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GENDER DIFFERNENCES AND STABLE PRODUCTIVITY IN OIL AND GAS COMPANIES IN SOUTH-SOUTH, REGION NIGERIA

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Abstract

Evaluating the Effect of Gender Differences on Stable Productivity is a paper with the specific objectives of determining the effect of male and female genders on adaptability and innovativeness, as well as to determine the difference in innovativeness and adaptability between the male and female employees. The methodology involved the sampling of 378 respondents from four oil and gas companies in Nigeria by convenience method based on accessibility; while simple random technique was adopted in interviewing the respondents, so as to maintain equity in the sampling process. The generated samples were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multiple correlations. The result from the ANOVA showed that there is no significant difference in adaptability or innovativeness between the male and female employees. This led to the acceptance of the null hypotheses that claimed no significant difference between the dependent and prescriptive variables. Similarly, the correlation results showed that weak (insignificant) relationships exist between gender difference and adaptability or innovativeness. It was concluded that male and female employees are equally adaptable and innovative. This led to the recommendation that management should create equal opportunities for male and female participation in the operations of the organization, among others.

Keywords: *Gender difference, male gender, female gender, adaptability, innovativeness, stable productivity.*

Introduction

In many organizations all over the world there are many ties placed on gender. In some backgrounds, women who are willing to work have harder time finding a job than their male counterparts. This is remarkable in northern Africa and some Arab states, where unemployment rate for women exceed 20% (Bendick, Egan & Lanier, 2021). While vulnerable employment is widespread for both men and women, the latter seems to be over–represented in certain types of vulnerabilities (including sexual harassment and corporate bullying) than the former. Bendick, et al (2021) observed that where women are integrated into the employment system, some organizations which make such conscious effort to employ equal men and women fail to involve those women in the leadership positions of the organization.

The freedom to work by choice in conditions of dignity, safety and fairness is integral to human welfare, male and female alike. Maintaining that women have access to this right is the important concern of gender inclusion studies. Gender difference simply means the existence of male and female employees in an organization. Gender roles and the associated pressure vary across organizations, regions and religions, among other factors. Bryer (2020) observes that one way in which this pressure manifests is through marital status. In developed and emerging countries, women who have a spouse are less likely to be employed in a paid job or be actively looking for one. This can often arise from the economic stability of a partner's income that reinforces the "male breadwinner" bias in some marital arrangements.

The reverse is the case in many developing countries where the economic necessity in such areas gives all women the choice to work despite their marital status. In Nigeria, gender is inadequate in this regard in many organizations and economic sectors. In the oil sector, for example, oil multinationals employ only 8% women and 92% men (Ugoani,2023).The reason for this gender inequality in the oil industry is obvious; the structure and demand of rig work or onshore/offshore exploration demands more physical strength than women can wield. This plausible explanation is affirmed by Otega & Boladi (2021) who assert that women take the lead in sectors and ministries like education and finance which require little muscular strength.

Surely, closing gender gaps in the labour force is good for both women and the organization and can lead to stable productivity. Productivity is said to be stable when there is a consistent improvement on output relative to input. It is unlike the static type of productivity where the organization records the same level of output every accounting year. Stable productivity entails quick adaptation to a changing business environment as well as ability to innovate. Adaptability in this parlances is the ability to adjust to a change and improvise operations in a competitive environment (David & Anastasia, 2022); while innovativeness is described as the ability to create better products acceptable to markets and society (Fatur & Likar, 2010). Both adaptability and innovativeness call for continual flow of new ideas, which is a characteristic of diverse organizations where gender difference is silent and creates no disparity. This paper evaluates the effects of gender difference on stable productivity among selected oil and gas companies in South-South, Nigeria.

Statement of the Problem

As a multifaceted society with over three hundred ethnicities, multiple religious and cultural differences, very visible education and gender disparity, coupled with influx of multinationals to explore the booming oil industry, Nigeria is one of the most diverse societies in the world. A global survey conducted by the society for Human Resource Management (2019) ranked Nigeria in the top five most diverse countries in the world and simultaneously ranked the country as the 45^{th} out of a total of 47 countries sustaining national diversity. The weak institutional environment in Nigeria presents both opportunities and challenges for managing diversity and organizational productivity (Adeleye, 2014). Hardly has any workplace study attempted to quantify the impact of gender differences on organizational adaptability and innovativeness which this paper does, using some oil and gas companies in Nigeria as organizations of study.

