IMPACT OF GENDER DIFFERENCES AND CULTURAL VALUES ON WOMEN’S PROMOTION PROSPECTS IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR OF SELECTED COUNTRIES IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

By

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This literature-based case study investigated the influence of gender differences and cultural values on women’s promotion prospects in the public sector of three sub-Saharan countries, namely: the Democratic Republic of Congo, Nigeria and Sudan and provided a framework designed to facilitate the implementation of women’s promotion prospects in the public sector. Worldwide, women employed in the public sector are stereotyped and discriminated against by being by-passed for high-level positions by men who consider themselves more capable employees. As such, women are overlooked for promotion and encounter the ‘glass ceiling’, which hampers their efforts at accomplishing their career goals. Equality in promotion will improve women's living conditions and benefit society. While studies have been conducted on several women’s issues, none has focused on how gender differences and cultural values affect women’s promotion in sub-Saharan Africa. This gap needs to be addressed. The design of the study was qualitative as it provides insights into the phenomenon studied. The data collection method was desk research, owing to financial constraints that did not allow for travelling to collect primary data. The study found that gender discrimination exists in both society and the public sector workplaces in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Nigeria and Sudan as a consequence of multi-ethnicity, religion (Sharia law) and war in the Sudan, particularly. The effects of cultural values on promotion and employment in these countries are palpable. The process of how women are promoted to leadership in the public sector is, however, unclear. The study also revealed that in a country like Rwanda, where equal gender opportunities exist socio-economically, fast economic growth and enhanced societal living conditions have been realised. Women’s promotion and well-being is strongly related to the elimination of poverty and the enhancement of living conditions such as reduced child starvation and death. Equality and empowerment of women is now globally accepted as a core human right that needs to be sustained. In this direction, a comprehensive framework for the implementation of gender policies on women’s promotion prospects was developed.

**Keywords:** Cultural values, discrimination, gender differences; glass ceiling, promotion; societal expectations, sub-Saharan Africa, wage gap, women in leadership
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents, Mariam and Musa Abdulrasoul, who have always loved me unconditionally and whose good examples have taught me to work hard for the things that I aspire to achieve. I dedicate it to my sisters (Firdose, Hajir, Salma, Noosa, Ikraam and Zuhal) and my brothers (Salah, Alhello, Abdelsalam, Haneen and Raud), whom I love and want to be a role model for. I also dedicate this work to my husband, Abdulaziz, who has been a constant source of support and encouragement during the challenges of graduate school and life. I am truly thankful for having you in my life.
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ABBREVIATIONS

AU  African Union
DRC  Democratic Republic of Congo
FGM/FGC  Female genital mutilation/cutting
GC  Glass Ceiling
GEI  Gender Equity Index
NAM  Non-Aligned Movement
OIC  Organisation of Islamic Cooperation
PRSP  Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SGBV  Sexual and Gender-Based Violence
SIC  Sudan’s Interim Composition
SSA  Sub-Saharan Africa
UN  United Nations
USAID  United States Agency for International Development
GLOSSARY

Gender: According to Eklund and Tellier (2012:4-5), the term ‘gender’ refers to the social and cultural construction that defines differences associated with being men and women.

Promotion: Promotion is a transferring of employees for higher position compensation and advance reward in the hierarchical structure. Promotion has a significant and positive association with opportunities for career advancement and pay satisfaction of employees. Promotion is also an employee’s reward for good performance or the advancement of salary or other benefits for example training for new skills (Malik, Danish & Munir, 2012:2).

Sub-Saharan Africa: Sub-Saharan Africa is defined as a region south of the desert and includes 44 countries. Sub-Saharan and Sahara countries are divided by tremendously harsh climate of the sparsely populated Sahara, forming an effective barrier interrupted by the Nile River in Sudan (Braune & Adams, 2013:3). According to Seedat (2007:1), sub-Saharan Africa constitutes the world’s poorest countries, with the highest illiteracy rates within the African continent. Gender differences in this diverse group of nations has been shaped by a mix of influences among them indigenous cultures, Christianity, Islam and colonial governments.
Glass ceiling: According to Hoobler, Hu and Wilson (2010:1), the term glass ceiling is used to describe a high level vocation’s barrier for women. In the context of this study, glass ceiling refers to an obstacle which blocks women from being rewarded and promoted in the workplace. A glass ceiling comes across in workplaces at the top of the hierarchy and prevents women from accessing the same benefits as men.

Cultural values: Culture is a collective views assigned by society to things and people around them. Culture also involves shared actual differences in behaviour. The attractions of values are based on culture that can be expressed in different way. Values can then be used as indirect indicators of the cultural values that prevail across the many contexts to which people are exposed in their life within a society (Smith, Peterson & Schwartz, 2002:188-208).
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

In many countries worldwide, although women make progress in the workplace, discrimination exists, with women spending more hours doing childcare than their men counterparts, thereby negatively influencing women’s capacity to work. It is difficult to expect gender equality in an environment that demands women to be available at work full time. Furthermore, being a good mother is culturally important, and along with a corporate philosophy that requests mothers to work full time, it makes it challenging for mothers who wish to develop their careers (Harvard Summer School, 2015). In sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), practically all women are at great risk of spending their whole lives in poverty. Discrimination based on gender is rife; it appears all societies are predisposed to discriminating against women one way or another. Therefore, it is important to continually study gender and cultural prejudices and measure gender differences and cultural values influencing women’s promotion prospects, to understand how to change it. This study provides an understanding of gender practices, the process of employee promotion and how this affects women in the public sector of selected countries in SSA. The study ascertains whether men and women employees differ in their respective paths to the top.

1.2 Background

In the past few years, more women have been entering the workplace and remain employed for relatively longer. Despite increased women employment rates, women are facing tremendous challenges in gaining equality globally (Ford, 2010). Generally, in most cultures, business is perceived as an occupation which is man-appropriate and tends to be man-controlled. There are several obstacles women face in the work environment, which hinders their promotional prospects (Bester, 2011; Zimmer, 1988). With men having a high level of control, working women are highly visible as some men are incapable of providing for themselves. Moreover, growth in household earnings is
usually connected with reduced death risks in the household and the marginal effect is around 20% higher, if the earnings are from a woman, rather than from a man (Bradshaw, Castellino & Diop, 2013:5). However, when women do occupy higher positions than men, it tends to cause discord in the family, particularly if she receives a better salary than the man. According to Ward (2013:12), social perceptions and expectations about the kind of positions women should hold can impact women’s advancement to a better position.

Gender perception in sub-Saharan Africa is badly biased (Wamani, Åström, Peterson, Tumwine & Tylleskär, 2007:1). Discrimination and cultural beliefs, which are rarely directly measurable, make it difficult for women to get promoted to higher levels. This is termed a ‘glass ceiling’, which blocks women from reaching the top and may lead to loss of talent. Glass ceilings arise crossways in society in a ladder system which prevents women from achieving the same authority as men (Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia & Vanneman, 2001:2-4). Affected by cultural, religious and developmental obstacles, gender discrimination is a tough challenge to women in not allowing them to accomplish what men do in this world (Lahti, 2013:14). In SSA, married women are often penalised, while married men are valued and rewarded in the workplace. According McFerson (2010:3), the incidence of women being bypassed for promotion is particularly marked in sub-Saharan Africa.

Generating a culture that is suitable for everyone will take long-term action by both genders in order to attain such goals. Discrimination against women can be defended within traditional culture, politics and performance. In Nigeria, men generally have power in the public sector and women are perceived as socially subordinate to men. Such social perceptions serve to sustain gender bias about responsibilities (Oyefuga, Salihu & Yusuf, 2013:8).

According to Abara and Chinwe (2012:4), in 1999 Nigerian constitution prohibited discrimination based on gender, but religious beliefs continue to limit women’s rights. Nigeria is a federal state, thus each state has the right to make its own regulations.
Nevertheless, any law that is inconsistent with national regulation can be challenged in a federal court and cannot be implemented. Gender discrimination occurs in Nigeria where some states apply sharia law. Obedience to rules of Islam (sharia law) supports beliefs which are harsh on women by depriving them of independence of movement, marriage and legacy. Patel and Buiting (2013:5-7) state that women who improve their working skills still remain responsible for domestic tasks and family care responsibilities. This is called double burden syndrome and mainly known in African and Asian countries, which reflects women’s responsibilities for work and family.

Despite an increase in gender studies, only a few empirical studies have investigated the effect of gender differences on promotion prospects. This study aimed to extend knowledge concerning women’s experiences of promotion processes and the influence of culture on these processes in SSA. In turn, this will generate knowledge to understand the dynamics of promotion and the quality of living condition for women and their families. It was also aimed to creating or adopt an existing framework to find ways for SSA to promote women economically, socially and politically.

1.3 Statement of research problem

Worldwide, women face discrimination in seeking high level positions and navigating their senior responsibilities, which arises from perceptions and stereotyping (Schwanke, 2013:1-14). According to Okpara (2006:5), in the workplace, there are no rules excluding women from specific hierarchical levels. However women frequently encounter inequality because of religious, cultural, racial and colour barriers that negatively affect them. Kiser (2015:4) argues that men consider themselves more capable than women in the workplace. As such, women do not receive rewards and promotions in the same way men do, which may make it difficult for women to accomplish goals, advance in their careers and achieve their ambitions.

According to Grover (2015:1-4), gender bids may not be directly measurable, but may be measured indirectly using indicators such as promotions, strict rules, long working hours and short break conditions, difficult work duties, and work that is challenging and
time consuming. Access to promotion is influential in determining living conditions for Africans who perceive that gender equality in promotion will substantially improve women’s role in the decision-making process, improve their living conditions and benefit society generally (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007:1). Studies have been done on women’s issues in SSA such as empowerment of women in entrepreneurship, gender equality at home and child care duties, inclusion of women in boards of directors, women in leadership and women in parliaments. However, no study has been done on how gender differences and cultural values affect women’s promotional prospects in SSA. As such, this presents a gap that needs to be addressed.

1.4 Aims and objectives of the research

1.4.1 Aims

This study aims to extend knowledge on gender practices in sub-Saharan Africa through incorporating an in-depth discussion of the process of women promotion. Furthermore, it tests the common relationship between cultural values and promotional prospects among SSA’s nations, leading to an understanding of the scope of issues stemming from gender differences that affect women’s promotional prospects in the workplace. The study also aims to provide a framework of the progress towards implementation of women’s promotion in the public sector by identifying elements that have contributed to achieving equality among men and women in other regions. Findings of this study will contribute to the process of gender policy recommendations within SSA.

1.4.2 Objectives

The primary objectives of this research were to:

- Ascertain the influence of gender bias on women’s promotional prospects in the public sector.
- Determine the effects of cultural values on women’s career trajectory in the public sector.
The secondary objectives were to:

- Understand the scope of issues stemming from cultural values that affect women's promotion in the public sector of selected countries in SSA.
- Provide a framework aimed at advancing the implementation of women’s promotional prospects in the public sector.

1.5 Research questions

The main research question is: How gender differences and cultural values affect women’s promotional prospects in the public sector? Addressing his question which answering the following sub questions:

- What are the issues stemming from gender differences and cultural values that influence women’s promotion prospects in the public sector?
- What is an appropriate framework that would advance women’s promotion prospects in the public sector?

1.6 Significance of the research

The importance of this study is its contribution to understanding gender equality. It is vital to understand how cultural values may, based on public assumptions and gender differences, influence women's promotion and earnings in the public sector in SSA. This study’s findings could contribute towards the development of gender policy on equality by governments and business owners. Women comprise 51.6% of the African population. This proportion, which is more than half the total population, gains equal opportunities, women will contribute to improve living standards and economic growth in Africa, which remains the poorest region in the world.

1.7 Expected outcomes, results and contributions of the research

The research expects to devise a framework and make recommendations for equal gender practices. Moreover, this study hopes to provide an understanding of the significance of equality in the workplace and its contribution to women’s promotion
prospects and Africa’s economic development. It is also expected to contribute to the spirit of empowerment, such as providing access to and enjoying the same promotion prospects and chances irrespective of one’s gender. Simultaneously, the study hopes to show how women can develop themselves and improve their living conditions. Attaining gender equality is vital in the workplace not only because it is fair or right, but also because it is extremely significant to the bottom line of businesses and efficient governing of African nations.

1.8 Summary

Across the world, women face discrimination while seeking high level positions. However, there are no laws excluding women from specific hierarchical levels. Nevertheless women frequently encounter discrimination because of religious, cultural, racial and colour barriers that negatively affect them. As such, women do not receive promotions in the same way as their men counterparts, which may make it difficult for them to advance in their careers in SSA. Numerous of studies have been done on women’s issues, in general; but no study has been done on how gender differences and cultural values affect women’s promotion prospects in SSA. This remains a gap that needs to be addressed. This study aimed to determine the influence of gender differences and cultural values on women’s promotion prospects in the public sector in sub-Saharan Africa.

The case study approach was used to examine a specific region and the method used was desk research, which is designed to test secondary data available on three countries in SSA (Democratic Republic of Congo, Sudan, and Nigeria). The approach for data analysis was qualitative as it provided insights into multiple thoughts and ideas on the literature. In order to avoid misconduct, the following ethical codes were applied in this study: honesty/integrity, objectivity, carefulness, fairness and decision making. In addition, it is importance to ascertain how cultural values based on social expectations can impact women’s promotion in the public sector in SSA. The result of this study could contribute towards the development of gender policy on equality by SSA governments.
1.9 Dissertation outline

Chapter 1: Introduction

This study started with an introduction and provided a background on gender and cultural values globally and in SSA. The chapter also focused on finding deficiencies in women’s promotion prospects associated with societal views towards women.

