an introduction* (Fourth Edition). Princeton, New Jersey: Houghton Mifflin.
- Eysenck, M. (2004). *Psychology: An International Perspective*. Mortimer St, London: Taylor & Francis.
- Finkel, S. E. (1985). "Reciprocal Effects of Participation and Political Efficacy: A Panel Analysis". *American Journal of political Science*. Vol.9, No.4, 891-913.
- Finkel, S. E. (1987). The Effect of Participation on Political Efficacy and Political Support: Evidence from West Germany. *Southern Political Science Journal*, 441- 464.
- Fowler, H. J. (2006). Altruism and turnout. *Journal of Politics*, 68, 674-683.

- Fridkin, K. L., & Kenney, P. J. (2011). The role of candidate traits in campaigns. *The Journal of Politics*. Vol. 73, No. 1, 61-73.
- Friedrich Elbert Stiftung (FES). (2010). *Institutionalizing Political Parties in Kenya*. Nairobi: Friedrich Elbert Stiftung (FES).
- Fu, H., Mou, Y., Miller, M. J., & Jalette, G. (2011). Reconsidering political cynicism and political involvement: A test of antecedents. *American Communication Journal*. Vol. 13, Issue 2, 44 - 61.
- Gallego, A., & Oberski, D. (2011, May 10). Personality and political participation: The mediation hypothesis. *Political Behaviour* DOI 10.1007/S 1109-011-9768-7, 1 - 26.
- Gallego, A., & Oberski, D. (2012). Personality and Political Participation: The Mediation Process. *Journal of Political Behaviour*. Vol. 34, 425 - 451.
- Gerber, A. S., Huber, G. A., Doherty, D., Dowling, C. M., & Ha, S. E. (2010). Personality and political attitudes: Relationship across Issue domain and political contexts. *American Political Science Review*. 104 (1), 111 - 133.
- Gerber, A. S., Huber, G. A., Doherty, D., Dowling, C. M., & Panagopoulos, C. (2013). Big Five Personality Traits and Responses to Persuasive Appeals: Results from Voter Turnout Experiments. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 1 - 51.
- Gerber, A. S., Hurber, G. A., Doherty, D., Dowling, C. M., Raso, C., & Ha, S. E. (July 2011). Personality traits and participation in political process. *The Journal of Politics*. Vol. 73, No.3, 692-706.
- Gist, M. E. (1987). Self-efficacy: implications for organizational behaviour and human resource management. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 12 No. 3, 472-485.

- Gist, M. E., & Mitchell, T. R. (1992). Self-efficacy, a theoretical analysis of its determinants and malleability. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 17 No. 2, 183-211.
- Goddard, R. D., Hoy, W. K., & Hoy, A. w. (2004). Collective efficacy beliefs: theoretical development, empirical evidence and future directions. *Educational Researcher*. Vol. 33, No. 3, 3 - 13.
- Goetz, A. M. (Dec. 2002). No Shortcuts to Power: Constraints on Women's Political Effectiveness in Uganda. *The Journal of Modern African Studies*. Vol. 40, No. 4, 549 - 575.
- Goldberg, L. (1990). An alternative "description of personality": The Big Five Factor Structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. Vol. 59, 1216-1229.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1993). The structure of phenotypic personality traits. Vol. 48, (1) *American Psychologist*, 26 - 34.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1990). An alternative "discription of personality": The Big Five Factor Structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. Vol. 59. No. 6, 1216-1229.
- Gosling, S. D., Rentfrow, P. J., & Swann, W. B. (2003). A very brief measure of the Big-Five personality domains. *Journal of Research in Personality*, Vol. 37, 504 - 528.
- Gurven, M., Kaplan, H., Rueden, C., & Massenkoff, M. (2013). How universal is the Big Five! Testing the Five - Factor Model of Personality Variation among Forager - Farmers in the Bolivian Amazon. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. Vol. 104, No. 2, 354 - 370.
- Ha, S. E., Kim, S., & Jo, S. H. (2013). Personality Traits and Political Participation: Evidence from South Korea. *Political Psychology*, Vol. 43, No. 4, 511-531.