Research Objectives

The main objective of this study is to determine the effect of gender differences on stable Productivity In Oil And Gas Companies in South-South Region, Nigeria

The specific objectives of the study are to:

1. examine the effects of male gender on employee innovativeness.
2. evaluate the effects of male gender on employee adaptability.
3. identify the effects of female gender on employee innovativeness.
4. determine the effects of female gender on employee adaptability.
5. assess the joint effects of male and female genders on adaptability
6. evaluate the joint effects of male and female genders on innovativeness

Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses formulated to guide the study are stated in null forms as follows:

Ho_1: Male gender has no significant effect on innovativeness.

Ho_2: Male gender has no significant effect on adaptability.

Ho_3: Female gender has no significant effect on innovativeness.

Ho_4: Female gender has no significant effect on adaptability.

H_{o5}: There is no significant difference in adaptability between male and female genders

H_{o6}: Male and female genders have no significant difference in innovations

Scope of the Study

The study focused on establishing possible effects of gender differences on stable productivity. Gender differences were specifically viewed from the standpoints of male and female gender and how it affects stable productivity operationalized with adaptability and innovativeness.

The geographical scope of the study comprised Rivers, Bayelsa and Akwa Ibom states located in the South-South region of Nigeria, from where four oil and gas companies were studied. Generalizations about gender differences and stable productivity were made based on the information gathered from the oil and gas companies.

The unit scope of the study are the functional units of the four Oil and Gas companies under study–production unit, Human Resource Unit, Marketing, Customer services, Administrative, Accounting, Revenue, Procurement and project units. The staff to be sampled includes the administrative staff, line staff, supervisors, lower managers, heads of departments and top management staff of these sections. Excluded from the unit scope are cleaners and security men whose role do not directly relate to the organizational outcomes being measured.

Review of Related Literature

Conceptual Review

Inpendence Variable **Dependent Variable**

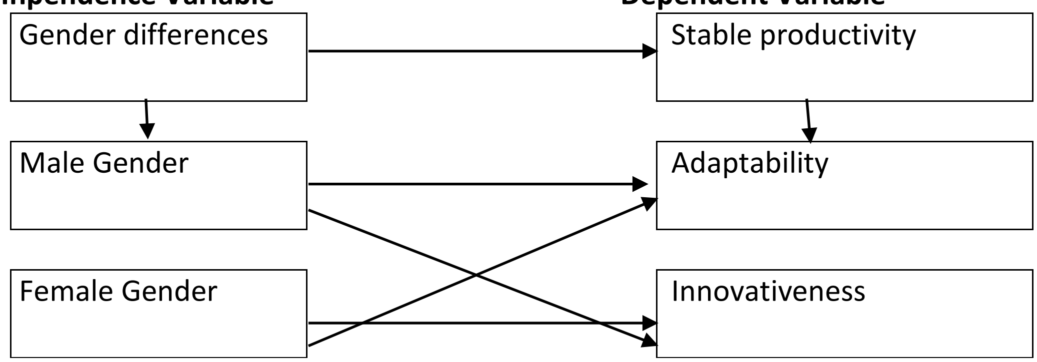

Figure 2.1: Operational conceptual framework
Source: From the researcher's desk (2023).

Gender Difference

Bryer (2020) defines gender difference as the existence or presence of male and female employees in an organization. In many organizations all over the world, there are many ties placed on gender. Bryer (2020) asserts that women who want to work have harder time finding a job than men, in some backgrounds. This problem is particularly marked in Northern Africa and the Arab States, where unemployment rate for women exceed 20%. While vulnerable employment is widespread for both men and women, the latter seems to be over-represented in certain types of vulnerable jobs than the former. Bendick, Egan & Lanier (2021) add that men are likely to be working in own-account employment while women are likely to be helping out in their households or in their relatives' businesses.

