

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA



University of Ghana Business School

**AN EXAMINATION OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS FEMALE  
SENIOR MEMBERS' JOB PERFORMANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL  
INSTITUTIONS IN GHANA: THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL DOMINANCE**

**ORIENTATION**

**BY**

**MORO ALHASSAN**

**(10307187)**

**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON  
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD  
OF MPHIL ORGANISATION AND HUMAN RESOURCE DEGREE**

**MAY, 2017**

## DECLARATION

I do hereby declare that this work is the result of my own research and has not been presented by anyone for any academic award in this or any other university. All references used in the work have been fully acknowledged.

I bear sole responsibility for any shortcomings.

.....

MORO ALHASSAN

(10307187)

.....

DATE



## CERTIFICATION

I hereby certify that this thesis was supervised in accordance with the procedure laid down by the University.

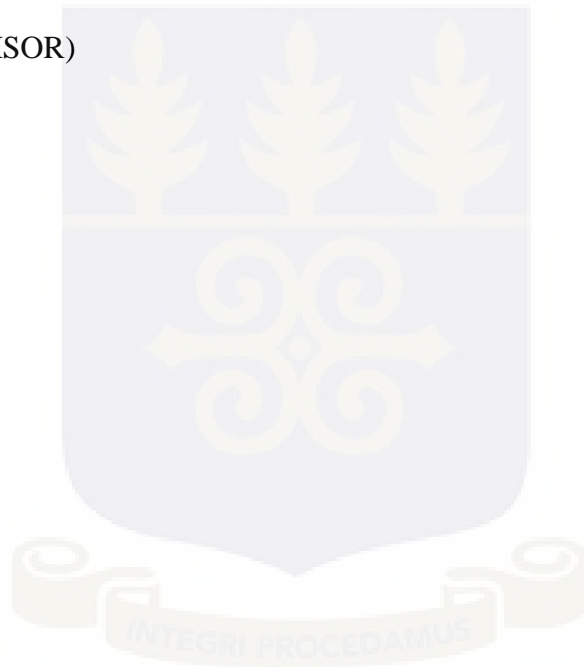
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Dr. JAMES BABA ABUGRE

(SUPERVISOR)

.....

DATE



## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to God and to my wonderful wife and daughter and my supporting siblings and friends.



## **ACKNOWLEDGMENT**

I thank God for giving me the strength, protection and wisdom for successful completion of this thesis. I also express my heartfelt appreciation to my Supervisor Dr. James Baba Abugre for his continuous support, insightful comments, constructive criticism and suggestions and challenging me to think outside the box throughout the preparation and completion of this long essay. I am indeed grateful to him. I also express my profound gratitude to all the lecturers at the Department of Organisation and Human Resource Management of the University for their comments and suggestions during Departmental Seminar.

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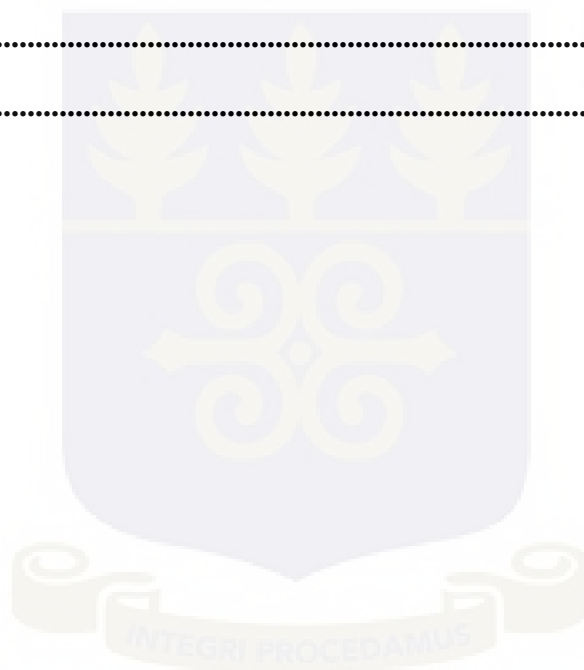
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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AT Attitude

FSM Female Senior Members

JP Job Performance

NDC National Democratic Congress

NPP New Patriotic Party

SDO Social Dominance Orientation

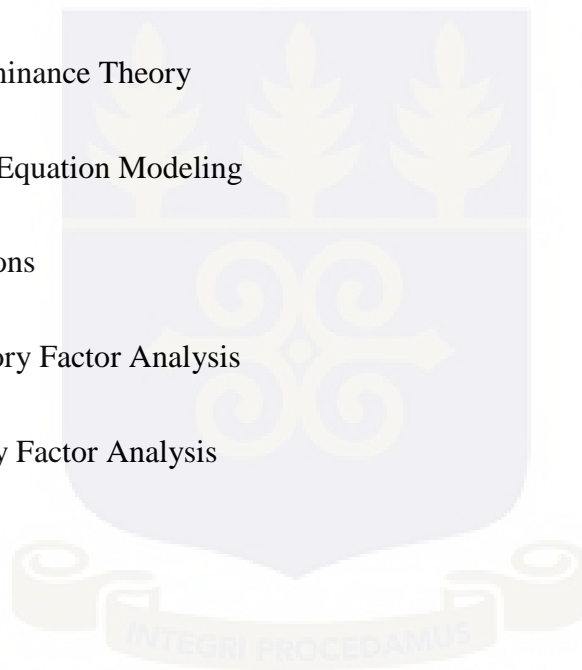
SDT Social Dominance Theory

SEM Structural Equation Modeling

UN United Nations

CFA Confirmatory Factor Analysis

EFA Exploratory Factor Analysis



## ABSTRACT

This study examined students' attitudes towards female senior members in Ghanaian Universities. The study also considered whether Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) will moderate the relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance. The study employed mixed method approach. Ghanaian graduate students and female senior members were sampled for the study. A total of 330 valid questionnaires was used for the quantitative survey analysis and 12 recorded and transcribed interviews were used for the qualitative analysis. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to analyze the quantitative data to address the hypothesized relationships whilst thematic analysis was used to analyze the qualitative data. It was discovered that students have positive attitudes towards female senior members. The study further revealed that SDO does not influence the positive relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance. The results further indicate that there are no obvious structures that serve as a barrier to female senior members' progress to higher positions in higher institutions. It was also found that the combination of professional work and family responsibility is a challenge to female senior members. This study concludes that students who have received higher education appear to have a positive attitude towards professional women and therefore, HR managers should factor it into their hiring strategy.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background of the Study

Females in most cultures have been disadvantaged and also seen as inferior to males throughout human history (World Bank Group, 2010). Societies across the world seem to be dominated by men because of men's preference for inequality among the social group which tend to favour hierarchy-enhancing ideologies and policies (Sidanius & Pratto, 1994). Trends in literature depicts that regardless of occupation and work tasks, agentic attributes like competitiveness and self-assertiveness are considered as more appropriate for men than women (Lewis & Humber, 2010).

Specifically, in academia, women, despite having moved into different positions in the past years, they too face the glass ceiling. Recent data produced at the European Union level reveal the persistence of gender inequalities in academic careers. Women in the academic arena representation were not encouraging as they were made up of only 44% of Grade C academic staff, 37% of Grade B academic staff and 20% of Grade A academic staff. Grade A is the highest possible academic grade and Grade C is the entry grade for PhD graduates (European Commission, 2013). It means that even in the western world where gender equality is being campaigned for women to attain equal gender composition, women are still under-represented as far as female staff is concerned. For example, in Fortune 500 companies, women are made up of only 10 percent of senior managers, the uppermost ranks of CEO, president, executive vice president and COO comprise less than 4 percent and less than 3 percent are among top corporate earners (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Fassinger, 2008; Thornton, 2013). This is despite the fact that a lot of women have made significant inroads into the

workforce and it further suggests that the glass ceiling is still difficult to breakthrough by women in the workforce (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Baker, 2014).

The top hierarchy is tilted towards men, despite literature pointing to the fact that men and women are equal in terms of leadership roles (Manning & Robertson, 2015). Most researchers seem to agree to the fact that women are seen to be suitable for certain roles, like playing the role of caregiver and homemaker and this is stereotyping which is deeply rooted in culture (Sahoo & Lenka, 2016). It therefore means that stereotyping which is seen in many cultures around the world is influenced by the socio-cultural factors of these societies. In Africa the situation is not any better as various studies done in Africa points to the fact that the situation is deeply embedded in socio-cultural practices of the people (Adomako-Ampofo, 2001). For example, it can be found in the research conducted by Odiaka (2013) in Nigeria, which he revealed that women fundamental human rights are affected by cultural and other practices which include the right to life and the right to personal liberty. Biri and Mutambwa (2013) however, asserted that in most African countries women are discriminated against, leading to stereotyping against them which eventually marginalizes the developmental process of most societies. Chisikwa (2010) identified that, even though women are given the opportunity now than the past in Africa, sociocultural factors continue to influence the appointment of more men than women as school heads.

Even though some researchers are of the view that Ghana is doing well in getting more of the women into public offices (Adams, Scherpereel & Jacob, 2016) the situation is not much different from other African countries where researchers have pointed to the fact that stereotyping against women is deeply rooted in culture (Adomako-Ampofo, 2001; Akotia & Anum, 2012). At the young age, males are

encouraged and rewarded for being outgoing and achievement oriented, whereas females are taught to be emotionally oriented and reserved on their interaction with others. In Ghana most cultures perceive the kitchen to be for females whilst embarking on higher education and other productive ventures are seen to be for men, which could lead to serious negative attitude towards women (Sossou, 2014). Although women are more than men as women constitute 51.2 percent compared to men's 48.8 percent, statistics from the Ghana Statistical Service indicates that as of 2010 women were made up of only 16.1 percent as against men's 83.9 percent of full time academic staff (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). According to the research conducted by the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO), 89 percent of women spend 10 hours per week whilst 65 percent of men spend the same 10 hours per week on domestic activities. Taking care of household members and cooking takes more of women time (Gender, Equity and Rural Employment Division of FAO, 2012).

Even though this notion is increasingly changing where women are being given an opportunity to advance in many facets of life, people still have a negative attitude towards females, which could account for a situation where a small number of women are seen at many top positions (Barnet-Verzat & Wolff, 2008). It has also led to gender discrimination and inequality where a chunk of women has made it to the various companies and organisations yet face negative attitude from others, especially men. This is despite the fact that, there are a lot of gender equality legal and policy framework (Treaties and conventions) such as, "Convention on the elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), 1997 (Signed on 17 July, 1980 and Ratified on 2January, 1986); Beijing Platform for Action, 1994; Option Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW-OP) 1999 (Signed on 24 February, 2000); International Covenant on

Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) 1966 (Ratified on 7 December, 2000); International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), 1996 (Ratified on 7 December, 2000); African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (ACHPR) (Ratified on 24 January, 1989 and Signed on 3 July, 2004); Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous People (Voted in Favour as a member on the 13 September, 2007); International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination; (CERD) (4 January, 1969); International Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), 1991 (2 September, 1990); International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (MWC) 1990 (1, July 2003); and the International Conference on Population and Development, 1994 signed by Ghana" (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014, p.4).

The constitution of Ghana which was adopted in 1992 and came into effect on January 7, 1993 devoted chapter five to fundamental human rights and freedom. These provisions are consistent with the International Bill of Rights which include political and civil rights as well as economic, social and cultural rights. Examples are, article 17 which states that all persons are equal before the law, article 7(2) which states that a person shall not be discriminated against on grounds of gender, race, social, ethnic origin, religion, creed, social or economic status, article 17(4) which is made up of special legislation or policies to address socio-cultural, economic or educational imbalance in the Ghanaian society, which discriminate against women (Constitution of Ghana, 1992). The question is how do Ghanaian men behave towards women? There is therefore the need of some investigation into this issue as it is critical as far as the development of society is concerned.

Specifically, this study examines how social dominance orientation (SDO) will influence students' attitudes towards female senior members' job performance in

higher educational institutions. Social dominance orientation (SDO) has been defined “as a personality trait which predicts social attitudes and one’s degree of preference for inequality among social groups” (Sidanius & Pratto, 1994, p.741). SDO has been found to influence the behaviour of men towards women in society. It is against this background that this study sought to examine the moderating role of Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) on the relationship between Students’ Attitude and Female Senior Members’ Job Performance in higher educational institutions in Ghana.

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

Women worldwide are contributing their quota to the developmental process in the world. Research has shown that women are obtaining advanced degrees at a faster rate than their male counterparts and constitutes not less than 60 percent of the worldwide workforce (Treasurer *et al.*, 2013; Adelman & Cohn, 2013). Studies have also shown that a lot of people in the workforce, both males and females (about 90 percent) have reported that they will feel comfortable reporting to female leaders at the top management positions. Treasurer *et al.* (2013) for instance reported that when it comes to performance, especially at the top managerial positions, women managers out-perform their male counterparts. This may be as a result of the fact that women in the top managerial positions naturally adopt the transformational style of leadership which in most cases is likely to yield results for the organisation in question (Rhee & Sigler, 2015). This is evident in the appointment of high-profile CEOs like Marillyn Hewson, CEO of Lockheed Martin (LTD), and Mary Barra, CEO of General Motors (GM), The first woman to lead an auto company in recent years (Hurley & Choudhary, 2016). Other women whose contribution have helped seeing the development of their organisations which earned them promotion to the top CEO job

are Indian-born Indra Nooyi, who was promoted to the chief executive officer (CEO) of PepsiCo in 2006, Irene Rosenfeld was appointed CEO, Kraft Foods, which was the world's second largest food producer and Carly Fiorina who was appointed CEO of Hewlett-Packard (HP) (Wu & Hsieh, 2006). In Ghana, women have made enormous contribution to the nation in different ways. Example of women who have occupied key positions and contributed significantly to the nation are Ms Eva Lokko who occupied the position of the Director-General of Ghana Broadcasting Corporation in 2002 (GBC), Dr Grace Bediako, was appointed as Government Statistician in 2005, a position formerly held by men, Mrs Elizabeth Mills-Robertson become the first Woman Acting IGP, Justice Theodora Georgina Wood, the current Chief Justice, just to mention a few (Akpah, 2013; Judiciary Service of Ghana, 2014; Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

Despite the contribution of women, especially those in the workforce to the development of their organisations and society, women face challenges in workplaces which either affect their performance or serve as a barrier to their progress into the top management positions (Afolabi, 2013). Even though, there are a lot of women in companies and academic institutions who are very well prepared and equipped to move to the top management level (Hoobler, Wayne & Lemmon, 2009). Existing research suggest that women worldwide still face barriers to get to top management positions in companies and academic institutions because people sex stereotype the characteristics of managers in favour of men (Verzat & Wolff, 2008). Specifically, in academia, women, despite having moved into different positions in the past few years, they too face the glass ceiling by finding it difficult to get to the top hierarchy (Mitroussi & Mitroussi, 2009). They find it difficult to attain full professor, the rank which is prerequisite for higher administrative positions (Brink & Benschop, 2014).

Research has shown that women find it difficult to get to the top positions because people tend to have a negative attitude towards them which goes a long way to affect their performance and also prevent them from moving to the top positions (Anku-Tsede & Gadegbeku, 2014). Negative attitudes towards women is mostly rooted in culture, especially in Africa (Chisikwa, 2010). A lot of reasons have been identified by researchers apart from socio-cultural factors. Some of these researchers have identified “old boys network” as one of the reasons men negatively stereotype against women in workplaces (Fassinger, 2008). Another cause of negative stereotypes against women is organisational culture and structures which encourages these negative attitudes towards women (Bangihole & White, 2013). Family responsibilities and “Queen Bee Effect” are other causes pointed out by researchers which affect women in one way or the other in their advancement to the higher level (Evans, 2010; Marvin, 2006).

In line with above revelations, researchers using mostly women in the corporate world have established that people, especially men, have a negative attitude towards working females (Grimshaw & Rubery, 2007). Cortis and Cassar (2005) revealed in their finding that male employees and students than their female counterparts held more negative stereotypical attitude towards females. Eleanna (2009) seems to have similar finding whereby it was discovered that, the attitude of people towards women who occupy senior managerial positions is highly gendered as far as the positiveness towards woman manager is concerned. Also, Tomkiewicz, Frankel, Adeyemi-Bello and Sagan (2004) with participants from Poland and US revealed that, Poland Males than their American male counterparts exhibit a more conservative attitude towards women in managerial positions. Simmons, Duffy and Alfraih (2012) did a comparative study in Kuwait and US which also found Kuwait men have more

negative attitudes towards women managers than men in the US. Similarly, studies by Moneim-Elsaid and Elsaid (2012) revealed that Egyptian males and females' views about women managers were negative as compared to their counterparts in USA whose attitude towards female managers were positive. It therefore means that in egalitarian societies, people tend to have a favourable attitude towards females in the workforce, whereas those in non-egalitarian societies have less favourable attitude towards females. These studies and their findings contributed immensely in bringing out several solutions to help solve the problem of negative attitudes towards women in the workforce. But there is a lot to be done on issue of people's attitude towards females.

Some researchers argue that most of these studies concentrated more on women in the corporate world with very scanty work in the academia (Simmons et al., 2010). And even with the little studies conducted in academia, there is mixed result. As some of them found positive relationship, others revealed negative relationship (Wood, 2008). Also, most of the studies analyzing people's attitude towards women paid less attention on single educational sector like the primary, secondary or tertiary education level which otherwise has the tendency to provide a more detailed and in-depth analysis. However, concentrating on female senior members will in a long run result in social justice (Nagy & Vicsek (2014) and will throw more light on the issue.

The geographical location of studies concerning attitude towards women need to be taken into consideration in addressing the issue. Even though, quite a number of studies have been done in this area, most of them are mainly concentrated in developed countries (Moneim-Elsaid and Elsaid, 2012). But attitude towards women vary considerably across different countries which raises issue of context (Galanaki, Papalexandris, & Halikias, 2009). Investigating the issue in different context will

give the future generation of women an opportunity to progress to the higher level (Kaiser & Spalding 2015). Therefore, transferring findings from western countries to non-western countries is undesirable.

In addition, most of the studies reviewed secondary data about people's attitude towards women and it is believed that the use of primary data will address the issue in detail (Mitroussi & Mitroussi, 2009). Simmons et al, 2013 indicated that introduction of variables such as Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) and Power Distance Culture may be helpful in understanding attitude people have towards women.

Following these gaps in the literature and recommendation for further studies on the issue, this study therefore sought to bridge the gap in the literature in the context of Ghana by investigating students' attitude towards female senior members' job performance in higher educational institutions.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

The main purpose of the study is to examine the students' attitude towards female senior members' job performance in higher educational institutions. The study specifically examines the influence of social dominance orientation of students' attitude towards female senior members' job performance.

### **1.4 Research Objectives**

The main aim of the study is to examine the students' attitude towards female senior members in higher educational institutions. However, the objectives of this study are:

1. To examine the differences of attitudes of male and female students towards female senior members in higher educational institutions.

2. To examine the impact of Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) on students' attitudes towards female senior members' job performance in higher educational institutions.
3. To explore the barriers to female senior members' progress to higher positions in higher educational institutions.

### **1.5 Research Questions**

The above mentioned objectives has led to the following research questions:

1. What are the Differences between male and female students' attitude towards female senior members in higher educational institutions?
2. To what extent does Social Dominance Orientation Influence the relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance in higher educational institution?
3. Are there barriers to female senior members' progress to higher positions in higher educational institutions?

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

In all the outcome of this research work will contribute immensely into three major areas which are research, policy and practice. The findings of the current study will help higher educational institutions identify the kind of attitude students hold about women in the workforce. This will help them to hire the right people who will have a positive attitude towards women and also to develop pragmatic steps to deal with issues which affect women performance and progress to the top positions. In addition, the findings of this study will help the tertiary institutions to make changes in their structures and processes which encourage negative stereotyping against women in the workforce. Also, it will help higher educational institutions to identify

barriers to professional women progress to the higher level and ways to deal with them accordingly. The findings will also contribute to academia by adding to the existing knowledge and the future directions will help future researchers to fill the gaps left by this study.

### **1.7 Chapter Disposition**

Chapter one of the study introduces the study. It looks at the background to the study and decides how the study goes. It also examines important issues such as research problems, the purpose of the study, research objectives, research questions and significance of the study.

Chapter two consists of review of related literature on Attitude, Social Dominance Orientation as well as Job Performance and tries to identify the interconnections between these variables. Formulated hypotheses and conceptual framework of the study are also presented in this chapter.

Chapter three presents the methodological issues of the research. It identifies the research philosophy (paradigm), research design, study's population, sample size and sample technique, instrumentation, measurement of variables, data collection procedure. The chapter as well looks at the validity and reliability issues, ethical consideration, analytical procedure and the challenges of the study.

Chapter four presents the results of the findings. It presents the background information about respondents. It also looks at issues such as exploratory factor analyses of the variables (EFA), the confirmatory factor analyses (EFA), validity and reliability issues, examination of hypothesize relationships and how data were coded and themes developed for qualitative analyses. Results are also discussed in this chapter.

Finally, chapter five presents the summary of the study as well as conclusion and recommendations. Contributions were also made for the advancement of knowledge in the study area.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Introduction

According to literature, society defines each male and female with values, attitudes, behaviours and roles for each sex (Adomako-Ampofo, 2001). These values, attitudes, behaviour and gender roles become part of our mental structure through culture. A lot of extant literature has shown that men and women in most societies are socialized to perform different roles (Tlaiss, 2014; Omair, 2008). The most interesting aspect of it is that, these sex roles exist even in this modern time. With the sex roles, males in most literature are seen to possess an individualistic, competitive and agentic sex role orientation while females possess group-oriented communal and relationship orientation (Lewis and Humber, 2010). These have led to gender stereotype against females, which has made equality, especially in the workplace far from fetching (Bergman, 2008).

