

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

GENDER FACTOR IN EMPLOYMENT IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY IN  
THE ACCRA METROPOLIS

EUNICE FAY OPOKU-AGYEMANG

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## **DEDICATION**

**To my Mom, Dina  
and my siblings (Awuradwoa, Rose and Akwasi) for their love and support.**

## CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my personal research, except for references and quotations, which have been duly acknowledged. This work has not been presented, either in part or whole for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

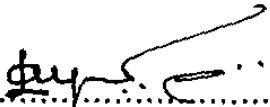
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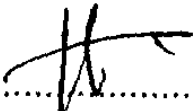
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## SUPERVISORS' DECLARATION

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis was supervised in accordance with guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

  
.....  
Prof. L.A. Dei  
Principal Supervisor

Date: 23 - 02 - 06  
.....

  
.....  
Prof. Kofi Awusabo-Asare  
Co-Supervisor

Date: 23 - 02 - 06  
.....

## ABSTRACT

The leisure and tourism industry is one of the leading global economic activities. A multi-billion-dollar industry with 700 million international travellers per year around the world, tourism has become an avenue for employment and income creation, especially in poor countries. As an industry, there is division of labour by gender at all levels of the travel and tourism sectors. Women are the most employed, yet they have the least dignified positions in the industry.

The study assessed the socio-demographic background of employees in the hospitality industry in Ghana, the positions both men and women occupy in the industry, the conditions under which they work and the problems women in particular encounter in their career advancement.

The main primary sources consisted of data collected from 248 persons made up of 228 employees and 20 employers/managers. The study adopted Massiah's (1993) Gender Analysis Framework.

The study revealed that there were gender differences in the socio-demographic background of employees. For instance, seventy-one percent of the women compared to only 10% of the men were between the ages of 18 and 28 while 59% of the men against 12% of the women were found to be between 29 and 39 years old. Women were also found to occupy lower positions in the industry. There were reported perceptions of gender inequities or discrimination at the workplace in the areas of promotion, training opportunities and income.

There is therefore the need for employees, enterprises, institutions and governments to eliminate or minimize the perception of discrimination on grounds of sex. Further studies should be conducted on sex discrimination within the industry beyond the perceptions.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<b>AMA</b>	Accra Metropolitan Assembly
<b>GAR</b>	Greater Accra Region
<b>GDP</b>	Gross Domestic Product
<b>GTB</b>	Ghana Tourist Board
<b>ILO</b>	International Labour Organisation
<b>SSA</b>	Sub-Saharan Africa
<b>UNED</b>	United Nations Educational Development
<b>WWF</b>	Worldwide Fund for Nature
<b>WFP</b>	World Food Programme
<b>WTO</b>	World Tourism Organisation
<b>WTTC</b>	World Travel and Tourism Council

## **DEFINITION OF TERMS**

<b>Hotel</b>	A hotel is a commercial establishment that provides lodging, food and related services
<b>Restaurant</b>	A restaurant is a facility that mainly provides food and drinks for its clients
<b>Conditions of Service</b>	Conditions of service are those facilities and the atmosphere at the workplace for employees such as salary, accommodation, study leave, medical care, social security, opportunity for training and development, promotion and the general working environment.
<b>Equality</b>	Equality refers to the fundamental principle of equality of opportunity and treatment between men and women in the world of work.
<b>Gender</b>	Gender is a socio-economic variable to analyse roles, responsibilities, constraints, opportunities and needs of men and women in context.
<b>Diligence</b>	Diligence is showing care and effort in one's duties.
<b>Skillfulness</b>	Displaying skill at the workplace

# CHAPTER ONE

## Introduction

### 1.1 Background of the Study

Current trends in the global tourism industry point to the fact that there is an emerging dominance of tourism as the one industry that holds the key to an overall sustainable development in the Third World. The facts and figures of the global economy clearly show that tourism is the fastest growing industry in the world with an annual growth of four per cent. Thus tourism is now one of the world's most important socio-economic activities. It is estimated that by the year 2020 there will be 1.9 billion tourist arrivals globally who will generate over US \$2 trillion (WTO, 2003). Although, tourism has long been viewed as a tool for economic development (Walpole and Goodwin, 2000), the increasing growth and popularity of the industry in the last decade has generated extra interest among many countries especially the developing ones. Many national and local governments are increasingly regarding tourism as a means to help revive economies in less-developing countries.

The industry has demonstrated its potential to create jobs and encourage income-generating activities for the benefit of local communities in the destination areas. About seven percent of

investments worldwide are in the tourism industry, leading to the creation of over 200 million jobs. In every two and half seconds a new job is created in the industry. It is estimated that about eight percent of the world's income earners work in the tourism industry. It has been observed tourism in general has reduced the world's poverty from 70 percent to 30 percent (Ohene-Ayeh, 1998).

According to WTO, 2003, Africa's share in tourism receipts is comparatively small (11% of the global tourism receipts). However, the potential of tourism in stimulating economic development in areas such as foreign exchange earnings and job creation is immense. Tourism, all things being equal, will enhance the socio-economic well being of the local people of the destination area. The industry is expected to contribute 13.7 percent to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and 10.6 percent to employment in Sub-Saharan Africa by the year 2010 (WTTC, 2000).

Ghana, like many other developing African countries, is faced with unemployment problems. Tourism as a labour intensive industry has the capacity to provide various entry points for employment and opportunities for creating self-employment in small and medium sized income generating activities, especially for women.



Tourist arrivals and receipts for Ghana are on the increase. International tourist arrivals to Ghana increased from about 145,780 in 1990 to 530,827 in 2003 while receipts increased from about only \$19.52 million in 1985 to \$602.80 million in 2003. The industry in the last decade has become a major sector of the national economy and it is the only sector that recorded a two-digit average annual growth rate of 12% during the last ten years, providing currently an estimated 90,000 direct jobs and contributing an estimated \$602.80 million in foreign exchange earnings in 2003, and making it Ghana's third biggest export earner after cocoa and mining (Bank of Ghana, 2002).

The number of tourist arrivals becomes more meaningful when viewed in terms of demand for hotels and other forms of accommodation, restaurants, bars and pubs, transport, travel agents, tour guides and tourism information centres and its associated jobs.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

The concept of feminism grew from ideas generated by the political practices of social movements. Thus, feminism is a system of thought radicalised by women's experiences of multiple forms of oppression. It also bears the marks of women's exclusion from the upper echelons of society (Unwin, 1996). The gender or feminist concept is informed by a history of women's movements usually divided into first, second

and third waves. Each wave has counter-currents such as struggles occurring over women's rights and gender inequality, class and race differences (Unwin, 1996). The United Nations Decade for Women (1975-85) encouraged the growth of feminist groups worldwide. Each World Conference has a parallel non-governmental organization (NGO) forum, the site often of fierce debate.

Over the decade of the 1980s, women from the First and Third Worlds developed a basis for solidarity in spite of ideological and cultural differences. The 4<sup>th</sup> World Conference On Women held in September 1995 in Beijing, developed the Platform for Action, which among others highlighted human rights of women- rights to education, food, health, greater political power including promotion in areas of employment, and freedom from violence (Unwin, 1996).

Women in the Third World normally organize around economic, environmental, legal, military, cultural, and physical threats, and resistance to dictatorship, militarism, fundamentalism, economic dependence, and violence against women. Such groupings include Chipka Movement of the Himalayas, Green Belt Movement in Kenya, The Self-Employed Women's Association in India and Mothers of the Disappeared movements in Latin America (Unwin, 1996).

In the view of Jaggar (1983) quoted in Unwin, (1996), feminists seek to end women's subordination (humanly imposed restrictions on freedom) using the women's liberation movement as a political instrument. In Saudi Arabia and indeed in most Muslim countries women are barred from voting; this occurred in Afghanistan under the Taliban regime and is currently being demonstrated under a different guise in Saudi Arabia.

Questions of feminist epistemology became central foci of feminist concern by the mid to late 1980s (Lloyd, 1984). What are taken to be humanly inclusive concepts, objective methodologies, and transcendental truths, bear instead the mark of gender, class, race and culture. Equity studies document massive discrimination against women in science and ways science is used in the service of sexist and racist social projects. Women's movements struggle for equality, rights and opportunity in the liberal sphere, for justice, power, and emancipation in the radical sphere, and for difference, voice and identity in the modern and the postmodern.

Gender studies have proved that there is discrimination in employment against women (Ardayfio-Schandorf, 1991; Bullock, 1994). In the past two decades, women's issues have received greater recognition throughout the world (Theobald, 1996). International

agencies and government planners have begun to acknowledge women's special status and the need to participate adequately in development projects. However, official statistics reflect a gross under-estimation of women's participation in economic activities (ILO, 1998). For one thing, the long and difficult hours women spend working at home to maintain their families are not reflected in governments' economic data. Moreover, women who engage in income-generating ventures often work in areas that are not officially counted. This is what Massiah (1993) termed as the invisibility of women's contribution to development. This invisibility manifests itself in so many ways. For instance, a study on women in the Caribbean revealed that the Caribbean Development Bank (CDB) mentioned women in their annual report for the first time in 1986 (Demas, 1986 cited in Massiah, 1993).

Women mostly do petty trading, peasant farming and household chores in Ghana but their contribution is not measured. The tourism industry is of no exemption. Precise data on men and women's employment in the industry; namely: their occupations, positioning in the hierarchies, wages, working conditions, working hours, training etc. are scanty or not available.

Job placements in tourism differ between men and women. Women have the majority of jobs at the base of the tourism employment hierarchy while men have almost all the jobs at the middle and top (Theobald, 1994). There is division of labour by sex at all levels of the travel and tourism hierarchies (Theobald, 1994). Women have the least dignified positions in the tourism industry. Cooks and waitresses tend to be women and are found in the lowest paid parts of the food sector (Enloe, 1989). For instance, while cooking is historically a female task in most societies, it becomes an overwhelming male niche in the fancier restaurants where salaries are substantial (Enloe, 1989).

International conferences on gender and tourism have identified the need for gender sensitive planning and management in tourism. A United Nations Educational Development (UNED) -UK initiated project aimed at bringing gender aspects of tourism to the attention of policy makers, observed that women's employment in many areas and

the positions they hold, including working hours, wages, other conditions of service among others are not commensurate with the inputs they make. Even though the UNED project identified tourism as an important sector for the employment of women, the proportion of women's to men's working hours available from 39 countries is 89 percent and their wages are 79 percent (ILO, 1997). There is therefore, a general interest to understand the gender perspectives, particularly women's concern and participation in various aspects of the tourism sector.

Very few countries provide information about these variables. The lack of data on gendered employment in the tourism/hospitality industry in Ghana means that it will be very difficult to identify the areas and positions occupied by women in the tourism industry; hence the conditions under which women work. Also, very little is known about the problems women encounter in their career development in the industry, the perception of people about women working in the industry, where employers prefer women to be and the gender differences in employment benefits in the industry. It is against this background that this study will be finding out if there are differences or discrimination in the employment dimensions of men and women in the hospitality industry in Ghana. The study will seek to answer the following questions: Do men and women enjoy the same employment benefits? What do men perceive women working in the

tourism/hospitality industry to be? What problems do women encounter in career development and advancement? And where do employers prefer women to be in the hospitality/tourism industry?

### **1.3 Objectives of the study**

The general objective of this study was to examine the gender dimensions in employment in the tourism/hospitality industry in Ghana.

The specific objectives were to:

- i. Describe the socio- demographic background of female and male employees in the hospitality industry.
- ii. Assess the differences in men and women's positions at the workplace.
- iii. Examine the conditions under which both men and women work in the industry
- iv. Ascertain the perception about women employees in the hospitality industry.
- v. Determine the differences in benefits (if any) for women and men.

#### **1.4 Research Hypotheses**

The hypotheses tested in the study are:

1. There is no significant difference between the socio-demographic background (age, educational background and marital status) of male and female employees in the hospitality industry.
2. There is no difference in the positions men and women occupy in the industry.
3. There is no relationship between the socio-demographic background (age, educational background and marital status) of men and women and the positions they occupy in the hospitality industry.

#### **1.5 Rationale for the study**

Women could be essential tools for a nation's development. The perceived inequitable distribution of employment and other socio-economic activities that are unfavourable to women do not bring to bear their contribution in national progress. A woman who earns income will be an asset to a family's income, thereby ensuring that the benefits of employment are better utilised for the welfare of a family. Employing women will therefore empower them economically. Equitable distribution of employment and economic



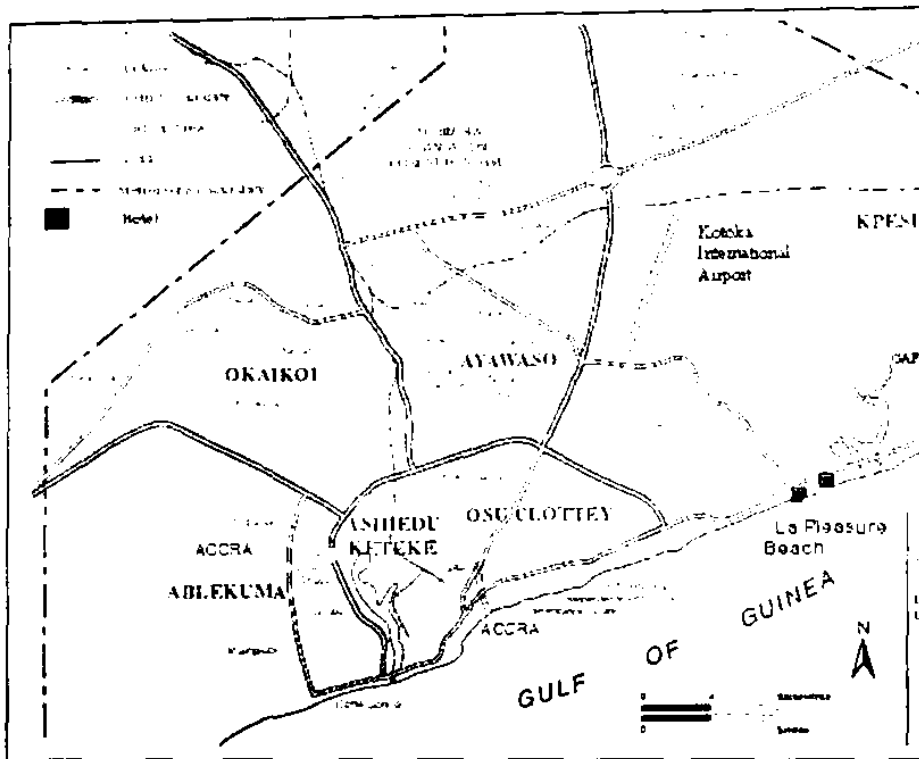
empowerment of women will help in the global eradication of poverty especially in Africa since women are mostly associated with poverty.

There has not been many studies on women in tourism in the country. The study deals with the relative roles of women and men in the tourism/hospitality industry. The outcome of the study would be useful for policy makers and all stakeholders of the tourism industry. It will also help to provide information to supplement existing literature on tourism and gender issues in the country. Finally, it will identify other research areas for further investigations.

#### **1.6 Profile of the Study Area**

The area of study for the research is the Accra Metropolis in the Greater Accra Region (GAR). The region lies within longitude  $0^{\circ} 30'$  west and  $0^{\circ} 35'$  east of the Greenwich Meridian, both of which pass through Tema, east of Accra city. The GAR is bounded to the east by the Volta Region; to the north by the Eastern Region; to the west by the Volta Region; to the South by the Gulf of Guinea (Figure 1.1).

**Figure 1.1 The Political Map of the Greater Accra Region**



It covers a total land area of 4,540 square kilometres and has a coastal stretch of 225 kilometres from Kokrobite to Ada with a total population of 2,909,6453 (Ghana Statistical service, 2000). The regions topography is undulating with isolated inselbergs and rocky outcrops in several places, including the Shai Hills which is an ecotourism destination. At the northern boundary of the region are the escarpments of the Akwapim Range. There are sandy beaches along the coast. The major river in the region is the Densu River, the lower portion of which is a wetland which has been designated as a Ramsar Site.

The study area forms part of the anomalous dry coastal belt of Ghana with an average annual rainfall ranging from less than 750 millimetres. There are two rainy seasons; the main season extends from March to mid-July and the minor from mid-August to November. The highest average monthly relative humidity does not exceed 75% whilst the lowest is about 60%. The hottest months are February-March and the coolest months are June-August. Average monthly temperatures also range from about 25°C in August to almost 30°C in April, May and November. The region lies within the Coastal Savannah Zone where the vegetation consists of dense Savannah thickets and grassland provided rich flora and fauna for ecotourism. There are also many ornamental trees and shrubs within the urban areas.

The GAR is made up of six administrative divisions comprising four districts, one municipal and one metropolitan area. They are Accra Metropolitan, Tema municipal, Ga District, Dangbe East District and Dangbe West District. The GAR is made up of three main ethnic groups namely: the Ga to the southwest, Dangbe to the east and Shai to the northeast. There are seven paramountcies representing the Ga, Ningo, Prampram, Osudoku, Shai and Ada. The people exhibit a similar culture. Their festivals, like the Homowo of the Gas,

Nmayem of the Shai and Asafotufiam of the Adas commemorate feasting as well as victory in past wars.

Accra, the Capital City of Ghana and Tema are the main urban centres where industrial and commercial activities take place. Government employment, finance, insurance, wholesale and retail trade, tourism and some manufacturing establishments are based in Accra, with Tema being the manufacturing hub and port city. Accra and Tema account for over 80% of the industries that employ 10 or more persons in the country. It is the centre of commerce and the seat of government. Accra is a major centre for manufacturing, marketing, finance, insurance, transportation and tourism. It has about 350 industrial establishments, a Central Bank, Commercial Banks, Merchant Banks, Discount Houses, Foreign Exchange Bureau, Insurance Brokerage firms, Stock brokerage companies and a host of real estate developers operating within her area of jurisdiction. (AMA, 2002). There are also 29 markets, 36 facilities for both on the street and off the streets parking and other business as well as several facilities for the promotion of sports, recreation and many tourist centres. Twelve per cent of total employment in manufacturing in Ghana is found in Accra.

Damgbe East and Damgbe West are relatively poorer but have a stronger agricultural base, where staples like maize, cassava, vegetables and pineapples are grown. Damgbe East has a prosperous salt industry in addition to fishing and farming. The GAR contributes significantly to the country's fishing industry, with about 30% of the total number of fishermen in the country; it is also the main source of supply of foodstuffs to the hotels and restaurants in the study area.

The GAR also has other tourist attractions including traditional festivals, historic castles and forts and museums. There are also a number of tourism facilities and establishments like hotels and restaurants such as La Palm Royal Beach Hotel, Golden Tulip Hotel, Papaye Fast Foods, and Steers Restaurant among others. Accra has the only international airport, which contributes immensely to the tourist traffic. There are also a number of travel and tour agencies, car hire agencies, transport companies and nightclubs. Approximately 34% of all hotel rooms in Ghana exist in the GAR, including all the four and five star hotels (GTB, 2002). It is in the GAR that all the various categories of hotels can be found. This makes the region the best case study on employment in the hospitality industry in Ghana.

## CHAPTER TWO

### Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

#### 2.1 Introduction

There is paucity of material on gender issues in the hospitality industry in Ghana. Hence most of the materials are related to comparable issues in other countries. Related gender issues on the subject matter in Africa are however quoted. "Half the world stock of intelligence is female and half the world's human resources are embodied by women. It will take male and female thinking, experience and effort to fashion a new and better world. In the meeting of men and women on equal terms, a new dynamism and creativity can be developed" (A statement by Borje' Homlund, Swedish Minister of Labour in Afshar, 1985).

The above sentiment was expressed in the United Nations General Assembly Resolution, which gave rise to International Women's Year. The Resolution referred to the need 'to promote equality between men and women', and the need 'to ensure the full integration of women into the total development effort, especially by emphasising women's responsibilities and important role in economic, social and cultural development at the national, regional and international levels.' (Instraw, 1987).

This chapter examines the relevant literature on trends in women's employment, part-time working and issues in women's work. It further discusses the conceptual framework, which is based on the gender analysis framework by Massiah (1993), which forms the basis of this study.

The world conference of the International Women's Year held in 1975 in Mexico City linked for the first time, the role of women on a global scale to current and pressing political, social and development issues. A varied set of world conferences on other topics devoted increasing attention to women's role along with other primary themes. These conferences included the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements in 1976, the Tripartite World Conference on Employment, Income Distribution and Social Progress and the International Division of Labour (ILO, 1976).

A new comprehensive and global approach was confirmed in 1980 at the World Conference of the UN Decade for Women in Copenhagen and consolidated in 1985 at the Nairobi Conference to mark the end of the decade. By the end of the Decade in 1985, any suggestion that women were mere beneficiaries (victims) of development was firmly set aside: women were now seen as participants and agents of

progress and that all members of society stand to benefit from a process of development that incorporates women in those capacities.

## **2.2 Women and work**

According to an ILO report there were about 562 million women in the world's labour force of 1.637 million and 65% of them in developing countries in 1975 (WFP, 1976). Today, women consist of 40% of the world's labour force, yet their share of management positions remains unacceptably low, with just a tiny proportion succeeding in breaking through the glass ceiling to obtain top jobs (ILO, 2001). As a group, women have fewer resources than men. Women put in two-thirds of the total number of working hours, constitute one-third of the total labour force and receive one-tenth of the total remuneration. They own only one percent of the world's material goods and their rights to ownership is often far less than those of men (Ostergaard, 1994).

Gender is a major variable in determining labour market placement. There is a highly uneven distribution of sexes within all sectors of the labour force and the tendency in most countries is for women to be located in lower paid and less skilled jobs. Women's primary role in reproduction is used to explain why women's jobs cover narrower range of activities than men's. As such women dominate in service



jobs such as cleaning, caring, teaching and food processing, which are related to domestic activities (Bullock, 1994). Østergaard (1994) indicates that the attribution of particular characteristics to the sexes permeates sectors and jobs through processes of sex typing which produces hierarchies of gender related skills, with women concentrated predominantly in unskilled and semi-skilled jobs and tasks leading to female or male enclaves of employment.

Instraw (1987) argues that the social differences of gender have intensified the divisions of labour between the sexes, identifying men with the productive sphere and women with reproductive sphere. Women came to concentrate on reproduction, that is, on nurturing entrants to the labour force rather than in participating in gainful employment for them. Labour force participation has been identified by Instraw and Joeke (1987) as an area where a broader range of women's skills can be developed than in family and household labour.

More women are in paid and self-employment than ever before. According to official measurements, 41 per cent of the world's women aged 15 and over are economically active. Between 1970 and 1990, women's share in the labour force increased in many but not all regions (Bullock, 1994). A United Nations study (1999). 'The World's Women' points out that growth in the female labour force

has been undermined by economic recession in countries. While more women work, they still face problems in the workplace to get the same status as men and they are still overwhelmingly responsible for family and domestic duties (Kauppinen and Kandolin, 2001).

