UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION, KUMASI CAMPUS

AN ASSESSMENT OF PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS ON MALE EMPLOYEE IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY. A CASE STUDY IN SOME SELECTED HOTELS IN THE HO MUNICIPAL

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A DISSERTATION IN THE DEPARTMENT OF DESIGN AND TECHNOLOGY. FACULTY OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR AWARD OF THE MASTER OF TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA, KUMASI

AUGUST, 2017

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, Asmau Ahmed, declare that this dissertation, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

SIGNATURE:………………...................…………….

DATE:………………………...................……………….

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of Thesis / Dissertation / Project as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

............................…………   DATE:…………………….................

Dr. Patricia Foriwaa Ababio

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my husband Ahmed Jalaba Osman and children for their

inspirations and love for me throughout my education.

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ABSTRACT

The hospitality industry is one of the fastest growing industries on the globe. The dynamics in the industry worldwide are not the same. A lot of hospitality facilities and outlets are springing out in the Ho metropolis. The present study therefore sought to assess public perception about male workers in the hospitality industry. The objectives of the study were as follows: to identify the perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry, to examine the factors that influence those perceptions, to find out factors that motivate males to take appointment in the hospitality industry, to compare the responses of the educated and uneducated on the perception on male workers in the hospitality industry and make recommendations for the study. The purpose of this study was to identify the perceptions of the public on male employees in the Hospitality industry and the things that motivate males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry. The research design employed was both qualitative and quantitative (interview and survey) using semi structured interview guide and questionnaire as the main instruments. The population for the study was all the customers and staff in the hospitality industry in the Ho metropolis. Sample size was 200 and the simple random sampling technique was used. The data was analysed using the soft ware known as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. The findings on the demographics of the educated respondents showed that 58% were males and 42% females of which most of them were between the ages of 41-50 years. With regards to their educational level 40% of them were Diploma/Higher National Diploma or HND holders followed by 32% of them who either had Senior High School/Technical/Vocational (SHS/TECH/VOC) certificate. Results showed that, males are hard working, their services are needed and that people prefer male chefs to female chefs. It was also revealed that, culture, nature and nurture and educational level influences people's perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry. Again, it showed that working environment, passion and orientation at home motivate males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry. The study recommends that there should be a change on the negative perception of people on male workers in the hospitality industry because they are seemed hardworking than their female counterparts and in most cases people prefer male chefs to female ones. There should be career guidance and counselling to encourage more males into the hospitality industry. A good working environment should be created in the hospitality industry and parents should also encourage their male children at home who want to take up employment in the hospitality industry to do so.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The hospitality industry is one of the fastest growing industries globally. The hotel business is arguably the most lucrative business within the hospitality industry. This is proven by the astronomical growth rate of the industry. This growth in the industry has resulted into the generation of employment worldwide, for both sexes. This is supported by UNWTO who indicates that, the Hospitality, Catering and Tourism (HCT) is among the world's top creators of jobs. It is estimated that, 296 million jobs would be created and opened by 2019 (UNWTO, 2014; International Labour Organization, 2010, Ghana Tourist Authority Report, 2005).

It is important to note that, the industry consists of broad category of fields within the service industry, which includes accommodation, food and beverage, events, transportation, among others within the tourism and hospitality industry. Again, the hotel industry being a vital part of the wider hospitality industry, occupies an important place in the economy of most countries.

It is wealth noting that, a huge gap is perceived between the demand and supply of manpower in the industry. This gap may be due to the negative perceptions conceived by people about the industry globally. Some of these perceptions include long working hours, low salary package, low profile jobs, and gender bias among others. In the industry, there is uneven distribution of male and female in respect of work. Thus, the

ratio of men and women workforce is not equal. A study conducted in China by Yafang and Gongyong (2008) indicate that, females are more inclined towards opting hospitality as career than of males owing to their positive perception towards the industry.

The orientation, customs and traditions in the Ghanaian society have segregated occupations and jobs along gender lines. The nature of activities as ascribed within the Ghanaian society, by and large, influences work. The issue of cooking, cleaning, bed laying, serving of food and related activities are perceived to be the preserve of females. However, these very activities under pin most hospitality activities. In the Ghanaian society, it is unusual for men to do these activities considered traditionally as household chores for women.

The dynamics to a greater extent, have impacted negatively on the industry where there are fewer men to women ratio in most hospitality destinations. In most developed countries, most males are found in the industry. Contrarily in developing countries, particularly Ghana, very few males are in the industry. They are usually found in offices rather than the hospitality industry. According to Manwa and Black, (2002); Thrane (2007) Men are often a time seen in top managerial positions. However, this cannot be said same of Nigerian and Indian hospitality industry; as these countries hospitality subsectors are dominated by the challenge of seasonality. This deters women from continuing their professional careers in the field of hospitality (Purcell, 1996).

It is worthy to note that, the varied perceptions about males in the industry may be due to cultural relativism. Cultural orientation of people varies from one place to another and most often than not, results in the perception that people have about the industry in the Ho Metropolis.

Ho Metropolis is located between latitudes 6o 20"N and 6o 55"N and longitudes 00 12"E and 00 53"E. The Municipality shares its boundaries with Adaklu and Agortime-Ziope Districts to the South, Ho West District to the North and West and the Republic of Togo to the East. Consisting of 772 communities and a Land Size of 2660 sq. km. The Municipality has a total population of 192,871 with 94,951 males and 97,920 females. Trend of Population Growth Rate in the Municipality.

Hospitality industry: A number of good star hotels and Guesthouses are established in the municipality. In all, they are about twenty eight (28) hotel facilities existing and these includes; Two (2) – 2 star hotels namely; Chances Hotel, Sky Plus Hotel, and Bob Coffie Hotel. Many One-star hotels e.g. Kekeli Hotel, Stevens Hotel, Taurus Hotel, Woezor Hotel, Tarso Hotel, Lawnia, etc. In respect of restaurants, apart from restaurants been operated by the Hotel and Guest Houses, the Municipality can also boast of a good number of notable restaurants with standard operations. These are West Wing Resturant, Gold finger Restaurant, Pedees, Pleasure Gardens, KCS etc. White House and many more prepared delicious Ghanaian and Continental dishes. Other beautiful Drinking and Chop bars like the Jubilee Spot, Kingfisher Spot, Mirage Spot, Orz Club, Agbenorxevi Chop bar, Hill View, Ka"neawope, Mother's Inn, Rabazey Spot, Talk Of The Town and many

more. The World Tourism organization (UNWTO) stated that the global number of hotel rooms has grown from 14 million to 17 million between 1997 to 2005 and the figure is expected to increase astronomically by the end of 2020. The growth in the hotel industry has been identified as one of the major facilitators in the development of Tourism and hospitality industry as a whole. No wonder the governments of some countries give incentives to hotel developers and owners in order to further enhance their country's tourism sector (Page 2009, 259). Of all the various types of accommodation available to the tourist, the hotel is the biggest and most visible sub-sector. It is usually viewed traditionally as an establishment, which provides accommodation, food and beverage services on a pay basis to guests who are only for a short stay. However, the modern perception of a hotel is more complex than this due to the fact that not all of the hotels provide services such as food and beverages, at the same time, some hotels even offer additional services such as conference rooms to their guests. (Cooper et al. 2008).

At this point, due to the variations in what is considered to be a hotel in different countries, it is necessary to give a simple definition of a hotel in this research work. Perhaps, the definition proposed by the European Commission is suitable for this study. According to the Commission (Eurostat 2013) a hotel is a unit, which provides stays for visitors, typically on a daily or weekly basis, principally for short stays. Furthermore, the Commission gives details of services provided by such units to include daily cleaning and bed-making as well as offering food and beverages, parking, laundry services, recreational services to the guests. It is also good to state here that some of the hotels offer amenities such as conference and convention facilities (European commission

2014.) Having given a glimpse of a hotel, the reason for variations in what constitute a hotel in different countries can better be explained by taking a closer look into how hotels came into existence and the origin of the industry.

The history of hotel industry is as old as man himself. According to Jacques Levy-Bonvin (2003) the history can be traced back to the biblical times when records were made about numerous facilities offering guests a resting place. One notable thing about the hotel in those days was that they were private homes that were made open to the public.

They were not known as hotels at the beginning; rather they were called "Inns" and later known as "taverns". It is also good to point out those important developments in commercial accommodation or hotels took place in different periods of time.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The hospitality industry is one of the fastest growing industries on the globe. The dynamics in the industry worldwide are not the same. Whether viewed as a biological or a socio culturally determined characteristic, gender is a widely used variable in marketing studies (Yavas et al., 1999). According to Catteral et al.,(2000) the focus on this variable owes to its importance as a segmentation criterion and the belief that gender roles and differences contribute to a better study of consumer behaviour and help in devising better marketing strategies ranging from product' service design to retailing strategy and development of communication campaigns (Carsky and Zuckerman,1991; Blythe, 1997). Culture relativism plays a very significant role in the kind of economic activities that people are engaged in. Hofstede (1980) defines culture as 'the collective programming of

the mind which distinguishes the members of one group from that of another' and incorporates 'the interactive aggregate of common characteristic that influences a group's response to its environment'. Some hospitality activities are perceived as the preserve of women in Ghanaian societies. For example, cooking, cleaning, Bed laying and related household chores. What views do local people hold on males in the hospitality industry? Are men motivated to love what they do in the hospitality industry? With the increasing globalization and mobility of the world-wide labour force, such emphasis is appropriate. A lot of hospitality facilities and outlets are springing out in the Ho metropolis. The cosmopolitan nature of the metropolis requires that the industry is given a boost in terms of human resource. The inclusion of men in the service delivery process is very important, but the question is, to what extent are men regarded in the industry and how their inclusion affect the industry?

Yavas et al., (1999), Catteral et al., (2000) indicate that, within the quest to enhancing service quality in the hotel industry, studies have demonstrated the need to focus on customers' expectations and perceptions based on gender perspectives. The present study therefore seeks to identify on male workers in the hospitality industry and examine these perceptions in the industry.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify the perceptions of the public on male employees in the Hospitality industry and the things that motivates male to take up jobs in the hospitality industry.

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1.4 Objectives of the Study

1) To identify the perceptions of customers about male workers in the hospitality industry.

2) To examine the factors that influences those perceptions.

3) To find out factors that motivate males to take appointment in the hospitality industry.

4) To compare the responses of the educated and uneducated on the perception on male workers in the hospitality industry and make recommendations for the study.

1.5 Research Questions

1) What perceptions do the public (customers) have about male employees in the hospitality industry?

2) What factors influence the perceptions of the public towards male employees in the hospitality industry?

3) What factors motivate males to take up appointments in the hospitality industry?

4) Do the educated and uneducated have the same perceptions about male workers in the hospitality industry?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The outcome of this study will help remove those negative perceptions the public have about males working in the hospitality industry.

It will also provide bases for further research and encourage males who want to work in the Hospitality industry to do so and this will go a long way to benefit the country since it will reduce unemployment.

1. 7 Definition of Key Terms

Perception: This is defined as recognition and interpretation of sensory information. Perception also includes how we respond to information. We can think of perception as a process where we take in sensory information from our environment and use that information in order to interact with our environment. Perception allows us to take the sensory information in and make it into something meaningful.

Motivation: Motivation refers to "the reasons underlying behavior" (Guay et al., 2010). Paraphrasing Gredler, Broussard and Garrison (2004) broadly define motivation as "the attribute that moves us to do or not to do something". Intrinsic motivation is motivation that is animated by personal enjoyment, interest, or pleasure.

Hospitality: The act of kindness in welcoming and looking after the basic needs of guests or strangers, mainly in relation to food, drink and accommodation; refers to the relationship process between a guest and a host; the reception and entertainment of guests, visitors, or strangers with liberality and goodwill (Oxford English Dictionary); derived from the Latin word hospitare meaning to "receive as a guest.

1.8 Limitations

Every good research work has limitations and this research study is no exception. The study was conducted in the Ho Municipality in the Volta Region, which could cause limitations in relation to the reliability of the research study in other parts of the country.

1.9 Delimitations

The study was confined to some selected Hospitality industries in the Ho municipality in the Volta Region. It was focused on the perceptions the public (customers) has on males who work in the hospitality industry and the factors that motivated those males to take up jobs in the industry. However, it did not cover all the hospitality industry in the whole country due to time and financial constraints.

1.10 Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five (5) chapters. Chapter One is the introductory chapter and it consists of the background of the study, the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, limitations and delimitations, definition of concepts and the organization of the study. Chapter Two is the literature review. It introduces and focuses on the critical and conceptual framework on which the research work is based. Chapter Three entails the research methodology. Chapter Four contained the discussion of results from the data instruments used and Chapter Five included summary of findings, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Introduction

This chapter reviews the relevant literature on thematic issues regarding public perception of male employees in the hospitality industry with particular reference to some selected hotels in the Ho metropolis. This is to provide an adequate basis on which the work is established. Customer's perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry, Factors that influence these perceptions and Factors that motivate males to take appointment in the hospitality industry.The subsections below present the various aspects of the reviewed literature.

2.1 Brief History of Hotels

The history of hotel industry is as old as man himself. According to Jacques Levy-Bonvin (2003) the history can be traced back to the biblical times when records were made about numerous facilities offering guests a resting place. One notable thing about the hotel in those days was that they were private homes that were made open to the public.

They were not known as hotels at the beginning; rather they were called "Inns" and later known as "taverns". It is also good to point out those important developments in commercial accommodation or hotels took place in different periods of time.

2.2 Perception

Perception is closely related to attitudes. Perception is the process by which organisms interpret and organize sensation to produce a meaningful experience of the world

(Lindsay & Norman, 1977). In other words, a person is confronted with a situation or stimuli. The person interprets the stimuli into something meaningful to him or her based on prior experiences (Pickens, 2005).

