UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION WINNEBA COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION, KUMASI

THE EXISTENCE OF GLASS CEILING FOR WOMEN IN HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY (CASE OF TECHIMAN

MUNICIPALITY)

FARIDATA OSMAN

A Dissertation in the Department of HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM
EDUCATION, Faculty of VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, submitted to the
School of Graduate Studies, University of Education, Winneba, in partial
fulfilment of the requirements for award of the Master of Technology (Catering
and Hospitality) degree

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, FARIDATA OSMAN, declare that, this dissertation, is the outcome of my research and that except portions where references contained in published work have been duly cited, is entirely my own original work, and that it has neither been submitted nor being concurrently submitted in any other institution.

SIGNATURE	
DATE	OF EDUCATION
	A CONTRACTOR

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work were supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of dissertation as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: MRS. ABENA SEKYERE
SIGNATURE:
DATE:

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The greatest of all thanks goes to the omnipotent and omnipresent God for sustaining me throughout this research and my academic work as a whole.

Ideas may be formed easily but it is not easy to put them into meaningful writing without the help and support of generous and reliable people. It is therefore my pleasure to express my profound gratitude to all those who contributed in one way or the other towards my education and the writing of this project in particular.

I am extremely grateful to my supervisor, Mrs. Abena Sekyere who did not only take her time to correct this work but also contribute and advise me until this thesis was completed. I am also indebted to Dr. Ellen Olu, our head of department. Thank you for your advice and encouragement.

My gratitude also goes to my brother, Yussif A Yakubu (Ussuya) who supported me financially. Also, to my husband Mr. George Nyaamine who supported me with research materials.

Last but not least, to Comfort Katumi Madah and Uncle Felix who encouraged and motivated me to further my education.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my beloved pa/rents Alhadji Yakubu Osman (one plug) and Hajia Fati May you live long to enjoy the fruits of your labour.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENT	PAGE
TITLE PAGE	
DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iii
DEDICATION	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS	\mathbf{v}
LISTS OF TABLES.	viii
ABSTRACT	ix
, spuca.	
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	4
1.3 Purpose of the Study	5
1.4 Objectives of the Study	5
1.5 Research Questions	5
1.6 Delimitation of the Study	5
1.7 Limitation of the Study	6
1.8 Definition of Terms	6
1.9 Organisation of the Text	6
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	8
2.0 Definition of Glass Ceiling	8
2.1 Approaches to Gender Equity	8
2.2 The Pattern of Women Employment in Ghana	12

University of Education, Winneba http://ir.uew.edu.gh

2.3 Review of Glass Ceiling for Women in Hospitality Industry	16
2.4 The Role of Women in Ghana's Economy	25
2. 5 Leadership Skills Needed in Hospitality Industry	34
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	40
3.1 Introduction	40
3.2 Research Design	40
3.3 Background of the Study Area	41
3.4 Target Population	44
3.5 Sample Size	44
3.6 Sampling Techniques	45
3.7 Instrument for Data Collection	45
3.8 Data Collection Procedure and Techniques	45
3.9 Data Analysis	46
3.10 Limitation to Data Collection	47
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS	48
4.0 Overview	48
4.1 Existence of Barriers	51
4.2 Discussion of Results	52
4.2.1 Institutional Barriers.	.52
4.2.2 Internal Barriers	53
4.2.3 External Barriers	55

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

OHESTIONNAIRE	73
REFERENCES	66
5.4 Areas of Further Research	65
5.3 Recommendations	64
5.2 Conclusion	62
5.1 Major Findings	60
5.0 Overview	60



LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
2.1: Milestone of Women Employment in Ghana	3
4.1: Gender of Respondents	48
4.2: Level of Education of Male Respondents	49
4.3: Educational Level of Female Respondents	49
4.4: Respondents at the Management Level	50
4. 5: Promotion of Females	51
4. 6: Existence of Barriers	52



ABSTRACT

Despite constituting more than fifty percent (50%) of the workforce in Ghana, women are still concentrated heavily in typically female occupations such as administrative and secretarial work and vastly under-represented in others. In hospitality industry the situation is not different. Most women in this industry aspire to climb to the top of their profession but there exists glass ceiling which prevents them. This study therefore sought to assess whether glass ceiling exists in hospitality industry for women. Specific objectives however include; identifying the type of glass ceiling that exists for women in the hospitality industry, examining leadership skills needed in hospitality industry and identifying institutional barriers for women in the industry. The Techiman Municipality is situated in the central part of the Brong-Ahafo Region, with a population of 147,788. A sample size of hundred (100) respondents were selected and used for the study. The study made extensive use of both primary and secondary sources of information. It was realised from the study that, the position of women continues to be one in which they are under-represented in senior positions, although there is evidence that women are making inroads into Senior Officer posts in Ghana. It is recommended that if women want change for the better, whether at home or at work, they have to take responsibility for themselves and make things happen. If their company will not change then they should change company. It is hope that this study will serve to interest more organisational researchers to consider women-inmanagement issues.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The differences between men and women have been an enduring interest throughout history. It is said that the first thing we ask of a new-born baby is 'is it a boy or a girl?' But it might be considered that this is the first thing we ask ourselves whenever we meet anyone new. In a world dominated by men in grey suits, the gendered nature of society and its reflection in employment and work are extremely important.

Historically, the exclusion of women from particular occupations by formal and direct mechanisms has not been uncommon. Women were not permitted to enter into the professions of medicine and law, for instance, until these were opened up to women as a result of feminist agitation in the nineteenth century (Bown and Brady, 1991).

Sometimes, women even outperform their male counterparts academically. In United Kingdom for instance, in 1992, more girls than boys gained five good grades in GCSE, and in subject areas such as mathematics and science where girls lag behind boys, they are catching up fast. Eventhough, they do so in vain: the job opportunities available to them prove severely limited in a market that has not altered its base sufficiently to welcome them or to cater for their biological difference (Figgs, 1995).

In Ghana available statistics prove that the 'feminisation of poverty' is a fact of Ghanaian economic life even in the early decade of the twenty first century- a serious disgrace and failure for any civilized nation. The earnings gap between Ghanaian women and men is very wide. Add to this, there is inequitable distribution of income within the household, responsibility for making ends meet and invisible deprivation.

Gender diversity in the hospitality industry has been a major concern among management, academicians and the general public as a whole. In recent years, there has been remarkable progress with respect to women closing the gender gap in managerial positions and many other offices of the industry around the country and specifically in Techiman municipality. Yet there still seems to be some kind of disparities wherein certain departments are predominantly occupied by men (Manu, 1998).

There is therefore a strong evidence that a 'glass ceiling' effect exists which prevents women from moving into the most senior jobs within organizations (Chapman, 1989) and that well-credentialed women are channeled into specialist 'niche jobs' that prevent them from using their skills, acquired expertise and experience to their full potential (Crompton and Sanderson, 1990).

Considerable bodies of research exist concerning gender diversity in business, including the hospitality industry. Several studies demonstrate unequal distribution of income in the hospitality industry, with females earning less than their male counterparts (Biswas & Cassel, 1996; Purcell 1996; Sparrowe & Iverson, 1999). Part of the reason for this disparity may be that female employees may interrupt their working lives due to preferences for marriage and caring for children.

However, gender might not be the sole cause of disparities in the distribution of income and managerial employment in the hospitality industry. Other variables might interact with gender to produce these disparities.

In broad terms, the position of women continues to be one in which they are underrepresented in senior positions, although there is evidence that women are making inroads into Senior Officer posts (Abdela, 1995).

Most women have no idea how difficult it will be, as mothers, to maintain their working lives while the world of work is moulded entirely around the male model and makes few concessions to female needs. Women who want to pursue their careers, maintain intellectual stimulation or simply earn a living must behave like men. Even then they are punished for it-labeled 'tokens' or 'men in skirts'.

Despite substantial changes in the number of women in employment, big differences remain in terms of the kinds of jobs women and men do. Job segregation remains a feature of women's participation in the labour market. Women still tend to work in a more limited range of occupations than men. Women predominate in the lower paid sectors (clerical and secretarial, sales, personal and protective), while men account for the majority employed in professional and management positions (Collinson, 1988). There is therefore a strong evidence that a 'glass ceiling' effect exists which prevents women from moving into the most senior jobs within organizations (Chapman, 1989) and that well-credentialed women are channeled into specialist 'niche jobs' that prevent them from using their skills, acquired expertise and experience to their full potential (Crompton & Sanderson, 1990; Savage, 1992; Crompton, 1995).

Women are more determined than ever to get to the top. The problem seems to be that as they get closer, something stops them-the so-called glass ceiling. This is the intangible barrier that many women encounter as they move up the management scale. Even at lower levels of management, women are in the minority.

Some women who have reached the top have done so by adopting an aggressive 'male' style of management, believing they need to work like men in order to compete with them. There may be some truth in this, but for younger women entering the realms of middle and senior management for the first time, it can be confusing. These and other problems have been identified as the major issues to be discussed in this study.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Until the 1970s women were usually located firmly at the bottom of most organizational hierarchies. In most cases they were expected to leave work when they had children, and they were nearly always employed in jobs that allowed them little opportunity for job mobility or promotion (Halford, Savage & Witz, 1997).

While feminism has done much to highlight the discriminatory fabric of Ghanaians, it has done little to alter it. Even though occasionally, a woman does make it to the top, others of equal ability find that they reach a plateau and can go no further. In the field of business and hospitality in particular, the situation is even worse. For these reasons, it is important that a study such as this should be carried out to at least create an official awareness if nothing at all.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The study seeks to examine the existence of glass ceiling for women in hospitality industry.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study is to assess whether glass ceiling exists in hospitality industry for women. More specific objectives include the following:

- 1. To identify the type of glass ceiling that exists for women in the hospitality industry
- 2. To examine leadership (managerial) skills needed in hospitality industry
- 3. To identify institutional barriers for women in hospitality industry
- 4. To make useful recommendations and suggestions on how to overcome those institutional barriers

1.5 Research Questions

- 1. Does glass ceiling exist for women in hospitality industry?
- 2. What are the institutional barriers that prevent women from reaching the top of the profession?
- 3. Do these institutional barriers matter?

1.6 Delimitation of the Study

The problem of glass ceiling in hospitality industry is predominant in almost every part of the world. It occurs in different ways and in different contexts. However, the study was concentrated on glass ceiling for women in hospitality industry limited to Techiman Municipality. Hotels that were selected include Encom Dymns, Sandies, Agyeiwaa Hotel, Geogio Hotel, Emmanuel Inn, Kodabs Inn, Akina City, Premier Palace Hotel and Relax.