Bullock (1994) has observed that in most industrialised countries, despite women's intense economic activity in certain regions and sectors (that is the textile industry, farming and domestic service), opportunities for women in general were restricted until the Second World War and two decades of rapid growth that followed. Women's own possibilities increased and their expectations were raised as a result of higher education levels, greater control over fertility, availability of convenience foods and domestic gadgets and changing social attitudes. Expansion in the services and part-time employment now match women's needs and experience and thus encouraged their participation (Bullock, 1994).

The pattern of working life has changed over time globally. Before 1950, most women workers were young and unmarried or were women whose children had grown up and left home. Economic activity is now becoming continuous (i.e. with fewer and shorter breaks for raising a family). Also it is no longer unusual or illegal for married women to be employed (Bullock, 1994). But the working life

has always been longer and more continuous for most women in developing countries. Girls may give substantial help in the home, be unpaid workers or even wage earners; women especially those in rural areas hardly interrupt their work routine to have a baby and they keep working until the end of their lives (Bullock, 1994).

There has been not so much a movement of women into the labour force as changes in the nature of women's work. The changes have often involved a move from subsistence farming or other unpaid activity to labouring or informal income generation (Østergaard, 1994). Pressure has increased on women everywhere to make up or provide the family wage. According to Bullock (1994), a vicious cycle of debt, inflation, economic stagnation and unemployment has increased the numbers of the poor and has placed the heaviest burden on women. As prices rise and incomes fall, women increase their working hours and diversify their activities to ensure the family survival in both rich and poor countries.

### **2.3 Women's work identity and concept of work**

Women workers are an important part of the industrial labour force in numeric terms. However, the study of women workers and the gendered structure of the labour force are made imperative by the fact that women have been incorporated into industrial work on the basis

of a pervasive and discriminatory division of labour by gender (Afshar, 1985).

Previously, women had no defined work as expressed by Wiesner (1993) and that women often changed occupations several times during their lives or performed many different types of jobs at once, so that their identification with any one occupation was not strong.

Women's job opportunities were very limited in the highly competitive urban labour market. There were laws guaranteeing equal job opportunities but employers were free to hire on any basis they see fit especially in the developing nations.

#### **2.4 Occupational Sex Segregation at the Workplace**

Women are better educated and hold more jobs worldwide than ever before. Yet most women continue to suffer from occupational segregation in the workplace and rarely break through the so-called "glass ceiling" separating them from top-level management and professional positions. A new ILO report says that while substantial progress has been made in closing the gender gap in managerial and professional jobs.

Women predominate in certain occupations as well as at the lower levels of skill, responsibility and pay. This is what Bullock (1994)

called *sex segregation*. The ILO points out that concentration could be used to mean segregation. The tendency for men and women to be employed in different occupations is segregation and the fact that women are presented in a limited number of occupations or in lower grades is concentration.

Two forms of sex segregation that have been identified to exist in the work places are:

- i. Horizontal, where both sexes are restricted to particular types of work resulting in the emergence and reinforcement of women and men's jobs; and
- ii. Vertical, where women and men have unequal access to different grades or quality of work within the same type of work (Little, 1993; Ofei-Aboagye, 1996).

Where women and men work in the same industry or even in the same factory, there are clear job boundaries with women clustering in certain occupations with a limited number of activities within them. A high number of women work in services, especially the personal and caring services (Bullock, 1994). Even where an occupation is to some extent mixed, women are usually in the less responsible, less secure and less well-paid jobs; where an occupation is predominantly female, men are still often found in the management positions. Worldwide, the proportion of women in managerial and decision-making positions

is low; nowhere does it reflect the numbers of women in the labour force and the higher one goes up the job hierarchy, the fewer the women. Women make up less than 5 per cent of the world's heads of states, heads of major corporations and top executives in international organisations. Bullock, (1994) observed that, of the top 1000 corporations in the United States, women head two. He further stressed that, women represent on average, fewer than 10 per cent of members of parliament and 20 per cent of middle-level managers.

## **2.5 Gender and working conditions at the workplace**

Quite substantial numbers of women find themselves on the same level with male colleagues at an early stage in their career but ten years later the chances are that most of those men will be in more senior positions than the women regardless of initial qualification, ability or experience (Bullock, 1994). To Bullock, (1994) at some point in time around the middle of most career ladder, there appears to be a 'career ceiling' which prevents all but a few women from getting to the top. Many women are in jobs that have no prospects for advancement. Career schemes, promotional processes and monitoring of workers do not favour women. According to Hehmstadt, (2002), a 2000 survey of professional women revealed that 70 per cent of all professional women in Germany say they do not have equal promotional opportunities as men.

## **2.6 Gender and Positions at Work. A Case Survey**

A survey of 12 large companies in Rio de Janeiro found that for every woman in a managerial position there were 16 men (Ministerio do Trabalho, 1978. cited by Humphrey in Afshar, 1985). In the supervisory jobs, the ratio of men to women is much greater than among the labour force as a whole. There were 24 men employed for every woman in the technical jobs. In the hospitality industry in UK, 17 percent of the workforce was in management positions, 29 percent in housekeeping, 28 percent in kitchens, 14 percent in restaurants and less than one percent as receptionists (Jones, 1996).

According to Wiesner (1993), gender became an important factor in separating what was considered skilled from what was considered unskilled. Thus women were judged to be unfit for certain tasks. Whereas 24.4 percent of men but only 1.3 percent of women in Sao Paulo industries were classified as skilled and 62 percent of all the women employees were defined as semi-skilled (Humphrey in Afshar, 1985).

## **2.7 Gender and Remuneration at the Workplace**

The gendered notion of work meant that women's work was always valued less and generally paid less than men. The difference in male

and female earnings is termed 'working for lipstick' (Afshar 1985; In straw and Joeke, 1997). To her, women work only to add a little to the household income, which is brought home by the man of the house. Her study in Morocco, a Muslim country, in the 1980s revealed that women do not need to support a family but work only to provide a little extra money for small personal luxuries. Wiesner (1995) is also of the view that women were usually paid about half of what men were paid, even for the same tasks with the reasoning that they were either single and had only themselves to support or married and so were simply helping their husbands support the family.

According to Afshar (1985), any notion of the value of labour in the abstract is outweighed by the idea that men and women are significantly different when it comes to supplying labour. Wiesner (1993) argues women rarely received formal training in a trade and during the early modern period many occupations were professionalised, setting up required amounts of formal training before one could claim an occupational title. In spite of this women still do not undergo any professional training in their careers.

## **2.8 Gender Issues in Africa**

Although African societies are diverse in terms of social organization, they do share certain characteristics. One of these characteristics is the



**complexity of gender that confers different opportunities on men and women. The African continent as a whole still lags behind in terms of economic development, but it is African women who have been hardest hit because of long standing inequalities in socio-economic and educational opportunities. The major challenges facing African women are (ILO, 2000):**

- Insufficient formal sector employment;
- High levels of participation in subsistence agriculture and the informal economy with low returns.
- Negative effects of global economic transformation.
- Widespread armed conflict.
- The legal status of women.
- Growing feminization of poverty.
- HIV/AIDS, and
- Inadequate institutional capacity to implement programmes.

According to the World Bank (1997), Women are a key economic resource in Africa, comprising about 60 percent of the informal sector and providing about 70 percent of total agricultural labor. Women's central position in economic production in SSA contrasts with the systematic discrimination they face in accessing basic technologies and resources needed for their economic role.

Of those in the labour force, women have an average of 1.2 years more education than men. Globally, years of education is a predictor of occupation and occupation is a predictor of wage levels. It is therefore expected that South African women would do reasonably well on the remuneration front. However, South African women's wages average only 87% of men's in the formal labour force. Women's wages do not reflect their human capital (Maharaj, 1999).

## **2.9 Employment in the Hospitality Industry**

The hospitality industry is the major employer of the UK economy with about 2.5 million people, representing 10 percent of the working population (Jones, 1996) In Europe, the industry creates about 6 million jobs accounting for 4 percent of employment. The industry is made up of 1.5 million enterprises of which 99.9 percent are small and medium-sized businesses. Ninety-five percent of these enterprises employ fewer than ten people (WTO, 2001). According to the 2001 World Tourism Organisation Highlights, the hospitality sector is the single largest component of the tourism industry, which contributes about 50 percent of all tourism turnovers and employs over 50 percent of people in the tourism industry.

## **2.10 Characteristics of the Hospitality Industry**

The industry is basically self-employed, with about 20 percent of the industry's workers being self-employed. The Labour Force Survey of the UK in 1992 revealed that 60 percent of hospitality establishments in the UK are owned or operated by self-employed people especially in the hotel sector. Most of the establishments (87%) are small, employing 10 people or less. Only six percent of the establishments in the hotel sector employ more than 25 people (WTO, 2001).

The industry employs more women than men, with 72 percent of the hospitality workforce being women (Jones, 1996). However, it is wrong to assume that equality has been attained at the workplace especially with women. Even though women fill a majority of the positions, most hold what have commonly been referred to as "pink-collar jobs" (Woods, 2002). There are some job categories that are biased heavily towards one gender in the industry. For instance, 91 percent of housekeepers are women whereas 100 percent of hotel porters are men. Amongst managers, the gender balance is almost equal (Stutts, 2001).

Employment is seen as being both direct (in accommodation or tourism facilities) and indirect in nature. It is the quality and type of work activities available, the differential access of women and men to

these employment opportunities, the seasonality and the existing and new gender divisions of labour generated which are important for development. Bagguley, (1990); and Rees and Fielder (1992) (cited in Kinnaird and Hall, 1994) have shown that in many tourism development areas employment opportunities have been confined to unskilled, low paid work such as kitchen staff, chambermaids, 'entertainers' and retail charts. According to Kinnaird and Hall (1994), tourism is a process that is constructed out of gendered societies and therefore, all aspects of tourism- related development and activity embody gender relations.

The hospitality industry has been identified as the largest employment sector in total but particularly important in providing jobs for women. In the developed countries 57% of all employed women worked in the service sector in 1980; they accounted for 49% of the sectoral workforce, a higher proportion than their representation in the labour force as a whole (40%) and a higher share than in any other sector. In developing countries altogether, 17% of all employed women worked in the services where they represented 27% of the sectoral labour force (ILO/ In straw, 1985).

### **2.11. Part Time and Full Time Work**

Four-fifths of those in paid employment work full-time - but only 62% of women do so, compared with 91% of men. A majority of full-time workers would prefer to reduce their working hours, (although only 31% felt their employer would view such a request favourably). Only a third of part-timers would choose to work less. Forty-seven per cent (47%) of respondents felt that switching to part-time work would damage their career prospects. Forty-three percent believes that part-timers are worse off with regard to social protection and social security (Jones, 1996). This has forced many workers into full-time jobs.

### **2.12 Conceptual Framework**

The literature search brought out a number of theoretical frameworks, which can inform this study. Three of them namely: Gender Needs and Roles Model (Boserup: 1970) quoted in Overholt et al, (1985), Ladder of Participation model (Arnstein, 1969), a Fusion of Sustainable Tourism Development Model (Eber, 1992) and Community-Oriented Model (Murphy, 1985) and Joycelin Massiah's Gender Analysis Framework are briefly examined

**Table 2.1: Gender Needs and Role Model (The Triple Role of Women and Gender Need) Boserup, (1970) quoted in Overholt et al, (1985)**

<b>Women's Productive Role</b>	<b>Women's Reproductive Role</b>	<b>Women's Community Management Role</b>
Activities that generate Income for the household:	Domestic activities that increase household resources:	Provision and allocation of Community resources:
Paid employment e.g. Labouring jobs; management Or professional positions	Creative role, e.g. bearing, Looking after and educating Children	Creation and distribution of Items for collective consumption, e.g. clean water, medical services
Income in kind e.g. work On family farm	Maintenance role, e.g. Cooking food, washing cloths, growing food for home use	Membership of committees But positions of leadership And influence are frequently occupied by men

Source: Overholt et al, (1985)

The Gender Needs Framework explains that men and women have different roles and responsibilities and they also have different needs. These needs can be divided into practical gender needs and strategic gender needs. Practical gender needs are to do with what people need to perform their current roles more easily, effectively or efficiently. And people themselves can usually identify them. Also, projects can be designed to meet the practical gender needs of both men and

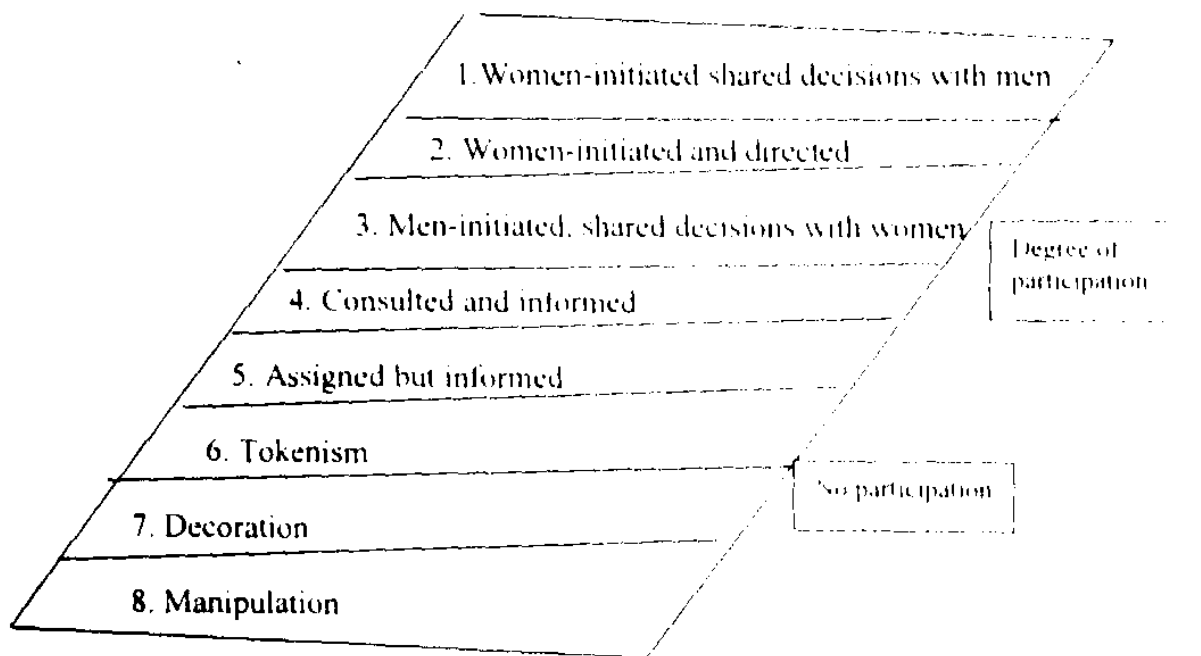
women without necessarily changing their relative positions in society. By contrast, women's strategic gender needs are concerned with changing the position of women. Most governments now endorse the need to improve the status of women and have policies of equity and equal opportunities (empowerment of women).

However, the cultural and legal status of women is still subordinate to that of men. For this reason, specific interventions must be undertaken to improve women's position in society. Women also perceive their needs as being practical and will focus on ways to make their day-to-day work easier. In trying to meet their practical needs, the underlying strategic needs will be identified; and progress can be made towards changing women's status in society.

The gender Needs and Roles Model will help to identify how effectively women combine these roles to generate income for their households and their own personal needs but has the weakness of not bringing out the differences in employment conditions and benefits at the workplace.

The Ladder of Participation Model, adopted from the well known essay on adult participation by Arnstein (1969) was quite relevant for the study. The Ladder suggests that there are 8 levels of women's participation in tourism projects. The Ladder has an advantage of looking at the areas and degree of women's participation in tourism in the country but a weakness of not examining the various levels for the dimensions or differences in employment. It does not address the perceptions about women employees in the hospitality industry.

**Figure 2.1 The Ladder of Participation Model ( Arnstein,1969)**



**Source: Ennew (1997)**



## **A Fusion of Sustainable Tourism Development Model and Community-Oriented Model (Eber, 1989 and Murphy, 1985)**

Women as agents of Sustainable Tourism Development can also be conceptualised using the Sustainable Tourism concept proposed by Eber (1989) and Community-Oriented Tourism Model by Murphy (1985). These models are discussed as follows:

***Integrating tourism into planning:*** tourism development, which is integrated into a national and local strategic planning framework, encourages local investment and employment of women.

***Supporting Local Economies:*** tourism that supports a wide range of local economic activities and which takes the community values into account should protect women's economic activities.

***Involving local communities:*** the full involvement of women in the tourism sector not only benefits them and their communities but also improves the quality of the tourism experience.

***Consulting Stakeholders:*** consultation between the tourism industry and local women and institutions is essential if they are to work alongside each other and resolve potential conflicts of interest.

***Human Resource Development:*** Staff training, which integrates sustainable tourism into work practices, along with recruitment of women at all levels, improves the quality of the tourist product.

This model only explains how tourism should contribute to the communities involved but failed to identify the areas women and men should benefit from tourism.

Massiah's (1993) gender analysis framework will be adopted for this study because:

1. It has some elements of other models discussed.
2. Its model will help to show the statistics of women in the tourism industry.
3. It brings the issue of perception about women in the lime light (Conceptual visibility & Subjective Visibility).
4. Finally, it mentions other research work on women issues (theoretical and statistical visibility).

This framework has been termed as the 'gender lens' by Prah (2002) because it is based on visibility and is based on three assumptions:

- i). Women and their roles have been traditionally accorded lower status in societies than men. Related to this assumption is the proposition that women bear an unequal share of social production work in relation to men and that productive work in exchange for cash in which men are involved to a greater degree than women, is accorded higher status than the social productive work of women.

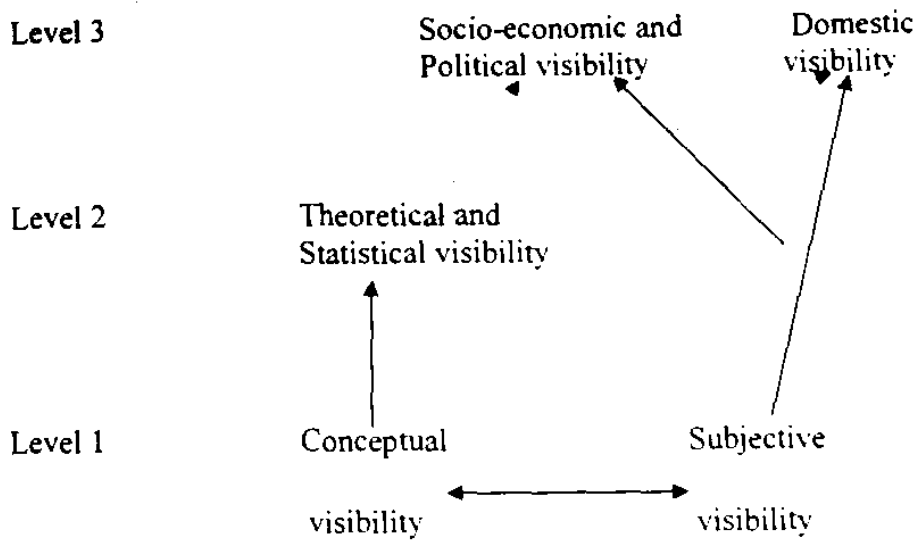
ii) Women's work includes economic and non-economic activities, both of which tend to be downplayed or ignored in the development literature of a region. Thus women, their activities, their problems and their concerns remain largely invisible to policymakers, planners and often to women themselves.

iii) The invisibility of women stems directly from a gender ideology, which adheres to a hierarchical and asymmetrical division of labour in favour of men, which is manifested in various ways and in different spheres of activity.

These assumptions together have contributed to the identification of five inter-related types of visibility operative at three different levels, each being a precondition of achieving a higher level. Movement from lower to higher levels need not be unilinear, but the direction of the movement represents a move from recognition of the existence of gender disadvantage to action designed to reduce or eliminate that disadvantage.

**Figure 2.2 Gender Analysis Framework (Massiah, 1993)**

**showing the relationships between levels of visibility.**



*Notes*

- Direct Flows
- Indirect contributions

**Source: Massiah, 1993**

Two types of visibility are in the first and basic levels. The first, according to Massiah (1993) is the Conceptual visibility, which represents the perception of external observers that a particular sex is subject to a gender disadvantage. This is evident in the prevailing gender ideology of a society, the extent to which that ideology is articulated and the way in which it operates. The other type of visibility, Subjective Visibility reflects the recognition by individuals

themselves of the contributing effects of gender domination on their own attitude, behaviour, material and emotional circumstances. The difference between the two types of visibility is essentially one of perceptions. Sometimes the perceptions of the researcher and the researched may coincide, but often they differ on several dimensions including problem diagnosis and the prescription of solutions.

The second level of the framework consists of theoretical and statistical visibility made possible by the generation and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data. This level of visibility stems directly from the conceptual visibility at level 1. This makes possible the identification of trends, patterns of gender domination and explains the mechanisms, which perpetuate that domination. One begins to understand how the gender system operates and the kinds of action needed in order to minimise elements of disadvantage.

The third and final level consists of two types of visibility; the socio-economic/political and the domestic. The former derives from increasing the power resources of the disadvantaged, from the removal of legal and political barriers to advancement and from the introduction of social policies designed to create an environment free of gender domination. This type of visibility flows directly from external action to the household.

Domestic visibility, based on the action at the individual and household level is reflected in a changing system of gender relations in which male and female roles are structured in a more egalitarian manner than previously. This level of visibility flows directly from the conceptual and subjective and indirectly from the theoretical and statistical.

Beyond the general question of identifying different types and levels of visibility is that of distinguishing between the visibility of women (or groups of women) and that of their problems. Some groups of women may be readily identified by conventional statistics. But in the absence of micro-level research, their problems, concerns and needs remain invisible. In the end, the group may have achieved a limited amount of statistical visibility (level 2) but without the identification and articulation of their problems and without the introduction of mechanisms to solve their problems, which will make their chances of moving up to level 3 visibility slim (Prah, 2002).

The use of the above framework will help to present women's visibility or invisibility in the formal sector of the tourism industry by identifying the patterns of statistical visibility and trends of gender domination and discrimination. Issues such as recruitment, placement, promotion, and training and development opportunities for both men

and women at the workplace will address this. It will be used to present the problems and concerns of women in the industry. Finally, it might help to suggest mechanisms that would minimise gender domination in the tourism industry. Its effects will be an upward movement to the third level of the framework.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **Research Methodology**

#### **3.1. Research Design**

The research design is based on the following premises:

- i). That there seems to be a problem with the status of female employment in the hospitality industry in Ghana
- ii) That the problem must be looked into vertically and horizontally using various methods of research instruments
- iii) That the probe must include an observational and /or preliminary investigation that will produce stimulus to fine-tune the research instruments to be used
- iv) That field responses shall be recorded and analysed quantitatively

As a result of the above model of inquiry, direct interviews and questionnaires were used to collect data on the perception of managers/supervisors and men in the hospitality industry about women in the industry and the conditions and problems under which women work.