Chapter 2: Literature review

This chapter focuses on historical data on gender in SSA, gender discrimination in the public sector in selected countries, its impact on women promotion prospects and whether or not there is any intention to implement gender policies.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

The chapter describes case study as well as method used to collect data for the assessment of this study and ethical consideration.

Chapter 4: Findings and discussion

The findings of this study show how women participate in the workplace. Glass ceiling challenges prevent women from getting jobs in leadership positions and involvement in the decision making process. How to develop a gender policy framework based on effective policies used in other countries is also investigated.

Chapter 5: Conclusion and recommendations

Recommendations focused on the governments of SSA to improve the implementation of gender policy frameworks.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Workplace gender differences have received considerable attention and found to negatively impact on employees’ promotion and wellbeing (Grover, 2015:1-4). Gender disparity is observed in all aspects of life since women appear underprivileged in comparison with men (Okpara, 2006:4). This literature review covers the general topic of women’s promotional prospects and explains the influence of cultural values on women’s promotion in selected SSA countries, namely: Demographic Republic of Congo (DRC), Nigeria and Sudan. Moreover, the literature review attempts to identify more specific issues stemming from gender differences that affect women’s earnings and their ability to transfer among jobs. It also focuses on gender and cultural impediments and examines progress towards implementing promotion of women into higher positions in the public sector in these countries. Finally, the literature review also identifies aspects where gender equality has been achieved globally.

2.2 Holistic views on women’s promotion prospects

Views on social expectations are practically important for both men and women as they drive perception and behaviour. Early behavioural theories indicate that the way a person is treated at work affects their behaviour, attitude and how they work (Ibarra & Obodaru, 2009:8-9; Okpara, 2006:4). Drawing from the theory of behaviour, one can say that people expect to be rewarded for the effort they put into their work. If employees feel their inputs are rewarded, in a philosophy of equitability, they are encouraged to improve their performance. According to Okpara (2006:4), the philosophy of equitability or equity theory provides a thorough framework for understanding satisfaction and promotion of an employee in any position. Furthermore, behavioural activities are often associated with gender in a group or a personal capacity in certain cultures and this can be driven by gender disparity (Azuh, Egharevba & Azuh, 2014:22).
In the past decade, women have made great contributions to labour markets. Even so, women are still perceived to have reduced access to career advancement than men at all job levels. The gap caused by the hindrance to women’s job advancement is called “glass ceiling” (Gobillon, Meurs & Roux, 2009:2:4). The glass ceiling is a persuasive description for examining disparities between men and women in the workplace; it refers to barriers that prevent women from rising to high management positions in the workplace (Burke & Vinnicombe, 2005:165). According to Weyer (2007:482), the limited number of females moving up the workplace ladder is linked to ongoing prejudice and discrimination against women. On a global scale, women are denied promotion opportunities that could include them in influential decision-making. Women are not employed equitably compared to their male counterparts. As women, they often experience governmental barriers embedded in regulations that block privileges (Walton, Ross, Stewart, Grigoriadis, Dennis & Vigod, 2014:2).

2.3 Cultural values

Schwartz (2006:1-47) describes the term “culture” as a richly complicated mixture of common sense, signs, directions, ideas and values widespread among individuals in a society. These main values emphasised among people may be the most important feature of culture, which highlight the standard ideas of what is respectable and what is needed in culture. Martin (2014:89-92) states that workplace measures, strategies, rules and everyday practices express basic cultural values that are highlighted in societies. For example, the values of traditional cultures that highlight accomplishment and determination could translate into effective commercial structures as well as build a knowledge base for talent, which might create a smooth integration of work into culture. However, cultural values expressed in the workplace may lead to misunderstanding, conflicts, creation of obstacles for a women’s promotion and a dysfunctional adaptation of performance (UNESCO, 2009:25).

A study by Leavitt (2002:1-9) further demonstrates that cultural values arise through discussions on race, background, beliefs and sexual group, which bring different values and rules into the workplace that have been shaped by societal traditions and the
stereotyping of individuals with different sexual orientations and beliefs. These traditions disturb the promotion process owing to the way managers value employees. According to Jackson (2006:5), it is essential to have a procedure that guarantees equal rights for employees, irrespective of their gender or cultural background.

2.4 Culture and gender identity and its effects on women’s promotion in the workplace

Azuh et al. (2014:22) state that gender rules are reinforced when describing women and men’s identities. This research builds on evidence that gender roles are founded on societal characteristics, which are prejudiced in one way or another. This should indicate to authorities that relationships between women and men are controlled by social beliefs that provide a great advantage to men in both access to leadership positions and decision making and give them authority to control resources and how to use these resources. In this situation, women suffer from all the disadvantages that affect their advancement and ability to contribute to development processes and economic growth.

Despite innate differences between genders, for example, biological differences between men and women, character may be shaped by society one lives or within which one works. For instance, it is evident in name giving how men and women are treated, how they are dressed and what they are taught (Abegunde, 2014:165). Our beliefs and perceptions are built by culture (Mitchell, 2006:5). The roles individuals play in the workplace and rewards they receive are also impacted by cultural identity, irrespective of gender. In addition, people might be likened to a diamond. The diamond represents diverse faces and colours in any given background or context. According to Culture and Diversity Handbook (2013:54), women find it hard to balance family responsibilities and career development and are often affected by their own stereotypical view, which contributes to inequality between men and women.


2.5 Gender differences

Many researchers have attempted to differentiate between sex and gender in order to understand the impact of biology and other factors on human behaviour (EACEA, 2009:15). The World Health Organisation (WHO, 2009:1) defines sex as biological and physiological characteristics that define men and women. The term ‘gender’ refers to the economic, social, political and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being male or female. In most societies, men and women differ in the activities they undertake, in access to and control of resources and in participation in decision-making (EACEA, 2009:15). A study by Desprez-Bouanchaud, Doolaeghe and Ruprecht (1987:20) points out that in most societies, women as a group, have less access than men to resources, opportunities and decision-making.

According to Dozo (2015:17), gender differences are the result of sex-differentiated pressures on human lineages that occur because of different positions men and women hold in social hierarchies as well as specific gender roles that are assumed men and women fit into. The author illustrates that social behavioural differences between men and women can result from multiple influences. From a biological viewpoint, men and women differ in physical size and levels of hormones.

Porfeli and Mortimer (2010:3-4) aver that women tend to perceive work as what one has to do, rather than as an entitlement. This clearly shows that cultural values affect the way women see themselves in the workplace and their future prospects. This is one of the biggest issues women face in reaching the top, particularly in Africa. Additionally, gender stereotyping stipulates that men should demonstrate power, attraction and accomplishment, while women should exhibit socially sensitive characteristics such as helping, being kind to others, caring and understanding. Different cultural values might play a significant role in the workplace by determining the process of women’s promotion.
Women tend to behave similarly to men in the work environment. Nevertheless, women might be affected by cultural views when faced with the opportunity of promotion to a high level. Issues of gender and culture have been extensively studied in the United Kingdom, the United States of America and other western countries. There are several studies that have been conducted on the state of gender inequality in the public sector in most parts of SSA. Examples include a study by Mutume (2005:n.p) suggest that development policies should place more emphasis on women contributions to the economy. Though women make up a significant proportion of the economically active population, their contribution is not fully recognised and recorded. Nchake and Koatsaargue (2017:1-25), investigated the female labour force participation in sub-Saharan Africa and found that the trade-off between women decision to join the labour market involves choosing between paid work and unpaid household work that involves emotional care or ‘caring labour’. BSR (2017:19-25) also addressed women’s economic empowerment in sub-Saharan Africa, which focused on the obstacles women face to achieving their potential at work and in other aspects of life. In the same study, they argued that not only does persistent gender inequality affect women, it impedes economic and social progress in the region, but eliminating gender inequality and empowering women could raise the productive potential of one billion Africans, delivering a huge boost to the continent’s development potential.

In Africa have been conducted on the state of gender inequality and cultural values in the public sector in most parts of SSA. Not surprisingly, issues of women’s promotion prospects in Africa may differ from those in the West because of cultural, socio-economic and religious differences and it is vital to emphasise the extent to which cultures and traditions are intertwined and permeate all levels of society in Africa (Goldberg, 2015:28-31).

A study by Keller, Meier, Gross and Semmer (2015:4) found that some theories typically focus on men, while other theories recycle gender as a controlled variable. When gender and cultural values have been observed systematically, discrimination against women has been found. In addition, Barbulescu and Bidwell (2013:2-3) suggest that managers take an applicant’s gender into account during the hiring process. They may
prefer to hire men, rather than women, simply because they assume men are more efficient than women. Gender differences may affect job transfer or promotion through discrimination. Consequently, women may have lesser chance for promotion than men.

Societal traditional expectations may govern job suitability based on gender. The differences between men and women demonstrate hierarchical gender relations that force women into needy living environments with less or lower choices and opportunities to be rewarded and advance than men (Wajcman, 2013:1). Wajcman (2013:1-2) demonstrates that, in most countries, business is perceived as a vocation appropriate for men and dominated by men. The promotion of gender equality is a priority focus for the United Nations (UN) in its millennium growth goals (Norström, Dannenberg, McCarney, Milkoreit, Diekert, Engström, Fishman, Gars, Kyriakopoolou, Manoussi & Meng, 2014:1). Little progress has been made in this regard.

2.6 Feminist and gender theories

Gender generates social differences between men and women that generally go beyond physiological differences (Browne & Misra, 2003:487). According to Gardiner (2003:147), number of women living prior to prearranged movements for women’s rights pointed that women are equal to men, despite men designating themselves superior by placing women and femininity in a subordinate position. Usar (2010:n.p) claims that prior to the 1980s, feminist theories and research in the public sector operated in different domains. Feminist theory points out the body of thought that pursues the road to understand women’s social situation and to articulate justice from a woman-centred perspective (Gardiner, 2003:149).

A study by Howell, Carter and Schied (2002:112) show that feminists view gender as a socially created class, which pays attention to understanding the changing aspects of gender relations by addressing race, class, sexual orientation, language and the practices faced by women. With the renaissance of a movement for women’s rights in the second half of the twentieth century, several theories were advanced to clarify the causes of male domination and correct mistaken assumptions about both women and
men. These theories postulate that cultural ideologies prefer men, social institutions reproduce these ideologies and men, as a group, benefit from the subordination of women (Gardiner, 2003:150). Feminist theories focus on male-controlled forces in the social lives of women (Calás & Smircich, 2006:284). The authors mention that much progress has been made in improving women’s political, social and economic situation. Nevertheless, occupations are still sex-segregated and, overall, men are still better positioned than women.

2.6.1 Liberal feminist theory

Liberal feminism upholds that gender differences between women and men are not founded on biology, which fundamentally represents generative differences; subsequently, women and men are not different and should, thus, not be treated differently under the law (Nienaber & Moraka, 2016:145). Women, in general, must enjoy the same rights as men, including the same educational as well as employment opportunities. Liberal feminism focuses on visible sources of gender discrimination such as gender system in job markets and unbalanced wage scales, whilst making it possible for women to attain positions of authority in the professions, government and cultural institutions, just like their male counterparts (Nienaber & Moraka, 2016:145).

According to Fischer, Reuber and Dyke (2003:151), women are seen as underprivileged compared to men because of some disadvantages they experience in acquiring different experience. Women are prevented from reaching top managerial positions because of the effects of the glass ceiling, sexual harassment, lack of mentors and networking opportunities (Calás & Smircich, 2006:285). Women are also stopped due to sexual discrimination, prejudice and stereotyping (Thomas & Davies, 2005:683). According to Calás and Smircich (2006:289), many studies on gender difference focuses on gender roles, transformational leadership and sex-type occupations. Liberal feminist theory recommends that the key to address gender disparity in organisations or in other areas is to take into consideration the rampant slow advancement of women (Marlow & Patton, 2005:717), but this theory does not consider how other facets of society negatively impact women (Alvesson & Billing, 2009:2).
Nienaber and Moraka (2016:145) are of the view that liberal feminism’s main approach to overcome the disparity between women and men, especially in a sector such as the job market, is anti-discrimination legislation and affirmative action. In this strategy, qualified people are required to redress imbalances in gender and ethnic representation. This remedial strategy includes encouraging the genders to train for occupations that are traditionally reserved for only one sex. (Nienaber & Moraka, 2016:146). Oakley (2000:321) states that the main failure of the liberal feminist approach is that theorists do not point out the main causes of gender disparity in organisations and therefore men still control organisations. Kark (2004:160) also elaborates that researchers using this theory tend to use established models and methods and do not take into account more complex elements of gender, Nevertheless, some scholars have made some contribution to theoretical elements of this framework (Thomas & Davies, 2005:684).

### 2.6.2 Radical feminist theory

Radical feminism’s theory of gender inequality goes beyond discrimination to deal with oppression and devises a gender politics of resistance to the dominant gender order (Nienaber & Moraka, 2016:148). Different from liberal feminist theory, the subordination of women based on patriarchy is the focus of radical feminist theory (Oakley, 2000:322). Patriarchy could be present wherever women and men interact with each other, whether in private or public sector; patriarchy holds the theory that women are not only different from men, but also inferior to men (Jefferson, 2004:2). The differences between men and women are commonplace: men hold control socially, economically, politically and in the workplace, while women possess less power (Greer & Greene, 2003:1).

