

**PSYCHO-SOCIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE
FACTORS AS PREDICTORS OF FEMALE ACADEMICS'
CAREER GROWTH AND LEADERSHIP POSITION IN
SOUTH-WEST NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES**

BY

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ABSTRACT

Studies have shown that women are a minority in non-traditional careers, have slow career growth compared to their male colleagues and almost invisible in leadership positions, therefore excluded in power structure. These have been attributed to culture, socialisation, conditioning and self-perception of the women themselves. However, predicting factors of female academics' career in Nigerian Universities are yet to be examined. This study, therefore, affirmed the efficacy or otherwise of psycho-social and organisational climate factors as predictors of female academics' career growth and leadership positions in universities in South-West Nigeria.

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. The quantitative aspect adopted the survey research design of the *ex-post facto*. Multistage sampling involving the use of purposive and stratified random techniques were used to select 898 respondents from six Universities in South-West Nigeria. Five hundred and thirty eight Female Academics from Graduate Assistant to Professor, three hundred male academics, (senior lecturers) sixty members of appointment and promotion committee participated in the study. Female Academics Psychological Questionnaire (R=0.82), Social Factors Questionnaire (R=0.87), Organisational Climate Factors Questionnaire (R=0.84), Female Academics Career Growth Questionnaire (R=0.79) and Female Academics Leadership Questionnaire (r=0.84) were used for data collection. These were complemented with 27 in-depth interviews with female Professors. Twelve research questions were answered. Data were analysed using multiple regression and content analysis.

Psychological factors (self-esteem and self-efficacy), social factors (parental influence, spousal support, male academics collegial support and attitude towards women, as well as organisational climate factors (fairness, inclusion, work climate) had positive multiple correlation with career growth of female academics (R=0.40) and explained 14.2% of the variance in the dependent variable. The three categories of factors also jointly correlated with leadership position of female academics (R=0.55), and explained 28.5% of the dependent measure. The factors which made the highest contributions to career growth are: self-efficacy ($\beta = .28$), parental influence ($\beta = .22$) and spousal support ($\beta = .18$) while for leadership position they are parental influence ($\beta = .36$), attitude towards women ($\beta = .27$) and self-efficacy ($\beta = .25$) in that order. Further, self-efficacy (B=.40; t=6.59; p < .05), parental influence (B= -.12; t= -4.89; p<.05) and spousal support (B=.13; t=4.26; p<.05) could predict career growth. Predictors of female academics' leadership position include parental influence (B= -.22; t= -9.10; p<.05), self-efficacy (B=.370; t=6.316; p<.05), spousal support (B= .169; t= 5.673; p<.05) and work climate (B= .56; t =2.03; p<.05). In-depth interviews revealed that female academics are self-conscious of their minority status, and perceive they work twice as hard as their male colleagues. They are aware that support and positive attitudes from male colleagues, their spouses, parents and favourable work climate are essential for their career growth and the attainment of leadership positions.

Significant factors of female academics' career growth are self-efficacy, parental influence and spousal support, while parental influence, academic men's attitude towards women, self-efficacy, and work climate are essential towards their attainment of leadership positions. Therefore, female academics must develop positive self-efficacy, seek the support of their husbands and male colleagues. Also, universities should create a favourable work climate for all staff.

Key words: Female academics, Psycho-social factors, Organisational climate, Leadership position, Nigerian Universities.

Word count: 500

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to every woman who is striving to impact the world from whatever position she finds herself and to all men who are dedicated to seeing women fulfil their God given dominion.

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CERTIFICATION

I certify that this work was carried out by **Mrs. Oti, Adepeju Olaide** in the Department of Teacher Education, University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0

1.1 Background to the problem

Prior to colonisation, Nigerian women especially from the south-west had been involved in activities outside the home as traders, farmers and merchants (Anugwom, 2009). They were also a force to reckon with in community activities, hence, they were addressed as *Iya Loja (Important woman in the market place)*, *Iya laje (Astute business woman)*, *Iya lode (A female public figure)*, *Erelu (A female chief in Egba land)*, which are female chieftaincy titles to eulogise and recognise the various achievements and hard work of women (Lebeuf, 1963; Okonjo, 1976, 1991; Ekejiuba, 1991; Sator, 1992; and Pereira, 2007). Also, in the pre-colonial era, women in the south-western region of Nigeria had their share of social responsibilities and leadership roles (Uwaezuoke and Ezeh, 2008).

With the advent of colonisation and the introduction of western education and western social values however, the education brought by the colonialists was modelled predominantly towards the mental development of boys and men; this was evidenced by the number of boys' schools that were established during this era and the enrolment figures of boys, compared to girls (Uwaezuoke and Ezeh, 2008). Girls' secondary schools came after serious agitations, and when it did, parents were already sceptical about sending their girls to school (Anugwom, 2009). Also, the work establishment created by these institutions, such as the Civil Service, the Boat Industries, Churches and Schools were almost exclusively open to men only (Nka, 1974; Zuga, 1999).

Girls who later went to school at this period were groomed in readiness for marriage, so that they can become good wives to their husbands, efficient mothers to their children and women of good conduct who would know how to take care of the home. Uwaezuoke and Ezeh (2008) reiterated that girls were exposed to such subjects as Home Economics, English Language, Civics, Religious and Moral Instructions.

Moreover, these girls were at a disadvantage as a result of the traditional subjects they were constrained to take in school, making them inadequate for the requirements and challenges of the labour market. According to (Uwaezuoke and Ezeh, 2008):

...The overall feeble position of female education in comparison to the male counterpart did not augur well for the social, economic and political development of women in Nigeria. At a time when literary education was becoming the master key to a successful life in modern society, the different agencies responsible for the instruction of the Nigerian youth invested in upgrading the formation of boys to the detriment of girls (p.11).

This means that many women were unemployable during the colonial era (McIntosh, 2009). Hence, the foundation of the workplace is such that offered unequal opportunities (Uwaezuoke and Ezeh, 2008). The explanations for how this manifests in the present day society occurs in various dimensions; in the home front, girls and boys are differently socialised. While the girls are meant to do various household chores and the general cooking, boys freely play football or watch the television (Abdulraheem, 2011).

Tasks and duties are strictly divided along gender lines, with tasks that are viewed as socially valued carried out by the boys and tasks that are considered as menial done by the girls, which inform categorisation that spell out unequal gender relations and gendered division of labour (Odejide, 2006¹; Oyelude and Oti, 2007; Abdulraheem, 2011). Traditionally, the work of male and female differed, and under the colonial masters women generally did not have a career (Lugard, 1920):

...The second-class to which I have referred, includes those who seek a technical or manual training. Most of the openings for such boys are in the railway, marine, public works or printing departments where the machinery driven by steam or electricity is used... Boys who have passed the fourth or fifth standard in a provincial (or non-government) schools will be accepted as apprentices, and trained in batches, their pay rising with each complete year of service, if passed as efficient (p. 63-64).

¹ Odejide, A. 2006. Personal discussion an indepth interview on determinants of females' career path to academic leadership in Nigerian universities.

In both the colonial and post-colonial era therefore, career and leadership became the prerogative of men, but alien to the women. This is evident in the past and present gender structure of political office holders, the Civil Service, and the organised private sector (William, 1989). The traditional structures that gave room for women's visibility outside the home and in leadership were disrupted (Okonjo, 1975; Olojede, 1986).

Moreover, socially acceptable leadership characteristics have long been ascribed to men, such as, dominance, aggression, spatial ability and rationality, while females are assumed to possess non-socially valued characteristics of passivity, nurturance, irrationality, to mention a few (Carpenter, 2005). From the foregoing, men are well-prepared for career and leadership challenges, while women are not. For the men, there are many leadership models of their gender, that they could look up to; every day men see other typical adult males play the role of the head in the family, communities, states and nations such as *Obas*, (*Paramount ruler in Yoruba land in south-west Nigeria*) *Igwe*s (High chief and revered personality among the Igbo community in Eastern Nigeria), *Baales* (*leader of a small community in Yoruba land*), Emirs (Paramount ruler among the Hausa Caliphate in Northern Nigeria), Presidents, Governors, Chief Executive Officers, Managers and Directors. Some women like Chief (Mrs) Funmilayo Ransome-Kuti, Mrs. Margaret Ekpo and Queen Amina of Zaria however are exceptions.

The social experiences that male and female are exposed to in the macro society is carried on to the micro University system. Women are more socially accepted as wives and mothers and in other supportive roles, such as secretaries, vice and often accepted in the role of a second fiddle; than the role of senior colleagues, Managing Directors, Vice-chancellors, Governors, Presidents, and so on (Awe, 1990; Ezeigbo, 1996; Okojie, 1990; Amali, 1991). This trend is one of the bases of gender stereotype, which informs the tasks and goals society set for male and female as well as tasks they set for themselves, and the means of achieving these goals (Verba and Nie 1972; Bandura, 1977, 2000) Significant among which are career and leadership goals.

The tasks and goals thus set have some implications for women's psychological dispositions, when they eventually find themselves in careers and leadership positions. When an individual has been socialised and conditioned in a particular way,

believing that there are things she/he cannot and should not venture into because of her/his gender, then accomplishing such tasks becomes difficult and socially incongruent with his/her gender role (Eagly, 1989; Eagly and Karau, 2002; Guney, Gohar, Akinci & Akinci, 2006)

As a result of socialisation, educational, cultural and institutional conditioning, most females avoid male dominated occupations and subjects, such as Engineering, Applied Science and Mathematics (Erinosho, 2001); even in academics, the very few who venture into these occupations have difficulties (Mawasha, Lam, Vesalo, Leitch, and Rice, 2000), significant among which is slow or lack of career growth.

Research has reiterated the fact that dominant members of an occupation or organisation have greater influence on its values, norms and work climate, minorities are considered as mere tokens and as non-indigenes (Kanter, 1977; 1979). Meanwhile, in the past two decades, participation of women in higher education has improved (Singh, 2002; Odejide, 2006; Mabawonku, 2006²; Nnaike, 2008; Lawal, 2008). But, despite this improvement, women still lag behind as academic staff compared to men, and they very rarely occupy academic leadership positions, especially in the University system.

It is pertinent to note here that, female-dominated occupations like nursing, teaching at lower level, secretarial and librarianship profession are typically seen as lower in status and salary (Chusmir, 1990; Hayes, 1986). However, the reluctance of males to adopt egalitarian roles may also be attributable to the fact that 'men who enter so-called "feminine" fields are more likely than women who enter male-dominated fields to be devalued and even ridiculed for engaging in "gender-inappropriate" behaviour' (Jome and Tokar, 1998, p. 121). Alternatively, it may be that 'men as a result of their socialization feel uneasy about exercising the "caring" side of their personalities, which is a requirement of some traditionally female occupations' (Clement, 1987, p. 264).