- Harel, O. (2010). *Resources, Political Efficacy and Political Performance: Political Participating on Facebook*. Jerusalem.
- Hayes, D. (2010). Trait Voting in U.S. Senate Elections. *American Politics Research* 38 (6), 1102-1129.
- Hjelle, L. A., & Zeigler, D. J. (1992). *Personality Theories: Basic Assumptions, Research, and Application*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hu, X. (2011, April 2 2011). *The effects of political participation on political on Political Efficacy: Analysis of China's 2005 survey on self-governance at village level*. Chicago: Unpublished MA Thesis; presented to the Department of Politics and Government, Illinois State University.
- Hurtford, P. (2014). *Participation and optimism in the political context: How optimism both helps and hinders political participation*. Greenville; Ohio: Department of Political Science; Denison University.
- Hutchens, M. J. (2010). *I Think I Can: The interaction Between Self Efficacy and Anxiety predicting Who We Talk To*. NC: Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation presented Graduate school Ohio State University.
- Idnurm, T., & Toots, A. (2013). Political Activism of low achievement and high achievement students in 10 European countries. *5th IAEA International Research Conference* (pp. 1 -10). Singapore: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement.
- Ige, T. (1997). Women, law and human rights. *African Leadership Forum* (pp. 91-98). Accra, Ghana: ALF Publishers.
- Imoite, J. (2007). Youth Participation in Kenyan Politics: Challenges and Opportunities. *Youth and Politics in Conflict Contexts*, pp. 22 - 27.
- Inter- Parliamentary Union. (2010, 9 30). *Women in Parliament*. Retrieved 1 8, 2011, from World Averages: <http://www.IPU.org/org/english/whatipu>

- James, R. K., & Gilliland, B. E. (2002). *Trait Factor Counselling / Person x Environment Fit. Theories and Strategies in Counselling and Psychotherapy (Fifth Edition)*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Janowitz, M., & Marvick, D. (1956). *Competitive pressures and democratic consent*. Chicago: Quadrangle.
- John, O. P., & Srivastava, Sanjay. (1999). "The Big Five Trait Taxonomy: History, Measurement, and Theoretical Perspectives". In A. P. John, *In Handbook of Personality: Theory and Research* (pp. 102 – 138). New York: Guilford Press.
- John, O. P., Donahue, E. M., & Kentle, R. L. (1991). *The Big Five Inventory -- Versions 4a and 5a*. Berkeley, CA: University of California, Berkeley, Institute of Personality and Social Research.
- John, O. P., Naumann, L. P., & Soto, C. J. (2008). Paradigm shift to the integrative Big Five trait taxonomy: History, measurement and conceptual issues. In *Handbook of Personality: Theory and Research* (pp. 114 - 158). New York: Guilford Press.
- John, O. P., & Srivastava, Sanjay. (1999). "The Big Five Trait Taxonomy: History, Measurement, and Theoretical Perspectives." In A. P. John, *In Handbook of Personality: Theory and Research* (pp. 102 – 138). New York: Guilford Press.
- John, O. P., Donahue, E. M., & Kentle, R. L. (1991). *The Big Five Inventory -- Versions 4a and 5a*. Berkeley, CA: University of California, Berkeley, Institute of Personality and Social Research.
- Jost, J. T. (Oct. 2006). The end of End of ideology. *American Psychologist*. Vol. 61, No. 1, 651 - 670.
- Judge, T. A., Higgins, C. A., Thoresen, C. J., & Barrick, M. R. (1999). The Big Five Personality Traits, General Mental Ability and Career Success across Life Span. *Personnel Psychology*. Vol. 52, No. 3, 621-652.

- Kahne, J., & Westheimer, J. (April 2006). The limits of political Efficacy: Educating Citizens for a Democratic Society. *Political Science and Politics*, 289 - 296.
- Kar, S. (April 2013). Hans Eysenck - Contributions and controversies. *Delhi Psychiatry Journal, Vol. 16 No. 1*, 53-56.
- Karp, J., & Banducci, S. A. (2007). Political efficacy and participation in twenty seven democracies. How electoral systems shape political behaviour. *British Journal of Political Science, Vol. 37*.
- Kellow, T. (2010). *Women, elections and violence in West Africa: assessing women's political participation in Liberia and Sierra Leone*. London: International Alert.
- Kivoi, D. L. (2014). Factors Impending Political Participation and Representation of Women in Kenya. *Humanities and Social Sciences. Vol. 2, No. 6*, pp. 173 - 181.
- Klein, K. L., & Weiner, Y. (1977). Interest congruence as a moderator of the relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction and mental health. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 10*, 91-98.
- Klinker, P., & Mariani, M. (February 2007). The effects of a campaign internship on Political Efficacy, trust and responsiveness. *APSA Teaching and Learning Conference*. Charlotte North Carolina.
- Koppensteiner, M., & Stephen, P. (2014). Voting for ap personality: Do first impressions and self evaluations affect voting decisions? *Juornal of Research in Personality. Vol 51, 62 - 68* .
- Kotish, J. P., & Traugott, M. W. (1981). The Consequences of Validated and Self - Reported Voting Measures. *Public Opinion Quarterly*. pp. 519-539.
- Lee, F. K., Johnston, J. A., & Dougherty, T. W. (Fall 2000). Using the Five-Factor Model of Personlaity to Enhance Career Development and Organizational

Functioning in the Workplace. *Journal of Career Assessment*. Vol. 8, No. 4, 419 - 427.

