

THE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF BUSINESS & MANAGEMENT

An Assessment of the Effect of Gender on Employee Performance in Ghana Police Service: Controlling for Key Confounding Variables

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Abstract:

There is the notion that females are less productive on security jobs because they are relatively weaker. In this study therefore, the effect of gender on employee performance is tested, with key variables (i.e., rank and work experience) controlled for. A self-reported questionnaire was used to collect data from 151 each of randomly selected male and female police officers. The T-test, simple linear regression and partial correlation test were used to present findings. The study shows that there is no difference between the performance of male and female police officers. Yet rank and work experience significantly influence the relationship between gender and work experience. The study recommends measures for empowering both males and females in Ghana Police Service.

Keywords: Employee performance, gender, work experience, rank

1. Introduction

Most organisations need both male and female employees to achieve their performance and growth expectations (Mawunyegah, 2013; Adjah, 2009). Though there are firms, mostly small businesses, which employ solely specific genders as a result of the nature of services and products delivered (Gunkel et al., 2007), the fact that a majority of the world's firms make use of males and females cannot be challenged. A report by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) in 2012 indicates that the employability of males and females across the world has improved, with gender being an area of competition in the work environment. As a result of the fact that managements want to maximise employee value and productivity, employers are sensitive to the difference in the performance of male and female employees (Yahaya, 2010). But before mention is made about empirical evidences on the relationship between gender and performance, it is important to understand what employee performance is.

According to Heathfield (2011), employee performance is the degree to which the employee's role is accomplished. Similarly, employee performance is defined as the extent to which outputs of the employee equals or exceeds expectations of the employer (Boateng, 2011). Based on these two definitions, performance could be defined as the outcome of comparing employer target for an employee and the degree to which the employee achieves this target. Employee job performance is the basis of organisational growth in terms of financial performance. Regardless of the extent of logistics and technologies available to the organisation, human employees are needed to savour them and to translate growth policies and strategies into financial performance in the organisation (Boateng, 2011; Mawunyegah, 2013). However, employee performance in the organisation is moderated by several factors (Gunkel et al. 2007), among which gender is a major moderating variable (Gunkel et al. 2007; Yahaya, 2010).

Empirical studies indicate that gender is a major factor that drives organisational growth through employee performance. In the study of Yahaya (2010), gender was identified to impact employee performance. In the study of Fairlie & Robb (2008), gender was also found to impact employee performance. In some instances, the impact is negative (Yahaya, 2010), while it is positive in some other situations (Meier *et al.* 2006; Overa, 2007). Meanwhile, the influence of gender on employee performance is an indicator of the fact that there is a significant difference between the performance of males and females. With support from the studies of Yahaya (2010) and Fairlie & Robb (2008), Meier *et al.* (2006) found that there is a difference in the job performance of males and females. However, this difference varies based on the industry and role involved. For instance, males have been found to perform better in the manufacturing sector and other sectors where physical strength is needed to accomplish job roles (Yahaya, 2010), while females have been found to perform better in the services industry (Mawunyegah, 2013).

Though much empirical evidence points to the influence of gender on employee performance, with many studies differentiating the performance of males and females, related studies conducted on specific roles are insufficiently few. In view of this, Overa (2007) recommended in her study that future researches should emphasise on the impact of gender on employee performance among specific sectors of employees. Her recommendation was influenced by the fact that gender

critically drive employee performance many sectors. Mawunyegah (2013) also made the submission that a lot of studies are needed on the effect of gender on performance in all sectors where male and female employees are largely used. Her submission was also driven by the increasing employment of females in many sectors.

In recent years, the GPS is one sector of security services where females are increasingly employed. Mawunyegah (2013) also identifies the Ghana Police Service as one arm of the security sector where females are largely employed in recent years. However, there are no identifiable empirical studies conducted on this subject from the perspective of security service, precisely Ghana Police Service. Based on this gap in the literature and the recommendation of Overa (2007) and Mawunyegah (2013), this study is conducted as a case study of GPS.

This study seeks to investigate the effect of gender on the job performance of police officers in Ghana. This study is limited to members of Ghana Police Service in view of the paucity of researches on the subject in the context of the security services in Ghana.