Although women have made giant stride into organisations and institutions it seems they still face opposition as they find it difficult in participating in higher level (Catalyst, 2011). Research has indicated that women still remain under-represented in senior levels in organisations and academia (Moneim-Elsaid & Elsaid, 2012). Research has also shown that culture plays a role in gender stereotyping (Kusterer, Lindholm & Montgomery, 2013). At the young age, males are encouraged and rewarded for being outgoing and achievement oriented whereby females are taught to be emotionally oriented and reserved on their interaction with others. These as can be found in most literature and it goes a long way to affect the achievement level and self-esteem of most females.

The literature will look at the definition of concepts, theories underpinning the research, and review of literature by others in relation to this research topic.

## **2.2 Conceptual Clarifications**

### **2.2.1 Social Dominance Orientation**

Social Dominance Orientation “is a personality trait which predicts social attitudes and one’s degree of preference for inequality among social groups. On the basis of social dominance theory (SDT), it is shown that (a) men are more social dominance-oriented than women (b) high-SDO people seek hierarchy-enhancing professional roles and low-SDO people seek hierarchy-attenuating roles (c) SDO was related to beliefs in a large number of social and political ideologies that support group-based hierarchy” (Sidanius & Pratto, 1994, p.741). All these can affect their attitude towards gender.

### **2.2.2 Gender**

Gender refers to the attitudes, feelings and behaviours that a given culture associate with a person’s biological sex. Behaviour that is compatible with cultural expectations is referred to as gender-normative; behaviours that people view as incompatible with these expectations constitute gender non-conformity (APA Document, 2012). Also, according to Manning and Robertson, (2015), gender refers to the psychological implications of being male or female, example, beliefs and expectations about the attitudes, values, skills and behaviours more appropriate to or typical of one sex than the other.

### **2.2.3. Stereotype**

A Stereotype is a character, with generalized traits (characteristics that make the character a group representation rather than individual) (Lombardi, 2016).

McConnell, Sherman and Hamilton (1994) defines stereotypes as culturally shared ideas individuals have about the appropriate roles and behaviours for women. Ifegbesan (2010) further defines stereotype as subjective perception which may be an intuition, a prejudice, and imagination or past impression of what a person has been.

#### **2.2.4 Gender Stereotype**

Eagly and Kite (1987) define gender stereotypes as generalized beliefs about the characteristics and qualities attributed to men and women in society. Gender stereotypes represent beliefs about the psychological trait characteristic of members of each sex (Manning, 2015).

#### **2.2.5 Attitude**

Eagly and Chaiken (1993) define attitude a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor. Allport (1935, p. 810) defined attitude as “a mental and a neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related”. Hence, this will lead to a situation where students evaluate the behaviour of female senior members at some degree of favour or disfavor.

#### **2.2.6 Job Performance**

According to Zablah, Franke, Brown and Bartholomew (2012, p.25) job performance “is the extent to which an employee contributes to organisational effectiveness given the expectations associated with his/her work role.” Job performance is also defined as “an aggregate construct of effort, skill, and outcomes that are important to the employee and outcomes that are important to the firm” (Christen, Iyer & Soberman, 2006, p.139). According to researchers, stereotyping negatively against females

affect their performance (Carnaghi *et al*, 2014). But it is when individual employees in an organisation give out their best that leads to higher productivity and profitability and therefore sees the growth of the organisation (Christen *et al.*, 2006).

### **2.3 Theoretical framework**

There are several theories underpinning this research for instance role congruity theory, social dominance theory, social role theory, integrated role theory and many others. However, this research will be based on social dominance theory.

#### **2.3.1 Social Dominance Theory**

Social Dominance Theory was first propounded by Jim Sidanius and Felicia Pratto, both psychology professors. The theory observed that human social groups tend to be organized according to group-based social hierarchies in societies that produce economic surplus. These hierarchies have a three-form structure. They are “(1) age (i.e., Adults have more power and higher status than children (2) gender (i.e., Men have more power and higher status than women) and (3) arbitrary-set, which are group-based hierarchies that are culturally defined and do not necessarily exist in all societies” (Sidanius & Pratto, 1994, p.741). They argued that arbitrary-set hierarchies can be based on ethnicity (e.g. Whites over blacks in the U.S.), religion, nationality and gender. Social Dominance Theory (SDT) there predicts that males will tend to have a higher social dominance orientation (SDO) than women.

Social Dominance Theory postulates that people who are more social-dominance oriented will tend to favor hierarchy-enhancing ideologies and policies, whereas those lower on SDO will belong to institutions and choose roles that reduce inequality (Sidanius & Pratto, 1994). The theory has been criticized by researchers like Huddy and Reicher (2004) who were of the view that the theory rather endorses oppression,

stereotyping and discrimination against women (Huddy, 2004; Reicher, 2004). Others like Jost, Burgess and Mosso (2001) have equally criticized the theory of providing moral and intellectual legitimacy of continued social inequality. But Sidanius, Pratto and van Laar (2004) still make a case for the theory by positing that social dominance theory has highlighted the problems of group-based inequality as a starting point of seeing the problem addressed. They further argued that, rather than being an endorsement of oppression, social dominance theory can be seen as a prerequisite to morally driven intervention.

As Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) is based on Social Dominance Theory (SDT), some researchers have reported findings on SDO which relates to SDT. For instance, (Zakrisson, 2008) was of the view that even in advance countries which are regarded as egalitarian countries, SDO is still noticed. They mentioned that, the achievement of social power is facilitated by the high degree of SDO because of psychological predisposition. Research conducted by Batalha, Reynolds and Newbiggin (2011) revealed that men were found to be higher on SDO than women. They were of the view that people who are in the high-status condition were more socially dominant than those in the low-status group. There is evidence from the natural environment that suggest SDO is synonymous with upward status mobility (Liu, Huang & McFedries, 2008). But it is not that men are always higher on SDO than women and that sometimes features of the context determines higher SDO than gender (Batalha, Reynolds & Newbiggin, 2011).

Social Dominance theory directly underpins my research because it gives the basis of males' attitude towards females.

## **2.4 Review of previous related studies**

### **2.4.1 Stereotypes**

McConnell *et al* (1994) defines stereotypes as culturally shared ideas individuals have about the appropriate roles and behaviours for women. Stereotype is a subjective perception which may be an intuition, a prejudice and imagination or past impression of what a person has been (Odiaka, 2013). But Eagly and Kite (1987) define gender stereotypes as generalized beliefs about the characteristics and qualities attributed to men and women in society. According to her, in general, men are seen as being aggressive, risk-taking, decisive and autonomous which are considered agentic attributes. Women, on the other hand, are seen as being kind, caring relational and humble which are considered communal attributes. Gender stereotypes represent beliefs about the psychological traits characteristic of members of each sex (Manning, 2015). From the various definitions one can point to the fact that gender stereotype is not about biological sex as being male or female, but it is about our perception of what society assigns to the sexes whether being male or female.

This subjective perception assigned to males and females has brought about what researches term as agentic attributes and communal attributes. Right from the beginning boys are directed toward education and career promotion whilst girls are socialized to obtain a domestic role (Tlaiss, 2014; Omar, 2008). As according to Weyer (2007), communal attributes such as being friendly, affectionate, sympathetic, helpful interpersonally sensitive, kind, gentle and outspoken are associated with women, whereas agentic attributes such as being individualistic, ambitious, aggressive, dominant, competing for attention, forceful, confident and making problem-focused suggestions are associated with men. Elamin and Omair (2010) argues that participants in the research they conducted believed that women have

communal attributes of being submissive, dependent, caring and are good at taking care of the house and nurturing children. This finding is not surprising because it was conducted in Saudi Arabia, which is highly patriarchal in nature.

Trends in literature depicts that regardless of occupation and work tasks, agentic attribute like competitiveness, self-assertiveness and competitiveness are considered as more appropriate with men than women (Lewis & Humber, 2010). This most often puts women in a tight corner especially when leadership position is involved. Because male agentic attributes are accepted in most societies as being in line with leader role, women who aspire to be leaders become confused. If they exhibit communal attributes they might be denied for not being agentic and if they show agent attributes they will be criticized for not being communal which is their gender stereotype society expects of them (Carli & Eagly, 2016). Powell and Sang (2015) agree that gender norms are not to be violated by women, which Nagy and Vicsek (2014) agrees based on the research they conducted. Dolan (2010), in line with his studies indicated that trait and policy stereotypes about men and women are still held by a lot of people. From above, it can be deduced that society defines these attributes to the sexes that is male and female and frowns upon a situation whereby the sexes exhibit the attributes assigned to the opposite sex. All these leads to stereotyping against women.

#### **2.4.2 Gender Stereotypes.**

Researchers have extensively researched on gender stereotyping and leadership traits since 1970s (Coder & Spiller, 2013). And according to reports of the World Bank, women in most cultures since the past history have been seen to be inferior and are still disadvantaged (World Bank Group, 2010). This can be attributed to the gender attributes assigned to males and females in different societies and cultures. Sahoo and

Lenka (2016) seem to agree to this by making an assertion that women are seen to be suitable for certain roles like playing the role of caregiver and homemaker and this is stereotyping which is deeply rooted in culture. They also mentioned that this has become rooted in the minds of the people to the extent that it will be very difficult to erase. Carothers and Reis (2014) also posit that gender is socially and culturally constructed to cause a separation of the population of how people stereotypically image what men and women are best suited to do. This is despite the fact that there is scientific evidence, which suggests men and women have the same attributes rather than different categories of attributes.

According to Makhoul (2008), when ordinary perception descends into stereotypes, they may imprison the members of a given community because of prejudice embedded in it which limits them to a set of specific and closed mindset. It seems that sociocultural issues are very critical as far as stereotyping is concerned. Because prejudice against women is imbedded in gender stereotype which is the attributes assigned to males and females as a result of their role activities, which makes women more vulnerable (Lopez-Zafra & Garcia-Retamero, 2012; Garcia-Retamero, Muller & Lopez-Zafra, 2011). Most scholars have the belief that the foundation to gender discrimination against women, especially in the workforce is cultural beliefs of societies (Ridgeway & England, 2007). The difficulty is that gender differences are being encouraged in almost everyday life practices in societies, including classrooms and boardrooms (Morley, 2006). In Africa, most especially sub-Saharan Africa, which is patriarchal in nature, laws and customs most of the time discriminate against women (Adomako Ampofo, 2001). Biri and Mutambwa (2013) however asserted that, women in most African countries are discriminated against, leading to excluding and stereotyping against them which eventually marginalizes the developmental

process. They were also of the view that, this discrimination happens irrespective of the fact that women are attaining higher education from institutions of higher learning.

However, according to Surdu, Potecea and Zorica (2015), generally, because of stereotype against women where women are stereotyped to have communal attributes like being communicative, thoughtful and supportive as against men being assertive, ambitious, independent and determined, men are most often on the lead to care more for social status than women. Moreover, how women are valued are affected negatively by the traditional roles and societal values that are embedded in most cultures (Chisikwa, 2010). These researchers were of the view that women are expected to show a certain behaviour pattern because they are held to the culturally entrenched idea which society has defined for them. It seems as if men in most societies, especially highly patriarchal ones are not interested in getting the situation resolved because stereotyping against women in society is to their advantage. It is not therefore surprising that till date, gender inequality in decision making, especially in economic and political life still remains unresolved (Eurostat, 2008; Haussmann, Tyson & Zahidi, 2010). Bergman (2008) seems to go in tandem with this argument which they stated that a number of studies have shown inequality between men and women, especially in different workplaces which they believe will not resolve in any moment soon. Afolabi (2013) was also of the assertion that the problem of gender inequality is very difficult to solve because there are constraining factors such as cultural hindrances and display of power and others like lack of ability to ensure legislative and institutional processes. Schein (2007) shares similar opinion, which he indicated that, attitude people have about women and their perception about management will be very difficult to change most especially from men's view point.

This therefore is likely to increase the gap of leadership role between men and women.

Some researchers are of the view that stereotyping against women can have negative consequences on their self-esteem and confidence (Chisikwa, 2011). They also mentioned that this may lead to a situation where women will see themselves as unfit for certain roles which will reduce their interest in executing other duties outside the domestic ones. European Union data produced recently reveals that the inequality in academic careers is persistently gendered (European Commission, 2013). This assertion has been supported by a number of researchers. For instance, according to Van den Brink and Benschop (2012), there is this gender stereotypic perception people hold about women, which is that they are not good at delegating tasks, which goes a long way to prevent them from getting to the senior management roles of universities. Throughout the history, women still find themselves in a disadvantaged position because they have been considered inferior (World Bank Group, 2010). It had been further argued that certain sectors have been dominated by women, for instance, in those areas such as health, social services, teaching among others (Evans, 2011). Braun, Stegmann, Hernandez, Junker, and van Dick (2017) also shared their view by alluding to the fact that the “think manager, think male” concept can still be noticed in most workplaces which prevent a lot of women in advancing to the higher level. I seem to agree with Marvin in a sense that a lot of researchers have stressed on the same issue which calls for attention. For instance, Hoobler, Wayne and Lemmon (2009) posited that people stereotyping against women with attributes such as being kind and caring whereby man is seen as tough and achievement oriented had been termed as “think manager, think male”. This is despite the fact that greater effort in Western countries has been made to get women to the highest level. Wood (2008)

research finding seems to also support Marvin's assertion which they found that people hold the stereotypical notion about working women. Their research revealed that despite more women advancing at their workplaces because of effort of especially western countries to champion equal employment opportunities and affirmative action policies, people still do not believe women will fill 50 percent of top management positions in their organisations.

Recent studies have suggested that the structures and practices of Universities and other large organisations are still gendered, which encourages stereotyping and gender inequality (Acker, 2012). Some researchers have pointed out some of the reasons of these gender stereotyping in work places. One of such researchers is Rawston (2013), who argued that socio-cultural construction of gender is the cause of the underrepresentation of women in academia and organisations in most countries. Socio-cultural factors such as sex stereotyping of women in workplaces has the tendency to bring about the negative perception about women's capability to occupy positions (Moneim-Elsaid & Elsaid, 2012).

However, other researchers found gender stereotyping to be decreasing at a faster pace. For instance, Schwarzwald, Koslowsky and Bernstein (2013) found that the use of power by men, which leads to stereotyping against women is decreasing over time. This is supported by Budworth and Mann (2010) who revealed that that more women have made progress, especially in managerial positions than in the past. Decreasing of negative stereotypes against women can also be attributed to the fact that western countries have put measures in place which has liberalized the barriers which used to prevent women from progressing (Barreto, Ryan & Schmitt, 2009). Despite the fact that organisations and academic institutions are changing in terms of how women used to be stereotyped negatively in the past, some elements of stereotypes about

women can be noticed in their policies and structures which continue to negatively affect women's progress (Roberson & Kulik, 2007).

Surprisingly, some research found that it is not always that men stereotype against women workers, but women also stereotype against their fellow women, especially those in managerial positions. For instance, Tlaiss and Kauser (2010) found in their research conducted in Lebanon that women workers preferred to work with men and not their fellow women. Schein (2007) also came out with similar finding which, according to him women reportedly stereotyped against their fellow women in management positions. To them, this confirms that attitude towards women is alarming and it will be very difficult to change. Kupper and Zick (2011) also came out similar finding in which females scored higher on social dominance orientation than their male counterparts.

#### **2.4.3 Stereotyping and Job Performance**

There are negative responses associated with negative stereotypes which can show themselves in the stereotyped individual's reaction, self-esteem, achievement level, motivation and performance (Singletary, Ruggs, Hebl & Davies, 2009; Carnaghi, Piccoli, Brambilla & Bianchi, 2014). This assertion is corroborated by another research which revealed that job performance and achievement level are seriously affected when women are stereotyped against (Afolabi, 2013). Many attitudinal and behavioural effects in and out of the workplace are caused by stress and anxiety which in turn affects performance in times of stereotype threats against women workers (Podsakoff, LePine & LePine, 2007). Their research findings seem to go little further as it identifies stress and anxiety as a lead cause of poor performance in situations of stereotyping against women workers. Their finding is in line with research conducted by others who were of the view that women employees clearly separate between

being female employees and work identities. They do this separation as it is important to minimize the negative mental health consequences associated with being a female worker (Settles, 2004). They were of the conviction that negative mental health consequences affect women workers who see their gender identity to be inseparable.

According to von Hippel *et al.* (2011), reduced job satisfaction and increased turnover intentions are mostly experienced by women workers who experience stereotype threats in workplaces. They were of the view that the stereotype threats happen in workplaces because social status are more important to men than women. Women's morale may negatively be affected because they sometimes feel there are obstacles which prevent them in their professional progression (Hungu, 2010). Research has shown that companies and institutions that deal with the issue of stereotyping against female workers are more likely to have the competitive edge to attract and retain quality female workforce (Deemer, Carroll & Carpenter, 2014). A study by Treasurer *et al.* (2014) seems to have similar finding which revealed that women who get to the top management positions perform better than their male counterparts. A survey by Catalyst in 2011 also found that, companies which have more women in their top management position are more successful and more profitable compared to their counterparts with fewer women (Catalyst, 2011). However, it is not always that females are discriminated against most especially in the highly egalitarian countries. For instance, Frederick and Streb (2008) in their research found that, in IAC elections, women were not discriminated against. Therefore, the zeal to change the status quo into a greater equality and diversity is likely to continue (Hurn, 2012).

#### **2.4.4 Attitudes towards women**

According to Elamin and Omair (2010), males have more conservative attitudes towards female workers. Their finding also revealed that, those who are educated, not married and unemployed showed less conservative attitude towards female managers than those who are less educated, employed, old and unmarried. The reason may be that the latter may not be happy with the situation where females will compete with them, especially the married and the employed because Arab region is highly patriarchal in nature and the men may want to dominate the women. This has been stressed by Omar (2008), that some countries are patriarchal male dominated society that subject women to a lot of coded and unwritten social norms. Cortis and Cassar (2005) revealed in their finding that male employees and students than their female counterparts held more negative stereotypical attitude towards females. It can be seen clearly from his finding that male students hold negative attitudes against females which is not surprising. It can therefore be assumed this might translate into the workforce where the same people will be occupying positions in the future and are likely to behave in the same way.

Galanaki, Papalexandris and Halikias (2009) seems to have similar finding whereby they discovered that, the attitude of people towards women who occupy senior managerial positions is highly gendered as far as the positiveness towards woman manager is concerned. In addition, a study by Mostafa (2003) revealed that more female than their male counterparts have a more positive attitude towards women in the workforce. It can be deduced from Mostafa's finding that males rather have a negative attitude towards women workers. This like other studies in the Arab region is not surprising in a sense that generally Arab men tend to have a more conservative traditional attitude towards women workers. Kiaye and Singh (2013), discovered in a

study they conducted in South Africa that males disrespect and discriminate against female workers which serve as a major barrier to female workforce. It is obvious that cultural belief by the people plays a significant role. Interestingly, Rhoads and Gu (2012) found that women see the challenges confronting them as more serious whilst men think otherwise.

There are also comparative cross national studies that compare people's attitude towards females in the workforce. One of such studies was conducted by Tomkiewicz *et al.* (2004) with participants from Poland and US revealed that, Poland Males than their American male counterparts exhibit a more conservative attitude towards women in managerial positions. This can be attributed to the fact that some advanced countries like American society have been very determined in their proposition of women's equality more than other countries do. Similar studies by Moneim-Elsaid and Elsaid (2012) revealed Egyptian males and females' views about women managers were negative as compared to their counterparts in the USA whose attitude towards female managers were positive. This finding is also quite surprising in a sense that one would at least expect females to hold positive attitudes towards female managers even in a highly patriarchal environment. This might be due to the fact that highly conservative countries are likely to hold negative attitudes towards women workers (Yeganeh & May, 2011). Likewise, Simmons *et al.* (2012) did a comparative study in Kuwait and US which also found Kuwait men have more negative attitudes towards women managers than men in the US. The findings discussed above implies that people in non-egalitarian countries are likely to have negative attitude towards women compared to their counterparts in egalitarian countries.

Mostafa (2005) found that, the attitude of participants in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) were non-traditional towards female managers. This finding seems somehow surprising because one would at least expect male participants to have traditional conservative attitude towards women in the workforce. This again can be attributed to modernity which is increasingly diminishing patriarchal attitudes towards women. I am also with the conviction that education, industrialization and urbanization that have characterized UAE is leading to a situation whereby women are making progress in the workforce.

#### **2.4.5 Influence of social dominance orientation on attitude**

Studies have shown that in many countries, the gender gap in SDO exists. For example, it was found that in USA, men scored higher on SDO than women (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Also in Sweden, which is regarded as one of the most egalitarian countries, SDO is still noticed (Zakrisson, 2008). They mentioned that, the achievement of social power is facilitated by higher degree of SDO because of psychological predisposition. Research conducted by Batalha *et al.* (2011) revealed that men were found to be higher on SDO than women. They were of the view that people who are in the high-status condition were more socially dominant than those in the low-status group. There is evidence from the natural environment that suggest SDO is synonymous with upward status mobility (Liu *et al.*, 2008). But it is not that men are always higher on SDO than women and that sometimes features of the context determines higher SDO than gender (Batalha *et al.*, 2011).

#### **2.4.6 Barriers to Women Progress**

Glass ceiling is an everyday metaphor used to describe the invisible barrier in front of women seeking to move up the organisational hierarchies (Powell, 2012; Weinberger,

2011). It is responsible for fewer women witnessed in the top management positions in many companies and academic institutions.