Leone, L., Chirumbolo, A., & Desimoni, M., (2012). The impact of the HEXACO personality model in predicting socio-political attitudes: the moderating role of interest in politics. *Personality and Individual Differences*. Vol. 52, 416 - 421.

Lindberg, S. I., & Morrison, M. K., (2008). Are African Voters Really Ethnic or Clientelistic? Survey Evidence from Ghana, *Political Science Quarterly*, Vol. 123, No. 1: 95-122.

Luszczynska, A., & Gutierrez-Dona, B. (2005). General self-efficacy in various domains of human functioning: Evidence from five countries. *International Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 40 (2), 80 - 89.

Luthans, F. (1989). *Organizational Behaviour*. NY: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Luthans, F., & Ibrayeva, E. S. (2006). Entrepreneurial Self Efficacy in Central Asia Transition Economies: Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis. *Journal of International Business*. Vol. 37, No. 1, 92 - 112.

Maddux, J. E. (2000). Self- Efficacy: The Power Of Believing You Can. In C. R. Snyder, & S. J. Lopez, *Handbook of Positive Psychology* (pp. 198 - 230). NY: Oxford University Press.

Martine, G. M. (1997). The electoral process and women parliamentarian: identifying the obstacles - The Congolese experience. *African Leadership Forum* (pp. 85-90). Accra, Ghana: ALF Publishers.

Mattila, M., Wass, H., Sonderlund, P., Fredriksson, S., Fadjukoff, P., & Kokko, K. (2011). Personality and turnout: Results from the finish longitudinal studies. *Scandinavian Political Studies*. Vol. 34, No. 4, 288 - 306.

McClusky, M. R., Deshpande, S., Shah, D. V., & McLeod, D. M. (2004). The efficacy gap and political participation: when political influence fails to

meet expectations. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*. Vol. 16, No.4, 437 - 455.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (2008). The Five Factor Theory of Personality. In O. P. John, R. W. Robins, & L. A. Pervin, *Handbook of Personality: Theory and Research (3rd Ed.)* (pp. 159-181). New York: Guilford.

McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1990). *An introduction to the five-factor Model and its applications*. Baltimore: np.

McCrae, R., & Costa, P. (1985). Updating Norman's adequate taxonomy: intelligence and personality dimensions in natural language and questionnaires. *Journal of personality and social psychology*. Vol. 49, 710-721.

McCrae, R. C., & Costa, P. T. (1996). Toward a new generation of personality theories: theoretical contexts for the five factor model of personality. In J. S. Wiggins, *Five Factor Model of Personality: Theoretical Perspectives* (pp. 51-87). New York: The Guilford Press.

Michelson, M. R. (March 2000). Political Efficacy and Electoral Participation of Chicago Latinos. *Social Science Quarterly (81) No. 1*, 136 -148.

Mondak, J. J. (2010). *Personality and the Foundations of Political Behaviour*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Mondak, J. J., & Halperin, K. D. (2008). A Framework for the Study of Personality and Political Behaviour. *British Journal of Political Science*. Vol. 38, 335-362.

Mondak, J. J., Damarys, C., Seligson, M. A., & Hibbing, M. V. (2011). The Participatory Personality: Evidence from Latin America. *British Journal of Political Science* 41 (1), 211 – 221.

Mondak, J. J., Hibbing, M. V., Damarys, C., Seligson, M. A., & Anderson, M. R. (2010). Personality and Civic Engagement: An Integrative Framework for

the Study of Trait Effects on Political Behaviour. *American Political Science Review*. Vol. 104, 85 - 110.

Monte, C. (2001). *Beneath the Mask: An introduction to theories of personality* (5th Edition). Fort Worth, Philadelphia: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Mugambi, H., & Ochola, A. P. (October 2015). Community Radio and Empowerment of Women among Pastrolists in Northern Kenya. *Online Journal of Communication and Media Technologies*. Vol. 5, Issue 4, 29 - 63.