Data for the research was obtained from secondary and primary sources. Secondary data were obtained from books, reports, journals, magazines and the electronic media. The primary source data was obtained from interviews using two sets of questionnaires.

Two survey instruments were used to collect the data for this research. The first one was a self-administered questionnaire, which involved collecting information from employees on their recruitment and employment background, promotion and career advancement opportunities, training and development opportunities. It also asked questions on gender equalities and inequalities at the work place, working conditions and relationships at the job place, attitude of both sexes towards work and their socio- demographic data.

The second instrument was a self-administered questionnaire to obtain information from management and/or proprietors on the type of establishment, employment and placement procedures, training and development programs for staff, attitude of employees towards work and gender equalities at the work place.

Both questionnaires had open and closed ended questions. The closed ended questions had multiple-choice answers. A Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 was also used in the questionnaire.

The target population for this study was all employees in the tourism industry of 18 years and above. Since this population could not be reached statistically, an accessible population from 260 hotel and restaurant establishments was used. This age group was targeted because that is the legal working age in the country. Data was collected from employers/managers or supervisors of women and male co-workers in the industry on their perception of women working in the hospitality and tourism the service industry.

### **3.2. Sampling procedure/sample size**

There are no records on the total number of employees in the hospitality industry. However, information exists on registered hospitality establishments in the country. The study was restricted to registered hotels in Accra. The number of registered hotels in Accra was 170 and that of restaurants was 90, giving a total of 260 establishments. A number of factors were considered in the selection of the sample. These were cost, time and resource availability. Both probability and non-probability sampling methods were used in the selection of the various samples. A proportional quota system was then used to select a sample of 26(10%) establishments for the study. The Table 3.1 shows the quota assigned.

**Table 3.1: Number of establishments and quota**

**assigned**

<b>Category</b>	<b>Total Number</b>	<b>Quota (10%)</b>
Hotels	170	17
Restaurants	90	9
Total	260	26

After the 10 % ( 26) of the total establishments comprising 17 hotels and 9 restaurants were selected, a stratified random sampling method was used to select an establishment. The GTB hotel and restaurant classifications were used as criteria for the stratification. Table 3.2 presents the samples from the classifications. Only three to five star hotels and grades one and two restaurants were selected because those establishments have well laid down procedure for employment as compared to the one, two star hotels and the guesthouses.

**Table 3.2 Sample of Hotel & Restaurant Employees and Managers**

<b>Class/Category</b>	<b>Total Number</b>	<b>Sample of Employees</b>	<b>Sample of managers</b>
<b>5-Star</b>	2	18	2
<b>4-Star</b>	2	18	2
<b>3-Star</b>	13	117	13
<b>Grade 1</b>	4	36	4
<b>Grade 2</b>	5	45	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>234</b>	<b>26</b>

Source: GTB, 2002

Each position/job in an establishment was further stratified into three levels namely: top level; middle level and lower level in order to capture employees at all levels in the establishment. At each level, a simple random sample was used to select at least one male and two women for interview. More women were interviewed since the study is about women; their opinions were needed more than the men. The proprietor or manager of the establishment was purposively interviewed. In sum, 260 individuals comprising 26 proprietors and 234 employees were selected for the study. However, 228 employees (78 men and 150 women) and 20 proprietors/employers were interviewed for this study.

### **3.3. Pilot Study**

Before the actual survey, a pilot study was carried out in Cape Coast in the first week of February 2003. Two sets of questionnaires were pre-tested on three hotels and two restaurants. The hotels and restaurants were selected on the basis of their grade and the three hotels and two restaurants were 3-star and grade one respectively. The pilot study offered the opportunity for the questionnaires to be reviewed and modified for final application in the study area.

### **3.4 Actual Field Work**

The actual fieldwork was carried out between the 17<sup>th</sup> of February and the 31<sup>st</sup> of March 2003. The researcher and two research assistants undertook the survey. A day's training on the administration of the questionnaires was conducted for the two research assistants. The selected establishments were divided for the researcher and the research assistants based on the location of the establishments. Ten questionnaires (nine employees and a manager or proprietor) for each establishment were given to a manager on duty to give out to the respondents at the various levels or the manager called the employees to be interviewed by either the researcher or the assistants. The exercise lasted for two months. There was 88% response rate which according to Sarantakos, (1998) is representative of any sample size.

The shortfall of 32 (12%) of the sample did not create any bias or affected the quality of the data.

### **3.5 Problems Encountered in the Field**

A number of problems were encountered during the fieldwork. These were financial, time human factors and inadequacy of a sample group, especially women.

The financial problems made it difficult for the researcher to reduce the number of visits to tourism establishments. The researcher had on some occasions to leave the questionnaires at some of the hotels because the employees were either busy or their supervisors/managers wanted to ensure that certain information about the company were not disclosed. The lack of money to visit a hotel for about four or more times before getting the questionnaires delayed the study.

There was also the problem of time whereby the researcher had to leave the questionnaires with the management to distribute. The respondents hardly had the time to fill them on the spot. I had to visit some establishments for not less than three times to retrieve questionnaires.

Front line staff or receptionists at most of the establishments were unwilling to talk and were sometimes uncooperative. The uncooperative attitudes of certain managers especially at the restaurants did not allow their employees to fill in the questionnaires. Some of them blatantly refused to complete the questionnaires on the grounds that it was against their policy. Those who accepted the questionnaires misplaced some of them and the researcher had to make photocopies for them. Also, some of the questions in the management questionnaire were not answered because the managers felt they were confidential and too detailed. They were afraid that their competitors will have access to their responses. The researcher had difficulty in trying to convince them that the study was purely academic. At the end, some gave the information needed but others did not.

Finally, there was also the problem of getting women at the top and middle levels of the employment ladder to fill the management questionnaire because some of the establishments did not have middle level management.

However, these problems did not in anyway affect the quality of the data collected because almost all the information needed to address the study were in the end gathered.

### **3.6. Data Analysis and Presentation**

The study is both descriptive and quantitative; as such percentages, measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion were employed to present the findings of the study. Data from questionnaires and interview schedules were processed with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). Percentages, graphs, tables and charts were used to present the results. Chi-square was used for the testing of hypotheses. The Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) was used for the following reasons. First, it is a non-parametric test. Second, the data presented were in the form of frequencies. And third, the observations were from independent sources. Hence, it would enable associations or relationships to be established between the variables identified.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### Employment and Working Conditions in the Hospitality Industry

#### 4.1 Socio-demographic characteristics of the Respondents

In all 228 employees were interviewed. They were made up of 150(66%) women and 78 (34%) men corresponding to 4.7 percent of the female population in Ghana which is employed in this industry as against only 1.2 percent of men.

##### 4.1.1 Age Distribution of Respondents.

Table 4.1 Age Distribution of Respondents.

Age (Years)	Number of Respondents	Percentage (%)
18-28	105	46
29-39	92	40
40-49	31	14
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

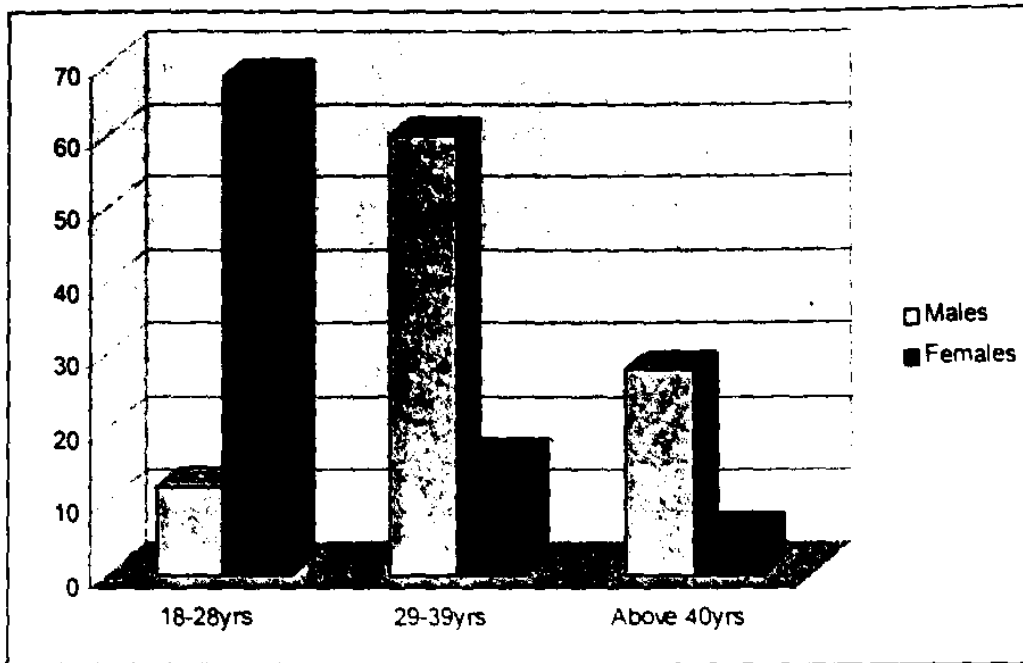
Source: Fieldwork, 2003

From Table 4.1, 46 percent (105) of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 28 years. While 40 percent (92) were between 29 and 39 year group and less than a quarter (14%) were between 40 and 49 years. A revelation of this nature is not surprising as about 40.2 percent of the population in the country is between 15 and 39 years

with 51.7 percent of the total population falling within the adult population of 18 years and above (Population and Housing Census, 2000). It also confirms the current conception that the hospitality industry employs young people.

To determine if there is a significant difference in men and women's age, the Chi Square ( $\chi^2$ ) was used. The  $\chi^2$  calculated is 24.887 with 3 degrees of freedom at alpha 0.00. Since the calculated  $\chi^2$  (24.887) is greater than the critical value for 3 degrees of freedom the null hypothesis is rejected. There is statistical evidence of a high difference in women and men's age in the hospitality industry. Figure 4.1 below exhibits the differences in men and women's age. Seventy-one percent of the women compared to only 10% of the men were between the ages of 18 and 28. Fifty-nine percent of the men against 12% of the women were found to be between 29 and 39 years old. Twenty-six percent of men compared 8% of the women were 40 years and above. The majority of respondents within the ages of 18 and 28 were women whereas most men were within 29 years and 39 years.

**Figure 4.1 Age distribution by Sex**



Source: Fieldwork 2003

#### **4.1.2. Educational Background of Respondents**

Out of the 228 respondents, 112 representing about 49 per cent, had had tertiary or post secondary education while 86(38%) had completed secondary education. On the other hand, less than 10 percent of the respondents had primary and no formal education. Only 13(6%) of the respondents had post tertiary education. This is presented in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2 Educational Background of Respondents**

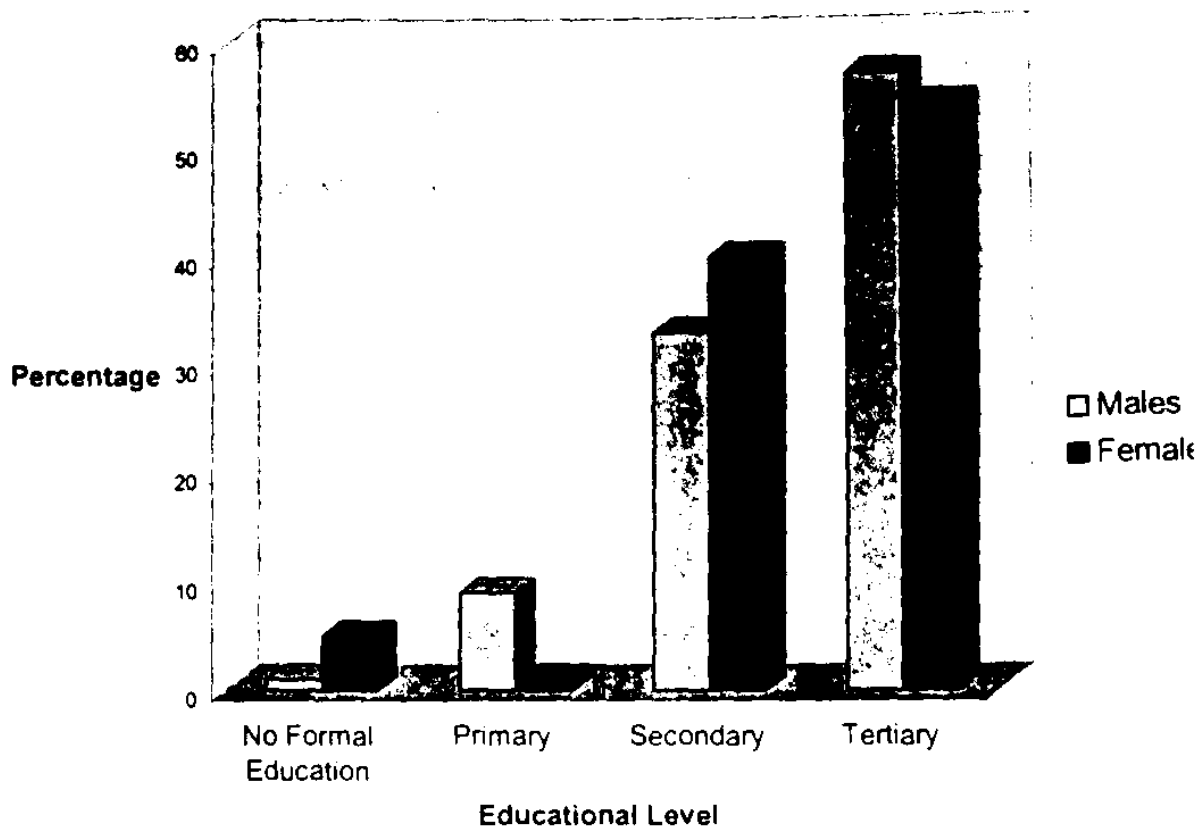
<b>Educational level</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
No Formal Education	9	4
Primary	8	3
Secondary	86	38
Tertiary	112	49
Post Tertiary	13	6
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

The higher educational background of respondents could provide the expertise which according to literature leads to high standards in the industry. Thus, according to Jones (1996), the hospitality industry in the UK lacked the expertise in the 1980s, which resulted in the poor quality standards.

Using Chi Square ( $\chi^2$ ) to test the statistical difference between men and women's educational background, the  $\chi^2$  calculated is 18.323 and 5 degrees of freedom at alpha 0.05. Since the  $\chi^2$  calculated falls within the critical value for 5 degrees of freedom of 0.05, it can be said that there is no significant difference in men and women's educational background. This is illustrated in figure 4.2.

**Figure 4.2 Education level by Sex**



From Figure 4.2, more than half of the male respondents (52%) had had tertiary or post secondary education and almost half the female respondents (48%) had had tertiary education as well. Nine per cent of the men had only primary education whereas only one per cent of

the women had had primary education. Five percent of the women and one per cent of the men had not gone through any formal education. Forty percent of the women as against 33% of the men went through secondary education. The percentage of men and women with post-tertiary education were 5% and 4% respectively.

All those with no formal education (9%) and those with primary education (8%) were found to be lower level staff. Fifty-seven percent of those with secondary education work at the lower level while 29% of them were in the supervisory level and only 3% (one person) at the management level. All those with post tertiary education were at the management level of the employment ladder.

**Table 4.3 Educational Specialisation by Sex**

<b>Educational Specialisation/Sex</b>	<b>% of Men</b>	<b>% of Women</b>
None	58	39
Accounting/Finance	8	0
Engineering	24	0
Catering	0	21
Management Studies	6	27
Security	4	0
Secretarial	0	6
Front Office	0	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>X<sup>2</sup> = 82.394</b> <b>Df = 11</b> <b>Sig. = .000</b>		

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From the Table 4.3 the  $X^2$  calculated is 82.394 with 11 degrees of freedom. At 0.000 significant level, it can be said that there exist a highly relationship between gender and educational specialization. From the Table 4.4, the women were found to have specialised in catering (21%), management studies (27%), front office and secretarial (7%). All the professional duties such as electrical and mechanical engineering (24%) and accounting (8%) were done by men. The study revealed that all the security personnel were men (4%) and all the front office agents and the secretarial studies were done by the women (6%). More than half (58%) of the male employees as against 39% of the women had not specialized in any area. This further exemplifies the fact that women tend to specialise in areas that are similar to their domestic roles like cooking and cleaning (Instraw and Joekes, 1987; Bullock, 1994; Jones, 1996 and Stutts, 2001).

#### **4.1.3. Marital Status of Respondents**

Fifty-one per cent of the respondents were single while the rest were married. This is so because the 46% of the respondents were young who fell within 18 and 28 years of age. According to the 2000 Population and Housing census, majority of Ghana's population are the youth. However, 44.8% of Ghana's population in the year 2000 was married as against 38.7 percent single people. Of those who were

within the ages 18 and 28, seventy-nine percent were single while the 64% of the married workers were within 29 and 39 years.

**Table 4.4 Marital Status by Sex**

Marital Status/Sex	% of Men	% of Women
Single	64	46
Married	36	54
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
$X^2 = 20.263$ Df = 3 Sig. = .000		

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

From Table 4.4, with the  $X^2$  calculated as 20.263 and 3 degrees of freedom, a 0.000 significant level indicates that the null hypothesis should be rejected. Meaning there is a high relationship between gender and marital status. From Table 4.4, Sixty-four per cent of the men as compared to forty-six per cent of the women were single whilst more than half of the women (54%) and 36% of the men were married.

#### **4.1.4. Monthly Income of Respondent**

More than half (52.6%) of the respondents refused to disclose their monthly income because income issues are very sensitive in the country. Of those who disclosed their income, less than a quarter (17.9%) were earning one million cedis and above. On the other hand,



67 respondents representing 29.3 percent were earning less than a million cedis as monthly income. This summarised in Table 4.5.

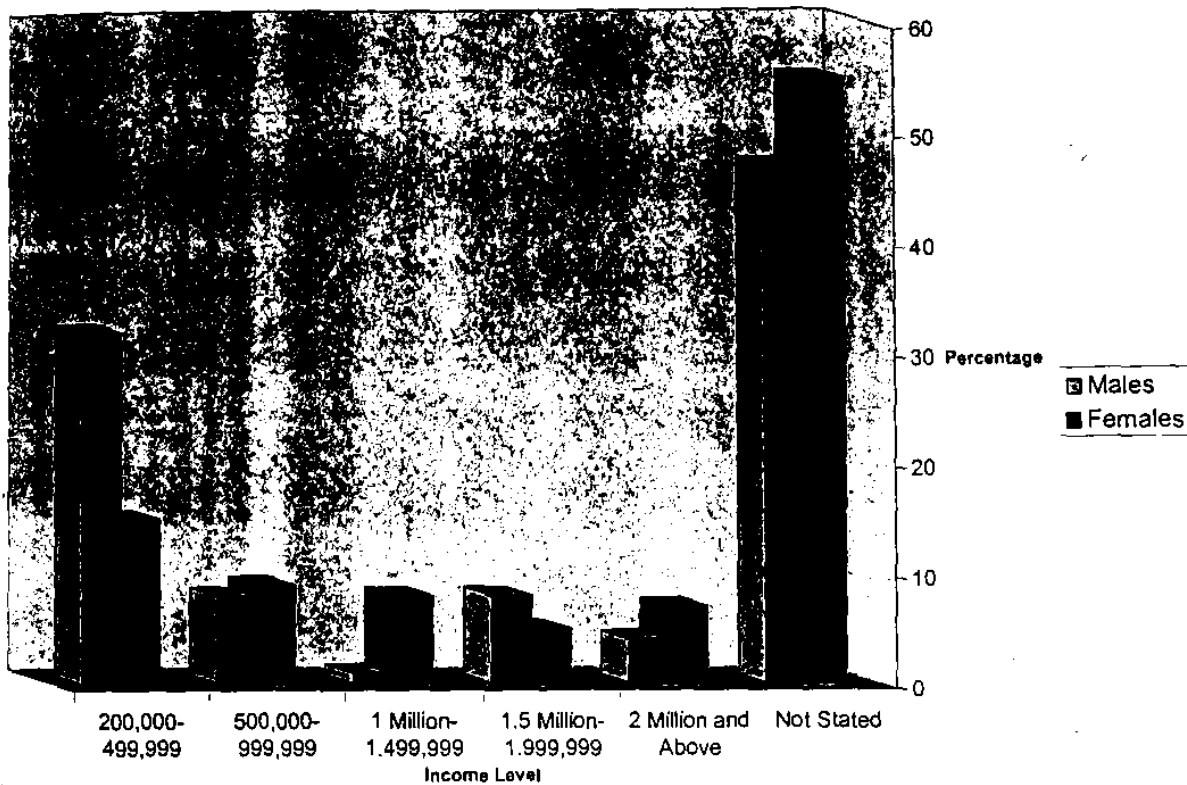
**Table 4.5 Income distribution of respondents**

<b>Income (Cedis)</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
200,000-499,999	48	21
500,000-999,999	19	8.3
1 million-1.499,999	13	5.7
1.5million-1.999,999	14	6.1
2 million and above	14	6.1
Not stated	120	52.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003.**

To determine if there is a significant relationship between gender and income, the Chi Square ( $\chi^2$ ) was used. The  $\chi^2$  calculated is 18.990 with 6 degrees of freedom at a significant level of 0.004. Since the calculated  $\chi^2$  (18.990) is greater than the critical value for 6 degrees of freedom the null hypothesis is rejected. There is a statistical evidence of a relationship between gender and income. Meaning there is a difference in the income of men and women. Figure 4.3 depicts these differences.

Figure 4.3 Income by Sex



Source: Fieldwork, 2003.

From Figure 4.3, thirty-two per cent of the men and 15% of the women earn less than 500,000 cedis. Seventeen per cent of the men against 22% of the women earn more than 500,000 cedis but less than 2 million cedis. Seven per cent of the women compared to only 4% of the men earn 2 million cedis and above. This goes on to support the idea that even when women and men do the same work at managerial levels, the remuneration for them differ. Women tend to receive lower wages than men (Bullock, 1994; Wiesner, (1995).

#### 4.1.5. Religious Background of Respondents

**Table 4.6 Religious Background of Respondents**

Religion/Sex	Males No. %	Females No. %	Total No. %
Christian	59 75	135 90	195 85.8
Muslim	0 0	9 6	5 2.2
Traditionalist	6 8	2 1	8 3.5
Other	13 17	4 3	20 8.3
Total	78 100	150 100	228 100

Source: Fieldwork, 2003.

From Table 4.6, eighty-five and half percent of the respondents were Christians while 2.2 percent were Muslims and 3.5 percent stated that they were traditionalists. About 20 respondents, representing 8.3 percent, stated they belong to other religions. This supports the national population census whereby majority (68.8%) of Ghanaians are Christians followed by Muslims (15.9%), traditionalists (8.5%) and other religions (0.7%).