2. Literature Review

The effect of gender on employee performance has a significant level of origin from the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). The theory of reasoned action by Ajzen *et al.* (2007) argues that behaviour is the result of three corresponding components: intentions, attitudes and subjective norms, where employee performance is seen as a product of intentions and attitudes of employees (Yahaya, 2010; Ali *et al.* 2009). Moreover, organisational norms under which employee performance is measured are regarded as subjective (Gunkel *et al.* 2007). As a result, employee performance is said to be driven by human behaviour, which has the components of intentions, attitudes and subjective norms.

By implication, employee performance is driven by behaviour, a reason for which behaviour constitutes one of the main dimensions of employee performance (Jex, 2002). Meanwhile, behaviour is mingled with action; thus, behaviour informs employee action (Jex, 2002; Milkovich *et al.* 1991). In view of this, the theory of planned behaviour by Ajzen *et al.* (2007) underpins employee performance. Collectively, TRA couples with TPB to provide a framework of philosophies that justify human behaviour and actions that translate into employee performance of employees.

Gunkel *et al.* (2007) relates the theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behaviour to the gender effect of employee performance. In this respect, they argue that gender falls between behaviour and employee performance, where gender and other personal traits are seen as a moderator of the relationship between behaviour and employee performance. In essence, gender does not have any independent relationship to employee performance; rather its relationship to employee performance is driven by such attributes as personal traits, education, motivation, work experience, training and other such variables. The place of gender in this relationship between behaviour and employee performance is conceptualised as seen below:

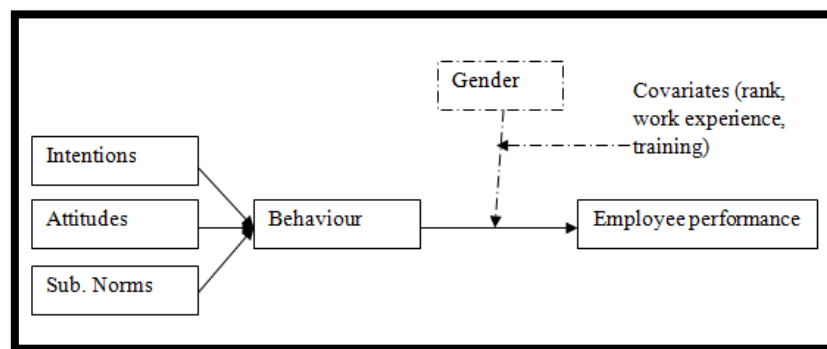


Figure 1: Conceptualisation of the Effect of Gender on Employee Performance
Source: Ajzen Et Al. (2007); Gunkel Et Al. (2007)

In this study, interest is geared towards the effect of gender on employee performance as shown in the theoretical framework represented by Figure 1. Though "behaviour" is the root of the effect on employee performance, this study is limited to an assessment of the link between gender and employee performance. Since gender is empowered by work experience and rank, these variables are treated as covariates in the relationship between gender and employee performance in this study. Though *training* is identified as one of the moderators of the relationship between gender and employee performance, this study does not capture it as because there is little access to training in Ghana Police Services. Employee performance has been defined from various perspectives. Apart from the definitions of Heathfield (2011) and Boateng (2011), employee performance is defined as "all the behaviours employees engage in while at work" (Jex, 2002, p. 88). Based on these definitions, employee performance refers to how well someone performs at his or her work. Nonetheless, definitions range from general to specific aspects and from quantitative to qualitative dimensions. Nowadays it is generally agreed that employee performance consists of complicated series of interacting variables pertaining to aspects of the job, the employee and the environment (Milkovich *et al.* 1991 pp. 48-49). Historically, there have been three approaches to define the dimensions of employee performance (Milkovich *et al.* 1991, p. 48): (1) as a function of outcomes; (2) as a function of behaviour; and (3) as a function of personal traits.