The minority status of women in male dominated careers has implications for their self-concept, personal career development as well as organisation development (Tharenou, 1999; Singh, 2002; Chesterman, 2003; Chovwen, 2004). Some researchers

² Mabawonku, I. M. 2006. Personal discussion an indepth interview on determinants of females' career path to academic leadership in Nigerian universities.

have tagged the academic world as a single sex profession, where men are the predominant workforce, (Lund, 1998; Singh, 2002; Morley, Gunawardena, Kwesiga, Lihamba, Odejide, Shackelton, and Sorhahaindo, 2005). Other researchers have considered academic women as ‘outsiders within’ (Toutkoushian, 2000; Kamau, 2004; Vázquez-Cupeiro and Elston, 2006).

Although women make up about half of the workforce in most developed countries (United States, Australia and Canada), yet they occupy less than 5 percent of senior executive seats (Townsend and Mattis, 1998; Tharenou, 1999; Ragins; Morley, 2005). This implies that while the women are flooding the managerial pipeline, their efforts to attain the most senior levels are being blocked. Rindfleish (2002) argued that women’s participation in paid workforce has been one of the most remarkable social changes over the past 40 years, yet women are excluded from the most senior positions within organisations and executive boards. According to Singh (2002), women make up less than three quarters of the academic staff of Universities, and among the very top position less than ten percent.

Furthermore, participation of girls and women in education at all levels began to improve (Mbanefoh, 1995; UNICEF, 1994), this improvement notwithstanding, girls and women still lag behind as students and academic staff in terms of numbers, choice of subjects and courses, faculties and departments, (Jacobs, 1996; Kwesiga, 2002; Odejide, 2003; Chesterman, 2004; Morley *et al*, 2005) women very rarely grow at par with their male colleagues and seldom attain academic leadership positions especially in the University system (Williams, 1993; Onakala & Onah 1998). This has implication for their self-actualization, esteem and efficacy (Morley, 1999; Mama, 2003; Odejide, 2003). Distribution of men and women by occupation in Commonwealth Universities illustrates this.

Table 1.1: Distributions of Men and Women by Occupational Category in Commonwealth Universities

<i>Level</i>	<i>Women %</i>	<i>Men %</i>	Unspecified %
Vice-Chancellors/CEO	6.9	76.1	17.0
Deputy Vice-Chancellors, Pro-vice-chancellors	8.4	59.7	31.9
Registrars, etc	13.2	61.5	25.3
Deans of Faculties	13.9	60.1	26.0
Heads of departments	8.5	56.8	34.7
Finance directors	15.2	84.8	--
Chief librarians	7.8	69.2	23.0
	29.3	51.1	19.6
Academic			
Professors	9.9	90.3	--
Associate professors/readers	19.4	80.6	--
Assistant professors/ Senior lecturers	25.7	74.1	--
Lecturers	33.8	66.2	--

Source : (Singh, 2002; 2008).

Table 1.1 reveals that among the very top positions women occupied only 6.9% of the executive heads (Vice-chancellors). In the other senior management positions, women occupied 13.9% of Registrars/Secretaries, 8.4% Deputy vice-chancellors/Deputy presidents/Vice-rectors, 13.2% of Pro-vice-chancellors/ Pro-rectors/Vice-presidents, 8.5% Deans of Faculties, 15.2% Heads of departments, and 7.8% Finance directors were women and among chief librarians 29.3% were women. With respect to Personnel Directors/Officers, 28.0% were women (UNESCO, 2002; Singh, 2002). The low percentage of women in these positions reflects that these positions are filled by fairly senior staff, of which women form a small percentage.

In the same vein, Odejide (2003), found that University staff in Nigeria are more likely to be male, a phenomenon which can be explained by the pattern of access to higher education within the country. Odejide (2003) reported that the gender distribution of staff at the University of Ibadan (the oldest University in Nigeria) is in a lopsided position. In 2001, nearly 80% of academic staff and 70% of senior administrators were male; also 88.1% of professors, 78% of senior lecturers and 75% of junior lecturers were male.

These figures imply that though more women are finding entry into academic profession in Nigeria; as they move up the professional ladder their numbers diminish. This may be due to attrition, late entry and retirement before becoming Professors. They still do not form a ‘critical mass’ (majority) at the top. It goes to show that the potentials of women are not fully utilised. It could also mean that since there are more women Chief Librarians; it might be that males are not attracted to librarianship. Table 1.2 gives a clear illustration of the position of women in higher education management in Nigeria. Studies from Nigeria (Alele-Williams, 1990; Onakala, and Onah, 1998; Odejide, 2003; Erinosh, 2005) reveal gross inequity and gross under-representation of females in senior academic positions in Nigeria. Table 1.2 gives a clear illustration of the position of women in higher education management in Nigeria.

Table 1.2: Women in Management Positions in Higher Education in Nigeria 1989 – 2008

Post	Number	Location	Mode of selection
Vice-Chancellor	5	Benin 2, Lagos, Abuja, Ogun	Nomination/Acting
Deputy Vice-Chancellor	3	Ife(OAU), Ibadan Unilag (Ag)	Nominated/Elected
Bursar	2	OAU, UNILAG	Appointed
Registrar	4	OAU, Ibadan, Ife(OAU), FUTA	Appointed
Rector (Poly)	3	Ibadan, Ilorin, Yaba	Appointed
Librarian	3	Ibadan, OSU, OAU	Appointed
Cmac/Dir. of Clinical Services	1	LUTH	Appointed
Total	21		

OAU: Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile Ife
 FUTA: Federal University of Agriculture, Akure
 UNILAG: University of Lagos
 OSU: Ogun State University-now Olabisi Onabanjo University
 LUTH: Lagos University Teaching Hospital
 Source: Odejide (2003) Updated by the researcher.

From the foregoing, women very rarely gain access to senior management positions in Nigerian Universities through stratified election. Also, in the recent past Vice-Chancellors who were elected candidates are still subjected to the ratification by government of the day; some forms of autonomy now exist in Nigerian Universities. Greater number of the management positions occupied by women is by appointment, meaning that the position is by seniority, irrespective of which gender is due for the

next promotion. Ever since 1985 and 1990 that Professors Grace Alele Williams and Jadesola Akande, were appointed Vice-Chancellors (VCs) of the University of Benin and Lagos State University (LASU) respectively, more recent appointment is that of Professor Biola Odejide as Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Academics) of the University of Ibadan.

Also, elected are Professor Laraba Abdulahi, former Vice-Chancellor University of Abuja, Professor Funmi Bickersteth, Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Academic) - Obafemi Awolowo University and Professor Aize Obayan of Covenant University, Ota, Ogun State, Professor Dupe Ogunlesi-University of Lagos, Professor Ibiyemi O. Bello and Professor Omolara Bangboye -Lagos State University, and the recent appointment of Professor Uche Gbenedio as Acting Vice-Chancellor of University of Benin, whose appointment generated a lot of controversy over ethnicity (According to the University's spokesman Mr. Eddy Akpomera).

The University of Benin is a Federal Government institution and we do not condone ethnicity. What happened in the University of Benin was the same thing that applied in other federal universities that the tenures of the Vice Chancellors elapsed. It is on record that in all the other universities, the Deputy Vice-Chancellors (Administration) were those that were appointed. That is the convention and precedent. The Minister appointed them after due consultation with the National Universities Commission (NUC). The same principle was applied at the Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Usman Dan Fodiyo University, Sokoto and then UNIBEN. So, there was nothing that was done in UNIBEN that was ethnic. He or she just takes charge briefly until council comes and anybody who is interested applies. There is nothing ethnic in it, the University of Benin is a Federal Government institution (Akpomera, 2011).

There has not been an appointment of a female in recent times. Many of the studies (Onokala, 1998; Demerling, 1999; Mathipa, and Isoke, 2001; Okebukola, 2002; Ojo, 2002; Olubur, 2006) revealed the low representation of academic women, both in the profession, and in leadership, without the explanations of possible causations and the effect this has on academic women's career growth, psychological and social dispositions.

Some of the earlier studies reiterated that females lack appropriate training and preparation that should propel their careers and bring them to the fore of leadership (Chesterman, 2004; Madsen, 2006; Lasiele, 2009). This could further affect

her motivation and sustained interest in her career and leadership position (Eagly, 1989; Eagly, Makhijani, and Wonsky, 1992; Eagly, and Karau, 2002; Oti and Oyelude, 2006). The aforementioned studies have examined the several factors that influence the career growth, career success and career satisfaction of men and women, as well as their leadership differences. Earlier studies posit that women's self-evaluation is a function of socialisation and reflects in the way they under-value themselves (self-esteem) and the way they under-value their work and contribution to their organisation (self-efficacy) Bandura, (1997).

This behaviour has been found to influence their willingness to stay on in academics and the readiness to attain and accept leadership position (Olojede, 1986; Morley, 2006; Pereira, 2007). This is because women have been conditioned to think and behave in such a way that they are less competent and capable than men; while men have been conditioned to think they are more competent than the women, especially in career and leadership positions (Porter, Geis and Jennings, 1983; Bandura, 1997).

Recent data reveal that gender gap in self-esteem increases dramatically in the teen years, through the college experience, and into adulthood. More boys than girls enter adolescence with high self-esteem and many more men than women leave adolescence with high self-esteem. Women were reported to arrive at engineering schools with lower self-confidence than men (McIlwee and Robinson, 1992). The declining self-esteem for women affects their academic confidence, aspirations, and choice of college major (American Association of University Women, 1992). Despite the fact that many of the women compete and succeed in demanding technical curricula, they continue to lack self-confidence as college students (McIlwee and Robinson (1992). Self-esteem has also been found to affect a student's ability to pick up and forge ahead after suffering a set-back such as a bad grade or an unenthusiastic remark from an admired professor.

Lack of self-confidence is linked to persistency among college women in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) majors (McIlwee and Robinson, 1992). There appear to be many reasons women are not successful in STEM majors and male dominated careers. These include: an inclination away from competition, perceived difficulty of the subject matter, lack of self-confidence, self doubts, fear of failure, and mathematics anxiety, all coupled with an unfriendly

masculine culture, contributing to women's lack of success and perceived impaired career growth (Tobias, 1978; 1990; Ware, Steckler, and Leserman, 1985; Peltz, 1990).

From the examination of the lives of female executives in major industries in Nigeria, Chovwen (2004) found that subtle discrimination expressed in form of exclusion and perception of women as incompetent signified lack of acceptance, and perceived lack of job satisfaction was influenced by low self confidence and lack of support. Furthermore, personal and organisational factors negatively influenced women's career growth.

Social Support

Aside from psychological factors of self-esteem and self-efficacy influencing the career growth of women, Colletti, Mulholland, and Sonnad (2000) found social and family issues to be major concern for both male and female academic surgeons. However, both men and women report differences in the conflict between family and career responsibilities and perceptions of balancing those responsibilities for men and women. Two thirds of both men and women reported that the demands of their surgical faculty position adversely affect their relationships with spouses. Men reported a slightly higher tendency to miss family activities because of job demands, while women were significantly more likely to miss work activities because of family responsibilities.