All those who were Muslims were women (6%) whilst almost all the traditionalists were men (8%). The percentage of female Christians (89%) was higher than that of the men (78%). Also, all the traditionalists and Muslims were found to be working at the lower

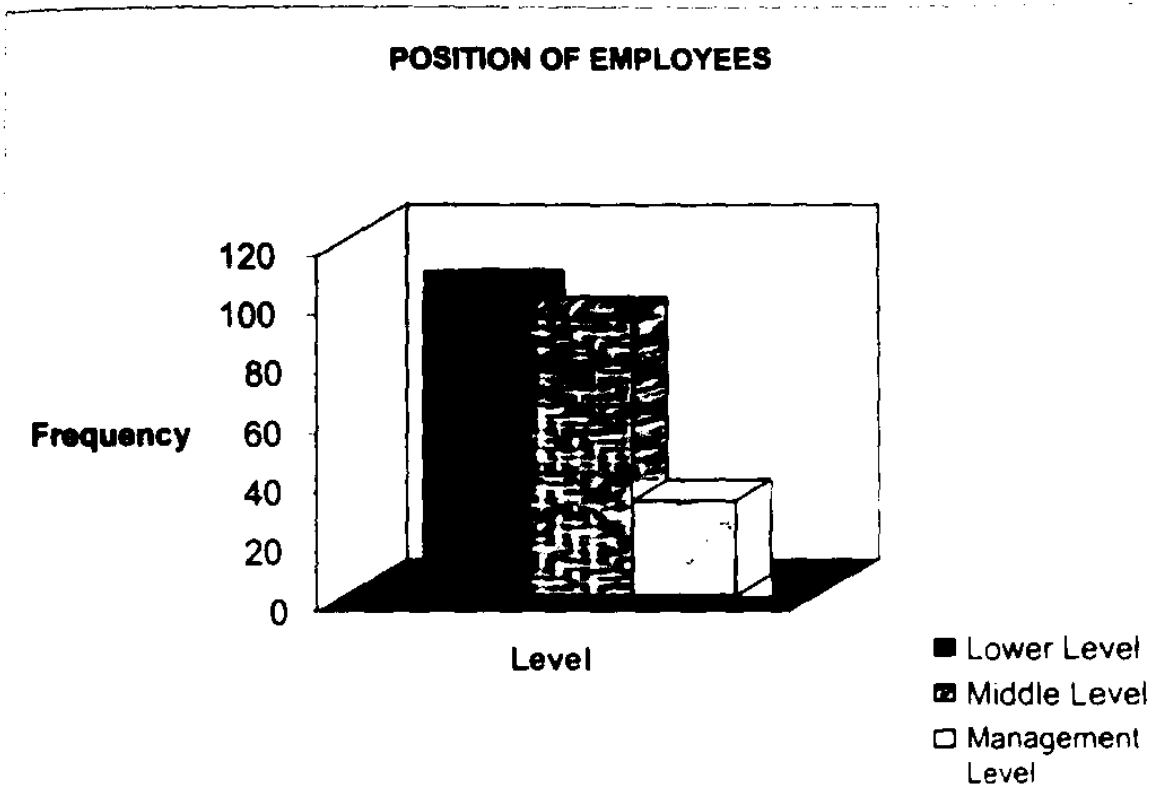
level of the employment ladder. None of them was found at the supervisory and management levels.

#### **4.2 Full time/Part time**

The study indicated that majority (96%) of the respondents were working full time as against only 4 percent working on a part time basis. This is in contrast with the literature which state that employment in the hospitality industry is mostly on part time basis (Jones, 1996). For instance a Labour Force Survey in 1992 in the UK revealed 63 percent of those employed in the industry work on part time. On the other hand it thus confirms the notion that most Ghanaians work as full time employees rather than part time employees.

### 3 Positions of Respondents

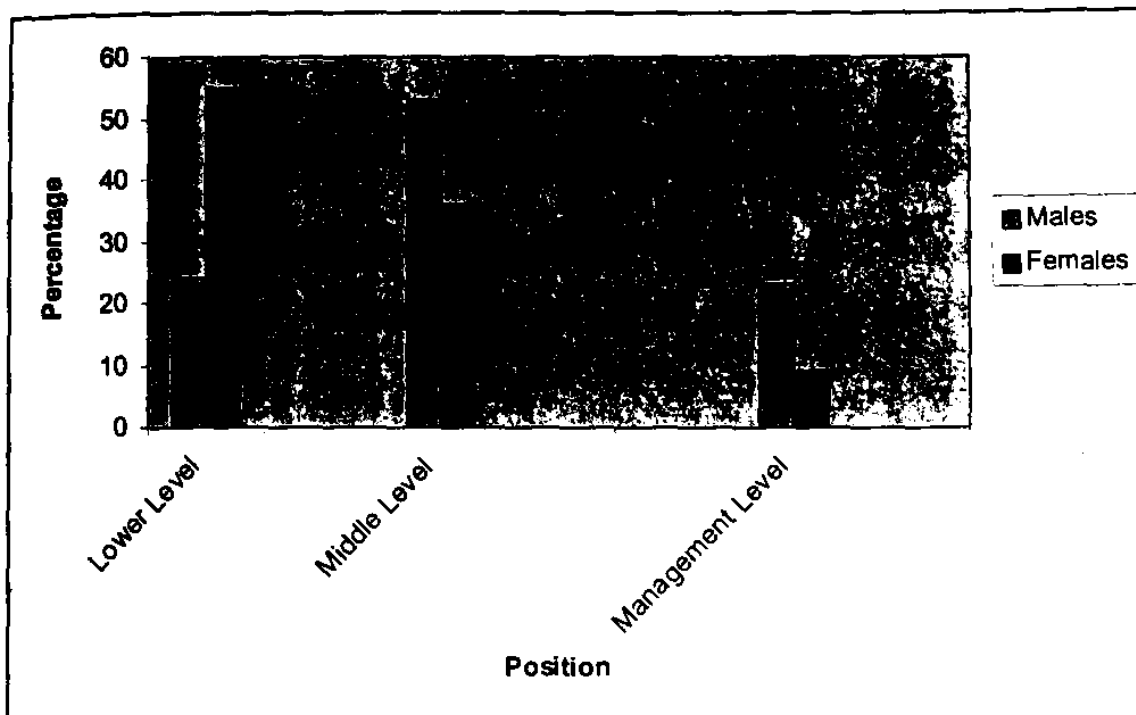
Figure 4.4 Positions of Respondents



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

From Figure 4.4, 102 respondents representing 45 percent were working at the lower level of the employment ladder as compared to 32 (14%) at top or management level with 94(41%) at the middle level position. Evidently, 17 percent of the workforce in United Kingdom's hospitality industry is in management positions.

**Figure 4.5 Positions by Sex**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

There is no significant relationship between gender and positions at the workplace. Thus,  $X^2 (3.228) = 6.663; p \leq 0.05$ , therefore, there is no significant difference in the positions occupy by both men and women in the hospitality industry. From Figure 4.5, fifty-five percent of the women compared to 24% of the men were found to be lower level employees while 53% of the male respondents against 36% of their female counterparts were middle or supervisory level staff. Less than 10% of the female respondents compared to 23% of their male colleagues were found at the upper level of the employment ladder. It

suggests that the difference in men and women's positions in the hospitality industry may be related to educational background or to long service in the industry. This is in contrast with the views of existing literature that states that women are mainly found at the lower levels of the employment hierarchy (Afshar, 1985; Woods, 2002). Eighty-four percent of those at the management level, 61% of those at the supervisory level and 26% of the lower level employees had had tertiary education.

In testing the hypothesis on whether there is a relationship between women's socio-demographic background (age, marital status and religion) and their positions at the work place or not, the Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) was used. A cross tabulation was then run for these variables (age, marital status and religion) against what is your position in this establishment?

For the age, the result of the Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) calculated was 37.812. At 3 degrees of freedom, 7.815 is required to obtain a significance level of 0.05. However, as 37.812 is greater than 7.815, the Null hypothesis that states that "there is no relationship between women's age and their positions at the work place" is rejected, so we accept the alternative hypothesis that there is a relationship between women's age and their position at the workplace.

**Table 4.7 Women's Age and Their Positions at the Workplace**

<b>Position/Age</b>	<b>% of 18-39 years</b>	<b>% of 40 years and above</b>
Lower Level	81	30
Middle Level	19	46
Top/High Level	0	24
Total	100	100
<b>Total Number</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>59</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From Table 4.7, eighty-one percent of the women between the ages of 18 and 39 years were found to be lower level staff while 19% of them occupy middle or supervisory level position and none of them found at the top level. Whereas, all the 14 top-level female staff were found to be either 40 years or above 40 years. Also, 30% and 46% of the female staff who were 40 years and above were found to be lower and middle level employees respectively. There is the tendency for women to be in higher positions as their age increases. This could be explained by the fact that women were employed at younger ages and they go through the employment ladder and get to the top at their old age or they go to higher institutions to study which takes more time before they are employed at the top level of the employment ladder in the hospitality industry. Another reason could be that employers prefer 'mature' or older (40 years and above) women to be in higher positions in the industry.



To determine whether there is a relationship between women's educational background and the positions they occupy in the hospitality industry or not, a  $\chi^2$  test was performed to test the second Null hypothesis that "there is no significant relationship between women's educational background and their positions at work. The  $\chi^2$  calculated was 23.391. At 4 degrees of freedom, 9.49 was obtained at a 0.05 significance level. Since the  $\chi^2$  calculated is greater than  $\chi^2$  from the table, we reject the Null hypothesis and accept the alternative one which states that there is a relationship between women's educational background and their positions at work.

**Table 4.8 Women's Educational Background and the Positions they Occupy**

Position/Education	No Formal Education	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
Lower Level	100	100	70	33
Middle Level	0	0	30	49
Top/High Level	0	0	0	18
Total	100	100	100	100
<b>Total Number</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>76</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

From the Table 4.8, all (100%) the women employees with both no formal education and primary education were found in the lower level category. Seventy percent of those who had secondary education were lower level staff while the 30% were middle level staff. Almost half (49%) of those with tertiary or post tertiary education were middle

staff while all the top level staff had either a tertiary or post tertiary education.

This might be explained that women spend more years in educating themselves in order to attain higher positions at the work place. For example, they spend about 12 years in the formal educational system so that by the time they complete their education, they are prepared to take up any higher position on the job market. It could also be that employers prefer highly educated women to occupy the top level positions since such positions require skills, analytical mind and specialized qualifications such as marketing and management. And those at the lower level positions such as waitresses, receptionists, housekeepers among others require lower educational qualifications. The 33% of those with tertiary education were found at the lower level of the employment ladder. This could be explained that employees with higher education but no experience go through all the levels of the ladder by starting from the lowest level.

Marital status and women's positions were also hypothesised that there is no significant relationship between women's marital status and their positions at the job place. Again,  $\chi^2$  was used to test this hypothesis. The results were that, the  $\chi^2$  calculated was 10.765. At 3 degrees of freedom, 7.815 was obtained at 0.05 significant level. The

Null hypothesis that 'there is no significant relationship between women's marital status and their positions at the work place' was rejected since the calculated  $\chi^2$  is greater than the  $\chi^2$  from the table. The alternative hypothesis that 'there exist a relationship between women's marital status and their positions at the job place' was accepted. Table 4.9 can be used to explain the relationship.

**Table 4.9 Marital Status of women and their Positions at the Workplace**

<b>Position/Marital Status</b>	<b>% of Single</b>	<b>% of Married</b>
Lower Level	60	43
Middle Level	36	41
Top/High Level	4	16
Total	100	100
<b>Total Number</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>79</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From the Table 4.9, almost all (12 out of the 14) the top level staff were married while about 60% of those who were single were lower level staff compared to 45% of married women at the lower level. Also, 36% of those who were single in comparism with 43% of married women were occupying the middle level of the employment ladder. This could be explained by the fact that most of the women occupying the top positions were 'old' hence, the tendency for them to be married is high or employers prefer married women to occupy top-level positions at the work place.

**Table 4.10 Position and Income**

<b>Income (Cedis)/ Position</b>	<b>% of Lower- level Staff</b>	<b>% of Middle- level Staff</b>	<b>% of Management- level Staff</b>
200,000-499,999	35	13	0
500,000-999,999	6	14	0
1m- 1.499,999	5	9	0
1.5m- 1.999,999	0	13	6
2m and above	0	2	35
Not stated	54	49	49
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

From Table 4.10, thirty-five percent of the lower-level employees and 13% of the middle-level staff earned less than 500,000 cedis. Fourteen percent of the supervisory staff and only 6% of the junior staff earned more than 500,000 cedis but less than 1 million cedis. None of the management staff earned less than 1.5 million cedis.

On the question of the type of work they were doing, most of them were found to be working as waiters/waitresses, shop attendants, security and housekeepers (lower level) whereas only a few were in the technical section such as engineering, accounting and other managerial positions (middle level and management levels).

**Table 4.11 Employees and their Departments/Sections**

<b>Section/Department</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Accounts/Management	69	30.2
Sales/Marketing/Retail	46	20.2
Food and Beverage	32	14.0
Front desk /Guest Relations	42	18.4
Security	12	5.3
Housekeeping	11	4.8
Transport/Maintenance	16	7.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

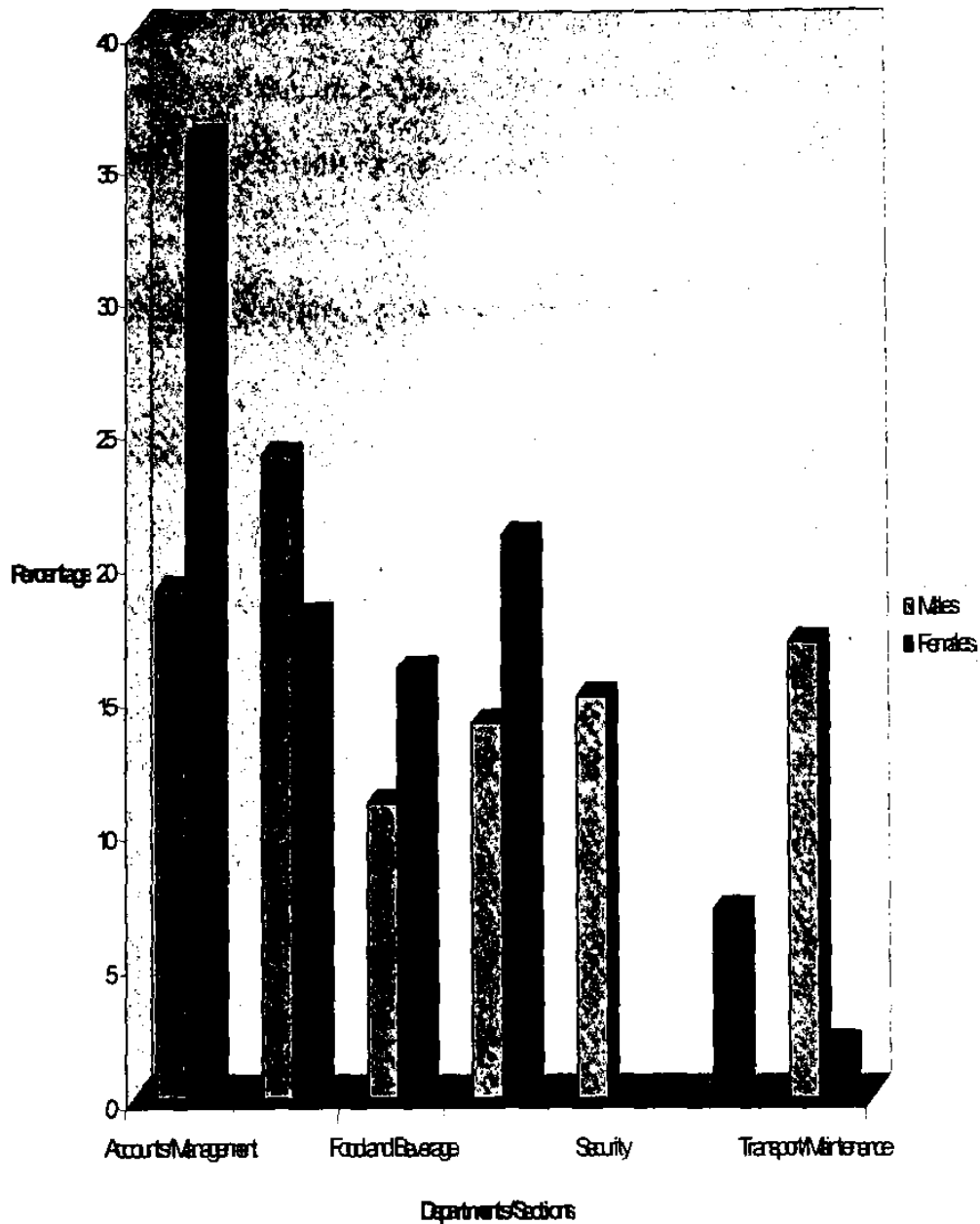
From Table 4.11, 69 respondents representing 30% were found to be working in the accounts and management sections. 20% were in the sales/marketing and retail sections while 14% and 18% were in the food and beverage and front desk sections respectively. Only 5% were in housekeeping.

#### **4.4 Gender Differences in Departments/Sections**

The study found out that there is a highly significant relationship between gender and the departments in which employees work. Statistically, with  $X^2 (9, 288) = 62.488: p > 0.05$ , it can be concluded that there are differences in the departments in which men and women

work in the hospitality industry. Figure 4.6 discusses the gender differences in departments.

**Figure 4.6 Gender differences in the departments**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

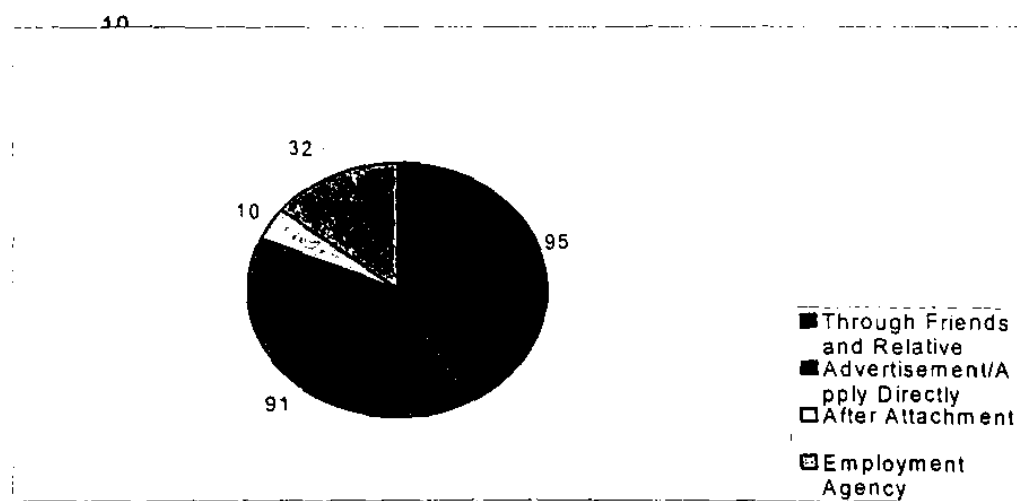
From Figure 4.6, thirty-six percent of the women compared to 19% of the men were found in the accounting and human resources departments. Men solely occupied the security section while the

housekeeping department was found to employ only women. Twenty-one percent of the women were found to be working as front desk agents as against 14% of their male counterparts. These findings strengthens existing literature (Little, 1993; Bullock, 1994; Offei-Aboagye, 1996) on horizontal sex segregation at the workplace

#### 4.5 Mode of Recruitment of Respondents

When respondents were asked to indicate how they were recruited, 95 of them representing 41.7% indicated that they were recruited through friends and relatives. 91 (39.9%) of them also said they responded to an advertisement while only 10 (4.4%) were recruited after an industrial attachment. Interestingly, 14 percent were employed with the aid of an employment agency. This presented in Figure 4.7.

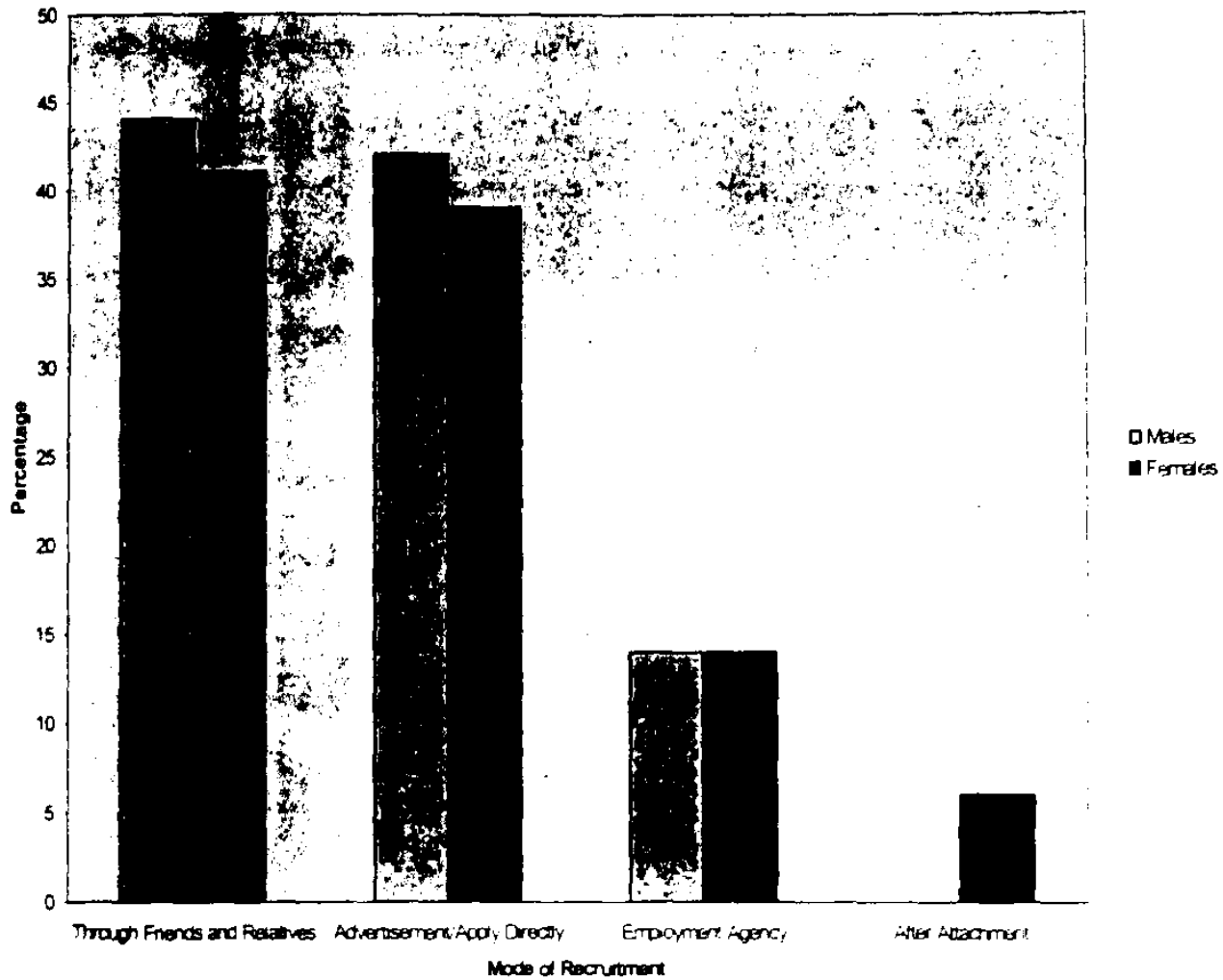
Figure 4.7 Mode of Recruitment of Employees



Source: Fieldwork, 2003



Figure 4.8 Mode of Recruitment by Sex



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

From Figure 4.8, forty-four percent of the men and 41% of the women were employed through friends and relatives. Forty-two percent of the men and 39% of the women applied directly to the establishment or responded to an advertisement by the establishment.