However, what an individual interprets or perceives may be substantially different from reality. The perception process follows four stages: stimulation, registration, organization, and interpretation. A person's awareness and acceptance of the stimuli play an important role in the perception process. Receptiveness to the stimuli is highly selective and may be limited by a person's existing beliefs, attitude, motivation, and personality (Assael, 1995). Individuals will select the stimuli that satisfy their immediate needs (perceptual vigilance) and may disregard stimuli that may cause psychological anxiety (perceptual defense) (Pickens, 2005).

Broadbent (1958) addressed the concept of perceptual vigilance with his filter model. Broadbent argued that, on the one hand, due to limited capacity, a person must process information selectively and, therefore, when presented with information from two different channels (i.e., methods of delivery such as visual and auditory), an individual's perceptual system processes only that which it believes to be most relevant. However, perceptual defense creates an internal barrier that limits the external stimuli passing through the perception process when it is not congruent with the person's current beliefs, attitudes, motivation, etc. This is referred to as selective perception. Selective perception occurs when an individual limits the processing of external stimuli by selectively

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interpreting what he or she sees based on beliefs, experience, or attitudes (Sherif and Cantril, 1945).

Broadbent's filter theory has been updated in recent years. A "Selection for- Action View" suggests that filtering is not just a consequence of capacity limitations, but is driven by goal-directed actions (Allport, 1987, 1993; Neumann, 1987; Van der Heijden, 1992). The concept is that any action requires the selection of certain aspects of the environment that are action relevant and, at the same time, filtering other aspects that are action irrelevant. Therefore, when one is working toward a goal, one will skip over information that does not support one's plan. Recent studies of the brain have also led to new models, suggesting multiple channels of processing (Pashler, 1989) and selective perception as a result of activation of cortical maps and neural networks (Rizzolatti and Craighero, 1998). In any case, people are selective in what they perceive and tend to filter information based on the capacity to absorb new data, combined with preconceived thoughts (Pickens,2005).

2.2.1 Social Perception

Social perception is how an individual "sees" others and how others perceive an individual. This is accomplished through various means such as classifying an individual based on a single characteristic (halo effect), evaluating a person's characteristics by comparison to others (contrast effect), perceiving others in ways that really reflect a perceiver's own attitudes and beliefs (projection), judging someone on the basis of one's perception of the group to which that person belongs (stereotyping), causing a person to

act erroneously based on another person's perception (pygmalion effect), or controlling another person's perception of oneself (impression management), Pickens,2005.

2.3 Gender Dominated Industries

Taylor (2010) introduces the concept of an occupational minority, defines it as a worker who is a numerical rarity in his or her occupation. Examples of occupational minorities include: male nurses, female construction workers, male teachers, and female surgeons. This concept focuses on minorities at the occupational level and does not take into account actual gender composition of their specific organization. This view involves perceptions of appropriate gender roles, interactions, and support. It suggests that gender compositions have different effects on both men and women in the workplace.

In accordance with this theory, women are more likely to receive social backlash when successful in a male-dominate occupation (Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, &Tamkins, 2004). This negative response stems from social norms regarding gender roles and stereotypes, which has a potential to create bias in evaluations of women in the workplace (Heilman et al., 2004). This bias can lead women to be perceived as having less workplace support than their male counterparts, which can create obstacles in accessing information and gaining assistance in the workplace (Taylor, 2010). Surprisingly, both men and women are prone to see women who violate social gender norms as not likeable, and both have a tendency for hostility against women who are successful in male-dominated occupations (Taylor, 2010; Heilman et al., 2004).

According to Heilman et al., 2004 negative evaluations of women may affect certain occupational rewards, such as salaries and promotions. Research further suggests that it is not generally the same when the situation is reversed; when men are successful at female-dominated occupations, it does not produce social disapproval and when it does, it is of benefit to them (Heilman et al., 2004).

Recent literature illustrates, for example, women in male-dominated industries are seen as less competent in their occupation when expressing stereotypical femininity. However, when expressing a stereotypically masculine leadership style, women are viewed as successful but not well liked by their peers (Bergman, 2008). Women in these industries seem to have the choice of conforming to unpopularity or viewed as incapable of performing their duties. Men in female-dominated industries face a different dilemma, to the extent that because co-workers or supervisors may feel that they are violating social norms, they are pushed into higher leadership type positions that are more in line with male gender roles (i.e., Director of Nursing) (Taylor, 2010). This process, labeled as access and treatment discrimination (Mclean &Kalin, 1994), occur when women and men are selected by employers into gender-traditional occupations, and include as well exclusion from gender-nontraditional occupations.

That is not all, another form of this type of discrimination is evident in the formation of network ties in which women in male-dominated industries are at a disadvantage in the creation of these ties because, in order to establish networking opportunities, one would need to express similar interests and characteristics to the target population. This is

difficult for women to reach out to their male supervisors whom they do not express shared interests. Men, on the other hand, do share interests with their same-sex supervisors and therefore, have more resources available to obtain assistance/information than their female counterparts (Taylor, 2010).

A study conducted by Graham &Welbourne (1999) revealed that, women have a higher pay satisfaction compared to men, despite women's pay rate being significantly less than men. Additionally, women generally tend to have lower expectations on what they are worth compared to men (Major &Konar, 1984). This lower expectation is pressumed to be a result of feelings of alienation and inadequacy in the workplace which stems from the inability of women to receive social support in their male-dominated industry (Bergman, 2008). Consiquently, women may feel less compelled to seek or ask for promotions and/or pay raises which further hinder their ability to advance in their careers leading to the creation of the glass ceiling effect (Cotter, et al., 2001).

2.4 The Glass Ceiling Effect in Gender Dominated Industries.

The glass ceiling effect refers to the phenomenon of women receiving a wider gap in earnings and status as they gain more experience compared to their male counterparts (Morgan, 1998). Even, those who surpass the glass ceiling still experience less authority and fewer benefits compared to their male counterparts (Zhang, Schmader and Forbes, 2009). In another study conducted regarding gender gap concerning garnishments, it was reported that women choose to stay in occupations that are compatible with female gender stereotypes because they earn more than in a male-dominated occupation (Gabriel

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& Schmitz, 2006). For example, if they were to pursue a career in a male-dominated occupation they would more than likely only receive two-thirds of the pay rate of men in the same industry (Gabriel & Schmitz, 2006).

Apart from these consequences, there are three other factors on how the minority status may have adverse effects on individuals (Mastekaasa, 2004). The first is visibility, in which the minority will stand out in contrast, receiving more attention which can lead to higher performance pressure. The second is assimilation, in which a minority member is perceived as a representative of their category and therefore, more subject to stereotyping. The third is polarization, in which the presence of minority members is in sharp contrast to the similarities between the members of the majority (Mastekaasa, 2004). These factors can cause increase in work stressors, add negative effects in health, and decreases motivation which can result in negative evaluations further hindering the minority and adding to the stereotype (Mastekaasa, 2004).

2.5 Gender in the hospitality industry

A considerable body of research exists concerning gender diversity in businesses, including the hospitality industry. For example, several studies demonstrate a disparate distribution of income between male and female employees in the hospitality industry, with females earning less than their male counterparts (Biswas and Cassell, 1996; Purcell 1996; Sparrowe and Iverson, 1999). Gender-based income disparity has been confirmed as a form of sex discrimination within the hospitality industry (e.g., Sparrowe and Iverson, 1999; Thrane, 2007). Also, other research has documented gender differences in

promotions to managerial positions (Manwa and Black, 2002; Thrane, 2007), wherein men are over-represented in preferred positions that pay better. Part of the reason for this disparity may be that, female employees may interrupt their working lives due to preferences for marriage and caring for children. Of course, gender might not be the sole cause of disparities in the distribution of income and managerial employment in the hospitality industry. Other variables might interact with gender to produce these disparities. For example, Adib and Guerrier (2003) explored the ways in which gender interacts with such variables as race, ethnicity, and the class background of chefs and their employees in the context of how they position themselves within organizational power arrangements. Adib and Guerrier (2003) reported that the lack of power resulting from employees' immigrant status was the most significant reason behind male chefs' harassment of female employees working in the same department. In addition to discrimination, Kattara (2005) identified other characteristics such as age, work experience, and work-family conflict as influential factors that prevent female employees from reaching the top managerial positions within the Egyptian hotel industry (Pinar et al, 2011)

2.6 Gender Effect on Recruitment

Studies have investigated the impact of gender in employment interviews, with the goal of separating the effects of applicant sex and recruiter sex on recruiters' evaluations of the applicants. In a laboratory setting, Galloiset al. (1992) found that personnel managers regarded same-sex applicants as more similar to themselves than opposite-sex applicants; however, sex similarity was not a factor in ratings of likeability or suitability for the job.

Graves and Powell (1988) found no significant effects of applicant sex on interview outcomes; but they did find that perceived similarity and interpersonal attraction were important factors in the recruiters' decision-making processes. In a different study, Graves and Powell (1995) show that perceived gender similarity and interpersonal attraction mediated the effect of sex similarity on female recruiters' assessments of applicants' qualifications. However, an unexpected finding of their study was that female recruiters saw male applicants as more similar to themselves and more qualified than female applicants. In a more recent study, Hardin et al. (2002) found that, similarity of recruiter and applicant gender did not have any significant effect on the recruiting outcomes (Pinar et al, 2011).

As more women have entered the sales arena, several studies began exploring the effect of buyer-seller gender similarity on sales performance. Conventional wisdom concerning buyer-seller similarity is that, exchange relationships are easier to develop with similar others (Churchill et al., 1997). Crosby et al. (1990) point out that, similarity between salespersons and customers as measured by such characteristics as sex, appearance, lifestyle, and status is positively related to quality of the sales relationship and sales performance. Similarly, Smith (1998) reports that, same-gender and same-life-stage buyer-seller relationships are associated with greater relationship investment, more open communication, and greater trust and satisfaction within relationships. While an earlier study by Churchill et al. (1975) found a statistically significant relationship between visible similarity (i.e., gender, age, race, education, and nationality) and salesperson performance, more recent similarity research (Crosby et al., 1990; Weitz, 1981) suggests

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that this relationship is weak at best. On the other hand, Dwyer et al. (1998) show that female salespeople are just as effective as male salespeople and that gender similarity is not a significant factor in sales performance (Pinar et al, 2011).

2.7 Gender Effect on Earning Potential

Despite continued efforts during the last few decades, wage disparities on the basis of gender still persist in the United State (Gibelman, 2002). Since 1975, when the Equal Pay Act came into effect, the full-time pay gap has closed considerably for women, from 29.5% of men's hourly pay to 20.2% in 1996 and from 20.7% in 1997 to 17.2% in 2006 (Anonymous, 2006). A study by Gibelman (2002) revealed substantial salary discrepancies on the basis of gender throughout the service professions. She states that in the year 2000 women earned 24% less than men, which was a reduction from a 37% earnings gap that existed in 1979. While the reasons for this pay gap are complex and interconnected, the keys factors include: (a) human capital differences, (b) part-time work by many women, (c) travel patterns, (d) occupational segregation, and (e) workplace segregation (Anonymous, 2006).

As implied by the findings of Hardin et al. (2002), men might be earning more than women in their jobs because they are offered higher starting salaries. Also, a study by Joy (2000) found that men earned more than women in their first jobs within the majority of majors and occupations (including the sales field). Since many women start with a lower salary, it would be difficult for them to catch up with men's earnings later in their careers. This could provide one possible explanation of the gender pay gap. Moreover, applicants'

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perceptions of gender effects on expected earning potential could influence their decisions when making career choices. For example, if a male or female applicant perceives that he/she will be earning less than the other gender in a given field, he/she may not pursue a career in that field. Therefore, it is important to examine applicants' perceptions of the gender effect on their expected and potential earnings from their future jobs and career (Pinar et al, 2011).

2.8 The Experiences of Men in Female Dominated Industries

According to Sampson (2004) as cited in Hakim (2000), Men and women are increasingly moving into gender atypical areasand while there is extensive literature on 'token' women (e.g. Kanter, 1977; Ely, 1994; Simpson, 1997; 2000), there is relatively little research on men who perform what could be seen as 'women's work' (notable exceptions here include Williams (1993), Lupton (2000) and Heikes (1992), discussed later in this paper). The tendency to overlook issues concerning men in 'female' roles, may reflect gender studies' dominating focus on women and the absence, until recently, of issues concerning men and masculinity from mainstream academic research. Recent work, however, has placed men at the center of the analysis by focusing on the dynamics of masculinity (e.g. Collinson and Hearn, 1994; Kerfoot and Knights, 1993; Connell, 1995, 2000) and on organizations as important arenas for the definitions of masculinity and for characterizations of 'masculine' and 'feminine' work.

These characterizations carry strong implications for occupants of non-traditional posts where conceptualizations of masculinity and femininity are 'on the line', highly visible

and vulnerable to challenge (Morgan, 1992). Token women, for example, can be severely disadvantaged by their minority status through negative stereotyping (Kanter, 1977) while assumptions of male careerism and managerial potential often mean positive career outcomes accruing for men (Floge and Merril, 1989). The fragmentary literature on men in non-traditional occupations means that little is known about the motivations and experiences of men in 'female' occupations and how men manage any potential conflict between the feminine' nature of the job and their gender identity.