According to Nienaber and Moraka (2016:148), patriarchy is entrenched in the perception of most men and difficult to eliminate. Furthermore, the authors point out that this domination can best be countered by establishing support groups for women. Radical feminism blames values that maintain male domination for the harms of the world and praises female values, which can be acquired by men, to foster harmony and
equality (Nienaber & Moraka, 2016:148). Radical feminists have tried to change the legal and political constructions of patriarchy, as well as cultural and social institutions (Alvesson & Billing, 2009:3). Browne and Misra (2003:487) state that when radical feminists state that men dominate women, the theorists do not take into account economic factors between particular groups of men and women in organisations, where in some workplaces certain women are better placed than minority males.

2.6.3 Socialist and Marxist feminist theory

According to the socialist feminist theory, gender forms part of social relations and points to differences and power relations between men and women (Calás & Smircich, 2006:284). Fischer et al. (2003:152) maintain that men and women are different because of early socialisation, which does not explain the fact that women are considered inferior to men. Women have refined different traits that are as important as the skills men have developed (Calás & Smircich, 2006:286). Both capitalism and patriarchy are viewed as systems of domination of women as women are placed in different jobs, different industries, with different salaries (Holvino, 2001:11). According to Calás and Smircich (2006:287), women should defend themselves against capitalism and patriarchy because they face oppression in the workplace by being blocked from gaining privileges.

Maynard (1995:259) argues that while some scholars do not distinguish between Marxist and socialist feminism, others believe there is a clear distinction. Marxist feminists study society in order to introduce radical changes in gender relations (Alvesson & Billing, 2009:4). Gender is compared to class, which is characterised by forces of power and subjugation. Holvino (2001:12) also claims that the problem with using intersectionality in socialist feminist theory is that ‘class’ is not regarded as leading to oppression in social feminism. Marxist feminists believe that women are treated as property and are oppressed according to the class to which they belong (Beasley, 1999:n.p); further the author pointed that, patriarchy and capitalism interconnect to produce gender inequality in the workplace, according to the Marxist feminist framework, if economic injustices are removed and the capitalist system is conquered,
then social injustices such as oppression relating to gender and race will also be eliminated (Greer & Greene, 2003:1).

2.6.4 Current literature

According to Ndind and Uzodike (2012:145), despite the human capital endowment of women in Africa might enter the workforce based on their qualifications, however, they continue to stick at the same level of employment. Within the workforce there is a glass ceiling bears that are invisible barriers to women’s career development which may be accounted by a combination of sexism and racism. Ndind and Uzodike (2012:127-145) argued that unfair discriminatory practices in the workplace have led to a substantial proportion of women’s population being under-developed. Onyejekwe’s (2011:5) identifies that cultural values as barriers to women’s advancement into top leadership of public sectors involved socio-economic, political and educational sectors. Underlying gender ideology in the sub-Saharan African culture explains the subordination of women and men's dominance in public sectors and regional governance.

2.6.5 Feminist theory and its relevance to women career advancement

Feminist theories have been developed to explain the dearth of women career advancement. According to (Ibrat, 2015:30-39), the log believed of feminists is that if women have access to the same work opportunities as men, they would break the prejudiced. But, with more women than men often graduating from filed such as law and science, it is surprising that women still occupy a small fraction of top positions in public sectors. In response to the fact that women are under-represented in public sectors, feminist argue that female career development is still heavily dependent on the social and cultural differences that often limit women’s career promotion prospects (Ibrat, 2015:30-39). Feminist argue that the opportunity is not yet equal between men and women in the workplace where a glass ceiling continues in limiting the career progress of women employees to the highest levels.
Feminist have advised that invisibility of women dominance in workplace are actually elements of gender differences that keep women away from the influential positions. Barak, 2016:25), workplace culture and promotion process are not yet gender friendly and still impact women employees who wish to advance their careers, differences are identified when it comes to promotion and recruitment processes that prefer males. (Ibrat, 2015:30-39), even though workplace practice is not visibly gender biased after the equal opportunity revolution, it is argued by mainstream feminists that workplace culture, particularly in the higher executive levels, continue to secure bias and discrimination against female employees. Cultural value are, therefore, a main reason for lack of women in senior positions.

2.7 Sub-Saharan Africa

SSA comprises Africa’s southern desert and includes 44 countries, which are divided by a tremendously harsh climate around the sparsely occupied Sahara, which is cut off by the Nile River in Sudan (Braune & Adams, 2013:3). According to Seedat (2007:1) and Sahn and Younger (2009:1-37) Africa south of the Sahara is one of the poorest region worldwide. Similarly, the current study by Sembene (2015:15) found that “PRSP implementation has neither reduced poverty headcount nor raised the income share of the poorest quintile in Sub-Saharan Africa. While countries in other regions have been more successful in reducing poverty and increasing the income share of the poor, there is no conclusive evidence that PRSP implementation has played a role in shaping these outcomes”. Moreover, Gender discrimination in this diverse group of the states has been influenced by its ethnic and cultural principles, religions and colonial governments.
2.8 Gender discrimination in sub-Saharan Africa

The history of gender discrimination is not a new phenomenon in Africa south of the Sahara (Adjiwanou & LeGrand, 2014:8). Women in SSA struggle not only to support themselves, but also their families (Ward, 2013:7). Lack of cooperation in matters to achieve women’s professional advancement has forced them into an impoverished lifestyle across SSA. While debating about gender issues from a developmental perspective in the context of SSA, traditional values in gender roles highlight the ways in which gender rules are culturally created. Women in sub-Saharan Africa are more disadvantaged than in any other region of the world. A study by Kelly (2009:1) found that discrimination in the Africa prevents women from enjoying a full range of legal rights. Given that the majority of people are living below the poverty line in Africa, women are poorly represented in the workplace (Poverty, 2015:4). Ward (2013:5)
discusses how lack of promotion and wage gap has affected many Africans and led them to work for one dollar or less per day.

Despite the fact that promotion generally determines the standard of living for the majority of people in Africa, it is women that are seriously, negatively influenced by lack of promotion (Schultz, 1990:10). However, globally it is known that with an increase in opportunities for women there will be a systematic improvement in their livelihoods and growth opportunities. Maseko (2013:15) states that in Africa, the position of women and their public contribution has significantly improved over the last two decades. However, the issue of not being able to break through the glass ceiling and is still challenging many women in advancing to top positions. Challenges continue to affect women across the public and private sectors. Women have the potential and capability to occupy top positions, but they often lack opportunities, resources and support for realising their potentiality (Fagenson, 2003:n.p).

According to Wajcman (2013:4), the lack of women in management positions is of social and political concern. Furthermore, the author points out that because of cultural and gender bias, women are powerless to contribute to major political roles, including leadership roles, which may have great economic benefits for a nation. A study by Maseko (2013:16) shows that restraining women’s identity to a certain domain such as domestic is one of the barriers that limit entry into politics. Furthermore, the author states that, normally, cultural attitudes are aggressive to women’s participation in politics, but women were capable of excelling cultural barriers and ascending to positions of leadership regardless in politics or other domains of public life.

Gender discrimination is pervasive since women continuously seem to be more disadvantaged than men. Lack of employment and promotion is the key contributor to gender disparity in SSA (Agbodji, Batana & Ouedraogo, 2013:2). It is recognised that women’s promotion and wage parity may create great societal benefits and could lead to a positive relationship between labour and domestic violence (Heath, 2012:5). Women are normally disadvantaged in the workplace in terms of their contribution and
promotion. There is a clear gender difference in SSA, where a promotion ratio is 75.7% against women and 86.7% in favour of men (Agbodji et al., 2013:39).

In the context of promotion, gender discrimination and cultural values are great challenges to equality. Justice systems infrequently encounter the needs of women, women face specific discrimination and violence whether they are part of marginalised group or not (United Nations, 2013:4). A study by the Sustainable Development Solutions Network (SDSN, 2013:12) indicates that sexual, emotional and physical violence and the threat of violence limits women’s mobility and restrains them from engaging completely in processes of social and economic development. Twinomurinzi (2013:13) states that despite the violation of women’s rights such as disinheristion, domestic violence, denial of opportunity and rank in decision making, there is an absence of cases at the African Commission imploring the protection of women’s human rights. Furthermore, the author points out that even if some women have gained equality to some extent that has reduced discrimination, a large number of women are still battling the heart of untold discrimination in their workplaces, families and communities.

Culturally determined gender ideology defines rights and responsibilities and what is appropriate behaviour for women and men. The ideology also impacts access to and control over resources and participation in decision-making; these gender ideologies frequently strengthen male power and the idea of women’s inferiority such as in the indication of customary laws that dictate only men can own land (United Nations, 2008:1). According to Issaka, Nakazibwe, Irvine, Saine and Issaka (2013:38), many women in Africa belong to a substandard position in society due to the derogatory practices imposed on women by culture and tradition. Further, the authors state that these set of practices include childhood marriage, female genital mutilation, widow inheritance, lack of property rights and nutritional taboos. Even though the African Charter clearly excludes discrimination, it does not make provision for the elimination of harmful culture and tradition practices (Twinomurinzi, 2013:8).
2.8.1 Gender and cultural values in the Demographic Republic of Congo

The Demographic Republic of Congo (DRC) lies in the central region of Africa; it is the second biggest country in Africa and the biggest in SSA (Clément, 2005:1-5). The DRC, which was previously called Zaire and also known as Belgian Congo, has a population of 70.9 million. The country won independence from Belgium in 1960. The DRC has more than 200 ethnic group, many of which are Bantu. The country has an estimated 242 spoken languages spoken of which only four have the status of national languages in addition to French: Kikongo, Lingala, Tshiluba and Swahili (Dagne, 2011:2).

![The Democratic Republic of Congo map](image)

**Figure 2**: The Democratic Republic of Congo map

*Source: Operation World (2016)*

The DRC is a massive country, which consists of multiple religions, cultures and traditions that negatively influence women’s career processes and its economic growth. These aspects and others affect gender relations in the DRC. A study by Laura, Paola...
and Ilot (2014:2) found that the Gender Equity Index (GEI) placed the DRC at 144 out of 148 states, making it one of the greatest challenges among states globally concerning gender equality. Mbambi and Faray-Kele (2010:1-11) argue that in the DRC there are persistent, comprehensive gender barriers in employment and within all sectors of development such as education, economics and the government. Women in the DRC face discrimination on a regular base in the form of culture, gender differences and continued lack of representation in the workplace. In the employment promotion process women are traditionally located on a different level to men, and there are no clear rules except that men are advantaged. Women have a reduced representation in the public sector, particularly in senior management levels. Some women are not allowed to own property. Approximately 12% of women in the DRC have been raped at least once in their lifetime (Acaps, 2015:3).

2.8.1.1 The challenge of gender discrimination in the workplace in the Demographic Republic of Congo

In the workplace, when women are rewarded and promoted to senior positions they are expected to be more proficient than men. (Laura et al., 2014:6). The Poverty Reduction Strategy (2013:16) proposes that the government of the DRC should attempt to adopt appropriate macro-economic strategies to lay the basis for growth, while ensuring it sustains the vital balance between economic improvement and women’s promotion to leadership and decision-making positions. Women continue to find it difficult to achieve sustainable career development and promotion because they are subject to bias and discrimination both by the rule of law and traditional culture. This requires the government to immediately implement laws through its National Gender Policy that take into account both women and men.

For example, women with limited earnings are economically excluded from farming, where only specific individuals make a living, and there is also a glass ceiling (barrier), which excludes 56% women compared with 48% men (Country Strategy Paper, 2013:16). In the DRC women are consistently ignored and denied their right to government leadership. In the rural areas, women are the key providers for their
families. Moreover, gender disparities in access to employment and promotion prospects are justified by cultural influences such as early marriage, pregnancies and economic aspects that facilitate men’s promotion but act against women’s promotion.

2.8.1.2 Situation analysis of gender discrimination in the Democratic Republic of Congo

Gender issues are on the agenda in the Democratic Republic of Congo. The Congolese Constitution establishes gender parity strategies as absolute philosophies towards gender equality within both the public and private sectors. However, the situation of Congolese women is still far from achieving women’s empowerment and their promotions remains low across all sectors (Poverty Reduction Strategy, 2013:12). Women often experience sexual harassment in the work place. Sexual harassment is linked not only to promotion prospects, but also to the transmission of sexually transmitted diseases, mostly HIV and AIDS, but such activities remain unchallenged and are viewed as ‘normal’ (Gouzou, 2009:11).

2.8.1.3 Principles of gender discrimination in the public sector

According to Gouzou, Eriksson-Baaz and Olsson (2009:21), the constitution of gender was established as the law on gender discrimination and this law was proposed by the Minister of Gender. Furthermore, the authors state that the Congolese government was responsible for implementing these laws. According to the Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada (IRBC, 2012:1), the constitution required that discrimination against women must be punished; the regulations were put through an exacting programme in 2006, but have not yet been implemented by the government of the DRC.

Regulations of the United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (2013:1) point out several solutions related to gender and culture-based values: concerning education, preference is often given to boys over their female siblings; measures to eliminate barriers preventing access to education, as well as higher education, have been put in place and basic literacy improved. Measures and awareness campaigns to fight discrimination and harassment and steps to encourage
pregnant girls or young mothers to attend school are also in place. Health interventions aimed at reducing the prevalence of cancer, cardiovascular conditions, HIV and other diseases have been instituted. For example, pregnant women receive healthcare with a view to improving maternal health, as well as HIV testing and measures to reduce mother to child transmission. Efforts to eliminate female genital mutilation are also mentioned. Social protection has been extended to women as well as equal access to capital and commercial opportunities.