The study revealed that only women (6%) stayed with the establishment to work after their attachment or internship with the property.

Of those who were recruited through friends and relatives, 52% were lower-level employees, 37% of the middle-level and 21% of the management staff. Nineteen percent of those who stayed with the establishment after their industrial attachment or internship were management personnel.

Employers or managers were asked to indicate how they recruit their staff. Twenty-five percent of them said, through friends and relatives, 20% through advertisement, 10% through an employment agency, 10% through employee referral and 35% use a combination of these modes. This is presented in Table 4.12.

**Table 4.12 Employers'/Managers' Mode of Recruitment**

<b>Mode of Recruitment</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Advertisement	4	20
Friends and Relatives	5	25
Employment Agency	2	10
Employee Referral	2	10
Combination	7	35
<b>Total</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

The study revealed that the establishments that use employee referral were the restaurants. Only the four and five-star hotels do recruitment through advertisement.

#### **4.6 Criteria for Placement of Respondents**

Respondents were also asked to indicate further the criteria they considered as important for their placement on the job. Nearly half (48%) of them considered a combination of education, experience, communication skills and personality as the basis of their recruitment and placement on the job. Another 24% cited education and experience. On the other hand, less than 5 percent considered physical appearance and communication skills as the basis for their placement and less than 2 percent of them indicated that they did not know the basis on which they were placed on their current positions.

Forty percent of the men as compared to 14% of the women believe their experience was the criteria used to determine their placement in the department or section they are currently working. On education as a criterion, 25% of women against 15% of men think education was the criteria. But the majority (55%) of the female compared to 35% of male said their placement on their departments/section was based on a combination of factors such as education, experience, common personality and beauty.

From the managers' point of view, 35% of them use employees' experience as a criterion for placement, 30% use educational qualification, 20% use the person's personality and 10% use vacancy availability as placement criteria.

Modes of recruitment and criteria for placement have played a major role in the advancement of women in the industry. Recruitment based solely on merit does not affect job placement and advancement. However, recruitment based solely on female bias irrespective of education or experience was observed to have negative effects on female advancement in the industry since there can be no basis for advancement.

#### 4.7 Promotion of Employees

**Table 4.13 Promotion of Employees**

<b>Have You been Promoted?</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Yes	121	53.1
No	107	46.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

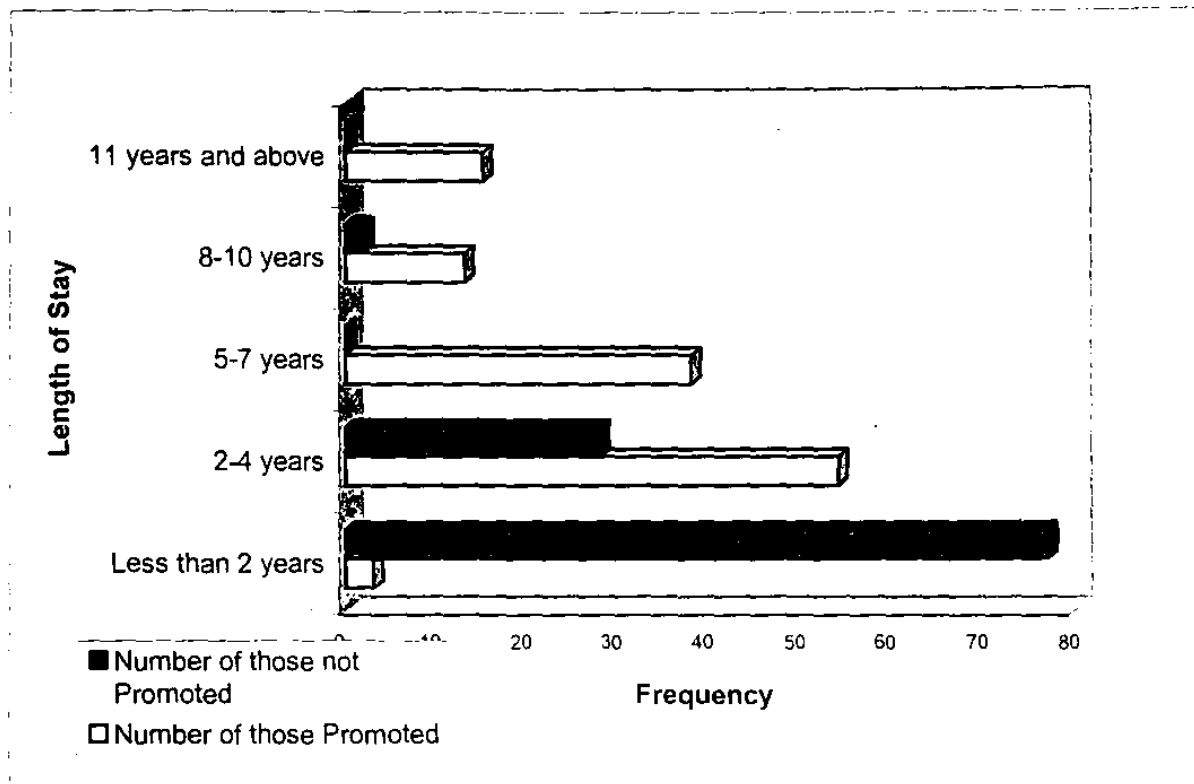
On the question of whether employees have experienced any form of promotion since they joined the establishments, Table 4.13 presents the following, of the 228 respondents, 121 (53.1%) of them stated that they had experienced some form of promotion or career advancement while 107 (46.9%) said they had not experienced any form of promotion or career advancement since they joined the establishments.

With  $X^2 (1, 228) = 6.487$ :  $p \geq 0.05$ , it can be said that there is a significant difference in the promotion of men and women at the workplace. Sixty-five percent of the men had experienced promotion or career advancement since they joined their various companies compared to 47% of women. Majority of the women (53%) had not had any form of promotion since they joined the company. Even though the general conception that women in the hospitality industry have no prospects for advancement (Bullock, 1994), the study revealed that education and job experience play a major role in the advancement of women in the industry.

On the issue of the number of years worked before promotion, almost all the respondents who had been working for less than two years had not experienced any form of promotion with only three of them (less

than 2 years) being promoted whilst the majority of those who had been promoted had stayed with the establishment for two years and above. This is presented graphically in Figure. 4.9.

**Figure 4.9 Number of Years worked before Promotion**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

In determining the criteria for promotion, of those who have been promoted (121 respondents), 37 percent of them cited good performance, hard work and competence as the criteria used for their promotion while 26% indicated experience as the criterion for their advancement. Twenty-seven percent did not know the criteria used for their promotion. This is presented in Table 4.14.

**Table 4.14 Criteria for Promotion**

Criteria/ Sex	Males		Females		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Education	7	12	0	0	6	5.0
Experience	19	31	26	23	32	26.4
Competence, Hardwork and Good Performance,	16	26	50	44	44	36.4
Vacant Position	7	12	0	0	6	5.0
Don't Know	12	19	38	33	33	27.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>114</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>121</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2003.

Using  $X^2 (2, 288) = 2.517$ ;  $p < 0.05$ , it can be said that statistically there is no significant relationship between gender and the perception of employees about the criteria for promoting them. These gender differences are illustrated in Table 4.14.

The percentage of men and women who agreed that the procedure for the promotion of men and women are the same were almost equal (That is, 78% and 76% respectively). This is in contrast with what the literature says that there is "glass ceiling" in career advancement for women at the workplace.

From Table 4.14, forty-four percent of the women compared to 26% of the men believed that their promotion was based on competence, hard work and good performance while 31% of the men and 23% of

the women thought it was their experience. Twelve percent each of the men said education and the availability of a vacant position were the criteria for their promotion while none of the women thought so.

A further question was asked as to how long those who had been promoted stayed in their previous position before promotion. As many as 53 (43.8%) said they stayed between 2 and 4 years. Only 3 of them, representing 4.1 percent, said they stayed for more than 11 years. On the other hand, 41 out of them (33.9%) had stayed less than 2 years in their previous positions.

On the other hand, of those who said no to the question of whether they had been promoted or not, as many as 40.1 percent of them gave the reason that, they had just started work while 11.2 percent for reasons of education and experience, said it was not possible to move up at their positions. 18.7% percent said their promotion was not due whereas 30 percent did not know the reasons why they had not been promoted. Table 4.15 presents the findings.

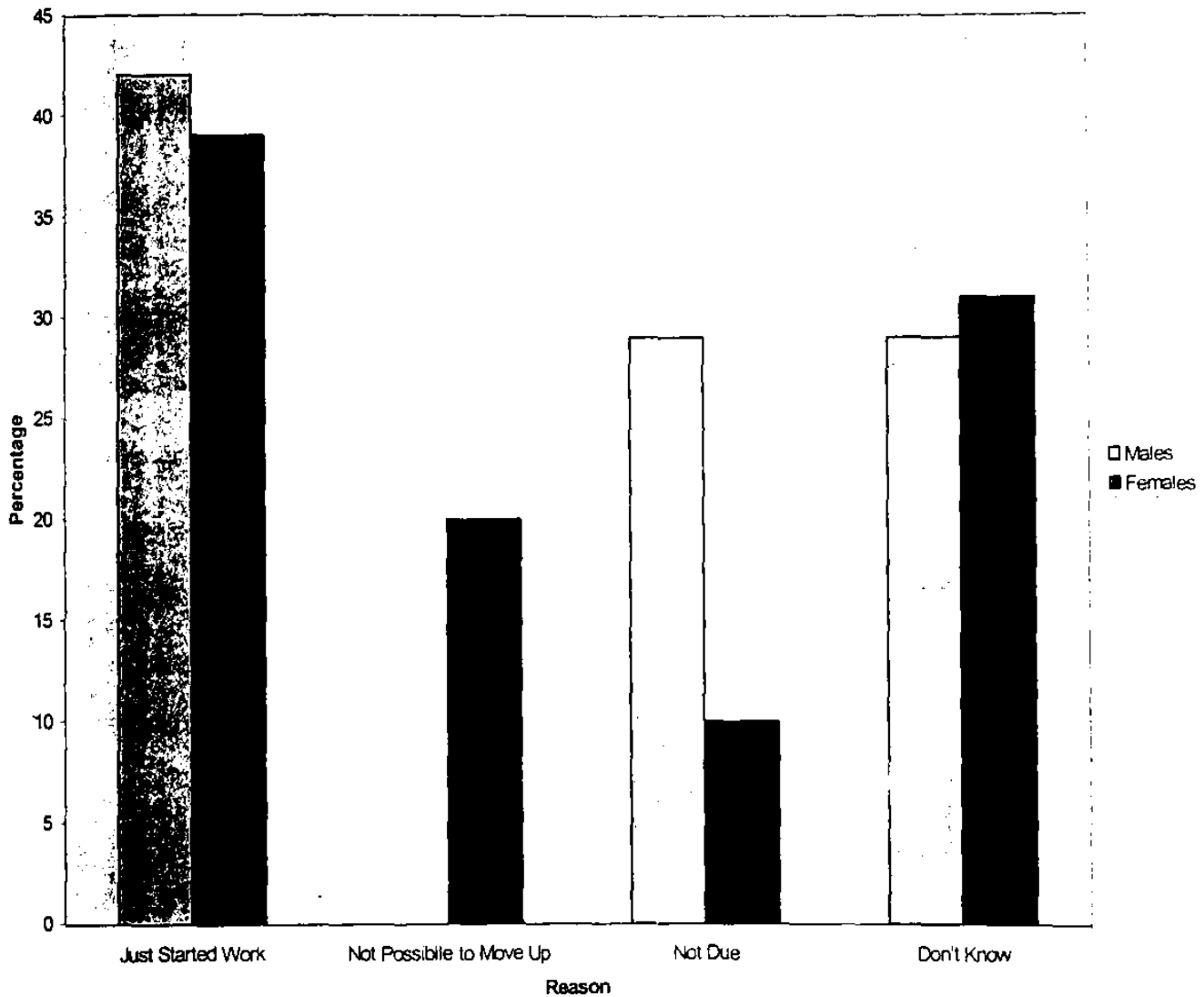


**Table 4.15 Reasons for not being promoted**

Reason	Number of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Just started work	43	40.1
Not Possible to move up	12	11.2
Not Due	20	18.7
Don't Know	22	30.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>107</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

**Figure 4.10 Reasons for No Promotion by Sex**



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

From Figure 4.10, forty-two percent of the men against 39% of the women who had not been promoted believed that it was because they had just started working with the establishment that is why they had not been promoted. All those who said it was not possible to move up the career ladder in the establishment were women (20%) while 29% of the men and 10% of the women said they were not due for promotion. For the women (20%), it was quite clear that their advancement was hampered by their low educational levels and lack of experience on the job, as has already been stated.

#### **4.8 Procedure for the Promotion of Respondents**

Respondents were asked to indicate whether the procedure for the promotion of men and women were the same. 175 respondents representing 77% answered in the affirmative while 53 respondents representing 23% answered in the negative. Surprisingly, both men and women agree that the procedure for the promotion of men and women are the same in contradistinction to the views of Bullock (1994).

#### **4.9 Reasons for Inequalities in Promotion**

Those who said No to the question of whether the procedure for the promotion of men and women are the same (53 respondents), 34 percent of them were of the view that certain positions in their

establishments were solely for men and that women were not allowed to occupy such positions. Twenty-eight percent thought that men are more hardworking than women as such they are promoted frequently than women. Twenty percent also observed that men are more preferred while 18 percent said women are more preferred than men. Table 4.16 presents these reasons. These reasons are mere perceptions since the study did not find any statistical evidence to prove that any inequalities in promotion are deliberate.

**Table 4.16 Reasons for Inequalities in Promotion**

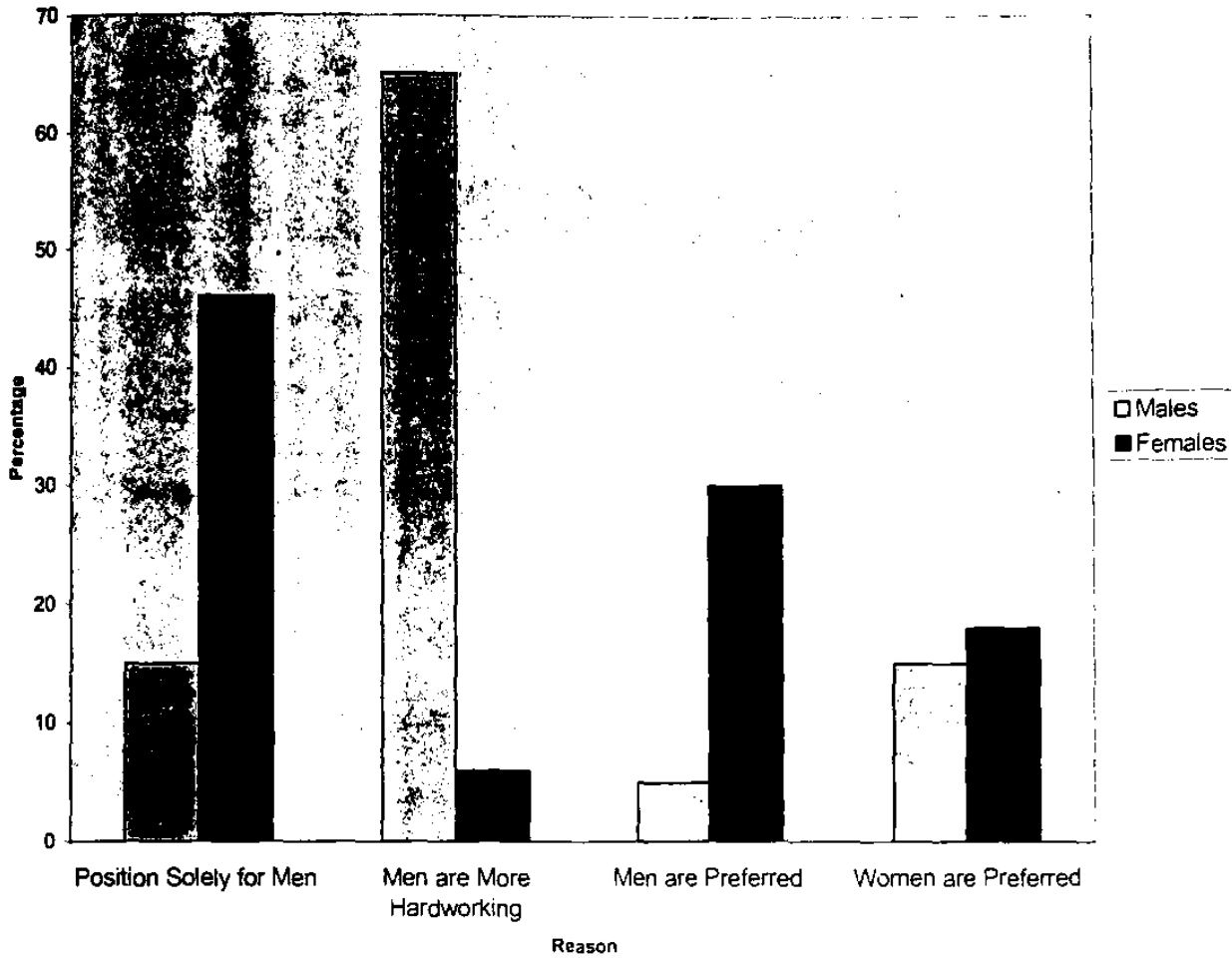
<b>Reason</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage of Respondents</b>
Position solely for Men	18	34
Men are More hardworking	15	28
Men are preferred	11	20
Women are preferred	9	18
<b>Total</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From Figure 4.11, 46% of the women compared to 15% of the men of those who believed that there are inequalities in the procedure for the promotion of men and women expressed that some positions are solely for men. Sixty-five percent of the men compared to only 6% of the women thought men are more hardworking than women. Thirty

percent of the women also believed that men are preferred to the women when it comes to promotion. These reasons are subjective and may need further investigation as the study did not identify any policy in gender promotion in the industry.

**Figure 4.11 Promotion Inequalities by Sex**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

#### **4.10 Opportunity for Training and Development**

Respondents were asked to indicate whether they had had any opportunity for training or development since they joined the establishment. As many as 152 (67%) respondents said they had had some sort of training while 76 (33%) said they had not had any form of training or development.

**Table 4.17 Respondents who had gone through training**

<b>Had Training?</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Yes	152	66.7
No	76	33.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

With  $X^2 (2, 288) = X^2: p > 0.05$ , there is a significant relationship between gender and training opportunities in the hospitality industry. Surprisingly, the percentage of women who had had training since they joined the organizations was more (71%) than men (58%). Thus more women have been trained than men. This is in contrast with the observation that women do not benefit from training programmes to the same extent as their male counterparts (Ardayfio-Schandorf, 1991).

#### **4.11 Types of Training for Respondents**

The study further revealed that, of those who had had some sort of training (152 respondents) 39 percent of them had on- the -job training, 36 percent had an internal organized training while 20 percent had attended training programmes organized outside their

establishments. Only 5 percent had benefited from the entire training programmes, both internally and externally. This is presented in Table 4.18.

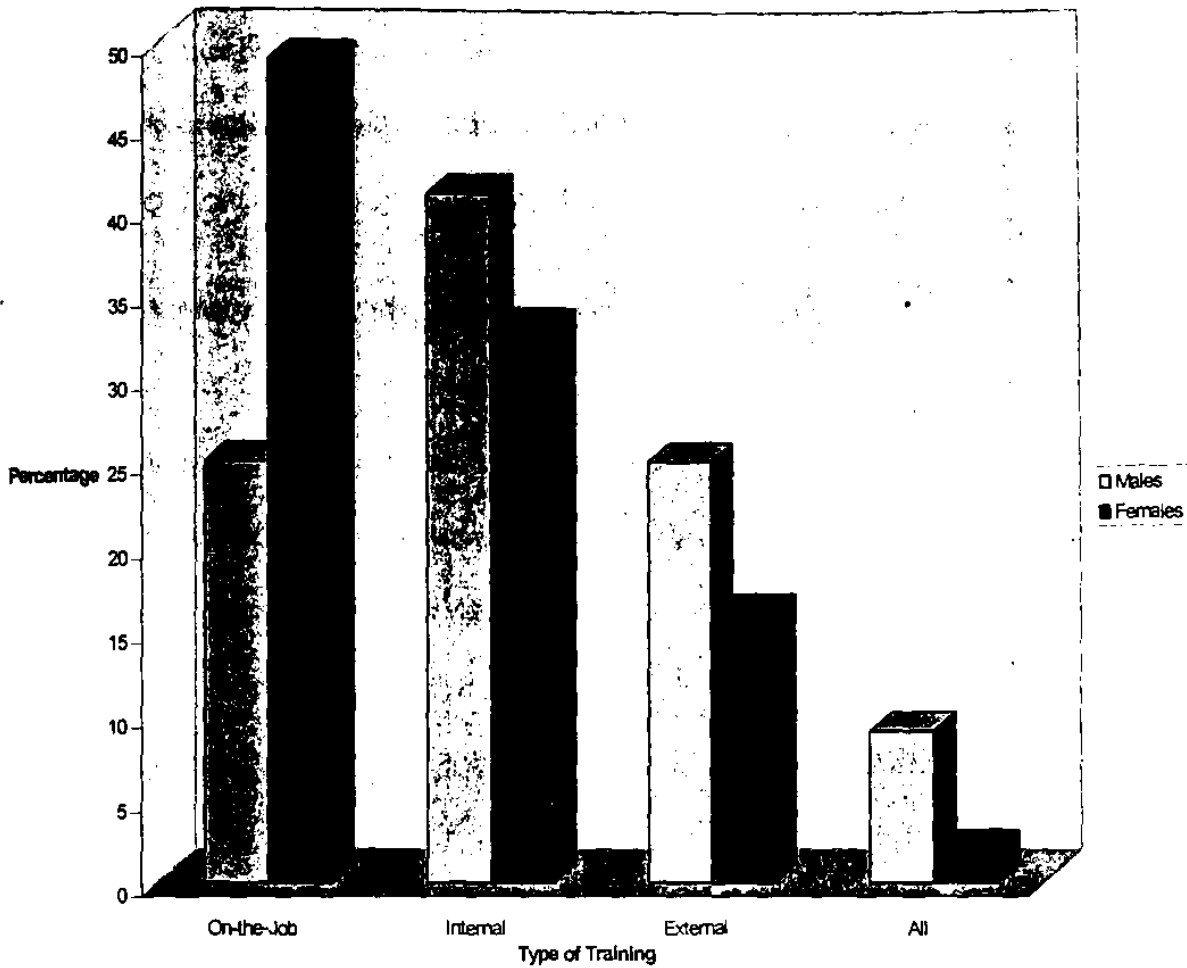
**Table 4.18 Types of Training**

Type of Training	Number of Respondents	Percentage (%)
On- the- Job	59	39
Internally Organised	55	36
Externally Organised	30	20
All	8	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Forty-nine percent of the women against 25% of the men had training on the job. Forty-one percent and 9% of the men compared to 33% and only 2% of the women went through internally organized training and all the types of training respectively. Twenty-five percent of the men and 16% of their female counterparts benefitted from external training. This is presented in Figure 4.12.