Bendick, Egan & Lanier (2021) also observe that some organizations make conscious effort to employ equal number of men and women but fail to integrate those women in the leadership of the organization. According to Bendick et al, the freedom to work by choice in conditions of dignity, safety and fairness is integral to human welfare, male and female alike. Guaranteeing that women have access to this right is the important concern of gender inclusiveness. Gender roles and pressures to conform to those rules for women vary across regions, religions and households. Bendick et al asserts that one way the pressure manifests itself is through marital status. For example, in developed and emerging countries, women who have a spouse are less likely to be employed in a paid job or be actively looking for one. This can often arise from the economic stability of a partner's income that reinforces the male "breadwinner" bias in some marital arrangements.

In developing countries, the reverse is the case in that the economic necessity in the regions gives all women little choice but to work despite their marital status. In Nigeria, gender is inadequate in this regard in many organizations and economic sectors. In the oil sector, for example, Ugoani (2023) discovered that oil multinational companies employ only 8% women and 92% men. Reasons from empirical findings adduced by Ugoani (2023), for this gender inequality is that the structure and demand of rig work and onshore/offshore exploration demands more physical strength than women can wield. This plausible explanation is affirmed by Otega & Boladi (2021) who maintain that women take the lead in sectors and ministries like education (teaching) and finance which require little muscular strength. Surely, closing gender gaps in the labour force is good for both women and the organization and can lead to organizational transformation.

Female Gender in Organizations

Kanter (1998), Whittock (2002) and Hewstone (2011) state that the absorption of women into a workplace is increasingly over-generalized and viewed through a lens of stereotypes. In line with this argument, Hewstone (2011) writes that women are traditionally associated with communal traits such as being warm and caring, while men are associated with argentic traits, such as being competent and assertive. These competence – and warmth – related gender stereotypes can affect evaluations of female employees and hinder them from ascending the organizational ladder (Eagly, 1992; Helpman, 2001; Koenig, 2011). In fact, leadership represents a role that is associated with men, perceived to require argentic qualities and to be incongruent with the female gender role. Leader stereotypes and incongruence with the female gender role seem to be even more pronounced in advanced backgrounds, such as Spain, the UK and Germany (Hernandez, 2019). A specific aspect of female gender stereotype in the workplace that is often considered in gender-related studies is risk taking (Ranjeeni, & Naidu, 2023) and in such related domains such as financial decision making or entrepreneurship**.**

Besides domain-specific stereotypes, in the work context, there are also negative stereotypes of mothers. A number of studies provide evidence that women with children are evaluated more negatively as compared to men who have children or to women without children regarding their job commitments or likeability (Fuegen, 2014; Brescol & Uhrmann, 2015; Heilman & Okimoto, 2018)**.**Moreover, motherhood biases can result in decreased interest in hiring, promoting or educating women who have children (Cuddy, 2014).

Furthermore, gender diversity in the workplace can have consequences for women on a behavioural level. One example is gender harassment, which refers to a wide-range of verbal and non-verbal behaviours not aimed at sexual cooperation but that convey insulting, hostile and degrading attitudes about women (Fitz Gerald, 2015). This includes insults, negative comments and other negative behaviours toward women, such as ignoring their contributions or interrupting them. The probability of gender harassment has been found to be higher for women whose work contexts are dominated by men, as compared to similar gender proportions (Leskinen, 2011; Kabat – Far & Cortina, 2014). To gain a broader impression of the effects of gender proportions, a consideration of women’s work-related wellbeing and overall quality of life is important. Warr (2013) outlines how job satisfaction (a common operationalization of work-related wellbeing) is influenced by gender diversity in the workplace. Yet no clear answer has been found for whether gender diversity has primarily positive or negative effects on employee job satisfaction and other variables.