Although the issue about glass ceiling had been looked at but its nature has remained almost the same for the past 20 years (Powell & Butterfield, 2015; Catalyst, 2011; Okimoto and Brescoll, 2010). Existing research suggest that women worldwide still face barriers to get to top management positions in companies and academic institutions because people sex stereotype the characteristics of managers in favour of men (Elsaid & Elsaid, 2012; Barnet-Verzat & Wolff, 2008). Research conducted by Cuadrado, Garcia-Ael and Molero (2015) in Spain showed that, participants regarded feminine characteristics less important and masculine characteristics more important for top managerial positions and employees were assigned mostly to male managers than female managers. Even though women are made up of 60 percent of the workforce worldwide and are getting their advanced degrees more than their male counterparts (Treasurer *et al*, 2013). For example, in Fortune 500 companies, women are made up of only 10 percent of senior managers, the uppermost ranks of CEO, president, executive vice president and COO comprise less than 4 percent and less than 3 percent are among top corporate earners (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Fassinger, 2008; Thornton, 2013). This is despite the fact that a lot of women have made significant inroads into the workforce and it further suggests that the glass ceiling is still difficult to break by women in the workforce (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Baker, 2014). Also among Fortune 500 companies, female top wage earners are just 8 percent (Catalyst, 2011) and women held only 6 percent of corporate CEOs and top executive positions (Matsa & Miller, 2011; Vaidya, 2009; Smith, Smith & Verne, 2011).

Specifically, in academia, women, despite having moved into different positions in the past few years, they too face the glass ceiling by finding it difficult to get to the

top hierarchy (Mitroussi & Mitroussi, 2009). They find it difficult to attain full professor, the rank which is prerequisite for higher administrative positions. It is therefore evident that the higher you go in the top management positions the fewer the numbers of women (Akpinar-Sposito, 2013). The top hierarchy is tilted towards men, despite literature pointing to the fact that men and women are equal in terms of leadership roles (Manning & Robertson, 2015). Even in western countries where policies and legislation have been put in place to liberalize barriers to women's advancement, limited participation of women in top management and decision making positions is still a common phenomenon (Noble & Moore, 2006). However, there are a lot of women in companies and academic institutions who are very well prepared and equipped to move to the top management level (Hoobler *et al*, 2009). They are of the view that despite this preparedness by women to get into top management positions only small number attains this level as compared to men. And the most interesting aspect is that gender stereotype acting as a hindrance to women progressing was seen by only fewer men than women as being a barrier to women progressing to top level positions (Schein, 2007). Even where women and men are on the same level, men are given major responsibilities than their female counterparts (Helgeson, 2015). Moreover, the policies putting in place to address this problem by organisations are ineffective (Chang, 2014).

The question is why few women in top management positions? (Rishani, Mallah, Houssami, & Ismail, 2015), there is no doubt that women face difficulties in progressing to the senior level position in many countries (Rampell, 2010). It seems the factors causing glass ceiling in companies and academia are different across countries (Broadbridge & Simpson, 2011; Huse & Solberg, 2006). There are several reasons why women find it difficult to break the glass ceiling. According to Hoobler

*et al.* (2009), one of the reasons for the existence of a glass ceiling is the family work conflict bias. To them, top hierarchies in corporations and academia sometimes believe that being a woman means her family activities will interfere with her work irrespective of whether she is married or not or whether she has children or not. Evans (2010) also posited that, women finding it difficult to break the glass ceiling is the difficulty of managing family responsibilities and work at the same time. Motherhood sometimes brings about career interruption which may serve as a hindrance of women moving to the top positions (The Economist, 2009; Matsa & Miller, 2011). In a research conducted by Ismail and Ibrahim (2008), most women indicated that they were required to reduce the time they spend on family responsibility for their career, which makes it difficult to achieve work balance even though they rated their family responsibility very high. For instance, a research conducted in Spain revealed that female academics are affected negatively by children than their male counterparts (Hurley & Chaudhary, 2016). Family responsibility preventing women from getting to the top position result from the fact that women see family responsibility as a first priority and job as second. Chao (2011) stated that women usually face pressure because people see women as family caretakers which is deeply rooted in the mind of people. The family responsibilities of women in the workforce may lead to a situation whereby some of them will refuse certain roles in the workplace with the thinking that they are time consuming (Barnet-Verzat & Wolff, 2009). The implication is that employers will favour men when searching for competences if they know women will not be ready to take part in more time-consuming management activities in the future.

Another problem identified by literature which also prevents women in the workforce from breaking the glass ceiling is women being denied access to the “old boys”

network'. For instance, Fassinger (2008) mentioned that, one of the reasons making it difficult for women workers to break the glass ceiling is women being denied access to the "old boys" club. The culture of the "old boys network" is exhibited in the male 'brother' culture which neglect females from moving to the top management positions (Oakley, 2000). Excluding females from the "old boys" culture affects the development and advancement of many females in corporate organisations and academia. The concept of "gatekeeping" whereby appointments in the various disciplines center on male values is somehow similar to the concept of "old boys' network" which also prevent women from advancing to the top leadership positions. However, Cheng and Tavits (2011) argue that, whenever the gatekeeper is a woman, women candidates are more likely to be nominated than when he is a man. For instance, Van den Brink and Benschop (2012) revealed that, the procedure in which professors are recruited in some of the disciplines in the Netherlands is not openly done. They opined that, "gatekeeping" has the possibility of breeding a negative bias culture which has the tendency to discriminate against women in academia and can further deny women professional support and networking (Brink & Benschop, 2014). Bangihole and White (2008) were also of the view that, the "gatekeeping" preserve the dominant male hegemony in the universities therefore preventing women from attaining professorial positions. This serves as a major challenge to women because it is by attaining the professorial position that women are likely to occupy management positions. Women not giving the opportunity to occupy senior positions can be attributed to the role played by the authorities in the recruitment and selection process (Ozkanli & White, 2009).

Researchers have also identified socio-cultural factors as one of the obstacles preventing women from breaking the glass ceiling. As according to Treasurer *et al.*

(2013), cultural beliefs about gender structures that favour men in top management positions is one of the invisible barriers hindering women in progression to the top executive positions. Kusterer *et al.* (2013) were of the view that implications of culture on gender gap cannot be overemphasized. It was found that, as an autonomous culture may support gender equality, conservatism may perpetuate the gender gap. Culturally, whether women are in the workforce or not, it is still expected of them to perform their family responsibilities (Chao, 2011). Some of these family responsibilities include taking care of children and looking after elderly parents and other relatives. According to Ridgeway and England (2007), Cultural belief is regarded by most scholars to be the basis of discriminating against women in the workforce. Sahoo and Lenka (2016) reported that, stereotyping is deeply embedded in culture that assign attributes such as caregiver and homemaker to women. This has rooted deep into the minds of people so much so do it will be very difficult to erase.

This has the tendency to prevent women who are prepared enough to advance to the top management position an access to do so. To Chisikwa (2010), even though women are given the opportunity than the past, socio-cultural factors continue to influence the appointment of more men than women as school heads. For instance, Dolan (2010) found that even in egalitarian country like US where there are liberalized policies to help women advance to the top management positions, there are more men than women in elected office. To this extent Sossou (2011) is with the view that gender inequality and discrimination have become difficult to solve because of cultural issues and display of power by men as well as inadequate legislative and institutional processes to deal with gender stereotyping. Another example can be found in the research conducted by Odiaka (2013) in Nigeria, which he revealed that women fundamental human rights are affected by cultural and other practices which

include the right to life and the right to personal liberty. They also asserted to the fact that in most of the sub-Saharan African country's laws are mostly rooted in tradition which subsequently discriminate against women (Akotia & Anum, 2012).

Organisational culture has been identified by some scholars as one of the obstacles preventing women from breaking the glass ceiling. According to Bangihole and White (2008), there are many reasons that affect women upward movement into the top hierarchy positions and one of such barriers is organisational culture which results in gender inequality in universities. Most notably, the manner of structures and policies in academia and higher educational institutions favour the traditional values, disciplinary status, career cycle and work practices of male academics. North-Samardzic and Taksa (2011) highlighted that, organisations most times, put pressure on women to accept masculine behavioural norms which is brought by the gender culture in the organisation which also has the tendency to bring about inequality. Chao (2011) had similar finding, which indicates that, for women to break the glass ceiling they have to compromise some of their female qualities to avoid being discriminated against. It was also identified by Rhee and Sigler (2015) that women who exhibit masculine attributes are seen to go against their gender stereotype and are less preferred than male leaders who show the same attributes in their leadership styles. Women who show agentic attributes have mostly been described as “heroines of the past”, “glamorous women”, “seductress”, “red jackets”, “women displaying ironic femininity”, “men in skirt” and “ladies of stone” (Krogstad & Storvik, 2012).

But according Budworth and Mann (2010), behaviours that are seen to be successful for male managers are not successful for females and that it is not necessary for females to adopt male attributes to be successful. (Bleijenbergh, van Engen & Vinkenburg, 2012; Devine, Grummell & Lynch, 2011; O' Connor, 2010). Liu *et al.*

(2008) identified promotion, training and career development and compensation as some of the key corporate practices and policies enforcing glass ceiling. They posited that, there is enough evidence in which corporate organisations hire men candidates similar to themselves with the notion that they fit well into the traditional leadership attributes associated with men. Moreover, corporations are not doing enough to put adequate measures in place to create diversity in their practices and policies to help women advance into the top management level (Ellemers *et al.*, 2012). Some corporations go to the extent of paying women less than their men counterparts (Albrecht, Thoursie, & Vroman, 2014). It is also argued that individual's income is determined by biological sex of male, female job context and masculine gender roles (Alewell, 2013). Though there is evidence that men and women in leadership positions are equally qualified (Smith, Warming & Hennings, 2017). England, Gornick and Shafer (2012) seems to have a different view because, their finding pointed to the fact that, income inequality does not affect educated women in the workforce but rather affected the uneducated. Karam and Afiouni (2014) revealed that managerial role in the Arab MENA region is influenced by factors such as patriarchy, legislation, demographic factors, interpersonal connections, family networks, government legislation, etc. Another twist discovered by Fox and Lawless (2011) is the fact that, sometimes women themselves see themselves to be less competent for top management positions.

Some researchers further found that some women in the workforce are not able to break the glass ceiling because they do not have the skills to progress to top positions. It is evident from the findings of some researchers that underrepresentation of women in top management positions in higher education and research is the fact that most women do not have the necessary skills and attitude to do so (O' Connor, 2010;

Timmers, Willemsen & Tijdens 2010). Another dimension is where women who have been able to make it to the top are not able to promote their subordinate women even though they have power and motivation (Cohen & Huffman, 2007). This may be out of fear that they might not be seen by others as a team player for being sympathetic to them. Maume (2011) suggests that, failure of women at the top senior positions to help their subordinate women might stem from the fact that, they might identify themselves with their men counterparts at the top position or they might not be powerful enough to help females advance to these senior positions. This has the tendency for these senior women ignore important issues such as work-family conflict and equal employment opportunity which prevents women from progressing.

Study by Stainback, Ratliff and Roscigno (2011) seems to have contrary finding which they found that women are able to help their female subordinates progress. To these authors, having women at the top management positions reduces discrimination by 40 percent as compared to women who work under male senior managers. They argue that female managers may serve as change agents by protecting female subordinates from gender discrimination and also reducing gender inequality. But the problem is women who fail to exhibit agentic attributes are discriminated against. Such women are not liked by both males and females as compared to assertive women. But Sikdar and Mitra (2012) found in their research conducted in UAE that, gender rather than individual biological sex and tradition influence stereotype of women who are willing to move to senior management positions. They emphasized that women who exhibit agentic attributes are not discriminated against as they are able to break the glass ceiling successfully.

Literature has also found out that, apart from family responsibility, sociocultural factor and organisational factors, women are also prevented to progress into the top

management positions by “Queen bee” effect (Marvin, 2006). It is used to describe women in top management positions who fail to help other women also advance to the top levels. According to Ellemers *et al.* (2012), the Queen bee effect is alarming and that woman on top positions, most of the times deny the existence of sexism. The advancement of women workers is therefore undermined by females who are already in the top positions (Kaiser & Spalding, 2015).

Researchers have also pointed out that women outperform men, irrespective of factors such as organisational, educational, social and cultural which prevents women from advancing to the top-level positions (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2010). Organisational innovation was seen to be at the higher level in organisations where women have advanced to the top management positions (Torchia, Calabrò, & Huse, 2011). A survey by Catalyst in 2011 had similar finding which indicated that profitability and high return on equity is synonymous with organisations which had more women representing top management positions (Catalyst, 2011). Organisations which lack gender diversity are likely to have poor performance as compared to those with gender diversity policies (Campbell & Mínguez-Vera, 2008). Moreover, organisations with more women at the top executive positions create a positive image for themselves as female employees and the general public see them as “female-friendly employers” (Sealy, Vinnicombe & Singh, 2008). They further argue that this has the potential to give these organisations competitive advantage of recruiting the best talents.

#### **2.4.7 Gender issues in Ghana**

In Ghana, scholars seem to have contradictory findings when it comes to women acceptance and attitude towards women most especially women in the working force. While some researchers see progress in the acceptance of women into the workforce

and women occupying key positions others seem to have contrary findings, which suggest that the situation of women in terms of their acceptance and progress is still nothing to write home about. Some studies have identified negative stereotypes against women that has led to inequality and discrimination against women. For instance, research conducted by Anku-Tsede and Gadegbeku (2014) revealed that gender inequality is still in existence and some of the barriers to gender equality identified were intimidation from male colleagues, socio-cultural factors, institutional factors as well as educational issues. Their findings also indicate that conventions and laws during appointments and promotions are not considered. But they agreed to the that within the workplace, equality has been reinforced through different types of regulations. According to Sossou (2011), Gender inequality and discrimination have been experienced over the years by women in terms of political participation in Ghana. Women see themselves as being relegated to the background because the society in which we find ourselves does not afford males and females equal opportunities as women become second to men. Sossou's findings also revealed that negative socio-cultural traditional practices, lack of education as well as financial barriers serves as an obstacle to gender equality (Sossou, 2011). According to Akotia and Anum (2012), although education decreases the perception of females in terms of traditional roles but this was not the case of males. Their findings also revealed that young adults as well as females had more modern attitude as far as gender roles are concerned. This is probably an indication that gender roles which has been viewed strictly in a traditional way is changing.

Research has revealed the gender inequality being experienced by women emanates from the fact that socialisation of young women in our society removes them from the world of public decisions. Girl's training traditionally focuses on making them good

wives and mothers (Sossou, 2011). And that Biological and anatomical factors arise as a result of natural differences between the sexes (Adomako-Ampofo, 2001; Fuwa, 2004). The differences come as a result of role differentiation which characterize most cultures where women are mostly nurtured to take care of the household and the children. Cultural expectation is one factor that appears to determine what constitute or does not constitute women's work (Adomako-Ampofo, 2001; Akotia & Anum, 2012). Traditionally, society has been favouring the work of men as compared to women. This is evident from the situation whereby working from outside the home and taking care of the financial needs of the household are seen as a preserve of men and is considered more important as compared to women role of taking care of the house and the children (Adomako-Ampofo, 2001; Helgeson, 2015). Even women who decide to work from outside home roles are still not given value as compared to their male counterparts and this situation cuts across different cultures and has been in existence for a long time (Bergeron, Block, & Echtenkamp, 2006; Grimshaw & Rubery, 2007).

These differences being witnessed in terms of inequality in gender roles are predominant in low and middle-income countries such as Ghana, where social and organisational structures and processes are centered on traditional norm and values that give prominence to male to dominate (Adomako-Ampofo, 2001; Nukunya, 2003). According to Coffe and Bolzendahl (2011), across the globe, gender inequality is witnessed in areas such as increased poverty, poorer health status less access to health care and education, increased poverty, increased in mental health problems as well as limited liability to create wealth among women than men. This disparity between men and women is dominant in sub-Saharan African countries and South Asia as compared to the developed countries. Even though intervention

programmes have been initiated in many countries for more than half a century to help solve the gap that exists between men and women by improving women's status (Pulerwitz, Michaelis, Verma & Weiss, 2010). The problem seems to still exist in many countries, especially Africa and Asia.

Gender inequality has been experienced by women in the workplace and women are not able to move into the top positions in organisations (glass ceiling) (Smith, Caputi & Crittenden, 2012). Researchers have also seen lower pay for the women as compared to men for the same qualification and man's dominance in government participation as well as decision making (Grimshaw & Rubery, 2007; Lyness & Terrazas, 2006; World Economic Forum, 2013).

In sub-Saharan Africa and Asian countries, researchers have identified areas such as unequal control of family resources, limited access to education and healthcare, property and justice as areas gender inequality is often reported (Johnston-Anumonwo & Oberhauser, 2011). Ghana in particular, researchers identified areas such as wealth creation, education and decision making both within the families and workplace where gender inequality mostly occurs (Buor, 2004; Sossou, 2011).

But other researchers are of the view that Ghana has achieved a lot in terms of dealing with negative stereotypes against women, which is seen through getting more women into public life. To these researchers, Africa has made a great stride as far as African women's progress in political life is concerned. For instance, 50-50 quota on gender has been implemented by the African Union's Pan-African Parliament seats, party quotas and legislated candidate quotas has been reserved in 27 out of 49 states in sub-Saharan Africa (Quota Project, 2013). In eight sub-Saharan African countries, more than 30 percent of the legislative seats are occupied by women (Inter-Parliamentary

Union, 2013). Which implies that African countries are doing well with getting more women into important positions. This probably is an indication that Africa as a continent want to see more of the countries become egalitarian society.

According to Adams, Scherpereel and Jacob (2016), the increasing presence of women in political and public life is being driven by certain important forces which scholars must understand. In terms of ministerial position, Ghana, for instance, has become a leader in women's representation (Adams *et al*, 2016). Research conducted by Delaney (2000) indicated that, previously in sub-Saharan Africa small number of women headed ministerial positions. But now a significant number of sub-Saharan African women hold ministerial positions. For instance, in Ghana, there were 26.1 percent of women's representation in cabinet in 2009 (Adams *et al.*, 2016). This clearly shows that Ghana is moving from non-egalitarian to a more egalitarian country. According to Adams *et al.* (2016), Ghana was one of the first countries to adopt a gender quota system where President Kwame Nkrumah's government set aside 10 National Assembly seats for women in which each region had one representation. This feat was achieved when few African governments in sub-Saharan Africa had a few women in their ministerial positions (Ayee, 2009). Research indicates that the increasing number of women in higher positions is due to favourable institutional structures, a conducive international environment and the increasing number of women's movements (Adams *et al.* 2016). They also asserted that probably it might be because the Ghana's constitution gives a more direct path to the executive office. Ghana's international presents as indicated by Adams and her colleagues might be a contributing factor to the increasing number of women in important positions. Krook and True (2012) shared similar view which they indicated that expansion and consolidation of an international norm as far as gender-balanced

decision making has characterized the past few decades. Some researchers are of the view that even as the representation of women seems to be low as far as top management position is concern as compared to men, the situation looks different in some of the public institutions like the judiciary service where a woman is currently the Chief Justice and also a woman was a speaker of parliament in the parliamentary service of Ghana from 7<sup>th</sup> January 2009 to 6<sup>th</sup> January 2013 (Akpah, 2013; Judiciary Service of Ghana, 2014; Parliamentary Service of Ghana, 2014).

UN has lots of legal text which has been institutionalized and internationalized. Among the legal framework negotiated and ratified by UN is the “Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), 1997 (Signed on 17 July, 1980 and Ratified on 2 January, 1986). Others are Beijing Platform for Action, 1994; Option Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW-OP) 1999 (Signed on 24 February, 2000); International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) 1966 (Ratified on 7 December, 2000); International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), 1996 (Ratified on 7 December, 2000); African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights (ACHPR) (Ratified on 24 January, 1989 and Signed on 3 July, 2004); Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous People (Voted in Favour as a member on the 13 September, 2007); International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination; (CERD) (4 January, 1969); International Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), 1991 (2 September, 1990); International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (MWC) 1990 (1, July 2003); and the International Conference on Population and Development, 1994 signed by Ghana” (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). All these treaties and convention might have accounted for the increasing number of women in

key positions over the years. Bush (2011), indicated that Ghanaian leaders are likely to increase the number of women in top positions because of the international norm instead of the foreign aid Ghana receives from international communities. Furthermore, the 1992 Republican Constitution of Ghana also has some provisions which promote gender equality (Constitution of Ghana, 1992). Amongst this provision is “Article 12 which guarantees every person the fundamental rights and freedom and also article 17 enjoin the state to take the necessary steps to end all forms of discrimination on the basis of gender, race, colour, ethnicity and creed as well as social and economic status” (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014, p.4). All these show the positive posture Ghana as a nation has adopted towards women, especially those in the working class, even though some are still being influenced by socio-cultural norms and are holding negative attitudes towards women.

Researchers have identified other factors aside local and international laws which had contributed in moving Ghana into an egalitarian country. Research has found that Pressure groups have also contributed in terms of advocacy for people to behave towards women positively (Adams *et al.* 2016). For instance, in “2003, with the backing of different actors such as women politicians, media representatives, professional organisations and women’s groups, ABANTU, nongovernmental organisation helped in identifying certain common demands to assist in achieving gender equality and equity and sustainable national development” (Coalition on the Women’s Manifesto, 2005, p.5). According to the coalition, one of their key demands was for government and political parties to adopt affirmative action to surge up the number of women in key positions such as parliament, district chief executives, party executive among others to 50 percent. Although it will be difficult to achieve the 50 percent appointment of women into public offices, their push might have contributed

to quite a number of women in public offices being witnessed today. WMC also played a major role in 2012 parliamentary and presidential elections and this was manifested in the event dubbed “Women’s Agenda for Election 2012 (Ansah, 2012). This women’s group have over the years pressured the various governments and political parties to take women into consideration in their appointments by organising press conferences, petitioning governments, campaigns, call on international norm related to gender equality and equity etc.