Most ways of measuring and reckoning employee performance embrace outcomes of employees' work. Generally, the employer sets targets or performance benchmarks (such as minimum performance scores below which the employees'

employee performance cannot fall) that must be met or exceeded by the employee (Heathfield, 2011; Jex, 2002). At this level, employee performance is also reflected from how well the employee accomplishes the individual duties associated with his or her job role (Heathfield, 2011). Practically, the ability of the employee to accomplish job duties in accordance to specifications of the employer is the basis of his or her employee performance score. Generally, a good employee performance is the one that involves the employee's satisfactory accomplishment of all duties assigned to him or her (Milkovich *et al* 1991). Meanwhile, the employee's employee performance score depends on the judgement of the employer or a superior about whether he or she has carried out assigned job duties well (Heathfield, 2011; Jex, 2002). Owing to the fact that this judgement is always subjective, two or more people are required to appraise the employee performance of employees.

An employee's employee performance is also measured from the viewpoint of behaviour. Many believe that accomplishing job duties is not more important than showing good behaviour at work (Ali *et al.* 2009; Heathfield, 2011). Invariably, employee can also be seen to have a good level of employee performance when they accomplish job duties in the light of good demonstrated behaviour. According to Jex (2002), a lot of employers give priority to good behaviour because bad habits would not only jeopardise the productivity of one employee but many. In the light of this understanding, the majority of employers seek to give balanced interest to accomplishing job duties and showing good behaviour while doing this. Interestingly, employers still go beyond the demonstration of good behaviour and accomplishing job duties duly.

Whiles reckoning employee performance from the standpoints of behaviour and accomplishment of job duties, employers consider personal traits in fully understanding what an individual's employee performance is (Milkovich *et al* 1991; Jex, 2002). One of the most personal traits considered is temperament (Gunkel *et al.* 2007; Milkovich *et al* 1991; Jex, 2002). Employers or superiors hold in high esteem employees with receptive and team-building temperaments (Jex, 2002). In other words, employees' whose temperaments are receptive to good leadership and teamwork have the potential for high employee performance scores. Meanwhile, behaviour and temperament and other personality traits intersect (Jex, 2002). As a result, personality traits and behaviour are important measures of employee performance just as accomplishment of duty is.

Over the years, there has been increasing academic debate on the subject of employee performance among male and female employees (Ali *et al.* 2009). This increasing interest in the subject is probably as a result of the fact that all or at least the majority of businesses depend on male and female employees to grow. But the most logical reason would be the effect of gender on employees' employee performance from a genera point of view. Meanwhile, the effect of gender on employees' employee performance is corroborated at various levels of debate.

The first batch of evidences on the effect of gender on employee performance is non-academic and informal. According to Adjah (2009), the trend of employment across the globe shows that gender affects employees' employee performance. In some positions such as those relating to field work and manual work, employers employ more males because they are able to demonstrate a higher level of the physical strength needed to succeed in these positions (Adjah, 2009; Meier *et al.* 2006). Similarly, female employees practically succeed in relationship-oriented positions in which temperament and emotional intelligence are heavily needed to convince business clients, customers and other stakeholders (Mawunyegah, 2013; Gunkel *et al.* 2007). However, males have been found to have many divisions of work where they perform better relative to females (Wu & Shih, 2010; Overa, 2007). This difference is a reflection of the strong influence of gender on employee performance generally, with research providing evidences in this respect.

The second batch of evidences on the effect of gender on employee performance is empirical. In this regard, Gunkel *et al.* (2007) found in their research that males and females do not perform at the same extent at work. This empirical stance is also demonstrated by Mawunyegah (2013), Yahaya (2010) and Fairlie & Robb (2008). Gunkel *et al.* (2007), based on their research findings, make the submission that females have a higher employee performance with respect to some job roles (e.g., relationship-based roles) while males have higher employee performance in some other roles (e.g., roles involving field work and manual work).

The source of the effect of gender on employee performance is multi-faceted. Generally, employee performance is enhanced among male and female employees by education, training, personality type, income and work experience (Mawunyegah, 2013; Gunkel *et al.* 2007). As a result, these variables moderate the relationship between gender and employee performance (Mawunyegah, 2013; Gunkel *et al.* 2007). Meanwhile, personality type has been consistently found to support the employee performance of female employees. Based on their research result, Gunkel *et al.* (2007) argue that females have a personality type that impresses others in their relationship with them. Based on this understanding, they attribute the outstanding performance of females in relationship-oriented roles.