Early work on gender and organizations has traditionally assumed men and masculinity to be the normative standard case against which difference (i.e. women) has been measured (Collinson and Hearn, 1994). Criticisms of this claim to universality have led to the emergence of diverse theoretical and conceptual frameworks (e.g. Connell, 1995; Kerfoot and Knights, 1993; Barrett, 1996; Hearn, 1994). One such development concerns the dynamics of 'hegemonic masculinity', defined by Connell (2000) as the culturally exalted form of masculinity which guarantees the dominant position of men. This and other constructions of masculinity are often located in, acted out and negotiated within the context of work and organizations (Morgan, 1992) so an understanding of how masculinities are experienced and constructed can usefully begin within this context. Theoretical frameworks within masculinity studies remain, as yet, somewhat fragmentary, reflecting the relatively new status of the area. All approaches reject the monolithic status of patriarchy, which underpins early feminist literature, as the single cause of women's oppression. Instead, in common with later feminist work (e.g.

Alvesson, 1998; Alvesson and Due Billing, 1997), they suggest that gender relations are multidimensional and experienced differentially within specific organizational contexts. Three dominant frameworks have emerged from the literature. Psychoanalytical approaches focus on the psychic investments that individuals have in dominant sexual and gendered discourse, with masculinity historically defined as a flight from women and the repudiation of the feminine (e.g. Chodorow, 1994; Kimmel, 1994; Hollway, 1994). The 'social relations' perspective (Carrigan et al, 1985) examines ways in which social practices are organized as sets of social relations. On this basis, masculinity is viewed as a set of distinct practices (e.g. Tolson, 1977; Connell, 1987). Tolson (1977) for example focuses on the significance of class and father-son relationships for constructions of masculinity while early work by Connell (1987) explores the structure of social relations in the form of power, production and emotional relations and how the patterning of these relations make up a 'gender regime' within an institution. Gender is therefore seen as a social practice and masculinity as a configuration of that practice. More recently, work on masculinity has focused on issues of complexity, ambiguity and fluidity and on the roles of agency and symbolism in its construction as well as of institutions and social practices.

This 'post-structuralist' perspective (Connell, 2000) explores the dynamic nature of masculinity, how it is constructed and reconstructed, how it is experienced at a subjective level and how multiple masculinities exist in relation to the dominant (hegemonic) form. Masculinity is therefore likely to be internally divided, ambiguous and often contradictory (Collinson and Hearn, 1994; Alvesson, 1998; Kerfoot and Knights, 1998; Connell, 2000).

As Morgan (1992) suggests, notions of work are central to masculine identities and organizations exist as major sites for the construction and reconstruction of 'what it means to be a man'. This has consequences for those men and women who move into gender a-typical areas and who thereby challenge conventionally held attitudes and assumptions concerning male and female work. As Bradley (1993) suggests, it may be easier for women to push into male jobs than vice versa.

'Compromised femininity' is still a possible female identity, involving as it does status enhancement and potential increases in pay. By contrast, the man who moves into women's work upsets the gender assumptions embedded in that work so that he is not seen as a 'real' man (Williams, 1993).

Considerable work has been conducted on the difficulties women face when they move into previously male dominated areas of employment. Kanter's (1977) early work on 'token' women points to systems of bias and discrimination whereby the dominant (male) group controls the group culture and through various processes marginalizes and excludes the minority of women. In particular, tokens experience three processes which are detrimental to their experiences within the organization and to their careers. High visibility creates increased performance pressures; polarization occurs as differences between the dominant group and tokens are exaggerated leading to separation and isolation; finally assimilation means that individuals are made to fit into stereotypical roles associated with their group (seductress, mother, pet, iron maiden) constraining behaviour so as to fit the 'role trap'. Other work (Simpson, 1997, 2000) suggest in a

similar vein that gender imbalance heightens career barriers, limits career progress and helps to create a hostile working environment for the minority of women. Sexual harassment of women, for example, has been found to be both more prevalent and more virulent in male dominated occupations (Collinson and Collinson, 1996).

While 'token' women can be severely disadvantaged by their minority status, positive career outcomes may well accrue for 'token' men. Men working in non-traditional occupations have been found to benefit from their token status through the assumption of enhanced leadership and other skills and by being associated with a more careerist attitude to work (Heikes, 1992; Floge and Merril, 1989). Male nurses often ascend the hierarchy more quickly than female counterparts (Bradley, 1993). Men therefore tend to monopolise positions of power and are rewarded for their difference from women in terms of higher pay and other benefits (Williams, 1993). On the other hand, emotional labour such as teaching, nursing and social work may call for special abilities that only women are deemed to possess (Hochschild, 1983).

This can create problems for men (Heikes, 1992) who call into question their competence and suitability if they assert a traditional masculinity and yet who invite challenges to their sexuality and masculinity if they adopt a more feminine approach. In primary school teaching, for example, men have been found to be in a double bind: their presumed masculine interests in sport and male bonding give them an initial hiring advantage but these same characteristics can alienate them from female staff (Williams, 1993). These challenges raise issues about how male workers reconcile the feminine nature of their

work with the demands of a hegemonically masculine gender regime. As Lupton (2000) found, men working in female dominated occupations fear feminization and stigmatization. One response is to reconstruct the job so as to minimize its non-masculine associations. Men may also engage in compensatory gendered practices so as to 'restore' a dominating position (Alvesson, 1998). One strategy may be to emphasize the male and downplay the female elements of the job (Williams, 1993). Such strategies suggest a tension for men in non-traditional roles between the 'feminine' nature of the job and dominant discourses of masculinity.

2.9 The nature of men; masculinity and male dominance

It is argued that the roles of men in the family are closely linked to the attributes of masculinity (Silvia, 1999). Studies on masculinity, mostly from the developed countries have revealed about five important conclusions (Short, 1996): that masculinity is not a biological category as much as a social construct subject to change, revision and multiple representations; that masculinity is not fixed, it is a relational, constantly shifting attribute defined in relation to the feminine; that masculinity is a site of interconnection and tension with other sources of social differentiation; that masculinity is both lived and imagined desires; and that masculinity is not only socially constructed and reconstructed, it is spatially grounded.

One of the most difficult questions which have faced the study of masculinity in recent years has been actually defining the object of analysis (Collier, 1995). However, Brittan (1989) distinction between masculinity as an 'essence' and masculinism as an ideology is

of use in the analysis of masculinity. According to Brittan, masculinism is the masculine ideology that justifies and naturalises male domination. As such, it is the ideology of patriarchy. Masculinism takes it for granted that there is a fundamental difference between men and women, it assumes that heterosexuality is normal, it accepts without question the sexual division of labor, and it sanctions the political and dominant role of men in the public and private spheres (Brittan 1989). In analyzing masculinity as an essence, we examine things characteristics of the male sex. As Bernard argued: "It is not so much the specific kinds of work men and women do – they have always varied from time to time and place to place – but the simple fact that the sexes do different kinds of work, whatever it is, which is in and of itself important. The division of labour by sex means that the work group becomes also a sex group. The very nature of maleness and femaleness becomes embedded in the sexual division of labour. One's sex and one's work are part of one another. One's work defines one's gender" (Bernard 1981:3). This line of argument is also stressed in the work of Lupton (2000) which was essentially on how masculinity is defined, maintained and challenged in occupations and organizations. Infact he argued that masculinity might be regarded as a role that is socially performed enacted and reproduced through discourse. Also that it can be performed by both men and women, is subject to change over time and, on account of its dynamic nature can be studied through observation of action and interpretation of discourse (Kvande 1998).

Thus according to him, the notion of work is central to masculine identities providing extrinsic and intrinsic rewards by which masculinity may be judged by self and others (p.34). He stated following Carrigan, Connell and Lee (1985)'s argument that the

reproduction of (hegemonic) masculinity underpins "the social definition of some kinds of work as 'men's work or women's work' and the definition of some kinds of work as more masculine than others". Recent studies on manhood and masculinity in Africa include works by The Social Sciences and Reproductive Health Research Network (1999), Asiyanbola (2001), Lindsay and Miescher (2003), Lahoucine and Roberts (2004), Adamu (2004). The study by The Social Sciences and Reproductive Health Research Network, (1999) in Nigeria have found that masculinity and manhood are constructed through a gradual, timely, and orderly process, of socially prescribed, family centered and community related roles and responsibilities. The extent of these (male) focused roles is, to a large extent, undertaken by women at the household level, where primary socialization takes place. Boys are taught by their mothers and shown by their fathers how to be a man and they are excused from performing 'female' tasks around the house.

2.10 Customer's perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry

In the hospitality industry, customers have certain mind set with regard to gender roles in the industry. Some works in the industry, are perceived to be preserved for women.Within the quest for enhancing service quality in the hotel industry, studies have demonstrated the need to focus on customers' expectations and perceptions based on gender perspectives (Yavas et al., 1999, Catteral et al., 2000).

Customers usually have their own perception with regard to choices in the hospitality industry. Ryan et al (1998) have emphasized on the importance of gender market segmentation and argue that tourism destinations are selected by men and womenby

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using different criteria. This conclusion (Ryan et al, 1998) recognizes gender as a sufficiently strong consideration to count as a driver of market segmentation and provide the basis of a marketing strategy. It is therefore significant to note that beliefs, culture and traditions vary from one society to the other. Sanchez-Hernandez et al., (2010) assessed differences between men and women in the association of perceptions of service quality with customer evaluations in a study conducted. Functional efficiency with which the service is delivered and relational customers' emotional benefits, beyond the core performance, related to the social interaction of customers with employees dimensions of service quality were measured as well as customer satisfaction and loyalty. Analysis indicates that the women and men differed in the association of functional and relational dimensions of service quality with their satisfaction and loyalty. Functional service quality was higher for the men than the women, while relational service quality showed greater predictive power for women than for men, although these accounted for only 4% of the customers' satisfaction variance and 6% of the loyalty variance. What is deemed important, in such a highly lucrative and competitive market like the hospitality industry, is the need to foresee future gender based trends in the business and leisure travel market and adapt quickly to market changes and by way of their own research understand and make efforts to cater for the needs of their customers (Crawford Welch, 1998).

In some parts of the world, men continue to assume managerial levels in most organisations. The 'old boy' network still dominates in the vast majority of organisations in Europe Linehan and Scullion, 2001: 222. Treven (2003) claims that, there is a clear distinction between women and men in terms of occupation in high masculinity cultures

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

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

Furthermore, Linehan and Scullion (2001) state that women held low skilled jobs and low paid positions due to selection and recruitment processes as well as informal and formal policies and processes, and that the main barrier preventing them from reaching senior managerial positions was the instilled negative perception in the organisation environment towards them (their gender), as is demonstrated by Biswas and Cassell (1996: 23). It is therefore strange to see men engaged in purported female dominated activities since managerial positions are therefore seen as the preserve of men.

Studies in England, show that some hotel companies as somewhat gendered and discriminatory. For instance, Biswas and Cassell (1996) point out, in a case study, of an

international hotel chain in England that organisations prefer some jobs in hotels to be occupied by women, such as reception and the sales and marketing department, because of their appearance and their display of sexuality. Moreover, to provide the impression of being at home, for example, an older waitress. According to Magablih (2000), one of the leading experts on tourism and hospitality in Jordan, there should be a quota system and equal opportunity required by new legislation on recruitment and selection in the tourism industry to enable women to share work fairly with their male counterparts in tourism and hospitality activities.

The ratio of men and women workforce is not equal. A study conducted in China by Yafang and Gongyong (2008) indicated that the females are more inclined towards opting hospitality as career than of males owing to their positive perception towards the industry.

Most of the researchers found in their study that there is no significant difference in the perception of Male and female respondents Aksu and Ko (2005), Akıs and Öztin (2007), Josiam et al. (2010), Brown (2011), elcuk et al (2013) Airey and Frontistis, (1997), Cothran and Combrink, (1999) also show in their respective studies that different motivational factors are there to study. Hospitality and Tourism depends on the nationality and ethnicity of students. Various researches revealed the gender differences on factors that facilitate and constrain women's career advancement.

Brownell (1994) in his survey, found that out of ten factors that relate to the importance of career elated activities, only mentoring was found to be significantly different by gender, where it was more important to males than females respondents.

2.11 Family Work Conflict

Also to consider is gender differences in family-work conflict. Family-work conflict is a source of stress that can affect an individual's work productivity, emotional and physical well-being, as well as parenting performance (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). Even thoughmore women are working full time and there is a sharp increase in dual earning couples today, society still holds traditional gender specific perceptions of work and family responsibilities (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). This view can create a unique stress for women who are compelled to balance work and family life effectively, almost to impossible standards. Dusbury's and Higgins (1991) study reports that a redistribution of family responsibilities within the home has not occurred, despite the redistribution of responsibilities outside the home. What this means is that, women still have all the responsibilities of the home, with the added bread-winning responsibilities. Other researchers have also found that women receive less support from family than men in their respective fields (Mallincrodt& Leong, 1992). This can be particularly stressful to handle when women are involved in male dominated occupations which are notorious for investing more time and resources to the organization rather than their home life.

2.12 Motivation

From all the problems outlined by the literature above, one might wonder the motivation for men to enter a female dominated industry like hospitality. Motivation is said to be the identification of a physiological and psychological need which triggers or activates a behavior that is aimed at achieving a goal. So the question then is, what exactly is motivation? Making reference to a majority of Dictionaries, motivation is defined as:

[v.] to provide with a motive or motives; incite; impel. ··

S: (n) **motivation**, motive, need (the psychological feature that arouses an organism to action toward a desired goal; the reason for the action; that which gives purpose and direction

To behavior) "we did not understand his motivation";"heated with the best of motives"

··S:(n) **motivation** (the condition of being motivated) "his motivation was at a high level"

··S: (n) **motivation**, Motivating (the act of motivating; Providing incentive)

Motivation refers to "the reasons underlying behavior" (Guay et al., 2010). Paraphrasing Gredler, Broussard and Garrison (2004) broadly define motivation as "the attribute that moves us to do or not to do something" (p. 106). Intrinsic motivation is motivation that is animated by personal enjoyment, interest, or pleasure. As Deci et al. (1999) observe, "intrinsic motivation energizes and sustains activities through the spontaneous satisfactions inherent in effective volitional action. It is manifest in behaviors such as play, exploration, and challenge seeking that people often do for external rewards" (p. 658).