1.7 Limitation of the Study

It is a mark of intellectual honesty for a researcher to admit the limitations of a research so as to create an awareness of the shortfalls of the research to enable people to judge the percentage of reliability of the outcome. The researcher also acknowledges the fact that if the study had included the whole of Ghana it could have generated a more comprehensive report than just using few selected hospitality industry in Techiman Municipality

1.7 Definition of Terms

Glass Ceiling: It refers to the general tendency for women to be underrepresented at higher levels of the occupational hierarchy.

1.8 Organization of the Text

Chapter One covers the introduction containing background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives, research questions, delimitations, limitations, definition of terms, purpose of the study and organisation of text. Chapter Two deals with theories of various authors in connection with how they view glass ceiling for women in hospitality industry and business in general. Chapter Three deals with the methodology and its relation to the study. It includes the research design, library research, population, data collection instruments, primary and secondary data and data collection procedure. In Chapter Four, the valid data have been assembled, discussed

University of Education, Winneba http://ir.uew.edu.gh

and analysed. Chapter Five being the last chapter of the whole thesis basically deals with the summary of the contents of the chapters, summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations and proposed innovations.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Definition of Glass Ceiling

The term **glass ceiling** refers to the observation that top-level management in businesses consist predominantly, if not exclusively of a certain demographic A "ceiling" is suggested because persons outside the dominant demographic group are supposedly limited in how far they are able to advance inside the organization ranks. The ceiling is "glass" (transparent) because the limitation is not immediately apparent.

The term is often credited as having been originally coined by Carol Hymowitz and Timothy Schellhardt in the March 24 1986 edition of the Wall Street Journal. The term is often used to refer to women's access to upper management. However, the glass ceiling also refers to the general tendency to women to be underrepresented at higher levels of the occupational hierarchy. Empirical evidence for this pattern is pervasive in Ghana, especially in the hospitality industry.

2.1 Approaches to Gender Equality

Policies and programmes that ignore differential impact on gender groups are often gender blind and potentially harmful for human development. Gender mainstreaming requires a focus on results to improve the well being of poor women. Women are poorer than men because they are often denied equal rights and opportunities, lack access to assets and do not have the same entitlements as men. They also carry the burden of reproductive and care work and represent the majority of unpaid labour.

Widespread confusion still exists concerning both the definition and use of different gender balance approaches. Many institutions at both national and international level are unclear about their policy approach to women. The women in development approach (WID) has confused rather than clarified the understanding of women issues and has served to legitimise a range of approaches to women, which incorporate different underlying assumptions in relation to their practical and strategic gender needs.

It is precisely because of this confusion that it has become important to develop simple but rigorous tools to enable policy makers and planners to understand with greater detail the implication of their interventions in terms of both their potential and limitations in assisting women. There are five important areas that could help change the status of women and improve their inequitable situation. They include education, health, wage labour, agriculture and natural resource management, and financial services.

Thus any gender and development strategy that is adopted in the country should as a matter of principle take into account these areas and the relative roles and responsibilities of women and men.

The engagement of women in economic activities in Ghana is widespread, ranging from the formal to the informal sector; even though majority of their activities is in the informal sector Women perform a lot of "invisible" activities that may not be considered as economic activities.

9

Women's participation in the formal sector has been improved since the last decade due to access to education and therefore as more women get educated and acquire the requisite skills, they are increasingly being engaged in the formal sector, though there are few of them in managerial positions.

It is however, disheartening to note that though women make up the majority of the people in Ghana their impact on the decision making process is limited. In fact women are found at the receiving end of the decision making process and therefore have little or no influence on the decisions that affect them and their families.

Over the years, while there has been an increased participation of women in economic activities in Ghana, there are still more women with little or no means of economic survival. Research however indicates that, support for a stronger role for women in society contributes to economic growth through improved child survival rates, better family health, and reduced fertility rates.

Nevertheless, women still face many barriers in contributing to and benefiting from development. These include low investment in female education and health and restricted access to services and assets. It is therefore crucial for women and broadly, gender issues to be mainstreamed into the economic processes of the country for economic development.

While it is true that Ghana offers equal opportunities to both boys and girls in all aspect of life, there are hindrances in terms of culture, economic and otherwise, that

prevent girls and women from taking full advantage of such opportunities. Women's participation in public and political life is also hampered by these factors.

It is therefore important to note that as Ghana searches for programmes and policies that will aid its development process, it is pertinent to make gender policies that enhance gender equality and full integration of women into the economy central to the growth process. Ghanaian women face significant challenges in their day-today lives.

Increasingly, women are getting out of their home jobs as home makers and are forced to combine their work at home as mothers, wives and homemakers and their jobs outside the home. As if this is not challenging, women's work is buffeted by the existence and /or non-existence of policies that aims to improve the lot of women in Ghana.

In Ghana, there are no clear cut policies and programmes to regulate women employment. In United Kingdom for instance, there is Sex Discrimination Act (SDA) of 1975 which prohibits gender discrimination against individuals in employment, including recruitment, treatment at work and dismissal. It also makes it illegal to discriminate against married people, where employment is concerned. However, there are exceptions if the gender of the worker is a 'genuine occupational qualification'. The SDA allows an employer to restrict applications to women (or men) if the essential nature of the job calls for a specific sex. For a example, a female model for women's clothes or a male care assistant whose job involves helping men dress or use the bathroom.

It is usually quite easy to determine whether someone has been treated less favourably than someone of the opposite sex would have been in identical circumstances. This type of discrimination includes instances of sexual harassment (defined as unwelcome physical, verbal or non-verbal conduct of a sexual nature) or treating a female employee or candidate less favourably than her male counterparts because she is pregnant.

The main grey of the law is termed 'indirect sexual discrimination' and is far more subtle. This is where a condition or practice adversely affects a considerably larger proportion of one sex than the other, and it is not justifiable, irrespective of sex, to apply that condition or practice. For example a requirement to be under 5' 10" would probably discriminate against men. And a requirement to work full time might unlawfully discriminate against women.

2.2 The Pattern of Women Employment in Ghana

Women participation in the labour force has changed a good deal historically. In the pre-industrial economy, in which the household was the basic unit of production, women, men and children were all involved in production-working on the land, spinning and weaving cloth, and making food and clothing. In the early phases of industrialization many women continued to work in agriculture, in the home, and in manufacturing workshops, factories and mills (Beechey & Whitelegg, 1988).

Women's work has seen significant changes since 1945. Women carried on vital work during World War Two. Many women learned important skills that helped them to find work in the pos-war years. Light industries were growing and provided many job

opportunities for women, as did service industries and the retail sector, such as banking.

Since 1964 increasing wage rates provided a stimulus for women to enter the labour market. Over the post-war years real wage rates for women were on the rise and it became more and more expensive to remain economically inactive. Between 1970 and 1994 women's monthly earnings doubled in real terms. Women were motivated to spend less time doing the housework and more time in paid employment.

In the second half of 1996, the numbers of men and women in employment in the Ghana were roughly equal. Women were concentrated in occupational groups like agriculture, clerical and secretarial, personal and protective services, and sales. At the same time, there was very little involvement of women in professional and managerial positions.

Also, there was a shift towards the service sector in the 1980s and 1990s, which has always predominantly employed women. Retailing expanded as the consumer boom got under way during the 1980s, the market for financial services increased and, as living standards improved, the demand for personal services grew (Beechey & Whitelegg, 1988). One of the most noticeable developments in women's employment has also been their entry into professional and managerial employment. However, the proportion of married women working declined in the course of the nineteenth century.

In general, employment growth in Ghana has not kept pace with growth in the economically active population as a result of the high population growth rate, slow economic growth rate and adverse effects of globalisation. Employment trends show that there is more economically active population in the informal sector than the formal sector. This can be explained by the fact that a little more than half of the labour force is in agriculture where activities tend to be organized informally.

It is important to note that there are more women in informal economic activities than men in the three economic sectors – agriculture, industry and services. In all the three sectors, industry employs the least of them. The status of employment in Ghana is characterized by the dominance of self employment with no employees of the economically active population.

According to the 2000 census data of Ghana, the private sector (formal and informal) provides employment for about eighty eight percent (88%) of the economically active population (15years and above). The private informal sector alone employs about eighty percent (80%) of the active work force, thus being the largest sector of employment for the working population, irrespective sex.

The formal sector (both private and public), which employs only about fourteen percent (14%) of the work force, is an important source of employment only in the big urban centres such as Greater Accra (33.3%) and Ashanti (23.2%) regions. (Ghana Statistical Service, 2001).

In terms of women's employment, the private sector (formal and informal) caters for about 91% whiles the public sector employs only 4.4% of economically active women (15 years and above). The population of females 7 years and above is about 40% (7,592,852) of the entire population out of which 59% (4,483,021) are economically active.

About 81.2% of the economically active women are employed while 11.5% are unemployed. According to the 2000 census3, about 7% of women had jobs but did not work. The data for women who are 15 years and above is not significantly different from the above age group and it shows an economically active population of about 82% who are employed and 10.7% of them who are unemployed. (Ghana Statistical Service, 2001)

The percentage of women working in tourism (including catering, restaurant and hotel industries) varied greatly from region to region, ranging from 2 per cent to over 80 per cent; however, in countries with established tourism industries, women tended to make up roughly half of the tourism sector workforce. Nevertheless, there is widespread phenomenon of horizontal and vertical gender segregation in the hospitality industry worldwide; with women generally occupying lower-paid seasonal and part time positions

Although there are a number of studies investigating women in various industries, there is presently little research devoted specifically to woman in hospitality industry.

Data on female workers in hotel industry in Africa is difficult to come by and in Ghana, it is still almost entirely non-existent

Very few women are employed in the hotel industry in Ghana, despite male and female employees' equal levels of competence, something attributable to entrenched local tradition and religious laws relegating women to weak, submissive social roles The restriction of women's opportunities working in the hotel and tourism industry is also prevalent in other countries, and not limited to Ghana countries alone.

Although women's employment in the industry has increased in recent years, it is stated in the literature that for the most part they are hired to do semi-skilled or low-skilled work, and hold low-paying jobs. Furthermore, gender inequality has prevented women from reaching managerial positions in their organizations

2.3 Review of Glass Ceiling for Women in Hospitality Industry

In recent times, the debate on the role of women in societies especially their participation in economic activity has generated a lot of controversy, with one side of the debate arguing against increased women participation in all spheres of economic and social activities on biological and cultural basis, whilst the other side have argued that a woman's status in society depends crucially on her participation in economic and social activities and that the biology of sex does not confine the woman to the home.