Gunkel *et al.* (2007) conducted a related study that provides the highest level of geographical balance. The purpose of their study was to examine the effect of gender on employee performance in four countries, namely the United States of America, China, Germany and Japan. They employed Pearson's correlation and partial correlation tests to analyse data. According to their study, there is a significant difference between gender and employee performance generally, where males a higher employee performance score than females. However, with specific job roles such as relationship-oriented, hospitality and front-desk roles, females had a higher employee performance score. This scenario was consistent across the four countries, reflecting a lack of correlation between country and gender effect on employee performance. It was also found that education, work experience and income statuses of people moderate the relationship between gender and employee performance.

Evidently, the study of Gunkel *et al.* (2007) provides sufficiently detail evidence about the effect of gender on work performance. In addition, their evidence is relatively weightier because it was based on a cross-country analysis in which the evidence remains consistent from one country to the other. Unfortunately, their findings cannot be related to Ghana

because their study was based on countries with far different demographic and economic characteristics. It is strongly believed that these differences in population limit the extent to which findings can be generalised to cover other geographical or economic territories such as Ghana. Moreover, their population was a mixture of employees from various sectors, while emphasis on specific sectors such as Security Service may yield different results. Gunkel et al. (2007), based on these limitations in their study, suggested the need for future researchers to conduct related studies on specific sectors and countries, especially developing countries which tend to come with potentially large economic and geographical differences relative to countries (i.e., USA, Germany, Japan and China) used in their study. This study is carried out in response to their suggestion.

In Ghana, Mawunyegah (2013) carried out a related study using employees of Stanbic Bank. She used 50 employees from the head office of the bank and used Pearson's correlation and partial correlation tests for analysing data. Her findings confirmed the results of Gunkel et al. (2007) to a large extent. Thus, gender was found to affect employee performance, with males having a higher performance score relative to males. She also found that education, work experience and personality type influenced the relationship between gender and employee performance.

Interestingly, the study of Mawunyegah (2013) has buttressed findings of Gunkel et al. (2007). To some extent, her results are confirmatory to the study of Gunkel et al. (2007). Moreover, she has been able to provide evidence that is unique to a particular sector as recommended by Gunkel et al. (2007). The gap in the study of Mawunyegah (2013) has to do with failure to assess the relationship between gender and employee performance at the different levels of job category. As a result, her study does not make a reflection of the role of police officers at all ranks. This is a gap that this study fills in a Ghanaian context.

In various ways, the results of Gunkel et al. (2007) and Mawunyegah (2013) are supported by other related studies. For instance, Yahaya (2010) confirmed that females perform better in receptionist and other front-desk positions than males in Nigeria, with this evidence drawn from the perspective of civil servants. Fairlie & Robb (2008) also provides such confirmation from the viewpoint of male and female entrepreneurs.

Generally, there is an empirical basis of the effect of gender on employee performance. However, this evidence is not extended to Security Service, precisely Ghana Police Service. Based on gaps in the current body of related studies and the recommendation of Gunkel et al. (2007), more empirical studies are needed in the contexts of developing countries and specific sectors. Considering the increasing level of engagement of females in Ghana Police Service, this study investigates the relationship between gender and employee performance among members of GPS based on the following hypotheses:

- H1: The job performances of males and females are significantly different.
- H2: Gender makes a significant effect on employee performance.
- H3: Work experience confounds the effect of gender on employee performance.
- H4: Rank of police officers confounds the effect of gender on employee performance.

3. Methods and Materials

The study adopts a causal quantitative research design in order to test the hypotheses posed. The population of this study was police officers at the National CID Headquarters in Accra. The National CID Headquarters in Accra was chosen as the study area because police officers in this office were well organised, making it easier to collect data. Moreover, the researcher did not have adequate financial resources and time to extend the study area to other offices. The target population of this study was police officers who had worked in the Ghana Police Service for at least two (2) years. Participating officers were required to have worked in Ghana Police Service for 2 years to ensure that their responses were based on substantial work experience. The number of police officers in the target population was 585; 334 males and 251 females. Police officers of the target population constitute the sampling frame.