According to Emily Lai, 2011, motivation refers to reasons that underlie behavior that is characterized by willingness and volition. Intrinsic motivation is animated by personal enjoyment, interest, or pleasure, whereas extrinsic motivation is governed by reinforcement contingencies. Motivation involves a constellation of closely related beliefs, perceptions, values, interests, and actions. Motivation within individuals tends to vary across subject areas, and this domain specificity increases with age. Motivation in children predicts motivation later in life, and the stability of this relationship strengthens with age. Traditionally, educators consider intrinsic motivation to be more desirable and to result in better learning outcomes than extrinsic motivation. In general, children appear to enter school with high levels of intrinsic motivation, although motivation tends to decline as children progress through school (Emily Lai, 2011).

2.13 Theoretical Approaches to Motivation.

According to Stipek (1996), early approaches to the study of motivation were rooted in the literature on extrinsic reinforcement. Within this literature, all behavior, including achievement, was believed to be governed by reinforcement contingencies. Proponents of this approach included B.F. Skinner, who identified different types of reinforcers. Positive reinforcers, or rewards, are consequences that increase the probability of a given behavior they were made contingent on, whereas negative reinforcers are consequences that increase the probability of a given behavior by removing or reducing some negative external stimulus. Punishment, on the other hand, refers to unpleasant consequences that decrease the probability of a given behavior. Under this framework, the teacher's job is

clear: to use good grades and praise to reward desired behavior and bad grades or loss of privileges as punishment, (Lai, 2011).

As Stipek (1996) explains, the limitations of extrinsic reinforcement led to the development of new approaches to motivate people, including cognitive behavior modification (CBM). This approach recognizes that the effects of reward contingencies are mediated by cognitive variables, such as verbal ability. Thus, the goal of CBM is to change overt behavior by manipulating cognitive processes. Under this approach, students take more responsibility for their own learning by monitoring their behavior, setting goals, deploying metacognitive strategies, and administering their own rewards. According to Lai, (2011), due to limitations and changing perpectives, another litreture on motivation merged in the 70s and 80s. This third-wave literature is characterized by the belief that behavior is affected by cognition rather than the consequences of one's actions (Stipek, 1996). Broussard and Garrison (2004) observe that contemporary motivation research tends to be organized around three questions:

- Can I do this task?

- Do I want to do this task and why?

- What do I have to do to succeed in this task?

2.13.1 Can I do this task?

As Broussard and Garrison note, those pursuing the first question developed a range of new theories regarding self-efficacy, attributions, and self-worth. Bandura (1982) defines perceived self-efficacy as "judgments of how well one can execute courses of action

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required to deal with prospective situations" (p. 122). Eccles and Wigfield (2002) elaborate on Bandura's description, defining self-efficacy as an individual's confidence in his or her "ability to organize and execute a given course of action to solve a problem or accomplish a task" (p. 110). According to Bandura's (1982) self-efficacy theory, efficacy is the major determinant of effort, persistence, and goal setting. Empirical research supports this notion, suggesting that individuals with higher self-efficacy tend to be more motivated and successful on a given task (Pintrich&DeGroot, 1990). Self-efficacy has also been associated with the use of cognitive strategies, and self-efficacy perceptions predict achievement over and above actual ability levels (Pintrich&DeGroot, 1990).

Another line of inquiry in the field of motivation explores the issue of locus of control. According to this theory, individuals should be more motivated to the extent that they feel they are in control of their own successes and failures (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002). In fact, in one formulation of control theory, autonomy is one of three basic psychological needs, along with competence and relatedness. Within this framework, individual differences in the extent to which these basic needs are fulfilled correspond to variation in levels of motivation (Connell & Wellborn, 1991, as cited in Eccles&Wigfield, 2002). Locus of control is closely related to the concept of attributions. Attributions refer to an individual's beliefs regarding causes of successful or failing performance (Lai, 2011).

There are several types of attributions, including ability, effort, task, and luck. According to attribution theory, the types of attributions a person holds determine his or her level of motivation according to whether the cause is perceived as something that is changeable and within the person's control (Weiner, 1985, as cited in Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). For example, native ability is a relatively stable characteristic that is difficult to affect. On the other hand, effort is within a person's control and is entirely manipulatable. Both task characteristics and luck are outside one's control and tend to be variable. Thus, poor performance on a task is more likely to contribute to reduced effort and motivation for those holding ability attributions than for those holding effort attributions because failing performance for the former group communicates a lack of ability that may be difficult to change, whereas failure for the latter group communicates that success is within reach if more effort is expended, (Lai, 2011).

2.13.2 Do I want to do this task?

A separate body of research within the study of motivation has focused on answering the question, Do I want to do this task and why? Under this category, Broussard and Garrison (2004) include expectancy-value theories, intrinsic motivation theories, and self-determination theory. One strand of this literature focuses on the values individuals hold for participating in various types of activities (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002). Values are incentives or reasons for engaging in an activity. The value of a given task or activity has four components: attainment value, which refers to the personal value of doing well on a task; intrinsic value, which refers to subjective interest or enjoyment of performing a task; utility value, which refers to the extent to which task completion is perceived to

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facilitate current or future goals; and cost, which refers to the negative aspects of engaging in a given task, such as anxiety and fear of failure (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002; Stipek, 1996).

The notion of intrinsic motivation is closely related to intrinsic value. Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation that is animated by personal enjoyment, interest, or pleasure, and is usually contrasted with extrinsic motivation, which is manipulated by reinforcement contingencies (Guay et al., 2010). Typically, manipulation of extrinsic motivation is effected by the provision of rewards, which can be either tangible (e.g., money, grades, privileges, etc.) or intangible (e.g., praise). However, extrinsic motivation can come about by other means. For example, self-determination theory distinguishes several different types of regulatory mechanisms that can act as reinforcement. External regulation corresponds to the lowest level of self-determination, where behavior is motivated by a desire for reward or punishment avoidance. Introjected regulation occurs when behavior is driven by internal pressures such as obligation or guilt. Under identified regulation, individuals identify with or find personally important the reasons for performing an activity. Finally, under integrated regulation, the regulator is actually consistent with an individual's other values and needs and becomes part of one's self-identity. This latter type of regulation is the closest to intrinsic motivation (Guay et al., 2010). Educators typically consider intrinsic motivation to be more desirable than extrinsic motivation, and some research suggests that the learning outcomes of intrinsic motivation are better than those obtained under extrinsic motivation (Ryan, Connell, and Plant, 1990).

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2.13.3 What do I have to do to succeed at this task?

A third strand of contemporary motivation research has focused on the question, what do I have to do to succeed in this task? Broussard and Garrison (2004) argue that this strand of research led to the development of self-regulation and volition theories, which both share an attempt to connect motivation with cognition. For example, self-regulated learners have been shown to use a variety of strategies, have high self-efficacy, and set goals for themselves. Self-regulated learners also monitor their own activities, evaluate their performance, and experience reactions to evaluation outcomes. The valence of a person's reaction to evaluation depends on the way that successes and failures are framed, with positive reactions more likely to spur increased motivation than negative ones. Thus, self-regulation theory postulates that individuals can fortify their own motivation by engaging in a number of self-regulatory strategies, such as setting appropriate and achievable goals, applying learning strategies, and monitoring and and experience reactions to evaluation outcomes, (Lai, 2011)

Similarly, Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2002) offer a model of the relationship between motivation and cognition that incorporates students' prior achievement, social aspects of the learning setting, motivational variables (e.g., expectancies and values), and cognitive variables (background knowledge, learning strategies, metacognition, and self-regulation). This model depicts motivation as both affecting and being affected by cognition, and both of these are, in turn, affected by social context. The model also portrays cognition and motivation as affecting academic engagement and achievement. Finally, Corno (1993) proposes volition theory, defining volition as strength of will, akin

to conscientiousness, discipline, self-direction, resourcefulness, and striving. Corno argues that the effect of motivation on behavior is mediated by volition. In other words, motivation may lead to a decision to act, but volition is what determines whether those decisions are implemented. Whereas motivation helps to determines goals, volition supports management and execution of those goals.

From the above theoretical approaches to motivation, one can make an inference that, men who chose to work in the hospitality industry may be motivated by factors such as interest, situation, monetaryreward, ability etc.

Education and perception

The one continuing purpose of education, since ancient times, has been to bring people to as full a realization as possible of what it is to be a human being. Other statements of educational purpose have also been widely accepted: to develop the intellect, to serve social needs, to contribute to the economy, to create an effective work force, to prepare students for a job or career, to promote a particular social or political system. These purposes offered are undesirably limited in scope, and in some instances they conflict with the broad purpose I have indicated; they imply a distorted human existence. The broader humanistic purpose includes all of them, and goes beyond them, for it seeks to encompass all the dimensions of human experience (Foshay, 1991).

According to Margaret Ammons (1964) the purpose of education has changed from that of producing a literate society to that of producing a learning society. From the above, it

can be noted that education as we know it, goes a long way in shaping our perceptions about the world in terms of work, our intellect and our view of the society as a whole. From conversations with colleagues, most people believe that an educated person is generally more receptive to certain things that culture which plays a major role in shaping people and societies in general might frown upon. Even though education plays a multifaceted role in shaping our views, sometimes the pull of cultures and norms supersedes the pull of the world wide view that education seeks to impact. In the Ghanaian society, it is generally accepted that the educated or literate population are more ready to accept things that sometime back was viewed as wrong in terms of culture whiles the illiterate or less educated are more likely to reject things that do not conform to what their culture and society practice. It is the hope of the researcher that, at the conclusion of the study, more will be light thrown on the extent of education or literacy and illiteracy on the perception of people when it comes to men working in the hospitality industry (Field Survey, 2017).

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Research is undertaken in other to find out things in a systematic manner, thereby making researchers increase in knowledge. The obvious function of research is to add to existing store of knowledge and sometimes remove inappropriate and/or inapplicable theory Agyadu et al 2011). According to Bouma and Atkinson 1995 scientific research is a process by which questions are sharpend or focused a process by which data are gathered in such a way that we can begin to answer questions we asked. This chapter provides an outline of the research methods employed and identifies the processes of collecting and analyzing data for the study.

3.2 Study Area

Ho municipality is the area selected for the investigation. The choice of Ho is influenced by the cosmopolitan nature of the area and the fact that the hospitality industries are predominant and growing at a fast rate. This allows for the gathering of data from people of different background and it enables the researcher to do in-depth analysis.

3.3 Research Design

The overall plan employed by a researcher to obtain answers to research questions is termed as research design. Both qualitative and quantitative designs method of research were adopted and used. The qualitative design used was interview while the quantitative aspect used involved a survey employing the questionnaire instrument. The survey is

economical and practical in terms of resources, time and effort. This assertion is supported by Bulmer and Warwick 1993 who established the advantage of survey as providing extensive quantitative data relatively cheaper while broad generalization can be made from relatively smaller number of observation as long as probability sampling methods are used. These two designs are combined to form a fusion of the strengths, which the two methods hold, and this is what Bryman (2008) refers to as mixed methods. This method is used to understand the meanings, to describe and understand experience, ideas, beliefs and values. Mixed method allows comprehensive analysis as views and opinions derived from the qualitative study is complemented by quantitative data. Thus, the quantitative approach provides the advantage of explaining reality numerically, with emphasis on measurement and relationship between variables, as well as a faster analysis of field data, the qualitative approach provides a phenomenological view of the research problem from the subjects themselves.

3.4 Target Population

The target population for this research is all customers and staff in the hospitality industry in the Ho Metropolis and for the purpose of this study, the researcher chose a number of respondents from each of the selected hotels within the metropolis as indicated.

The reason the researcher chose the under listed number of respondents from the various hotels as recorded by the Ghana Tourism Authority in the Ho Metropolis was that conducting the research on all the respondents would be impracticable and would also take a lot of time. Since the reseacher is bound by time to complete this desertation and to

also meet other academic requirements therefore necessitated the choice of these number of respondents as indicated by Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Name of hospitality industries and of respondents sampled

Name of hospitality industry	Number of Respondents Sampled
Chances Hotel	25
Freedom Hotel	35
Sky Plus Hotel	35
Hotel Stevens	35
Lawnia Hotel	35
Taurus Hotel	35
Total Number of Respondents Sampled	**200**

3.5 Sample Size

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, 200 respondents were selected to participate in this study after the objective is explained to them. Out of the total number, one hundred and fifty (150) respondents thus both males and females were selected from the public (customers), Twenty-five (25) females and twenty-five (25) males in the industry were also selected for the study. The respondents were drawn from six hotels comprising a 3-star, 2-star and a 1-star all being licensed hotels. For this study, 50 customers and 20 staff were selected from the three (3)-Star and Fifty (50) customers and eleven (15) staff each from the two (2) and One (1) Star hotels respectively.

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3.6 Sampling Technique

This study used both non probability and probability sampling techniques. The simple random sampling techniques was used under the probability sampling technique. The non-probability sampling techniques was used because; the prime objective of this study was to obtain relevant information about the phenomenon in real terms. There are varied non-probability sampling techniques. These include accidental or convenience, purposive or judgemental, snowballing or targeting quota sampling, deviant case sampling, sequential sampling among others. However, for the purpose of this study those employed were snowballing or targeting and purposive or judgemental. These were considered the most appropriate because they helped the researcher access the total number of respondents (customers). Neuman (2007:144) opines that snowball sampling which is also referred to as Network, Chain referral or reputational sampling is a method used for identifying and sampling the cases in a network. Similarly, Noy (2008) attests that in order to make a sample of a specific group of respondents, the researcher has to rely on the assistance of one informant to get other informants to be interviewed.