The draft Family Code 2002 eliminated many shortfalls in the existing legislation concerning gender equality. Regarding the participation of women in political decision-making, the 2006 Constitution enshrined the principle of women’s participation in politics, but there is still much to be done. Focal points have been established within public bodies to promote increased representation and the government has sought to introduce legislation ensuring that women are appointed to decision-making positions. Violence against women is a serious problem in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. As part of its fight against gender-based violence, a national strategy and a steering committee on Security Council Resolution 1325 have been implemented. Other initiatives, such as centres and strategic study units to promote women and protect children have been undertaken at national, provincial and local levels, which also includes forced marriage and sexual harassment, where a woman must give her consent to a partner for it to be legal (Democratic Republic of Congo Constitution, 2006:14). Moreover, currently women have to ask for approval to take employment and open bank accounts, despite the DRC labour law being more progressive and not having such conditions (Gouzou, 2009:11). However, the legal framework does not include women's promotion prospects in the DRC.

Despite the progress on legislation in the DRC, the situation for women in the public sector remains glum and their economic empowerment and promotion prospects are low. These disparities are revealed in a study on gender differences and methods of determining the risks and legal responsibility in the design, implementation and evaluation across different developmental programmes and projects (Poverty Reduction
Strategy, 2013:60). According to the United Nations Millennium Development Goals Report (2010), the proportion of women’s participation in parliament was 5%. Effective and equal involvement for both genders in wealth creation and the distribution process are needed to accomplish sustainable advancement goals (Oser, 2007:7). The percentage of women employed in all areas was 21%-34% between 2001 and 2007. This level of discrimination reflects mainly negative religious and traditional cultural effects (Country Strategy Paper, 2013:16).

Finally, the DRC is being monitored by the United Nations Special Representative who is concentrating on bringing about reconciliation and development to the country. The promotion of gender equality through state guidance, better supremacy and gender policies is essential to achieve and maintain success, according to the United Nations. However, the important outstanding point is whether the DRC government can take responsibility for women’s promotion in the labour market, sustain development and reduce poverty through women’s promotion (Democratic Republic of the Congo, 2014:7). Gender image in management is founded on the values of gender equality in development; this needs respect from all who contributed and the obligations to be validated by DRC. The aim is to create a socio-economic environment, which supports gender parity and a certain attention of masculinity in development sectors (Country Strategy Paper, 2013:81).

**2.9 Gender and cultural influences on women’s promotion in the Republic of Sudan**

The Republic of Sudan lies in northeast Africa; it is recognised as North Sudan. It was previously the largest country in Africa until the separation of the South in 2011 as a free republic. It is now the third biggest republic in Africa after Algeria (the largest) and the DRC. The Sudan Republic is split into the eastern and western by River Nile. Sudan is associated with the United Nations (UN), the African Union (AU), the Union of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) and has links with the World Trade Organisation (WTO). Khartoum is the administrative, commercial and cultural centre. The country is governed by on
Islamic Law and the ethnic groups are mixture of Africans and Arabs, with an African majority. The population is estimated of 40.235 million people (Martine, 2015:27). According to Alrasheed (2006:8), Islamic law which allows the state to enforce public morality has reduced women’s mobility and their participation in the public sphere. The author also states that in Sudan gender segregation is implemented in all public spaces. The penal codes, under the auspices of Sharia or Islamic Law in Sudan, have made it difficult for women to participate in politics. A study by Tønnessen (2007:2) shows that for Muslim women, the arranged Islamic family law (the Muslim Personal Status Act of 1991), which regulates their civil rights, still has legal force in today’s Sudan. This codified law is perceived by most Sudanese Muslim women and the international community as discriminatory against women. According to the codified law, a husband can prohibit his wife from working outside the home, which renders the constitutional right to public office ineffective in a reality as men have the right to decide whether women should work outside the home.

Women Living Under Muslim Laws (1994:1) states that:

The different face of Islamisation is visible in Sudan where it is being promoted by an authoritarian regime with much more brutal effects, women’s job and promotions opportunities in the government have been severely restricted, their mobility made dependent on male and state approval at various levels, their rights to land ownerships curtailed and even their dress regulated, girls and women enrolled in educational institutions are formally subject to a dress code and many be expelled in the event of violation of this code, further various state-instituted bodies have been established to patrol streets to ensure appropriate behaviour.
2.9.1 Gender discrimination in Sudan

The country is war-torn, and the war has been responsible for 500,000 deaths and three million or more have been internally displaced (Bubenzer & Lacey 2013:1-14). Women are under continuous danger from the military and rebels as they are kidnapped and raped. The situation is at its worst in Darfur in the western part of Sudan. Women’s safety is of paramount importance and it is difficult for them to stay alive let alone have rights in this conflict situation, which has redefined family structures.
Rape is the main concern during the conflict. Woman rape victims are subject to physical and psychological shock, humiliation, pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases. In many African traditional cultures, women are either sexually assaulted or murdered in times of war and conflict due to the perception of women and their related vulnerability. Currently, in many SSA countries, women are vulnerable during conflict, as is evidenced by wars in Darfur and the DRC (Njogu & Orchardson-Mazrui 2013:21). The war in Sudan has created ethnic discrimination among African and Arab groups. Even in the work place there is racial prejudice among employees and ethnic groups are divided and treated inhumanely, with Africans being particularly affected. Another consequence of war in Sudan is divisions among cultural groups.

### 2.9.2 Discrimination based on race and religion

Sudan is a country of significant ethnic diversity. It has different ethnic characteristics and differing customs, religion, origins and colours United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (2000:51). Political forces in Sudan have failed to construct a comfortable description for the diverse religious and ethnic groups in the country. Instead, they have established racial and discriminatory institutions making, the civil violence in Sudan to be essentially a conflict of identity based on the dynamics of racism and discrimination within the political, religious, cultural and social institutions of the territory (Abdullahi, 2016:49).

#### 2.9.2.1 Religion

Religion is not just being Muslim, Christian, Jew or others. Rather, it has to do with identity based on culture, language, skin colour and affiliation with the workplace. The Islamic religion within Sudan has been broken into a power structure and part of the Darfur population practises Islam. However, the power structure broke the non-Arab followers into a lower row (Abdullahi, 2016:52). According to Abdullahi (2016:54):

> the Arabic population saw the indigenous people beyond from god merely because they did not claim Arabic heritage; Islamic movements like Mahdism, Muslim Brotherhood, and National Islamic Front are made by the Arabic population in Northern Africa to establish an Islamic State in Sudan and those movements created Islamisation and Arabisation in order to expand their power
and rule over the non-Arab population in Sudan; established Sharia law within Sudan that set strict rules that impose their ideology of Islamic law.

Meintjes, Pillay and Turshen (2001:n.p) state that religious laws affect women through forced marriages, early marriages and a strict dress code. Flint and Waal (2006:n.p) point out that the core beliefs of Islam impose discrimination within Muslim society in Sudan because of the belief that only those who trace their lineage to the Prophet Mohammed are the true custodians of Islam. Consequently, black Darfuris can never be true Muslims. The Arab government in Khartoum has placed African Muslims victims in the same category as the Animists and Christian Africans of Southern Sudan.

2.9.2.3 Race

In Sudan, race is not as modest as a black or white compared to other parts of world. Sudanese description of race is founded on occupation: a person’s occupation predicates his or her race, which are Arab or non-Arab tribes (Jok, 2007:n.p). According to Gallab (2008:n.p), these characteristics are part of social relations in the modern meaning of race in social sciences. In Sudan they become a line separating racial identities. Abdullahi (2016:51) indicates that women and children are the most affected during and after conflict. Women are targeted with regard of their gender. Selective discrimination against women is based on their gender, designed to accomplish the goal of ethnic purging. The author indicates that women targeted are usually from African tribes in Darfur, the Fur, Zaghawa and Masalit, who are specifically targeted because of their identity as black women and often discriminated against and raped in front of their family members. Race, in Sudanese terminology, has created division amongst tribes. The idea of losing identity is the reason for the fighting in the country. The Arabic population has taken political and social control of Sudan, while the indigenous people are fighting for their identity and culture not to be taken over by Arabic influences.

According to Abdullahi (2016:54), the struggle in Darfur and the practice of rape as a weapon of war is meant to eliminate resistance groups in order for the central power to maintain political and economic control in Sudan:
The GOS and Janjaweed tactic of rape as a weapon of war was to destroy the non-Arab groups and preserve Arab supremacy in Sudan as Janjaweed and GOS targeted only African women as race. Most raped women are classified as black women from African tribes in Sudan; rape remained a method used to extinguish the African tribes as Africans refused to accept Arab culture in Sudan.

In line with Asante Abdullahi’s claims, Asante (2016:n.p) states that “the government of Khartoum does not like African culture; furthermore, it regards African as inferior.”

2.9.3 Principles to achieve equal rights for men and women in Sudan

According to Kolev, Nowacka and Ferrant (2014:2), Sudan’s Interim Constitution (SIC) was passed in 2005, which SIC stated that the country shall promote gender equality in all sectors including political, commercial, social and traditional and also in the family and public sectors. Despite this, the country has yet to approve an agreement on equality for women (UNICEF unite for children, 2011:3). Moreover, the country has engaged in but not approved its permit relating to the process of the Human Charter of Africa concerning woman rights. In Sudan, women are subjected to enormously high levels of discrimination and violence. The discrimination and violence women suffer is targeted at them because of their sex: women are viewed as subordinate and unequal to men in both law and practice and regularly deprived of various rights: equality before the law, practical equality, freedom of movement, association, and expression, and equal access to education, work and healthcare (Jefferson, 2004:2).

According to the report presented by United Nations (2009:1), thousands of women have been killed and millions more displaced from their homes during the fighting in Southern Sudan. The report estimates that 1.8 million women have been displaced from Southern Sudan to refugee camps where most are at risk of sexual assault, targeted, harassed and raped when they leave the camp, both by Sudanese police and military. The report further states that: “The strong set of cultural, social, and religious taboos against rape in Darfur make women reluctant to speak out and often cause them and their children to be disliked by their community” (United Nations, 2009:2). Jefferson
(2004:3) points out that the state often plays a crucial and complicit role in permitting discrimination and violence targeting women and that governments have terrible records of prosecuting sexual violence and domestic against women. Sexual violence has continued regularly and remorselessly in part because of the state’s failure to take it seriously, prevent and prosecute routine and extensive discrimination and violence against women during times of peace. Women carry the burden of poverty and relocation/displacement caused by war and conflict and in rural areas, it is estimated that less than 30% of women have access to education. Women complete only up to 27% of the total enrolment of apprentices in primary school. The between men and women is more noticeable in secondary education as women represent only 1.2% of the total enrolment (Sudan Millennium Development Goals, 2004:61).

2.9.4 Promotions, transmissions and relegations

In Sudanese culture, religion and early marriage negatively impact on girls’ education and consequently on their future and career advancement. The OECD Development Centre (2014:1-37) states that traditional societal expectation on men and women prevent their equality and impact economic growth. Such inequality is not confined to families and also impacts women’s promotion prospects and other employment options.

In the gender guide for 2012, Sudan is rated 85 out of 86 countries. In 2011, Sudan’s position was 169 out of 187 countries (Amadi & Amadi, 2015:12). This makes Sudan a country with low social development. Improving women’s human rights and financial independence would powerfully enhance access to decent work and facilitate their contribution to the development of the regional economy (Food and Agricultural Organization, 2011:25). Discrimination regarding gender inequality in the workplace is distressing, given that of those employed in the public sector 76.9% are men compared with 30.9% women. Thus, men’s contribution to economic activities and their career advancement is 50% greater than that of women. This places Sudan’s position at the bottom of human development with regard to gender equality (Human Development Report, 2013:216).
2.10 Gender and cultural influences in the Republic Nigeria

Nigeria is located in the western part of Africa with a population of more than one hundred and fifty million people. The country is rich with natural resources and its geo-strategic position gives Nigeria a unique location. Nigeria has a diverse cultural tradition and two religions are followed: Islam and Christianity. There are different ethnic groups in Nigeria (Ogbeidi, 2012:1). Northern Nigeria is largely Islamic and home to the Hausa, Kanuri and Fulani ethnic groups. In the east are the Igbo communities who are mostly Christians, while the Yoruba group is located in western part of the country and follow either Islam or Christianity.

Figure 4: The Republic of Nigeria map

Source: Igwe and Brains (2016:1-9)
According to Azuh et al. (2014:21), societal views discriminate against women as shown across the different traditions. Traditional cultures, religions and politics all discriminate against women, which has serious consequences for both the welfare of women and the economic development of SSA. At present, women in Nigeria contribute to certain areas of development such as education, employment and politics but women are blocked from employment to top positions and have no property rights, among other things (Khemani, 2001:16). Ogbeidi (2012:1) identifies sex discrimination as prevalent in Nigerian workplaces. It takes the form of a woman being treated less constructively than a man on the grounds of sex and also indirectly by circumstances applied equally to men and women, which are harmful to women. Furthermore, the author states that women still have a higher unemployment rate than men and women employed are concentrated in the informal sectors such as agriculture, petty trading and services.

According to Kehinde (2008:270), the idea of equal sex opportunity in employment is distant to Nigerian native law and custom. Most entrepreneurs believe women are lower in status to their male counterparts and incompatible with a fast-paced business environment. Discrimination against women in employment in Nigeria is visible, primarily because of the high level of illiteracy and lack of skills among women compared to men. Nigeria has promulgated laws that prohibit gender-based discrimination. However, the applicable laws have not provided any respite to the plight of women. The vulnerability of Nigerian women is an indisputable fact despite the Nigeria being a signatory to a number of international standard instruments, which sanction gender discrimination and unequal access to education, healthcare, inadequate housing and employment. In all legal traditions, many laws continue to institutionalise second-class status for women and girls with regard to employment rights and property rights (Anaeme, 2012:7).