In addition, women have been known to be care givers. This is why they have excelled in careers like Nursing, Secretarial profession, and teaching at lower levels. Studies have also affirmed that they give support to their spouses, children and significant others (Aryee, 1992; Aremu, 1999; Buckingham and Coffman, 1999; James, 2002; Okonweze, 2005; Oluwole, Hammed, and Awaebe, 2010), but women themselves lack the necessary support that may be required to foster the growth they need in their different careers and life's endeavours (Biernat and Wortman, 1990; Chovwen, 2004; Oti and Oyelude, 2006). Oti and Oyelude, (2006) found work/home conflict to be a strong determinant of female academics' career path to leadership. They found that the career mobility of their respondents was slower during the 1st five years of marriage; then they began to have full concentration as their children became more mature.

Scott and King (1985) found that spousal support is a predictor of whether women college students will return to school, while Cutrona and Suhr, (1994); Derlega, Barbee, and Winstead, (1994) found that lack of social support is a predictor of negative outcomes, including absenteeism, burnout, depression and anxiety. Harris, Winkowski and Enghahl (2007) found perceived spousal support, workplace social support to predict job satisfaction, and job tenure.

Other studies found that apart from spousal and work place support, women have been known to also receive support from parents, teachers and significant others. Matz's (2002) study found that mothers were the most critical influence for developing leadership in their daughters during their upbringings. Contrary to Matz's finding, fathers, relatives, teachers, and peers were also influential for girls and young women in the development of leadership competencies (Madsen, 2006).

Theoretical explanation of the behaviour of girls and boys in relation to their parents which has effect on their adult behaviour was given by Sigmund Freud (cited in Oti, 2001) as the processes by which children become sex-typed or stereotyped in their behaviour and gain a sex-linked component of their identity. This has been examined from the psychoanalytic, the social learning and the cognitive development perspectives. The psychoanalytic explanation of sex-role acquisition relies heavily on the concept of identification.

Sigmund Freud (1856 - 1939) was the first to advance a major theory on personality, sex, and gender-role development. Freud suggested that there are differing levels of awareness of feelings, thoughts, and personal experiences. In general, he saw the unconscious as operating according to the symbolic expression of wishes without regard to limitations of external reality Freud, (1933). He had earlier postulated the existence of three mental structures – the id, superego and ego (Freud, 1923). The id represents biological instincts or drives, primarily sexual and aggressive in origin, and seeks to discharge excitation according to the pleasure principle, the uninhibited pursuit of pleasure and the avoidance of pain. The superego represents the person's conscience and seeks to control behaviour and channel impulses in accordance with society's norms and standards. The ego he saw as reality oriented, trying to satisfy the urgent demands associated with the id within the limits imposed by a strict, uncompromising super ego and the demands of external reality.

While a baby is born with an id, it has to develop a superego and an ego by progressing through “psychosexual stages” Freud, (1933). He maintained that every one passes through each of these stages, where life force or libido focuses on a particular erotogenic zone of the body, an area which is sensitive to pleasurable stimulation. During the first, oral stage, erotogenous responses are centred on the mouth and lips. During the second year, the anal stage becomes ascendant, and sensuality is focused on bowel functioning. During the third, phallic stage, the focus of sensual pleasure shifts to genital area for male, the penis; for the female clitoris.

During the phallic stage (from about 3-6 years of age), children develop the Oedipus complex, resolution of which is important for appropriate gender-role identification and the establishment of a conscience. This complex derives its name from the Greek tragedy in which Oedipus unwittingly kills his father and marries his mother. According to Freud, (cited in Oti, 2001) the child wishes to possess the opposite sexed parent and perceives the same sexed parent as a rival. In the case of the boy, he is attached to his mother, and wishes to possess her sexually and displace his father who becomes a hated rival. At this stage, masturbation is gratifying to him, which accounts for the great value he puts on his beloved penis. But at about this time, when he discovers that females do not possess a penis, he is shocked and assumes that they have been castrated.

He thinks that the same thing could happen to him. The panic of castration anxiety forces him to repress his sensual desire for his mother. He then yields to the father’s authority and his feelings of rivalry transformed into identification with the father. As a result, he feels he can retain his penis. Through identification with the father, he incorporates the father’s standards into his - newly formed superego. At the same time, he acquires other personal traits of the father. Another result of identification is the development of gender-role identity, which will be discussed later.

The girl, too, is emotionally attached to the mother during the first 3 years of life. She masturbates with her clitoris in the phallic stage. She then notices that boys have a “superior” organ to hers, and she falls victims to penis envy, which Freud said is of critical importance to her subsequent personality development (Freud, 1833) . She thinks that she has been castrated, views this as a personal wound to her self-esteem, and develops a personal sense of inferiority. When she discovers her genital “inferiority”, she abandons her mother as a love- object. In fact she blames her mother

for her lack of penis. The girl's libido then shifts from her mother to her father, who now becomes a love-object, and her mother is seen as her rival. She then substitutes the wish for a child for her unattainable wish for a penis. By transferring the object of libido to the male and in equating penis with child, she partially resolves her penis envy and can then progress toward normal feminine functioning.

According to Freud, one major difference in the development of girls and boys (which also affects them throughout life) centres on the "castration complex". The masturbating boy is already in the oedipal stage when he sees that girls lack a penis and fear of castration abruptly forces him to give up his mother in order to save his most valued penis. The masturbating girl is still in the phallic stage when she notices the boy's "superior" organ. Penis envy pushes her into the oedipal stage and there is no castration fear to make her give up her father abruptly. Without fear of castration, which is the major notice in the boy for resolving the Oedipus complex, the girl can remain indefinitely involved in its resolution which may never be completely achieved. As a result, Freud said, she fails to develop a superego (conscience) that is as strong or as independent as that of the boy. She identifies with her mother thereby taking on her feminine traits because she realises the impossibility of gratifying her desire for her father and because she fears losing her mother's love (anaclitic identification). This supposedly occurs at about age six.

The passive mode of original sexual expression was supposed to generalise so that the girl generally eschews active, aggressive, and hence, traditionally masculine behaviour, turning her repressed aggression inward and acquiring self-destructive attitudes and masochistic behaviour (Freud, 1933). In this psychoanalytical exposition, Freud has been able to give a background into sex differences in behaviour which also influence the relationship of male and female children with their parents, this proves to be true especially with FPs bonding with their fathers in this study; this also has some effect on their career choice. However, his submission has left untouched the influence of the environment, culture and socialisation.

Significant among the factors influencing women's career growth is workplace/collegial support which have been identified as an important factor in job satisfaction (Harris, Winskowski & Engdahl, 2007). A small but growing body of literature has identified that supportive work environments are important factors that influence tenure achievement for faculty. Specifically, support (or lack thereof) from

colleagues and Deans or Departments Heads has been identified as an influential piece of the tenure process. In a study of new geography professors, findings indicated that all faculty members benefit significantly from supportive collegial environments and supportive Department Chairpersons (Solem & Foote, 2006).

The role of collegial support specifically related to parenting academics who are seeking tenure has been examined. Qualitative and quantitative work has examined how departmental support for balancing dual roles is differently experienced by men and women on the tenure track (Grant, Kennelly & Ward, 2000; Young & Wright, 2001; O’Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005). In their study of mothers on the tenure track, Young and Wright (2001) found that mothers perceived their experiences in the tenure making process to be very different from their non-mother colleagues. In this qualitative study of 22 mothers, respondents reported feeling as though their colleagues questioned their abilities to be productive or competitive when compared to non parenting colleagues, while respondents also reported feeling that parenting and non-parenting men were not subjected to the same degree of judgment or scrutiny. One-third of the respondents also reported that they lacked support from colleagues.

Some findings validate the claim that universities in which female academics achieve senior positions are those in which some supportive practices toward women exist. For instance, Chesterman (2004) sought to verify if five Australian universities where women achieved promotion to, and remained in, senior positions, had particular cultural characteristics that supported and sustained women. Universities around Australia had been encouraged by government equity legislation to adopt a proactive measure towards the promotion of women into senior management. Across all five universities, there was unanimity about the factors that encouraged women to apply for senior positions and that sustained and supported them in those positions. These were clear support from organisational leaders, a critical mass of other women in senior positions, opportunities to network and strong statements on values. Those interviewed indicated that the most significant support was that from the chief executive or the direct superior to the woman. Executives had to go beyond rhetoric, and demonstrate their support of women and equity through endorsement of women’s performance, encouragement of women to apply for promotion, and commitment of resources to development, such as training courses.

In Switzerland, Germany and Austria each has a national policy for gender equality in higher education that has led to the establishment of organisational and administrative structure – offices that create target programmes and open funding-lines for support of activities in equal opportunities. At La Trobe University Melbourne, Australia, recruitment processes required that at least one female was included on every employment selection panel. The institution's Faculty Deans were required to ensure that female representation on all major faculty committees was not less than 50%, and that both sexes were represented on all university committees (Jones, 2007).

La Trobe's gender balance of academic staff is similar to that of three other Australian tertiary institutions - the Bachelor Institute of Indigenous Tertiary Education, the Australian Catholic University and Notre Dame University. In 2007, the proportion of women academics at La Trobe was 49%, with 50 female and 85 male professors. There were 56% to 58% women academics at the three other institutions. More women than men were provided with career development at La Trobe, and the university offered a diploma in university administration that was particularly attractive to women (Jones, 2007). Apart from parental, spousal and collegial support, another factor that influences women's career growth is societal attitude towards their career life and leadership position.

Research has reiterated that general attitudes of superiors and subordinates to women in career and leadership position are most of the times unwelcoming (Kwesiga, 2002; Odejide, 2006; Odejide, Akanji, and Odekunle, 2006). Therefore, many women in male dominated careers suffer isolation, rejection, and opposition (Chovwen, 2004). Those who have sufficient social support are more likely to progress faster than those who do not (Eliason, Berggren, and Bondestam, 2000; Kyomuhendo, 2006). Some studies affirmed that academic women face overt and covert discriminatory practices and micro-politics in the University system (Odejide, *et al.* 2006; Morley, 2006) which undermine their career growth, visibility and space in decision making positions.

Organisational Climate

Since general attitudes in the macro society are brought in to the micro society of the Campus, it is pertinent to examine its influence on the University's organisational climate. Organisational climate is the way in which members of an organisation perceive and characterise their environment in an attitudinal and

value-based manner (Moran and Volkwein, 1992; Denison, 1996; Verbeke, Volgering, and Hessels, 1998). Organisational climate has been asserted as an important and influential aspect of satisfaction and retention, as well as institutional effectiveness and success in higher education. As a result of its subjective nature and vulnerability to control and manipulation by individuals within an organization's decision-making mechanism, the organisational climate is greatly influenced by organisational leadership (Smart, 1990; Cameron and Smart, 1998; Johnsrud, 2002; Volkwein and Parmley, 2000; Allen, 2003).