Simple random sampling on the other hand helps the researcher to select from the population. Freankel et al (2012) state that in random sampling, every member of the population presumably had an equal chance of being selected.

3.7 Instruments for Data collection

The study employed structured questionnaire and semi structured interview guide as the main tool for data collection. This was exerted for the reason that, large amount of data needs to be collected within a short possible time; the researcher gets the liberty of

sighting the situation on the ground. Again, the method was used because it permits for an easy analysis of collected data. The questionnaire administered was both open and close ended questions. An in-depth interview was used to augment the data collected with the questionnaire.

3.7.1 Questionnaire

Structured questionnaire was used to help in the collection of data. This was used for the customers and workers in the Metropolis. This tool is effective for collecting both quantitative and qualitative data, hence, its adoption.

Key informants according to Kumar (1999) are specific group of individuals. They are people with in depth knowledge on the perception of male employees in the industry. And in this case, the key informants were the customers.

The structured questionnaires for the customers consists of four parts. The first part contained the background data of the respondents (socio-demographic characteristics), the perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry, the factors that influence the perceptions and the factors that motivate males to take appointment in the hospitality industry.

3.7.2 Interview

There are various kinds of interview and it is expedient to use a kind that will have relations with the structure and the kind of data that will provide appropriate results. In view of the above statement, semi structured interview guide was used for the workers in the hospitality industry.

3.8 Validity of the Research Instruments

Validity is defined by Creswell (2008), as the individual's scores from an instrument that make sense and are meaningful and enable a researcher to draw good conclusions from the sample study of the population. It seeks to determine whether the instrument measure what is intended to measure.

Aikenhead (2005), states that the quality of the research instrument is determined by its validity. To ensure content validity, the questionnaire as well as the interview guide were presented to my colleagues and supervisor who provided expert advice and contributed to enhance validity of the instrument. The results was also analysed to determine the content validity of the instrument. Based on the feedback, the necessary modifications were made and that determined that the instrument had content validity for the study.

3.9 Reliability of the Research Instruments

Gott, Duggan & Robert (2003), refers to reliability as the consistency of data when multiple measurements are gathered. This means that,the scores from an instrument should be stable and consistent. To determine the reliability of the instruments of the study, the questionnaire as well as the interview guide were pilot-tested.

3.10 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher briefed the respondents of the purpose of the survey. It was done by taking them through the questionnaire. The questionnaire were distributed to the respondents who could read and write. Those who could not read nor write were interviewed by the researcher reading out the questions and explaining to them. The

researcher gave the respondents who could read some days to work on it and follow ups were done to retrieve them.

3.11 Data Analysis

After the administration and retrieval of the questionnaire, the coding of the questionnaire was the first thing done to the the quantitative data. The responses from the questionnaire or quantitative data and the semi-structured interview guide also known as qualitative were organised and analysed using the software known as Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. The coded responses were therefore cleaned and screened to remove errors from the data. The data was analysed in line with the objectives of the study and was based on the meaning expressed through word and by classifying the data into meaningful categories. Descriptive statistics including some of the measures of central tendencies such as mean was employed to describe the data. Other descriptive statistics used in analysing the data included frequency tables, bar charts, and figures.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter the researcher gathered data from selected customers and staff of the selected hotels in the study in relation to the objectives of the study and present the findings of the study accordingly.

The data obtained using the research instruments were analyzed and presented in the form of tables and figures and discussions made on the findings in relation to the existing literature of the study. The sample population for the study was 150 participants with about 97% response rate constituting 145 respondents due to challenges the researcher had in retrieving all the questionnaires. The results are therefore presented and discussed as below.

4.1 Presentation and Discussion of Data from Educated Customers of the Hospitality Industry

This section of the chapter presents the personal data of respondents or the demographic characteristics of the educated public customers of the survey. The particular areas of interest to the researcher under this section were the gender of respondents, their respective age groups, and respondents highest level of education as presented below.
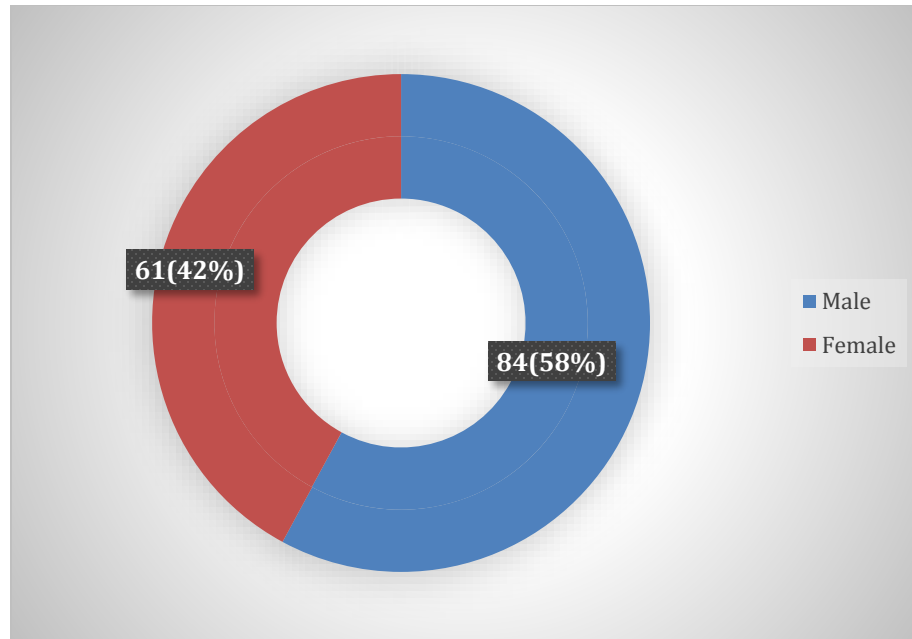
Figure 4.1 Gender of the respondents

With regards to the gender of the respondents, it showed that out of the 145 respondents, 84 of them representing 58% were males whiles the remaining 61 respondents made of about 42% were females who responded to the questionnaire meant for the educated public customers. Table 4.1 shows the age group distribution of respondents.

Table 4.1 Age Group Distribution of Respondents

	Age (years)	Frequency	Percent
Valid	< 20	7	4.8
	20-30	19	13.1
	31-40	36	24.8
	41-50	53	36.6
	51-60	20	13.8
	> 60	10	6.9
	Total	**145**	**100.0**

The results revealed that out of the total number of respondents, 7 (5%) of them were below 20 years, 19 (13%) of the respondents were between 20-30 years, 36 (25%) were between 31-40 years, whiles 53 (37%) of them were between 41-50 years, 20 (14%) of the respondents were between 51-60 years and only 10 (7%) of them were above 60 years. These results meant that most of the respondents thus 53 (37%) of them were between 41-50 years, followed by 36 (25.0%) of the respondents who were between 31-40 years who took part in the study. Figure 4.2 shows the educational level of respondents.
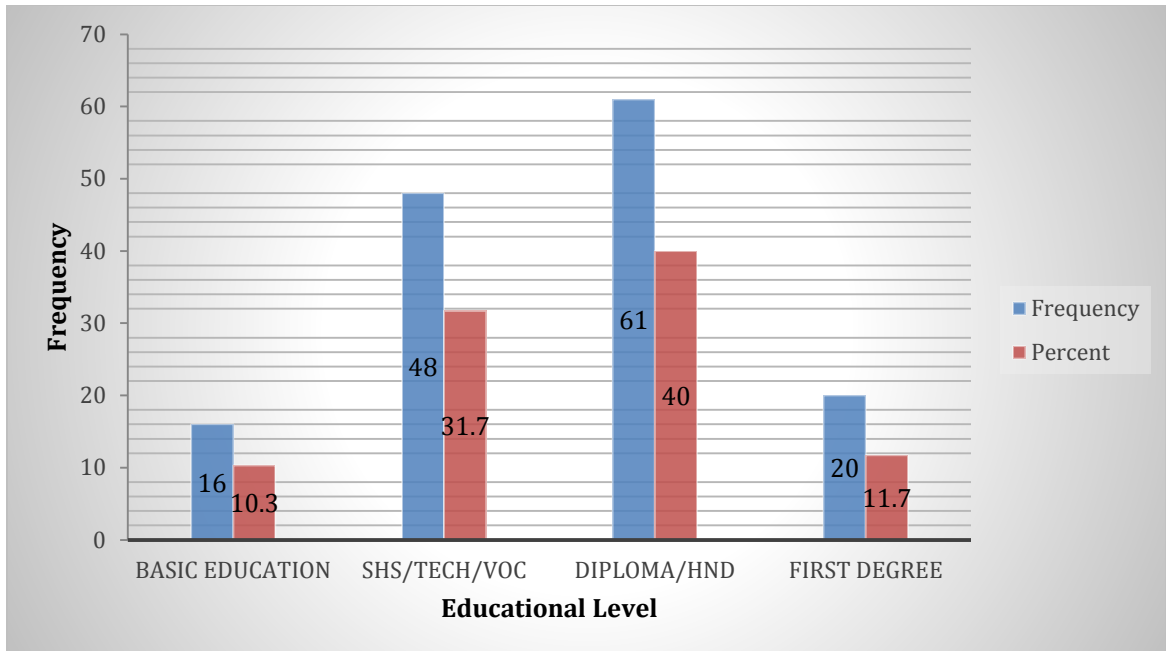
Figure 4.2 Respondents Educational Level

With regards to the educational level or status of respondents as displayed in Figure 4.2, 16 (10.3%) respondents had Basic education, 48 (31.7%) of them either Senior High School/Technical/Vocational (SHS/TECH/VOC) certificate, followed by 61 (40.0%) indicated that they were Diploma/HND holders, whiles 20 (11.7%) were First degree holders as their highest educational qualification.

The results therefore shows that 61 respondents made of 40% were Diploma/Higher National Diploma or HND holders followed by 48 of them representing 32% of them either Senior High School/Technical/Vocational (SHS/TECH/VOC) certificate with 20 of the respondents constituting about 12% who were First degree holders.

4.2 Public Perception on Male Employees in the Hospitality Industry

This section presents the views of respondents on public perception about male employees in the hospitality industry as presented by Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Public Perception on Male Employees in the Hospitality Industry using Descriptive Statistics

Public Perception Variables	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Males are hardworking in the hospitality industry than females	145	1.00	2.00	1.34	0.47
Males have taken the work of females by working in the hospitality industry	145	1.00	2.00	1.62	0.49
The services of males are needed in the hospitality industry	145	1.00	2.00	1.37	0.48
Males enter into the hospitality industry the same way as their female counterparts	145	1.00	2.00	1.41	0.49
People prefer male chefs to female chefs	145	1.00	2.00	1.35	0.48
Valid N (listwise)	**145**				

Table 4.2 presents public perception on male employees in the hospitality industry using the five-point Likert Scale. The results were presented using a Descriptive Statistics and the scoring key: N=Number of respondents, Min=Minimum value, Max=Maximum value, Mean and Std Devtn=Standard Deviation.

In determining the public perception on male employees in the hospitality industry using descriptive statistics as shown above, it revealed that most of the respondents indicated Yes to the question that males in the hospitality industry are hardworking than their female counterpart than those who stated No to the question with a mean value of 1.34. Again, in finding out the views of respondents on the perception that, males have taken the work of females by working in the hospitality industry, most of the respondents stated No to the question instead of Yes with a mean value of 1.62. This meant that the respondents are of the view that though males have ventured into the hospitality industry, they have not taken up the work of females by working in the hospitality industry.

Moreso, the question that states that the services of males are needed in the hospitality industry shows that most of the respondents indicated Yes to the question that the services of males are needed in the hospitality industry which recorded a mean value of 1.37.

In addition to that, on whether males enter the hospitality industry so as to compete with their female counterparts, it showed that most of the respondents stated Yes to the

question that males enter the hospitality industry so as to compete with their female counterparts with a mean value of 1.41.

Finally, on whether people prefer male chefs to female chefs, it appears that most of the respondents stated Yes to the question indicating that they were of the view that people prefer male chefs to female chefs in the hospitality industry which recorded a mean value of 1.35.

The results on the public perception on male employees in the hospitality industry revealed that most of the respondents indicated Yes to questions such as that; males in the hospitality industry are hardworking than their female counterpart. The services of males are needed in the hospitality industry, that males also enter the hospitality industry so as to compete with their female counterparts and finally, that people prefer male chefs to female chefs.

The above findings disagree with the study by the Social Sciences and Reproductive Health Research Network, (1999) in Nigeria that found that masculinity and manhood are constructed through a gradual, timely, and orderly process, of socially prescribed, family centered and community related roles and responsibilities. That the extent of these (male) focused roles is, to a large extent, undertaken by women at the household level, where primary socialization takes place. Boys are taught by their mothers and shown by their fathers how to be a man and they are excused from performing 'female' tasks around the house.

4.3 Factors Influencing People Perceptions on Male Workers in the Hospitality

Industry

This section presents the views of respondents on the factors influencing people

perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry as presented by Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Factors influencing people perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry using Descriptive Statistics

Factors Influencing People Perception Variables	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Devtn
Culture influences people's perceptions in the hotel Industry.	145	1.00	5.00	4.17	0.91
Nature and nurture in Ghanaian society influences perceptions People have on males in the hospitality industry.	145	2.00	5.00	4.16	0.87
Gender bias influences people's perceptions on males in the Hospitality industry.	145	1.00	5.00	3.91	1.12
Peoples educational level influences their perceptions on	145	1.00	5.00	4.03	1.10
Valid N (listwise)	145				

Table 4.3 presents the views of respondents on the factors influencing people perceptions

on male workers in the hospitality industry using the five-point Likert Scale. The results

were presented using a Descriptive Statistics and the scoring key: N=Number of

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respondents, Min=Minimum value, Max=Maximum value, Mean and Std Devtn=Standard Deviation.