Even though Article 7 of the equitable share protocol provides for both parties of a marriage to enjoy equal rights within and after the marriage, in issues of custody and access to an equitable share of the joint property deriving from the marriage, the reality of women married under customary and Islamic law has not yet been affected by the
protocol. A woman married under customary law is entitled to be provided with a home by her husband as long as the marriage lasts. Women are entitled to use their husbands’ property, but cannot dispose of it as their own (Jok, 2007:n.p).

According to Khemani (2001:16), at the state level, there is the Composition of the Dominant State of Nigeria, policies such as the Unlawful Code and Penal Code Rules of Nigeria and several other polices such as the state poverty elimination policy, state rules on HIV and AIDS and the policy on women and sexuality teaching at universities, all of which fight for gender equality and aim to eradicate discrimination and oppression against women. Nonetheless, these policies need to improve the position of women at the workplace and eradicate gender and cultural disparity entirely. Moreover, it is unclear how the creditable national and international gender rules should be applied in order to convey fairness to disadvantaged and vulnerable women employees. Thus, despite Nigeria having addressed elements of gender inequality, still gender discrimination persists.

2.10.1 Gender and cultural differences on employee promotion in Nigeria

In Nigeria, culture has had a definite impact on how women are treated. The perception of bias against women is hidden behind traditional and social views. In Nigerian culture, women do not have equal rights (Abara & Chinwe, 2012:1-18). Men are largely in control of the public sector and government institutions in Nigeria (Abegunde, 2014:165). Women are not recognised as partners in the development process and society reaction to women is culturally biased. Regardless of the provisions of the protocol recognising and guaranteeing women’s rights and obligations of the Nigerian government, the livelihood of Nigerian women is yet to reach an equal level of improvement. Women are ranked lower than men in all directories of development in the country (Ogbeidi, M.M. 2012). Nigerian society is an extremely patriarchal and men control all domains of women’s lives. Women are in a subordinate position and feature predominantly at the community and household levels (World Bank, 2005:6). As supplementary, male-dominated societies, the social relations and activities of Nigerian
women, men are ruled by patriarchal systems of socialisation and cultural practices, which favour the interests of men over those of women (Okafor, 2011:6717).

In some cases, women are marginalised with many people using the Boko Haram Islamist view as guide. There is a lack of enthusiasm in official quarters to encouraging women play meaningful and effective roles in politics and governance. In the past, women believed that social views defined their roles as only responsible for family care and as producers and carers of children, while men take care of societal responsibilities such as political affairs and government issues. According to Abara and Chinwe (2012:5), the Constitution of Nigeria (1999) forbids gender inequality. However, religious laws continue to limit women's privileges, with each region in Nigeria allowed to draw its own regulation.

2.10.2 Women in the public sector and political participation

Women's participation in the public sector is 21%; irrespective of the educational qualifications they hold and they represent less than 30% in the entire public sector. It is down to 17% in senior positions (Abara & Chinwe, 2012:7). A study by Abara and Chinwe (2012:7) showed that only one out of three employees in a senior position are women. In 2011, the study by Oyefuga et al. (2013:14) found that Nigerian women are trying to improve their representation in the official election and to develop a women's manifesto for advocacy and project implementation for promoting women’s participation in politics. In the governmental process, it appears there is inequality between women and men due to traditional barriers and unfair allocation of funding. The Gender in Nigeria Report (2012:99) revealed that lack of promotion opportunities is widespread among women in Nigeria.

The absence of women in leadership positions may explain the low levels of investment in Nigeria around areas that are crucial contributors to socio-economic development such as health and education. Women are poorly represented in leadership roles and their contribution has not increased since the advent of democracy. Although there was a slight decrease in the involvement of women in leadership position from 2007 to 2011
from 7% to 4%, there has been an increase in women in leadership positions at the federal level and an increase in the number of woman principal officers in the various areas of assembly, which was due to the President’s campaign manifesto, of which a goal was to increase the number of women in leadership positions within his cabinet (Abara & Chinwe, 2012:7).

Moreover, a lack of women’s perspective and glass ceiling blocking their promotion is affecting the accomplishment of social and economic growth in Nigeria. The contribution of women to the national economy is progressively being recognised. Nevertheless, additional opportunities for women are required to completely develop their roles. Women present deficiency in training and this is needed for improving their position of women, establishing capacity and skills, and expanding their opportunities to fully develop women’s roles. Most women live and work under deteriorating material conditions because of economic and social decline (Fapohunda, 2012:1). The Nigerian government needs to eliminate gender discrimination and make a permanent commitment to gender issues. Women must be involved in policy making to advance their positions and speed up state growth and development. Concerted action is needed to eradicate financial and legislative limitations on women. Gender prejudices must be taken into consideration to improve women's skills and encourage their talent in the workplace (Tinuke, 2012:14).
3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the design and methodology of the research. It illustrates qualitative methods, describes how data were collected and focuses on case studies and secondary data. The method used to collect data was desk research, which is referred to as secondary data analysis. Furthermore, ethical considerations and research delineation were explained.

3.2 Research design and methodology

Research design and methodology refers to the tools and methods used to gather the data relevant for this research. Jonker and Pennink (2010:17) state that methodology is the way one chooses to deal with a specific demand to interface with the problem in a clear, justifiable and transparent way. For the purpose of this research, qualitative and interpretive approaches were selected as they provide insights into the thoughts, ideas and perceptions about women’s promotion process as influenced by gender and cultural background, as indicated in the literature.

The next section explains the case study and qualitative research method, philosophical assumptions, interpretivist approach, secondary data collection, case studies and ethical issues consideration. However, most recent studies, concern how to justify theories on the basis of research design and methodology experiments (McKenney & Reeves, 2014:4).

3.3 Case study method

The term ‘case study’ is used to define a unit of study. For example, a case study can be a specific group, society or country. Case study also used to define a study technique (Myers, 1997:241-242). In this study, the case study method was used to examine specific countries in sub-Saharan Africa (Democratic Republic of Congo, Nigeria and Sudan). The study tested data available on three countries in SSA. Case study
research method allows a researcher to closely examine the data within a specific context. In many cases, a case study method selects a geographical area or a limited number of groups as the subjects of study. Yin (1984:23) defines the case study method “as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used.” A case study is a unique way of perceiving natural phenomenon that exists in a set of data.

3.3.1 Design of case study

Crafting the design of case studies is of vital importance. Researchers may adopt either a single-case or multiple-case design depending on the problem in question. In cases where there are no existing cases for replication, the researcher may adopt the single-case design (Zainal, 2007:1-6). For instance, a social study can be conducted using a single-case design, where events are limited to a single incident. However, the disadvantage of a single-case design is its weakness to provide a generalisable conclusion, mostly when the events are rare. One way of overcoming this is to triangulate the study with other approaches in order to approve the legitimacy of the process.

The multiple-case design may be adopted with real-life events that show numerous sources of evidence through replication, rather than sampling logic. According to Zainal (2007:1-6), generalisation of results from case studies, from either single or multiple designs, stems from theory, rather than populations. By replicating the case through pattern-matching, a technique linking several pieces of information from the same case to theoretical proposition, multiple-case design enhances and supports the previous results. This helps raise the level of confidence in the robustness of the method. For instance, research on women promotion prospects requires replication that can be linked to a theory before conclusive results are generalised. Careful design of a case study is, therefore, essential. This is because the case study method, through journal entries, must be able to prove that: (i) it is appropriate to the research question. (ii) it
follows the set of procedures with proper application. (iii) the case study is linked to a theoretical framework (Zainal, 2007:1-6).

3.3.2 Categories of case study

Yin (1984:25-62), summaries three categories, namely: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory case studies. The exploratory case study method sets to explore any phenomenon in the data, which serves as a point of interest to the researcher. For instance, a researcher conducting an exploratory case study on women’s promotion process may ask general questions such as: do women get promoted in the public sector? And, if so, how often? These general questions are meant to open up the door for further examination of the phenomenon observed. As a prelude, this initial work helps prepare a framework of the study. A pilot study is considered an example of an exploratory case study and is crucial in determining the protocol that will be used.

Secondly, descriptive case study method sets about to describe natural phenomena occurring within the data in question. For instance, what strategies or policies are used by government and how are they used for advancing women’s careers in the workplace? The goal set by the researcher is to describe the data as they occur. An example of a descriptive case study is the journalistic description of scandal by two reporters (Yin, 1984:24-30). The challenge of a descriptive case study is that the researcher must begin with a descriptive theory to support the description of the phenomenon or story. If this fails, there is the possibility that the description will lack rigour and problems may occur during the study. In this study, descriptive theory was used to examine the depth and scope of the case under study.

The explanatory case study method examines the data closely at the surface and deep levels in order to explain the phenomena in the data. For instance, a researcher may ask why women take both work and family care responsibility. On the basis of the data, the researcher may then form a theory. Furthermore, explanatory cases are deployed for causal studies where pattern-matching can be used to investigate certain
phenomena in very complex cases. Zainal (2007:1-6) notes that these complex cases can be explained by three rival theories: a knowledge-driven theory, a problem-solving theory and a social-interaction theory.

Some researchers mention other categories of case study methods, including interpretive and evaluative case study method (Yin, 1984:15). Through interpretive case study method, the researcher aims to interpret the data by developing conceptual categories, supporting or challenging the assumptions made regarding them. In evaluative case study method, the researcher goes further by adding judgment to the phenomena found in the data. Case study, as a research method, cautions researchers against any attempt to separate these categories or to conceive them as a hierarchy (Yin, 1984:15). The hierarchical view is incorrect. However, experiments with an exploratory motive have always existed. The development of causal explanations has long been a serious concern of historians, reflected by the subfield known as historiography. Finally, case studies are far from being only an exploratory strategy.

**3.3.3 Advantages of case study**

There are advantages in using case studies. First, variations in terms of basic, instrumental and collective approaches to case studies allow for both quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data (Yin, 1984:21). Secondly, the detailed qualitative accounts often produced in case studies not only help to explore or describe the data in real-life environment, but also help to explain the complexities of real-life situations which may not be captured through experimental or survey research. Thirdly, a case study might be interested, for example, in the process by which a subject understands a true text. This would contrast with experiment, for instance, which deliberately isolates a phenomenon from its context, focusing on a limited number of variables (Zainal, 2007:1-6).
3.3.4 Disadvantages of case study

In spite of these advantages, the case study method has disadvantages. Yin (1984) discusses two types of arguments against case study research. First, the case study allows equivocal evidence or biased views to influence the direction of the findings and conclusions”. Secondly, case studies provide very little basis for scientific generalisation since they use a specific subjects or group, some conducted with only one subject. Thirdly, case study is considered as being too long, difficult to conduct and producing a massive amount of documentation (Yin, 1984). In particular, case studies of ethnographic or longitudinal nature can elicit a great deal of data over a period of time. The danger comes when the data are not managed and organised systematically. This study used the case study method to examine how gender differences and cultural values influence women’s promotion prospects in the public sector of three countries in SSA because it enables facilitates identification of similarities and differences in practices.

3.4 Qualitative research method

Qualitative research method encompasses a large number of methods and viewpoints, which allow the investigator to note information given in detail, by applying relevant research approaches such as in-depth interviews, content analysis, focus groups, life histories and observation (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2010:8). Possibly one of the main characteristic features of a qualitative research approach is that the approach allows an individual to find problems from the viewpoint of the study and recognise the logic of the behaviour, subjects or events (Hennink et al., 2010:8-9). Qualitative research method; organised the study, applied the tools for data collection and then created an initial theory from the data gathered.

3.5 Philosophical assumptions

Philosophical assumption is associated with the fundamental epistemologies that guide the study. For this study, the objective was not to explain or define the concept of
gender differences and cultural values, but to provide an understanding of impact on employee promotion process influenced by their gender and cultural background. The philosophical assumption that underlined this research was interpretive tradition. Epistemology is defined as expectations about data and how it was obtained (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013:8-9).

3.6 Interpretivist approach

The interpretivist method suggests a particular epistemology and the ontological certainty that authenticity is socially built by human actors such as language, consciousness and shared meanings (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2015:13). The epistemological stand on interpretive methods is that data includes the domain of human action and increased only through public constructions, for example expectation, shared meanings, tools and documents (Walsham, 1995:1-2). In this study, an interpretive was selected and used to give the study better opportunity to address issues of impact of gender differences and cultural values on women’s promotion prospects in the public sector in SSA.

3.7 Data collection

Data collection reflects tools used to gather data relevant to the research, through questionnaires, interviews or focus group (Tumey & Winkeller, 2006:13-14). Regarding the approach selected for this research, the main method was to ethically collect data through desk research. Since the tool for collecting data in this study was desk research, the following were used: articles, books, reports, documents and websites among others.

3.8 Desk research

Desk research is a concept used in referring to research that is based on analysis of existing or secondary materials. In other words, the researcher does not collect new data. Desk research is fundamental in the collection of secondary data (Fleischhacker, Evenson, Sharkey, Pitts & Rodriguez, 2013:462-473). This approach provided insights
into the implementation of gender practices and policy and how they influence the nations in SSA. The data for this study were gathered from documents, articles, books, reports, newspapers and websites. Desk research or secondary data method was used in this study because of limited time and finances, which restricted the researcher from travelling to the selected counties in order to collect primary data. Thus, secondary data analysis was appropriate given the situation.