In a paper called Occupational Segregation, published by the Department of Employment in United Kingdom, Catherine (1991) has examined the aggregate changes in women's employment over their working lives. In the following passage she summarizes her observations about the changing pattern of women's employment in the twentieth century:

The labour force participation of men has always been high and remained steady at around 96 per cent of the age group until 1951, with a slight drop in recent years due to the increasing number of full-time students aged 15-24 years. The work rates for women were also fairly stable until around 1931; around the time of the Second World War they began to rise to their current level of 55 per cent of the age group. This represents a proportional increase in economic activity rates of 45 per cent over the century. The greatest change is in the work rates of married women. In 1901, only one ever-married woman in ten was economically active, by 1971 one in two was active in the labour force. This represents a proportional increase in labour force participation of almost 400 per cent for wives. (p.4)

Although researchers have called for equal opportunities (EO) between men and women, in developed and underdeveloped countries, women in the hotel industry 'constitute an underutilized and under-valued...resource' (Maxwell, 1997: 234). They still tend to take a back seat to men in jobs and do not actively participate in the hospitality industry for social, cultural and traditional reasons (Baum, Amoah & Spivack, 1997; Li & Leung, 2001; Wong & Chung, 2003).

Additionally, the 'old boy' network still dominates in the vast majority of organisations in Europe (Linehan & Scullion, 2001: 222), and there is a clear distinction between women and men in terms of occupation in high masculinity cultures such as Japan, Germany and the USA (Treven, 2003). In contrast, it has been argued that a high percentage of female staff are employed in the hotel industry in the world (Baines, 1998), as well as an increased proportion of women in the hospitality industry (Lee & Chon, 2000).

In the literature, it is generally agreed that in hotels, women are recruited to do semior unskilled, low-paid, gendered, operative and non-managerial jobs (Biswas & Cassell, 1996; Davies, Taylor & Savery, 2001) Women are not recruited for other hotel jobs since it is considered inappropriate, such as being bell-boys, night watch or night porters (Biswas & Cassell, 1996).

Furthermore, Linehan and Scullion (2001) stated that women held low-skilled jobs and low-paid positions due to selection and recruitment processes as well as informal and formal policies and processes, and that the main barrier preventing them from reaching senior managerial positions was the instilled negative perception in the organisation environment towards them (their gender), as is demonstrated by Biswas and Cassell (1996: 23):

The taken-for-granted assumptions about gender that are embedded deeply within established organizational discourses serve to create organizational environments where it is difficult for women to succeed.

However, Li and Leung (2001) in their research have identified the main obstacles restricting female managers from moving up the hierarchical structure as cultural and social barriers, and argue that this has nothing to do with specific company policy or practices. Nevertheless, these wider cultural considerations no doubt have consequences for the prospects for female employees within a given company.

Female employees cannot be excluded from the hotel industry because of gender roles in the organisation. However, there are past studies that showed some hotel companies as gendered and discriminatory. For instance, Biswas and Cassell (1996) pointed out, in a case study, of an international hotel chain in England that organisations prefer some jobs in hotels to be occupied by women, such as reception and the sales and marketing department, because of their appearance and their display of sexuality. Moreover, to provide the impression of being at home, for example, an older waitress for breakfast is highly recommended.

Kattara (2005) stated that females tend to be more attractive especially to male customers. This is because they can better handle customers and are more accepted than their male counterparts in people-oriented positions such as room division and marketing departments. Additionally, she argues that owing to females' natural abilities and qualities, women are ideally and naturally suited to roles in human resource positions. The latter point has been underlined by Liu and Wilson (2001), who have argued that females are far more determined than their male counterparts and tend to be more democratic in management, which encourages staff commitment. They also added that women are quite adept at juggling work and family life, and have gained various job-transferable skills such as interpersonal, communication, organisation and 'fire-fighting' ability. These and other skills have proved to be quite valuable in the workplace. (Liu & Wilson, 2001)

Research has confirmed the importance of the female contribution to hotel management, since it is presumed that the female role in management in future is considerable (Maxwell, 1997; Li & Leung, 2001). Other 'good' aspects accompany the employment of women: according to female managers' point of view.

The success of hotels relies on customer satisfaction, while in contrast; male managers are more focused on achieving financial goals for the hotels (Peacock, 1995). Moreover, according to the view of Diane Miller, a general manager interviewed in research conducted by Maxwell (1997), senior managers have started to recognise and acknowledge that women, when fully committed, achieve better results than men do.

Furthermore, Maxwell (1997: 233) has found that, compared to that of their male counterparts, the approach used by female senior managers in their staff management styles such as 'good communication, flexibility and adaptability, and teamwork' have aided them in attaining this rank and provided good outcomes for the organisation. In more detail, these approaches and skills, which have previously been identified as connected with female management (e.g. Smith & Smits, 1994; Shirley, 1995, both cited in Maxwell, 1997), are:

'Their being better communicators than their male counterparts in terms of having a deeper insight into, and being more interested in, their staff.

Their having a consistent expectation of high standards of performance from staff together with a capacity for attention to detail.

Their focus on being a visible, open-management presence with regular and frequent contact with staff.

University of Education, Winneba http://ir.uew.edu.gh

Their relative sensitivity to what their staff thinks of them and flexibility in adjusting their management styles in response.

Their inclination towards teamwork' (Maxwell, 1997: 233).

According to Magablih (2000), one of the leading experts on tourism and hospitality in Jordan, there should be a quota system and equal opportunity required by new legislation on recruitment and selection in the tourism industry to enable women to share work fairly with their male counterparts in tourism and hospitality activities.

Interestingly, the Jordanian government introduced a quota system in tourist guide training programmes by allocating places for women and charging them only token admission fees, to encourage women to train and operate with their male counterparts as tourist guides. Putting such initiatives into practice succeeded, to some extent, in bringing women into the tourism arena and increasing the proportion of female employees in other tourism activities (Magablih, 2000).

As the author notes, this policy led to several female tourist guides working in Jordan. However, it has empirically been identified that nepotism practices preclude Jordanian organisations from applying the basic principle of equal opportunity, namely, 'the right person for the right job' (et al, 1994: 66).

In terms of women and type of hotels, according to Timo and Davidson (2005), the jobs in 4- and 5-star international hotel chains are shared almost equally between female and male counterparts. However, things differ when it comes to managerial positions, which are still dominated by men (Wong & Chung, 2003; Timo &

Davidson, 2005). Moreover, Ramos, Rey-Maquieira & Tugores (2004) found that there was not much gender difference in terms of receiving training conducted by large hotels, whereas the difference in small-and medium-sized hotels was significant.

This negative attitude to women working in the hotel industry has recently started to diminish. Although it will take time to fully surmount, it will change, largely. Thanks to globalisation, public awareness of tourism and international hotel chains, which are renowned for their leading policies and practices in the field of equal opportunities (Gröschl & Doherty, 1999).

Considering women in Arab countries, in Egypt (a typical Arab country) only 153 (13.2 per cent) of hotel managers were female out of a total of 1,161, and only three females in 71 hotels were able to break the 'glass ceiling' and climb the hierarchical structure up to management administrative positions which include general manager, executive assistant and resident manager (Kattara, 2005).

Also a research approached all middle managers (head department) in all international hotel chains in Jordan, the researcher found that The profile of respondents reveals that the hotel industry is male dominated at the middle management level, with 33 females (16 per cent) and 174 males (84 per cent) (Masadeh, 2010).

This finding supports the study of Magablih (2000), which reported that women play an insignificant role in the tourism and hotel industry. Similarly, Timo and Davidson's (2005) study on Australian reported that only 34.5 per cent of hotel

industry managers were female, compared to 65.5 per cent male. In the U.S.A., on the other hand, Woods and Viehland (2000) found that 46 per cent of managers in the country's 11 hotel chains were female.

Nevertheless, these findings were consistent with those of the present study in that female management tended to be limited to specific areas. This appears to be a common issue in Africa, Asia and Middle East countries. Li and Leung's (2001) study reported that only two females had broken through the invisible barrier and achieved general manager position in the 77 hotels in Singapore.

Pine's study indicated that only three females reached general management positions out of 72 Hong Kong hotels. These figures are even lower than those suggested by the worldwide picture of gender segregation in the hospitality industry, in which it has been reported (Jones, 1992) that women make up only 4 per cent of middle and senior managers and 1 per cent of upper management, despite the importance of the tourism sector for women, who make up some 46 per cent tourism workers according to a 1999 report based on data from 76 counties, and whose employment in the tourism sector is higher in most places than in the general workforce.

In Egypt, it was found that female employees did not get promoted to senior levels due to four factors:

The belief that women once married would not function as well as their male counterparts;

University of Education, Winneba http://ir.uew.edu.gh

In hotels, promotions could be associated with transfer of assignment to another hotel chain, and there is a belief that married females are not as mobile as males;

Usually female employees have to work much more than males to be as effective; and lastly,

The presence of cultural barriers that prevent women from advancing their careers (Kattara, 2005).

Apparently female career advancement in the hotel industry in the Middle East region can be illustrated by the following quotable statement:

A female holding a 'general manager' position is still too complicated a situation to be accepted in the Middle East culture. Business there is generally a men's world, not to mention that precedence in management must be prevailed by males. Therefore, it is an extremely rigid road for females to find an easy chance to reach such managerial positions (Kattara, 2005: 246)

Finally, Mahatma K. Gandhi extolled women:

To call women the weaker sex is a libel; it is man's injustice to woman...There is no occasion for women to consider themselves subordinate or inferior to men...A woman's intuition has often proved truer than man's arrogant assumption of superior knowledge...Woman is the companion of man, gifted with equal mental

capacities...If nonviolence is the law of our being, the future is with woman (Quotations compiled by Tikekar, 2007).

2.4 The Role of Women in Ghana's Economy

The debate on the role of women in societies and their participation in economic activity has sparked a lot of controversy for a considerable time. As a result, different groups of people including women, government, development partners, and civil society groups have come out with different opinions to support their stand.

Those who are against the increased participation of women in all spheres of economic and political activities have argued that, the biology of sex shows that women are limited to the home and must play a subordinate role in the economy.

On the other hand, since sex has been constant throughout history it cannot be used to explain changes in societies. Biology of sex therefore cannot be used to explain the status of women in societies (Deckard, 1983).