Majority of research examining organisational climate in higher education has focused on job satisfaction, quality of faculty and administrative job satisfaction (Hagedorn, 2000; Johnsrud, 2002; Volkwein and Zhou, 2003). However, not much has been done to specifically address fairness, work climate and inclusion from the perception of Appointment and Promotion Committees.

Two studies by Volkwein and Colleagues (2000, 2003) examined the administrative job satisfaction at both public and private universities. Their collective findings reported job insecurity, stress, and pressure as having a significant negative impact on overall satisfaction, while teamwork, recognition, advancement, feelings of independence, social and professional relationships with colleagues and supervisors had a significant positive impact on overall satisfaction.

In a study investigating the use of four-frame organisational climate leadership behaviours of department chairpersons in nursing programs and their relationships to the organisational climate as perceived by faculty, Mosser and Walls (2002) found that all four frame-related behaviours correlated positively with organisational climate-related items such as faculty support, social-needs satisfaction, and supervision. On the other hand, all four frames negatively correlated with disengagement or fractionalisation within the faculty. Furthermore, chairpersons using a combination of the four frames (four, three, or two) in the organisational climate (department) were perceived by faculty as emphasizing faculty support, social-needs satisfaction, and supervision at significantly higher levels than chairpersons using a single or no frame. Faculty who perceived chairpersons as using no frame reported higher levels of disengagement within the climate (department). This research in contrast, employed the three frame factors of fairness, work climate and inclusion to measure the career growth and leadership of academic women from the perception of appointments and promotions committee members.

Very closely related to organisational climate is organisational culture which was found by Morley (2006) to influence micro-politics and other discriminatory

practices in Universities. Drawing on qualitative data from five countries: Nigeria, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Tanzania and Uganda, Morley, Gunawardena, Kwesiga, Lihamba, Odejide, Shackleton, and Sorhaindo, (2006) interviewed female staff and students, managers and policy-makers in a University in Nigeria and observed gendered relations in classrooms, boardrooms and staff training sessions. They found that women experience a range of discriminatory practices, gendered processes and exclusions within higher education. These include the exclusion of women from career development opportunities, gender-insensitive pedagogical processes, prejudice about women's academic abilities and intellectual authority, poor equality policy implementation, backlash and stigmatisation in relation to affirmative action programmes. Much of this discrimination was covert, intangible and abstract. Findings from Morley *et al.* (2006) illustrate how social practices and gendered power relations symbolically and materially construct and regulate women's everyday experiences of higher education.

Glass Ceiling and Career Growth

Patriarchy as a climate condition in Universities: Scholars in the UK, the USA, Australia and Canada have carried out several studies on women in higher education in which they have addressed the issues of paucity of women in senior academic positions. In analysing the factors that prevent women from reaching the apex of the academic career, metaphors of “glass ceiling” (Hansard Society, 1990; Davidson and Cooper, 1992; Hede, 1994), “brick wall” (Bacchi 1993), “stone floor” (Heward, 1994), “blocked pipeline (Keohane, 2003), and “maternal wall” (Williams, 2004) have been used. For instance, Luke (1998, p.36) says glass-ceiling barriers are:

...The transparent cultural, organisational, and attitudinal barriers that maintain horizontal sex segregation in organizations... [which] share certain structural features across cultural and institutional contexts such as the concentration of power and authority among male elites, concepts of merit, career, and success based on male experience and life trajectories, and social and institutional practices that reproduce culturally dominant forms of patriarchy...women [therefore] look up the occupational ladder and get a clear vision of the top rungs but they can't always clearly see where they will encounter invisible obstacles. (p. 36)

Luke (2001; p. 6) further observes that despite years of affirmative action and the passing of statutes outlawing sexual discrimination (USA and UK in 1972; Australia in 1984), “the rate at which women have ascended academic career ladders in these countries is maddeningly slow”. Women in the United Kingdom constitute 7-8 percent of the professoriate, in Ireland just over 5 percent, in the United States 16 percent of those with full professorial status and in Finland 18 percent (O’Connor 2000). Luke (2001; p. 10) thus refers to universities as “a hotbed of both vertical and horizontal sex segregation.”

In a study, Forster (2001) reports on the views that female academics have about their career prospects, growth, equal opportunities and the conflicts they experience between their work and personal lives in one UK University. The university in question has formal equal opportunities policies and gender monitoring systems in place. However, very few women have progressed into senior academic roles. They continue to be handicapped by well-ingrained structural and cultural barriers and by promotion systems that still largely rely on the publication records of candidates for appointments and promotions. Some of the women interviewed reported that they had opted to put their careers on hold because of domestic and family responsibilities. A few have resigned themselves to never achieving senior positions because of these commitments. The study observes that the trend may have a negative impact on recruiting women graduates into careers in higher education in the future.

Similarly, a report of research projects at five universities around the United Kingdom – namely Oxford, Edinburgh, Heriot-Watt, Luton and Surrey - concluded that universities are unfriendly to women, and female academics fail to climb the ladder as a result. The Athena Project, whose aim was to boost women’s presence in science, engineering and technology, funded the research. The women staff interviewed cited old boy networks and subtle form of discrimination in the universities. None of the women felt comfortable about working in a predominantly male environment (Hodge, 2002).

A comparative study investigated the career experiences of female academics in a Western and an Indian cultural setting in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the factors contributing to their career growth. The study examined factors such as national culture, gender stereotypes and leadership, work and family conflict, mentoring and informal networks that impact on the career growth of female

academics. Thirty in-depth interviews from two universities were used. The findings illustrate that the barriers to progression are remarkably similar for women from both universities despite their different cultural background. Women from both cultural settings face significant barriers to career growth in their academic roles. (Thanacody, Betram, Barker, and Jacobs, 2006)

A study conducted to explore how women academics view their professional advancement at a higher education institution in South Africa found that women within higher education institutions felt isolated, alienated, and that their ideas are unheard (Butler, 2005). Similarly, being ignored, excluded, regarded as 'light weight', and receiving unequal treatment were the recurring themes in interviews with women in a study on "Women in the Professoriate in Australia," White (2001) concluded from the study that the academia remains a hostile work environment for senior women. One of the important challenges for women in the professoriate in Australia, the study opined, is the impact of the highly masculine culture of higher education. "You are just sort of ignored, very pleasantly, but you are not part of the male culture" (White, 2000; p. 7-10). White (2001) observes that it would appear that once women reach senior levels in any organisation they encounter the power of the male hegemony that is prepared to accommodate some women, but not to have their (male) dominance challenged. Thornton (1996; p. 290) comments that "this structural discrimination is a corollary of any hierarchical and bureaucratised organisation, since the *raison d'etre* of bureaucracy is to maintain the status quo, including the power of existing elites."

Although most literature point to an established patriarchal culture in the academic world, there are, however, a few exceptions. For instance, respondents in a study conducted in Ankara University, one of Turkey's foremost universities, said there are no gender discrimination in both academic promotion and management in the University. Few empirical studies have been carried out in Nigeria that reveal the effects of psychological, social and organisational climate factors on female academics' career growth and leadership position. Studies from Nigeria (Onokala and Onah, 1998; Odejide, 2003, 2006; Morley, *et. al.* 2005) found low representation of females in higher education both as staff and higher degree students.

Foreign based studies that dealt with self-esteem and self-efficacy examined their predictability on task choice, task preference and mathematics. Boatwright, Egidio, and Kalamazoo, (2003) employed self-esteem and self-efficacy as predictors

of leadership aspirations of women college students. Other studies found them as correlates of gender, mathematics, students' ability, choice of subjects and career. Also, social support (parental, spousal and collegial) was found to predict negative outcomes, absenteeism, burnout, depression and leadership aspiration among female college students. Organisational climate was found to influence career satisfaction, retention, organisational effectiveness, and success among faculty and management. Organisational leadership correlated with job security stress and pressure. None of the reviewed studies examined how the independent variables of this study predict the career growth and leadership position of academic women in Nigerian Universities.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Nigerian women have begun to be represented in the University system both as students and academic staff. However, academic women in Nigerian Universities are a minority, as they are underrepresented in all cadres especially in senior and leadership positions. It is rare to see academic women in positions of Head of Department, Dean of Faculty and Professorship, and it is very rare and almost impossible to come across a female Vice-chancellor in Nigerian Universities.

Studies have examined factors responsible for this phenomenon, such as late entry, gendered climate, slow career mobility, lack of self-confidence, devaluation of achievement, and lack of support (Onakala & Onah, 1998; Aremu, 1999; Odejide, 2003; Mama, 2003; Erionosho, 2005 Morley, *et. al.* 2006; Perreira, 2007). Although these have implications for women's career growth and leadership position, very few of the studies from Nigeria examined the causal relationship and predictive nature among the independent and dependent variables. Moreover, many of the foreign studies which focus on differences between the sexes, did not use multivariate approach and some of their findings are culturally irrelevant to Nigeria's setting (Powell, 1999; Luke, 2002; Dingfelder, 2004; Carpenter, 2005; Kyomuhendo, 2006; Guney, *et. al.*, 2006; Madsen, 2007; Chesterman, *et. al.*, 2007).

Therefore this study explored the predictive nature of psychological variables (self-esteem and self-efficacy), social variables (spousal and academic men collegial support, academic men attitude towards women and parental influence); and organisation climate (fairness, inclusion and work climate) on female academics' career growth and leadership position.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study is to affirm the efficacy or otherwise of psycho-social and organisation climate factors as predictors of female academics' career growth and leadership positions in universities in south-west Nigeria. However, the specific objectives were to:

1. Investigate how psychological factors predict female academics' career growth and leadership positions in Nigerian universities.
2. Determine which of the psychological factors has greater contribution to female academics' career growth and leadership position in Nigerian universities.
3. Investigate how social factors predict female academics' career growth and leadership positions in Nigerian universities.
4. Determine which of the social factors has greater contribution to female academics' career growth and leadership position in Nigerian universities.
5. Investigate how organisational climate factors predict female academics' career growth and leadership positions in Nigerian universities.
6. Determine which of the organisational climate factors has the greatest contribution to female academics' career growth and leadership position in Nigerian universities.
7. Examine which one of the psychological, social, and organisational climate factors has the greatest contribution to female academics' career growth and leadership position in Nigerian universities.
8. Conduct in-depth interviews on how psycho-social and organisational climate influence the career growth and leadership position of female academics' in Nigerian universities.