The key advantage of using desk research is economy. As other researchers have already collected the data, the researcher does not have to devote resources to this phase of research. Even if the desk research set must be purchased, the cost is almost certainly lower than the expense, transportation and other costs involved in collecting and processing primary data. Savings of time is another advantage of desk research. Secondary data analysis is an ideal focus for researchers who prefer to spend their working hours thinking of and testing hypotheses using existing data sets, rather than writing grants to finance the data collection process and data entry clerks (Boslaugh, 2007:2-10).

The main disadvantage to using desk research or secondary data is inherent in its nature: because the data were not collected to answer specific research questions, particular information may not have been collected in the geographic region of focus or area of study. A related problem is that variables may have been categorised differently from the ones chosen (Boslaugh, 2007:2-10).

3.9 Diagrammatic review of documents

As stated above, the research was designed to use qualitative secondary data information. Journals, books, article and other publication such as newspaper of previous researcher, authors and journalist anchors were mainly used to cover the impact of gender differences and cultural values on women’s promotion prospects in the public sector of selected countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Secondary data of twelve (12) articles, five (5) published theses and one (1) book aided the researcher to identify key
information in compelling the research introduction and background. In order to explorer the past research in the area related to gender differences and cultural values, women promotion prospects in sub-Saharan Africa, the literature review was covered as follow. For Holistic views on women’s promotion prospects, the researcher viewed five (5) articles and three (3) report. For Cultural values, Culture and gender identity and its effects on women’s promotion in the workplace, the researcher compared information of sixteen (16) articles, two (2) books and five (5) reports to gain understand of culture around gender. Gender differences took three (3) articles and two (2) reports.

On Feminist and gender theories, the researcher reviewed existing information on seven (7) reports, eleven (11) articles and 1 book. The content review of nine (9) articles, three (3) reports allowed the research to cover Sub-Saharan African selected countries in the research. Gender discrimination in sub-Saharan Africa, Gender and cultural values in the country such as Demographic Republic of Congo was viewed by the researcher through sixteen (16) articles and two (2) reports. Seventeen (17) articles, seven (7) reports, six (6) theses and seven (7) online published newspapers was viewed to examine Gender and cultural influences on women’s promotion that portrayed Gender discrimination, Discrimination based on race and religion, Principles to achieve equal rights for men and women and Promotions, transmissions and relegations in the Republic of Sudan. And five (5) articles, three (3) reports for Gender and cultural influences portraying Gender and cultural differences on employee promotion, Women in the public sector and political participation in the Republic Nigeria. The analysis covered Women labour force participation on Positive side and Negative side with eight (8) articles and six (6) reports and four (4) theses. Women’s promotion prospects in the public sector affected by gender and cultural values in Democratic Republic of Congo, Sudan and Nigeria was analysed with more than twenty-one (21) articles, thirteen (13) reports and one (1) book.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diagrammatic review of documents</th>
<th>Articles</th>
<th>Reports</th>
<th>Theses</th>
<th>Books</th>
<th>Newspapers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>introduction and background</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Holistic views on women’s promotion prospects</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Cultural values and Culture and gender identity and its effects on women’s promotion in the workplace</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender differences</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Feminist and gender theories</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan African selected countries</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender discrimination in sub-Saharan Africa, Gender and cultural values in the country such as Democratic Republic of Congo</td>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender and cultural influences on women’s promotion that portrayed Gender discrimination, Discrimination based on race and religion, Principles to achieve equal rights for men and women and Promotions, transmissions and relegations in the Republic of Sudan</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender and cultural influences portraying Gender and cultural differences on employee promotion, Women in the public sector and political participation in the Republic Nigeria</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The analysis covered Women labour force participation on Positive side and Negative side</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s promotion prospects in the public sector affected by gender and cultural values in Democratic Republic of Congo, Sudan and Nigeria</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>123</strong></td>
<td><strong>51</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.9 Ethical considerations

According to Thiroux and Krasemann (1980:1-2), the word “ethics” comes from the Greek term “ethos”, referring to character. Theoretically, ethics is what defines good or bad and what is acceptable or unacceptable. Ethical issues are an essential part of the setup of the study procedure, from the identification of the statement of the research
problem to the explanation and presenting of the research results. This study conformed to the following ethical principles:

**Confidentiality:** every aspect of the research required respecting the privacy of persons who participated in the research and it ensured that their privacy was protected (Diekema, 2009:6).

**Integrity and honesty:** According to Koocher (2014:5), this involves keeping of trust and agreements, acting with honesty and striving for honesty in all communication and actions. Researchers do not cheat, fabricate, steal or misrepresent data.

**Objectivity and fairness:** Strive to minimise unfairness in a new plan, individual decisions, data presentation, data examination, skilled evidence and other features of study where fairness and objectivity were obligatory.

**No discrimination:** Strive to eliminate discrimination among colleagues or peers on the differences of gender, religion, colour or any other aspects unrelated to integrity and competence.

**Carefulness:** Carefulness attempts to avoid negligence, keep decent proceedings of research actions and carefully and critically analyse work such as data gathering, research planning and design and communication with resources.

**Decision-making:** The rules, policies and codes do not cover every condition, they require significant clarification. Thus, it is imperative for academics to clarify, implement various rules and make decisions in order to act ethically in many situations (Craft, 2013:12).

Grinyer (2009:2) states that a secondary data study is undertaken by investigators using data gathered by other researchers. Secondary data were used for the purpose of this research. The following ethical codes were applied in this study: honesty and integrity,
objectivity and fairness, carefulness and decision-making. These codes provided guidelines in order to avoid misconduct. Ethics was approved by Cape Peninsula University of Technology research ethics committee on 17 August 2016 for research activities.

3.10 Delimitation of the research

The study focused on gender issues in three countries selected from different regions of SSA. The focus was on women’s issues in promotion and professional advancement that might be influenced by their gender and cultural background.

Table 1: Selected countries and the reasons for selection: Democratic Republic of Congo, Republic of Sudan and Republic of Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regions of sub-Saharan Africa</th>
<th>Selected countries</th>
<th>Why these countries?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central Africa</td>
<td>Democratic Republic of Congo</td>
<td>The Democratic Republic of Congo, carefully chosen because it is the second largest country in Africa with a population of 77.267 million sorted by 2015 normalised demographic projections. The Democratic Republic of Congo is a vast and highly ethnically diverse country. Multiethnic, multicultural and religious as well as varying levels of education and economic activities affect gender relations. Security varies across the country. Difficult communication also contributes to a complex society governed by multiple state and public sector. Each of these aspects and others affects women’s promotion in the DRC.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Africa</td>
<td>Republic of Sudan</td>
<td>The Republic of Sudan, known as North Sudan, is third biggest country in Africa after DRC and Algeria. The Sudan was selected as a case study in this research, because its ethnic groups are a mixture of Africans and Arabs and the conflict in the country makes women situation very critical.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Africa</td>
<td>Republic of Nigeria</td>
<td>The Republic of Nigeria is the one of the countries that has a significant gender gap relating to economic participation, health and survival and political empowerment indices. At some point, religious laws make it difficult to harmonise law and remove gender biased</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>procedures.</td>
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</table>

Sources: Laura et al. (2014); Martine (2015:27); Clément (2005)
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The purposes of this research was to examine the influence of gender differences and cultural values on women’s promotion prospects in the public sector, to understand the scope of issues stemming from cultural values which affect women’s promotion in the public sector of selected countries in SSA and develop a framework for progress towards the implementation of women’s promotion prospects in the public sector. This study used existing available data relevant to the study, which was collected from sources such as books, journals, reports and websites.

The results show the importance of the role of women in socio-economic growth, which have received substantial consideration in recent years. However, consideration should be given to the actions taken by women as early as 1890. For example, the activities launched by an English woman named Millicent Fawcett who was the founder of the National Union of Women Suffrage in 1897, an organisation whose purpose was to get women the right to vote. There were also actions taken, which were associated with the institution of women in Mexico City in 1975 as well as United Nations’ increasing attention on women in 1975 (Darkoh, 1994:1-50).

4.2 Women labour force participation

The participation of women in the labour force is estimated to be 32% in developing countries and most women are involved in small businesses. In some African countries, women raising families comprise 80%. They are also involved in farming, working for many hours as suppliers and service providers. In Africa and other developing countries absence of spouses is common. For example, a study by Darkoh (1994:4:50) revealed that 16% of families and people in Mali and Lesotho depend exclusively on a woman. Moreover, in many SSA countries, woman farmers sometimes support their entire villages and play the role of both men and women in support such as providing income. According to (Khemani, 2001:16), a study of the Yoruba people in Nigeria revealed that
one out of five women do not receive care or support from their male counterpart. In many cultures in developing countries bias against women is prevalent and eight out of nine cultural values favour boys over girls, although gender inequality is now challenged more often by women, which includes the following:

- Deficiency of training and promotion, postponement facilities, knowledge and recognition.
- Women end up being in less skilled occupations and have little chance of promotion and advancement in their career or wage increase.
- Lack of a satisfactory representation of women in leadership positions. Thus, women's interests and requirements are not sufficiently provided.
- Rules and governments in SSA of make it practically difficult for women, particularly those with incomplete schooling. Women a penance difficulties raising capital to start new enterprises or obtain advances on their existing businesses and require recognition.

Women have limited access to the public sector employment and do not have the ability to compete with their man counterparts in order to advance their careers. The interest of this study is in the promotion prospects that occur in employment and in career development and the impact it has had on women and their quality of life in SSA, particularly in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Nigeria and Sudan. The employment and promotion to leadership position trend to have both positive and negative impacts on women.

4.2.1 Positive side

The positive side is increasing numbers of women employed in the labour force and making a great contribution to markets globally. Figure 5 shows increase in the number of women in the labour market in SSA from 1995-2015. It shows that women's workplace participation has increased from 61.3% to 64.4% in SSA. Despite increase, woman labour force participation is generally low compared to men, according to International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2015:1-126), in 1980, men’s workplace
participation was 80% compared with 61.3% for women and in 2014 men’s participation dropped to 76% with an increase to women participation of 64.4%.


![Graph showing women's labor force participation rate](image)

Figure 5: Women labour force participation rate


### 4.2.2 Negative side

The negative side is that despite the increasing women’s contribution in the workplace there remains a glass ceiling preventing access to top positions and, consequently, advancement of their careers both globally and in SSA, which has been negatively affected by the social and cultural values highlighted by societies and the rise of gender-based discrimination, religion and race. The literature suggests such discrimination hinders promotion based on how managers value women. This study shows that in SSA most women are appointed as receptionists, secretaries or personal assistants where it is easy to move from one sector to another, but the glass ceiling makes it hard for women to be promoted to top positions. According to Rippenaar-Joseph (2009:143), the glass ceiling (wall) for women will remain an obstacle that cannot be removed without
obligatory cooperation between leaders and senior employees. Figure 6 illustrates the glass ceiling in the study done Rippenaar-Joseph (2009:143).

A study by Madichie (2009:51-66) illustrated that, the significance of long battle challenge known as the glass ceiling has been so controversial throughout many reasons. Furthermore, the author points that, at first, women’s its push factors which are recognised as inviable barriers to career progression projections in the workplace environment is ever changing at a fast pace across every region of the globe. Secondly women are slowly progressing in workplace in order to gain more flexibility in their work arrangements. Several reports have pointed the blooming of women in business. According to Madichie (2009:51-66) the research found that, women are reaching up the high-level occupation in workplace such as in the public scoters and government. However, a study by Ñopo, Daza & Ramos (2011:61) found that a salary gap still exists between male and female in executive position in Sub-Sahara African countries. The issue of salary across Sub-Sahara Africa, is affecting women. Male in executive position are satisfied with their salary than their female colleagues. In Nigeria, for example, women are progressively shattered long glass ceiling around workplaces such as government leadership roles (Weekly Trust, 2007:n.p). However, Male in government leadership roles are covering these positions with more satisfaction on their promotion policies than their female counterparts (Ñopo, Daza & Ramos, 2011:61).
Figure 6 illustrates the glass ceiling in the study done Rippenaar-Joseph (2009:143).

Figure 6: Glass Ceiling wall in the workplace
Source: Rippenaar-Joseph (2009:143)

4.3 Women’s promotion prospects in the public sector affected by gender and cultural values

A significant aspect of this study was the findings that men’s and women’s promotion prospects in the public sector in African countries are controlled by men who have the opportunity and advantage of becoming leaders who make the decisions, rules and policies in the workplace and in the society, while women are less likely to improve/advance their careers and share the same right in policy-making. The evidence in the literature review suggests that in the promotion process often takes longer for women to reach the top of their careers than men. It was all found that the speed and
ease with which employees are promoted is influenced by their gender. The first thing that comes to mind when a promotion becomes available is comparison between a woman’s job roles and responsibilities with their household responsibilities. As a result, women often face common questions at jobs interviews like “are you married?” or “Do you have children?”