According to Leavitt (1971) the most important clue to a woman's status anywhere in the world is her degree of participation in economic life and her control over property and the product she produces. To enhance efficiency and aid survival, every known society divides and specializes labour task to some extent and this division of labour has knowingly or unknowingly been done along sex lines where men carry out tasks that take them outside the home and women are largely restricted to homecare, and childbearing

Women are generally perceived to be patient, dependent and passive and their work considered being unexciting and repetitive. In fact, women are naturally mothers, and their greatest pleasure and true fulfillment lies in maternity, the one out of a few things that women are good at (Deckard, 1983). These kinds of ideologies about women have tended to marginalize women and have belittled women's work in the home and outside the home and therefore women's contribution to economic well being of the home and society.

To correct this imbalance and to reverse the marginalisation of women it was necessary for both men and women to realize that women are not treated as equals of men. Furthermore, women's voices needed to be heard and included. Unfortunately, not all women had equal access to avenues that made this possible. Voices heard were generally from one part of the world, the West and these voices purported to speak for all women irrespective of location.

While they did a good job from the limited perspective of their own experiences, a lot of misrepresentation arose due to their lack of knowledge of those they purported to represent. As was to be expected, Africa and other locations outside their immediate environment became esoteric laboratories for the study of 'quaint', 'barbaric' and 'repressive' traditional practices. Not much was made of the unique strengths and institutionalized powers of women in other places, particularly many parts of Africa, especially prior to colonialism (Ufomata, 2000). Changing dynamics of relations of power within families and societies are often ignored.

Ample evidence points to the fact that traditional roles have been altered for many men and women and even traditional professional roles that were gender specific have become gender neutral. Women head several families, and others still are equal breadwinners with the men. Some years ago, it used to be the case that only women were to be midwives.

However, in contemporary times, gynecologists are more likely to be men than women. Furthermore, in several traditional African societies, men would not be caught dead selling produce that were considered women's, but now everybody sells whatever would give them money. Women now engage in all kinds of professions all over the world (Ufomata, 2000). Thus, sex-ascribed roles are giving way to more open environment in terms of economic and social opportunities.

Whiles women's roles and participation in economic activity in the traditional sense have to a large extent been defined and restricted along biological and cultural lines, women's role in the Ghanaian economy have not been limited to the home alone but has spanned all sectors of the economy with its impact felt more in the agricultural sector and services (wholesale and retail sub-sector) sectors. Women's participation in the labour force has contributed to household incomes and the education and health of their children.

However, there are marked disparities in women's access to economic resources that will enable them to achieve their economic and social goals when compared to their male counterparts. Women generally lack access to credit, land and education, which make their progress in economic development relatively difficult. Women are also

bogged down with their responsibility as the primary care givers in the home, thus, putting constraints on their time.

Furthermore, the economic growth process in Ghana with its attendant turbulence of decay and reforms has tended to worsen the plight of vulnerable groups in the society, including women. To address these problems facing women and to improve women's participation in economic and social activities in the past few decades, a number of programmes and policies have been designed and implemented by government and international agencies and non-governmental organizations.

In Ghana there has been a proliferation of policies, programmes and projects designed to assist women, especially low-income women in their bid to achieve economic independence in all spheres of their lives and to improve their participation in public life and the decision making process. Until recently however, there has been little systematic classification of these various policy initiatives. This concern for low-income women's needs has coincided with recognition of their important role in development.

Since the 1950s many different interventions have been made reflecting changes in macro level and economic and social policy approaches to development in Ghana, as well as in state policy toward women. Policy approaches towards women have shifted from welfare to equity to antipoverty to other approaches such as efficiency, empowerment and integration.

This mirrors the general trends in development policies in the developing world, from modernization policies of accelerated growth through basic needs strategies associated with redistribution to more recent compensatory measures associated with structural adjustment policies and the highly indebted poor countries (HIPC) initiative.

After all these approaches, women continue to be marginalized and their contribution to the economy limited to the home and the lower ranks of economic life due to poor access to resources that could enhance their full participation in the economy. Gradually, however, Ghanaian women's fundamental contributions in their households, food production systems and national economies are increasingly acknowledged, by civil society and also by the international community.

This has come about as a result of women's own energetic efforts to organize, articulate their concerns and make their voices heard as well as efforts that have been put in by some development partners and civil society organizations within and outside the country. At both grass-root and national levels, more women's associations have been formed since the beginning of the 1990s, taking advantage of the new political openings to assert their leadership roles. They are also pressing for an expansion of women's economic and social opportunities, and the advancement of women's rights. By improving their own positions, they are simultaneously strengthening Ghanaian and African societies as well as enhancing the country's broader development prospects (Manu, 1998), which is in the right direction.

In fact, if the human resources of a nation are supposed to be an asset, then it will be unthinkable to marginalize almost half of the labour force, which happens to be women1, in Ghana. On the whole, women in Ghana continue to face enormous obstacles. The growing recognition of their contributions has not translated into significantly improved access to resources or increased decision-making powers. Neither has the dynamism that women display in the economic, cultural and social lives of their communities through their associations and informal networks been channelled into creating new models of participation and leadership (Manu, 1998).

Debates on women's issues have in the last few decades assumed prominence on the global agenda. Issues concerning women are topics of meetings and conferences around the world. Legislation is constantly being introduced and passed on ways to better the lot of women, which is a good development but it will be more important and much more beneficial for these debates and conferences, policies and programmes to be translated to reflect in the daily lives of women by enhancing the capacity and access to economic resources that are vital to their social and economic well being.

The table below shows some remarkable milestones made by women in Ghana.

TABLE 2.1: Milestone of Women Employment in Ghana

YEAR	MILESTONE	
1900/1901	Nana Yaa Asantewaa, Queen mother of Ejisu-Ashanti first	
	woman to lead the Ashanti's in a war against British rule in	
	Ashanti. The war is popularly known as the Yaa Asantewaa War.	
1954	Ms. Mabel Dove was the first and only woman to be appointed	
	as a member of the Gold Coast Legistrative Assembly	
1957	Mrs. T.S. Okoh, first Ghanaian woman who designed Ghana's	
	National Flag	
1966	Her Lordship Mrs. Justice Anie-Jiaggehe, the first woman to be	
	appointed as the Supreme Court Judge.	
1971	Amendment of the Matrimonial Causes Act in the Criminal Code	
	(Act367).	
1975	The establishment of the National Council on Women and	
	Development (NCWD)	
1979	Mrs. Amon Nikoi the first woman appointed Commissioner of	
	Foreign Affairs	
1979-1981	Affirmative Action Policy to increase female participation and	
	appointment in Local level governance from 30% to 50%.	
1985	The establishment of the Federation of International Women	
	Lawyers Ghana (FIDA)	
1985	The Passage of Intestate Succession Law, PNDCL 11	
1986	Ghana ratified the convention on the elimination of all forms of	
	Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) .	
1990	Ghana Ratified the convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC).	

	It means Ghana has agreed to protect the Rights of Children as		
	enshrined in the CRC and the Children's Act.		
1991	Mrs. Justice Banford-Addo, the second woman to be appointed		
	to the Supreme Court of Ghana		
1992-1996	During the 1st Parliament of the 4th Republic female		
	representation to their male counterparts in Parliament was in the		
	ratio of 16:184.		
1995	Beijing Conference made up of Heads of State and Women		
	Leaders provided a platform for affirmative action for women		
	empowerment.		
1995	Women in Broadcasting was established with Sarah Akrofi-		
	Quarcoo News Editor, of GBC, as President		
1997	The establishment of Gender Development Institute by Wilbert		
	Tengey.		
1998	Amendment of Section 88 A of the criminal code to include the		
	prosecution of offenders who mete out criminal customs and		
	practices in relation to bereaved spouses. Section 69 A of the		
	criminal code is also amended, to prohibiting female genital		
	circumcision. Section 314 A of the criminal code has also been		
	amended and itdeals with domestic servitude such as trokosi.		
1999	The Launch of African Women Lawyers Association (AWLA)		
1999	The establishment of the Women and Juvenile Unit (WAJU) of		
	the Ghana Police Service now known as Domestic Violence and		
	Victims Support Unit (DOVVSU).		
2001	Women and Children's Affairs Ministry established with		

	Minister, Mrs. Gladys Asmah as Cabinet Member.
2001	Women Development Fund established
2001	Ms. Esther Ofori , appointed the first woman Chief Executive
	Officer of Ghana Trade Fair Authority.
2002	The Government of Ghana came out with an affirmative action
	that 30% of government appointees should be women.
2002	Ms. Eva Lokko, appointed the first woman Director General of
	the National and Premier Broadcasting station GBC
2002	Ms. Elizabeth Adjei, the first female to be appointed as Director
	of Ghana Immigration Services.
2002	Introduction of NEPAD School feeding programme. The
	programme provides for the provision of one square meal a day
	to sc <mark>hool</mark> children.
2002	Ms. Annan Bossman, the first Woman to act as Commissioner of
	the Commission for Human Rights and Administrative Justice
	(CHRAJ)
2004	Prof. Akua Kuenyehia, first Ghanaian woman to be appointed to
	the International Court of Justice, The Hague
2004	Dr. Grace Bediako, the first Woman appointed Government
	Statistician
2004	Gender and Child Policy was launched to address the issue of
	gender inequality, women empowerment and problems and
	challenges affecting children
2004	Government Capitation Grant introduced. This is to help poor
	needy children financially so that they can attend school and also

	to reduce the incidence of child labour
2005	Dr. Regina Adutwum, the first woman appointed Director of
	National Development Planning Commttee
2005	Mrs. Esther Apewokin, the first woman to be appointed Chief
	Executive of National Population Council Secretariat.
2005	Mrs. Gifty Afenyi Dadzie , the first female journalist to be
	appointed to the Council of State
2005	The Africa Chapter on the Rights and Welfare of Children signed
	and ratified
2006	The Launch of a fund to support women in Local Governance
	(¢4bn). This is to support female political aspirants in Local level
	elections and help attain gender parity amongst elected Assembly
	Members

Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2006), Women and Men in Ghana, A Statistical Compendium

2.5 Leadership Skills Needed in Hospitality Industry

2.5.1 The Meaning of Leadership

There are many ways of looking at leadership and many interpretations of its meaning. Leadership might be interpreted in simple terms, such as 'getting others to follow' or 'getting people to do things willingly', or interpreted more specifically, for example as 'the use of authority in decision-making'. It may be exercised as an attribute of position, or because of personal knowledge or wisdom.