1.4 Research Questions

1. What is the composite effect of psychological factors: self-esteem and self-efficacy on female academics' career growth and leadership position?
2. What is the relative contribution of self-esteem and self-efficacy to female academics' career growth and leadership position?
3. To what extent psychological factors would (self-esteem and self-efficacy)

- predict female academics' career growth and leadership position?
4. What are the composite effects of social factors: parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women on female academics' career growth and leadership position?
 5. What are the relative contributions of social factors: parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women on female academics' career growth and leadership position?
 6. To what extent would social factors (parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women) predict female academics' career growth and leadership position?
 7. What is the composite effect of organisational climate factors: fairness, inclusion and general climate on female academics' career growth and leadership position?
 8. What is the relative contribution of organisational climate factors: fairness, inclusion and general climate to female academics' career growth and leadership position?
 9. To what extent would organisational climate factors; fairness, inclusion and work climate predict female academics' career growth and leadership position?
 10. What is the composite effect of psychological, social and organisational climate factors on female academics' career growth and leadership position?
 11. What is the relative effect of each of the independent variables when taken together on female academics' career growth and leadership position?
 12. Which of psychological, social and organisational climate variables would best predict female academics' career growth and leadership position?

1.5 Significance of Study

The findings of this study are expected to provide empirical bases for a better understanding of impediments to the career growth of female academics and their leadership status in selected universities in South-western Nigeria. Analysing the position of female academics in Nigeria would bring to the front burner factors militating against their securing senior positions and recording rapid growth in the university system. Findings of the study would hopefully provide an excellent working document for:

- a). The University system
- b). Higher education policy formulators,
- c). Academic women
- d). Postgraduate students who aspire to become teachers and leaders in the University, and
- (e). Researchers on management in Higher Education
- (f). Policy makers and those who must make consequential judgement

Findings of the study are expected to further provide a fore-knowledge to both female undergraduate and postgraduate students on factors that may impede or enhance their future careers as academic staff of Nigerian universities so that they could be equipped to forestall the impediments. The study is anticipated to generate debates towards sensitising the entire academic community on the need to create a gender friendly and inclusive academic climate on campuses so that more women are encouraged to take up academic jobs, and are given the opportunity to grow to become leaders in academia. The study will generate validated measurement scales that would be of immense value to knowledge workers, employers of labour and researchers generally.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study covered six universities in South-West Nigeria. The study included female and male academics of all cadres as well as members of Appointments and Promotions Committee in each of the universities. The study investigated how psychosocial factors and organisational climate predicted the dependent variables, as well as the extent of their predictability.

1.7 Operational Definition of Terms

Psychological Variables: These are variables that have to do with academic women's self-concept (Self-esteem and Self-efficacy).

Self-esteem: This refers to female academic's personal confidence toward self. This can either be high or low.

Self-efficacy: This refers to female academic's capacity to believe in their own ability "the can do attitude". This also can be high or low.

Social Variables: These are factors external to academic women: spousal and academic men collegial support, parental influence and academic men attitude towards women.

Spousal Support: This refers to assistance or otherwise that the academic women receive from their husbands, which may be financial, physical, emotional, and spiritual.

Academic Men Collegial Support: This refers to career related information sharing, advice and other career related assistance female academics receive from male academics.

Parental Influence: This refers to perceived influence of father and mother on academic women during their growing up years, and how this has influenced their present career options, served as motivation for their present positions.

Organisational Climate: This refers to behaviours and attitudes of Appointment and Promotion Committee, measured by fairness, work climate and inclusion.

Academic Men Attitudes towards women: These refer to egalitarian or traditional and disposition towards the position of female academics in public spaces, career and leadership, which is also a reflection of how academic men view the position of women in the society.

Leadership: Academic women's attitude towards attaining leadership and their perception of leadership position in academia.

Career Growth: This refers to upward mobility of female academics' in their profession.

Academic Women: refer to academic women of all cadres, which include Graduate Assistants, Assistant Lecturers, Lecturer II, Lecturer I, Senior Lecturer, Readers and Professors.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review literature relating to career growth of women and their perception of and experiences in leadership positions. The study identifies themes, theories and findings from other researchers, and facilitates the development of a conceptual framework that explains the experiences of female academics, their career growth and leadership possibilities. Reviews in this chapter include: theoretical frame-work and review of relevant literature. The reviewed related literature is under the following subheadings:

2.1.0 Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Marxism, Feminism and Postmodernism; and Women's Career.

2.1.2 Role Congruity Theory of Prejudice toward Women Leaders. (Eagly, A. H. and Karau, S. J. 2002).

2.1.3 Structural Empowerment Theory (Rosabeth Moss Kanter, 1977).

2.2.0 Review of Empirical Literature

2.2.1 The Glass Ceiling and Women's Career.

2.2.3 Gender distribution of Academic Staff in Commonwealth Universities.

2.2.4 Women's Self-esteem

2.2.5 Women's Self-efficacy

2.2.6 Social Support System and Women's Career

a) Spousal

b) Collegial

c) Parental Influence

d) Attitude towards women

2.2.7 Organisational Climate

2.2.8 Women's Career Growth and Leadership Positions.

2.2.9 Attitudes Towards Women in Careers and Leadership

2.2.10 Appraisal of Empirical Literature.

2.1.0 Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Marxism, Feminism and Postmodernism; and Women's Career

Introduction

The sociological theories on which this study derives the understanding of gender relations, women and work are Marxism, Feminism and Postmodernism. Feminism comprises a number of social, cultural, political movements and moral philosophies concerned with gender inequalities and equal rights for women. In its narrowest interpretation, it refers to the effort to ensure legal and political equality for women; in its broadest sense it comprises any theory which is grounded on the belief that women are oppressed or disadvantaged by comparison with men, and that their oppression is in some way illegitimate or unjustified (Concise Routledge Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2000; p. 275).

The term "feminism" originated from the French word "feminisme," coined by the utopian socialist Charles Fourier, and was first used in English in the 1890s in association with the movement for equal political and legal rights for women (Ted Honderich, (1995 p. 292). There is some debate as to whether the term "feminism" can be appropriately applied to the thought and activities of earlier women (and men) that explored and challenged the traditional roles of women in society. Contemporary feminist historians distinguish three "waves" in the history of feminism. The first-wave refers to the feminist movement of the nineteenth through early twentieth century's, which dealt mainly with the Suffrage movement. The second-wave (1960s-1980s) dealt with the inequality of laws, as well as cultural inequalities. The third-wave of Feminism (1990s-present) is seen as both a continuation of and a response to the perceived failures of the second-wave (Charlotte Krolokke & Anne Scott Sorensen, 2005).

Feminism is an approach to gender relations and the basic argument of feminism is similar to that of social-conflict analysis in that it views gender relations as an issue of power. In line with social-conflict analysis, feminism is inherently normative – it argues that society must change toward a greater balance of power between the sexes. Since feminism is an offshoot of social conflict theory, its submissions shall be explored.

Marxism or Conflict Theory

Conflict theory was propounded by Karl Marx, (1818-1883). Popularly called Marxism, it analyses all of society in terms of power struggle and viewed the formative power relationship in terms of material wealth, most centrally of ownership/control of the means of production and material wealth. The theory describes two adversarial poised classes –the working class and the class which owns the means of production as the opponents in the power struggle. In this perspective, gender relations are cast in terms of power. Men's dominance of women is seen as an attempt to maintain power and privilege to the detriment of women. This approach is normative in the sense that it does not condone such behaviour but rather criticises it.

Conflict theorists view social order as being achieved through a continual process of disputed interaction between men, of sectional struggles and of the imposition of order by those who win power. Dahrendorf, (1959) distinguishes between these two explanations that there is one large and distinguished school of thought according to which social order results from a general agreement of values, a consensus *omnium or volunté generale* which outweighs all possible or actual differences of opinion and interest. There is another equally distinguished school of thought which holds that coherence and order in society are founded on force and constraint, on the domination of some and the subjection of others.

Conflict theorists introduce into their sociological analysis the notion of power, which is usually used to refer to the concerns, interests, and relationships people experience in group life. Conflict theorists note that, although individuals form certain associations with like-minded others from which they derive the benefit of collective efforts, the groups which emerge from such affiliations do not always co-exist harmoniously because separate groups will, necessarily, pursue interests defined according to their unique perceptions of the world and according to those needs articulated through the way of affiliating with others. Every group, if it is going to satisfy the reasons individuals have for joining it (and therefore preserve itself), will be under pressure to put the interests of its members above the interests of other groups. Where these do not compete, a peaceful pluralism can be accomplished; however, where there is competition, some management of the conflict becomes necessary, and it is in these circumstances that the notion of power becomes crucial, on two levels.

First, it is crucial in terms of the *ability* of individual within the group to shape, direct and define the objective and practices of others who constitute the group i.e. the management of intra-group conflict. Second, it is crucial in terms of the ability of informal and formalised associations of men to overcome successfully, opposition from other groups, or even from other individuals, that is, management of inter-group conflict. Conflict theory explains where power resides in the Nigerian University system; it also illuminates those who are the dominant group, those who are in subjection, and those who are unequal; that is, men versus women. This is evident in situations where decisions are being made, and in the group that forms critical mass at management level.

While Marx's theory remains underdeveloped in terms of providing an account that includes gender as important to understanding capitalism, his categories nonetheless lead in the direction of a systematic critique of patriarchy as it manifests itself in capitalism since he is able to separate the historically specific elements of patriarchy from a more general form of women's oppression as it has existed throughout much of human history. In this sense, his categories provide resources for feminist theory or at least areas for new dialogue at a time when Marx's critique of capital is coming to the fore once again.

As early as 1844, in his *Economic and Philosophic Manuscripts*, Marx argued that women's position in society could be used as a measure of development of society as a whole:

The immediate, natural and necessary relation of human being to human being is also the relation of man [Mann] (Price and Shildrick (1999) to woman [Weib]. In this natural species relationship man's [Mensch] relation to nature is directly his relation to man [Mensch], and his relation to man [Mensch] is directly his relation to nature, to his own natural function... The relation of man [Mann] to woman [Weib] is the most natural relation of human being to human being. It indicates, therefore, how far man's [Mensch] natural behavior has become human, and how far his human essence has become a natural essence for him, how far his human nature has become nature for him. It also shows how far man's [Mensch] needs have become human needs, and consequently how far the other person [Mensch], as a person, has become one of his needs, and to what extent he is in his individual existence at the same time a social being. (Marx, 2004; p. 103).

As a follow up of Marx's conflict theory a branch of feminism (Marxist feminism) was carved out this gave a more elaborate relationship and struggle of the sexes.

Marxist Feminism

Marxist feminism is a sub type of feminist theory which focuses on the dismantling of capitalism as a way to liberate women. Marxist feminism states that capitalism, which gives rise to economic inequality, dependence, political confusion and ultimately unhealthy social relations between men and women, is the root of women's oppression (Marx, 1844). According to this school of thought, in capitalist societies, the individual is shaped by class relatives, that is, people's capacities, needs and interests are seen to be determined by the mode of production that characterises the society they inhabit. Marxist feminists see gender inequality as determined ultimately by the capitalist mode of production. Gender oppression is class oppression and women's subordination is seen as a form of class oppression which is maintained (like racism) because it serves the interests of capitalists and the ruling class. Some feminists have tried to combine the insights of Marxist feminism with those of radical feminism to explain the disadvantages experienced by women in the labour market of which the University is part. They argue that these disadvantages are a consequence of both the operation of capitalist economy and the attempts of men to maintain patriarchal control over women (Haralambos and Holborn, 2000).