As shown in a study by Schultz (1990:10), there is a correlation between women’s promotion, improvement of people’s living conditions and economic growth in Africa. Thus, considering that women constitute half of the population, it is important they are promoted to managerial positions, so that they can contribute to economic growth. If women are promoted, their income will dramatically increase and the more productive they become, the more their economic development and living situation will improve. The literature also indicates that women’s promotion creates infinite benefits for society, which positively contributes to relationship between promotion and poverty eradication. Cultural beliefs and gender bias are very much part of the employment and promotion process in SSA. In addition, one challenge women face is the eradication of the glass ceiling to access top positions. Evidence suggests that there is a lack of confidence in the ability to break cultural and gender policies found in society.
The 2013 promotion ratio in Figure 7 shows the proportion of women promoted was 75.7% compared with 86.7% for men in SAA (Agbodji et al., 2013:39). The study also found that today men and women stand to benefit equally from education. However, the glass ceiling remains an obstacle; women are still paid lower salaries than men, are unlikely to reach the top of the career ladder and likely to end their lives in poverty. Moreover, a growing number of societal problems such as violence and corruption including robbery, kidnapping, trafficking, increasing culture of begging may all be improved by promoting capable women (Abara & Chinwe, 2012:7)

4.4 The case of Democratic Republic of Congo, Sudan and Nigeria

4.4.1 The case of Democratic Republic of Congo

This study shows that the DRC is a country notable for its lack of equal rights between genders. A study by Mbambi and Faray-Kele (2010:1-11) found that in the DRC gender barriers to employment advancement persist in many fields of the public sector such as education, commercial and constitutional involvement. Women in the DRC face cultural
and employment discrimination on an everyday basis where they are placed lower down the list than men for promotions and there are no clear rules other than those that are man biased. Moreover, women are underrepresented in the public sector, particularly at senior management levels and are not even allowed to own land. Surveys done in the DRC show that women are discriminated against in employment pay/salaries and they are mostly employed in ‘lowly’ occupations. In families, women need authorisation from men to do paid work as men consider themselves leaders of the family. Discriminatory legislation means women lack control over policy-making and resources.

In DRC, the law forbids discrimination on the grounds of race, gender, ethnic origin and others. Nevertheless, as the Labour Code does not apply in state public services, many employees in this sector do not enjoy protection of the law from discrimination (International Trade Union Confederation, 2010:2). The Labour Code does not provide equal compensation for men and women for work of equal value; compensation is considered to be narrow. The Labour Code is clear that women might not be sustained in jobs recognised to be beyond their strong point, reproducing stereotype conceptions about women’s abilities. Women are discriminated against by the labour law, which necessitates that they obtain permission from their husbands to take up compensated employment and develop a career as members of the public service. Women receive 57% less than the compensation men get and are women significantly underrepresented in managerial and highly-paid positions (International Trade Union Confederation, 2010:2). In the DRC, literacy gap between men and women stands close to 40% for women, partly because societal norms dictate that it is beneficially productive to send boys to school, rather than girls (International Trade Union Confederation, 2010:2).

Democratic Republic of Congo Constitution (2006:14), states that the DRC has an array of international and domestic legislation concerning women’s socio-economic rights. Nevertheless, the socio-economic situation of the country is characterised by feminisation of poverty. Furthermore, the author indicates the overall situation is highlighted by the absence of policies and mechanisms for the promotion of women and
procedures of discriminatory practices against women. There is no provision for women’s employment opportunities (International Trade Union Confederation, 2010:114).

4.4.1.1 Legal and policy framework on women in the Democratic Republic of Congo

This section reviews key national policies, strategies and initiatives in place that provide the legal framework for women in the Democratic Republic of Congo. According to Laura et al. (2014:12), the Constitutional Court has established the principle of gender equality in the public sector. The equality law was passed by the assembly and senate, but the Supreme Court has yet to recognise it.

The DRC Family Code of 1987 is another key legislation that contains numerous discriminatory elements, such as the requirement that women have approval from their partners to be employed, open a bank account or travel (Davis, 2013:38-53). These elements of the Code have been replaced by labour law, but reconsideration of the Code is still not adopted and more likely to retain the definition of the man as leader of the family, which has major negative influences on women.

The Ministry of Gender, the Family and Children is aiming to revise the policy on gender equality and the national strategy against sexual and gender-based violence. A national strategy on SGBV would ideally form part of a greater gender strategy addressing women’s and men’s roles, responsibilities, rights and power. Despite the fact knowledge has been developments in gender policymaking, lack of data collection and other similar crucial tasks make it difficult to implement these policies strategies in the DRC (Davis, 2013:38-53).
4.4.2 The case of the Republic Sudan

Women in Sudan have been subjected to enormously high levels of violence and continue face the challenges of displacement and poverty caused by conflict, mainly in Darfur, the Blue Nile and the Nuba Mountains. It is estimated that only 40% of women have had access to any form of schooling in rural areas due to poverty associated with war (UNESCO World Report, 2012:177-179). Society believes that boys must be educated even during hard times and this also affects women’s careers and their living conditions because well as an effect of cultural beliefs, women are less educated than men in Sudan.

Similarly, in a Society Associations and 2014 Masculinity Catalogue Article, Sudan is cited amongst the worst when it comes to discrimination against women in social institutions (Wikigender, 2016). Approximately half of Sudan’s population is below the poverty line (African UN women, 2016:1-10). Discrimination against women is regarded as a pervasive and serious issue obstructing social expansion and improvement of living conditions in Sudan. The country has unsatisfactory policies about women’s rights. There is no state agreement concerning the eradication of discrimination against women. Women are harshly treated because of conflicts occurring across the country. Their lack of involvement in leadership positions and participation in conflict resolution and reconciliation reflect a lack of action in this regard (Human Development Report, 2013:216).

4.4.2.1 Legal and policy framework of women in the Republic Sudan

According to the United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (2000:202), the Republic Sudan has approved the African Charter on human and women’s rights, but has not approved the policies established by the African Court on human and women’s rights. As a result, member countries of the African Union are unable to bring proceedings against Sudan. Also disappointing is the failure of Sudan to approve the policy of the African Charter on human and people’s rights on the rights of
women in Africa. Despite being a member of the League of Arab Nations, Sudan has not signed or approved the Arab Charter on women’s rights, which come into force as the legal and policy framework related to gender equality. The National Civil Service Act 2007 for employment in the public sector does not provide protection from discrimination in the field of employment United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination (2000:204).

4.4.3 The case of the Republic of Nigeria

In the case of Nigeria, several sources of information were reviewed, comprising three textbooks, seven published articles and four direct Internet websites. Results of the literature review show that all gender equality rules and policies taught at the university level such as the rules of Nigerian poverty eradication policies, national rules on HIV/AIDS, gender and sexuality are geared towards eradicating discrimination against women and women subjugation (Khemani, 2001:16). However, more could be done about women’s access to jobs. The issue that needs to be addressed is: how national and international gender rules can be applied and practised regarding women who are discriminated against in their jobs and have limited promotion prospects. Despite the evidence that Nigeria has introduced gender mainstreaming, gender discrimination persists in all sectors. Ciroma (2006:1) state that until now there is persistent discrimination in national and state statutes, customary and religious laws. According to Ekpe, Eja and John (2014:15), women have been subjected to domination by men, a result of persisting cultural stereotyping, abuse of religious and traditional practices and patriarchal societal structures in which economic, political and social power are dominated by men (Ekpe at al., 2014:15). In Nigeria, traditions, customs, sexual stereotyping of social roles and cultural prejudice continue to militate against enjoyment of rights and full participation of women on an equal basis with men in national development. The National Gender Policy, which succeeds and replaces the former National Policy on Women is helping to eliminate such barriers (Ciroma, 2006:1).
4.4.3.1 Legal and policy framework of women in Republic of Nigeria

In Nigeria, the general policy framework of women includes the constitution, national gender policy on gender equality and the women’s empowerment. According to the Nigerian National Gender Policy (2008:34), it is commitments made by government in respect of the unequal opportunities for women, gender differences that discriminate against women and the related impacts on women which include, but not limited to lower promotion rate, increased poverty, sexual harassment and lack of equal representation in the public sector. Some of these commitments include sectoral policies developed, implemented and resourced. The enabling environment builds from international and regional commitments to which the federal government of Nigeria has signed on to. These commitments place an obligation on the federal government to prioritise gender equality and allocate resources to ensure that women’s status in all sectors is improved. These international commitments include the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Platform for Action, the AU Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality, the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa.

4.4.4 Similarities and differences concerning gender and cultural bias in Democratic Republic of Congo, Sudan and Nigeria

The results of the three countries studied, DRC, Sudan and Nigeria, show there are similarities and differences concerning gender and cultural bias that impact women’s promotion prospects in the public sector, which it denies them access to senior level positions and dramatically changes their living conditions and poverty status.

4.4.4.1 Similarities

All three countries have multi-ethnic groups, religions, traditional cultures and political structures that play a crucial role in hindering women’s roles in the workplace. The multiple ethnic groups have different cultural and religious beliefs. However, all of these cultures have one thing in common, which is how they value women in society and in
the workplace. These values are created by menfolk and have serious consequences for women’s career prospects, their welfare and economic growth of sub-Saharan Africa. A study by Beck (2003:147) point that, women in sub-Saharan African countries experience inescapable domination in terms of exclusion from leadership roles, private patriarchy and male control over female political spaces. According to Sklair (2002:106), women in Sub-Saharan Africa are influenced on the rights and status by hegemony. The concept of hegemony in Sub-Sahara Africa is within the context of cultural-ideological transnational practices, it is one ideology that is dominant within the society of Sub-Sahara Africa. Furthermore, Sklair (2002:106) states that, “this cultural-ideological concept of hegemony is made manifest in the ideology of patriarchy that is pervasive in Sub-Saharan Africa”.

4.4.4.2 Differences

These are also differences with regard to gender and cultural influences in the public sectors of the DRC, Sudan and Nigeria. In the case of Sudan, the war has created strong discrimination based on societal traditional expectation and ethnic groups. Within the workplace people are promoted based on the ethnic group they belong, and not treated as individuals. Further, people are suspicious and disapproving of ethnic and social groups that differ from their own. The results shows that in 2005, Sudan’s Interim Constitution was passed so that the country could empower women and promote equal gender relations across social and economic sectors and also address the promotion of women to advance their careers in the public sector. Despite the SIC, Sudan has not yet approved the eradication of practices of inequality against women (UNICEF unite for children, 2011:3).

In Nigerian context, gender equality instructions and policies taught at the high education level including poverty eradication strategies, HIV/AIDS awareness, gender and sexuality are geared towards eradicating discrimination against women (Khemani, 2001:16). Ciroma (2006:1), the National Gender Policy, which succeeds and replaces the former National Policy on Women is helping to eliminate such barriers in Nigeria. In DRC, when it comes to promotion to top positions, discrimination toward women persist
in public sectors such as education, commercial and constitutional involvement. In the DRC, even women who are in senior management levels are not even allowed to own land. In family’s level, women will only access to do paid work or open a bank account under men authorisation which considered as leaders of the family (Mbambi and Faray-Kele, 2010:22).

4.5 Main factors affecting women’s involvement most significantly in the public sector

According to The Equal Rights Trust (2014:4-28) there are two main factors that significantly and negatively affect women in all three countries: firstly, biased regulations and legislation that limit women’s rights to be equality with men. This includes lack of protection from negative and harmful practices such as woman genital mutilation and forced early marriage amongst others. Female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/FGC) is a disastrous health and human rights issue affecting girls and women in same African countries, largely in Sudan and Somalia, Egypt, Mali, Ethiopia and Senegal (Elduma, 2018:431). The practice has considerable health consequences, both physical and psychological (Rushwan, 2013:130). Rogo, Tshiya, Nahid and Hussein (2007:122) show that FGM is a health and human rights violation issue that is not only disadvantageous to women’s health, but also negatively impacts on women’s education and other opportunities for growth and career development. The authors state that:

It is estimated that 130 million girls and women are affected worldwide by this practice. Every year, 2 million girls undergo FGC, with 600 cases occurring every day. “The prevalence of female circumcision among the women age 14 to 49 years was 89% in Sudan, 91% in Egypt, 86% in Mali, 74% in Ethiopia 39% in Senegal and was relatively low in southern part of Africa” (Elduma, 2018:431-433). The practice involves an enormous cost in human suffering, which in turn has a detrimental effect on the household economy. Complications resulting from FGC put an additional burden on health systems. FGC is associated with complications during childbirth from keloids that occur due to an overgrowth of scar tissue. Reconstruction surgeries for young girls who have suffered vaginal visceral fistulae also increase the burden on health systems (Rogo et al., 2007:122)
Secondly, oppressive combination of negative cultural values and biased regulations both globally and in SSA context, has been destructively underlined by societies, religion and race. The glass ceiling is barrier where women are paid lower wages and likely to be living in poverty. Such discrimination hinders promotion based on how managers value women, where a study by Rippenaar-Joseph (2009:143), shows that in SSA region most women are appointed as receptionists, secretaries or personal assistants that it is easy to move from job to another, but hard to be promoted to top positions in public sectors.

**4.6 Workplace participation and promotion in Democratic Republic of Congo, Sudan and Nigeria**

Table 2: Workplace participation and promotion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Sudan 2012</th>
<th>Democratic Republic of Congo 2010</th>
<th>Nigeria 2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women participation rate</td>
<td>30.9% government sectors</td>
<td>8% all sectors</td>
<td>49% all sectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men participation rate</td>
<td>76.9% government sectors</td>
<td>12% all sectors</td>
<td>64% all sectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average gender difference in Productivity</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Election candidate nationally</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>90% Men</td>
<td>10% Women</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Mbambi and Faray-Kele (2010:8-22); Republic of Sudan Public Administration Country Profile (2004:2-19); Wikigender (2015)

Table 2 shows the disparity between women and men in the labour force in the three countries. It is particularly by disconcerting that in 2012, men in Sudan constituted 76.9% of the labour force, while women were a mere 30.9%. Almost 50% more men in Sudan contribute to economic development than women (Republic of the Sudan Public Administration Country Profile, 2004:2-19).