**Figure 4.12 Types of Training by Sex**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

#### **4.12 Respondents who had not had any training**

Of those who had not had any training since they joined the establishment, 40 percent of them said they do not know the reason why they had not had any training opportunity. Whereas 20 percent gave the reason that they had just started work and they think the time is not due for any training, 17 percent were of the view that their job does not require any form of training.



Almost all the women did not know the reasons why they had not had training and 64% of the men are of the same view. However, 14% of the men believe that the time is not due for training because they had just started working with the establishment. Another 14% said their organization does not have specific training programs for them.

It came out from managers/employers that all employees go through training in their establishments. On the types of training for employees, it was found out that management staff usually attend external training programmes while some supervisory and all the lower level employees benefit from internally organised training programmes. It was clear from the study that each facility has a scheduled plan for the training of both junior and senior staff.

#### **4.13 Working conditions of respondents**

Working condition are all those facilities and the atmosphere at the work place for employees such as salary, relationships at the workplace, accommodation facility, study leave, opportunity for training and development, medical care facility, promotion, social security and the general working environment.

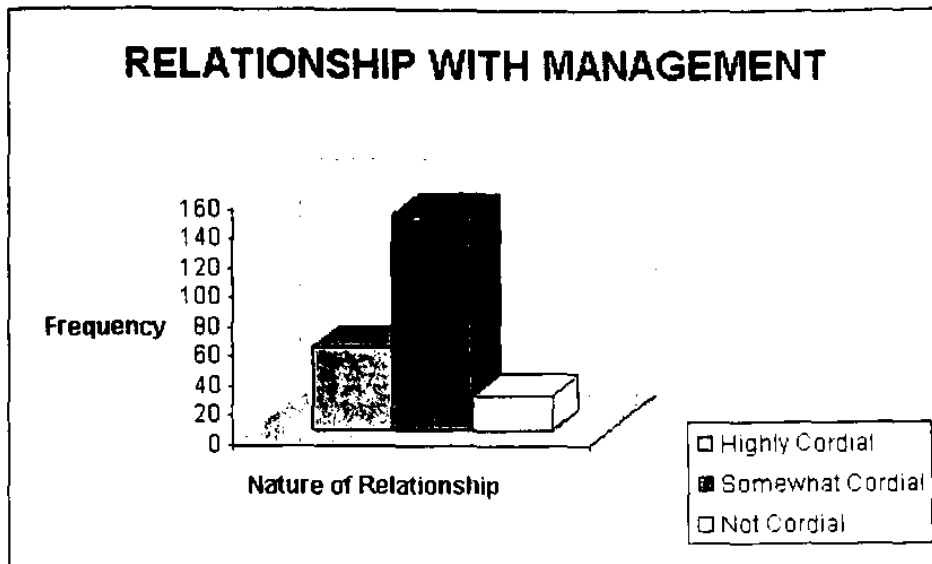
Employees were also asked to describe the conditions under which they work that is, whether they were satisfied or dissatisfied. Eighty (80%) of the respondents indicated that they were dissatisfied with the

kind of conditions under which they were working with the remaining 11% showing satisfaction whilst 9% did not respond to the question perhaps for fear of victimization by management. With  $\chi^2 (3, 228) = 8.692$ ;  $p \geq 0.05$ , it can be said that, there is a slight relationship between gender and perception about conditions of work at the workplace. The perception about the conditions of work differs between men and women. Eighty-one per cent (81%) of women and 72% of men described the conditions under which they work as not satisfactory. Only 23% of men and 9% of women said the conditions were highly satisfactory. This can be explained by the gender segregation at the workplace, where women found themselves in one area and men in another area. Thus the conditions pertaining in the areas women work may not be satisfactory compared to the areas men found themselves.

#### **4.14 Reasons for Dissatisfied conditions**

Some of the reasons given for the dissatisfied conditions were low salary, management's refusal to listen to their complaints and dangerous working environment. On the other hand those who were satisfied stated their love for the job, good working conditions among others as the reasons for their satisfaction.

**Figure 4.13 Employees' Relationship with Management**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

On the issue of employees' relationship with management at the workplace, those who said they had a high cordial relationship from Figure 4.13, were 25 percent whereas those who had somewhat cordial and not cordial relationships were 65.5 percent and 10.5 percent respectively. Forty-six per cent (46%) of the men and just 11% of the women described the relationship between them as workers and their management as highly satisfactory while 71% of the women and 54% of the men said it was satisfactory. It was only the women (18%) who said the relationship between them and management was not satisfactory.

#### **4.15 Respondents' willingness to continue work in the establishment**

Respondents were also asked to indicate whether they would want to continue in their various establishments. Their responses are presented in Table 4.19

**Table 4.19 Recommending more women to work in the hospitality industry**

<b>Answer</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Yes	175	76.8
No	39	17.1
Not Stated	14	6.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From Table 4.19, 175 (76.8%) of the respondents said yes and 17.1 percent said no while 6.1 percent did not state their opinion. Eighty-three per cent (83%) of men as compared to 73% of the women stated that they would continue to work in the establishment. This could be due to the fact that, there are no jobs available in the country and people would stick to what they have than not having anything even though the conditions are not satisfactory. Those who are willing to

continue work in their establishments gave reasons such as challenging nature of their jobs, good working environment and more importantly they did not have anywhere to go. Many of those who said 'no' want to try a different industry. Others want to continue their education and some were of the opinion that the work is risky.

Eighty-two percent of the male population compared to 74 percent of the women stated that they would continue to work in their various establishments. And 23 percent of the women do not want to continue work at where they are currently working as compared to only six percent of the men. This shows that more women want leave their current jobs. It reinforces the findings from employers that the rate of labour turnover is higher with women than men.

#### **4.16 Benefits enjoyed by Employees at the Workplace.**

##### **4.16.1 Accommodation Facility**

The study sought to find out the sort of benefits available to employees as part of their conditions of service at the workplace. Respondents were asked to give their opinion whether they agree that men and women get the same accommodation and other facilities at the workplace. It came out that as many as 172 respondents representing 75.4 percent agreed while 4.8 percent did not agree. Others (19.8%) expressed no opinion.

With  $X^2(3, 228) = 1.889; p \leq 0.05$ , there is no significant relationship between gender and accommodation as an employment benefit. Both men and women agree that the sexes should get the same accommodation facility. Table 4.20 presents the gender differences in response.

**Table 4.20 Accommodation Facilities by Sex**

Response	% of Men	% of Women	% Total
Agreed	73	77	75.5
Disagreed	3	6	4.8
No Opinion	24	17	19.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
Total Number	78	150	228

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From Table 4.20, Seventy-seven percent of the women and 73% of the men agreed that both sex get the same accommodation facility at the workplace while 6% of the women and 3% of the men disagreed with the statement. And 24% men and 17% women had no opinion on the statement. The difference that exists is by chance but do not exist.

#### **4.16.2 Salary Advancement**

More than half (50.9%) of them disagreed with the statement that men and women receive the same salary advancement, whilst 42.2 percent did agree and 7 percent had no opinion on it. To test if there is

significant relationship between gender and salary increase at the workplace.  $X^2 (3, 228) = 25.131$ ;  $p \geq 0.05$  was obtained. Therefore, there is a strong relationship between gender and the idea of salary advancement. Table 4.21 presents the gender differences in responses.

**Table 4.21 Salary Advancement by Sex**

<b>Response</b>	<b>% of Men</b>	<b>% of Women</b>	<b>% Total</b>
Agreed	23	52	42.2
Disagreed	69	41	50.9
No Opinion	8	7	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
Total Number	78	150	228

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From Table 4.21, fifty-two percent of the women against 23% of the men agreed that men and women do not receive the same salary/salary advancement. Whereas 69% of the men and 41% of the women disagreed meaning that both sexes receive the same salary/salary advancement. Almost the same percentage of men (8%) and women (7%) were neutral. This further beefs up the fact that women and men's salaries wages are not the same but the interesting issue here is that, it was the majority of the men (69%) who disagreed that salary advancement for the sexes are the same.

#### 4.16.3 Days off/Study Leave

On whether men and women are entitled to the same number of days off or study leave or not, as many as 195 respondents representing 85.5 percent agreed as against less than 10 percent who disagreed and 7 percent were of no opinion. In testing to establish the relationship between gender and employees days off or study leave,  $X^2 (3, 228) = 15.585$ ;  $p \geq 0.05$  was obtained. It can be concluded that, there is a strong relationship between gender and employees days off or study leave. Meaning there is a significant difference between the days off or study leave given to men and women in the hospitality industry even though the majority (85%) of them agreed. Table 4.22 exhibits the gender differences.

**Table 4.22 Days Off/Study Leave by Sex**

<b>Response</b>	<b>% of Men</b>	<b>% of Women</b>	<b>% Total</b>
Agreed	81	88	85
Disagreed	5	9	8
No Opinion	14	3	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
Total Number	78	150	228

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

From Table 4.22, the responses of both sexes on whether men and women are entitled to the same days off/study leave were almost the same. That is, 81% of men and 88% of women. Nine percent of the women and 5% of the men were however, in disagreement with the



statement. And 14% of the men and only 3% of the women had no opinion on the issue.

#### **4.16.4 Promotion/Career Advancement**

Majority (73%) of the respondents disagreed that women and men are not entitled to the same promotion or career advancement at the workplace while 20 percent agreed with 7 percent having no opinion. The  $X^2$  obtained is  $X^2(3, 228) = 11.234; p \geq 0.05$ . This implies that there is a relationship between gender and career advancement at work. There are differences in men and women's career advancement. Eighty-one percent of the men against 61% of the women disagreed that men and women are not entitled to the same promotion or career advancement. More women (28%) than men (5%) agreed that the promotion or career advancement for both sexes were not the same. And 14% of the men compared to only 3% of the women had no idea on the statement. This is presented in Table 4.23. This could be explained by the fact that the women (28%) and men (5%) had not experienced any promotion or people they know were not promoted equally or they are just basing their responses on 'hear-say'.

**Table 4.23 Career Advancement by Sex**

<b>Response</b>	<b>% of Men</b>	<b>% of Women</b>	<b>% Total</b>
Agreed	5	28	20
Disagreed	81	69	73
No Opinion	14	3	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
Total Number	78	150	228

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

#### 4.16.5 Medical Care

Almost all the respondents (90.4%) agreed that men and women get the same medical care facility as compared to only 6.6 percent who were in disagreement and 3.1 percent stated no opinion. Obtaining  $X^2(2, 228) = 8.558$ ;  $p \geq 0.05$  from the test, it can be said that, there is a relationship between gender and medical benefits for employees in the hospitality industry. The medical care for men and women differ. Table 4.24 presents the gender differences in benefits.

**Table 4.24 Medical Care by Sex**

<b>Response</b>	<b>% of Men</b>	<b>% of Women</b>	<b>% Total</b>
Agreed	86	93	90.4
Disagreed	12	4	6.6
No Opinion	2	3	3.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
Total Number	78	150	228

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From Table 4.24, ninety-three percent of the women against 86% of the men agreed that both sexes receive the same medical care facility while 12% of the men and 4% of the women thought otherwise. Here, the discrimination is not against women but it was the men (12) compared to only 4% of the women who disagreed that both sexes receive the same medical care at the workplace.

#### **4.16.6 Training and Development**

The study also found out that more than half (59.6%) of the respondents were in agreement with the statement that men and women go through the same training and development programme in their establishments whereas 32.5 percent disagreed and 7.9 percent did not have any opinion on the issue.

With  $X^2 (3, 228) = 48.286; p \geq 0.05$ , there is a highly significant relationship between gender and development programmes at the workplace. The differences exist in the opportunities for training and types of training for the sexes. Table 4.25 discusses the gender differences training and development equalities.

**Table 4.25 Training and Development by Sex**

<b>Response</b>	<b>% of Men</b>	<b>% of Women</b>	<b>% Total</b>
Agreed	28	76	59.6
Disagreed	60	17	32.5
No Opinion	10	7	7.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
Total Number	78	150	228

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From Table 4.25, more than half (60%) of the men were in disagreement that men and women enjoy the same training and development programmes. As many as 76% of the women and only 28% of the men agreed. Ten percent of the men and 7% of the women said they had no opinion. This further strengthens the earlier finding of inequalities in training and development on page (70).

#### **4.16.7 Social Security**

Finally, on the issue of the same social security benefits for men and women at the workplace, majority (73.7%) of them disagreed that women and men do not receive the same benefits while only 14 percent agreed that they do not get the same benefits and 12.2 percent gave no opinion.

There is a relationship between gender and inequalities in social security benefits at the workplace in the hospitality industry. This was

established with  $X^2(3, 228) = 16.663$ :  $p \geq 0.05$ . There is a difference in the idea that men and women do not receive the same social security benefits. These differences are presented in Table 4.26.

**Table 4.26 Social Security Benefits by Sex**

Response	% of Men	% of Women	% Total
Agreed	21	11	14
Disagreed	67	77	73.7
No Opinion	12	12	12.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
Total Number	78	150	228

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From Table 4.26, seventy-seven percent of the women against 67% of the men disagreed that men and women do not receive the same social security benefits at the workplace. On the other hand, 21% of the men compared to 11% of the women did agreed to the statement. And 12% of both sexes were neutral on the issue.

All the managers/employees said there was no gender discrimination or inequality in employee's employment benefits like accommodation, salary advancement, study leave, promotion, medical care, social security and training opportunities.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **Social Interactions, Perceptions and Other Environmental Factors affecting Employment in the Hospitality industry**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter is based solely on issues of social interactions, perceptions and other environmental factors that prevail in a hospitality environment, where worker-to-worker and employer to worker or vice versa interactions are important. This is important for the industry because it is the only industry where the worker is as important as the client. Hence a few questions and their responses would constitute the main theme of this chapter. For example how men employees and managers or employers perceive both men and women employees in the hospitality industry. It also discusses the problems female employees encounter in their career advancement.

#### **5.2 Perception of women to work in the hospitality industry**

The study sought to find out if employees would recommend more women to work in the hospitality industry. The Table 5.1 presents the findings.

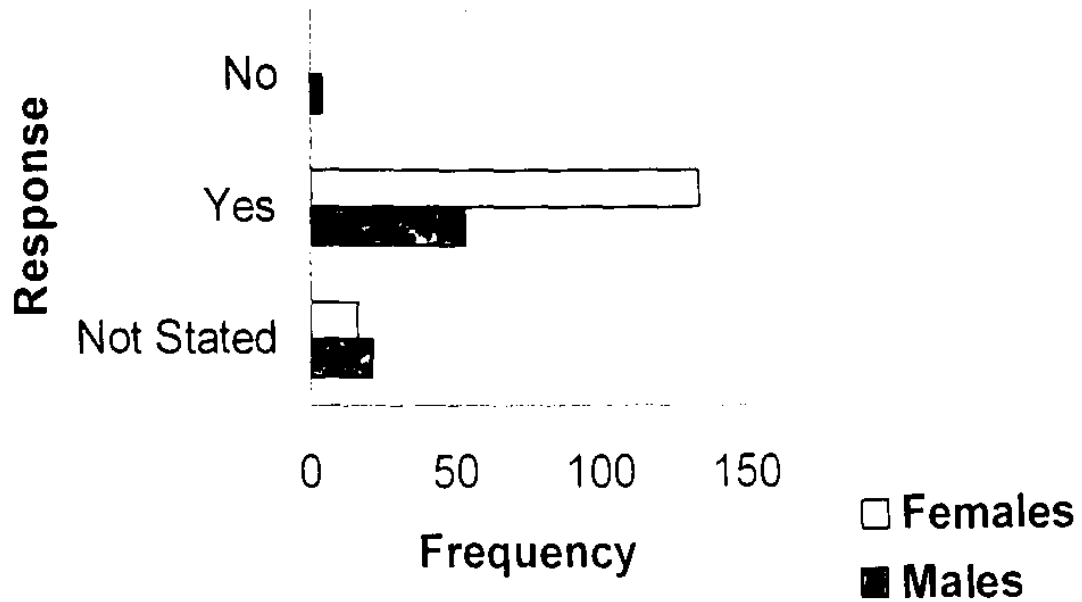
**Table 5.1**      **Would you recommend more women to work in the industry?**

<b>Response</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage of Respondents</b>
Yes	187	82.0
No	37	16.2
Not Stated	4	1.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

It could be deduced from Table 5.1 that majority (82%) of the respondents answered in the affirmative that they would recommend more women to work in the hospitality industry. Whereas less than 2 percent (1.8%) said no and 16.2 percent of them did not state their opinion. Interestingly, it was only men who said they would not recommend women to work in the industry. But the majority of both men and women agreed to recommend women to work in the hospitality industry. Their responses are presented in figure 5.1.

**Figure 5.1 Perception of women to work by Sex**



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Those who would recommend more women to work in the industry (187) gave the following reasons: opportunity to meet people from different background, gender balance at the workplace and women being friendlier with guests. And those who said no were of the view that women working in the industry were immoral.



### 5.3 Attitude of the sexes towards work

#### 5.3.1 Punctuality to work

A statement was made that women were more punctual to work than men and respondents were asked to give their opinion as to whether they agree, disagree or had no opinion. 100 respondents (43.9%) disagreed, only 23 (10.1%) of them agreed whereas as many as 105 (46%) respondents did not state their opinion on it.

**Table 5.2 Punctuality to work**

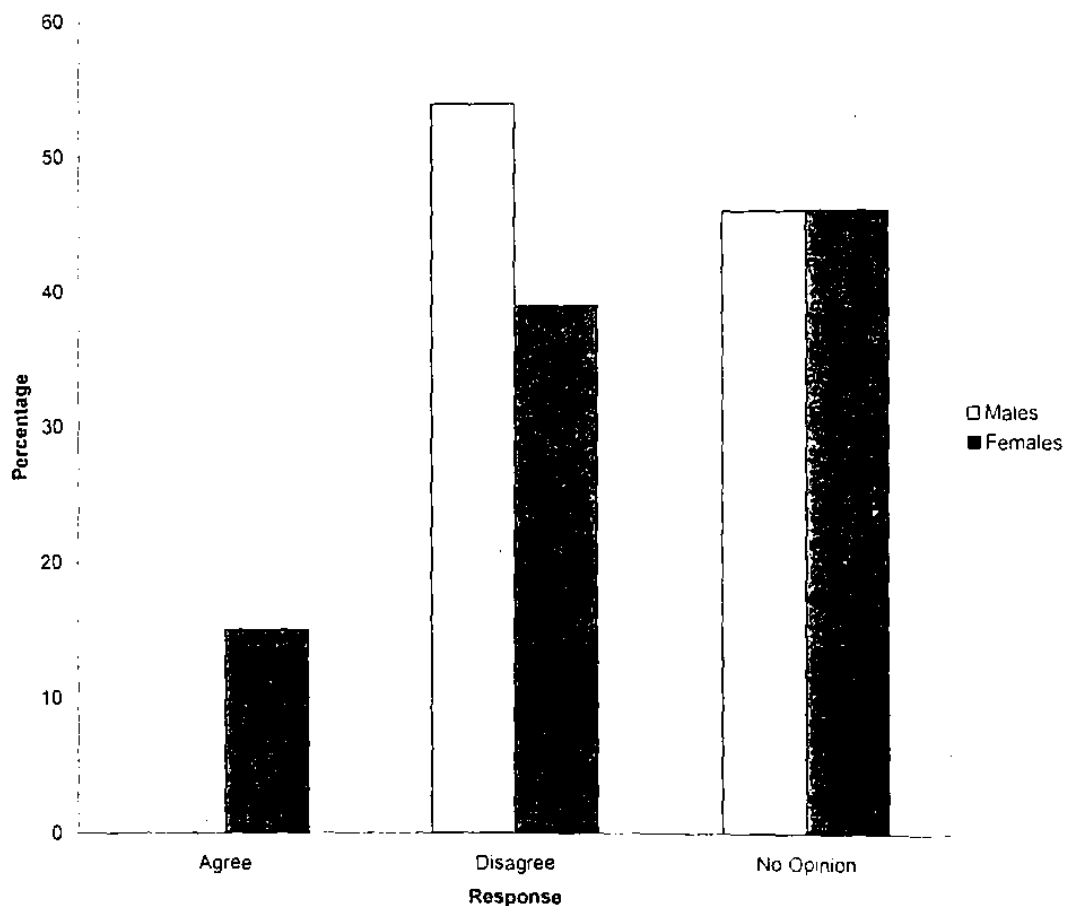
Response	Number of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Agree	23	10.1
Disagree	100	43.9
No Opinion	105	46
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

All those who agreed to the statement that women are more punctual to work than men were women (15%) with none of the men agreeing with them. Fifty-four percent of the male respondents against 39% of the women were in disagreement with the statement. And 46% of the women compared to 36% of their male counterparts had no opinion on the issue. The differences in responses by sex are presented in Figure 5.2.

The fact that the responses are biased is significant. It simply shows the polarised nature of responses to the issues on gender in such a study. However, the fact that 46% of the respondents could not express their opinion on the issue shows that the answer to the question is still nebulous and needs to be further investigated. Even the employers' opinion on the issue does not offer the final answer to the question.

**Figure 5.2 Punctuality to work by Sex**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From the employers end, almost 100% of them (97%) disagreed that the women are more punctual to work than the men. None of them agreed with the statement and only 3% had no opinion on the issue.