In determining whether culture influences peoples' perceptions about males working in the hotel Industry, it revealed that most of the respondents agreed that culture influences peoples' perceptions on male working in the hotel Industry with a mean value of 4.17 and a standard deviation value of 0.91.

On whether nature and nurture in Ghanaian society influences perceptions of people on males in the hospitality industry, most of the respondents clearly agree to the point that nurture in Ghanaian society influences perceptions of people on males in the hospitality industry with a mean and standard deviation values of 4.17 and 0.87 respectively.

Again, on whether gender bias influences people's perceptions on males in the Hospitality industry it recorded a mean value of 3.91 and a standard deviation value of 1.12 indicating that the respondents were not emphatic with the point that gender bias influences people's perceptions on males in the Hospitality industry.

Finally, in finding out whether peoples educational level influences their perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry, most of the respondents agreed that peoples' educational level influences their perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry with a mean and standard deviation values of 4.03 and 1.11 respectively.

With regards to the factors influencing people perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry as presented by Table 4.3, the findings revealed that most of the respondents agreed that culture influences people perceptions on male working in the hotel industry with a mean value of 4.17 and that nature and nurture in Ghanaian society also influences the perceptions of people on males in the hospitality industry.

On how gender bias influences people's perceptions on males in the Hospitality industry it recorded a mean value of 3.91 meaning that most of the respondents were not emphatic or stated neutral in response to the question.

The results finally showed that peoples' educational level influences their perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry with a mean value of 4.03.

The above findings on the factors influencing people perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry agrees with this line of argument stressed in the work of Lupton (2000) which was essentially on how masculinity is defined. He maintained and challenged the occupations in organizations. He argued that masculinity might be regarded as a role that is socially performed enacted and reproduced through discourse which can be performed by both men and women, is subject to change over time and, on account of its dynamic nature can be studied through observation of action and interpretation of discourse upon which people can take different decisions deemed suitable to them (Kvande 1998).

4.4 What Motivates Males to Take Up Jobs in the Hospitality Industry?

This section presents the views of respondents on what motivate males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry as presented by Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 What motivates males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry

Variables on What motivates males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry	SD	D	N	A	SA	M	StD
Passion informs males decision to take up job in the hospitality industry	7	17	40	57	24	3.54	1.02
The working environment in the hospitality industry motivates males to take employment in the industry.	----	16	11	56	62	4.13	0.97
Males orientation at home motivates them to take up employment.	14	35	31	28	37	3.27	1.33
Males enter the hospitality industry so as to compete with their female counterparts.	-----	25	51	52	17	3.41	0.92

Table 4.4 was presented using the scoring key: (1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2=Disagree (D), 3=Neutral (N), 4=Agree (A), 5=Strongly Agree (SA), M=Mean and StD=Standard Deviation.

In finding out what motivated males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry, the results show that passion informs males decision to take up jobs in the hospitality industry with a mean value of approximately 4.00 (3.54) and most of them also agreed that it was the working environment in the hospitality industry that motivated males to take employment in the industry having a mean value and standard deviation values of 4.13 and 0.97 respectively.

The results further revealed that the respondents were not sure or neutral on the points that; it was passion that inform males decision to take up job in the hospitality industry, that males orientation at home motivates them to take up employment in the hospitality industry, and that males enter the hospitality industry so as to compete with their female counterparts.

The findings agrees with Pickens (2005) that people are selective in what they perceive and tend to filter information based on the capacity to absorb new data in order to take any course of action based on their motivation combined with preconceived thoughts.

4.5 The Perception of Male Workers in the Hospitality Industry

In comparing the responses of the educated and uneducated staff on the perception of male workers in the hospitality industry using Sample T-Test as in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Educated and Uneducated Staff on the Perception of Male Workers in the Hospitality Industry using One-Sample Test

Variables on educated and uneducated staff on the perception of male workers in the hospitality industry	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Males are hardworking in the hospitality industry than females	33.94	144	0.00	1.34	1.26	1.42
Males have taken the work of females by working in the hospitality industry	**40.08**	144	0.00	**1.62**	1.54	1.70
The services of males are needed in the hospitality industry	34.03	144	0.00	1.37	1.29	1.45
Males enter into the hospitality industry the same way as their female counterparts	34.45	144	0.00	1.41	1.33	1.49
People prefer male chefs to female chefs	33.97	144	0.00	1.35	1.27	1.43
Males are hardworking in the hospitality industry than females	34.17	144	0.00	1.39	1.31	1.47
Males have taken the work of females by working in the hospitality industry	**41.07**	144	**0.00**	**1.64**	1.56	1.72
The services of males are needed in the hospitality industry	34.23	144	0.00	1.39	1.31	1.47
Males enter into the hospitality industry the same way as their female counterparts	34.83	144	0.00	1.44	1.36	1.52
People prefer male chefs to female chefs	34.29	144	0.00	1.40	1.32	1.48

By examining the One-Sample Test, one can deduce that both the educated staff and uneducated staff sampled stated emphatically No to the question that Males have taken the work of females by working in the hospitality industry with their t-values and mean

difference values 40.08 (1.62) and 41.07 (1.64) respectively and is statistically significant with their p-values <0.05.

Again, the t-value is significant (p<0.05) and therefore it can be concluded that the educated respondents indicated Yes to the question and is statistically significantly different from the uneducated respondents. Inspection of the means suggest that the educated staff responded more on Yes that males are hardworking in the hospitality industry than females than the uneducated respondents sampled with t(144)= 33.94, p,0.05 and t(144)= 34.17, p<0.05 respectively.

In addition to that an inspection of the means suggest that the educated and uneducated staff responded Yes to the statements that; The services of males are needed in the hospitality industry, that males enter into the hospitality industry the same way as their female counterparts and the perception that people prefer male chefs to female chefs and are all statistically significant.

The above results agree with Ammons (1964) that the purpose of education has changed from that of producing a literate society to that of producing a learning society that education as we know it, goes a long way in shaping our perceptions about the world in terms of work, our intellect and our view of the society as a whole. The study further confirms that the extent of education or literacy and illiteracy on the perception of people when it comes to men working in the hospitality industry is changing day by day.

4.6 Results of Semi-Structured Interview Guide for Male and Female Staff in the Hospitality Industry

This section presents results obtained from the male and female staff of the selected hotels under the following; age group of male and female staff in the hospitality industry, educational level of staff in the hospitality industry under the study, their marital status, the grade of the selected hotels that the staff work in, the employment status of of the staff, the various departments that the staff work under and the average monthly income earned by male and female staff in the hospitality industry. This section also presented the views of the staff on what motivates males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry.

Table 4.6 Age group of Male and Female staff in the Hospitality Industry

Age group of Male Staff			Age group of Female Staff	
Age (years)	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
< 20	9	6.2	7	4.8
20-30	16	11.0	19	13.1
31-40	40	27.6	24	16.6
41-50	39	26.9	45	31.0
51-60	23	15.9	39	26.9
> 60	11	7.6	11	7.6
Total	**145**	**100.0**	**145**	**100.0**

Considering the age group of male and female staff in the hospitality industry we found out that 40 of the respondents made of 27.6% were between the age group of 31-40 years and 39 of them constituting 26.9% were between 41-50 years whiles with the female

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staff, there were 45 of the respondents made of 31.0% were between 41-50 years followed by 39 respondents made of 26.9% were within the age group of 51-60 years. The results therefore showed that there were more older female staff who took part in the study than their male counterparts.
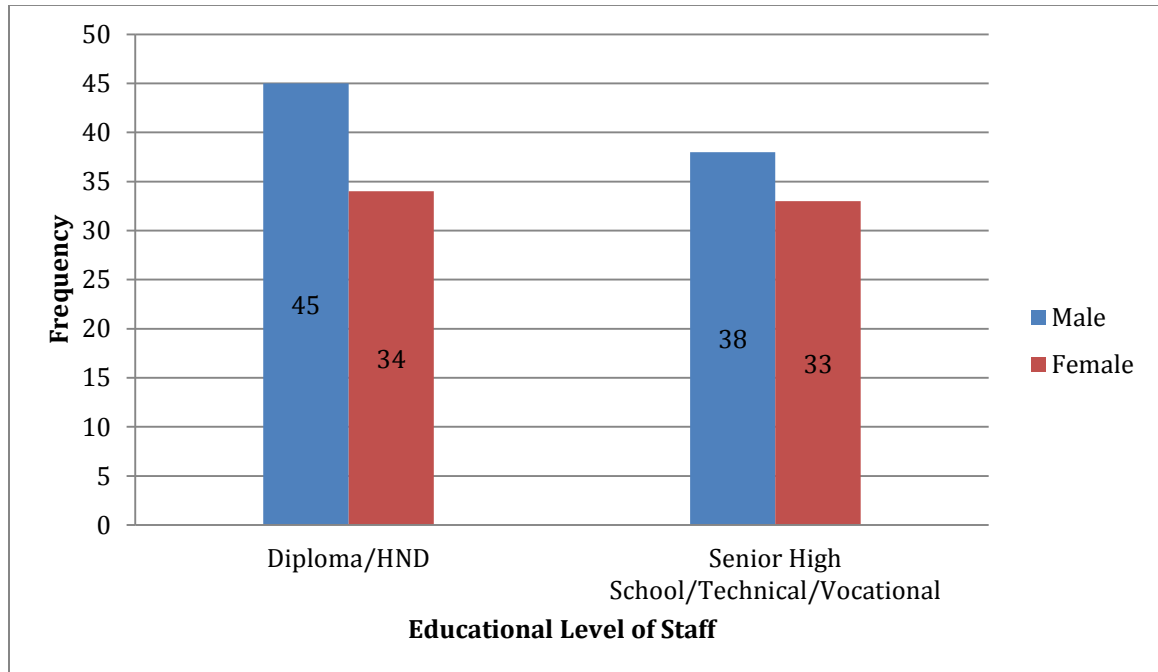
Figure 4.3. Educational Level of Male and Female Staff in the Hospitality Industry

Looking at the educational levels of the male and female staff who took part in the study, it revealed that the highest educational level of the respondents was Diploma/Higher National Diploma. With this 45 of the male staff had Diploma/Higher National Diploma and 34 of the female staff also had Diploma/Higher National Diploma. Again, the results also revealed that there were more female staff who had either Senior High School/Technical/Vocational School certificates than their male counterparts thus 38 for female staff and 33 for the male staff.

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Table 4.7 Marital status of Male and Female Staff in the Hospitality Industry

	Male staff		Female staff	
Options	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Single	71	48.9	60	41.4
Married	40	27.6	46	31.7
Widowed	14	9.7	16	11.0
Divorsed	20	13.8	23	15.9
Total	**145**	**100.0**	**145**	**100.0**

In finding out the marital status of male and female staff in the hospitality industry, the results show that 71 of the male staff made of 48.9% were single whiles 60 of the female staff constituting 41.4% were single.

Again, 40 of the male staff representing 27.6% indicated that they were married and 46 of the female staff of 31.7% also indicated that they were married. it can also be deduced that 14 male staff made of 9.7% were widowed, and 16 of the female staff constituting 11.0% were widowed whiles 20 of the male staff of 13.8% indicated that they were divorced and 23 of the female staff made of 15.9% also indicated that they were divorced.

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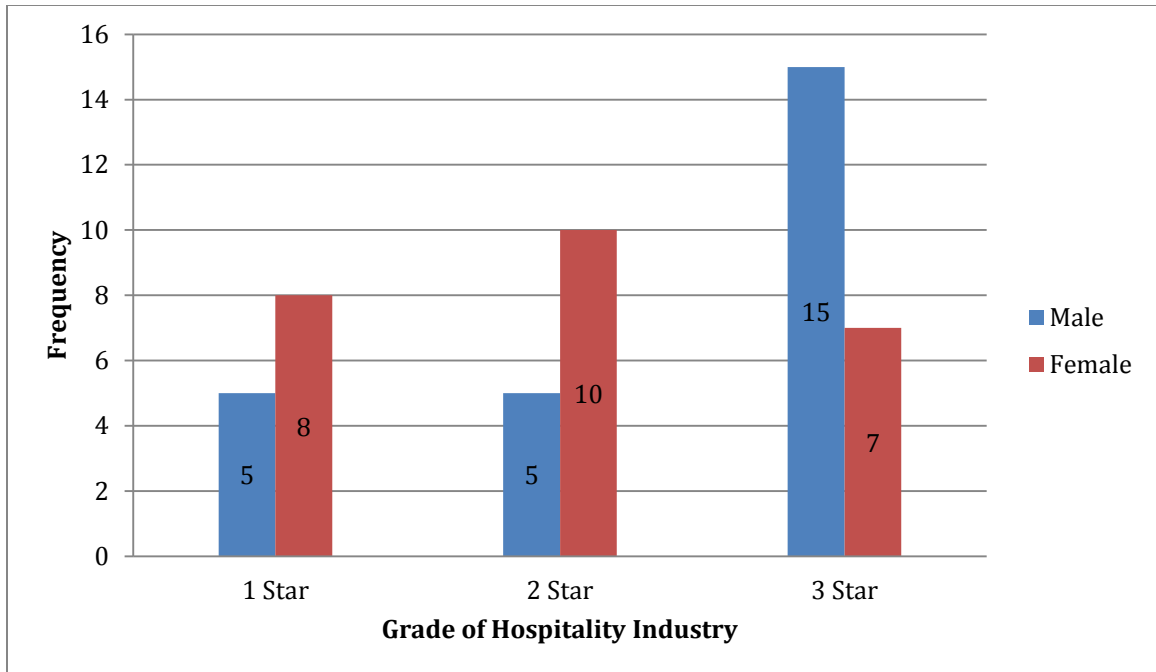
Figure 4.4 Grade of Hospitality Industry that Staff Served

The above results on the grade of hospitality industry that the staff served shows that 5 male staff and 8 female staff worked at one star hotel. With regards to the two star hotels, 5 male staff and 10 female staff worked in the hotels. Finally, 15 male staff and 7 female staff worked in three star hotels. The results therefore show that there were many male staff who worked in higher hotel grades, thus, three star hotels and in the hospitality industry than their female counterparts thus three star hotels.