The simple random sampling procedure was adopted in this study to select respondents. This sampling method was used because the researcher intended to ensure that all participants had equal chances of providing information. This provided an opportunity to generalise the study's findings over the population. Moreover, the balloting method of the simple random sampling technique was used. Sample sizes of 181 males and 152 females were determined. These sample sizes were deemed appropriate because it corresponds to the stated target population size in the sample size table of Krejcie & Morgan (1970), which is a standard sample size determination table used among researchers. However, since this study compares males and females in terms of employee performance, the two samples must be equal as recommended by Rice (1995). Hence, a sample size of 152 is used for males instead of 181. So, males and females have a sample size of 151 each. Therefore, a total sample size of 302 was used.

This study involves two basic variables, which were measured through a self-reported questionnaire. These are gender and employee performance. Gender was measured by asking respondents to indicate in the questionnaire whether they are male or female. Employee performance was measured using the scale used in the study of Asim (2013). This scale is used because it is more recent and conforms to the measurement approach of most studies. Moreover, the scale contains all the items that reflect practical dimensions of employee performance in a Ghanaian context. The demographic variables or extraneous variables were measured by asking respondents to indicate which levels they belong to. For instance; a respondent could choose "constable" or "inspector" for the variable "rank". Generally, measurement of employee performance was done using a five-point Likert scale. This scale is discussed in detail in the next subsection. Items (variables) of the self-reported questionnaire used were based on a five-point Likert scale: strongly disagree – 1; disagree – 2; not sure – 3; agree – 4; and strongly agree – 5. Internal consistency represented by a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.93 was achieved for the employee performance scale.

Data was analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Version 21. The difference between males and females' performance (i.e., the first hypothesis) was tested using independent samples t-test. Pearson's correlation test was used to test the second hypothesis. The third and four hypotheses were tested using partial correlation test. Before using these statistical tools, data normality was confirmed for the dependent variable. Thus, a Shapiro-Wilk's probability value of 0.632 was reached.

4. Results

This section presents results of the study. All tables of the analysis are located at Appendix A. Table 1 shows the gender distribution of respondents. In this table 132 respondents representing about 50% of all respondents were males. On the other hand, 131 respondents representing about 50% of all respondents were females. In Table 2, 132 respondents representing about 50% of all respondents had worked in GPS for between 2 and 3 years. Moreover, 76 respondents representing about 29% of all respondents had worked in GPS for between 4 and 6 years; about 16% of all respondents ($N = 43$) had worked in GPS for between 7 and 10 years; and 5% of all respondents ($N = 12$) had worked in GPS for more than 10 years. In Table 3 136 respondents representing about 52% of all respondents had secondary educational qualifications; 90 respondents representing about 34% of all respondents had HND/degree educational qualifications; 37 respondents representing about 14% of all respondents had Master's educational qualification. In Table 4 109 respondents representing about 41% of all respondents were Constables; 24% of all respondents were Corporals; 17% of all respondents were Sergeants; 11% of all respondents were Inspectors; and 7% of all respondents were Chief Inspectors.

Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics of the level of performance of male and female employees. From the table, males and females have close performance mean scores, but the mean score of males is slightly higher ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 1.11$) relative to females ($M = 3.39$, $SD = 1.5$). In Table 6, statistics associated with "Equal variances not assumed" are used and read. This is because the F-test is significant at 5% significance level ($F = 34.84$, $p = .000$; two-tailed). It is evident that there is no significant difference between the two mean scores, $t(239.9) = 1.47$, $p = .144$. Thus generally, males and females have approximately equal levels of employee performance. The first hypothesis above is therefore not supported by the data.

Table 7 shows Pearson's correlation between gender and employee performance. The relationship between gender and employee performance is not significant at 5% significant level ($r = -0.091$, $p < .05$; two-tailed), though it is negative in nature. This suggests that gender does not make any significant effect on employee performance, and this result compliments the finding that there is no significant difference in the performance of male and female police officers. The second hypothesis is therefore not supported.

Table 8 shows partial correlation analysis that examines the moderating role of work experience in the relationship between gender and employee performance. In the table, the relationship between work experience and employee performance becomes 0.043 when work experience is controlled for. The correlation between the variables without controlling for work experience is -0.091 (see Table 7). The fact is that 0.134 is equivalent to about 68% change in strength of the relationship between employee performance and gender when work experience is controlled for. This means that the moderating effect of work experience is quite strong. Since this moderating role makes the original relationship more positive (i.e., this moderating role improves the performance of females against males with respect to Table 5), the performance of females is higher than that of males when work experience increases. Hence the third hypothesis is supported by the data.