Mugenda, A. G. (2008). *Social Science Research: Theory and Practice*. Nairobi: Applied Research and Training Services.

Mugenda, O. & Mugenda, A. (2003). *Research Methods: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Nairobi: African Centre for Technological Studies.

Mummendey, A., Kessler, T., Klink, A., & Mielke, R. (1999). Strategies to cope with negative social identity: Prediction by social identity theory and relative deprivation . *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. Vol. 76, 229 - 245.

Niemi, R. G., Craig, S. C., & Mattei, F. (1991). Measuring Internal Political Efficacy in the 1988 National Election Study. *American Political Science Review* (85), 1407-1413.

Oliver, J. P., & Sanjay, S. (1999). The Big Five Trait Taxonomy: History, Measurement, and Theoretical Perspectives. In A. P. John, *Handbook of Personality: Theory and Research* (pp. 102 - 138). New York: Guilford Press.

Olson, K. R. (2005). Engagement and self control: superordinate dimensions of the Big five triats. *Perosnlaity and Individual Differences*, Vol. 38, 1689 - 1700.

- Opdycke, K., Segwa, P., & Vasquez, A. M. (Vol. 9, Fall 2013, pp. 75-97). The effects of political cynicism, political information efficacy and media consumption on intended voter participation. Vol. 9, *Colloquy*, 75-97.
- Palmieri, S. & Jabre, K. (2005). Promoting Partnership Between Men And Women: The Experience of the Inter- Parliamentary Union. In J. Ballington and A. Karram, *Women In Parliament: Beyond Numbers* (pp. 214 - 229). Stockholm, Sweden: International IDEA.
- Panjeras, A. (2002). Overview of Social Cognition Theory and Self-Efficacy. Retrieved on 21/ 2/ 2010, from: <http://www.emory.edu/EDUCATION/mfp/eff.html>
- Parker, C. S. (January 2009). When Politics Becomes Protest: Black Veterans and Political Activism in the Post-war South. *The Journal of Politics*, Vol. 17, No. 1, 113 -131.
- Patterson, R. (1988). Webster English Dictionary. Miami, FL: PSI & Associates.
- Pinkleton, B. E., & Austin, E. W. (2004). Media perceptions and public affairs apathy in the politically inexperienced. *Mass Communication and Society*. Vol. 7(3), 319 - 337.
- Punch, K. F. (2005). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. New Dheli: Sage.
- Riggie, E. D., Ottati, V. C., Wyer, R. S., Kuklinsi, J., & Schulz, N. (1992). Political judgment: the role of stereotypic and non-stereotypic information. *Political Behaviour*. Vol. 14. No. 1, 67-87.
- Robson, C. (2003). *Real World Research*. 2nd Edition. Victoria, Australia: Blackwell
- Russo, S., & Amnä, E. (2014). *Do personality traits predict civic engagement and political participation? Understanding offline and online engagement and participation*. Torino: University of Torino.

- Sabbagh, A. (2005). The Arab States: Enhancing Women's Political Participation. In J. Ballington, & A. Karam, *Women in Parliament; Beyond Numbers* (pp. 52 -71). Stockholm: International IDEA.
- Saleh, J., Kahhal, T. E., & Seif, C. A. (2012). *Personality traits and political participation*. Cairo: np.
- Sarcho, J. W. (1997). Women and political participation in Africa: The limitations of the immediate environment. *Africa leadership Forum* (pp. 65-72). Accra, Ghana: ALF Publishers.
- Schien, H., & Schumann, S. (2007). Personality Traits, Partisan Attitudes and Voting Behaviour Evidence From Germany. *Political Psychology*. 28. 4, 471-498.
- Schlozman, K. L., Verba, S., & Brady, H. (1995). *Voice and Equality: Civic Volunteerism In American Politics*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Schulz, W. (2005). *Political Efficacy and expected political participation among lower and upper secondary students: A comparative analysis with data from the IEA Civic Education Study*. Budapest: Australian Council for Educational Research.
- Schumann, S., & Schoen, H. (2007). Personality traits, partisan attitudes, and voting behaviour evidence from Germany. *Political psychology*. 28. 4, 471-498.
- Sharoni, S. (2012 July). E-citizenship: Trust in Government, Political Efficacy, and Political Participation in the Internet Era. *Electronic Media & Politics*. 1 (8), 119 - 135.
- Shingles, R. (87). *New Measures of political efficacy and political trust*. Blacksburg, Virginia: Intervarsity Consortium of Political Sciences.