Table 4.8 Employment status of respondents Male and Female Staff in the Hospitality Industry

	Options	Male Staff		Female Staff	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Casual worker	15	10.3	19	13.1
	Supervisor	21	14.5	21	14.5
	Manager	20	11.0	6	4.1
	Ordinary staff	93	64.2	99	68.3
	Total	**145**	**100.0**	**145**	**100.0**

On the employment status of respondents male and female staff in the hospitality industry, 93 of the male staff constituting 64.2% were ordinary staff whiles 99 of the female staff made of 68.3% indicated that they were ordinary staff. The results further revealed that there were more female casual workers than the male staff in the study.
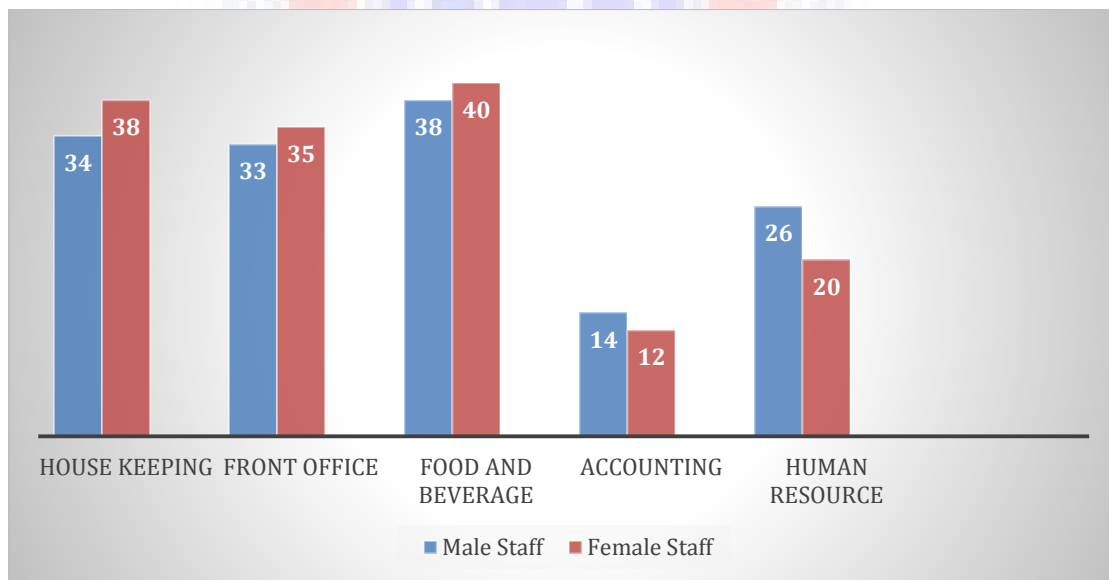
Figure 4.5 Departments of Male and Female Staff in the Hospitality Industry

Concerning the departments served by male and female staff in the hospitality industry and the results shows that 38 of the female staff work at the House keeping department whiles 34 of the male staff work there, whiles 35 female staff and 33 male staff also work at the Front office.

On Food and beverages department, 40 female staff work there 38 of the staff also work there. At the Accounting department, 14 male staff work there and the number of female staff were 12 and finally, with the Human Resource department it recorded 26 male staff and 20 female staff work there.

The above findings are in consonance with Linehan and Scullion (2001) that women held low skilled jobs and low paid positions due to selection and recruitment processes as well as informal and formal policies and processes, and that the main barrier preventing them from reaching senior managerial positions was the instilled negative perception in the organisation environment towards them (their gender), as is demonstrated by Biswas and Cassell (1996). It is therefore strange to see men engaged in purported female dominated activities since managerial positions are therefore seen as the preserve of men.

The results further agree with Biswas and Cassell (1996) that organisations prefer some jobs in hotels to be occupied by women, such as reception and the sales and marketing department, because of their appearance and their display of sexuality.

Table 4.9 Average Monthly Income of Staff in the Hospitality Industry

Income (GH¢	Male Staff		Female Staff	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
No official income	3	2.1	5	3.4
< 300.00	37	25.5	39	26.9
300.00-500.00	58	40.0	60	41.4
500.00 >	47	32.4	41	28.3
Total	**145**	**100.0**	**145**	**100.0**

In determining the average monthly income of male and female staff in the hospitality industry, it revealed that 37 of the male staff made of 25.5% had average monthly income of less than GH¢300.00 and 39 of the female staff made of 26.9% earned Average monthly income of less than GH¢300.00.

Again, 58 of the male staff constituting 40.0% stated that they earned average monthly income of between GH¢300.00-GH¢500.00 followed by their female counterparts of 60 respondents made of 41.4% also indicated that their average monthly income was between GH¢300.00-GH¢500.00.

The results further shows that 47 of the male staff made of 32.4% indicated that their average monthly income was GH¢500.00 and above and 41 female staff made of 28.3% also indicated that their average monthly income was GH¢500.00 and above.

In finding out the average monthly income of male and female staff in the selected hospitality industries, the results showed that most of the male staff in the selected hospitality industries earned an average monthly income of between GH¢300.00-GH¢500.00 more than their female staff followed by those who earn an average monthly income of between GH¢500.00 and above.

This finding confirms several studies that demonstrated a disparate distribution of incomes between male and female employees in the hospitality industry, with females earning less than their male counterparts (Biswas & Cassell, 1996; Purcell 1996; Sparrowe & Iverson, 1999). Again, Sparrowe and Iverson(1999) Thrane (2007) indicated that there is gender-based income disparity which has been confirmed as a form of sex discrimination within the hospitality industry.

4.7 What Motivates Males to Take Up Jobs in the Hospitality Industry

This section presents the views of respondents on what motivates males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry using One-Sample Test.

Table 4.10 What Motivates Males to take up Jobs in the Hospitality Industry Using One-Sample Test

Variables on what motivates males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
				Test Value = 0	Lower	Upper
Males are hardworking in the hospitality industry than females	34.29	144	0.00	1.40	1.32	1.48
Males have taken the work of females by working in the hospitality industry	40.73	144	0.00	1.63	1.56	1.71
The services of males are needed in the hospitality industry	34.03	144	0.00	1.37	1.29	1.44
Males enter into the hospitality industry the same way as their female counterparts	37.89	144	0.00	1.57	1.48	1.65
People prefer male chefs to female chefs	35.14	144	0.00	1.23	1.16	1.29
Males are hardworking in the hospitality industry than females	33.95	144	0.00	1.34	1.27	1.42
Males have taken the work of females by working in the hospitality industry	38.14	144	0.00	1.57	1.49	1.65
The services of males are needed in the hospitality industry	36.08	144	0.00	1.50	1.42	1.59
Males enter into the hospitality industry the same way as their female counterparts	36.08	144	0.00	1.50	1.42	1.59
People prefer male chefs to female chefs	38.14	144	0.00	1.57	1.49	1.65

By comparing the views of male and female staff on what motivates males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry using One-Sample Test and by observing their mean differences, one can deduce that both male and female staff sampled stated emphatically

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'Yes' to the statements that males are hardworking in the hospitality industry than females, the services of males are needed in the hospitality industry, and that People prefer male chefs to female chefs.

Again, a careful examination of the mean difference values and their t-stattistics values shows that the both male and female staff of who responded to this questionnaire indicated No to the statements that Males have taken the work of females by working in the hospitality industry and are all statistically significant.

The results is in confirmaty with Guay et al., (2010) that motivation refers to the reasons underlying behavior. Paraphrasing Gredler, Broussard and Garrison (2004) broadly define motivation as "the attribute that moves us to do or not to do something" (p. 106). Intrinsic motivation is motivation that is animated by personal enjoyment, interest, or pleasure. As Deci et al. (1999) observed, "intrinsic motivation energizes and sustains activities through the spontaneous satisfactions inherent in effective volitional action. It is manifest in behaviors such as play, exploration, and challenge seeking that people often do for external rewards" and is what usually motivate most people to venture into some disciplines.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the main findings of the study, conclusions and recommendations and areas that call for further research.

5.1 Findings on the Demographic of Respondents

This demographic characteristic of the Educated Customers of the Hospitality Industry showed that 58% of them were males whiles the remaining 42% were females most of them made of 37% were between 41-50 years, followed by 25.0%) who were between 31-40 years. With regards to their educational level 40% of them were Diploma/Higher National Diploma or HND holders followed by 32% of them who either had Senior High School/Technical/Vocational (SHS/TECH/VOC) certificate.

5.2 Summary of Key Findings

The summary of the key findings for the study in accordance with the objectives are;

5.2.1 Findings on Public Perception on Male Employees in the Hospitality Industry

On the public perception on male employees in the hospitality industry, the results showed that most of the respondents agreed that;

- males in the hospitality industry are hardworking than their female counterpart.

- the services of males are needed in the hospitality industry,

- that males also enter the hospitality industry so as to compete with their female counterparts and finally, that people prefer male chefs to female chefs which agrees with existing literature.

5.2.2 Findings on Factors Influencing People Perceptions on Male Workers in the Hospitality Industry

The results on the factors influencing people perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry revealed that,

culture influences people perceptions on male working in the hotel industry with a mean value of 4.1724.

- nature and nurture in Ghanaian society influences perceptions of people on males working in the hospitality industry with a mean value of 4.1586.

- most of the respondents agreed that peoples educational level influence their perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry with a mean value of 4.0345.

- most respondents did not agree that gender bias influences peoples' perceptions on males working in the hospitality industry.

5.2.3 Findings on What Motivates Males to Take Up Jobs in the Hospitality Industry

The findings on what motivated males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry, shows that most of the respondents agree that; it was the working environment in the hospitality

industry that motivated males to take employment in the industry having a mean value of 4.1310.

The results also showed that males orientation at home motivate them to take up employment in the hospitality industry, and disagreed with the statement that males also enter the hospitality industry so as to compete with their female counterparts. The results further revealed that the respondents were neutral on the points that; it was passion that informed males' decision to take up jobs in the hospitality industry.

5.2.4 Findings on the Perception of Male Workers in the Hospitality Industry

In comparing the responses of the educated and uneducated staff on the perception of male workers in the hospitality industry using One Sample-Test, the results revealed the both educated and the uneducated staff disagree that males have taken the work of females by working in the hospitality industry and is statistically significant with their p-values <0.05.

Meanwhile, by inspecting the means, the educated staff responded 'Yes' to the point that males are hardworking in the hospitality industry than females than the uneducated respondents sampled with t(144)= 33.94, p,0.05 and t(144)= 34.17, p<0.05 respectively.

Again, by inspecting the means of the educated and uneducated staff, they both responded 'Yes' to the statements that; the services of males are needed in the hospitality industry,

males enter into the hospitality industry the same way as their female counterparts and that most people prefer male chefs to female chefs and are all statistically significant. This findings also confirmed the results of the semi-structured interview guide for male and female staff in the hospitality industry**.**

5.2.5 Findings on Results of Semi-Structured Interview Guide for Male and Female Staff in the Hospitality Industry

The findings under the age group showed that there were more older female staff who took part in the study than their male counterparts with more female staff who had either Senior High School/Technical/Vocational School certificates than their male counterparts thus 38 for female staff and 33 for the male staff.

On the marrital status of male and female staff in the hospitality industry, the results showed that about 49% of the male staff made were single whiles 44% of the female staff were also single. Again, 28% of the male staff were married and whiles about 32% of the female staff were married and there were more widowed and devorsed female staff than male staff.

The results further shows that there were more male staff who work in higher grades in the hospitality industry than their female counterparts thus four star and five star hotels.

On the employment status of male and female staff in the hospitality industry, 64% of them were ordinary staff whiles 68% of the female staff were ordinary staff, further revealed that there were more female casual workers than the male staff in the study.

Concerning the departments served by male and female staff 38 of the female staff work at the House keeping department as against 34 male staff whiles 35 female staff and 33 male staff also work at the Front office.

It was observed that 40 female staff work with the food and beverages department, and 38 as male staff. The male staff were more at the accounting department than female staff and that of the human resource department.

The findings on the average monthly income of male and female staff in the selected hospitality industries showed that most of the male staff in the selected hospitality industries earned an average monthly income of between GH¢300.00-GH¢500.00 more than their female staff followed by those who earn an average monthly income of between GH¢500.00 and above and confirms several studies in relation to this study.

5.2.6 Findings on What Motivates Males to Take Up Jobs in the Hospitality Industry

By comparing the views of male and female staff on what motivates males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry using One-Sample Test the results shows that both male and female staff sampled stated 'Yes' that;

- Males are hardworking in the hospitality industry than females, that the services of males are needed in the hospitality industry, and that,

- People prefer male chefs to female chefs.

- Again, the study showed that both male and female staff of of the study indicated No to the statements that Males have taken up the work of females by working in the hospitality industry and are all statistically significant which confirmed existing literature.

5.3 Conclusion

This study assessed the public perception about male employees in the hospitality industry. a case study in some selected hotels in the Ho Municipality.

The results on the public perception on male employees in the hospitality industry showed that, males were hardworking than their female counterpart, that their services were much needed, and that in most cases people preferred male chefs to female chefs.