Leadership might be based on a function of personality, or it can be seen as a behavioural category. It may also be viewed in terms of the role of the leaders and their ability to achieve effective performance from others.

It is difficult to generalise about leadership. Essentially, it is a relationship through which one person influences the behaviour or actions of other people (Mullins, 2005). This means that the process of leadership cannot be separated from the activities of groups and with effective teambuilding.

According to Levine (2000), leaders need to focus on moving people and organizations forward by increasing the competency of staff and the co-operation of teams in order to improve the organisation. A leader job is therefore to constantly challenge the bureaucracy that smothers individual enthusiasm and the desire to contribute to an organisation.

Leaders need to create an environment that encourages the development of skills, learning and openness so that those on their team can participate in the deployment of financial and human resources.

Leadership is vitally important at all levels within a company, from main board to the shop floor. Leadership is the moral and intellectual ability to visualise and work for what is best for the company and its employees. The most vital thing the leader does is to create team spirit around her and near her, not in a school boy sense, but in realistic terms of mature adults. To be effective, leadership has to be seen, and it is best seen in action.

2.5.2 The Meaning of Management

Management unlike leadership is more usually viewed as getting things done through other people in order to achieve stated organisational objectives. The manager may react to specific situations and be more concerned with solving short-term problems.

Management is regarded as relating to people working within a structured organisation and with prescribed roles. To people outside the organisation the manager might not necessarily be seen in a leadership role. Management may arguably be viewed more in terms of planning, organising, directing and controlling the activities of subordinate staff. Leadership however, is concerned more with attention to communicate with, motivating, encouraging and involving people.

2.5.3 Managerial Style and Behaviour

Managerial qualities seem to have been defined in masculine terminology and it is not therefore surprising that mainly men are now directors. A good manager's success depends on the ability to develop and motivate others. Good management is not just a bright tool-kit of techniques and specifications, although the professional skills are essential. It involves the art of entrepreneurship and leadership.

An essential ingredient of any successful manager is the ability to handle effectively. The importance of managerial performance and effectiveness has long been recognised by major writers such as, for example, Drucker who originally in 1985, propounded that:

The manager is the dynamic, life-giving element in every business. Without their leadership 'the resources of production' remain resources and never become production. In a competitive economy, above all, the quality and performance of the managers determine the success of a business; indeed they determine its survival. For the quality and performance of its managers is the only effective advantage an enterprise in a competitive economy can have.

Management is of pivotal importance for modern society. It is for this reason that, no matter what thinking about management, is of great relevance to management practice.

There is support for the view that flexible forms of organisations are encouraging a new way of constructing management and leadership in less masculine ways than has traditionally been the case. Themes such as identity, cohesion teams and social integration all suggest a non-masculine direction.

If more participatory, non-hierarchical flexible and group-oriented style of management is viewed as increasingly appropriate and this is formulated in feminine terms then women can be marketed as carries of suitable orientations for occupying positions as managers.

Leadership is described as not about being a wonder woman or a man, but as someone who:

- Values the individuality of their staff;
- * Encourages individuals to challenge the status quo;

• Possesses integrity and humility; (Mullins, 2005).

About a decade ago, Rosener (1990) identified an interactive leadership style in the female managers that she studied. She found that these women 'actively worked to make their interactions with subordinates positive for everyone involved'. Specifically she described four characteristics of this style:

- Encouraging participation-by making people feel part of the organisation, instilling group identity and facilitating inclusion and participation in all aspects of the work.
- Share power and information-willingly sharing power and information rather than guarding and coveting it. They are not preoccupied with 'the turf'.
- ❖ Enhance the self-worth of others-by not asserting their own superiority and giving credit, praising publicly and recognising individual efforts. Most disliked practices that set them apart from others (separate parking/dinning etc).
- Energise others-by being enthusiastic for the work and encouraging others to see work as challenging

Research conducted by Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) supports the view that the modern style of leadership required for organisations is one that embraces vision, individual consideration, strengthening participation and nurtures growth and self-

esteem. Alimo-Metcalfe was positive that women managers were bringing with them real qualities of 'warm, consideration for others, nurturance of self-esteem and above all, integrity'

➤ Although vision, charisma, courage are qualities that are ascribed to the distant leader, subordinates seek qualities in their nearby leader such as being sociable, open and considerate. These were rated more highly in the research and it was found that women scored higher than men in 11 out of the 14 characteristics.

There is therefore evidence that women also have the qualities needed to climb to the top.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter basically describes the procedures adopted in conducting the research. The issues discussed are the study of the design, the population of the study, sample and sampling techniques, data collection procedure, the procedure for analyzing data collected, and possible limitations to data collection.

3.2 Research Design

This researcher adopted the case study and cross sectional approach. Among the various research designs, case studies are frequently regarded as using both quantitative and qualitative research and a combination of both approaches yield quality results (Bryman, 2004). It also gives in-depth information with regards to the topic under study –'The Existence of glass ceiling for women in hospitality industry.

It is a case study because the researchers explored in depth an event of two or more individuals. It is also a cross sectional because it explains and explores behaviors, practices, knowledge and opinions about a phenomenon. Furthermore, it also explains information gathered at a certain point in time. The study is chosen because it has the advantage of producing a good amount of response from a range of people (Stake (1995).

The researcher also employed both explanatory and descriptive research. Explanatory research is a higher order research type which attempts a clarification for events and situations. It attempts to establish cause and effect relationship.

Descriptive research, on the other hand, involves a vivid account of a situation or a phenomenon in order to come out with information about the phenomenon of interest. The explanatory research gives true meaning to the problem under study whilst the descriptive research tries to present the situation with facts and figures.

3.3 Background of the Study Area

The Techiman Municipality is situated in the central part of the Brong-Ahafo Region and lies between longitudes 1049' east and 2030' west and latitude 8000' north and 7035' south. It shares common boundaries with four districts namely, Techiman North, Wenchi, and Nkronza Municipalities in the Brong-Ahafo Region and Offinso-North District in the Ashanti Region.

The Techiman Municipality has a land surface area of 649.0714 sq. km. The population density therefore is 227.7 persons per square kilometer. This is very high and has implications for the socio-economic development of the Municipality. The Municipality covers a land area of 669.7km2 representing approximately 1.7% of the land area of the Brong-Ahafo Region.

The Municipal capital, Techiman, is a nodal town, where roads from the three northern regions (Upper West, Upper East and Northern Regions) converge. In addition, trunk roads from Sunyani, Kumasi, Wa and Tamale all meet at Techiman thus making it a bustling 24 hours commercial centre.

The physical features of Techiman Municipality are made up of the natural environment (climate, vegetation, relief and drainage), location and size. Together, with the social and cultural environment they determine the conditions under which the people live, develop and grow and ultimately derive their quality of life. The physical and natural environment is therefore an essential element or factor contributing to the socio-economic development of the Municipality.

The population of the Municipality, according to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, is 147,788 representing 6.4 percent of the region's total population. Males constitute 48.5 percent and females represent 51.5 percent. A greater percentage of the population (64.5%) live in urban areas as compared with 35.5 percent in the rural areas. The Municipality has a sex ratio of 94.5. The population of the Municipality is youthful (13.6%) of the 0-4 age group, depicting a broad base population pyramid which tapers off with a small number of the 70 plus years (3.0%). The total age dependency ratio for the Municipality is 75.2, the age dependency ratio for males is higher (78.9) than that of females (71.9).

Techiman serves not only as points of exchange of goods and services but also has important influence on the economic life of the surrounding communities. The famous Techiman market is one of the largest agricultural produce markets in the country . The market which can also be classified as trans-national, attracts people from other West African countries like Mali, Burkina Faso, Nigeria and Niger.

The rapid growth of commercial activities at the Techiman market has been supported by the provision of infrastructure; market sheds and shops, security and sanitary facilities. Public private partnership need to be explored to develop the market in order to harness its full potential. The dominant commercial activities are transportation, catering services, wholesale and retail trade, and mobile phone services

The chains of rocks, caves and wildlife within the environs have made the Municipality one of the most patronized tourist destinations in recent times. There are also, hotels which provide accommodation for various tourist, visitors, traders and passers-by. These include; twenty-five hotels and guesthouses or lodges which provide affordable rest places for all category of persons. The standard and services of the hospitality industry are comparable to international standards and the Municipality is endowed with reach natural and human resources to support the private sector to invest and create employment.

Approximately eighty percent (74.2%) of the population 15 years and older in the Municipality (90,070), are economically active. Among the economically active population, 95.3 percent are employed and (4.7%) being unemployed. There is very little difference in the proportion of the economically active males (76.5%) and females (72.2%).

About the same proportions of males (96.4) and females (94.3) are currently employed. Almost half of the (46.2%) households in the Municipality are engage in agriculture, Crop farming is the main agricultural activity with more than nine out of ten (95.4%) households engage in it.

The following are the towns/settlements in the Techiman Municipality: Mangoase, Nsuta, Nkw aeso, Twimia, Koase, Adiesu, Tanoso, New Techiman, Tadieso, Kuntunso, Hansua, Anitemfe, Bamiri, Techiman, Kenten, Takofiano, Sansama, Oforikrom and Fiaso. In all there are nineteen (19) towns/settlements in Techiman Municipal.

3.4 Target Population

Population is the total number of all units, elements or individuals who are of interest to the researcher. The study targeted all the population at Techiman Municipality in Brong Ahafo Region especially those in the hospitality industry. Specifically, the study targeted the employees in the hospitality industry. However, a sample was selected to represent the entire population. The Municipality recorded a total population of 147,788 in 2010 which represents 6.4 percent of the total population of the Brong-Ahafo Region. The population comprises 51.5 percent females and 48.5 percent males (2010, Population and Housing Census).

3.5 Sample Size

A sample size of hundred (100) respondents were selected and used for the study. The hundred (100) sample size was selected because it would give fair representation of the total population at Techiman Municipality.

The respondents comprised hundred (100) hotel workers selected randomly from the hospitality industry in Techiman Municipality. The researcher chose seventy (70) female respondents from the selected hotels comprising of both staff and management. Thirty (30) male respondents were also chosen.

3.6 Sampling Techniques

It is obvious that the target population was all over the municipal and could not be covered in the study.

The researcher employed simple random sampling method for the workers in the hospitality industry. This was due to the large and heterogeneous nature of operators in the sector.

3.7 Instrument for Data Collection

The study made extensive use of both primary and secondary sources of information from the hospitality industry in the study area. The primary sources of data include information that was obtained from the questionnaires that were administered to the respondents and interviews held with some respondents mostly officers of the various hotels.