Blumberg and Chafetz cited in Turner, (2003) explain the position of women relative to men in all types of societies, from the earliest to the most complex societies of the late twentieth century. She submits that: The degree of gender stratification is inversely related to the level of economic power women can mobilise and conversely, the less economic power women can mobilize, the more likely are they to be oppressed physically, politically, and ideologically. This goes to explain that the more women are gainfully employed and have economic power, the less they will be oppressed.

This theory may be true to an extent, because if women have individual power through gainful employment, and they find themselves in positions of decision making, where they can influence policy and bring about change, they could still suffer oppression; physically, politically and ideologically, because their individual power does not culminate to critical mass as obtained academics (Turner, 2003), The level of economic power that women can mobilize is a positive and additive function of

ability to participate in economic production, and distribution to the degree to which they exert influence at macro levels of social organisation. This goes to explain that the lesser women are able to form critical mass in economic production of the University system (especially at the leadership level), the less power they have to exact influence at both micro and macro levels. Also, the greater women's economic power is relative to that enjoyed by men, the greater women's control of their own lives... for educational achievements, and freedom to pursue diverse opportunities.

Contrary to Blumberg and Chafetz cited in Turner (2003) that women's freedom to pursue diverse opportunities is not only determined by equal economic power and level of education as in the finding of previous researches, Oti and Oyelude (2006) found out that some of the women in their study would not pursue 'diverse opportunities', because of the demand for their presence in the home, thus the women, even though they had economic power, were constrained by many other conflicting forces. This goes to show that most female academics would rather stay close to their home than chase after opportunities, while most male academics have more 'freedom from social responsibilities' and change institutions where they work to gain rapid promotion and recognition. Some of the successful female executives in Chovwen, (2004) forfeited their marriage for career.

Blumberg & Chafetz cited in Turner (2003) emphasise that during the time of transition, when women's economic power relative to that of men is growing, men are likely to perceive such changes as a threat and to repress physically and politically women's efforts to gain power. Yet, as women's relative economic power increases, this increase will translate into political influence. Perhaps this goes to explain why it is difficult for women to assume position of authority through election in Nigerian Universities, because men will see it as a threat, and so do all they can to repress or frustrate women's effort to do so. This assumption will have to be tested, whether gender has a part to play in who becomes what, (whether Head of Department, Dean of Faculty, Dean of Postgraduate School, Head of Committees, and Vice-Chancellor), rather than ability, experience and skill. Blumberg & Chafetz finally submit that after women have gained economic power and political influence, then policies working against them will recede, male – supremacist ideologies will decline, and male violence against women will be punished.

In contrast, Chafetz (2003) asserts that the oppression of women is biologically based and supercedes all other forms of oppression that has been selected by the media and popular prejudice to represent all feminism. The argument that all women have been oppressed by all men throughout time and across cultures is pessimistic, politically unpalatable, and scientifically unsound; it has created an easy target for a sexist backlash against more reasoned feminist positions (Stamp, 1990).

In agreement with Chafetz, (2003), Jaggar (1977) developed a “classification of feminist theories” which she has expounded in an undergraduate textbook with Paula Rothemberg (Jaggar & Rothemberg 1984) and in a major theoretical work (Jaggar, 1983). Her classification is grounded in an understanding of the historical context of each school of thought. First, she analyses the conservative, sexist traditions in scholarship, from Freudianism to the socio-biology of Wilson (1975) that feminists have challenged. Conservatism, which reaches back as far as Aristotle in social thought, has argued that a sexual division of labour and gender inequality are natural, whether God given, in our genes, or psychologically inherent. In a nutshell, Marxist feminists submit that Primary source of female oppression is capitalist economic system, that is, inferior position of women linked to class-based capitalistic system and family structure within this system women’s oppression is caused by their economic dependence in the family but also in the work force, this keeps an exploitable reserve labour force. Women’s work as house wife in the home is unpaid and most low paying and boring jobs are done by women. Female academics women are clustered in the lower rung of the professional ladder. This theory proposes equal gender participation in the economic production process, wages for housework and equal pay for equal work.

Critical Feminism

Critical feminist thinking tended to reject science and “male modes” of thinking about the world in general, offering a variety of new ways to analyse social reality. Yet, many critical feminists stayed within the scientific field, preferring to conceptualize gender process in more neutral terms. In particular, those in this scientific camp worked within a conflict theory approach, analysing gender inequalities as yet another form of conflict producing stratification. Most of these theories sought to explain why women have experienced discrimination, and how

this discrimination has placed them in disadvantaged positions in the stratification system.

By the early 1980s, two opposing positions in African gender relations had emerge in literature. Some scholars talked about an egalitarian past for African women and charted women's "lost political institution" and the decline of their autonomy and power from colonial times on (Van Allen, 1976; Okeyo, 1980; Muntemba, 1982; Stamp, 1986), others took an opposing position, promulgating a more negative approach to the past and a more optimistic vision of the present and future. They also, saw colonialism and class structures as oppressive of women, but argued that women had always been oppressed in Africa. Meanwhile, world scholars, including African women, were beginning to make their voice heard, particularly with regard to their distraction with western "Intellectual colonialism", where western feminist were seen as being as guilty as mainstream academics in this regard (AAWORD, 1982; 1983).

Liberal Feminism

The term 'liberal feminism' is often used to designate feminism that does not concern itself with society and its institutions, except in terms of gender parity. The primary object of any study in liberalism is the individual; groups are construed as collectivities of individuals, and the notion of contradiction within a wider societal structure is usually absent. It has its roots in the social contract theories of the 16th and 17th centuries, with their ideals of liberty and equality based on man's rationality and the premise of a sharp demarcation between public and private spheres Wollstonecraft, (1792). As its starting point, liberal feminism looks to Mill and Taylor, (1851) for its inspiration. Arguing from the principles of the social contract and the rights of the individual, liberal feminism adds women on, basing its call on equal opportunity and equal rights, upon the claim that "women, too' are rational" and, hence, worthy of being the beneficiaries of the social contract. In this frame work, inequalities of wealth and power are not questioned; there is no critique of the structures of oppression that created sexist ideologies and its egalitarian laws and practices.

This form of feminism which is non-radical and continues today as a significant force for legal reform and women's political participation, and its reformist vision inspires the struggles of many third world feminist politicians, jurists, and academics. This is the feminism that motivated the United Nations decade for

women and because it did not challenge underlying assumptions regarding the structural causes of unequal gender relations, it has proved an acceptable basis for reform in many third world countries. The document that emerged from the end of decade United Nations Conference in Nairobi, Kenya, 'Forward Looking Strategies' exemplifies this point in its call upon governments to:

identify the impact that unemployment has on women, provide employment, equity programmes; provide access to all jobs and training for women, improve the conditions and structure of the formal and informal labour markets; recognize and encourage the small business initiatives of women; provide and encourage the establishment of child-care facilities; and encourage, through education and public information, the sharing of responsibilities for child and domestic care between women and men (O' Neil 1986 p. 20).

This theory has helped to explain the visibility of academic women in the labour market, and has shed some light on the dearth of these women in leadership position. It has also explained the subordination of women in the home-front, which is carried on to the workplace, in social relations. But this theory is deficient in that, if the problem/issue is not vigorously challenged, if status quo were to remain, drastic change cannot be achieved. This theory allows for the spirit of 'tokenism' that is, women just appearing in very small but insignificant number in positions of decision making or leadership 'as ice on cake' where they do not form a 'critical mass' that can wield power for change to occur. This goes to explain why some women bask in the euphoria of being the first (1st) President, Governor, Minister, Vice-Chancellor, and Deputy Vice-Chancellor and so on. In the words of Professor Grace Alele Williams:

As long as we are celebrating a woman Vice Chancellor because she is the first or a woman chief Judge because she is the first, then we have not arrived. We look forward to the time when we will have many women in such positions and we will be celebrating so many of them (Alele-Williams, 2004).

This theory proposes that women stay where they are, with outstretched arms, and take whatever they are given, whereas Marxism recognises that life itself is all about competition for scarce resources, power and authority, it is about survival of the fittest. Therefore, if female academics have to be in the forefront of where decisions are

being made in the Ivory Tower, they have to be qualified, they have to give all it takes within all legality. They have to demand for positions and not wait for it to drop, just as liberal feminism suggests.

Radical Feminism

Radical feminism has its root in the reaction against the sexism of the 1960s radical movements. Fundamentally ideological in its impetus, radical feminism is eclectic by nature, borrowing concepts and language from several traditions, like Marxism and Socio-biology. Historically, radical feminism started with the assumption that the sexes are adversarial poised, that men have power over women, and that society and its various social-relationships can be best understood in terms of their relationship to that situation (Bouchier, 1978). This frame work of radical feminism is a conflict theory, because it was originally inspired by the political theories of Karl Marx. It shares with Marxism the intention of transforming society rather than merely studying it. Radical feminism states that modern society and its constructs (law, religion, politics, art, etc.) is the product of male and therefore have a patriarchal character. According to the proponents of this view, the best solution for women's oppression would be to treat patriarchy not as a subset of capitalism but as a problem in its own right.

Notably, radical feminism uses applied Marxist language analogically to explain women's oppression (Firestone 1970). The theory views women as an "oppressed class". This appears Marxist but, in a rigorous sense, is not. Furthermore, radical feminism allows for an historical approach to women's oppression, on the premise that patriarchy is universal, preceding and superseding all other forms of oppression. However, it has been accused of ethnocentrism, not having regard for divergence of human or women's history, culture, religion, race and differential women's experiences, also its submissions reduces gender relations to a natural division based on biology.

Notwithstanding its critics and shortcomings, radical feminists have been known to question status quo and institutions through which they believe the oppression of women is perpetrated, like marriage, culture, legal, religion, education and economy. Radical feminism has made invaluable contribution to knowledge, because it is a direct response to women's social experience in western society. Its

critique of, and action on, western sexism is highly relevant, particularly, its work on sexual violence and pornography (Brown miller, 1976). It has led crusade against sex tourism in Asia. Above all, it has contributed to the insight that “the personal is political”, thereby creating the political space within which gender relations could become a legitimate subject of analysis.

One other criticism of radical feminism is that men are not comfortable with it and women who are conservative are also not comfortable with the theory, but by and large it has helped to illuminate, and bring out of obscurity knowledge of women’s issues as human rights, and this includes right to education, health and right to self actualisation without any inhibition from a third party, structure or culture. This theory explains the struggle for visibility and relevance among female academics and patriarchal structure of the Nigerian university system, but fails to recognise that not all women are in the struggle, as many can still be found in the traditional school of thought and other milder range of feminism and postmodernism.