Political parties are also making an effort to see more women in the public offices which can be seen as a major contribution to a number of women we see today in key public offices. For instance, in the lead up to the 2008 elections, the then flagbearer of the then opposition party NDC, announced the party’s commitment to have at least 40 percent of women in public positions (Adams *et al.*, 2016). He could not achieve the party’s promise, arguing that the number of female parliamentarians were few and that the constitution enjoins him to appoint a majority of cabinet from parliament. Even though he failed in his promise he did include more women in his government than any of his predecessors. “Between 1979 and 1981, to increase the number of women in governance, Affirmative Action Policy was introduced to increase female involvement in local level governance from 30 percent to 50 percent” (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014, p. 9). A number of women have achieved legacies of occupying top positions, for instance, “in 2002, Ms Eva Lokko was appointed as the first woman to occupy the position of Director-General of Ghana Broadcasting Corporation (GCB), in 2004 Dr Grace Bediako was appointed as Government Statistician, a position formerly held by men, in 2005, Mrs Elizabeth Mills-Robertson becomes the first Woman Deputy IGP” (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014, p. 13).

The Fourth World Women Conference in 1995 which were popularly terms as 'Beijing Conference' has undoubtedly played a significant role in relation to values, attitude and behaviour towards women (Madsen, 2012). Their research revealed that Ghanaian media realized that there was the need to give attention to the conference, especially the fact that the government delegation was led by the then first lady in the person of Nana Konadu Agyemang-Rawlings, who coincidentally happened to be the president of the 31<sup>st</sup> December Women's Movement (DWM) which aim was to empower women to gain economic freedom. This registered the conference in the minds of Ghanaians hence its extensive coverage. It can be deduced from the finding above that the 'Beijing Conference' might have contributed to the decreased level of negative stereotypic behaviours against women especially those in the working force.

Alexander and Welzel (2011) found that societies have made many gains in gender equality. And these changes were influenced by factors such as cultural modernity, institutional designs, economic modernity and historical legacies. According to Baah-Boateng (2014), occupational sex segregation has significantly declined in Ghana. This decline has been associated with the awareness of gender equality by the general public and also the implementation of affirmative action in the educational sector which has brought about significant impact of gender equality in the educational sector.

#### **2.4.8 Hypotheses**

This study, therefore seeks to examine the students' attitude towards female senior members in higher educational institutions. Based on the literature discussed above, the hypotheses are:

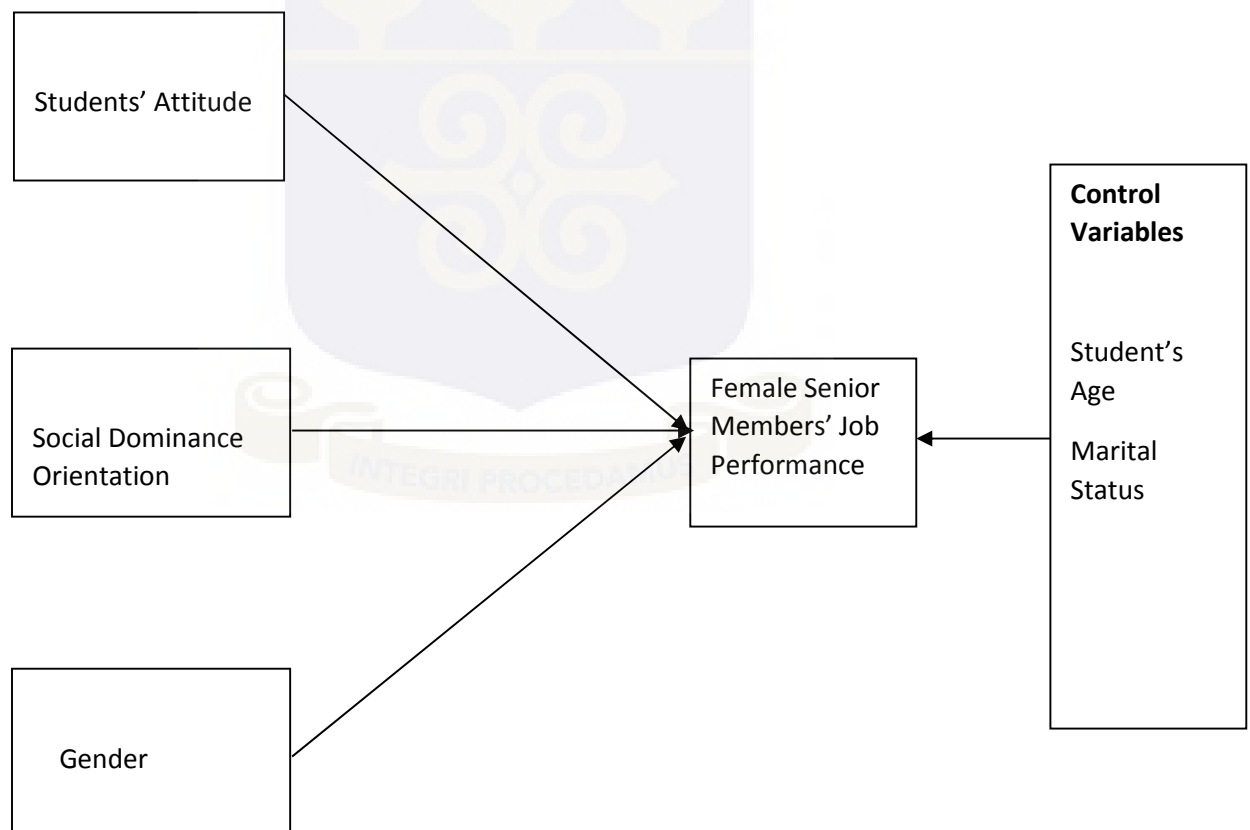
H1a: Students' Attitude is negatively related to Female Senior Members' Job Performance

H1b: Female students will show more positive attitude towards female senior members than their male counterparts.

H1c: Male students will show more negative attitude towards female senior members than their female counterparts.

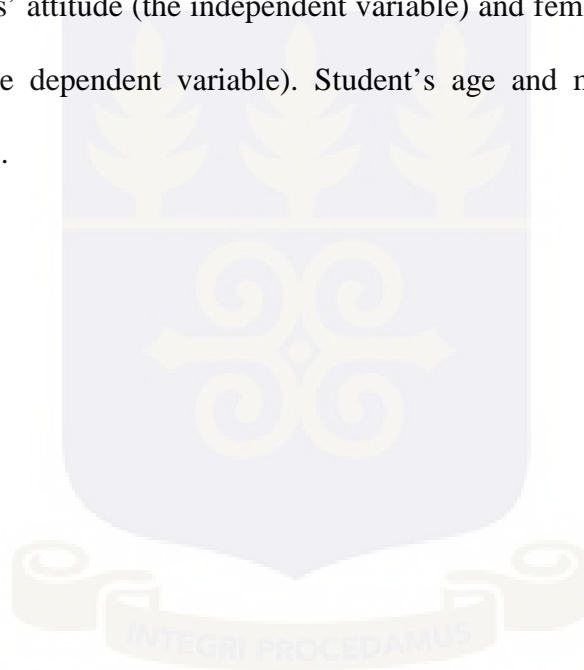
H2: Social Dominance Orientation will influence the relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance.

**Figure 2. 1: Conceptual Framework**



**Source: Author's Conceptual Framework (2017)**

The researcher based on the above reviews developed the conceptual framework above to guide the study. It depicts the hypothesized relationship between the independent variable, the moderators and the dependent variable. It is hypothesized that Students' Attitude is negatively related to Female Senior Members' Job Performance. It is also hypothesized that Female students will show more positive attitude towards female senior members whilst male students will show more negative attitude towards female senior members. It further hypothesized that Social Dominance Orientation (the moderator variable) will influence the relationship between students' attitude (the independent variable) and female senior members' job performance (the dependent variable). Student's age and marital status served as control variables.



## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodological approaches, procedures and processes that were employed in the study. The sub-sections include: philosophical perspective (research paradigms), research design, study area, population, sample and sampling procedure, instrumentation, data collection procedure and data analysis highlighting the statistical techniques used to test the hypothesis and how the transcribed interviews were analyzed.

#### 3.2 Philosophical Perspective

##### Research Paradigms

A paradigm is a set of beliefs, values and techniques that form the fundamental philosophical assumptions which define what 'valid' research is and the appropriate methods that can be applied in the research (Myers & Avison, 2002). A research paradigm can also be defined as "a set of fundamental assumptions and beliefs as to how the world is perceived which then serves as a thinking framework that guides the behaviour of the researcher" (Jonker & Pennink, 2010, pg. 25). There are different paradigms and each has its own ontological, epistemological and methodological assumption which serves as a base to explain and draw the differences between them (Creswell, 2007). Some of the paradigms are positivism, interpretivism, realism, relativism, critical realism and pragmatism.

Ontology refers to how a researcher perceives the nature of social reality whilst epistemology deals with how to study and acquire knowledge. It is the belief in how to generate, understand and use knowledge that are seen to be valid and acceptable.

Methodology is a framework used to conduct research within a context of a paradigm (Wahyuni, 2012). The table below illustrates the research paradigms and their fundamental beliefs.

**Table 3. 1: Research paradigms and their fundamental beliefs.**

|   | Research Paradigms   |   |  |   |
|---|--|---|--|---|
| Fundamental beliefs                                   | Positivism   | Post positivism (Critical Realism)  | Interpretivism   | Pragmatism  |
| Ontology: what is the nature of the reality           | There is a single, objective, and tangible reality and independent of social factors   | Objective. Exist independently of human thoughts and beliefs or knowledge of their existence, but is interpreted through social conditioning (critical realist) | Multiple realities exist, socially constructed, subjective.  | External multiple, view chosen to best achieve an answer to the research question   |
| Epistemology: What constitute the knowledge generated | Only observable phenomena can give credible data and facts. Knowledge generated is objective. Focus on causality and law-like generalizations, reducing phenomena to simplest elements time bound and context dependent. | Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on explaining within a context or contexts  | Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus upon the detail of situation, the reality behind these details, subjective meanings and motivating actions | Either or both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent upon the research question. Focus on practical applied research integrating different perspectives to help interpret the data. |
| Axiology: the role of values in                       | Value-free and etic  | Value-laden and etic  | Value-bond and emic  | Value-bond and etic-emic  |

|   |  |  |  |   |
|---|--|--|--|---|
| research and the researcher's stance            | Research is undertaken in a value-free way, the researcher is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance. | Research is values laden; the researcher is biased by world views, cultural experiences and upbringing | Research is value bound, the researcher is part of what is being researched, cannot be separated and so will be subjective | Values play a large role in interpreting the results, the researcher adopting both objective and subjective points of view. |
| Methodology: the model for the research process | Quantitative   | Quantitative or qualitative  | Qualitative  | Quantitative and qualitative (mixed or multi-method design)   |

**Source:** (Wahyuni, 2012).

Because the researcher is doing mixed method which is made up of both quantitative and qualitative techniques, the researcher has tilted towards pragmatism which inclines more towards a mixture of quantitative and qualitative techniques (Johnson & Onwuegnuzie, 2004). Mixed method research uses methods and philosophy that have the tendency to bring together the insights provided by both qualitative and quantitative research which then generates a workable solution (Johnson & Onwuegnuzie, 2004). According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), pragmatism does not subject itself to what researchers mostly refer to as 'paradigm war' between the positivist and interpretivist research philosophies. Those in favour of pragmatism are of the assertion that research philosophy should be viewed as continuum rather than having the view that they stand in opposite directions (Wahyuni, 2012). Pragmatists believe that Objectivist and subjectivist perspective are not isolated from each other. Therefore, in order to well understand social phenomena, there must be a mixture of ontology, epistemology and axiology. Pragmatist researchers would like to work with both quantitative and qualitative data because it helps them to understand social reality better.

### **3.3 Research Design**

To meet the objectives of the study, the researcher employed mixed method which is a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and mixing or integrating both quantitative and qualitative data for the purpose of gaining a better understanding of the research problem (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Creswell, 2005). There are several mixed methods like explanatory sequential mixed method, exploratory sequential mixed method, transformative mixed method, embedded mixed method and multiphase mixed method (Creswell, 2013). Specifically, sequential explanatory mixed method design strategy was used because it helps in using quantitative data followed by a collection and analysis of qualitative data. According to Ivankova, Creswell and Stick (2006), the sequential explanatory research is highly popular among researchers. The sequential explanatory mixed-method approach allows a more holistic understanding of issues (Jick, 1993). In the current study, sequential explanatory mixed method approach will allow a holistic understanding of how students behave towards female senior members and its effect on their (Female Senior Member) job performance.

#### **3.3.1 Quantitative Technique**

Quantitative survey will provide an overview of students' attitudes towards female senior members' job performance in higher educational institutions and how social dominance orientation will influence this relationship.

Survey method was used to measure students' attitude which is the independent variable, social dominance orientation, which is the moderator as well as job performance which is the dependent variable. The quantitative survey is appropriate for measuring these variables because according to Bartlett and Vieland (2005), it can be quantified and generalized to an entire population if the researcher appropriately

sample the population and it also allows collection of more data from respondents within a relatively shorter time.

### **3.3.2 Qualitative Technique**

According to Gibbs (2007), qualitative research is intended to approach the world ‘out there’ and to understand, describe and sometimes explain social phenomena ‘from the inside’ in a number of different ways. Qualitative interviews will provide rich and detailed insight into how students behave towards female senior members and why they think this behavior of students affect their job performance (Robson, 2002). The researcher also used qualitative data because the findings will be enhanced by exploring the fine details of students’ behavior towards female senior members (Berg, 2007).

### **3.4 Study Area**

The research area covers Greater Accra Region of Ghana. This region was selected because, according to the National Accreditation Board, most of the higher educational institutions are located here. More public and private tertiary institutions found in this region mean that the researcher will have larger accessible population where larger sample can be drawn.

### **3.5 Population, Sample and Sampling Procedure**

#### **3.5.1 Target Population**

The Target population for the study is made up of Ghanaian graduate students and female senior members in three selected higher educational institutions in Ghana. A study population According to Babbie (2008, p.204) “is the collection of an elements from which a study sample is selected from”. The choice of Ghana tertiary institutions is as a result of the fact that, students are going to work in the various institutions and

their attitude towards women should be examined to inform managers especially Human Resource managers the kind of people they should hire for their organisations.

### **3.5.2 Sampling Technique**

According to Babbie (2008), purposive sampling is a type of non-probability sampling in which the units to be observed are selected on the basis of the researcher's judgment about which ones will be the most useful or representative. The purposive sampling, therefore, helped the researcher to use his own judgement to select the tertiary institutions based on the following Criteria: (1) The tertiary institutions must be duly accredited by the National Accreditation Board. (2) The tertiary institution must have operated for not less than five years. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the institutions and the same purposive sampling technique was used to select the participants for the study of both quantitative and qualitative aspects.

### **3.5.3 Sample Size**

Sample size cannot be overlooked when it comes to the use of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). However, researchers have not yet agreed on the actual sample size to use. According to Kline (2005), SEM uses a large sample technique and any conclusion based on a small sample size might not be reliable. This is because, the parameter estimation of the Maximum Likelihood Estimation method increases in sensitivity as the sample size increases. However, Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow and King (2006), are of the view that a sample size of 200 and above is good for Structural Equation Modeling analysis. In the view above, 300 Ghanaian graduate students and 30 female senior members were selected for the quantitative survey aspect of the study. With the qualitative aspect, Wallen (2000) is of the view that

there is no definite answer to what actually constitute the sufficient sample size. This author is also of the view that a researcher undertaking qualitative study should collect as large data within time and expenditure. The population consisted of all the female senior members of the three selected higher educational institutions in Ghana which the researcher selected using purposive sampling technique. In all, 12 female senior members were selected for the study.

### **3.6 Data Sources**

There are two main types of sources of data: Primary Data and Secondary Data. Primary data is data that is used for a particular purpose for which they were collected. Questionnaire, interview and observation are the methods used in collecting primary data (Rabianski, 2003). Secondary data is the data gathered and processed by one researcher and is reanalyzed by another researcher often for a different purpose (Babbie, 2008). This study, conducted primary analysis and subsequently, primary data was used for the analyses in both quantitative and qualitative strands. This is because, according to Babbie (2008), primary data does not compromise quality as compared to secondary data.

### **3.7 Quantitative Phase**

#### **3.7.1 Instrumentation**

The main instrument used for the collection of data is structured questionnaire. This is because, the survey questionnaire method has been considered as useful in collecting data from a large number of respondents in a relatively short period of time and also cost effective (Joarder, Sharif & Ahmed, 2011)

Two sets of questionnaires were designed for the study. The first questionnaire which was administered to graduate students was divided into three parts. The first part of

the questionnaire sought respondents to provide demographic data such as age, sex, and marital status. The second part sought respondents' views on attitude towards female senior members and the last part sought respondents' views on social dominance orientation. The second questionnaire was administered to female senior members and consisted of one part which sought respondents' views on their job performance. This was done to prevent common method bias which, according to some scholars is not desirable (Meier & O'Toole, 2013).

### **3.7.2 Measurement of Variables**

Two self-administered questionnaires were constructed based on previous studies to measure the moderating effect of social dominance orientation on the students' attitude towards female senior members' job performance in higher educational institutions. The first questionnaire was made up of three sections, section A, section B and section C. Section A is made up of demographic characteristics of respondents, Section B contains the predictor variable and section C is made up of moderating variable. In all, 40 items were used to gather the data from graduate students. The second questionnaire had one part which had 6 items was used to gather data from female senior members.

#### **Section A: Demographic Data**

This part of the questionnaire instructed the participants to provide certain biographical information about their age, sex and marital status. These are age (21-25, 26-30, 31-35 and 36 and above), sex (male/female) and marital status (single/married).

### **Section B: Students Attitude Towards Female Senior Members**

In all, 21 items were used to measure students' attitude towards female senior members. This variable was measured using a scale developed by Terborg, Peters, Ilgen and Smith (1977). The calculated Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for Women as Managers scale indicate that the reliability is sufficient ( $\alpha = 0.70$ ). It is measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1(Strongly Disagree) to 7(Strongly Disagree). A reversed sample item was, "it is not acceptable for female senior members to assume leadership roles as often as their male counterparts". The items were modified to suit the context of the current study. For instance, an item "Challenging work is more important to men than it is for women" was modified as "Challenging work is more important to Male senior members than female senior members".

### **Section C: Social Dominance Orientation**

Social Dominance Orientation which is a moderating variable was measured using a scale developed by Sidanius, Lvin and Pratto (1996). It is made up of 16 items which was used to measure social dominance orientation. Participants responded to 7-point Likert Scale from 1(Strongly Disagree) to 7(Strongly Agree). The calculated Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for Social Dominance Orientation indicate that the reliability is sufficient ( $\alpha = 0.83$ ). The items were modified to suite the context of the current study. For instance, an item "Superior groups should dominate inferior groups" was modified as "Male groups should dominate female groups".

### **Section D: Job Performance**

This section was administered to female senior members and it is the dependent variable. It is about job performance and was measured by 6 items based on prior measure (Kuvaas, 2006). The items were modified to suite the context of the current

study. For instance, an item “I almost always perform better than what can be characterized as acceptable performance” was modified as “As a female senior member, I always perform better than what can be characterized as acceptable performance”. The calculated Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  for Job Performance indicate that the reliability is sufficient ( $\alpha = 0.72$ ).

Control Variables. The researcher controlled for students’ marital status (married = 1; Single = 2) and students’ age (21-25 = 1, 26-30 = 2, 31-35 = 3 and 36 and above = 4). This is because research has shown that these variables may impact on the students’ attitude towards women in the workforce (Elamin & Omair, 2010).

### **3.7.3 Data Collection Procedure**

Because the selected institutions are easily accessible by the researcher, copies of the questionnaire were delivered to respondents by hand. Before delivering questionnaires to respondents, the approval has been sought by the researcher from the authorities of the institutions with an introduction letter from the department duly signed by my supervisor and a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study. Participants were informed that the purpose of the study is to examine the students’ attitude towards female senior members in higher educational institutions. Consent was again sought from respondents and they were also assured of confidentiality of any information given. A total of 450 copies of the questionnaire were distributed to the respondents (graduate students) to supply the necessary information at their own convenient time in which 300 were retrieved. Again 50 copies of the second questionnaire were distributed to female senior members in which 30 were retrieved for data analysis. Section D of the questionnaire was responded by female senior members to avoid common method bias. According to most researchers, common method variance is a problem in behavioural research where the variance is

attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent (Meier & O'Toole, 2013).

### 3.7.4 Pre-test Reliability Analysis

In order to ensure the reliability of the instrument being used for the study, the researcher pre-tested the instrument by administering it to 15 graduate students who were selected at random to respond to the items. They consisted of 9 males and 6 females from the selected institutions. The pre-test was also to provide feedback on how well the respondents understand the questions. The feedback indicated that respondents understood the items.

The responses were then analyzed in the Statistical Package for Service Solution (SPSS) version 21.0 software which the Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for Women as Managers scale indicate that the reliability is sufficient ( $\alpha = 0.70$ ). The Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for Social Dominance Orientation indicate that the reliability is sufficient ( $\alpha = 0.83$ ). And the Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for Job performance also indicate that the reliability is sufficient ( $\alpha = 0.72$ ). The table below shows the results of the reliability analysis.

**Table 3. 2: Results of Pre-test**

| ITEM                                   | NUMBER OF ITEMS | CRONBACH'S ALPHA |
|--|-----------------|------------------|
| ATTITUDE TOWARDS FEMALE SENIOR MEMBERS | 21              | 0.70             |
| SOCIAL DOMINANCE ORIENTATION           | 16              | 0.83             |
| JOB PERFORMANCE                        | 6               | 0.72             |

**Source:** Field Survey (2017)

Some researchers are of the view that Cronbach's  $\alpha$  is not enough to determine the reliability. This is because it compromises the internal consistency reliability of latent variables and suggested that a different measure which is composite reliability, which

takes into consideration that indicators have different loadings be used in addition to the Cronbach's (Goetz, Liehr-Gobbers & Krafft, 2009).