It is more advantageous to use primary data because they are collected from the original sources and are collected purposely for the study. The secondary sources of data included, Techiman Municipal Assembly, annual reports especially from Ghana Statistical Service, manuals and online publications. Hotels that were selected in Techiman Municipality included; Encom, Akina City, Relax, Kodabbs, Dymns, Sandies, Agyeiwaa Hotel, Geogio Hotel, Emmanuel Inn and Premier Palace Hotel.

3.8 Data Collection Procedure and Techniques

The study was largely based on primary data. Relevant information was collected through questionnaires and direct or one-on-one interviews. The questionnaires were

structured with open and closed-ended questions. The questionnaire is the set of questions prepared by the researcher to solicit information from the respondents.

An interview, on the other hand, is where the researcher engages discussions with the respondents in order to solicit information from them. The questionnaire was prepared by using both open-ended and close-ended questions. The open-ended questions give the interviewees the chance to express their views extensively without limitations. The open-ended questions were used to offer the respondents the opportunity to express their opinions, attitudes and beliefs on glass ceiling for women in the hospitality industry.

The close-ended questions however restrict the interviewees to answer the questions in *Yes* or *No* forms. The closed-ended questions enabled the researcher to obtain exact or specific information being sought for. Some information was brought up by the respondents themselves which the researcher saw useful and hence took note of.

3.9 Data Analysis

The raw data obtained from a study are useless until it is transformed into information for the purpose of decision making (Emory and Cooper, 1991). Data analysis therefore, involves making the data obtained more meaningful and easy to understand by the intended user through the use of summaries and statistical inferences.

Consequently, the following steps were followed in analyzing the data for the study.

The data was first edited to detect and correct any possible errors and omissions that

were likely to occur to ensure consistency and maintenance of meaning across all respondents. The data was then coded to allow for easier identification and grouping.

Microsoft Excel was used and data was presented in tables, including descriptive statistical tools such as pie charts, bar graphs as well as narratives. Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was also employed for data analysis.

3.10 Limitation to Data Collection

One of the major limitations of the study especially regarding data collection was the unwillingness of respondents to participate due to ignorance and fear of being sacked from job. The researcher however, made them to understand that the study was purely for academic purpose and not to collect information to expose management of the various hotels.

Besides this, some of the respondents saw the exercise, a waste of time and hence were not prepared to spend their time to answer the questions. Other constraints included financial inadequacy and time limitation considering the scope of the study. There was also delay in submission by some respondents.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 Overview

This chapter seeks to present the findings of the survey conducted as well as the analysis of the results.

Table 4.1: Gender of Respondents

Gender	Responses	Percentage (%)
Male	10130	30
Female	70	70
Total	100	100

Source: Author's Survey (February, 2016)

As shown in Table 4.1 and Figure 1, thirty (30) people representing thirty percent (30%) of the respondents were males. Also, seventy (70) people representing seventy percent (70%) of the respondents were females. More females were selected because the study concentrated mainly on glass ceiling for females in the hospitality industry.

Table 4.2: Level of Education of Male Respondents

Level of Education	Responses	Percentage (%)
Basic	4	13
Secondary	18	60
Tertiary	8	27
Total	30	100

Source: Author's Survey (February, 2016)

As indicated in Table 4.2, four (4) people representing thirteen percent (13%) are educated up to the basic level, eighteen (18) people representing sixty percent (60%) are educated up to the secondary school and eight (8) people representing twenty seven percent (27) of the male respondents are educated up to the tertiary level. This shows that most male respondents are educated up to the secondary level.

Table 4.3: Educational Level of Female Respondents

Level of Education	Responses	Percentage (%)
Basic	3	4
Secondary	42	60
Tertiary	25	36
Total	70	100

Source: Author's Survey (February, 2016)

From table 4.3 and Figure 2 above, three (3) people representing four percent (4%) are educated up to the basic level, forty two (42) people representing sixty percent (60%) are educated up to the secondary school and twenty five (25) people representing twenty seven percent (36) of the male respondents are educated up to the tertiary level. This shows that most female respondents are educated up to the secondary level.

Surprisingly, thirty six percent (36%) of the female population had tertiary education as compared to twenty seven percent (27%) of the males' population. This means that women also, have what it takes to occupy the top management positions available in the hospitality industry.

The table below gives a summary of the findings.

Table 4.4: Respondents at the Management Level

Gender	1	Responses	Percentage (%)	
Female	1	State A	10	
Male	9		90	
Total	10		100	

Source: Author's Survey (February, 2016)

One can infer from Table 4.4 and Figure 3 that, only one female has been able to rise to the management of the level of the hospitality industry in the study area which represent ten percent (10%) of the managers from the various hotels. However, nine males are in management positions of the various hotels in the study area representing

ninety percent (90%) of the managers in the industry. This clearly shows that there is the existence of glass ceiling that prevents females from climbing to the top of management.

Table 4.5: Promotion of Females

Promotion	Responses	Percentage
Yes	1	1
NO	69	99
Total	70	100

Source: Author's Survey (February, 2016)

It is inferred from Table 4.5 that only one of the seventy female respondents has been promoted since the last four years. This represents only one percent (1%) of the female respondents. However, sixty nine of the female respondents have not gone on promotion since the last four years representing ninety nine percent (99%) of the female respondents. This substantiates the fact that there is glass ceiling for women in hospitality industry.

4.1 Existence of Barriers

There is glass ceiling for women in the hospitality industry as a result of barriers which prevent them from rising to the top. Two sources of these barriers were identified during the study and the table below summarises the results.

Table 4.6: Existence of Barriers.

Barriers	Responses	Percentage (%)
Internal	28	40
External	9	13
Both	33	47
Total	70	100

Source: Author's Survey (February, 2016)

From Table 4.6 and Figure 4, twenty eight of the female respondents confirmed there is the existence of internal barriers which represents forty percent (40%), nine of them admitted there is the existence of external barriers in the hospitality industry which represents thirteen percent (13) and thirty three said they are aware or both internal and external barriers at their work place which also represents forty seven percent (47%) of the female respondents.

This means that women are aware that there exist internal and external barriers at their work place.

4.2 Discussion of Results

4.2.1 Institutional Barriers

The path of climbing to the top of the ladder is not without obstacles, for men as well as women. The difference is that for women they seem to be higher and more numerous than for men.

4.2.2 Internal Barriers

The way one thinks about herself can prevent her from achieving what she wants. This is certainly true for women whose self-defeating attitudes prevent them from achieving the top jobs at work. Women impose limits on their capabilities and restrict their potential. They tend to emphasise what they cannot do and omit what they can do.

The end result is that women do not put themselves forward when opportunities arise. In fact, there is no limit to what one can achieve if one puts her mind to it and accepts herself as an individual.

No matter the circumstances or objectives, a manager is supposed to take control. This involves solving problems and making decisions; taking responsibility and being accountable to someone else. However, there are some women who hold back from this.

In Ghana, and as in most parts of the world, women normally take secondary role as careers, supporters and subordinates, and therefore do not find it easy to see themselves in positions of authority. In hospitality especially, women are normally waitress, cook, room attendants, receptionists, etc.

They feel uncomfortable in positions of power, and do not put themselves forward when the opportunities are up for grabs, or they do a manager's job half-heartedly because they do not like being the boss.

However, being a leader does not have to mean adopting an autocratic style of management (Mullins, 2005). New participative styles of management are often more suited to a woman's natural style of cooperation, cohesion and joint decision-making.

Women who make it to the top positions are often described as 'pushy', by some men and women. This is because some of the qualities which are seen as desirable in a man are seen as unacceptable in a woman. Someone who speaks up for herself, makes herself known, and takes an active role at work is susceptible to accusations or 'unfeminine' behaviour. It is therefore an undisputable fact that, some women have adopted an aggressive style of management, because they see this as the only way to succeed.

However, it is possible for a woman manager to do her job effectively in an assertive way by standing up for herself, without putting other people down.

Many women have a 'perfection block' (Bown and Brady, 1991). They feel they have to do one job perfectly before they can think of seeking the next rung up the ladder. Ambitious men think differently. In mapping out a career path, men work at their present job, while keeping an eye on what they need to do for the next one. In contrast, women become obsessed with perfect standards and are overtaken when it comes to promotion. This prevents them from reaching the apex of their profession.

Many women are seen in family role at work and may find that it cramps their ability to do a good job. As a result of their traditional roles as 'careers', women are often called upon to solve problems and lend a sympathetic ear when a different type of approach may be needed at work.

Most women consider themselves as housewives. This way of thinking reflects a lack of self-confidence to do anything other than what women have always done. It encourages other people to see them in a limited role.

Some people are born with a head start in the management stakes because they seem to have the qualities or charisma that others lack. There is even a belief in some quarters that managers are born to lead. If there is such a 'type' and women do not seem to be fitting into it, then training and self-development will make little difference.

Based on these factors it is argued that, if there is a glass ceiling, it is the fault of women. Women have choices and no one except themselves force them to live a certain type of life. Instead of saying how marvellous they are, perhaps they should concentrate on sorting out their faults.

4.2.3 External Barriers

Aside internal barriers women face, there are also external barriers which prevent women from climbing to the top of their career ladder.

While there are signs of positive trends in increasing number of women in managerial and administrative posts in Ghana and the hospitality industry in particular, the jobs taken by women are mostly in low paid service sector jobs, for example in the hotel

sector (Wilson, 1994; Rubery and Fagan, 1994); in this sector women earn below the average of all women's earnings.

Research from the University of Essex showed that women tended to get lower pay rises on promotion than their male colleagues leading to a phenomenon that the University called the "sticky floor". According to UK government statistics, skilled women earn £380,000 less during their careers than equally qualified men (BBC NEWS, 17th October, 2001).

Organizational provision of childcare is one way of acknowledging the private responsibilities and the public lives of adults without major care responsibilities and the public lives of adults with dependent children or responsibilities towards those with whom they share their private world.

However, it has generally proved extremely difficult to get organisations to recognise and make provision for the 'private' responsibilities of participants, and the poor provision of workplace nurseries in Ghana attests to this fact. Clearly, organisational policies, practices and expectations endorse some patterns of home life whilst making others more difficult to sustain.

Many organisations have ambivalence about women family commitments. For example, an Industrial Society report showed that while 55 per cent of managers said that enabling employees to balance home and work life was essential to ethical management, only 30 per cent said it was true in their organisation (IRS, 1996).