Postmodernism

"Postmodernism" is loosely used to identify a historical epoch, the condition of post-industrial, post-Fordist, or even post capitalist society. The relations of production (if one can still call them that) of this epoch are variously described as fragmented (this applies to both the social fabric and the mode of production), diffused or disorganised (in the sense that systemic power relations are everywhere and nowhere, pervasive but with no identifiable source), and ultimately unhinged from history. Consumption has overtaken production, making class struggle (or even the notion that society is antagonistically divided into workers and capitalists) an obsolete concept. People no longer identify themselves with, or as, a class, but through various, more particular identities (e.g., woman, lesbian, gay, African-American, Latina), and identities that are not only, or not at all, economically defined. Oppression has no systemic material foundation.

Central to the postmodernist understanding of society is the belief that the "grand," or totalising, principles of modernity and the Enlightenment--including appeals to rationality, progress, humanity, justice, and even the ability to represent reality--have been fatally undermined. This line of reasoning emerges from poststructuralist critiques of language, subjectivity, and representation; but where

poststructuralist refers to theory, postmodernism is the practice. In other words, where poststructuralists criticised the foundations of modernism, postmodernists read these critiques as mandates for rejecting foundations altogether.

For postmodernists, then, the system--rarely (if ever) named as "capitalism"--has become so diffuse and heterogeneous that it not only surpasses understanding but no longer offers any point from which it can be opposed since power is allegedly everywhere and polymorphous. Indeed, capitalism's "disorganisation" signifies that there is no central point, or system, to oppose. In a media-saturated age in which no one knows, with any degree of certainty, what's really real, representation—whether political or artistic--has become impossible. Capitalism, now fragmented and lacking any organic unity, is no longer comprehensible as a system; and, in any case, the very grounds for understanding or knowing have been swept away.

European postmodernists, like Lyotard, (1984) have expressed the belief that Marxism, like the Enlightenment in general, culminated in Stalinism because of its "totalizing" impulses. Some postmodernists, especially in the United States, have gone much further than this identification of Marxism with Soviet-style systems, holding Marxism responsible for all kinds of oppression. "Twentieth-century Marxism," maintains Linda Nicholson (1988) "has used the generalising categories of production and class to delegitimise demands of women, black people, gays, lesbians, and others whose oppression cannot be reduced to economics "(Price & Shildrick, 1999). This kind of judgment dramatically displays yet another feature of postmodernism: its historical amnesia.

An argument like Nicholson (1990) not only represses a rich history of democratic class politics it is remarkably insensitive to the simple fact that Marxism and Socialist Organisations in general have been repeatedly marginalized and delegitimised by capitalism. The transplantation of postmodernist modes of thought from Europe to North America has tended to be doubly a historical, divorced from the historical and material conditions that first produced them, and then, in a climate of backlash against class-based political struggles, appropriated by a society whose history of class struggles has been assiduously repressed. It would seem ironic, if the political stakes weren't so high, that both postmodernists and the likes of George Bush and Dick Arney seem to be arguing that the United States does not have classes.

Postmodernist social theory and postmodernism in general, exist for the most part in humanities and social science programs in the university.

Eschewing empiricism and quantitative methods (which assume the existence of some form of reality that can be represented), most postmodernists rely on interpretive methods borrowed from Saussurean linguistics and hermeneutics to support their often contradictory claims. Postmodernist social theorists, in replaying traditional debates within philosophy about idealism and materialism, haven't transcended the terms of the debate laid out by Marx and Engel's (1845) in *The German Ideology*. Rather, they claim an absolute victory for idealism, as materiality and the economic base are consigned to the dumpster of history, and only language remains. Working from this foundation, postmodernist social theorists argue that politics, in the waning years of the century, can only work haphazardly, or through the fragmented, divided, and often conflicting categories with which people identify.

Despite its many contradictions and confusions, postmodernism does have some unifying principles: an uncritical and idealist focus on the discursive construction of the "real" (i.e., what is "real" is constructed in and by language, although no one really explains what this means) and a related privileging of the notion of "difference." If, in the end, we cannot point to any "real" interests that might unify "us," then the only form of political action conceivable is one based on "differences" in identity. As opposed to Marx's notion of unity in difference, or "identity of interests," in which people share widely common interests which can be represented by political agencies, postmodernists reject any such representation in favour of particular and localised differences.

The three theories: Marxism, feminism and postmodernism all agree that there is gender, racial, ethnic, religious and other forms of social oppression. They are in agreement that gender oppression is systemic and its different colourations are reflected in social institutions and gender relations. One of these is the family, education and work and career. Therefore, the oppression of or discrimination against women is grounded in the macro society, which could also be seen in religion and cult society of the university and which is brought into the micro. As a result, society has spelt out appropriate gender roles for male and female. This is further explained in the role congruity theory.

2.1.2 Role Congruity Theory of Prejudice toward Women Leaders

Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002) proposes that perceived incongruity between the female gender and leadership roles leads to two forms of prejudice; (a) perceiving women less favourably than men as potential occupants of leadership roles and (b) evaluating behaviour that fulfils the prescriptions of a leader role less favourably when it is enacted by a woman. One consequence is that attitudes are less positive toward female than male leaders and potential leaders. Other consequences are that it is more difficult for women to become leaders and achieve success in leadership roles. Evidence from varied research paradigms substantiates that these consequences occur, especially in situations that heighten perceptions of incongruity between the female gender and leadership roles (Freud, 1933; Bandura, 1995; Chesterman, 2007; Cohn, 2007; Gul, 2008; Morley, 2009).

The role congruity theory advanced by Eagly and Karau (2002) focus on the differences between two roles gender and leadership; because males are typically thought to occupy and possess the skills for leadership roles, a potential prejudice occurs when females occupy the position "Prejudice toward female leaders follows from the incongruity that many people perceive between the characteristics of women and the requirements of leader roles" (Eagly and Karau 2002; p. 574).

Role congruity theory also addresses the "injunctive norms of gender roles" (Eagly and Karau 2002; p. 576), because leadership is not a typical social role for women, female participation in such a role can lead to negative evaluations due to the failure to meet the requirements of their gender role. "In thinking about female leaders, people would combine their largely divergent expectations about leaders and women, whereas in thinking about male leaders, people would combine highly redundant expectations" (Eagly and Karau, 2002: p. 575). Research has shown that women who attain success in typically male occupations are less liked and more derogated than equally successful men (Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs and Tankins 2004; Chovwen, 2004). This disfavour can have negative effects on females' career outcomes, as women at the upper levels of management receive fewer promotions than comparable men (Heilman, *et al.* 2004). Research shows that "a woman's success can create new problems for her by instigating her social rejection" (Heilman, *et al.* 2004; p. 416; Kamau, 2004; Chovwen, 2004).

Eagly and Karau (2002) propose that roles defined in particularly masculine terms can cause more incongruity with typically female social norms than more feminine roles. Roles with all male incumbents or all male employees are particularly incongruent for female social norms. Support for this has come through research showing that while it is likely that there will be negative bias against females who are successful in typically male occupations, this bias does not hold when a male is successful in a typically female occupation (Heilman *et. al.*; 2004). In Nigeria, the tenures of both Professors Grace Alele-Williams and that of Jadesola Akande as Vice Chancellors were particularly turbulent, in spite of them being qualified for the job and competent for the office. Their not being accepted fully could have been because they were considered too strict for the system.

This goes to explain the negative bias and signals few women who have led faced during their different terms in office, (including academia); some were given the appellation “Thatcher”, meaning no nonsense woman in Nigerian context, an appellation adopted after the name of former British Prime Minister (Mrs. Margaret Thatcher). There is no doubt that the consequences of these societal rejections and negative attitudes toward successful career women and women in leadership position may affect women’s self concept, which is their self-esteem and self-efficacy. The above explanations could presumably suggest that female academics will be less favoured as occupants of leadership positions, will be evaluated negatively and experience less positive attitudes from their colleagues, juniors and student body.

It should be noted here that contrary to earlier discourse, social rejection of female leaders may not be an absolute, because Nigeria witnessed the debut of three exceptional women in the cabinet of President Olusegun Obasanjo; Dr. Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala Minister for Finance, Mrs. Obi Ezekwesili Minister for Education and Professor Dora Akunyili Director General National Agency for Food and Drug Administration & Control (NAFDAC), the tenures of these women were smooth. In the current government of President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan, he has in his cabinet Dr. Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala once again as Minister for Finance, Professor Rukayat Rufai Minister for Education and also Mrs Deziane Allison-Madueke Minister for Petroleum, so far these women and others not mentioned here are not doing badly.

Role Congruity theory was tested using attitude toward women scale. This theory is however inadequate in explaining the role the climate of the university system plays in the career and leadership experiences of female academics. Therefore we will consider Kanter's structural empowerment theory.

2.1.3 Kanter's Structural Empowerment Theory

The structural empowerment theory can be used in understanding the climate of an organisation. As earlier stated, organisational climate is the way in which members of an organisation perceive and characterise their environment in an attitudinal and value-based manner (Moran and Volkwein, 1992; Denison, 1996; Verbeke, Volgering, and Hessels, 1998). In this manner the climate of an organisation can be quantified by assigning value in terms of numbers to people's attitude and social conduct. Kanter's (1977) theory of structural empowerment is a good framework to explain concepts related to negative workplace behaviours and outcomes, such as turnover, attitude to work, fairness, perceived inclusion and other variables. Kanter (1977) asserts that the structure of the work environment is an important correlate of employee attitude and behaviours in organisations, she posits that perceived access to power and opportunity structures relate to the behaviours and attitudes of employees in organisations.

Kanter, (1977) suggests that individuals display different behaviours depending on whether certain structural supports (power and opportunity) were in place. The first component, opportunity, refers to career mobility and the chance to increase knowledge and skills. The second component, structure of power, refers to the ability to access and mobilise resources, information, and support from one's position in the organisation to get the job done successfully (Kanter, 1977). Access to resources refers to the ability to acquire necessary materials, supplies, money, and personnel needed to meet organisational goals. Information relates to the data, technical knowledge, and expertise required for performing one's job. Support refers to guidance and feedback received from subordinates, peers, and supervisors to enhance effectiveness (Kanter, 1977; Laschinger, 1996).

Access to power structure is very crucial to being effective in an organisation, Kanter (1977) believes that access to empowerment structures is associated with the degree of formal and informal power an individual has in the organization. Formal power is derived from jobs that allow flexibility, visibility, and creativity.

Formal power is also derived from jobs that are considered relevant and central to the organisation. Informal power is developed from relationships and networks with peers, subordinates, and superiors within and outside of the organisation.