### **3.7.5 Quantitative Data Analysis**

The data was fed into the Statistical Package for Service Solution software programme version 21.0 which was later exported into the CB-SEM AMOS (Covariance Based – Structural Equation Modeling AMOS), a Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) software. Before the data was exported into CB-SEM AMOS software, exploratory factor analysis was conducted where item retention was determined by performing exploratory component analysis with varimax rotation. Items which had loadings greater or equal to 0.50 on the particular construct were retained. In addition, missing data were checked which indicated that the data was missing completely at random (MCAR) which was estimated using expectation maximization (EM) (Gold & Bentler, 2000). Skewness and Kurtosis and outliers were also checked.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted in CB-SEM AMOS. According to Ullman (2001), SEM can be described as a combination of exploratory factor analysis and multiple regression. Therefore, one can think of SEM as CFA and multiple regression because it is more of confirmatory technique but can be used for exploratory purposes. With SEM the number of observed variables can be reduced into a smaller number of latent variables by examining the covariation among the observed variables (Schreiber *et al.*, 2006). The results were presented in the form of descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations. Another issue determined is the model fit. According to Schreiber *et al.*, researchers use a number of goodness-of-fit indicators to assess a model (Schreiber *et al.*, 2006). Specifically, goodness-of-fit the researcher determined include Goodness-of-fit (GFI), Adjusted Goodness-of-fit

(AGFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), Chi-square goodness-of-fit (CMIN), Comparative fit index CFI, and PCLOSE (Henseler & Sarstedt, 2013; (Schreiber *et al.*, 2006; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

SEM specifies the relationships between variables using two main equations: measurement and structural and is a robust multivariate technique (Schreiber, 2006). The measurement equation tests the accuracy of measurement proposed through the assessment of relationships between latent variables and their respective corresponding indicators whereby the structural equations assess the hypothesized relationships between the latent variables and allows hypotheses to be tested statistically (Byrne, 2010). In addition, SEM allows modeling of correlated error terms, interactions, measurement error, etc. (Savalei & Bentler, 2010). Unlike traditional regression, SEM is able to deal with certain complexities like moderating and mediating variables which relationship may consist of multiple dependent and independent variables or a dependent variable acting as independent variable. The CB-SEM AMOS was used to explain and make predictions about the relationship between the variables under study.

### **3.7.6 Validity and Reliability Analyses for (CFA) Measurement Model**

A data-gathering instrument should be valid because it should measure what it is supposed to measure. In order to ensure this, the content and face validity of the questionnaires were carefully examined by the supervisor of this dissertation who checked by validating the content and face validity of the questionnaire. Convergent validity was determined by an Average Value Extracted (AVE) during the Confirmatory Factor Analysis in which a value of at least 0.5 indicates sufficient convergent validity.

The average variance extracted (AVE) of all the latent Constructs are larger than the cutoff point of 0.50 recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981). This indicates that there is adequate convergent validity suggesting that the constructs which are supposed to be related actually are. Discriminant validity was also examined by ensuring that the AVE of each latent variable is greater than the squared correlations with all the other latent variables as proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). This indicates that the constructs have sufficient discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). It also means that the constructs which are not supposed to be related actually are. This is represented in Table 3.3 and 3.4

**Table 3. 3: Validity and Reliability Analyses for (CFA) Measurement Model**

| Variables                    | Cronbach's | CR    | AVE   |
|------------------------------|------------|-------|-------|
| Attitude                     | 0.70       | 0.881 | 0.660 |
| Social Dominance Orientation | 0.83       | 0.870 | 0.582 |
| Job Performance              | 0.72       | 0.723 | 0.597 |

**Source:** Field Survey (2017)

CR: Composite Reliability, AVE: Average Value Variance Extracted

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

**Table 3. 4: Fornell-Lacker Procedure for Discriminant Validity**

| Variables                    | 1            | 2            | 3            |
|------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Attitude                     | <b>0.812</b> |              |              |
| Social Dominance Orientation | -0.616       | <b>0.759</b> |              |
| Job Performance              | -0.015       | 0.037        | <b>0.705</b> |

**Source:** Field Survey (2017)

**NB:** Elements with bold faces are the square root of AVE and the rest of the elements represent the squared correlation estimation between construct items.

### **3.8 Qualitative Phase**

#### **3.8.1 Procedure for Data Collection**

Unstructured interview was employed by the researcher because it generates data through the use of open questions. It is also more flexible as questions can be adapted and changed by the researcher depending on the respondents' answers. The researcher conducted face-to-face interview with the respondents. Prior to the interview the researcher visited respondents for their consent to be given. Respondents were also given a consent form to sign which assured the confidentiality of the information provided. Face-to-face interviews were conducted which were recorded on audio recorder upon an agreement by the respondents for transcription. The face-to-face interview allows the interviewer the opportunity and flexibility to ask questions which help clarify issues and follow new leads (Burns, 2000). Each interview lasted between 25 – 30 minutes. The respondents were thanked at the end of the interview. Each of the participants was asked ten questions (See Appendix B). Audio recorder was used to record interviews for transcription. This allowed every information provided by the interviewees to be captured.

#### **3.8.2 Validity, Reliability and Coding of the Data**

##### **Validity**

Transcribed interviews were sent to some of the interviewees to check whether the account gave is acceptable which most of agreed. Phone calls were also made to some of them to confirm the interview they granted which they also agreed (Gibbs, 2007).

##### **Reliability**

Transcription checking was constantly done to make sure there are no obvious mistakes (Gibbs, 2007). To also ensure the data is reliable for analysis, the

transcription was done by the researcher. Familiarization with data which entails reading through the transcribed data for several times was done, which added to the reliability of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In addition, the transcribed data was given to my supervisor and some of my colleagues who also went through for identification of potential errors.

### **Data Coding**

Transcription and data coding was manually done by the researcher (Gibbs, 2007). After reading through the work several times, codes were generated. The codes were later categorized into themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Abugre, 2013).

### **3.8.3 Data Analysis of Qualitative Interviews**

The process of thematic analysis was used to analyze the qualitative data to discover the preferred themes in the participants' answers to the questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis is a method of identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). It involves the common threads, identification search that stretches across an entire interview (DeSantis & Ugarriza, 2000). It has been suggested that thematic analysis provides rich and detailed, but complex, account of data, which makes it a flexible and useful research tool (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The interview was transcribed by the researcher which were read through several times to make sure there are no too many mistakes. Frequency counts were done by the researcher and thematic framework were developed based on participants' responses, which was analyzed (Gibbs, 2007).

The researcher followed the process proposed by Braun and Clarke, (2006) in doing thematic analysis which are: (1) Familiarizing with data, which involves, transcribing

the data, reading and rereading the data and noting down initial ideas. (2) Generating initial codes, which involves coding interesting features of the data systematically across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code. (3) Searching for themes which entails collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme. (4) Reviewing themes which deal with checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts in the entire data set, generating a thematic map. (5) Defining and naming themes which involves the ongoing analysis to refining the specifics of each theme and the overall story that the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each of them. (6) Producing the report, which gives the final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research questions and literature, producing a report of the analysis.

### **3.9 Ethical Consideration**

The researcher sent letters to institutions where the participants were selected explaining the study and also sought for their consent for the study. Participants were assured that the research does not aim at prying into anyone's private life, but only to set up to collate information for academic purpose only. Therefore, participants' confidentiality was assured and their names were not mentioned. The researcher also made participants to understand that they are at the liberty to stop answering if they feel so.

### **3.10 Data Collection Challenges**

Financial and time constraints usually pose as a challenge to data collection and this study is no exception. Mixed method approach is a tedious one because of the distribution of questionnaires and conducting of face-to-face interviews. Most of the

female senior members were very busy with their schedule and getting them for the interview was not an easy task.

In order to address these challenges, the thesis supervisor helped by referring me to some of the female senior members in the department and outside the department.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter of the study presents the results of quantitative and qualitative research. The quantitative aspect consists of the demographic profile of the research participants, tests of normality and outliers, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), structural equation modelling results (measurement and structural models), and the hypothesis results. The qualitative aspect also consists of demographics, themes and data analysis. The results of both the quantitative and qualitative are discussed in this chapter.

#### 4.2 Findings from the Quantitative Results

##### 4.2.1 Demographic analysis

The table 4.1 below shows the summary profile of the research participants. It presents their gender, age and marital status. As shown in table 4.1, more than half (58.7%) of the participants were males and females constituted (41.3%). In terms of age, 74 participants representing 24.7% were 21-25 years' old, 119 representing 39.7% were 26-30 years old, 43 representing 14.3% were 31-35 years old and 64 representing 21.3% were 36 and above. With the marital status, 100 participants representing 33.3% were married and 200 representing 66.7% were single. Table 4.1 shows the profile information of participants.

**Table 4. 1: Profile of the Research Participants**

| Detail          | Frequency | Percentage (%) |
|-----------------|-----------|----------------|
| Gender:         |           |                |
| Male            | 176       | 58.7           |
| Female          | 124       | 41.3           |
| Age:            |           |                |
| 21 – 25         | 74        | 24.7           |
| 26 – 30         | 119       | 39.7           |
| 31 – 35         | 43        | 14.3           |
| 36 – above      | 64        | 21.3           |
| Marital Status: |           |                |
| Married         | 100       | 33.3           |
| Single          | 200       | 66.7           |

**Sample Size (N): 300** Source: Field Survey (2017)

### 4.3 Data Screening and Examination

This is normally discussed in terms of outliers and normality.

#### 4.3.1 Missing Value Analysis

Missing values must be addressed when data is missing at random. That means going ahead to do analyses when data is missing at random will affect the quality of the research. According to researchers, there are several options of dealing with missing values. For instance, deletion method whereby the researcher deletes subjects which have missing value, replacing the missing data values, etc. The researcher used the Expectation Maximization (EM) method to check if data is missing at random because that gives the basis to deal with missing values. According to some researchers, when data missing completely at random (MCAR) is significant, then it means missing data have to be dealt with. Therefore, the researcher test for little's Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) indicated that the data was missing at random. According to Gold and Bentler (2000), expected maximization (EM) is preferred over others, irrespective of issues like size, proportion of the data missing

and distributional characteristics of the data. The researcher therefore employs the EM method in the estimation of missing values in the data.

#### 4.3.2 Investigation of Outliers

Outliers were examined in the Statistical Package for Service Solution (SPSS) version 21.0 software. In EFA and SEM analysis, the data must be normally distributed which means that there must not be outliers in the data. Univariate outlier is when an observation point is distant from other observations whilst multivariate outlier is when a combination of scores from several variables represent an outlier compared to other combinations. Both Univariate and Multivariate outliers were examined. Stem and leaf was used to examine univariate outliers and the Mahalanobis Distance statistic was used to examine multivariate outliers. Few outliers were identified and they were deleted.

#### 4.3.3 Test of Data Normality

Skewness and Kurtosis was examined in the Statistical Package for Service Solution (SPSS) version 21.0 software. According to George and Mallery (2010), the acceptable range for Skewness and Kurtosis is between -2 and +2. The results indicate that they are all within the acceptable range of -2 and +2. The result is presented in table 4.2 below.

**Table 4. 2: Skewness and Kurtosis of the Study Variables**

| Variable | Min  | Max  | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|----------|------|------|----------|----------|
| AT       | 2.99 | 6.52 | -0.912   | 0.604    |
| SD       | 1.00 | 5.65 | 0.820    | 0.030    |
| JP       | 5.50 | 7.00 | -0.537   | -0.079   |

**Source:** Field Survey (2017)

#### 4.4 Exploratory Factor analyses

Exploratory factor analysis was performed by the researcher for extraction of the underlying variables. It was also performed to make sure items with high correlation with their variables are retained for further analysis in SEM. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Sampling Adequacy test, Bartlett's test of Sphericity (p-value) and Cumulative variance explained (CVE) are shown in table 4.3. The results show that the data is sufficient for further analysis. This is because the acceptable threshold of KMO is 0.6> were met by the variables and Bartlett's test of Sphericity of the variables were significant. The Cumulative Variance Explained which is supposed to explain at least 50 percent or more of the variance were also met. Table 4.3 below shows the results of the exploratory factor analysis.

**Table 4. 3: Summary of Test Results for Exploratory Factor Analysis of the Study Variables**

| Variables                    | CVE (%) | KMO   | Bartlett's test (p-value) |
|------------------------------|---------|-------|---------------------------|
| Attitude                     | 58.694  | 0.894 | 0.000                     |
| Social Dominance Orientation | 53.367  | 0.894 | 0.000                     |
| Job Performance              | 64.226  | 0.650 | 0.000                     |

**Source:** Field Survey (2017)

#### 4.5. Structural Equation Modelling Results (Measurement and Structural)

##### 4.5.1 Measurement Model Assessment

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used further to make sure items with high correlation with their variables were retained. In the measurement model, attitude was represented by AT, social dominance orientation was represented by SD and job performance was represented by JP. The results were examined and reexamined on several times with the motive of getting the measurement model fit the data. About 31 items were deleted in the process because according to Hair, Black,

Balin and Anderson (2010), items which do not perform well must be deleted to get the model fit the data. The items were therefore deleted using their factor loadings. According to Kenny (2016), a minimum of 2 items to a variable can be used for SEM analyses. Appendix C shows the initial unstandardized measurement model whilst Appendix D shows the standardized loadings of the measurement model (See Appendix C and D).

#### **4.5.2 Validation of Test of the Measurement Model**

Validation of the measurement model was examined using various fit indices. The threshold required by measurement model was met showing that the model fit the data. The CMIN/df (  $\chi^2/df$ ) (1.695) is within the threshold recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999). Goodness-of-fit (GFI) (0.960), Adjusted Goodness-of-fit (AGFI) (0.935) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) (0.983) meet or exceeded the cutoff points recommended by Schreiber et al. (2006). The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation RMSEA (0.047), Standardized Root Mean Square of Residuals (SRMR) (0.069) and Pclose (0.578) also meet the cutoff points recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999). All these are indications that the hypothesized model fits the data.

**Table 4. 4: Cutoff Criteria for Several Fit Indices (CFA)**

| Goodness-of-fit Indices                           | Benchmark/ Interpretation               | Authors                        | Study Model |
|---|---|--------------------------------|-------------|
| CMIN/df ( $\chi^2/df$ )                           | >1 Excellent; 3 - 6 Acceptable          | Hu and Bentler (1999)          | 1.695       |
| Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)   | <0.06 Excellent; 0.06 – 0.08 Acceptable | Hu and Bentler (1999)          | 0.047       |
| Comparative fit index (CFI)                       | 0.95 Excellent                          | Schreiber <i>et al.</i> (2006) | 0.983       |
| Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)                       | 0.95 Excellent                          | Schreiber <i>et al.</i> (2006) | 0.960       |
| Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)             | 0.90 Excellent                          | Schreiber <i>et al.</i> (2006) | 0.935       |
| Standardized Root Mean Square of Residuals (SRMR) | <0.08 Excellent                         | Hu and Bentler (1999)          | 0.069       |
| PCLOSE  | >0.05 Excellent                         | Schreiber <i>et al.</i> (2006) | 0.578       |

**Source:** Field Survey (2017)

Factor loadings of all the individual items are significant (p-values < 0.01) and their factor loadings are above 0.5 and this is represented in the table 4.5.

**Table 4. 5: Factor Loadings for (CFA) Measurement Model**

| Variables                    | Indicators | Loadings | t-value |
|------------------------------|------------|----------|---------|
| Attitude                     | AT21       | 0.729    | 0.885   |
|                              | AT20       | 0.887*** | 15.150  |
|                              | AT19       | 0.878*** | 15.023  |
|                              | AT18       | 0.732*** | 12.469  |
| Social Dominance Orientation | SD7        | 0.732    |         |
|                              | SD6        | 0.804*** | 13.169  |
|                              | SD5        | 0.757*** | 12.418  |
|                              | SD4        | 0.732*** | 12.018  |
|                              | SD3        | 0.765*** | 12.550  |
| Job Performance              | JP4        | 1.000    | 7.742   |
|                              | JP3        | 0.811*** | 7.299   |
|                              | JP2        | 0.743*** | 7.615   |

**Source:** Field Survey (2017)

\*\*\* Standardized factor loading is significant at 0.1% (0.001).

#### 4.6 Correlational Analysis

Table 4.6 shows the correlation matrix representing the linear relationship that exist among the variables understudy. The results show that Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) and Attitude (AT) have a positive relationship with Job Performance (JP) (AT). However, Attitude (AT) and Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) do not have a significant relationship with Job Performance (JP). Age, Gender and Marital Status did not correlate significantly with the dependent variable Job Performance (JP).

Table below shows the zero-order correlations for the variables understudy.

**Table 4. 6: Pearson's Correlation Matrix of the Study's Variables**

|                  | MEAN | SD   | 1      | 2       | 3        | 4        | 5     | 6 |
|------------------|------|------|--------|---------|----------|----------|-------|---|
| 1. JP            | 6.70 | 0.11 | 1      |         |          |          |       |   |
| 2. AT            | 5.32 | 7.53 | 0.065  | 1       |          |          |       |   |
| 3. SDO           | 2.29 | 1.06 | 0.030  | 0.594** | 1        |          |       |   |
| 4. Age           | 2.34 | 1.09 | 0.010  | -0.111  | 0.136*   | 1        |       |   |
| 5. Gender        | 1.41 | 0.49 | 0.002  | 0.220** | -0.285** | -0.201** | 1     |   |
| 6. maritalstatus | 1.68 | 0.48 | -0.020 | 0.045   | -0.035   | -0.565** | 0.010 | 1 |

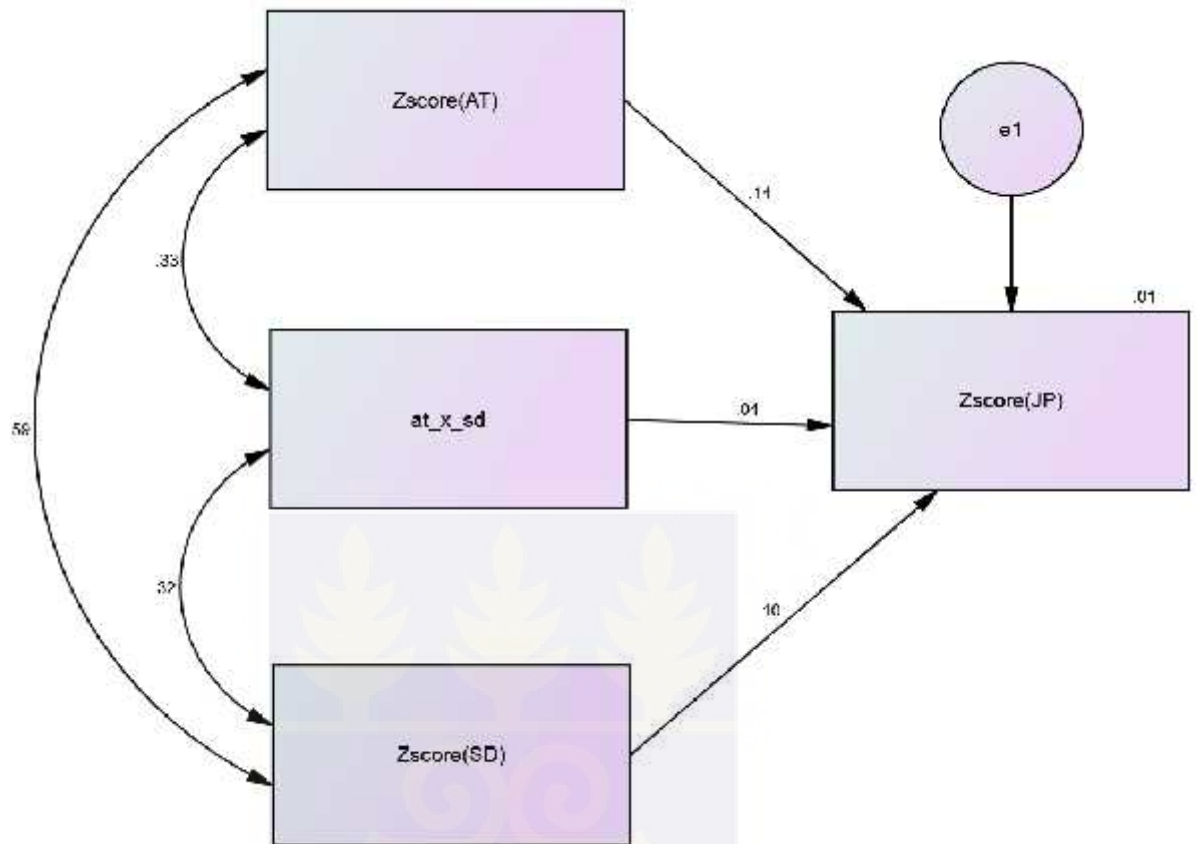
**Source:** Field Survey (2017)

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

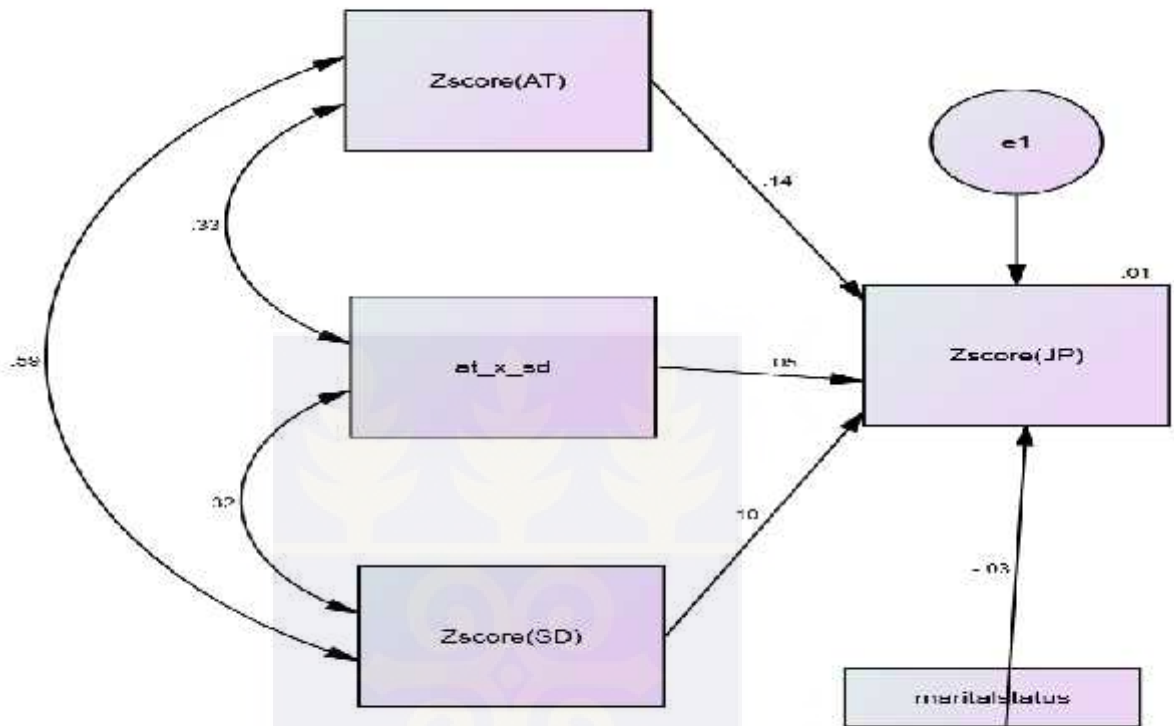
\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

#### 4.7 Path Analysis of Hypothesized Relationships

The Zscores of the means of the variables were computed in the Statistical Package for Service Solution (SPSS) version 21.0 software in which the interaction effect was also calculated by finding the product of the independent variable (attitude) and the moderator (social dominance orientation). The Zscores of the variables were later exported to AMOS for the structural model. Fig. 4.1 shows the initial structural model and fig. 4.2 shows the final structural model for the analyses. Zscore (AT) represents the Zscore of Attitude, Zscore (SD) represents the Zscore of Social Dominance Orientation and the Zscore (JP) represents the Zscore of Job Performance.