Balancing the demands of home and work is important for both men and women. However, the total workload (including domestic as well as paid work) tends to be higher for women, and increases with the number of children in the family.

One of the common traits of a successful woman is that she is childless or single. An Institute of Management Survey of its members in 1992 found that one third of its women members were unmarried, and only half of them had children. In contrast, 92 per cent of the men were married and 86 per cent had children (Coe, 1992).

A survey of assistant directors of social services in 1990 found that three-quarters of its female subjects were single or divorced, and only 18 per cent had children.

The public perception of the female body as problematic and unreliable (compared with constructions of the male body as ultimately reliable, almost mechanistic) form an ever-present subtext within organizational discourses of femininity.

In particular motherhood, both actual and potential, continually threatens to disqualify women from organisational opportunities and rewards.

The mother always has niggling worry at the back of her mind even if she is working. Are the kids ok? I have got to do this after work. Are they being looked after at School? Which meal should I prepare? Domestic responsibilities therefore go a long way to prevent women in hospitality industry from reaching the top of the ladder.

There is a distinct irony which is worth pulling out. One of the traditional reasons for women being discriminated against in promotion ladders was the claim that they were primarily centered on domestic interests and were not regularly committed to the labour market.

Whatever the truth of this claim in the past, there is no doubt now that the vast majority of female employees do have a persistent interest and commitment to the workplace, and that many women with children are keen to combine their domestic work with paid employment.

The old argument is that it is pointless to train women because they leave when they have family. The fact contradicts this. Between the ages of 20 and 59, most women are in continuous employment of some kind (Bown and Brady, 1991). Moreover, the number of younger career women choosing not to have children is increasing.

Some women in the hospitality industry feel isolated, and unsure of how to behave. They do not have role models to draw upon in adopting a management style. Consequently, they often try to imitate male managers, or they adopt a passive role. Either way, they are not effective managers. Also, their job may become more difficult because the men and women they work with are not used to seeing women in top management and may feel threatened.

This may create pressures which are difficult to cope with. As the number of women in management roles increases, women will feel more confident in their ability to do the job by being themselves. This will clear the path for other women.

There are real differences in the experiences and situation of women according to class and ethnicity. Working-class women, perhaps without formal educational

qualifications, are most likely to occupy low-waged jobs. Women from the deprived regions in Ghana normally have higher rates of unemployment, are concentrated in the lowest-paid, least-attractive jobs and have the least access to training.

All these show a continuing problem for women who aspire to top management positions. They are seen to not have the necessary characteristics for leadership in senior or middle management positions compared to men.

The inequalities in pay means that women under earn. When we make "enough", when we earn at our potential, we feel capable of anything. We can follow our ambition and achieve amazing goals. When women do not earn enough, they fear the future and regret the past. This represents loss of freedom for women.

Furthermore, with a large pool of skills available among the female workforce, it does not make sense to waste these skills, considering the fact that women's population outweighs that of men in Ghana, ignoring their potential contribution to the economy will therefore cost Ghana immensely.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Overview

The preceding chapter dealt with the specific issues on the glass ceiling for women in hospitality industry. The forgoing chapter provides a good basis for the major findings, recommendations, limitations and concluding note.

5.1 Major Findings

The major findings of the study are outlined as follows;

- There is the existence of glass ceiling for women not only in the hospitality industry but other professions as well, only that it is more pronounced in hospitality industry.
- Women have all the leadership qualities and skills to climb to the top only that some barriers prevent them.
- In broad terms the position of women continues to be one in which they are underrepresented in senior positions, although there is evidence that women are making inroads into Senior Officer posts in Ghana.
- ➤ Many of the new 'women's jobs' that have appeared in recent years involve temporary or part-time contracts offering women only marginal career status and opportunities.

- Whatever, the statements of intent, equal opportunity policies in Ghana are not always implemented in practice and even when they are implemented may have ambiguous and possibly contradictory implications for women's position.
- ➤ Countless women consistently make less money than they need, or they continually earn below their potential, despite their experience, education, or even desire to make more money.
- Most organisations are making strides to help women to overcome the barriers.
- More women are breaking through the glass ceiling to reach the top. But when it comes to pay, there are still many who are stuck to a so called "sticky floor."
- The minimum wage has had the greatest impact on women's pay.
- In broad terms, the differences between women's and men's jobs have declined dramatically since the 1970s.
- Ethnic minority women are particularly concentrated in low-paid jobs.
- At present, there is a national shortage of highly skilled staff of some professions across the jobs spectrum, including management. Provision for training in this country is woefully inadequate, and organizations are constantly looking for people with the right combination of qualities and skills.

- ➤ Women are being educated for work, and they want and need to work for all the same reasons, psychological, social, intellectual and economic, as men. Yet they are still denied access to the better jobs, or paid inadequately for valuable work in the hospitality industry
- ➤ One of the common traits of a successful woman in Ghana is that she is childless or single.

5.2 Conclusion

One area in which diversity has a long way to go is top-level management. Senior managers still tend to fulfil the old stereotype of public-school educated males. The outlook is bright however, for women. This is because there is no way that this situation can be maintained. It is only a matter of time before this starts to filter upwards. Especially, as companies prefer to nurture and promote internal talent, we are likely to see the demographics of top management being altered.

Although women have been boxed into their own compartment through equality legislation and equal-opportunity policies, they are not an ethnic minority group. Nor in most other ways are they homogenous, with similar needs and concerns. As individuals they vary increasingly, now that their careers beyond mothering extend in so many directions. They are half of the human race and an essential balance to the other sex. True equality of opportunity means society altering its base sufficiently to accommodate the needs of both sexes rather than dispensing panaceas whose quackery predestines them to fail.

So long as whole areas of employment are segregated by gender, the average pay of women can be held down without breaking the tenuous law that 'guarantees' equal pay between the sexes. From behind the fig leaf of equal-opportunity policy, government and employers can make patronizing promises of good intent without ever having them put to the test. Such policy remains only a sop, a public relations exercise with no substance, while tagged on to a structure which only allows women access to power provided they behave like men.

Living that world on an equal basis with men, not only would women feel better esteemed; our children would grow up valuing them more because society would publicly have stated an allegiance to them.

Lastly, so many improvements in the female lot have come from the continued efforts of women pleading or screaming their case until men are forced to listen. The balance of power can be shifted so that both halves of citizenship, male and female, are equally served; and the tedium, for women, of banging on decade after decade about these issues must surely one day become redundant. In time to come, the numbers of educated and qualified women will duly swell within the ranks of influence and reduce the discrimination which still lives at the heart of our culture. Sooner or later, we must build a society founded upon the strength of true equality of opportunity where difference between the sexes is respected and welcomed. We have everything to gain from such a civilization.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the major findings of the study, the following recommendations and suggestions are made.

- Several ingredients must be added to a recipe of good intentions for an equalopportunity policy to succeed. There has to be outspoken commitment from the
 very top of an organization, with adequate investment in staff and management
 training, including the message, repeatedly given, that sexual equality is the
 responsibility of everyone rather than a concern of the equal opportunity officer
 alone.
- > Staff ratios also need regular monitoring in order to keep sight of whether or not women employees are progressing.
- Some of the things women can do is to be more assertive once they are in top positions, but also to find out more about what the role is worth and be prepared to stand up and be counted.
- > The government should develop a national family strategy to replace the current piecemeal approach to childcare and family issues.
- ➤ Businesses should be more open about pay and ultimately give women the recognition they deserve.

- There should be structural changes which represent new ways of working, between women who have been divided by class and ethnicity, within work organizations which have been historically premised on male supremacy.
- ➤ It is also suggested that, organizations should create a company strategic plan to ensure that women are as likely as men to access and benefit from training and career development opportunities.
- ➤ If women want change for the better, whether at home or at work, they have to take responsibility for themselves and make things happen. If their company will not change then they should change company.
- Finally, though empirical evidence shows that women are having interest in working at the hospitality industry and work in general, many organizations however, look for applicants with combination of personal qualities and experience people with talent. This is seen as 'bright', 'ambitious', or 'right personality', rather than in terms of educational qualifications. Women should therefore recognize this and sell the qualities and skills they have.

5.4 Areas of Further Research

Since this study focused on the hospitality industry in Ghana and Techiman Municipality in particular, further research should therefore be conducted in the other sectors of the Ghanaian economy so that better generalisation could be made.

REFERENCES

- Abdela, L. (1995). What Women Want: A Guide to Creating a Better and Fairer Life for Women in the UK. The Body Shop.
- Alimo-Metcalfe, B. (1995). Leadership and Assessment, in Susan Vinnicombe and Nina L Colwill (Eds), *The Essence of Women in Management*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Ashburner, L. (1986). Technology: The Labour Process and Gender Differentiation in the Building Society Industry's Paper to the Organisation and Control of the Labour Process 4th Annual Conference, Aston University.
- Baines, D. (2006). Gender, Work and Organization. March 2006, Vol1 No2, pp. 129-151.
- Bhavani, R. (1994), Black Women in the Labour Market: A Research Review, Manchester: Equal Opportunities Commission.
- Bhavani, R. & Coyle, A. (2000). Black and Ethnic Minority Women Managers in the UK-Continuity or Change?, in Davidson, M.J. and Burke, R.J. (Eds), Women in Management Current Research Issues Volume II. London: Sage.
- Bown G., & Brady, C. (1991). Getting to the Top. London: Kogan Page Limited.
- Brett, J., & Stroh, L. (1999). Women in management: How Far Have we Come and What Needs to be Done as we Approach 2000? *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 8(4), 39-44.
- Brown, C. (1884). *Black and White Britain: The Third PSI Study*. Gower Publishing Company.
- Bruegal, I. (1994), Labour Market Prospects for Women From Ethnic Minorities in Institute for Employment Research (Ed.), *Warwick University: Labour Market*

- Structures and Prospects for Women. Institute for Employment Research/Equal Opportunities Commission.
- Bunyan, D., & Youdale, R. (1981). Report of a Case Study on the Impact of New Technology on Women and Trade Union Organizations in Banking. Bristol Resource Center.
- Burrows, N. and Robinson, M. (2006), Journal of Law and Society, *March 2006, 33* (1), 24-41.
- Carnegie, G., & Napier, C. (2002). Exploring Comparative International Accounting History. *Accounting Auditing and Accountability Journal*, 15(5), 689-718.
- Cleverdon, J. (1980). Women in Management-Onwards and Upwards?. A Survey

 Outlining the Position of Women in Management Today. The Industrial

 Society Special Report.
- Cockburn, C. (1991). In the Way of Women. London: Macmillan.
- Coe, T (1992). The Key to the Men's Clubs: Operating the Doctors to Women in Management. BHS/Institute of Management.
- Collinson, D. (1988). Barriers to Fair Selection: A multi-sector study of recruitment practices. London: HMSO.
- Collinson, D., & Knights, D. (1985).'Jobs for the Boys: Recruitment into Lifer Insurance Sales'. *EOC Research Bulletin, no. 9*, Manchester, Equal Opportunities Commission.
- Coyle, A., & Skinner, J. (1988). Women and Work: Positive Action for Change.