Findings on the factors influencing people perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry revealed that, culture influences people perceptions on male working, nature and nurture in Ghanaian society also influences perceptions of people on males working in the hospitality industry and that peoples educational level influences their perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry.

Again, on what motivated males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry it showed that the working environment, males passion and their orientation at home motivates them to take up jobs in the hospitality industry and not to compete with their female counterparts. In comparing the views of the educated and uneducated staff on the perception of male workers in the hotel industry, the results showed that both males and female staff

disagreed that males have taken the work of females and that males seemed to be hardworking than females and that the services of males were needed in the hospitality industry. It further revealed that males entered the hospitality industry the same way as their female counterparts and that most people preferred male chefs to female ones.

5.4 Recommendations

Based upon the numerous findings and discussions from this study, the following recommendations were made: The study recommends that;

The negative perception of people on male employees in the hospitality industry should be changed because males in the hospitality industry are hardworking than their female counterpart and in most cases people prefer male chefs to female chefs.

Through career guidance and counselling, people should be educated on the factors influencing people chances of working in the hospitality industry irrespective of their gender so as to encourage more male workers in the hospitality industry.

Again, the study recommends that males should be motivated to take up jobs in the hospitality industry, by creating good working environment in the hospitality industry and parents should also encourage their male children at home who wants to take up employment in the hospitality industry to do so.

Additionally, Government should also encourage vocational and technical education by providing the required tools and equipment for practical work and also provide incentives

for males and females who venture into hitherto professions regarded as male dominated or female oriented work like the hospitality industry. This would encourage males who want to pursue courses or work in the hospitality industry to do so and would go a long way to benefit the country since it will reduce the unemployment rate.

Finally, the study recommends that both educated and uneducated should change their mindset or perception of males taking up work in the hospitality industry and not to see the hospitality industry as a preserve for females**.**

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

This research work cannot be generalized because of its limited scope in nature as it only considered few selected hotels within the study area.

The researcher therefore suggests that, future research work should delve into more hotels within the Ho Municipality and not only the selected hotels. If possible it should be among all the line light hospitality industries in Ghana. Also, sample size of the respondents should be broadened and this will make the findings to be generalized and considered more valid.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE EDUCATED PUBLIC (CUSTOMERS)

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA, KUMASI CAMPUS

DEPARTMENT OF DESIGN AND TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION

The questionnaire seeks to find out "The public perception on male employees in the hospitality industry in the Ho municipal in the Volta Region of Ghana". This is exclusively an academic research in pursuance of Master of Technology Education Catering and Hospitality in the above stated university. You are assured of complete anonymity and any information provided, will be confidential. I encourage you to answer the questions as best/truthfully as you can. Thank you for participating and your cooperation.

Please tick ( ) where appropriate.

1) Gender of respondent: Male [   ]   Female [   ]

2) Age group in years:

Below 20yrs [   ]   20 - 30   [   ]

31 40   [   ]   41 - 50   [   ]

51 – 60   [   ]   60 + yrs   [   ]

3) Level of Education:

Basic Education [   ]   SHS/ TECH/ VOC.   [   ]   Diploma/HND [   ]

First Degree   [   ]   Masters   [   ]

[   ] Others (please specify)…………………………….…………….……………

PUBLIC PERCEPTION ON MALE EMPLOYEES IN THE HOSPITALITY

INDUSTRY

1) Are males in the hospitality industry hardworking than their female counterpart?

YES [   ]   NO [   ]

2) Do you think males have taken the work of females by working in the hospitality

industry?

YES [   ]   NO [   ]

3) Do you think the services of males are needed in the hospitality industry?

YES [   ]   NO   [   ]

4) Do Males enter the hospitality industry as to compared with their female

counterparts?

YES [   ]   NO [   ]

5) Do people prefer male chefs to female chefs?

YES [   ]   NO [   ]

For questions 6 to 9, please state how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the number of the Five (5)-point scale using the following key: (1=Strongly Disagree (SD), 2=Disagree (D), 3=Neutral (N), 4=Agree (A), and 5=Strongly Agree(SA) as sincerely as possible.

FACTORS INFLUENCING PEOPLE PERCEPTIONS ON MALE WORKERS IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY?

Variables on the factors Influencing People Perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry	SD	D	N	A	SA
6. Culture influences people peoples perceptions in the hotel Industry.					
7. Nature and nurture in Ghanaian society influences perceptions People have on males in the hospitality industry.					
8. Gender bias influences peoples perceptions on males in the Hospitality industry.					
9. Peoples educational level influences their perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry.					

Others? Please specify

…………………………………………………………………………...

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

WHAT MOTIVATES MALES TO TAKE UP JOBS IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY?

Please tick (√) your view on each of the questions from 10 to 13 on what motivates males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry using the scoring key; 5=Strongly agree (SA), 4=Agree (A), 3=Neutral (N), 2=Disagree (D), and 1=Strongly disagree (SD).

Variables on What motivates males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry	SD	D	N	A	SA
10. Passion informs males decision to take up job in the Hospitality industry					
11. The working environment in the hospitality industry Motivates males to take employment in the industry.					
12. Males orientation at home motivates them to take up employment.					
13. Males enter the hospitality industry so as to compete with their female counterparts.					

Others? Please specify.

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APPENDIX B

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE FEMALE

WORKERS IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA, KUMASI CAMPUS

DEPARTMENT OF DESIGN AND TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION

The questionnaire seeks to find out "The public perception on male employees in the hospitality industry in the Ho municipal in the Volta Region of Ghana". This is exclusively an academic research in pursuance of Master of Technology Education Catering and Hospitality in the above stated university. You are assured of complete anonymity and any information provided, will be confidential. I encourage you to answer the questions as best/truthfully as you can. Thank you for participating and your cooperation.

Please tick [ ] where appropriate.

1) Gender: Male [ ]   Female [ ]

2) Age group in years:

Below 20yrs	[ ]		20 - 30	[ ]
31 40	[ ]		41 - 50	[ ]
51 – 60	[ ]		60 + yrs	[ ]

3) Level of Education:

Basic Education [   ]   SHS/ TECH/ VOC.   [   ]   Diploma/HND   [   ]

First Degree   [   ]   Masters   [   ]

[   ] Others (please specify)………………………….………………….……………

101

4) Marital Status:

        Single   [   ]   Married   [   ]

        Widowed [   ]   Divorced [   ]

5) Grade of Hospitality Industry (Hotel):

        Five star   [   ]   Four star   [   ]

        Three star   [   ]   Two star and below [   ]

6) Employment Status:

        Casual worker [   ]   Supervisor   [   ]

        Manager: [   ]   Ordinary staff [   ]

7) Department:

        Housekeeping   [   ]   Front Office   [   ]

        Food and Beverage [   ]   Accounting   [   ]

        Human Resource   [   ]   Others   [   ]

8) Average monthly income(GHS):

        No official income [   ]   Less than 300.00   [   ]

        300.00 – 500.00   [   ]   500.00 and above   [   ]

PUBLIC PERCEPTION ON MALE EMPLOYEES IN THE HOSPITALITY

INDUSTRY

1) Are males in the hospitality industry hardworking than their female counterpart?

   YES [ ]   NO [   ]

2) Do you think males have taken the work of females by working in the hospitality

   industry?

   YES   [ ]   NO   [   ]

3) Do you think the services of males are needed in the hospitality industry?

   YES   [   ]   NO   [   ]

4) Do Males enter the hospitality industry so as to complete with their female

   counterparts?

   YES   [ ]   NO   [ ]

5) Do people prefer male chefs to female chefs?

   YES   [ ]   NO   [ ]

Thank you very much!

APPENDIX C

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MALE WORKERS IN THE

HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA, KUMASI CAMPUS

DEPARTMENT OF DESIGN AND TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION

The purpose of this interview is to determine "The public perception on male employees

in the hospitality industry in the Ho municipal in the Volta Region of Ghana". This is

exclusively an academic research in pursuance of Master of Technology Education

Catering and Hospitality in the above stated university.

Please help us classify your response by supplying the following facts about yourself and

your opinion on the above stated topic by responding to the following questions. There is

no right or wrong answer therefore no particular response is targeted.

1) Gender: Male   [   ]   Female   [   ]

2) Age :

                Below 20yrs   [   ]   20 - 30   [   ]

                31 40   [   ]   41 - 50   [   ]

                51 – 60   [   ]   60 + yrs   [   ]

3) Level of Education:

No formal Education   [   ]   Basic Education [   ]

SHS/ TECH/ VOC.   [   ]   Diploma/HND   [   ]

First Degree   [   ]   Masters   [   ]

[   ] Others (please specify)……………………………………………………………

104

4) Marital Status:

      Single   [   ]   Married   [   ]

      Widowed [   ]   Divorced   [   ]

5) Grade of Hospitality Industry (Hotel):

      Five star   [   ]   Four star   [   ]

      Three star [   ]   Two star and below   [   ]

6) Employment Status:

      Casual worker   [   ]   Supervisor   [   ]

      Manager: [   ]   Ordinary staff   [   ]

7) Department:

      Housekeeping   [   ]   Front Office   [   ]

      Food and Beverage [   ]   Accounting   [   ]

      Human Resource   [   ]

8) Average monthly income (GHS):

No official income   [   ]   Less than 300.00   [   ]

300.00 – 500.00   [   ]   500.00 and above   [   ]

WHAT MOTIVATES MALES TO TAKE UP JOBS IN THE HOSPITALITY

INDUSTRY?

9) Did passion informed your decision to take up job in the hospitality industry?

YES [   ]   NO [   ]

10) Does the working environment in the hospitality industry motivates you to take

employment in the hospitality industry?

YES [   ]   NO [   ]

11) Why did you choose to work in the hotel and not any other work?

……………………………………………………………………………………………

1) Do you intend to continue working in this industry?

YES [   ]   NO [   ]

13) Did your orientation at home motivated you to take up a job in the hospitality (hotel)

industry)

YES [   ]   NO [   ]

14) Do males enter the hospitality industry so as to compete with their female

counterparts?

YES [   ]   NO [   ]

Thank you very much!

APPENDIX D

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE UNEDUCATED PUBLIC

(CUSTOMERS) AND STAFF (FEMALE)

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA, KUMASI CAMPUS

DEPARTMENT OF DESIGN AND TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION

This interview seeks to find out "The public perception on male employees in the hospitality industry in the Ho municipal in the Volta Region of Ghana". This is exclusively an academic research in pursuance of Master of Technology Education Catering and Hospitality in the above stated university. You are assured of complete anonymity and any information provided, will be confidential. I encourage you to answer the questions as best/truthfully as you can. Thank you for participating and your cooperation.

1) Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]

2) Age :

Below 20yrs [ ]	20 - 30 [ ]
31 40 [ ]	41 - 50 [ ]
51 – 60 [ ]	60 + yrs [ ]

3) Marital Status:

Single [ ]	Married [ ]
Widowed [ ]	Divorced [ ]

4) Grade of Hospitality Industry (Hotel):

                  Five star   [   ]   Four star   [   ]

                  Three star [   ]   Two star and below   [   ]

5) Employment Status:

           Casual worker   [   ]   Supervisor   [   ]

             Manager: [   ]   Ordinary staff   [   ]

6) Department:

          Housekeeping   [   ]   Front Office   [   ]

           Food and Beverage   [   ]   Accounting   [   ]

           Human Resource   [   ]   Others   [   ]

7) Average monthly income (GHS):

No official income   [   ]   Less than 300.00   [   ]

300.00 – 500.00   [   ]   500.00 and above   [   ]

PUBLIC PERCEPTION ON MALE EMPLOYEES IN THE HOSPITALITY

INDUSTRY

8)Are males in the hospitality industry hardworking than their female counterpart?

YES [   ]   NO   [   ]

9) Do you think males have taken the work of females by working in the hospitality

industry?

YES [   ]   NO   [   ]

10) Do you think the services of males are needed in the hospitality industry?

YES [   ]   NO   [   ]

11) Do Males enter the hospitality industry so as to compared with their female

counterparts?

YES [   ]   NO   [   ]

12) Does people prefer male chefs to female chefs?

YES [   ]   NO [   ]

FACTORS INFLUENCING PEOPLE PERCEPTIONS ON MALE WORKERS IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY?

For questions 6 to , please state how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the number of the 4-point scale using the following key(1=Strongly Disagree(SD), 2=Disagree (D), 3=Neutral(N), 4=Agree(A), 5=Strongly Agree(SA) as sincerely as possible.

Variables on What motivates males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry	SD	D	N	A	SA
Culture influences people peoples perceptions in the hotel Industry.					
Nature and nurture in Ghanaian society influences perceptions People have on males in the hospitality industry.					
Gender bias influences peoples perceptions on males in the Hospitality industry					
Peoples educational level influences their perceptions on male workers in the hospitality industry.					

Others?, please specify

…………………………………….………………………………………………………

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WHAT MOTIVATES MALES TO TAKE UP JOBS IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY?

For questions 6 to , please state how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the number of the 4-point scale using the following key(1=Strongly Disagree(SD), 2=Disagree (D), 3=Neutral(N), 4=Agree(A), 5=Strongly Agree(SA) as sincerely as possible.

What motivates males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry?

For questions 6 to , please state how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the number of the 4-point scale using the following key(1=Strongly Disagree(SD), 2=Disagree(D), 3=Neutral(N), 4=Agree(A), 5=Strongly Agree(SA) as sincerely as possible.

Variables on What motivates males to take up jobs in the hospitality industry	SD	D	N	A	SA
Passion informs males decision to take up job in the Hospitality industry.					
Passion informs males decision to take up job in the Hospitality industry.					
Males orientation at home motivates them to take up employment					
Males enter the hospitality industry so as to compete with their female counterparts.					

Others?, please specify

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Thank you very much!