**Fig 4. 1: Initial Structural Model**

The structural model was assessed to determine whether the theoretical relationships specified in the model are actually supported by the data. The assessment of the Initial Structural Model indicated that the threshold for the various indices were not met, and according to literature some controls should be introduced in such situation to meet the required thresholds. Different controls were therefore introduced, but marital status dummy got the model fit the data. The final structural model is shown in fig. 4.2 below.

**Fig 4. 2: Final Structural Model**

#### 4.7.1 Validation of Test of the Structural Model

Validation of the structural model was examined using various fit indices. The thresholds required by the structural model were met showing that the model fits the data. The CMIN/df ( $\chi^2/df$ ) (1.203) is within the threshold recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999). Goodness-of-fit (GFI) (0.995), Adjusted Goodness-of-fit (AGFI) (0.976) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) (0.996) meet or exceeded the cutoff points recommended by Schreiber et al. (2006). The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (0.047), Standardized Root Mean Square of Residuals

(SRMR) (0.012) and Pclose (0.589) also meet the cutoff points recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999). All these are indications that the hypothesized model fits the data.

**Table 4. 7: Cutoff Criteria for Several Fit Indices (SEM)**

| Goodness-of-fit Indices                           | Benchmark/ Interpretation               | Authors                        | Study Model |
|---|---|--------------------------------|-------------|
| CMIN/df ( $\chi^2/df$ )                           | >1 Excellent; 3 - 6 Acceptable          | Hu and Bentler (1999)          | 1.203       |
| Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)   | <0.06 Excellent; 0.06 – 0.08 Acceptable | Hu and Bentler (1999)          | 0.047       |
| Comparative fit index (CFI)                       | 0.95 Excellent                          | Schreiber <i>et al.</i> (2006) | 0.996       |
| Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)                       | 0.95 Excellent                          | Schreiber <i>et al.</i> (2006) | 0.995       |
| Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)             | 0.90 Excellent                          | Schreiber <i>et al.</i> (2006) | 0.976       |
| Standardized Root Mean Square of Residuals (SRMR) | <0.08 Excellent                         | Hu and Bentler (1999)          | 0.012       |
| PCLOSE  | >0.05 Excellent                         | Hu and Bentler (1999)          | 0.589       |

**Source:** Field Survey (2017)

#### 4.7.2 Tests of Hypothesized Relationships

**Table 4. 8: Path Relationships for the Hypothesized Relationships**

| Path Model Relationship | Estimate | S.E   | T-values | P     |
|-------------------------|----------|-------|----------|-------|
| ZAT ----->ZJP           | 0.139    | 0.073 | 1.911    | 0.056 |
| INTERACTION ----->ZJP   | -0.048   | 0.057 | -0.771   | 0.441 |
| ZSD----->ZJP            | 0.096    | 0.072 | 1.321    | 0.186 |
| MARITALSTATUS---->ZJP   | -0.027   | 0.119 | -0.462   | 0.644 |

**Source:** Field Survey (2017)

H1a: Students' Attitude is negatively related to Female Senior Members' Job Performance.

This hypothesis was not supported because the Pearson’s correlation results show a positive relationship between students Attitude and female senior members’ Job Performance even though it was not significant ( $R^2 = 0.014$ ) ( $r = 0.065$ ,  $p = 0.262$ ). The Beta Estimate value also shows a positive relationship even though it was not statistically significant ( $\beta = 0.139$ ,  $p = 0.056$ ). This means the hypothesis which states that students attitude is negatively related to female senior members was not supported.

H1b: Female students will show more positive attitude towards female senior members than their male counterparts.

H1c: Male students will show more negative attitude towards female senior members than their female counterparts.

#### 4.7.3 Chi-square (Group Difference) for Gender

In order to check whether there is a difference between males and females in terms of their attitude towards female senior members, chi square group difference was conducted in the SEM AMOS using the structural model. The results indicate that there is no group difference between males and females in terms of their attitude towards female senior members.

**Table 4. 9: Chi-square group difference results**

| Effect                     | Gender          | 2(df)   | Hypothesis  | Support |
|----------------------------|-----------------|---------|-------------|---------|
| Students Attitude → FSM JP | Male/<br>Female | 0.03(1) | H1b and H1c | No      |

\*:  $p < 0.05$  **Source:** Field Survey (2017)

As depicted in the table above, the statistical result for Gender is not significant along the path between students Attitude and female senior members’ Job Performance ( $\chi^2 = 0.03$ ,  $d = 1$ ,  $p = 0.854$ ).

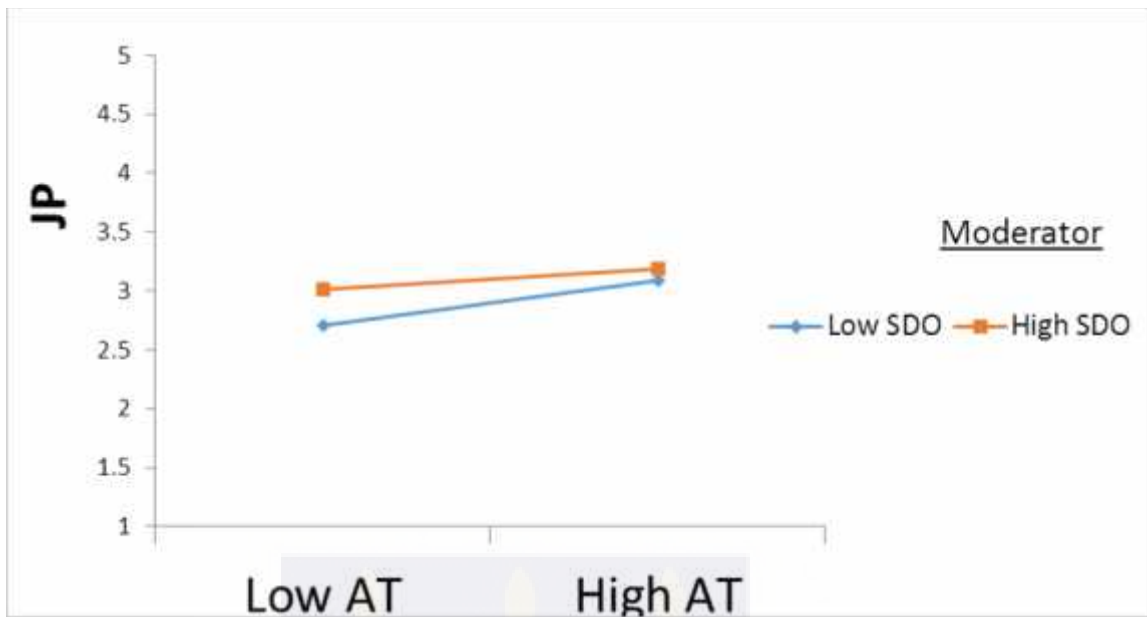
It means that the above two hypotheses (H1b and H1c) which states that: Female students will show more positive attitude towards female senior members than their male counterpart was not supported. And the second hypothesis which states that: Male Students will show more negative Attitude towards female senior members than their female counterparts was also not supported.

#### **4.7.4 Influence of Social dominance orientation**

H2: Social Dominance Orientation will influence the relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance.

The results indicate that Social Dominance Orientation did not moderate the relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance ( $\beta = -0.048, p = 0.441$ ) and fig 3 shows these findings. Thus, AT and SD appears not to interact with JP. The result is further explained by fig 4.3.

The unstandardized values of the independent variable (attitude), moderator (social dominance orientation) and the dependent variable (job performance) were exported to excel statistical tool package which plots tow-way interaction effects for unstandardized variables. The results of the test are displayed graphically as can be seen below in fig. 4.3.

**Fig 4. 3: The interaction of AT and SDO on female senior members' Job Performance**

SDO dampens the positive relationship between AT and JP.

NB: AT= Attitude, SDO= Social Dominance Orientation, JP= Job Performance

As can be seen from above, the blue line represents low Social Dominance Orientation (before the introduction of the moderator) and the red line represents high Social Dominance Orientation (after the introduction of the moderator). From the graph it can be seen that there is no interaction between the independent variable (AT) and the moderator (SDO). The upward slope of the blue line indicates high positive relationship between the independent variable (AT) and the dependent variable (JP). The introduction of the moderator (SDO) decreased the positive relationship between the independent variable (AT) and the dependent variable (JP) but the relationship is still positive.

## 4.8 Findings from the Qualitative Strand

### 4.8.1 Respondents demographics

The table below shows the respondents and their titles. As indicated in the table below, PhD Holders were 10 representing 83.3% whilst 2 were professors representing 16.7%.

**Table 4. 10: Respondents Demographics**

| Respondents   | Qualification |
|---------------|---------------|
| Respondent 1  | PhD           |
| Respondent 2  | PhD           |
| Respondent 3  | PhD           |
| Respondent 4  | Professor     |
| Respondent 5  | PhD           |
| Respondent 6  | PhD           |
| Respondent 7  | PhD           |
| Respondent 8  | PhD           |
| Respondent 9  | PhD           |
| Respondent 10 | Professor     |
| Respondent 11 | PhD           |
| Respondent 12 | PhD           |

**Source:** Field Survey (2017)

**Table 4. 11: Objectives and themes emanating from the study**

| Objectives  | Themes   |
|---|--|
| Objective 1: To examine the differences of attitude of males and females towards female senior members' job performance in higher educational institutions. | (1) Students relationship towards female senior members<br>(2) Influence of gender stereotype on performance |
| Objective 2: To examine the impact of Social Dominance Orientation on students' attitude towards female senior members in higher educational institutions.  | (3) Cultural orientation of men<br>(4) Challenges as a result of university structures                       |
| Objective 3: To explore the barriers to female senior members' progress to higher positions in higher institutions.   | (5) Family responsibility as obstacle  |

**Source:** Field Survey (2017)

## 4.9 Qualitative Analysis

### 4.9.1 Students relationship towards female senior members

11 of the interviewees representing 91.7% were of the view that they have a positive cordial relationship with their students whether male or female. However, 1 of the interviewee representing 8.3% had encountered negative attitudes from students. Some of them were of the view that occasionally they encounter rowdy behaviour from students, but to them it is a normal thing that happens to every lecturer regardless of the gender. Some of them mention that sometimes they hear some of the students talk behind their back, alleging female lecturers are strict, especially with regards to marking of their papers, but personally students had not encountered them or reacted negatively to them in their presence. But one of the respondents who mention she had had negative experience with students alluded to the fact that, she does not think if it was to be a male lecturer, students would have reacted the way they did to her. Those who indicated they have a positive relationship with their students had these to say:

**Respondent 8 said:**

*“As for students behaviour, you know they can be rowdy. They can misbehave in class, they can do all sorts of things when you are teaching, but I think it is a personal thing. I don’t necessarily interpret it as due to the fact that am a female lecturer that is why they are behaving that way. I think that students will always be students. So, that is the kind of behavior that they exhibit. I believe such behaviours occur irrespective of whether you are a male or a female lecturer”*

**Respondent 2 said:**

*They relate to me positively. I will say that it depends on you the female lecturer. It depends on how you relate to students. If you think you are female and you are in charge, then they will rebel. But if you respect them, they will also respect you and you wouldn’t have problems with them.*

However, the respondent who revealed that she had experienced negative encounters with students had this to say:

**Respondent 10 said:**

*Some of them don’t respect. I have headed this department seven times. I went to USA for one year to teach and I realize that they have what we call ‘office hours’, that is, the time they meet the students and I said wow! This is a god idea, so when I came, in addition to administrative work and teaching, I decided to have specific days and time for students to come and see me. I put office hours on the door, that was Tuesdays and Fridays and surprisingly, I got graffiti behind my door which says ‘lazy puppy’, is it this time you come to work, whose Mrs. are you? where did you get your doctorate from? From journalism or what? It was in different handwritings and another person wrote ‘are the men in the department, why is it that a woman is heading the department.*

#### **4.9.2 Influence of gender stereotype on performance**

In terms of how gender difference affects their performance, all the 12 interviewees agreed that their performance is not affected. Some were of the view that there are other factors like family responsibility which delay their promotion to the higher level but does not affect their performance. Some of them were even of the view that some of the female lecturers perform better than some of their male colleagues. Below are some of the responses from respondents:

**Respondent 1 said:**

*“No. I don’t see why being a woman will affect my performance. But it is just that sometimes family responsibilities give our male colleagues advantage in terms of publishing which sometimes delay our promotion”.*

**Respondent 2 said:**

*As for my performance in class no because we all worked very hard to get to this level and I don’t see why my performance will be affected. Sometimes people think men should outperform women in any level, which shouldn’t be so. I will even say that sometimes some of the female lecturers will perform better than their male colleagues.*

**Respondent 4 said:**

*“As I said, it is in terms of publishing more papers to get promotion which is the challenge we women face but not that our performance in class is affected. For that no”.*

**Respondent 6 said:**

*“No. My performance is not affected by just being a woman. My teaching too, I think, is not affected, but it is the publication. Even that, I think if you work hard you will get there”.*

**Respondent 9 said:**

*As I said earlier, it is family responsibilities that we female lecturers have that serve as a challenge. As I mentioned earlier, our male colleagues stand in the position to publish more to get their promotion which makes the rise faster than us.*

**4.9.3 Cultural orientation of men**

Cultural orientation of men runs through all the responses of interviewees. Most of them were of the view that it is about how socialization takes place in our societies and that socio-cultural beliefs play a role. According to them it starts from the beginning where boys and girls are socialized to play certain roles and they end up growing with that same mentality. 5 of the interviewees thought men dominance over women is changing especially with education. They believe it will take time for significant change to happen, but there will definitely be a change. However, 7 of the respondents were of the view that they do not see men dominance over women

changing. Respondents were of the believe that once society still socializes boys and girls to play different roles, they do not see anything changing and that it will continue to exist for a very long time. The respondents who were of the view that men's social dominance over women is changing had these to say:

**Respondent 5 said:**

*I think that education plays a key role and so when people are educated, they don't stereotype negatively against females, but of course you will have some people who are set in their ways who stereotypes and who still thinks that males should dominate.*

**Respondent 12 said:**

*For the previous generation, I will say yes, but for current generation I don't see that kind of dominance. I think older men will try to be a bit more domineering but for my peers, they may not try that on me because of the sensitization that goes on. A few do, but it is not as prevalent as previously.*

**Respondent 7 said:**

*It is ending and it is a gradual process. We are in transition, so the more people from different background continue to come together and the more enlighten they become we can achieve that. In the past, the reason why men tend to dominate women was that, they were the bread winner but now we all go out. You are suffering and I am suffering, you close at 5pm and I close at 5pm, you bring food to the table and I bring food to the table, so it doesn't give you any opportunity to dominate. We are supporting each other and there is mutual respect.*

**Respondent 5 said:**

*In Ghana, that is what it looks like, but I will say that modern men of today understand the issue, so they don't actually dominate their women. We give them respect and I don't see any domination. For instance, if I take my own husband, for example, I don't see any form of domination. The man's dominance over women emanate from the cultural practices that we have but in reality, it is changing. In contemporary Ghana, if you talk to all the men in my department you will see that things are changing. I have a male colleague who leaves work to go and pick his children, so at least we can say that modern men, most of them have understood that women are their counterparts and they are not their subordinates. So there is nothing like domination.*

And those who were of the view that they do not see the domination of men over women changing any time soon also had these to say:

**Respondent 9 said:**

*I don't see anything changing. It has to do with socialization process. We are brought up in the homes, so it is those social norms, that is, how things should be done and that is what is governing it. Until that changes, I don't think this is not going to change anytime soon.*

**Respondent 4 said:**

*May be not in my life time. For instance, my eight-year-old boy will tell his sisters 'don't you know I am the man'. As young as eight years, though he is the youngest. I tried to bring them up in such a way that there will not be discrimination but he is still aware of it. Sometimes, if I ask him to come to the kitchen, he will tell me 'the kitchen is for ladies'.*

**Respondent 6 said:**

*No, no, no, it is not coming to an end. For some people, it is so entrenched that it will be difficult to change. It is changing, but it is slow. For example, I was driving and a policeman stopped me and he was like 'you are a woman, a man can drive with one hand and will not be a problem but not you'. I said 'my goodness, what is this'? It is so prevalent, that everywhere you go you meet it.*

**Respondent 3 said:**

*I wouldn't say no but I don't know when. Because there are so many things that it was assumed that by now they have been eradicated but they are still there. As long as even today we are not changing the socialization of the young ones and culture is unique it will be very difficult to change. For instance, the men can be doing anything but when they marry then they say I am an African man. And all these stereotypes are because of our socialization. If even it will get eradicated, it will take a long time.*

#### **4.9.4 Challenges as a result of university structures**

All the 12 respondents agreed that there are no clear university structures that serve as a barrier to their progression to the higher level. However, some expressed challenges such as lack of adequate accommodation for female senior members on their various campuses. Others were of the view that fixing programmes at 5:00pm does not favour most of the female senior members, especially married ones. To them, as a married woman you need to go pick the kids as well as prepare home for the family

and fixing meetings and programmes at 5:00pm is to their disadvantage. Below are some of the responses given by the respondents:

**Respondent 1 said:**

*I don't think I have a basis to say that the regulations or the system in the university is such that it discriminates against females. I don't think I have come across that before. In our department for instance, the courses are shared among the lecturers and we all do the teaching, supervision etc. A few committees that I have been on, I didn't see any distinction being made between males and females as senior members.*

**Respondent 6 said:**

*No idea of discrimination. I haven't made attempt for something that I didn't get. At the departmental level, I don't think I have encountered something of that sort. I will say to some extent that there may be considerations given to females. I say this because as soon as I entered the university, I didn't get, I didn't finish with my probation year and I got a scholarship to do my PhD and the university allowed me to do It.*

**Respondent 2 said:**

*In this university, I don't think there is any discrimination with regards to how to promote males and females. I think everything is based on scholarship. So, whether you are a male or female and you prove that you have contributed to the scholarship, you will get your promotion.*

**Respondent 10 said:**

*"If you look at collegiality in terms of senior member colleagues, it is your academic work which gets you promoted".*

**4.9.5 Family responsibility as obstacle**

Family responsibility also runs through the responses of the interviewees. All of them were of the view that family responsibility delays the progress of female senior members in terms of publishing more papers which earns one a promotion to the top level. According to them as their male colleagues could stay back in the office after 5:00pm to do more writings, they have to go and prepare home for their husbands and children. This situation affords their male colleagues the opportunity to publish more

papers and get their promotion earlier than female senior members. Below are some of the responses given by the respondents:

**Respondent 5 said:**

*Where I think the difference comes may be, for example the university making consideration for female lecturers. Because quite a number of us are mothers and so that takes more of our time. In our socio-cultural beliefs, obviously you know that in our culture it is the women who do the cooking, take care of the children etc. It makes a lot of difference in terms of the fact that sometimes our male colleagues can get up from him, come and sit here early in the morning and go home very late. But some of us mothers or women cannot do that. We have to be at home early to make a meal and keep the home.*

**Respondent 3 said:**

*Family responsibility will always be a challenge but I wouldn't say they are a hindrance. For instance, when I had younger children definitely 7:03am lecture will be a problem. When they are closing from school and you have to pick them and you are having lecture that will also be a problem. Again, if you take your work home for marking and you have children, if you don't take care they will spoil it. It means that as a female senior member you have to be extra careful or you will not finish your academic work on time. You will also have to juggle with household responsibilities unless you have a relative doing the household work for you.*

**Respondent 4 said:**

*My brother, it affects us a lot. You see, I am married and I have children, typically my husband helps, but now his work does not permit him. So in the morning you have to go and drop the children. I then close at 3pm because I have to go and pick them. You get home and you have to take care of your family. It means that I have two working shifts, I have the morning and the evening shifts. It is when the children are settled that I can take care of other writings at home. As for family issues they are real. It delays progress because I know a few of my colleagues at the same rank, I will say we are hardworking but it doesn't how because there are so many interruptions that come in your way and for some of us family is first.*

**Respondent 8 said:**

*What I can say is that we women have a lot of changes compared to men. We are mother and wife's and our roles are not like fathers. The children need the mothers more than the fathers and as a wife in our culture, even if you are a career woman, once you decide to have a family then you can't shed your responsibility. The man doesn't have to go home to cook for the wife and the children, but the woman will have to. For instance, at some point of the day whether I like it or not, even if I am still working and I wish that I could continue working, I will rather stop because I know I have to pick my children*

*from school, cook for them, supervise their homework, which some people can pay someone to do that is, a driver to pick the children and house help to take care of my children and the home but there are some things that I insist on doing myself. For that matter, it has delayed my career progression because I could have readily gone hard to continue with my PhD right after the appointment in the university, but as I said, I am waiting for my child to grow up to a certain stage before I go*

Generally, the responses from interviewees clearly indicate that students have positive attitude towards female senior members. It is also clear from the responses that being female does not in any way affect performance of female senior members. However, the responses from the respondents indicate men are culturally oriented to dominate over women. But they seem to have divergent views as at whether the situation is changing or not. As some of the respondents suggested that the situation is changing others were of the view that they do not see it changing any time soon. University structures and processes do not hinder female senior members progress to the higher level. But it was obvious from the respondent's responses that dual role played by most of the female senior members delay their progress to the higher level.