In Nigeria, data from 2013 showed that women’s operative age participation was 49% in all sectors and women’s total representation in the labour force was 42%, while for men
the operative age participation was 64% (Wikigender, 2015). Women represent 53% of DRC’s total population and although women’s right to work is constitutionally acknowledged, they only constitute 8% of those with bonuses and promotions compared with 12% of men in 2010 (Mbambi & Faray-Kele, 2010:8-22). Table 2 shows a clear gap between the contribution of men and women in the work place, indicating job opportunities for women have generally been limited in all three countries. Women are underrepresented in the labour force. However, the study also found that women are practically underrepresented at the top managerial level, that a wage gap exists and that women earn less than their men counterparts in the same positions. Furthermore, the literature reveals that married women cannot sign legal documentation all by themselves and also need the authorisation of their spouses to work in formal sectors.

Additionally, the effect of cultural values on promotion and employment is clearly evident in the lack of women’s participation in the workplace. Numerical data are repeatedly used as the main indicator of women’s contribution to the workplace or to politics and they act as an indicator of progress against gender discrimination. However, no data exists, on a step-by-step basis, of women’s promotion progress in the public sectors in all three countries. However, numerical data does exist on the influence held by women within institutions and societies and their access to top positions. The next section outlines a framework to accelerate the progress towards implementation of women’s promotion prospects in the public sector.

4.7 Framework for gender policy towards implementation of women’s promotion prospects in the public sector

Gender rules are central to the accomplishment of the policy outline which has the aim of promoting and improving women’s income and their contribution to economic development though leadership and decision-making authorities. The framework that follows has three strategies that could assist in achieving these overall goals.
4.7.1 Framework strategy 1: support social and economic development to enable both genders benefit from contribution and participation in social and economic activities

To act creatively, efficiently and effectively, public administration is required to provide the same rights for women and men within finance and technologies in more projected structures that link between markets. According to Arbache, Kolev and Filipiak (2010:147), promoting women to represent public sector employment is a significant goal. Women need a chance to contribute to official work and this can only be done through training and control over welfare arising from their accomplishment and the work they perform, notably to sustain women’s interest and inspire them to contribute to
socio-economic growth. Moreover, to stop discrimination against women in the public sector occupations, a fully-fledged and strategy needs to be implemented to transform the way promotions are designed.

**4.7.2 Framework strategy 2: promotion to leadership and decision making authorities at the highest level brings results**

Ifad (2012:21) women empowerment reports indicate that social advancement requires outcomes that have to be active and justifiable and women need to have greater influence and voice over the choices that influence their lives. Men and women normally have different roles in the socio-economy and, therefore, their requirements, concerns and benefits could vary. In Africa, where the status of women and their public participation has significantly improved over the last 17 years, even though more women are getting educated and hold more jobs worldwide than ever before, they remain discriminated against in terms of accessing top management and leadership positions. Most women continue to suffer from occupational segregation in the workplace as they cannot break through the glass ceiling in public life, which separates them from top-level management and professional positions (Maseko, 2013:1). According to The American Association of University Women (2016:15) report, organisational, cultural, economic and policy barriers shape both men’s and women’s choices and opportunities. However, women’s underrepresentation in leadership has been framed as a deficit in which they are being held back from becoming leaders initially by the glass ceiling. Glass ceiling obstacles to women’s involvement as leaders in the public sector, companies and community associations, from the local through to the state level, should be removed. Governments also need to recognise that women are key providers to countries’ social and economic development. Women’s voices are essential for the establishment of appropriate gender equality rules and their implementation as well as having strong woman representation to that end. Women's involvement and contribution at society level and household decision-making have to be equally respected alongside the contribution and decisions made by men. According to Arbache et al. (2010:147-153), in countries like Rwanda and Mozambique, women have the greatest voice in governance from a strong position that is dedicated to equal rights
for both genders. All departments in the public sector need to prioritise gender policies, provide legal guidelines and improve the gathering of feminist policy information, which will emphasise successful processes.

4.7.3 Framework strategy 3: balance in labour force participation to equally benefit men and women both socially and economically

Rippenaar-Joseph (2009:143) indicts that 50% of the global population are women. Therefore, it is important that women strongly engage in the social and political spheres of their countries through access to promotion and appropriate living conditions in SSA and globally. It is also important to share roles and household work among women and men and in order to reduce the workload on women, save time and consistently distribute socio-economic benefits.

Women need to be educated and trained in order to achieve their right and legal promotion prospects. Success stories of women in the public sector can be found in Rwanda, where women’s participation in parliament is more than 50%, which represents one of the high proportions globally. A high proportion of women’s participation is essential in every public institution to support and protect women's rights.

4.7.4 Framework strategy implementation

The strategic framework could be implemented through five action areas. The method and indicators can be further advanced and adjusted as necessary to countries’ specific circumstances.

**Action area 1:** Supporting plans and missions

**Output 1:** Clearly and systematically addressing women’s promotion process to senior positions and balancing of their workplace contribution in country profiles and schemes.
**Indicators**

- Rise in the percentage of women in senior positions with precise gender goals and development in gender policies for promotion.
- Practical actions to support women’s involvement as direct receivers and active associates as well as policy creation are crucial for eradicating gender and cultural discrimination.
- Consideration of equal promotion must be reflected in employment processes.

A report by the United Nations (2013:14-23) developed monitoring and evaluation strategies that require an educational approach to continuously gather, understand and analyse gender discrimination data to improve precise indicators concerning proportion gender involvement as well as paper practices to assess influence and improve promotion processes.

**Action area 2:** Government substantially aims to support management of information

**Output 2:** Women’s contribution towards gender policies promotion and improvement of knowledge management.

**Indicators**

- Increase women’s contribution on gender and cultural matters and policy discussions in global forums and publications.
- Increase in development activities with supportive creativities on masculine-related actions.

Diversity Management in this step suggests that the public sector must be conscious of the requirements and demanding of women, such as collaboration concerning family-care solutions with their employees. Generally, few women actually make it to the top or to leading positions in the public sector. It is vital that they fully participate in national and international strategy forums on women’s career development, with concentration on supporting investment in women’s training and professional development studies.
**Action 3:** Capacity structure gender policies implementation in public associations

**Output 3:** Volume of women speaking about gender matters in the public sector and improvement supports. At a time when women’s rights are under threat around the world, it may seem difficult to make the case for investing rare gender programme resources in projects targeting men and boys. However, development groups are increasingly arguing that with patriarchal cultural norms standing as the key barrier to women’s empowerment, projects must target changing attitudes among men and boys in order to create lasting improvements for women and girls (Edwards, 2017:1). Christina Fink, director of international development studies at George Washington University, states that: “International development actors are now realising that if you don’t change men’s attitudes towards women, then gender programs which focus on women first won’t be successful, and in many cases, can bring about increased dangers to women” (Fink, 2014:1).

**Indicators**

- Upsurge in the aggregate value of creativities to support gender parity in the public sector such as rules that are helpful for women’s power over possessions, cultural advance with gender expertise and strategy.

Positive strategies are important in recognising eligible candidates for promotion through performance, training and skills acquired, but not only through qualifications obtained also making certain career advancement through performance, assessment, progression and planning are vital.

**Action 4:** Gender balance and diversity

**Output 4:** The method of corporate process that supports change and gender stability growth.

**Indicators**

- Improve women’s participation in the public sector at all levels of education qualifications.
Improvement in the number of women employees’ survey questions by both women and men relating to workplace participation balance and the promotions process.

UNESCO World Report (2012:177-179) found that gender diversity combined with diversity in other areas, for example race and generation groups, is vital in the workplace to advance efficiency and success. The effective enabling of management of diversity increases perceptions as well as innovation and is also more robust in positively responding to new challenges in the workplace. Applying gender and diversity policies in the workplace improves the development in all aspects and use of all employees’ ability, which improves trust between managers and employees.

**Action 5:** Monitoring and evaluation

**Output 5:** Monitoring and evaluation systems for gender equality and women’s promotion prospects

**Indicators**

- Improve the volume of annual reports of women’s promotion and performance on a gender equality index needed to empower women’s career advancement.
- Controlling and reviewing decisions we made for improving performance could be developed by methodical education and presented to workplace monitoring and evaluation structures and frameworks.
- Approved policy for women’s promotion should be clear at all levels from managers to employees and observations to make sure effective strategies are applied.

Finally, the results of this study show that gender discrimination still exists in and its impact on employee’s promotion is proven by evidence in this study. However, women’s empowerment in general needs careful implementation for gender policies development by the United Nations and many other studies. This study also prepared a framework for improving promotion of women in the public sector. The framework can be used in all
sectors and in community institutions. Moreover, it can still be improved, where is necessary, before being adopted in countries, cultures and workplaces.
5.1 Conclusion

This study aimed to extend knowledge on gender practices in SSA focusing an in-depth discussion of the process of women’s promotion. It tests the common relationship between cultural values and promotion practices among SSA nations, which leads to the understanding of the scope of issues stemming from gender differences that affect women’s promotion in the workplace. The study also aimed to provide a framework of progress being made towards implementation of women’s promotion in the public sector by identifying elements that have contributed to achieving between men and women in other regions. The purpose of this research was to ascertain the influence of gender differences and cultural values on women’s promotion prospects in the public sector.

Discrimination against women remains strong in the workplace. Women with decent skills and experience are challenged career advancement in the public sector. Equality of value in the workplace between women and men has yet to be realised. Gender-based discrimination in employment promotion is related to views concerning women’s household responsibility and sexual harassment in the workplace (United Nations, 2010:1-15).

Evidence from a wide range of studies show that discrimination takes on different forms: cultural values, gender and religions, which are steeped in social behaviour. Gender is a socially constructed phenomenon determined by the values and belief systems of traditional cultural backgrounds. Moreover, lack of a feminine perspective is affecting the accomplishment of economic development in SSA, specifically in DRC, Sudan and Nigeria. Therefore, these three countries need to eliminate gender discrimination and make a permanent commitment to gender matters. Women must be involved in policy making to advance their positions and increase economic growth and development. A complete action is needed to eradicate community, financial and legislature limitations on women. Gender prejudices must be taken into consideration to improve women’s skills and talent in the workplace (Tinuke, 2012:14).
Numerical data are repeatedly used as the main indicator of women’s contribution in the workplace, in politics and for progress towards gender equality. However, there is no numerical data for the step-by-step process of women’s promotion progress in the public sector in all the countries (the DRC, Sudan and Nigeria). Reliance on numeric data says little about the influence held by women within institutions and societies as well as their access to top positions.

This study also revealed that in counties like Rwanda, with equal gender opportunities in the socio-economic, spheres is not only fast economic growth, but also enhanced societal living conditions. Women’s promotion and well-being is strongly related to the elimination of poverty and enhanced living standards such as reduced child starvation and death. Equality and empowerment of women is now globally accepted as the core of human rights and has effective and sustainable development results.

5.2 Recommendations

Action aimed at gender and culture can enhance women’s promotion process for their career development. The following are recommended to assist leaders in the public sector implement gender policy on promotion:

- Build a leadership across all sectors to empower women promote gender parity and to eradicate poverty in society and allow women to enjoy equal rights.

- Inclusive national gender policy needs to be implemented, monitored and evaluated through national and international gender strategy programmes and formulate operational actions to achieve globally established aims such as accountability tools across sectors and certify that the desires and rights of both genders are taken into account.

- Develop social awareness and educational programmes that drive active participation to allow men to positively contribute to eradicating gender
stereotype processes and protect human rights for both women and men with an equal share in responsibilities within the family and society throughout their lifetime.

5.3 Future research

Further studies could investigate women's empowerment and gender matters in the workplace based on primary data to measure and analyse, step-by-step, women's promotion process and their path to leadership positions and challenges associated with cultural values and gender differences.
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APPENDIX A: ETHICS FORM

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Re: Data collection for postgraduate research

Safa Musa Abdelrasoul Abdelsalam is registered for the MTech: Business Administration degree (full research) at CPUT with student number 213178109. The thesis is titled ‘impact of gender differences and cultural values on women’s promotion prospects in the public sector in selected country in Sub-Saharan Africa’ with the objective to determine the impact of gender differences and cultural values in the promotion of women in the public sector in Africa. The main supervisor for this research is Associate Professor Maurice Dassah.

In order to meet the requirements of the University’s Higher Degrees Committee (HDC) the student must get consent to collect data from organizations which they have identified as potential sources of data. However, this research will be conducted as a desk research and as such does not require collecting data from any organization.

For further clarification on this matter please contact either the supervisor(s) identified above, or the Faculty Ethics Committee Chairperson at 021 460 3291/3534.

Regards

Dr. Michael Twum-Darko
Chairperson: Faculty Ethics Committee
Postgraduate Studies and Research | Graduate Centre for Management
Faculty of Business and Management Sciences

27 September 2016

PO Box 1936 Bellville 7535 South Africa
086 123 2766
At a meeting of the Research Ethics Committee on 17 August 2016, Ethics Approval was granted to Safa Musa Abdurasoul Abdelsalam for research activities related to the MTech/DTech: MTech Business Administration at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

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<td>Supervisor:</td>
<td>Prof M.O Dassah</td>
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Comments:

Decision: APPROVED

Signed: Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee

17 AUGUST 2016

Date
APPENDIX B: EDITING CONFIRMATION LETTER

To whom it may concern,
Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Dear Madam/Sir,

This letter serves as a confirmation that I edited the thesis entitled: IMPACT OF GENDER DIFFERENCES AND CULTURAL VALUES ON WOMEN’S PROMOTION PROSPECTS IN PUBLIC SECTOR OF SELECTED COUNTRIES IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA written by SAFIA MUSA ABOE SALAM.

Yours sincerely,

Toby Keswick.

Toby Keswick
42 Upper Primrose Avenue
Bishopscourt 7700
Cape Town.

8th April 2017.
# APPENDIX C: TURN IT IN REPORT

**SAFA MUSA ABDELRAOUS Soul ABDELSALAM**  
**Thesis March 2**

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