- Shvedova, N. (2005). Obstacles to Women's Participation in Parliament. In J. B. Karam, *Women in Parliament; Beyond Numbers* (pp. 33 - 50). Stockholm, Sweden: International IDEA.
- Sigal, H., & Ostrove, N. (1975). Beautiful but dangerous: effects of offender attractiveness and nature of crime in juridical judgements. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. Vol. 31, No. 3, pp. 410 - 414.
- Sohl, S. (2014). *Youths Political Efficacy: Sources, Effects and Potentials for political equality*. Orebro, Sweden: Orebro University.
- Stajkovic, A. D., & Luthans, F. (1998). Self-efficacy and work related performance: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*. Vol. 124. No. 2, 240-261.
- Steinberg, B. S. (October 2005). Indira Gandhi: The relationship between personality profile and leadership style. *Political psychology*, Vol. 26, (5), 753 – 789.
- Steinbrecher, M., & Schoen, H. (2010). *Personality and voter turnout in Germany: Evidence from the 2009 federal election*. University of Mannheim: Typescript.
- Sullivan, J. L., & Riedel, E. (2001). Efficacy: Political. *International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences*., 4353 - 4356.
- Swannsbrough, R. H. (Jun, 1994). A Kohutian Analysis of President Bush's Personality and Style in the Persian Gulf Crisis. *Political Psychology*, Vol. 15, No.2, 227 - 276.
- The International Republican Institute (2007). *Kenya Presidential, Parliamentary and Local Elections December 27, 2007*. Washington, DC: The International Republican Institute.

- Valentino, N. A., Gregorowicz, K., & Groenendyk, E. W. (2009). Efficacy, emotions and the habit of participation. *Journal of Political Behaviour, Vol. 10*, 307 - 330.
- Vecchione, M., & Caprara, G. V. (2009). Personality determinants of political participation: The contribution of traits and self-efficacy beliefs. *Personality and Individual Differences, Vol. 46*, 487 - 492.
- Verduyn, P., & Brans, K. (2012). The relationship between extraversion, neuroticism and aspects of trait affect. *Personality and Individual Differences, Vol. 52*, 664-669.
- Verduyn, P., & Brans, K. (2012). The relationship between extraversion, neuroticism and aspects of trait affect. *Personality and Individual Differences, 52*, 664-669.
- Verhulst, B., Hatemi, K., & Martin, G. (2010). The nature of the relationship between personality traits and political attitudes. *Personality and Individual Difference (49)*, 306-316.
- Walker, R. N. (2002). *Understanding Self Efficacy for Alcohol Use: The Roles of Self-Monitoring and Hypothesized Source Variables*. Blacksburg, Virginia: Unpublished Masters Thesis presented to Virginia Polytechnic and State University.
- Warachan, B. (2011). Appropriate statistical analysis for two independent groups of likert-type Data. Washington, D.C. 20016: Unpublished Dissertation Submitted to Faculty of the College of Arts and Sciences of American University in Washington DC in partial fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Mathematics Education.
- Watson, D., & Clark, L. (1992). On traits and temperaments: General and specific of emotional experience and their relation to the five factor model. *Journal of Personality*, 441 - 476.

- Watson, D., & Hubbard, B. (1996). Adaptational style and dispositional structure: coping in the context of the five factor model. *Journal of Personality, Vol. 64*, 737 - 774.
- Weinschenk, A. C. (2013). *Cause you've got (personality): Understanding the impact of personality on political participation*. Wisconsin: The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee.
- Weinschenk, A. C., & Panagopoulos, C. (2014). Personality, Negativity and Political Participation. *Journal of Social and Political Psychology, Vol. 2(1)*, 164-182.
- Women Shadow Parliament - Kenya [WSP-K] (2008). *The Elusive Quest for Women's Empowerment in Electoral Politics: A Synopsis of the 2007 Electoral Year*. Nairobi, Women Shadow Parliament
- Wood, R., & Bandura, A. (1989). Social cognitive theory of organizational management. *Academy of Management Review, Vol. 14 No. 3*, 361-384.
- Wood, R., Bandura, A., & Bailey, T. (1990). Mechanisms governing organizational performance in complex decision-making environments. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes, Vol. 46*, 181-201.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Self-efficacy: An Essential Motive to Learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, Vol. 25*, 82 - 91.
- Zulkosky, K. (April – June 2009). Self-Efficacy: A Concept Analysis. *Nursing Forum, Vol. 44, No. 2*, 93 - 102.