Male Gender in Organizations

Sanday (2001) uses the term “male dominance to describe the existence of more men in an organization than women, particularly at leadership positions. Male gender dominance in organizations characterizes the unequal power relations between men and women as groups. This categorical approach to gender relations is part of a long history of thought regarding the political relations of the sexes in a workplace. According to Sanday, (2001), a correlative of this system of thought has been the relative exclusion of western women from the public sphere of economic occupational and political opportunities, compared with their male peers; and a tendency to value traits associated with masculinity over those defined as feminine. Sanday (2001) discloses from an empirical study that male-dominated occupations are those comprised of 25% or fewer women. Beckman & Menkhoff (2018) add that male-dominated organizations and occupations are particularly vulnerable to reinforcing harmful stereotypes and creating unfavourable environments that make it even more difficult for women to excel.

Eckel & Grossman (2008) observes that empirical research on work environments with female majorities at the top of the organization is scarce. In addition to the finding of Eckel & Grassman (2008); Catalyst (2018) provides an impressive body of evidence of women's unequal (with men) participation in the work environment.

According to Catalyst (2018), gender diversity has been especially scarce at the leadership level. In his survey of Fortune Global Spain 4.8% have female CEO's. Bowers (2000) also found out in a study of 100 companies in Europe that the share of the top 100 companies remains at 15%. Past evidences have shown mixed results regarding gender diversity and the benefits of heterogeneous versus homogeneous work teams.

Mixed Gender Organizations

A mixed gender organization is one that contains and accommodates both male and female employees at all levels of the organizational hierarchy. Whereas popular notion often centers on character differences between men and women when explaining work-related behaviour, Kanter, (1977; cited by Melanie, Maria & Carolin, 2019) predict that the proportion of women and men present in organizations is the crucial factor which has been theorized to have a range of negative consequences in contrast, if proportion of men and women are similar as in ideal (equal-gender) organizations in the presence of gender diversity, gender is not salient and the work environment becomes much more positive for women. This consideration implies that not only a male majority but also a female majority at work can have negative consequences because gender becomes salient in both cases.

Melanie et al (2019) point that increasing the number of women would lead to less negative outcomes for women because they have more opportunities to form coalitions, have more influence on the culture of the overall work group and are increasingly perceived as significant individuals. In contrast to this assumption, Yoder, (2022) suggests that men would feel threatened by larger female proportions, resulting in increased discrimination and harassment. Moreover, a consideration of the effects of female majorities in work groups in contrast to male majorities is scarce (Bunke & McKeen, 2016; Hewstone, 2011). It is assumed that not a male majority but also a female majority at work has negative consequences because gender becomes over-emphasized in both cases.

Stable Productivity

Sheffield, (2023) defines productivity as the capacity of a business to produce desired results within a minimum expenditure of resources. It is differentiated from organizational effectiveness which is defined as ability to attain a goal by doing the right things. Related to productivity is the term efficiency, which Melanie, Maria & Varolin (2019) define as the process of increasing output with specific amount of resources. Bryer, (2020) defines productivity in more quantitative terms as ratio of mark output to work input. By this definition, productivity centers on improvement of output, similar to efficiency. Productivity is said to be stable if there is a consistent improvement of outputs relative to inputs. Stable productivity is unlike static productivity where there is no growth in output. Stable productivity entails a continual adaptation to change and ability to innovate (Sheffield, 2023).

Innovativeness

Fatur & Likar (2010) define innovativeness as the ability to create better products, services, processes and technologies, implying a complex use of ideas acceptable by markets, government and society. It indicates fundamental change in industrial structure and organizational growth (Toshidi & Tabari 2012). Akanwa & Agu (2011) envisage innovativeness as the capacity of an entrepreneur to develop new ideas, products, and technology, market or business practices with a view to enhancing the fortunes of an enterprise. Navalade (2016) sees innovativeness as the capacity to provide different and better economic value and satisfaction to the society.

According to Kemeny (2017), innovative acts include finding uses for something in nature or changing the wealth-producing potentials of resources to enhance their benefits to people. Kemeny postulates that one of the means to drive organizational innovativeness is through a diverse workforce. Lumpkin & Dess (1996) disclose that innovativeness research studies reveal that there is a strong relationship between innovativeness and high performance. According to Lumpkin & Dess (1996) innovativeness reflects willingness to support creativity and experimentation in introducing new products and services, novelty, technological leadership and new processes. In today's business environment, organizations force themselves to become innovative more than ever before because the first- mover advantage gained with the new products and services offered to the markets create high market share, sales and high financial performance.