In Table 9, the relationship between rank and employee performance becomes -0.102 when rank is controlled for. To explain, -0.193 is equivalent to about 47% change in strength of the relationship between employee performance and gender when work experience is controlled for. In this case however, the change makes the relationship more negative. This means that the moderating effect of rank is substantial but not as strong as that of work experience. Hence the fourth hypothesis is supported by the data.

5. Discussion

The independent samples t-test showed that there is no statistically significant deference between male and female police officers in terms of their performance. This evidence is supported by the literature on one part, while the other part fails to support it. For instance, some studies (e.g., Mawunyegah, 2013; Fairlie & Robb, 2008; Gunkel et al., 2007) revealed that males perform better than females generally. Therefore, the findings reached in these studies stand in contrast to findings of the current study.

Ali et al. (2009), in agreement to findings in this study, found no significant difference in the performance of males and females. Also, Gneezy et al. (2003) did not find sufficient evidence to say that gender influences performance. Hence the literature is divided into two parts: one part confirms that gender influences performance or there is a significant difference in the performance of males and females, while the other part suggests that there is no such difference. These opposing evidences in the literature are however held in a general sense.

In specific situations however, gender is consistently found to make a significant influence on performance. Fairlie & Robb (2008) therefore argue that the performance of males and females would not be the same in job positions demanding physical strength. Similarly, females are more likely to perform better in clerical roles and in such positions such as those relating to relationship building and healthcare (Gunkel et al., 2007). These arguments support this study's finding which suggest that males perform slightly better, though not significant, than females. In the study of Mawunyegah (2013) which was conducted on a bank, males performed better than females in administrative positions. But this evidence is not at odd because issues of motivation could empower males in a banking environment to perform better.

Though no identifiable related research has been conducted on GPS, it is not wrong to say that male and female police officers have the same performance level, except possibly in specific positions.

Also, in this study, the relationship between gender and employee performance is significantly moderated by rank and work experience. The arguments of some researchers (e.g., Gneezy et al., 2003; Ali et al., 2009) support this finding. But it is worth saying that no identifiable empirical evidence supports it. However, the lack of identifiable empirical support for this finding is as a result of the fact that no related research work has been focused on GPS. Hence the absence of empirical support for this result does not necessarily discredit it.

To a greater extent, findings of this study, especially in terms of the four hypotheses tested, are supported. Based on the conflict among previous studies in terms of the relationship between gender and performance, more future studies focused on GPS are needed to share knowledge on the true picture of the relationship between gender and employee performance as recommended by Ali et al. (2009).

6. Conclusion

There is no significant difference between males and females in terms of their job performance ($t_{239.9} = 1.47, p = .144$). However, males have a slightly higher performance level relative to females. But the observed difference in the performance of males and females is not considerable since it is statistically insignificant.

Gender makes no significant effect on job or employee performance ($r = -0.091, p < .05$; two-tailed), though the relationship takes a negative direction. The insignificant negative relationship shows that one gender slightly performs better. This gender, based on findings of the first objective and hypothesis, is males.

Work experience moderates the relationship between gender and employee performance. Moreover, the effect made by gender on employee performance is influenced by work experience 68% of the time. This moderating role suggests that females perform better in face of increasing work experience.

Rank also moderates the relationship between gender and employee performance up to 47% of the time. This means that the moderating effect of rank is not as strong as that of work experience. Moreover, the performance of one of the sexes, ultimately males, increases as the rank of both males and females increase. Table 1 shows a summary of results of hypothesis testing and key conclusions.