APPENDICES**Appendix 1: Transmittal Letter**

My name is Jonathan Maweu, a postgraduate student at Kenyatta University, and I am undertaking a study entitled **“PERSONALITY TRAITS, POLITICAL EFFICACY AND ELECTORAL OUTCOMES: A SURVEY OF SELECTED FEMALE PARLIAMENTARY CONTESTANTS IN KENYA”**.

Respondents of the study will be women who contested parliament during the 2007 general election whether successful or non-successful. The finding of the study will add value to the existing body of knowledge and help enhance the democracy in Kenyan by generating knowledge that on how women contestants can deal with electoral challenges. I am collecting data using the three tools attached to this transmittal letter. I promise that your personal identity will be kept confidential. I am seeking your permission to involve you in this study as a resource person, if you agree sign the attached Statement of Informed Consent. You are also free to discontinue your participation in this research at any level, as you may want.

Yours faithfully

Mr. Jonathan Maweu

Appendix 2: University's authorization

**KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL**

E-mail: kubps@yahoo.com
dean-graduate@ku.ac.ke
 Website: www.ku.ac.ke

P.O. Box 43844, 00100
 NAIROBI, KENYA
 Tel. 8710901 Ext. 57530

Our Ref: C82/10026/08

Date: 10th November 2012

The Permanent Secretary,
 Ministry of Higher Education, Science & Technology,
 P.O. Box 30040,
NAIROBI

Dear Sir/Madam,

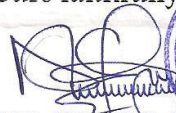

**RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION FOR MR. JONATHAN KATHUNGU MAWEU -
 REG. NO. C82/10026/08**

I write to introduce Mr. Jonathan Kathungu Maweu who is a Postgraduate Student of this University. He is registered for a Ph.D degree programme in the Department of Psychology in the School of Humanities and Social Sciences.

Mr. Maweu intends to conduct research for a thesis project entitled, "Effects of Personality and Self-Efficacy on Parliamentary Electoral Outcomes in Kenya: A Case of Selected Female Politicians."

Any assistance given will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,



MRS. LUCY N. MBAABU
FOR: DEAN, GRADUATE SCHOOL

LNm/fwK

Appendix 3: Research authorization letter NACOSTI

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

**NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**

Telephone: 254-020-2213471, 2241349, 254-020-2673550
 Mobile: 0713 788 787 , 0735 404 245
 Fax: 254-020-2213215
 When replying please quote
 secretary@ncst.go.ke

P.O. Box 30623-00100
 NAIROBI-KENYA
 Website: www.ncst.go.ke

Our Ref:

NCST/RCD/14/013/17

Date:

23rd January, 2013

Jonathan Kathungu Maweu
 Kenyatta University
 P.O.Box 43844-00100
 Nairobi.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application dated *10th January, 2013* for authority to carry out research on *"Effects of personality and efficacy judgements on parliamentary electoral outcomes in Kenya: A case of selected female politicians,"* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Nairobi Province, Thika, Machakos and Kisumu Districts** for a period ending **30th April, 2013**.

You are advised to report to **the Clerk of the National Assembly** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.

DR M.K. RUGUTT, PhD, HSC.
DEPUTY COUNCIL SECRETARY

Copy to:

Clerk
 National Assembly.

Appendix 4: Identity card from NACOSTI

PAGE 1

No. NACOSTI/CD/1/013/17

Date of issue: 23 January 2017

Date of expiry: 23 January 2018

KSH. 2,000

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT

Dr. Muthi Mwangi is/are

National Identity No. 145678901234567890

is/are presently employed at Kenya Open University

P.O. Box 5504-00100, Nairobi


is/are entitled to conduct research in

the field of Education

at Kenya Open University

Signed: [Signature] District Commissioner

Date: 23/01/2017



Signature: [Signature]

Name: Dr. Muthi Mwangi

National Identity No. 145678901234567890

Date of issue: 23/01/2017

Date of expiry: 23/01/2018

KSH. 2,000

Appendix 5: Statement of Informed Consent

I, whose signature appears below, confirm that I have been given an explanation on the nature of this study. I am aware that my name will not be recorded in this study in a way that can be used to identify me personally as the source of the information and that I can discontinue my participation in this research without any danger or prejudice resulting from it. I therefore freely choose to participate as a resource person.

Respondent

Date.....