Becker, (2002,) argues that diversity is a source of innovation and creativity that enables firms to gain a competitive advantage. Companies that hire employees who have inherent ethnicity, gender, language, religion, educational background, marital backgrounds and work experiences innovate and outperform others; (Becker,2002, Hewlett et al, 2013; Hendricks, 2022). Research has also shown that gender and ethnic diversity have a significant positive relationship with innovation since the marketplace itself is diverse, workforce with diverse gender (for example) will make it easy for firms to penetrate these markets with innovative ideas and products/services.

Adaptability

David & Anastasia (2022) defined adaptability as the ability of an organization to adjust to change and improvise its operations in a competitive business environment. Adaptable organizations are those that can adjust to changing processes, factors and goals. Odita & Egbule (2015) argue that adaptability is essential for competitive advantage. To stay competitive means the organization is willing to embark on changes, in new products and services, pricing, location or concept. It also means that the organization operates in such a way that it is proactive to change. To this end, Odita & Egbule (2015) argue that highly adaptable organizations have well-defined goals and corporate culture; they are forward-thinking and not only recognize the importance of change but anticipate it and actively get ready for it. This could be the key to stable productivity, survival and sustainability.

Moreover, David & Anastasia (2022) maintain that adaptable organizations value their employees. They understand that their employees are the most useful resources needed for successful adaptation; enabling the organization to work and innovate in a way that allows employees to seize opportunities. Also, for organizations to be adaptive, they need to be creative (Hendricks, 2022). Organizations that excel in adaptability encourage creativity of their employees and model it in their business practice.

Relevant Theories

Kanter's Gender Composition Theory

Kanter (1977) postulated that the process of social categorization at workplace using workers' genders influences people's reactions toward individuals and depends on gender composition in the environment. According to Kanter, if women are in the minority, forming 15% of the work group or less (i.e. skewed proportions), they acquire token status. Tokens are often the pioneers who occupy the positions in which historically disadvantaged groups were not present. Kanter further postulates that when women account for more than 15% and more than 35%, titled proportions are given. From a share of 40% upward, balanced proportions or, in other words, gender diversity has been realized.

Focusing on skewed proportions, Kanter proposed several conceptual outcomes: Visibility, Polarization and Assimilation. These perceptual outcomes suggest that token women are highly visible for majority members; the differences between women and men are exaggerated and polarized; and women's features and behaviours are assimilated to stereotypes. As consequences, token women can experience performance pressure, heightened group boundaries, isolation and role entrapment (Melanie, Maria & Angels, 2019).

Similarity Attraction Theory

The Similarity Attraction proposition explains how diversity can have positive and negative outcomes for an organization. The theory is attributed to the original work of Byrne (1971) which was modernized by Tsui, Egan & O' Reilly (1992) and David & Anastasia (2019). According to the theory, members who belong to diverse work units may become less attached, absent from work and more likely to quit. There is also evidence that diversity can produce conflict and higher employee turnover. Similarity attraction theory is one of the foundational theories that attempts to explain why this occurs; by postulating that individuals are attracted to others with whom they share attitude similarity (Byrne, 1971). Attitudes and beliefs are envisaged by Byrne as common antecedents to interpersonal attraction. However, other traits such as race, age, socioeconomic status and gender serve as signals to reveal deep-level traits about individuals in the workplace.

Empirical Review

Ogbo, Kifordu & Wiffred (2014) carried out a study to determine the influence of workforce diversity on organization's profitability. A pair of samples constituting of size 1400 each and drawn in two occasions from seventeen diverse organizations in Northern Nigeria were used. The analysis was done using the version 2.0 of the statistical package for social sciences and the Spearman's Rank order coefficient was determined as r = 0.952. Ogbo et al (2014) concluded that workforce diversity had a strong positive influence on profitability.