### 5.3.2 Employees' Attention to Detail

On the issue of women being more attentive to detail than men, it was revealed that 31.1 percent disagreed whilst 26.8 percent agreed and the majority (42.1%) refused to state their opinion. This is illustrated in Table 5.3

**Table 5.3 Attention to Detail**

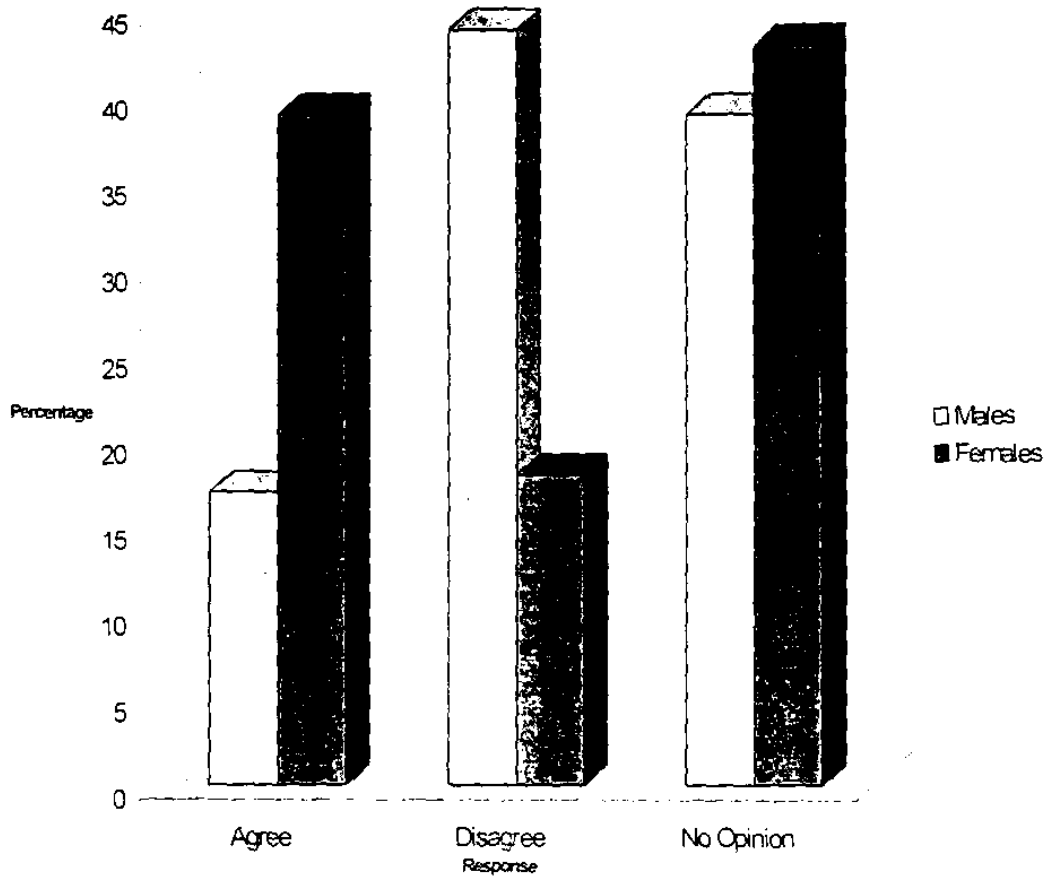
Response	Number of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Agree	71	31.1
Disagree	61	26.8
No Opinion	96	42.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

From Table 5.3, forty-four percent of the men compared to only 18% of the women disagreed that women are more attentive to detail than men at work. On the other hand, 39% of the women against 17% of the men agreed. And 43% of the men and 39% of the women had no idea on the statement. The gender differences in the responses are presented in Figure 5.3. Again the percentage of those who did not

express their opinion on the issue is significant and shows once again that the question has not been answered.

**Figure 5.3 Attention to detail at the workplace by Sex**



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

The managers (62%) thought however that women are more attentive to detail than men. Thirty-eight percent disagreed and 10% were of no opinion.

### 5.3.3 Casual Leave/Days Off

As to whether men asked for more casual leave than women or not, majority (63.2%) of the respondents disagreed as against 5.7 percent who agreed. Whereas 31.1% of them were neutral on the issue, 6% agreed that men ask for more casual leave than women.

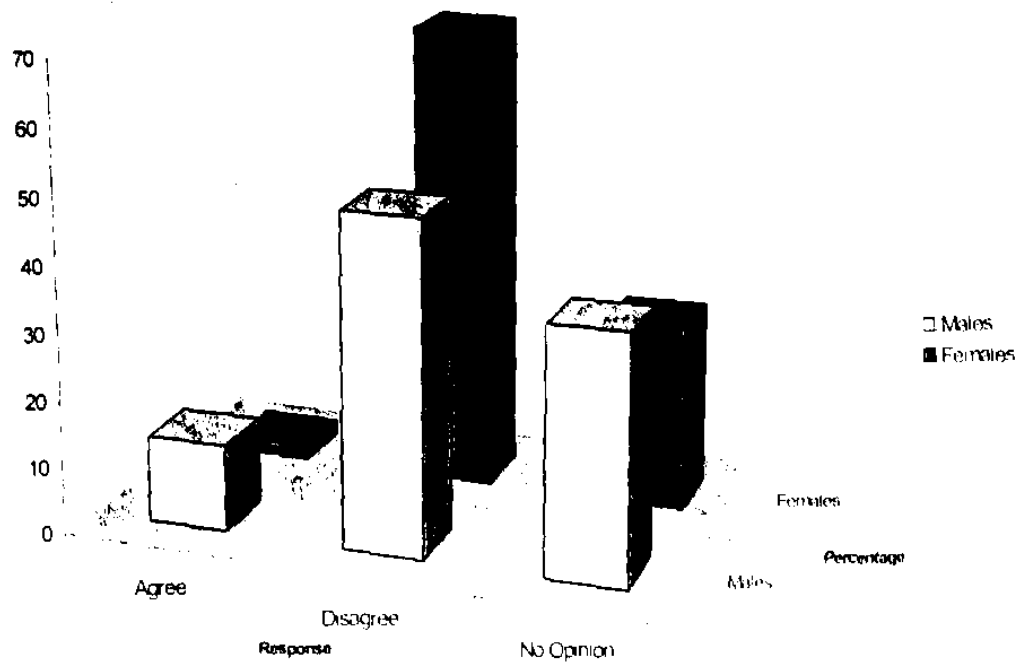
**Table 5.4 Request for Casual Leave/Days Off**

Response	Number of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Agree	13	5.7
Disagree	144	63.2
No Opinion	71	31.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

From Figure 5.4, as many as 70% of the women respondents and half (50%) of the male respondents disagreed that men ask for more casual leave than women. Only 2% of the women and 13% of the men agreed while 37% of the men and 28% of the women were neutral.

**Figure 5.4 Request for casual leave/Days Off by Sex**



**Source: Fieldwork 2003**

Fifty-three percent of employers were in disagreement with the statement that men ask for more casual leave than women. Three percent agreed while 42% of them were neutral on the issue.

**5.3.4 Diligence of Employees**

Also, on the issue of whether men are more diligent than women, 42.1 percent of the respondents disagreed with the statement while 19.3 percent agreed with it. And 38.6 percent had no opinion on the statement.

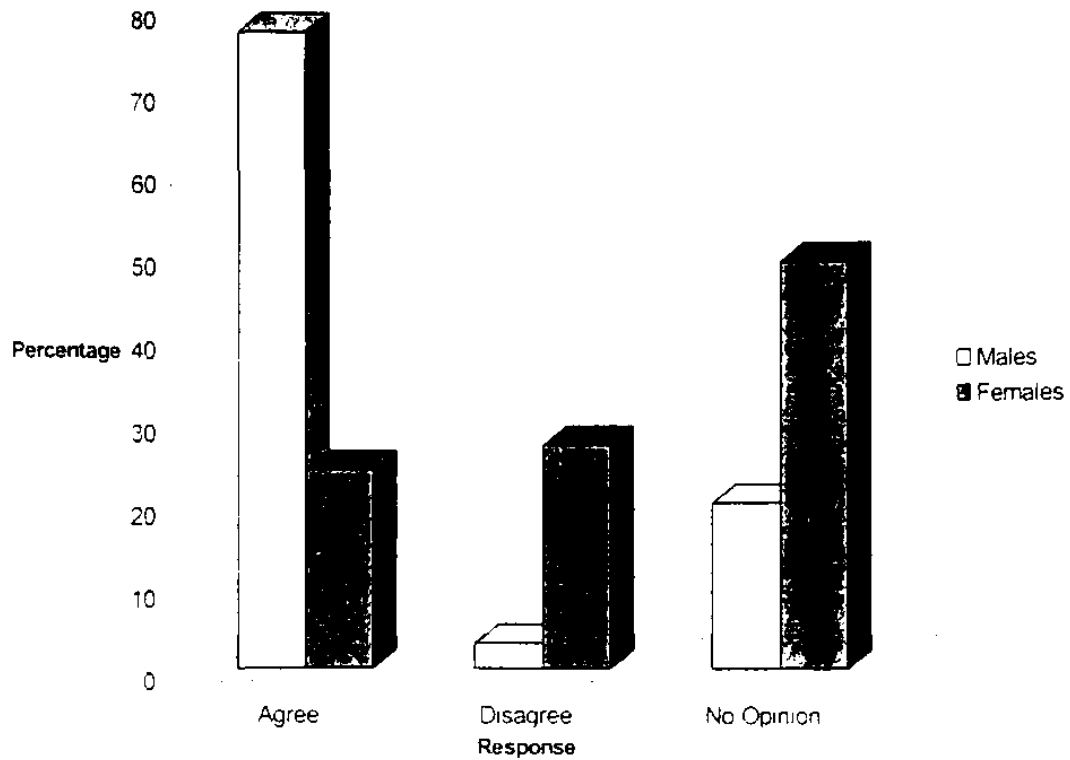
**Table 5.5 Diligence to Duties**

<b>Response</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Agree	96	42.1
Disagree	43	19.3
No Opinion	89	38.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

From Table 5.5, almost half (49%) of the female respondents and one-fifth (20%) of the male respondents had no opinion about the statement that men are more diligent at the workplace than women. Twenty-seven percent of the women compared to only 3% of the men disagreed while as many as 77% of the men and only 24% of the women were in agreement with the statement. This is presented in Figure 5.5.

**Figure 5.5 Diligence to duty by Sex**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

Majority of employers (79%) were neutral on the issue of men being more diligent at work than women and 23% disagreed while only 5% agreed.

### **5.3.5 Skillfulness in Duties**

Another statement that women are more skillful in their duties than men was posed for respondents to give their views. Moreover, it came out that as many as 49.1 percent of the respondents were neutral, 32



percent in disagreement while 18.9 percent agreed. This is presented in Table 5.6.

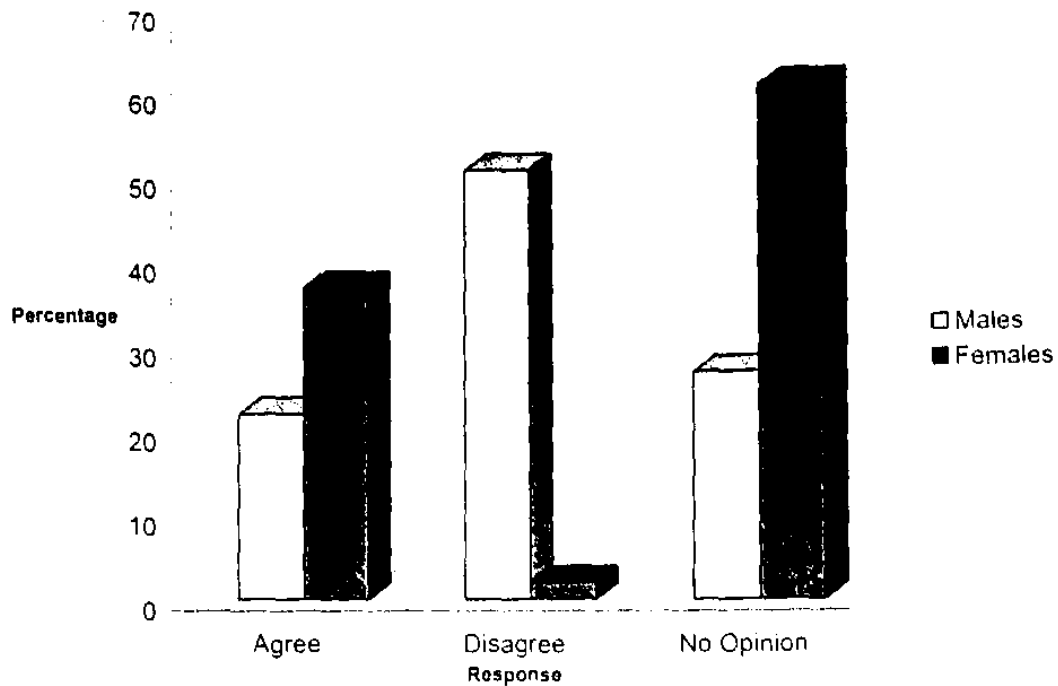
**Table 5.6 Skillfulness in Duties**

<b>Response</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Agree	73	32
Disagree	43	18.9
No Opinion	112	49.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

More than half (51%) of the men compared to 2% of the women disagreed that women are more skillful in the performance of duties than men. Thirty-seven percent against 22% of the women and men disagreed respectively. And as many as 61% of the women and 27% of the men had no opinion. Figure 5.6 presents the gender differences in responses.

**Figure 5.6 Skillfulness in duties by Sex**



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Almost all the managers (98%) were neutral on the issue that women are more skillful in their duties than men and the remaining 2% disagreed. This could be explained by the fact that men and women are found in different areas or departments in the hospitality industry. As such each is skillful in his or her own area of specialisation.

### **5.3.6 Employees' Interpersonal Communication Skills**

As to whether women have better interpersonal communication skills than men, the majority (49.1%) of the respondents agreed while only

8 percent disagreed and 32.9 percent were neutral on the issue. Table 5.7 presents these responses.

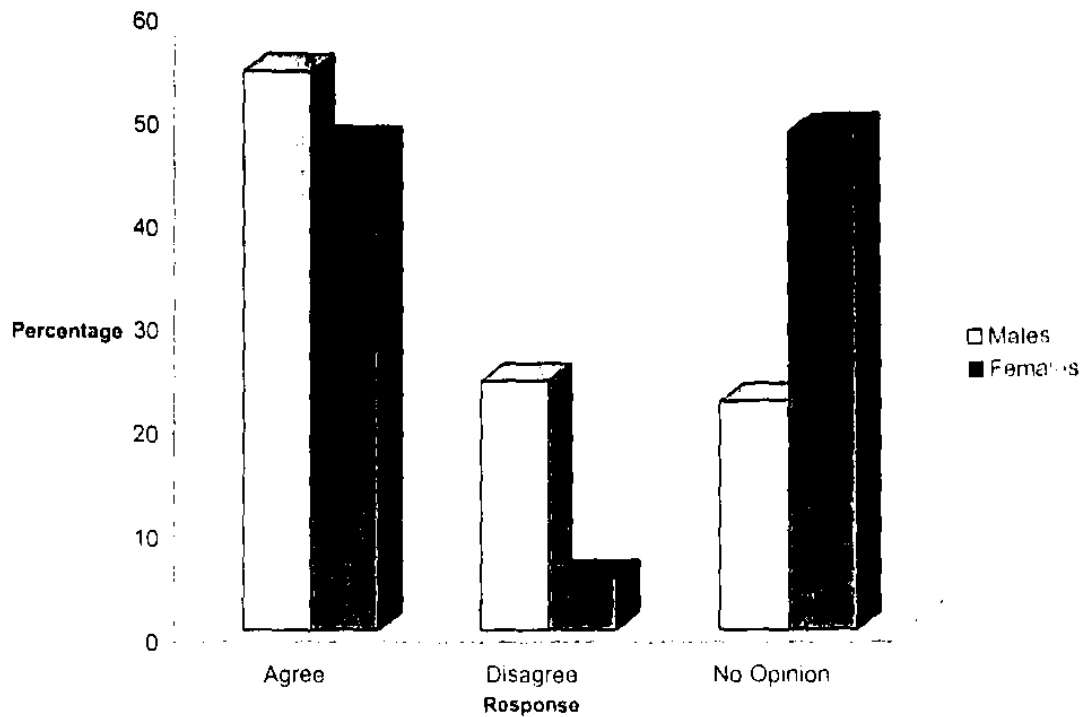
**Table 5.7 Employees' Interpersonal Communication skills**

<b>Response</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Agree	112	49.1
Disagree	28	12.3
No Opinion	88	39
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

Interestingly, the percentage of men (54%) who agreed that women have better interpersonal communication skills than men was more than the women (47%). On the other hand, 24% of the men against only 5% of the women disagreed. And as many as 48% of the women compared to 22% of the men preferred to be neutral on the issue. This is presented in Figure 5.7.

**Figure 5.7 Interpersonal communication skills at the workplace by Sex**



Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Majority (52%) of the managers were neutral on the issue of men and women's interpersonal communication skills. Twenty-seven percent agreed that women have better interpersonal communication skills than men while 11% did not express any opinion on the issue.

### **5.3.7 Appearance of Employees to Work**

Generally, there is this stereotype that men's appearance is more presentable than women these days. However, the study revealed that

the majority (61%) of the respondents disagreed with this notion whilst only 12.3 percent stood for the notion and 26.7 percent being neutral. This is presented in Table 5.8.

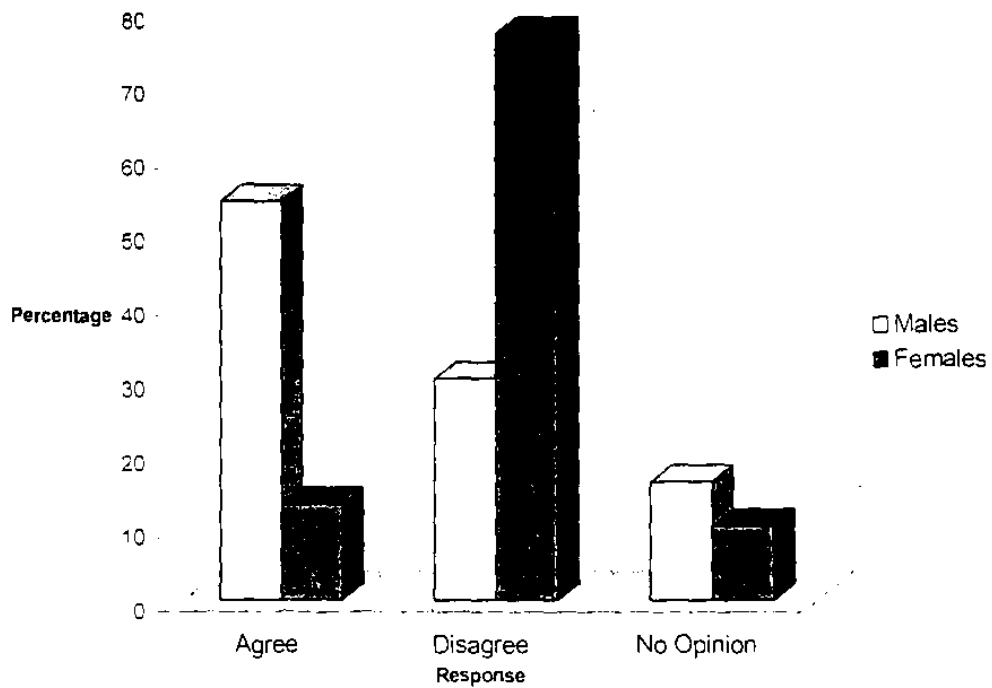
**Table 5.8 Appearance to Work**

<b>Response</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Agree	62	26.7
Disagree	139	61
No Opinion	27	12.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

More than half (54%) of the men respondents compared to only 13% of their female colleagues agreed that men's appearance to work is more presentable than the women. As many as 77% of the women and 30% of the men disagreed with 16% of the men and 10% of the women were neutral. Figure 5.8 presents the gender differences in response.

**Figure 5.8 Appearance to work by Sex**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

Majority (73%) of the employers or managers disagreed that men's appearance to work is more presentable than women. Twenty percent of them agreed while 7% were neutral.

**5.4 Problems Women face in terms of Career Advancement in the hospitality industry**

Respondents were asked to enumerate the problems women encounter in their career advancement. Table 5.9 below presents the findings of the problems.

**Table 5.9 Problems Women Encounter in Career Advancement**

<b>Problem</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Percentage of Respondents</b>
Sexual Abuse/Harassment	24	10.5
Favour	9	3.9
No Study Leave	18	7.9
Family Responsibilities/ Starting a Family	38	16.7
Don't Know	139	61.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From Table 5.9, the majority (61%) of the respondents stated that they did not know the problems women encounter in their career advancement. 16.7 percent stated that starting a family and other family responsibilities hinder women advancement, 10.5 percent said sexual abuse and harassment at the workplace while 7.9 percent gave the lack of study leave for women and only 3.9 percent were of the

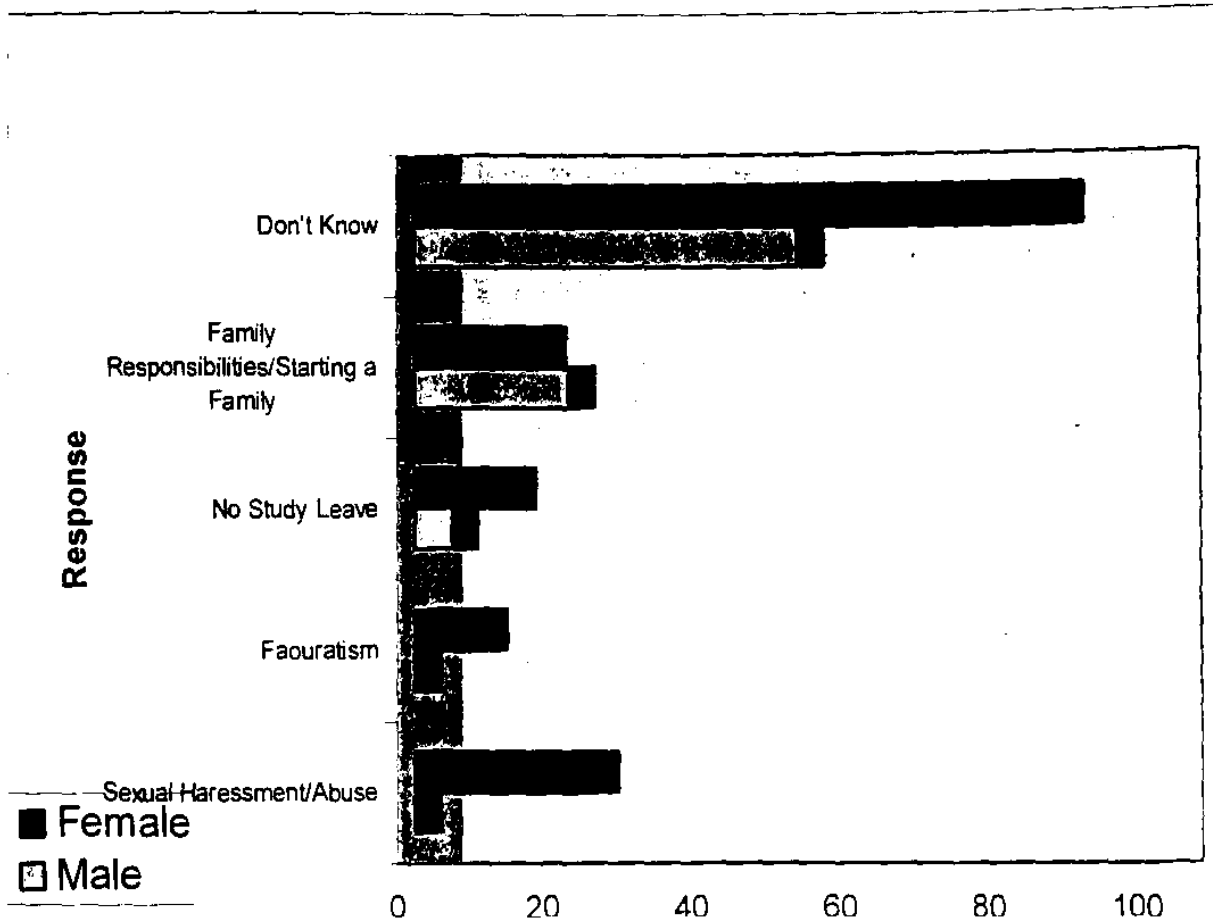
view that favour at the workplace hinders women's advancement on the employment ladder.