Hypothesis	Type	Decision	Conclusion
The job performances of males and females are significantly different	Alternative, two-tailed	Not supported by data	There is no significant difference in the performance of males and females
Gender makes a significant effect on employee performance	Alternative, two-tailed	Not supported by data	The effect of gender on employee performance is not significant
Work experience moderates the effect of gender on employee performance	Alternative, two-tailed	Supported by the data	Work experience moderates the relationship between gender and performance so that increasing work experience improves the performance of females against males
Rank of police officers moderates the effect of gender on employee performance	Alternative, two-tailed	Supported by the data	Rank moderates the relationship between gender and performance so that increasing rank improves the performance of males against males

Table 1: Conclusions based on Hypotheses Tested

The above conclusions have several practical implications. Firstly, there is the need to provide job training opportunities for both males and females. In the context of GPS, there would be the need to enhance job training for females in to enhance their performance in field operations. Males are also expected to be equipped with skills of working in administrative roles. An example of this skill is emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is broadly the ability to perceive, read and react to people's emotions based on the ability to control one's own emotion (Danduah and Wireko, 2014). Research, such as that of Danduah and Wireko (2014), has shown that females have higher emotional intelligence and are therefore able to succeed in administrative roles better than males.

It is therefore logical to say that training must be organised for male police officers to equip them with emotional intelligence and other competences needed by them to perform up to the level of females in administrative roles. These job training programs must be well developed in terms of content, and the delivery methods must be appropriate to impact males. It is believed that special training for male employees, as suggested, would eliminate or minimise the deficiency in their performance in administrative positions.

There is also the need to identify reasons male employees are less productive in administrative positions relative to their female counterparts. Possibly, males may view some administrative positions as jobs for females, and this perception could impede their motivation to work in these positions.

It is also possible that male employees are generally less compensated in some administrative positions. While females generally make less financial commitment at home, males may become less motivated in this job position in the face of their financial responsibilities at home. GPS and other firms are therefore encouraged to find a remedy to this

problem by giving better motivational packages to males and females who play roles not publicly recognised with their gender.

7. Limitations and Future Research

This study and its recommendations would have benefitted a wide spectrum of organisations and the entire GPS if it employed a random sample on these organisations. However, the study's findings may not be relevant to the whole of GPS on the basis of the fact that it was limited to the CID headquarters in Accra. In view of this limitation, it is suggested that future researchers extend the scope of this study to embrace other offices of Ghana Police Service. The study could also be conducted on other sectors not captured in the literature, especially in a Ghanaian context.

Future researchers are also encouraged to extend the study to other employees in Ghana Police Service or even in the CID department of GPS. At best, future researchers can conduct the study based on a random sample that reflects the GPS holistically. Coupled with the appropriate research recommendations, honouring this suggestion would provide a better understanding of what the organisation can do to improve employee performance based on the gender distribution of police officers in Ghana Police Service.

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	Frequency	Percent (%)
Male	132	50
Female	131	50
Total	263	100

Table 2: Gender of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent (%)
2-3 yrs	132	50
4-6 yrs	76	29
7-10 yrs	43	16
Above 10 yrs	12	5
Total	263	100

Table 3: Years of Work Experience of Respondent s

	Frequency	Percent (%)
WASSSCE/A'Level/O'Level	136	52
Degree/HND	90	34
Master's	37	14
Total	263	100

Table 4: Educational Level

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Constable	109	41
Corporal	63	24
Sergeant	45	17
Inspector	28	11
Chief Inspector	18	7
Total	263	100

Table 5: Rank of Participants in the GPS

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Employee performance	Male	132	3.629	1.115	.097
	Female	131	3.389	1.502	.131

Table 6: Group Statistics

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	p-value
Employee performance	Equal variances assumed	34.840	.000	1.469	261	.143
	Equal variances not assumed			1.468	239.886	.144

Table 7: Independent Samples t Test

	Employee Performance	Gender
Employee performance	1	-.091
Gender	-.091	1
Work experience	.708**	-.170**
Rank	.878**	-.047

Table 8: Correlation Matrix

Correlation Is Significant at 5% Significance Level, N = 263

Correlations				
Control Variables			Gender	Employee Performance
Work Experience	Gender	Correlation	1.000	.043
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.488
		df	0	260
	Employee performance	Correlation	.043	1.000
		Significance (2-tailed)	.488	.
		df	260	0

Table 9: Partial Correlation between Gender and Employee Performance – Controlling for Work Experience

Control Variables			Gender	Employee Performance
Rank	Gender	Correlation	1.000	-.102
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.098
		df	0	260
	Employee performance	Correlation	-.102	1.000
		Significance (2-tailed)	.098	.
		df	260	0

Table 10: Partial Correlation between Gender and Employee Performance – Controlling for Rank