Omankhelem & Joshua (2011) examined the impact of workforce diversity on organizational effectiveness among selected banks in Nigeria. Bank's goal attainment status with regard to profit, customer retention and stakeholders' satisfaction were correlated with marginal addition to workforce diversity of employees for several years, with particular to gender, ethnic group, national, cultural background, and marital status. Analysis of the 384 samples of the study revealed that there was no significant relationship between diversity and effectiveness, with a determination coefficient of 0.068.

Hafiza & Faiza (2015) investigated the impact of workforce diversity on the education sector, using Karachi State University as reference institution. 100 faculty members were sampled and regression analysis was carried out. The study found out that there was a significant positive link between workforce diversity and employee cooperation among the faculties.

Osinbajo, Adeniji, Falola, Salau, Ogueyungbo & Efe (2020) evaluated the effects of diversity management on organizational performance of 16 deposit money banks in Lagos. Using a survey research design, a sample of 192 employees were selected and analyzed. The results showed that the level of diversities in age, gender, work experience, educational qualification and marital status on employee commitment, sales growth and service quality was significant (R_2 = 31.6%).

Kaumudha & Raji (2018) studied the impact of diversity in terms of Age, Gender and Cultural background of employees on the effectiveness of Information Technology (IT) of communication companies. Three network providers in the field of tele-communication were selected for the study, from which a sample 3020 was drawn. Analysis of the data by SPSS revealed that there was no significant difference between commitment efforts of employees of various culture, age, and gender toward IT effectiveness.

Methodology

Description survey design was adopted for the study. The research involved a field survey in which a predetermined group was interviewed as respondents using questionnaire instrument. The population of the study was 7103 workers from four oil and gas companies in three states of South-South Nigeria namely; Bayelsa, Rivers and Akwa Ibom. From the population of 7103; a sample size of 378 was selected using the Taro Yamene's formula as a guide (Alugbuo, 2005; Anyanwu, 1999). The bulk sample of 378 was then allocated to each of the four study organizations using proportionality index (Gupta, 2010).

The four organizations of study were selected based on convenience while Simple Random Techniques was used to sample the respondents. The convenience technique was based on accessibility of the organizations to the researcher whereas a simple random technique was employed to ensure equity in the sampling process. The validity of the questionnaire was verified prior to administration. Copies were submitted to management professionals who critically evaluated the correctness of the question items in eliciting the appropriate responses. The reliability of the questionnaire was determined using test-retest method that involved a pilot study. In this case, the questionnaire was administered to a pilot group twice in an interval or two weeks. The results of the two occasions were analyzed for consistency using the Cronbach alpha statistic. The reliability index ($\propto$) was 0.948, indicating a high consistency. Analysis of the research data was carried out using the version 2.0 of the SPSS for analysis of variance and correlation.

Results

Table 4.1 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Sources of variation	**df**	**Sum of squares**	**Mean square**	**F-ratio**
Regression	4	5621.9	1405.47	
Error	32	2664.8	83.32	16.88
Total	**36**	**6,286.7**		

Table 4.2 correlations

Var	**MG**	**FG**	**IN**	**AD**
MG	1.000			
FG	.396	1.000		
IN	.206	.227	1.000	
AD	.318	.396	.728	1.000

Predictors MG, FG
MG Male Gender
FG Female Gender
IN Innovativeness
AD Adaptability

Table 4.3 Model Summaries

Coefficient of Multiple Determination			**Autocorrelation**	**Standard Error of Estimate**
R	R^2	Adj R^2	Durbin/Water	
.529	.280	.264	0.842	0.00162

***Dependent Variables* IN, AD**

Discussion

A multicollinearity test was carried out before the analysis of the research model. The necessity of multicollinearity statistics is underscored by Egbulonu, (2012), who maintain that multicollinearity can affect the parameters of a model by producing a correlation between the independent (predictive) variables. The pre-test was done using Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance methods. Egbulonu (2012) depict a tolerance factor less than 0.1 as a serious multicollinearity problem among the predictor variables. All tolerance value in the pre-tests was greater than 0.1, meaning that there was no significant multicollinearity among the male and female gender (MG, MF).Egbulonu(2012) further stipulates that a Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) greater than 10 calls for concern. In the pre-test, all VIF values were less than 10.