Men's opinions are however different from women's opinions. Sixty-four per cent (64%) of the male respondents as compared to 59% of their female colleagues did not know or could not tell any problem (s) women face in terms of career development. Eighteen per cent (18%) and 13% of the men think the issues of women starting a family and other family responsibilities are the problems women face in career advancement. This further exemplifies the fact that for women with family responsibilities, their upward movement may be hampered as they juggle time to devote to both career and family. An important feature of professional and especially managerial work are the long working hours that seem to be required to gain recognition and eventual promotion (ILO, 2001). The women (17%) and 9% on the other hand believe that sexual abuse harassment and the absence of study leave are some of the problems they face in their career advancement respectively. Figure 5.9 presents career advancement problems.



**Figure 5.9 Perceived Problems of Women's Career**

**Advancement by Sex**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2003**

From figure 5.9, all those who gave sexual harassment or sexual abuse and favour as the problems women face in their career advancement at the workplace were women. Some also gave the lack of study leave for advancement while the majority of the men thought that starting a family and other family responsibilities hinder women's career advancement. The responses are skewed in favour of women

since the majority of the respondents are women. However it seems starting a family constitutes a major obstacle to women's career advancement.

### 5.5 Employees' Opinion on how women in the hospitality industry are perceived

On how respondents think people perceive women working in the hospitality to be, respondents were asked to mention how women employees are perceived by people. Table 5.10 shows the findings.

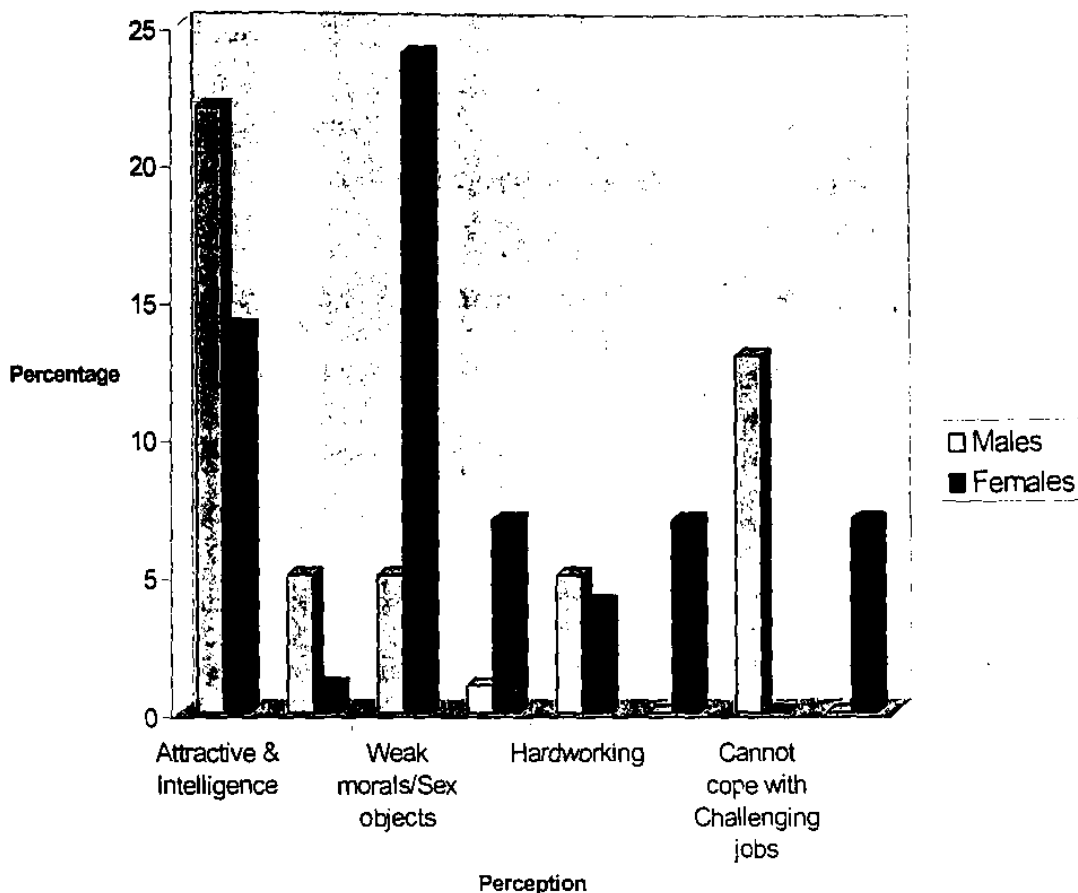
**Table 5.10 How Women working in the Hospitality Industry are perceived**

Perception	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Respondents (%)
Not Stated	94	41.2
Attractive and Intelligent	38	16.7
Very Hospitable	5	2.2
Having Weak Morales/Sex Objects	40	17.5
Lazy	11	4.8
Hard working	10	4.4
Rude and Unfriendly	10	4.4
Cannot Cope with Challenging jobs	10	4.4
Don't Know	10	4.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>228</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2003

Ninety-four respondents representing 41.2 percent did not state their opinion on how women were perceived. This number is made up of 49 percent and 37 percent of the male and female population, respectively. 17.5 percent of the workers said women were perceived as having weak morals or sex objects while 16.7 percent said they were perceived as attractive and intelligent. 4.8 percent of them were of the view that women were seen as lazy and 4.4 percent mentioned very hard working. Another 4.4 percent said women are perceived to be rude and unfriendly and 4.4 percent were of the view that women cannot cope with challenging jobs. 4.4 percent did not know how women were perceived. Again one cannot form an opinion on this as the majority of the respondents were silent on this. Figure 5.10 shows the gender differences in perception.

**Figure 5.10 Perception about Women in the Industry by Sex**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2003.**

The women said people think of them as having weak morals or sex objects, rude and unfriendly, lazy people and attractive and intelligent people. The men on the other hand said women working in the industry were thought of as attractive and intelligent people and as people who cannot cope with challenging jobs. Just a few of the men said women were seen as very hospitable, hard working and having weak morale. None of the men said women were seen as rude and

unfriendly while none of the women said women were seen as cannot cope with challenging jobs.

#### **5.6 Employers'/Managers' Perception of Women Employees**

It was found out from employers and managers that women are preferred to be housekeepers, cashiers, receptionists, room attendants, waitresses, cooks, secretaries and sales clerks. To them, women are more efficient in such jobs, thus they have most of the qualities to handle such jobs. They said the women are approachable, dedicated and friendlier to customers hence attracting repeat visits. They were of the view that the women themselves apply for such jobs since they (women) think the nature of such jobs calls for them.

Employers were asked whether they have certain areas they would prefer women to work. It was realized that they would not like women to work as drivers, park attendants, dispatch riders and maintenance officers due to the risks associated with such jobs as staying away overnight and lifting objects.

More than half of the employers and managers interviewed would like to employ more women in their establishments because women are more hospitable, committed, diligent and efficient. Others also said

women draw customers' attention while some said they would employ women for gender balance.

Those who are not willing to employ more women said most of the jobs in their operations/the industry is for men. Others said women are a problem whilst some think the working environment especially in the kitchens has high temperatures which are not good for the health of women especially those yet to give birth.

## CHAPTER SIX

### Summary, Implications and Recommendations

#### 6.1 Summary of the Study

The leisure and tourism industry is one of the leading global economic activities, a multi-billion-dollar industry with 700 million international travellers per year around the world. Tourism is a motor for employment and income creation and, especially in poor countries, a vehicle for development. Despite the enormous contribution of tourism to the world economy, women have the least dignified positions in the industry. Thus, there is division of labour by gender at all levels of the travel and tourism hierarchies (Theobald, 1994).

In the past two decades, women's issues have received greater recognition throughout the world (Theobald, 1996). This has led to many international agencies and government planners to acknowledge women's special status and the need for them to participate adequately in development projects. However, official statistics reflect a gross under estimation of women's participation in economic activities (ILO, 1998). For instance, precise data on men and women's employment in the industry; namely: their occupations; positioning in

the hierarchies, wages, working conditions, working hours, training etc. are not available.

The study assessed the socio-demographic background of employees in the hospitality industry, the positions they occupy in the industry and the conditions under which they work. Also examined are the perceptions of employers and male employees about women working in the industry.

Data was collected from both secondary and primary sources. The data from the secondary sources were obtained from the libraries, the Internet and the gender centres in Accra. Primary sources consist of data from questionnaires and interviews conducted by the researcher and trained research assistants. The sample size was 248 consisting of 228 employees and 20 employers or managers. Data was analysed using cross tabulations, frequencies and percentages as well as charts. Four hypotheses were tested using a Chi-Square.

Massiah's gender analysis framework was adopted for the study. The framework is based on three assumptions namely; women and their role have been traditionally accorded lower status than men, women's work includes economic and non-economic activities and these are ignored in development literature and finally, the invisibility of



women stems directly from a gender ideology which adheres to a hierarchical and a symmetrical division of labour in favour of men. These assumptions together have contributed to the identification of five interrelated types of visibility operative at three different levels, each being a precondition of achieving a higher level. Movement from a lower to higher levels need not be unilinear, but the direction of the movement represents a move from recognition of the existence of gender disadvantage to action designed to reduce or eliminate that disadvantage.

The main findings of the study were:

- There were differences in the socio-demographic background (age, education, marital status and religion) of men and women in the hospitality industry in Ghana.
- There was no difference in the positions occupy by both men and women in the hospitality industry.
- There are differences in the departments in which men and women work in the hospitality industry. Thus is there is a horizontal sex segregation at the workplace.
- The establishments that use employee referral were the restaurants. Only the four and five-star hotels do recruitment through advertisement.

- There were significant differences in the promotion of men and women at the workplace.
- There was no difference between men and women's perception about the criteria use by their managers/employees in promoting them.
- There was a relationship between gender and training opportunities in the hospitality industry. Training opportunities for men and women were not the same.
- It came out from managers/employers that all employees go through training in their establishments. On the types of training for employees, it was found out that management staff usually attend external training programmes while some supervisory and all the lower level employees benefit from internally organised training programmes.
- The perception about the conditions of work differs between men and women.
- On the issue of benefits,
  - i. Both men and women agree that the sexes should get the same accommodation facility
  - ii. There were differences in the salary advancement between men and women.
  - iii. there were differences between the days off or study leave given to men and women in the hospitality

- iv. There were differences in men and women's career advancement.
  - v. The medical care for men and women differ.
  - vi. All the managers/employees said there was no gender discrimination or inequality in employee's employment benefits like accommodation, salary advancement, study leave, promotion, medical care, social security and training opportunities.
- The problems women encounter in their career advancement were starting a family and other family responsibilities hinders women advancement, sexual abuse and harassment at the workplace, the lack of study leave for women and favour at the workplace.
  - The problems men think hinder women's career advancement are different from what women say.

## **6.2 Implications of the Study**

First, the recruitment and placement of men and women should be the same in the hospitality industry to obtain or to achieve equity in the industry. This practice will ensure equal employment opportunities at the workplace in compliance of the ILO requirement for all countries.

Secondly, the study findings have implications for women to apply for other positions in the hospitality industry if they qualify.

Thirdly, there must be an avenue to educate employees about the negative perception of women employees in the industry.

Finally, the study has implications for further research into the misplaced perceptions of women's role in the hospitality industry.

### **6.3 Conclusion**

It can be concluded that there is discreet gender discrimination in the hospitality industry in Ghana. Employment practices like recruitment, placement, promotion, and training and development opportunities appear not to be the same for men and women. These appear to be due to the educational background of the women. There is also sex segregation at both the horizontal and vertical levels at the workplace. Women are mostly found in the housekeeping and catering departments while the men are located in the professional and technical areas like engineering and accounting. Vertically, more men occupy top or management positions than women.

#### **6.4 Recommendations**

The following recommendations are made to employers, employees and all stakeholders to improve the conditions of service for all employees especially women in the hospitality industry:

- i. Women should be granted study leave so that they (women) will develop themselves to take up challenging jobs at the work place.
- ii. Organisations or companies should either organize internal training programmes for workers to upgrade themselves with new technology since the industry is dynamic by nature or sponsor them for short courses at HOTCATT or the University of Cape Coast for degree or diploma courses.
- iii. Employees who qualify for promotion should be promoted when the time is due. This can be achieved when companies keep replacements and succession charts to make it easier to identify those who should be promoted.
- iv. Maternity and sick leave for women should be extended to women in the hospitality industry.
- v. Employees should endeavor to maintain a cordial relationship among all sexes. This could be done by respecting and appreciating each other's contribution to the success of the company.

- vi. Women should develop themselves by attending training programmes and courses so that they can take up challenging jobs.
- vii. There should be further research in the human resource practices in the hospitality industry to assess the methods of recruitment and selection procedures and how these practices affect service delivery quality in the industry.

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## Appendix A

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EMPLOYEES

#### Introduction

This questionnaire seeks to solicit information on the topic: **Female Employment in the Tourism Industry. The case of Accra.** The study is purely academic and respondents are assured of respect and confidentiality. You are free and entitled to your own opinions.

#### Section A

##### Recruitment and Employment Background

1. Full time or part time? 1. Full time [ ] 2. Part time
2. Position 1. Junior Staff [ ] 2. Senior Staff [ ] 3. Management [ ]
3. Specify actual work (eg. Receptionist) waitress  
.....
4. How long have you been working in this establishment?.....
5. Section/Department in which you are currently working.....
6. How were you recruited? 1. Through a friend [ ] 2. Advertisement [ ] 3. Other (Specify).....
7. What criteria were used to determine your placement in the Department/Section? 1. Educational background [ ] 2. Experience [ ] 3. Personality/beauty [ ] 4. communication skills [ ] 5 Don't know [ ] 6. Other(specify).....

#### Section B

##### Promotion/Career advancement opportunities

8. Have you experienced any form of promotion or career advancement since you joined this establishment? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

9. If No, why?  
.....
10. If Yes, what was your former position.....
11. What is your current position?.....
12. For how long did you stay in that position?.....
13. What was the criterion for the promotion?.....
14. Do you think the procedure for the promotion of men and women are the same? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]
15. If Yes, what are the procedures?.....
16. If No, why no.....

**Section C**

**Training and Development**

17. What training and development opportunities are available to you as a worker?  
 (i) .....  
 (ii) .....  
 (iii) .....  
 (iv) .....
18. Have you ever had any training since you joined this establishment 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]
19. If No, why? .....
20. If Yes, what was were the programme(s)?

Programme	Item(s) taught	Date	Duration	Relevance

21. What are the main problems women faces in terms of career advancement in this establishment?

**Section D**

**Gender equalities/Inequalities**

22. How would you rate the following benefits in your establishment?

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree 5. Not Applicable

Men and women do enjoy the same accommodation facility	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women get the same salary advancement	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women have the same Absence/study leave	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women enjoy the same promotion/career advancement	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women get the same medical care	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women enjoy the same access to means of transport	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women go through the same training and development program	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women enjoy the same social security benefits	1	2	3	4	5

**Section E**

**Working conditions and Relationship at the Workplace**

23. How would you describe the conditions under which you work?

- (i) Not satisfactory [ ]
- (ii) Satisfactory [ ]
- (iii) Highly satisfactory [ ]
- (iv) Other (specify) [ ]
- (v) Don't know [ ]

24. Give reasons for your answer.....

25. How would you describe your relationship with management?

- 1. Highly satisfactory [ ] 2. Satisfactory [ ] 3. Not satisfactory [ ]

26. How would you describe your relationship with your other female workers? 1. Highly satisfactory [ ] 2. Satisfactory [ ] 3. Not satisfactory [ ]

27. How would you describe your relationship with your other male colleagues? 1. Highly satisfactory [ ] 2. Satisfactory [ ] 3. Not satisfactory [ ]

28. Would you want to continue working in this establishment? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

29. If yes (que. 31), why?.....

30. If no (que 31), why not? .....
31. How do you think people perceive women working in tourism/hospitality industry?.....
32. Would you recommend other women to work in this establishment? 1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]
33. Give reasons for your answer .....

**Section F**

**Attitude of Sexes to Work**

34. How would you rate the following attitude to work in your establishment? 1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Neutral 4. Disagree 5. Strongly Disagree

Women are more punctual to work than men	1	2	3	4	5
Women are more attentive to detail than men	1	2	3	4	5
Men ask for casual leave more than women	1	2	3	4	5
Men are more diligent than women	1	2	3	4	5
Women are more skillful in their duties than men	1	2	3	4	5
Women have better interpersonal communication skills than men	1	2	3	4	5
Men's appearance is more presentable than women	1	2	3	4	5
Men work with minimum supervision than women	1	2	3	4	5
Women and men employed at thee same time are promoted at the same time	1	2	3	4	5

35. What suggestions do you have for management to improve conditions for women in the industry?.....
36. Suggestions for women in the industry.....

**Section G**

**Socio-Economic characteristics**

37. Age .....
38. Sex 1. Male [ ] 2. Female [ ]
- 39a. Educational background. 1. None [ ] 2. Primary [ ] 3. Secondary [ ] 4. Tertiary [ ] 5. Post Tertiary [ ]
- 39b. Any Specialization (eg. Catering/management etc).....



40. Marital status 1. Single [ ] 2. Married [ ] 3. Divorced [ ] 4. Widowed [ ] 5. Separated [ ]
41. What is your per monthly income?.....
42. Religious background. 1. Christian [ ] 2. Moslem [ ] 3. Traditionalist [ ] 4. Other (specify) .....
43. Ethnic background.1. Akan [ ] 2. Ga [ ] 3. Guan [ ] 4. Hausa [ ] 5. Ewe [ ] 6. Dagomba [ ] 7. Other (specify) .....

## Appendix B

### Questionnaire for Management

#### Introduction

This questionnaire seeks to solicit information on the topic: **Female Employment in the Tourism Industry. The case of Accra.** The study is purely academic and respondents are assured of respect and confidentiality. You are free and entitled to your own opinions.

#### *Type of establishment*

1. Type of Business.
  - a. Accommodation [ ] b. Restaurant [ ]
  - c. Tour Operation & Travel Agency [ ] d. Others (specify).....
2. Star.....
3. What is the ownership type?
  - a. Sole Proprietor [ ] b. Partnership [ ] c. State own [ ]
  - d. Multi- National [ ] e. Others (specify)...
4. How many people are working in this establishment including relatives?.....
5. How do you recruit personnel?
  - a. Advertisement [ ] b. Word of Mouth [ ]
  - c. Protocol [ ] d. Other (specify).....
6. What determines placement on the job?
  - a. Level of qualification [ ] b. Available vacancy [ ]
  - c. Personality [ ] d. Other (specify).....

#### *Training and development programmes*

7. What training and development programmes do you have for your personnel at the following levels?
  - (i) Management level a. .... b. ....
  - (ii) Middle level a. .... b. ....
  - (iii) Lower level a. .... b. ....
8. Who usually benefit from the programmes?
  - a. Mostly men [ ] b. Mostly women [ ] c. Women only [ ]
  - d. Men only [ ] e. Both [ ]

**Department and positions of men and women**

9. List the positions for men in your organisation and provide information for the table below.

<b>Positions</b>	<b>Number of Men</b>	<b>Average Age</b>	<b>Educational Background</b>	<b>Average Monthly Salary</b>

10. List the positions women in your organisation and provide information for in the table below

<b>Position</b>	<b>Number of Women</b>	<b>Average Age</b>	<b>Educational Background</b>	<b>Average Monthly Salary</b>

- 11. In which Department(s) do you normally place women?
- 12. Why do you place women in these departments?
- 13. Do you have any departments(s) you would not want women to be?  
a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]
- 14. If yes, what are they?
- 15. Explain why these department(s).
- 16. If no to question 12, explain.

**Attitude of Sexes to Work**

17. How would you rate the following attitude to work in your establishment?

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Neutral 4. Disagree 5. Strongly Disagree

Women are more punctual to work than men	1	2	3	4	5
Women are more attentive to detail than men	1	2	3	4	5
Men ask for casual leave more than women	1	2	3	4	5
Men are more diligent than women	1	2	3	4	5
Women are more skillful in their duties than men	1	2	3	4	5
Women have better interpersonal communication skills than men	1	2	3	4	5
Men's appearance is more presentable than women	1	2	3	4	5
Men work with minimum supervision than women	1	2	3	4	5

**Gender equalities/inequalities**

18. How would you rate the following benefits in your establishment?

1. Strongly Agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree 5. Not Applicable

Men and women get the same accommodation facility from this establishment	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women enjoy the same Salary advancement	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women have the same Absence/ Study leave	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women get the same Promotion/career advancement	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women get the same Medical care	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women enjoy the same Access to means of transport	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women go through the same training and development programmes	1	2	3	4	5
Men and women get the same social security benefits	1	2	3	4	5

**Labour turnover**

19. What is the Labour turnover for men?  
 a. Very high [ ] b. High [ ]

c. Average [ ] d. Low [ ] e. Very low [ ]

20. What is the Labour turnover for women?

a. Very high [ ] b. High [ ]

c. Average [ ] d. Low [ ]

e. Very low [ ]

21. Would you like to employ more women in your organisation?

a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

22. Please, explain .....

23. Any comment or suggestion concerning female workers in the tourism industry?.....