Appendix 6: Instruction For Scoring The Big Five Inventory (BFI)

1. To score the BFI, one needs to **reverse-score** all negatively-keyed items:

Extraversion: 6, 21, 31
 Agreeableness: 2, 12, 27, 37
 Conscientiousness: 8, 18, 23, 43
 Neuroticism: 9, 24, 34
 Openness: 35, 41

2. To recode these items, subtract the score for all reverse-scored items from 6. For example, if you gave yourself a 5, compute 6 minus 5 and your recoded score is 1. That is, a score of 1 becomes 5, 2 becomes 4, 3 remains 3, 4 becomes 2, and 5 becomes 1.
3. Next, create scale scores by *averaging* the following items for each B5 domain (where R indicates using the reverse-scored item).

Extraversion: 1, 6R 11, 16, 21R, 26, 31R, 36
 Agreeableness: 2R, 7, 12R, 17, 22, 27R, 32, 37R, 42
 Conscientiousness: 3, 8R, 13, 18R, 23R, 28, 33, 38, 43R
 Neuroticism: 4, 9R, 14, 19, 24R, 29, 34R, 39
 Openness: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35R, 40, 41R, 44

STATA SYNTAX

REVERSED ITEMS

RECODE

```
bfi2 bfi6 bfi8 bfi9 bfi12 bfi18 bfi21 bfi23 bfi24 bfi27 bfi31 bfi34 bfi35 bfi37 bfi41 bfi43
```

```
(1=5) (2=4) (3=3) (4=2) (5=1)
```

```
Into; bfi2r bfi6r bfi8r bfi9r bfi12r bfi18r bfi21r bfi23r bfi24r bfi27r bfi31r bfi34r bfi35r  
bfi37r bfi41r bfi43r.
```

SCALE SCORES

COMPUTE bfi_e = mean (bfi1, bfi6r, bfi11, bfi16, bfi21r, bfi26, bfi31r, bfi36).	
VARIABLE LABELS bfi_e 'BFI Extraversion scale score.'	
COMPUTE bfi_a = mean (bfi2r, bfi7, bfi12r, bfi17, bfi22, bfi27r, bfi32, bfi37r, bfi42).	
VARIABLE LABELS bfi_a 'BFI Agreeableness scale score.'	
COMPUTE bfi_c = mean (bfi3, bfi8r, bfi13, bfi18r, bfi23r, bfi28, bfi33, bfi38, bfi43r).	
VARIABLE LABELS bfi_c 'BFI Conscientiousness scale score.'	
COMPUTE bfi_n = mean (bfi4, bfi9r, bfi14, bfi19, bfi24r, bfi29, bfi34r, bfi39).	
VARIABLE LABELS bfi_n 'BFI Neuroticism scale score.'	
COMPUTE bfi_o = mean (bfi5, bfi10, bfi15, bfi20, bfi25, bfi30, bfi35r, bfi40, bfi41r, bfi44).	
VARIABLE LABELS bfi_o 'BFI Openness scale score.'	

Appendix 7: Instruction for Scoring Political Efficacy Scale

The weight of the answer is the value of the number. Items marked *IES* contribute to the *Internal Efficacy Subscale*, those marked *EES* contribute to the *External Efficacy Subscale*, while items marked *CS* contribute to the *Cynicism Subscale*. The score is obtained by summing up total score and then dividing the outcome by the number of items.

1 Disagree Strongly	2 Disagree a little	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree a little	5 Agree strongly
---------------------------	---------------------------	------------------------------------	------------------------	------------------------

1. I ____ that I am able to understand most political issues easily (IPES)
2. I ____ that I know more about politics than most people my age (IPES)
3. I ____ that in this country, a few individuals have a lot of political power while the rest of the people have very little power (CS)
4. I ____ that the government [people in government] cares [care] a lot about what all of us think about new laws (EPES)
5. I ____ that the government [people in government] is [are] doing its best to find out what people [ordinary people] want (EPES)
6. I ____ that the politicians quickly forget the needs of the voters who elected them (CS)
7. I ____ that the powerful leaders in government [Government] care very little about the opinions of people [ordinary people] (CS)
8. I ____ that when people get together [organize] to demand change, the leaders in government listen (EPES)
9. I ____ that when political issues or problems are being discussed, I usually have something to say (IPES)

Internal Efficacy Subscale [IES]:	1, 2, 9	
External Efficacy Subscale [EES]:	4, 5, 8	
Cynicism Subscale [CS]:	3, 6, 7	

Appendix 8: Demographic Data Tool

The following statements are asking for information about you. Kindly, respond by putting a mark [√] in the category which best describes you.