From table 4.3, the coefficient of multiple determinations which measures the overall fitness of the model is 0.280. The squared value of the determination coefficient, which equally measures fitness, is 0.264 And R^2 of 0.280 indicates that gender difference (i.e. MG and FG) is capable of explaining 26.4% variation in innovativeness and adaptability. This invariably suggests that 73.6% ($1-R^2$), otherwise known as coefficient of non-determination) of the variation in organizational innovativeness and adaptability is accounted for by other factors not captured by the model. This result is supported by the adjusted R^2 of 0.264 which is the proportion of total variance described by the model.

The correlation result in table 4.2 shows that weak relationship exists between male gender and innovativeness (r = 0.206) and between male gender and adaptability (r = 0.318). A similar weak positive relationship exists between female gender and innovativeness (r = 0.227) and between female gender and adaptability (r = 0.396)

Similarly, findings from the Fishers ratio (F-statistic) which is a proof of the validity of the estimated model as reflected in table 4.1 presents a p-value that is greater than 0.05. The F-ratio is 16.88 which is not found to be significant at the given degree of freedom and 5% level of significance. This invariably suggests that simultaneously, the predictors MG and FG have no significant difference in adaptability and innovativeness.

Contrary to expectation, table 4.2 presents an insignificant relationship between male gender and innovativeness. To this end, the research hypothesis HO1 which claims a null effect of male gender on innovativeness is accepted. Similarly, the research hypothesis H03 which states that female gender has no significant effect on innovativeness is accepted (Table 4.2: r = 0.206 and r = 0.227 respectively), H02 and H04 are also accepted on the same grounds (r = 0318 and r = 0.396 respectively).

The ANOVA results of table 4.1 provide clear evidence that there is no significant difference between the predictive and dependent variables. This invariably means that there is no significant difference between a male employee’s innovativeness and that of a female employee. The research hypothesis (H06) is therefore accepted. In the same vein, there is no significant difference between male and female adaptabilities (Ho5).

These results that find no significant difference between male and female innovativeness and adaptability in the workplace are in one accord with the discoveries of Omankhelem & Joshua (2011) who observed an R^2 of 6.8% for both male and female effectiveness at workplace. Also Osiubafo, Adeuiji, Fahola, Salau, Ogueyungbo & Efe (2020) observed that significant impact on organizational variables like commitment, sales growth and service quality is observed only when gender issues among employees are ignored.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Conclusion

The empirical evidence gathered from this work shows that there is no significant difference in adaptability and innovativeness between male and female employees. The analysis of variance of table 4.1 proves this claim with a Fishers ratio of 16.88 which was accepted (as it falls in the acceptance region) at 32 and 36 error and total degrees of freedom respectively and 5% level of significance. Similarly correlation result in table 4.2 shows weak and significantly non-different values of Pearson r for adaptability and innovativeness of both genders. Specifically, male gender versus innovativeness has Pearson r = 0.206 and r =0.227 for female gender and innovativeness. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that there is no significance difference between male and female gender. The logical conclusion is that the ability to innovate and adapt is the same for both male and female employees.

From this observation we draw the inference that male and female employees are equally adaptive and innovative in their organizations. Contrary to prior expectation, the six and five hypotheses of the study are accepted, leading to the general conclusion that male and female differences among employees have no significant effect on stable productivity.

Recommendations

The findings of the study led to the recommendations that;

1. Management should accord equal opportunities to employees irrespective of gender differences.
2. Organizational innovative ability as a cognitive activity should be achieved by managers through a balanced view of workforce diversity.
3. Organizational cultures that promote male gender over and above female gender should be made to undergo culture change for higher and stable productivity.
4. Adaptability should be conceived as an attribute of both male and female employees. To develop the proactive adaptability of the organization, equal chances should be created by the management for both male and female employees to develop their adaptability initiatives.

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