 Macmillan Education Ltd.
- Crompton, R., & Jones, G. (1984). A White Collar Proletariat?: Gender and Deskilling in Clerical Work. Basingstke: Macmillan.

- Crompton, R., & Sanderson, K. (1990). *Gendered Jobs and Social Change*. London:

 Allen and Unwin
- Daisley, J, (2005), Diversity at Work, IDS, No.8, pp 23-24.
- Davidson, M., & Cooper, C. (1992). Shattering the Glass Ceiling: The Woman Manager. London: Paul Chapman.
- DFEE (2001). Management Summary, London: DFEE.
- Drucker, P. F. (1989). The Practice of Management. Heinemann Professional.
- Dyer, K.F., (1977), "The Trend of the Male and the Female Performance Differential in Athletics, Swimming and Cycling", 1958-1976, Journal of Biosocial Science, 9 (1977): 325-39 in Rose. S, Lewontin. R.C, Kamin. L.J, (1990). Not In Our Genes: Biology, Idealogy and Human Nature. (p138) Harmondsworth: Penguin Books. (bookshelf)
- Egan, A. (1982). Women in Banking: A Study in Inequality. Industrial Relations Journal, Autumn.
- Fielding, A. (1995). Migration and Middle Class Formation in England and Wales, 1981-91, in T. Butler and M. Savage, Social Change and the middle Classes.

 London: University College London Press.
- Figgs, K. (1995). Because of Her Sex: The Myth of Equality for Women in Britain.

 Pan Books Ltd.
- Finch, J. (1983). *Married to the Job: Wives' Incorporation into Men's Work*. London: Allen and Unwin.
- Glenice J., Wood, R., & Janice, N. (2006). Gender, Work and Organization, (Vol. 13)

 Childlessness and Women Managers: 'Choice', Context and Discourses.

 Blackwell Publishing.

- Hakim, C. (1991), Grateful Slaves and Self Made women: Fact and Fantasy in Women's Work Organizations. *European Sociological Review*, 7(2), 101-21.
- Halford, S., Savage M., & Witz, A. (1997). Gender, Careers and Organizations:

 Current Development in Banking, Nursing and Local Government. London:

 MacMillan Press Ltd.
- Harris, H. (2001), Researching Discrimination in Selection for International Management. *Women in Management Review*, 16(3). 118-125.
- HESA (Higher Education Statistical Agency) (2001). Students in Higher Education Institutions, 199/2000, Cheltenham: HESA.
- IRS Employment Review, No843, pp. 33-36.
- Kandola, R., & Fullerton, J. (1994). Managing the Mosaic. London: IPD.
- Kanter, R. M. (1977). Men, women and the Corporation. New York: Basic Books.
- Kreeger, K. Y. (2002). *Yes, Biologically Speaking, Sex Does Matter,* The Scientist 16(1), 35. Jan. 7, 2002 (http://www.the-scientist.com/)
- Kreeger, K. Y. (2002). The Inequality of Drug Metabolism, The Scientist 16(6), 29, Mar. 18, 2002 (http://www.the-scientist.com)
- Kreeger, K. Y. (2002). X and Y Chromosomes Concern More Than Reproduction, The Scientist 16(3), 25. Feb. 4, 2002, (http://www.the-scientist.com).
- Labour Market Trends, February 2006, pp. 45-56
- Ledwith, S., & Colgan, F. (1996). Women in Organisations. Macmillan Press Limited.
- Levine, S. R. (2000). The Value-Based Edu-Leader, in Chowdhury, S. Management 21C, Financial Times, Prentice Hall.
- Maccoby. E. E., & Jacklisn. C. N. (1974). *The Psychology of Sex Differences*. Stanford: Stanford University Press (as reported in various commentaries).

- Marilyn J., Davidson & Ronald J. Burke (2004). Women in Management Worldwide,

 Facts and Figures and Analysis. Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Mills, A. J. (1989), Organisation, Genger and Culture, in A. J. Mills and P. Tancred (Eds), *Gendering Organizational Analysis*. London: Sage.
- Mullins J. L. (2005), Management and organizational behaviour (7th ed.), Pearson Educational Limited.
- Nelson, D.L. and Burke, R.J. (2000), "Women, Work Stress and Health", in Davidson M.J. and Burke R.J. (Eds), Women in Management: Current Research Issues. London: Sage.
- Noon, M., & Ogbonna, E. (2001), Equality, Diversity and Disadvantage in Employment, PALGRAVE, New York.
- Parker, B., & Fagenson, E. A. (1994). An introductory Overview of Women in Corporate Management. In Davidson, M.J. and Burker, R.J (Eds), Women in Management: Current Issues. London: Paul Chapman
- Rajan, A. (1985). New Technology and employment in Insurance, Banking and Building Societies: Recent Experience and Future Impact, Special Report, Institute of Manpower Studies Series, Aldershot, Gower.
- Rosener, J. B. (1990). Ways Women Lead, Havard Business Review November-December (pg. 119-25).
- Rubery, J. & Fagan, C. (1994). Occupational Segregation: Plus ca change.....', in Lindley, R. (Ed), Labour Market Structures and Prospects for Women, Institute for Employment Research. University of Warwick/Equal Opportunities.
- Rowbottom, D. (2005). New Law Journal, 11 November 2005, p.1701.

- Ryan, M., & Medlam, S. (1984). Blocks to Women's Career Development in Insurance, Unpublished Report Sponsored by the Further Education Unit (FEU).
- Sayers. J. (1982). Biological Politics. London: Tavistock.
- Seiler, S., Sailer, S. (1997). *The Gender Gap: Elite Women Are Running Further Behind*. Sportscience News May-June.
- Schein, V. (1973). The Relationship between Sex Role Stereotypes and Requisite Management Characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *57* (2), 95-100.
- Smeaton D, (2006). Work, Employment and Society, Vol120 No1, pp. 5-25.
- Stanny, B (2004). Why Women Earn Less. NJ.: The Career Press Inc.
- Still, L. V. (1993). Where to From here? The managerial women in Transition.

 Sydney: Usiness and Professional Publishing.
- The Economist, March 4th 2006, pp. 27-28.
- Uncited reference in Fausto Sterling, A., (1992), Myths of Gender: Biological Theories about Women and Men, (p269) New York: Basic Books (bookshelf).
- Wajcman, J. (1999). Managing Like a Man: Women and Men in Corporate

 Management. Cambridge: Polity.
- White, B., Charles C., & Cary, C. (1992). Women's Career Development: A Study of High Flyers, Blackwell.
- Williams, G. (1981). Mother Wales, Get Off the Back? Marxism Today, December 1981.
- Wilson, F., & Thompson, P. (2001). Sexual harassment as an Exercise of Power", Gender. *Work and Organisation*, 8(1), 61-83.
- Wilson, R. (1994). Sectoral and Occupational Change: Prospects for Women's Employment", in Lindley, R. (Ed), Labour Market Structures and Prospects

for Women, Institute for Employment Research, University of Warwick/Equal Opportunities Commission, Manchester.



APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA. KUMASI CAMPUS

THESIS TOPIC: THE EXISTENCE OF GLASS CEILING FOR WOMEN IN HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY-A STUDY IN TECHIMAN MUNICIPALITY.

Dear respondents

QUESTIONNAIRE

A SAMPLE QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED TO RESPONDENTS IN TECHIMAN MUNICIPALITY.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect information on glass ceiling for women in hospitality industry in Techiman Municipality. It would therefore be appreciated if you could provide frank answers to the questionnaire items. You are assured of complete confidentiality and anonymity of every information provided.

1.	NAME						
2	CENDR	MALE		EEMALE-			
2.	GENDR	MALE		FEMALE			
3.	AGE	•••••					
4.	MARITAL STA	TUS	SINGLE	MARRIED	DIVORCED 🗆		
5.	LEVEL OF EDU	JCATION.					
6.	OCCUPATION.						

7. NAME OF ORGANISATION
8. POSITION
9. YEARS OF EXPERIENCE
10. GENDER OF YOUR SUPERIOR FEMALE □ MALE □
11. DO YOU HAVE ANY TRAINING OR CERTIFICATE IN LEADERSHIP (MANAGEMENT)? YES: NO:
12. HAVE YOU HELD LEADERSHIP POSITION BEFORE? YES □ NO□
13. IF NO, WHY?
14. ARE YOU SATISFIED WITH HOW YOU ARE TREATED AT THE WORK
PLACE.AS A WOMAN YES NO NO
15. IF NO, WHAT IS THE CAUSE?
16. HAVE YOU EVER BEEN PROMOTED? YES □ NO□
17. IF YES, WHEN WAS THE LAST TIME YOU WERE PROMOTED?
18. DO YOU ASPIRE TO CLIMB TO THE TOP OF YOUR
PROFESSION?YES□ NO□
19. WHAT PREVENT(S) YOU FROM MOVING TO THE TOP?
20. DO YOU BELIEVE THERE ARE INSTITUTIONAL BARRIERS (GLASS
CEILING) FORWOMEN YESTNO T

21.	WHAT	KIND	OF	BARRIER(S	S) DO	YOU	ENCOUNTER	IN	YOUR
	PROFES	SSION?	EXTE	ERNAL □	IN	TERNA	Lп		
22.	. IF EXTI	ERNAL,	WHA	AT ARE THE	Y?				
23.	. IF INTE	RNAL,	WHA	T ARE THE	<i>7</i> ?	•••••		· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
24.	DO THE	EY MAT	TER?	YES 🗆		NC) 🗆		
25.	IF YES	, DO TI	HEY I	PREVENT Y	OU FF	ROM CI	LIMBING TO T	HE T	гор ог
	YOUR I	PROFES	SION	? YES \square	NO	Ο□			
26.	WHAT	ARI	Е	YOU D	OING	ТО	OVERCOME	3	THESE
	BARRII	ERS?						•••••	·•
			UMIVERS						