Please Note: do not write your name anywhere in the document

1	Age	21 - 30	31 – 40	41 – 50	51 – 60	61 +
2	Years in Formal Education	01 – 03 Early Childhood Education	04 – 08 Primary	09 – 12 Secondary	13 – 16 University	18 + Post Graduate
3	Years in Politics	01 - 05	06 – 10	11 – 15	16 – 20	21+
4	Your Electoral Outcomes during the 2007 general elections	Successful		Non-successful		

Appendix 9: The Big Five Inventory

Below are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

1 Disagree Strongly	2 Disagree a little	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree a little	5 Agree strongly
---------------------------	---------------------------	------------------------------------	------------------------	------------------------

I am someone who...

- | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. <input type="checkbox"/> Is talkative | 24. <input type="checkbox"/> Is emotionally stable, not easily upset |
| 2. <input type="checkbox"/> Tends to find fault with others | 25. <input type="checkbox"/> Is inventive |
| 3. <input type="checkbox"/> Does a thorough job | 26. <input type="checkbox"/> Has an assertive personality |
| 4. <input type="checkbox"/> Is depressed, blue | 27. <input type="checkbox"/> Can be cold and aloof |
| 5. <input type="checkbox"/> Is original, comes up with new ideas | 28. <input type="checkbox"/> Perseveres until the task is finished |
| 6. <input type="checkbox"/> Is reserved | 29. <input type="checkbox"/> Can be moody |
| 7. <input type="checkbox"/> Is helpful and unselfish with others | 30. <input type="checkbox"/> Values artistic, aesthetic experiences |
| 8. <input type="checkbox"/> Can be somewhat careless | 31. <input type="checkbox"/> Is sometimes shy, inhibited |
| 9. <input type="checkbox"/> Is relaxed, handles stress well. | 32. <input type="checkbox"/> Is considerate and kind to almost everyone |
| 10. <input type="checkbox"/> Is curious about many different things | 33. <input type="checkbox"/> Does things efficiently |
| 11. <input type="checkbox"/> Is full of energy | 34. <input type="checkbox"/> Remains calm in tense situations |
| 12. <input type="checkbox"/> Starts quarrels with others | 35. <input type="checkbox"/> Prefers work that is routine |
| 13. <input type="checkbox"/> Is a reliable worker | 36. <input type="checkbox"/> Is outgoing, sociable |
| 14. <input type="checkbox"/> Can be tense | 37. <input type="checkbox"/> Is sometimes rude to others |
| 15. <input type="checkbox"/> Is ingenious, a deep thinker | 38. <input type="checkbox"/> Makes plans and follows through with them |
| 16. <input type="checkbox"/> Generates a lot of enthusiasm | 39. <input type="checkbox"/> Gets nervous easily |
| 17. <input type="checkbox"/> Has a forgiving nature | 40. <input type="checkbox"/> Likes to reflect, play with ideas |
| 18. <input type="checkbox"/> Tends to be disorganized | 41. <input type="checkbox"/> Has few artistic interests |
| 19. <input type="checkbox"/> Worries a lot | 42. <input type="checkbox"/> Likes to cooperate with others |
| 20. <input type="checkbox"/> Has an active imagination | 43. <input type="checkbox"/> Is easily distracted |
| 21. <input type="checkbox"/> Tends to be quiet | 44. <input type="checkbox"/> Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature |
| 22. <input type="checkbox"/> Is generally trusting | |
| 23. <input type="checkbox"/> Tends to be lazy | |

Appendix 10: The Political Efficacy Scale

Instructions;

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please write a number on the provided space to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement

1 Disagree Strongly	2 Disagree a little	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree a little	5 Agree strongly
----------------------------------	-------------------------------	-------------------------------------------	----------------------------	----------------------------

1. I ____ that I am able to understand most political issues easily
2. I ____ that I know more about politics than most people my age
3. I ____ that in this country, a few individuals have a lot of political power while the rest of the people have very little power
4. I ____ that the government [people in government] cares [care] a lot about what all of us think about new laws
5. I ____ that the government [people in government] is [are] doing its best to find out what people [ordinary people] want
6. I ____ that the politicians quickly forget the needs of the voters who elected them
7. I ____ that the powerful leaders in government [Government] care very little about the opinions of people [ordinary people]
8. I ____ that when people get together [organize] to demand change, the leaders in government listen
9. I ____ that when political issues or problems are being discussed, I usually have something to say