#### **4.10 discussion**

This research addresses a very important question: how do students behave towards female senior members and how it affects their job performance as well as how this is influenced by Social Dominance Orientation (SDO)? Objective one sought to examine the differences of attitudes of males and females towards female senior members' job performance. In line with the above objective, three hypotheses were derived. It was first hypothesized that (H1a) students' attitude is negatively related to female senior members' job performance. H1a was not supported. The second and third hypotheses which indicated that female students will show more positive attitudes towards female senior members than their male counterparts and male

students will have more negative attitudes towards female senior members than their female counterparts (H1b and H1c) were not supported. These findings therefore suggest that students have a positive attitude towards female senior members. The findings above were corroborated by the qualitative findings, which explains further that students have a positive attitude towards female senior members. These findings are consistent with other literature whose findings indicated respondents have a positive attitude towards female senior members Moneim-Elsaid and Elsaid (2012). These findings also contradict previous studies which indicated that students and workers, especially males stereotyped negatively against females (Elamin & Omair, 2010; Cortis & Cassar, 2005).

Literature has over the years identified socio-cultural beliefs as the major factor of negative stereotypes against women. Right from the beginning boys and girls are socialized in different ways. As boys are socialized to pursue education and career opportunities, girls are socialized to learn domestic roles (Tlaiss, 2014; Omar, 2008). Especially non-egalitarian countries in the Arab world and Africa. Literature also indicates that in Africa the differences in how males and females are nurtured to take different roles characterize most cultures in Africa (Adomako-Ampofo, 2001; Fuwa, 2004). And that culture plays a significant role in determining which roles are appropriate for women (Akotia & Anum, 2012). Some studies conducted in Africa also pointed to the fact that society traditionally has been favouring men in terms of work as compared to women. For instance, traditionally as working outside and taking care of financial needs has been seen to be important for men, the same cannot be said about women (Adomako-Ampofo, 2001; Helgeson, 2009). Some researchers revealed that this disparity between males and females is prevalent in sub-Saharan African countries and South Asia as compared to the developed countries (Coffe &

Bolzendahl, 2011). This might have brought about a situation whereby females in most cultures have been perceived to be inferior to their male counterparts (World Bank Group, 2010). Most of the scholars have come to believe that gender stereotype and discrimination against women are imbibed in socio-cultural beliefs of societies.

Against this backdrop, the above findings will seem to surprise a lot of people who will be expecting that at least male students will have a negative attitude towards female senior members taking our cultural background into consideration. Certain reasons can be attributed to these findings. First, the setting of the research which seem to have different cultural orientation from those in the villages and remote areas might be one of the reasons. The setting is the capital city of Ghana, where people seem to be enlightened compared to the other parts of the country. People might have had a different picture about women. People have seen women occupying important positions as well as owning big time businesses might have changed the orientation people traditionally held about women in general. This was corroborated by the interviews conducted which sought female senior members' opinions about students' behaviour towards them. Most of the respondents were of the view that they have a positive relationship with their students and that students, whether male or female had not behaved negatively towards them because of their gender. It was also clear that, the fact that they are females does not in any way affect their performance. Some of them mentioned that they move on very well with their male colleagues and the students. This is a clear evidence which indicates people's cultural orientation towards women are changing. Another possible explanation is the fact that the participants are students and most of them are young. This is witnessed from the demographics of respondents. Some scholars are of the view that education decreases people's negative perception about women (Akotia & Anum, 2012). Their findings also revealed that

young adults as well as females had more modern attitude about gender roles. As most uneducated still hold to the traditional gender roles, the educated, holds a more positive perception about women. This indicates that as people get higher education they yearn for egalitarian society and therefore feels free to respond to females.

Another explanation that can be given to the findings of first, second and third hypotheses is the fact that some African countries are doing very well in terms of women's inclusion in political life. For instance, 50-50 quota on gender has been implemented by the African Union's Pan-African Parliament seats, party quotas and legislated candidate quotas has been reserved in 27 out of 49 states in sub-Saharan Africa (Quota Project, 2013). This is a great stride being made by the sub-Saharan Africa countries where traditionally women were not involved in political decision making as well as women occupying important positions. Ghana is seen as one of the countries involving and appointing more women into important positions. For instance, according to some researchers, Ghana has become a leader in terms of women's representation in sub-Saharan Africa (Adams *et al.*, 2016). These researchers revealed that, in Ghana there were 26.1 percent of women's representation in 2009. This gives an indication that we are gradually moving from non-egalitarian nation to an egalitarian one. The implication of more women occupying important positions is that, it also changes people's cultural orientation, especially males towards females in all spheres of life. Men begins to rethink about the negative stereotypic attitudes they hold about women. Some of the female senior members interviewed were of the view that, they know of some women in their various universities who are occupying important positions. Therefore, they have no reason or basis to say that the university structures and processes discriminate based on gender.

Increasing women's representation in public life which in turn gives them positive image has also been attributed to Ghana's constitution, which gives a clear path to executive office as well as international laws which enjoins countries to ensure gender-balance in their appointments of public officials. The 1992 Republican Constitution of Ghana has a number of provisions that backbones gender equality (Constitution of Ghana, 1992). Among the articles are article 12, 17, 7 which all talks about gender equality and discrimination against women. For instance, article 12 guarantees every person the fundamental rights and freedom whilst article 17 enjoins the state to put in place the necessary measures to put an end to all forms of discrimination on the basis of ethnicity, race, colour, gender and creed as well as social and economic status. For the past decades, successive governments are doing their best to make sure they abide by these provisions in the constitution.

Another important drive of women's involvement in public life is the international norm that ensures countries promote gender-balance as well as avoiding discrimination against women. UN has a lot of treaties and conventions about gender equality and discrimination against women that its member abides. Some of the international laws negotiated and ratified by UN are "Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), 1979 (Signed on 17 July, 1980 and Ratified on 2 January, 1986); Beijing Platform for Action, 1994; Option Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW-OP) 1999 (Signed on 24 February, 2000); International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) 1966 (Ratified on 7 December, 2000); International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), 1966 (Ratified on 7 December, 2000); African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (ACHPR) (Ratified on 24 January, 1989 and Signed on 3 July, 2004); Declaration on the Rights

of Indigenous People (Voted in Favour as a member on the 13 September, 2007); International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination; (CERD) (4 January, 1969)” (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). Ghana is a signatory to all these conventions and treaties which also means that the pressure is always on the government to ensure gender equality. Government does this by ensuring that more women find their way into politics and public office. For instance, Bush (2011), revealed that there are expectation Ghanaian leaders will increase the number of women in top positions not because of foreign aid it will receive from international communities but because of international treaties and conventions which Ghana is signatory to. Both the local and international laws seem to be reducing the negative attitude towards women.

The contribution of women's advocacy groups such as ABANTU, WMC and many others have also contributed to women's representation in public offices (Adams *et al.*, 2016). These women's advocacy groups educate men about the negative consequences of negative stereotyping against women, calls on government to abide by international law on gender equality and discrimination against women etc. For instance, “in 2003, with the backing of different actors such as women politicians, media representatives, professional organisations and women’s groups, ABANTU, nongovernmental organisation helped in identifying certain common demands to assist in achieving gender equality and equity and sustainable national development” (Coalition on the Women’s Manifesto, 2005, p. 5).

All these are orienting people, especially men to have a positive attitude in the sense that the traditional perception people hold about the gender roles are changing. With all this evidence, one can notice that Ghana is gradually moving into egalitarian

country even though some people still hold negative stereotypic behaviour against women.

The second objective sought to find out whether SDO will influence the relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance. This is based on SDT propounded by Jim Sidanius and Felicia Pratto in 1994. The basis of the theory is that people higher on SDO will support hierarchy-enhancing beliefs and policies whilst those lower on SDO will belong to institutions and support roles that decrease inequality (Sidanius & Pratto, 1994). SDT was propounded to look at grouped-based hierarchies which are mostly witness in our societies and also to make sure the issue is well understood (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). According SDT, men are higher on SDO than women. In line with this objective it was hypothesized that SDO will influence the relationship between students' attitude and female senior member's job performance (H2). This hypothesis was not supported. There was no interaction between Students' attitude and SDO, which means that SDO did not moderate the relationship between Students' attitude and female senior members' job performance. Even though, the introduction of SDO somehow reduced the positive relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance, the relation was still positive. The finding is also confirmed by the qualitative findings which indicated that respondents have a positive relationship with students. This finding contradicts several findings, which revealed a high influence of SDO in their findings, especially men and in some cases women (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999; Batalha *et al*, 2011; Zakrisson, 2008). Again, it means that the participants have an egalitarian attitude (low SDO) that might have caused no interaction between Students' attitude and SDO.

The responses of the interviewees appear to support this finding. Even though all of the interviewees agreed that in our society, men are culturally oriented to dominate their female counterparts, they were of the view that they do not experience it in the environment they find themselves. This can partly be attributed to the fact that in the University environment almost everybody is enlightened. From the students, administrative staff to the senior members, it is expected that most of these people will have a positive attitude towards female senior members. It is not therefore surprising that most of them indicated they have not encountered negative attitude from students. Some of them agreed that generally, men dominance over their female counterparts is changing, but of course some of them were also of the view that the change is gradual, especially in the villages and remote areas where people still uphold to socio-cultural beliefs but they were optimistic we will get there.

As discussed earlier on, the 1992 Republican Constitution of Ghana which gives a clear path to the appointment of women into the executive cabinet and which also has a number of provisions that ensure government put in place necessary measures to deal with issues of gender equality and discrimination against women. The international laws on gender equality and discrimination against women such as UN treaties and conventions which Ghana is a signatory. And the various women's advocacy groups campaigning for gender equality.

The third objective seeks to explore the barriers to female senior members' progress to higher positions. The findings show that there are no clear cut obstacles that prevent female senior members' progress to higher positions. From the findings it is evident that the universities provide equal opportunity for both male and female senior members. Progressing to a higher level is based on scholarship and not based on gender. Both male and female colleagues have to publish the same number of

papers to get a promotion. The findings also revealed that female senior members are well represented on various committees. It was discovered that to some extent female senior members are favoured in certain situations. Most of them were of the view that more men seen in the universities is not the making of the university structures and processes. But that if you are female and you qualify, you are given the opportunity. It was identified some of the female senior members have problems with timing of university programmes. That most of university programmes are normally pegged at 5:00pm where they are supposed to go and take care of the home. It also emanated that some of the female senior members are not happy with fixing of their lecture times at 7:30am because that is the time they are supposed to send their kids to school. But, they did not see it as a hindrance to their progress to top positions.

However, family responsibility seems to be a major concern for female senior members. This is one issue identified by literature (Evans, 2010; The Economist, 2009; Matsa & Miller, 2011). According to researchers, family work conflict bias is one of the reasons why women find it difficult to break the existing glass ceiling (Hoobler *et al.*, 2011). Women find it difficult to move into the top positions because they have dual roles to play. First, you have to attend to your professional work duties and second is to see to it that your family responsibility is taking care of. For instance, Matsa and Miller (2011) identified that motherhood is one of the situations that interrupt women's progress to the higher level.

The problem most of the female senior members seem to have is family responsibility which delays their progress. Because both male and female senior members have to publish the same number of papers to attain promotion, their male colleagues seem to have advantages. They are able to publish more papers to get their promotion earlier compared to their female counterparts. The socio-cultural beliefs which demands that

it is the woman who do the cooking and takes care of the husband and the children are still adhered to. This force most of the female senior members to leave the office for home around 3:00pm, by which time their male colleagues will still be in the office doing their writing for publication. The most interesting aspect of it is that most female senior members rate their family responsibilities very high. Motherhood which demands that you take some time off is a very big challenge for most female senior members. By the time they return, their male colleagues might have done more writings. Most of the interviewees want their universities to consider reducing the number of papers senior member must publish to gain promotion for female senior members to help them compete with their male colleagues. However, others were of the view that once you have accepted the offer to abide by all the responsibilities surrounding the profession, it is a matter of challenging yourself to compete with your male colleagues. To them, though it is a huge challenge to play dual role of being a professional worker and taking care of the home, you can still achieve a greater height if you put the necessary measures in place. The dual role seems to be a major challenge to most female senior members because it delays their progress to the higher level.

In addition to the above findings, age and marital status were controlled (see Appendix J). Both were not significant with the dependent variable (Job Performance) which means that the differences in age or whether one is married or not does not affect the positive relationship towards female senior members. This confirms the facts that students have a positive attitude towards female senior members. This is despite the fact that those within the age group of 26-30 are more than the other age groups and the singles being more than the married. It also means

that, students no matter their age or marital status show maturation in terms of their behaviour towards female senior members.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the research findings, conclusions, and recommendations for future research. It also discusses the contributions of the study to theory, policy and practice. It further discusses the limitations of the study as well as the recommendation for future studies.

#### 5.2 Summary of the Research Findings

Issues of gender stereotyping is a major concern around the world. For many years, women have suffered and continue to suffer gender stereotyping. The socio-cultural beliefs of many societies are in such a way that boys and girls are socialized differently to perform different roles. This has led to attributing agentic behaviors to males and communal behaviours to females. In most societies, men are seen to be aggressive, risk-taking, autonomous, independent, dominant, competing, forceful individualistic and ambitious whilst females are seen to be friendly, affectionate, sympathetic, helpful, kind, and many others. It has led to a situation whereby men dominate over their female counterparts. And as a result, women are stereotyped negatively against because of their gender.

Even though women have made giant strides into organisations, stereotyping negatively against women still exist. Even in advance countries where people seem to be more egalitarian, issues of stereotyping negatively against women still exist. In sub-Saharan African and Asia, stereotyping negatively against women is dominant because of the socio-cultural beliefs of these two continents. This affects women self-esteem and performance, especially professional women. Women face a lot of barriers

which prevent them from progressing to the top level because of their gender. For these reasons, this study sought to examine the students' attitude towards female senior members in higher educational institutions in Ghana.

In order to address the study objectives, mixed method approach was adopted with pragmatist paradigm. Purposive sampling technique was used to sample both students and female senior members from three universities in Greater Accra Region in Ghana. For the quantitative survey, preliminary data analyses were performed using descriptive statistics, FA, and Pearson correlation. In order to address the hypothesized relationships, SEM was used for the analysis. Statistical software such as the Statistical Package for Services Solution (SPSS) version 21.0 and IBM AMOS version 21.0 were used to facilitate in data analyses. For the qualitative interview, audio recorder was used to record the interviews which were transcribed and analyzed. The findings of the research were as follows:

### **5.2.1 Research Objective One**

The first objective sought to find out students' attitude towards female senior members' job performance. In line with this objective, three hypotheses were formulated and tested. The results indicated that students have a positive attitude towards female senior members. The results also revealed that there is no difference in gender in terms of students' attitude towards female senior members. Interviewees responses supported the findings.

### **5.2.2 Research Objective Two**

The second objective was to find out whether SDO will influence the relationship between students' attitude and female senior members' job performance. To test this objective, one hypothesis was tested. The results indicate that students' attitude and

SDO did not interact. This contradicted a lot of previous studies. It was also not consistent with SDT, which states that men will be higher on SDO. Interview responses appear to support this finding.

### **5.2.3 Research Objective Three**

The third objective sought to explore the barriers to female senior members' progress to higher positions. This was based on qualitative interviews which indicate that, the universities have no clear cut barriers to female senior member's progress to higher positions. However, it was revealed that the dual role of female senior members where they perform family responsibilities in addition to their professional work delay progress to a higher level.

### **5.3 Bullet points of the findings**

Objective One: It was found that;

- Students have positive attitude towards female senior members

Objective Two: It was found that;

- SDO did not influence the relationship between students' and female senior members' job performance.

Objective Three: It was found that;

- There are no barriers to female senior members' progress to higher positions in higher educational institutions.

### **5.4 Conclusion**

The purpose of the study was to examine students' attitude towards female senior members and how social dominance orientation will influence this relationship. The

findings of the study revealed that students have a positive attitude towards female senior members. The study also indicates that there is no difference in gender in terms of students' attitude towards female senior members. This suggests that both male and female students have a positive attitude towards female senior members. In addition, it was discovered female senior members' job performance is not affected because of their gender. Again, it was revealed that Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) did not influence students' attitudes towards female senior members. This means both male and female students are not high on SDO, therefore they have positive attitudes towards female senior members. However, it was evident dual role played by most of the female senior members delay their progress to the higher level. Family responsibilities in addition to professional work delays the publications of papers by female senior members which give their male colleagues an advantage to rise earlier compared to them.

### **5.5 Contributions of the Study**

The first contribution of this study is that, to the best knowledge of the researcher, this is the first study to test the influence of SDO on the relationship between the attitude of students and females' senior members' job performance. It has contributed to knowledge with regards to how students behave towards female senior members.

Another major contribution of this study is the use of the mixed method approach. Most of the studies done within this area, mostly use either qualitative or quantitative approach. It therefore means the combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches by the researcher gives insight to the study. A mixed method approach also afforded the researcher the opportunity to analyzing and presenting of convergent and divergent view.

Finally, the study contributes to knowledge by focusing on the context of female senior members in higher educational institutions. Few studies in this area have taken into consideration the context of female senior members in higher educational institutions.

#### **5.5.1 Recommendation for Practice**

This study has an implication for managers, especially Human Resource managers of higher educational institutions who have the utmost responsibility of finding the cultural background of employees. The orientation of people towards women, especially those in the working class is very critical to organisations and institutions. To reduce negative attitude bias usually encounter by women, Human resource managers can hire people who have a positive attitude and low on SDO because such people tend to have a positive attitude towards female workers. They must give emphasis to selection of employees who are educated because education seems to decrease the negative attitudes people have towards professional women.

#### **5.5.2 Recommendation for Policy**

Higher educational institutions must take into consideration the dual responsibility of women. The family responsibility as well as professional work that appears to delay the progress of female senior members to higher positions. Policy makers in the various higher educational institutions can include in their policies flexible strategies that will allow women to break the glass ceiling despite the dual role of family responsibility and professional work. Higher educational institutions can help to provide day care centers, fixed working time for women in such a way that women can flexibly perform their dual roles without hindrance. They can as well provide flexible working times, schedule programmes and training times appropriately in

order not to conflict with their household responsibilities. There can also be a policy whereby female senior members will have to publish less papers compared to their male colleagues to facilitate their promotion to the higher level.

### **5.6 Limitations of the Study**

In the light of taking into consideration the findings and the recommendations of this study one must not forget to also consider the limitations accordingly. The data was collected from only three tertiary institutions and generalizing it to other tertiary institutions must be done with care.

Another drawback of the study is that, it focused on only tertiary institutions. Therefore, generalizing it to other sectors must be carefully thought through. There is the need to also focus on other sectors such as corporate organisations to get more insight into the concept.

A purposive sampling method adopted for the selection of the institutions and sample for the study is another limitation to the study. Though it was helpful it was not based on probability method and can compromise the generalization power of the research results.

### **5.7 Recommendation for Further Studies**

With regards to the limitations above, future research can include more tertiary institutions to increase its generalizability power. In addition, future research can focus on other sectors such as corporate organisations to get more insight into the concept.

Also, probability sampling methods such as simple random or systematic sampling method can be adopted to increase the generalization power of the research results.

Other variables such as Power Distance can be included to determine its impact on other variables (Attitude, Social Dominance Orientation and Job Performance).



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## APPENDIX

### APPENDIX A

#### Research Questionnaire

DEPARTMENT OF ORGANISATION AND HUMAN RESOURCE  
MANAGEMENT

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

#### *Questionnaire*

The researcher is an MPhil student of University of Ghana. The researcher's telephone number and email are 0246195501 and demoros82@yahoo.com respectively.

This is survey to find out about your personal views on issues relating to female senior members in higher educational institutions. This questionnaire does not aim at attempting to pry into anyone's private life but only to set up to collate information for academic purposes only. Do not write your name. Questions should be answered in private and as frankly as possible. You are assured that your response shall be treated as confidential and used solely for the purpose for which it is intended. The answering of this questionnaire is not binding and that if you deem to stop answering it, you are allowed to do so.

The questionnaire has four (4) pages.

#### SECTION A

##### *DEMOGRAPHICS*

1. Age [a] 21-25  [b] 26-30  [c] 31-35  [d] 36 and above
2. Sex [a] male  [b] female
3. Marital Status [a] married  [b] single

#### SECTION B AND C

AN EXAMINATION OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS FEMALE SENIOR MEMBERS' JOB PERFORMANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS: THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL DOMINANCE ORIENTATION

Please answer as frankly as possible whether you "" Strongly Disagree", "Disagree", "Somewhat Disagree", "Neither Agree nor Disagree", "Somewhat Agree", "Agree", "Strongly Agree"" to the following statements by ticking the appropriate response. Please turned to the next pages

Strongly Disagree      Disagree      Somewhat Disagree      Neither Agree nor Disagree  
 1                                  2                                  3                                  4  
 Somewhat Agree      Agree Strongly      Agree  
 5                                  6                                  7

| ATTITUDE TOWARDS FEMALE SENIOR MEMBERS   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| The Woman as Managers Scale  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4. Are female senior members objective in evaluating teaching situations properly?   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 5. Challenging work is more important to male senior members than it is to female senior members.                                    |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 6. Society should regard work by female senior members as valuable as work by male senior members.                                   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 7. Male senior members and female senior members should be given equal opportunity for participation in teaching training programs.  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 8. Female senior members have the capability to acquire the necessary skills to be successful teachers.                              |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 9. It is acceptable for female senior members to compete with their male counterparts for top positions.                             |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 10. The possibility of pregnancy does not make female senior members less desirable teachers than their male counterparts            |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 11. Female senior members would no more allow their emotions to influence their teaching behavior than would their male counterparts |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 12. Problems associated with menstruation should not make female senior members less desirable than their male counterparts          |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 13. To be a successful teacher, a female senior member does not have to sacrifice some of her femininity.                            |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 14. Female senior members possess the self-confidence required of a teacher.   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 15. On the average, female senior members are less capable of contributing to academic institution's overall goals than              |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |

|  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| are male senior members.   |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 16. It is less desirable for women than men to have a job that requires responsibility   |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 17. It is not acceptable for female senior members to assume leadership roles as often as their male counterparts.   |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 18. Do you think the academic accepts female senior members in key positions?  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 19. On the average, a woman who stays at home all the time with her children is a better mother than a woman who works outside the home at least half of the time. |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 20. Female senior members are less capable of learning mathematical and mechanical skills than are their male counterparts.  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 21. Female senior members are not ambitious enough to be successful in the teaching profession.  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 22. Female senior members cannot be confident in teaching situations that demand it.   |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 23. Female senior members are not competitive enough to be successful in teaching.   |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 24. Female senior members cannot be aggressive in teaching situations that demand it.  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| <b>Social Dominance Orientation</b>  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
|  | <b>1</b> | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>7</b> |
| 25. Males are just more worthy than Females.   |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 26. In getting what males wants, it is sometimes necessary to use force against females.   |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 27. Male groups should dominate female groups.   |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 28. To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on females.  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |
| 29. If females stayed in their place, we would have fewer problems.  |          |          |          |          |          |          |          |



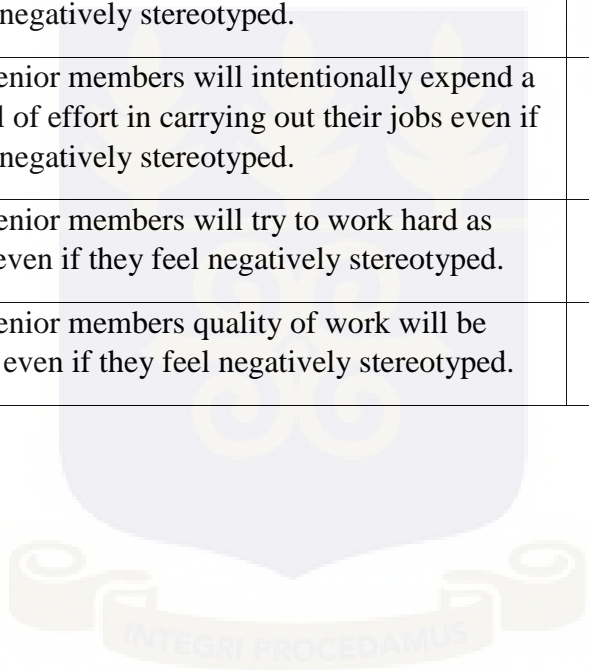
## APPENDIX B

### SECTION D: EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

Please answer as frankly as possible whether you “Strongly Disagree”, “Disagree”, “Neutral”, “Agree”, “Strongly Agree”.

|                          |                 |                |              |                       |
|--------------------------|-----------------|----------------|--------------|-----------------------|
| <b>Strongly Disagree</b> | <b>Disagree</b> | <b>Neutral</b> | <b>Agree</b> | <b>Strongly Agree</b> |
| <b>1</b>                 | <b>2</b>        | <b>3</b>       | <b>4</b>     | <b>5</b>              |

| <b>Students perception of female senior members’ job performance</b>   |          |          |          |          |          |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
|  | <b>1</b> | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> |
| 1. Female senior members will perform better even if they feel negatively stereotyped.   |          |          |          |          |          |
| 2. Female senior members will intentionally expend a great deal of effort in carrying out their jobs even if they feel negatively stereotyped. |          |          |          |          |          |
| 3. Female senior members will try to work hard as possible even if they feel negatively stereotyped.   |          |          |          |          |          |
| 4. Female senior members quality of work will be excellent even if they feel negatively stereotyped.   |          |          |          |          |          |



## APPENDIX C

### INTERVIEW GUIDE

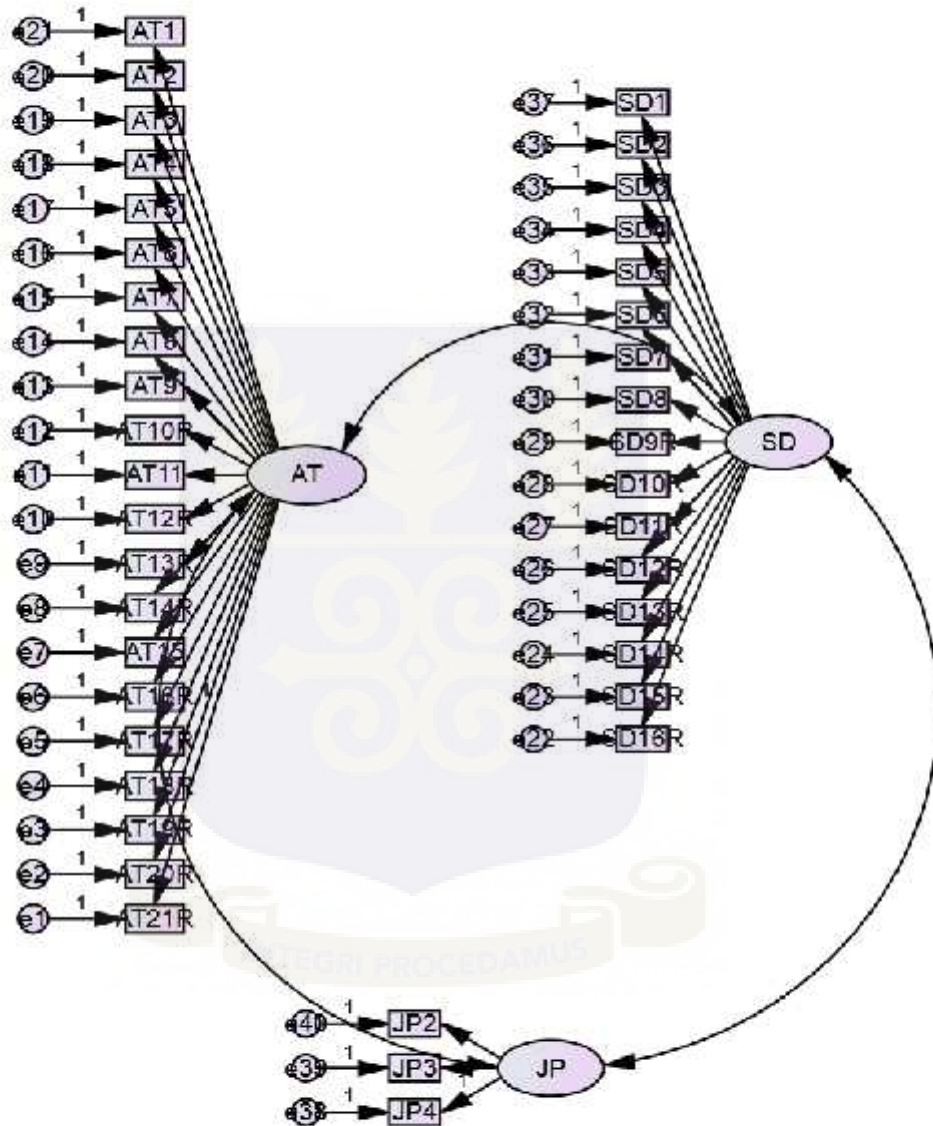
### TOPIC: AN EXAMINATION OF STUDENTS ATTITUDES TOWARDS FEMALE SENIOR MEMBERS' JOB PERFORMANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS: THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL DOMINANCE ORIENTATION

#### INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. How do you describe the behavior of your male colleagues at work?
2. Do you feel being negatively stereotyped by men (male colleagues and male students)? Explain
3. Do you feel being negatively stereotyped by fellow women colleagues? Explain
4. What are some of the university structures that you think encourage negative attitude towards female workers?
5. How do you cope with some of these negative stereotypes?
6. How do these negative attitudes towards you affect your job performance (teaching)?
7. Do you think your performance at work is affected as a results of your gender?
8. In your opinion, are men and women treated differently in terms of behaviour by students?
9. Do you think men are culturally oriented to dominate their female counterparts in all spheres of life? Explain
10. Do you think our socio-cultural beliefs play a role in peoples' negative attitude towards women?

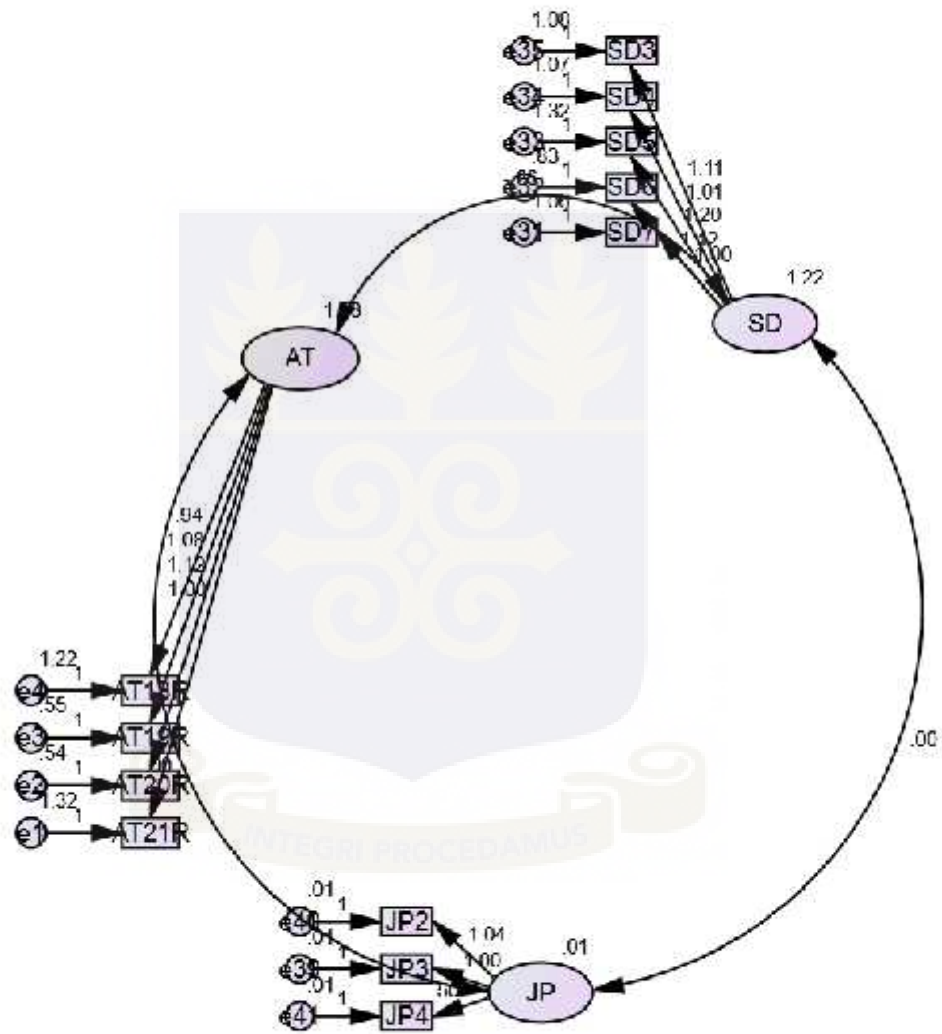
### APPENDIX D

The Initial Measurement Model (CFA) showing Unstandardized Loadings



## APPENDIX E

### The Final CFA Measurement Model (Standardized Loadings)



**APPENDIX F**

Output for Skewness and Kurtosis

Descriptive Statistics

|                    | N         | Minimum   | Maximum   | Mean      | Std. Deviation | Skewness  |            | Kurtosis  |            |
|--------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|
|                    | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic | Statistic      | Statistic | Std. Error | Statistic | Std. Error |
| AT                 | 300       | 2.29      | 6.52      | 5.3158    | .75553         | -.912     | .141       | .604      | .281       |
| SD                 | 300       | 1.00      | 5.65      | 2.2834    | 1.02052        | .820      | .141       | .030      | .281       |
| JP                 | 300       | 5.50      | 7.00      | 6.6100    | .41851         | -.537     | .141       | -1.079    | .281       |
| Valid N (listwise) | 300       |           |           |           |                |           |            |           |            |



## APPENDIX G

Results after Missing Values were computed using EM method

Univariate Statistics

|    | N   | Mean   | Std. Deviation | Missing |         | No. of Extremes <sup>a</sup> |      |
|----|-----|--------|----------------|---------|---------|------------------------------|------|
|    |     |        |                | Count   | Percent | Low                          | High |
| AT | 300 | 5.3184 | .75269         | 0       | .0      | 6                            | 0    |
| SD | 300 | 2.2932 | 1.05530        | 0       | .0      | 0                            | 3    |
| PD | 300 | 1.3509 | .43808         | 0       | .0      | 0                            | 16   |

a. Number of cases outside the range (Q1 - 1.5\*IQR, Q3 + 1.5\*IQR).



## APPENDIX H

### A sample of UGBS Introductory Letter to Some Specific Institutions



**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA**  
**BUSINESS SCHOOL**  
DEPARTMENT OF ORGANISATION AND  
HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT



Ref. No.....

November 17, 2016

The Graduate School  
University of Ghana  
Legon

Dear Sir/Madam,

**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION:**  
**MORO ALHASSAN**  
**ID NO.:10307187**

This is to introduce to you the above-named Mphil student of the University of Ghana Business School.

As part of the requirements for the award of the degree, he is expected to write a long essay for which he has chosen the topic "*The Examination of Students Attitude Towards Female Senior Members in Higher Educational Institutions: The Influence of Social Dominance Orientation.*"

He has intentions of using your institution as study organisation, which would require the administration and collection of questionnaires, as well as conduction interviews as part of the data gathering purposes. This is to enable him meet the objectives of his research.

I should be very grateful if you could provide the necessary information and assistance required for the successful completion of his thesis. I must emphasize that this information is for academic purposes only.

Thank you for your kind cooperation

Yours faithfully,

  
Dr. James B. Abigye  
**SUPERVISOR**

COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES

• Telephone: +233 (0) 302 501 594

P. O. Box EC 78, Legon, Accra, Ghana.

• Email: [ugbs@ug.edu.gh](mailto:ugbs@ug.edu.gh)

• Website: [www.ug.edu.gh](http://www.ug.edu.gh)

## APPENDIX I

### A sample of UGBS Introductory Letter to Some Specific Institutions



**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA**  
BUSINESS SCHOOL  
DEPARTMENT OF ORGANISATION AND  
HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT



Ref. No.: .....

November 17, 2016

The Graduate School  
University of Professional Studies  
Legon

Dear Sir/Madam,

**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION:  
MORO ALHASSAN  
ID NO.:10307187**

This is to introduce to you the above-named Mphil student of the University of Ghana Business School.

As part of the requirements for the award of the degree, he is expected to write a long essay for which he has chosen the topic "*The Examination of Students Attitude Towards Female Senior Members in Higher Educational Institutions: The Influence of Social Dominance Orientation.*"

He has intentions of using your institution as study organisation, which would require the administration and collection of questionnaires, as well as conducting interviews as part of the data gathering purposes. This is to enable him meet the objectives of his research.

I should be very grateful if you could provide the necessary information and assistance required for the successful completion of his thesis. I must emphasize that this information is for academic purposes only.

Thank you for your kind cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

  
Dr. James B. Abagye  
SUPERVISOR

COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES

P. O. Box LC 78, Legon, Accra, Ghana.

• Telephone: +233 (0) 302 50 594.

• Email: [ugbsol@mug.edu.gh](mailto:ugbsol@mug.edu.gh)

• Website: [www.ug.edu.gh](http://www.ug.edu.gh)

## APPENDIX J

A sample of the consent form

### CONSENT FORM

The researcher (Moro Alhassan) is a student of University of Ghana. The researcher's telephone number and email are 0246195501 and demoros82@yahoo.com respectively.

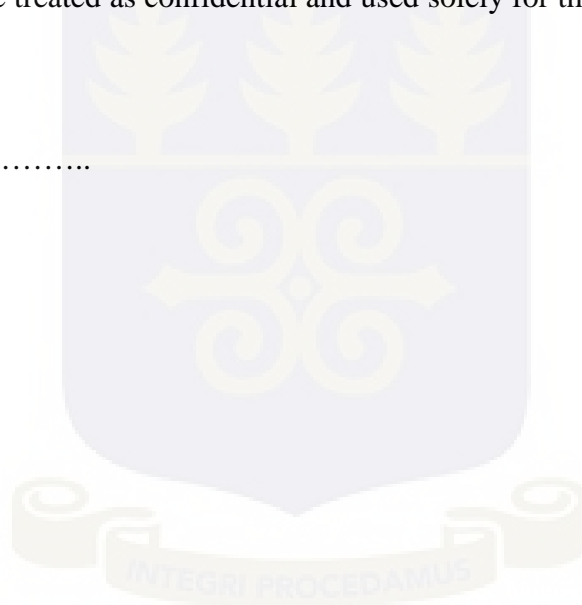
This is interview to find out about your personal views on issues relating to female senior members in higher educational institutions. This interview does not aim at attempting to pry into anyone's private life but only to set up to collate information for academic purposes only. Do not mention your name. You are assured that your response shall be treated as confidential and used solely for the purpose for which it is intended.

The Interviewer,

.....

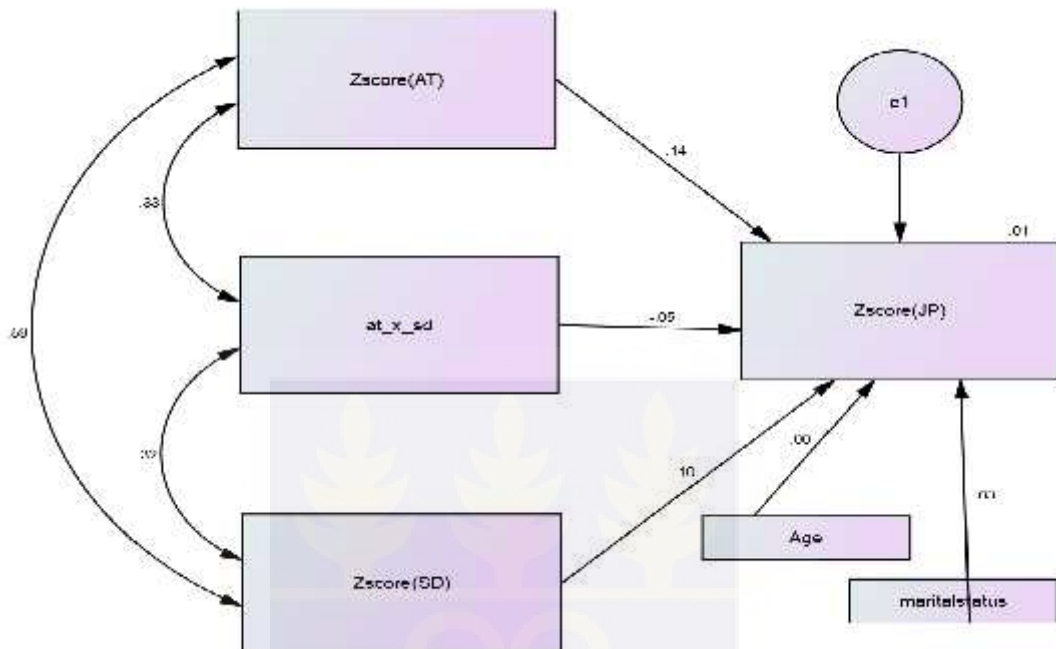
The interviewee,

.....



## APPENDIX K

### Test of Controlled Variables (Age and Marital Status)



#### Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

|                        | Estimate | S.E. | C.R.  | P    | Label |
|------------------------|----------|------|-------|------|-------|
| ZJP <--- ZAT           | .139     | .073 | 1.910 | .056 |       |
| ZJP <--- at_x_sd       | -.044    | .057 | -.770 | .441 |       |
| ZJP <--- ZSD           | .096     | .072 | 1.326 | .185 |       |
| ZJP <--- AGE           | -.003    | .053 | -.059 | .953 |       |
| ZJP <--- MARITALSTATUS | -.059    | .119 | -.494 | .621 |       |

#### Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

|                        | Estimate |
|------------------------|----------|
| ZJP <--- ZAT           | .139     |
| ZJP <--- at_x_sd       | -.048    |
| ZJP <--- ZSD           | .096     |
| ZJP <--- AGE           | -.003    |
| ZJP <--- MARITALSTATUS | -.028    |