Kanter (1977) emphasises that women's lack of opportunities and power in organisations and the sex ratio of groups within organisations explain women's lack of managerial access and success. This explains the dearth of female academics, especially in leadership positions. Cioffi (1995) and Major (1991) argue that the perception of quality of work life even in similar situations may be affected by the individual's ethnic or racial group membership. Kanter (1977) highlights the significant aspect of social life particularly important for understanding interactions in groups composed of people of different culture categories or status; she explained that groups varying proportions of people of different social types differ qualitatively in dynamics and processes. This difference is not merely a function of cultural diversity or status (Zaleznick, Chnotensen & Roethlisberge, 1958); it reflects the effect of contact across categories as a function of their proportional representation in the system.

Kanter, (1977) identifies four types of groups on the basis of various proportional representations of kinds of people; uniform groups have one kind of person, which is one significant social type. The group may develop its own differentiations but groups considered uniform are homogeneous with respect to salient external status such as race, gender or ethnicity. Uniform groups have a "typological ratio" of 100:0. Skewed groups are those in which there is a large preponderance of one type over another, up to a ratio of perhaps 85:15, the numerically dominant types also control the group and its culture in enough ways to be labelled "dominant". Those fewer in number in a skewed group can appropriately be called "tokens", because they are often treated as representatives of their category, as a symbol rather than individuals. If the absolute size of the skewed group is small, tokens can also be solitary individuals or "solo", and it is difficult for them to generate an alliance that can become powerful in the group

Next is the tilted group, which moves toward less extreme distributions and less exaggerated effects. In this situation, with the ratio of 65:35, dominant are just a majority and tokens a minority. Minority members are potentially allies, can form coalitions, and can affect the culture of the group; they are individuals differentiated

from each other as well as a type differentiated from the majority. Finally, is the balanced group, at a typological ratio of 60:49 down to 50:50, the group becomes balanced; culture and interaction reflect this balance. Outcomes for individuals in such a balanced peer group, regardless of type, depend on the other structural and personal factors, including formation of subgroups or differentiated roles and abilities. The characteristics of the skewed group provide a relevant point for the examination of the effects of proportion.

Kanter (1977b) further enlarges our understanding of male-female interaction and situations facing women in organisations by introducing structural and contextual effects. Most analyses to date locate male-female interaction issues either in broad cultural traditions and sexual division of labour in society or in the psychology of men and women whether based on biology or socialisation (Kanter, 1976a). In both macroscopic and microscopic analysis, situational and structural effects sometimes confound sex and gender components, for example, successful women executives are always numerically rare in their organisations; working women are disproportionately concentrated in low opportunity occupations. Conclusions about “women’s behaviour” or “male attitude” drawn from such situation may sometimes confuse the effects of situation with the sex roles. Indeed such variables as position in authority and power structures account for a large number of phenomenon related to work behaviour labelled as “sex differences” (Kanter, 1975).

The study of particular proportions of women in predominantly male groups is thus relevant to group process, which influences male-female interaction. This analysis deals with interaction in face-to-face groups with highly skewed sex ratios. More specifically, the focus is what happens to women who occupy token status and are alone in a peer group of men, such as female Vice-Chancellors, Deputy Vice-Chancellors, Deans, and Heads of Department. Also, women entering traditional male fields at every level of organisational structure commonly face this situation, but the proportional scarcity is not unique to women. Men can also find themselves alone among women, blacks among whites, very old among young; the blind among the sighted. In this kind of group setting, decision is often made by the group in the majority, and the tokens have to tag along whether they are in agreement or not, this is a window into meetings such as, the Senate, Principal Officers and Governing Council meeting.

The dynamics of interaction is likely not to be very similar in all such cases, though the content of interaction may reflect the special culture and traditional roles of both members of the numerically dominant category. The term “token” is often used for minority number rather than “solo, solitary or lone” which highlight some special characteristics associated with that position. Tokens are people identified by ascribed characteristics (such as sex, race, gender and religion) or other characteristics that carry with them a set of assumptions about culture, status and behaviour. Highly salient for majority category members are characteristics which Hughes (1944) refers to as “auxiliary traits” are brought into situations in which they are seen to differ from others in terms of these secondary and informal assumptions. The importance of these auxiliary traits is heightened by members of the majority group having a history of interaction with the token’s category in ways that are quite different from the demands of task accomplishment in the present situation as true of men and women, for example, bringing issues not directly related to the job or work task to play when interviewing women for job or promotion; “have you considered the home front? How would you cope?” and other related questions outside the job performance requirements.

Further, because tokens are by definition virtually alone, they are in the position of representing their ascribed category to the group whether they choose to or not. They can never be just another member while their category is so rare; they will always be hyphenated members; as in female engineer, female pilot, female leader, female doctor, male nurse, male secretary, female lecturer and female professor. The group with a skewed distribution of social types generate certain perceptions of the token by their dominations; these perceptions determine the interaction dynamics between tokens and dominants. The proportional rarity of tokens is associated with three perceptual phenomena: visibility, polarisation and assimilation.

Token members feel highly visible. Awareness of each other member of the same social type declines as proportional of total membership occupied by the category increase. This is because each individual becomes less surprising, unique or noteworthy. Gestalts termed it “ground” rather than “figure”. But for tokens, there is a law of “increasing returns” as individuals of their type come to represent a smaller numerical proportion of the group, they potentially capture a larger share of the group members’ awareness.

Polarisation or exaggeration of differences is the second perceptual tendency. The presence of a person bearing a different set of social characteristics makes members of a numeric dominant group more aware of both their commonalities and differences, especially because tokens are by definition too few in numbers to prevent the application of familiar generalisation of stereotypes. It is thus easier for the commonalities of the dominant group to be defined in contrast to the token than it would be in a more numerically equal situation, Kanter (1977) is of the opinion that one person can also be perpetually isolated and seen as cut off from the group more easily than many, who begin to represent a significant proportion of the group itself, for example, female Vice-Chancellors (VCs) are a polarised group, they are isolated and extreme token, who by virtue of their insignificant numbers may be unable to influence decisions in the committee of VCs.

Assimilation is the third perpetual tendency; it involves the use of stereotypes or certain preconceived notion to describe a person's social type. The characteristics of a token tend to be distorted to fit the generalisation. If there are enough people of the token's type to let discrepant examples occur, it is possible that the generalisation will change to accommodate the accumulated cases but if individuals of that type are only a small proportion of the group, tokens social category allows us to see the development of patterns of adjustment as well as the perception of and response to tokens that face similar interaction situation.

The analysis undertaken here also suggests importance of structural and social psychological variables affecting male and female interaction and the roles of women in work groups, organisations, committees and the society at large. Investigation on the effect of proportion on group life and social psychological theory for the understanding of male-female interaction is a step toward identifying the structure and situational variables that intervene between global, cultural definitions of social type and individual responses that shape the context for face-to-face interaction among different kinds of people in an organisational setting. This goes to say that for as long as women remain tokens; they will be unable to influence decisions and bring about change in the organisations where they find themselves. Also they will not be accepted as bonafide members of the skewed group; as they will continue to be addressed by hyphenated appellation as discussed earlier.

It is perhaps evident that the elements of the different approaches are significantly related to the experience of female academics measured in terms of perceived organisational climate in a male dominated occupation of academics. The interaction of female academics' self esteem, career self-efficacy, persons-centred phenomenon, (Rogers, 1959) and organisational climate account for the unique experiences of academic women, which are different from those of men.

The Persons-centred theory was propounded by Carl Rogers (1959). Rogers is in agreement with Marlow's theory (Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a theory in psychology, proposed by Abraham Maslow in his 1943 paper *A Theory of Human Motivation* (Maslow, 1943). Maslow subsequently extended the idea to include his observations of humans' innate curiosity. Maslow used the terms Physiological, Safety, Belongingness and Love, Esteem, and Self-Actualisation needs to describe the pattern that human motivations generally move through) but Rogers added some twists of his own. Self-actualisation to Rogers was an inborn drive to grow and develop to highest level of human beingness; self-actualisation is unique for each person because we all have different traits and talents. He believed that all people are inherently good and creative, but become destructive if their environments do not support them. In order to achieve self-actualisation, a person must have "genuineness" (openness and self-disclosure), acceptance (being seen with unconditional positive regard), and empathy (being listened to and understood) in their environment.

In addition, the person must experience congruence, that is, their ideal self must be reflected in their behaviour and activities. According to Rogers (1959) the best predictor of self-actualisation is childhood experience. This theory is used to understand the socialisation processes experienced by women which encourage the development of personality traits, behaviours and attitudes which are incongruent with the demands of certain careers, such as academics and management role. Some of these traits are: not having confidence in one's ability (low self-efficacy), not having self-confidence (low self-esteem), not being assertive.

These traits were developed by social conditioning. This approach has been termed the gender-centred or persons-centred approach and is based on sex and gender differences (Riger and Gilligan, 1980). This theory helps to explain the role and importance of social support to the career growth of academic women. If people

surrounding them (spouses, colleagues, parents and the significant others) are not supportive, it could lead to frustration, stagnation, loss of self-esteem, confidence and slow career mobility (Rogers, 1959; Oti and Oyelude, 2006).

Several theories have been postulated to explain the reasons (among which is the issue of glass ceiling) for sexual and racial differences in careers of men and women. Some of these theories are those that assume that deficiencies perceived to be in minority groups inform differential experience and treatment. Research examining women's careers and positions in senior management primarily focused on explaining why there are so few women (Powell 1999). However, Riger and Gilligan, (1980) argue that the causal explanations for the lack of women in senior positions focus either on the person or the situation.

The more recent approaches over the past decade consider how perceptions of self, influence the opportunities or otherwise for women. Theories focusing on women's deficiencies in careers and management roles have been proposed and explored over the past 25 years (Riger and Gilligan, 1982; Morrison and Von Glinow, 1990). This approach has been termed the gender-centred or person-centred approach and is based on theories of sex and gender differences (Riger and Gilligan, 1980).

Within this school of thought is another approach that explains the marginalisation of women in senior management by comparing women and men in terms of behaviour, attitudes and traits (Hall-Taylor, 1997). Proponents of this approach point to the differences and deficits of women in management as well as the behavioural differences between women and men as a means of explaining women's low representation (Jardim and Hennig, 1990). Personality traits and behaviour differences are also presented as a rationale for low representation.

Riger and Gilligan (1980) noted that psychology researchers emphasized person-centered variable to explain women's low job status. This becomes important when one considers the role of self-esteem and self-efficacy in predicting the career growth of female academics, who are working in a male dominated occupation.

Self-esteem is the evaluation individuals' make of themselves, maintaining that evaluation is inherent to self-estimation. This exerts some influence over some individuals' coping capabilities and prepares them for those activities of which they judge themselves to be capable. Hence both self-esteem and self-efficacy have

been used to produce explanations for the continued under-representation, differential experience, differential career growth and treatment of women in male dominated careers (Humphreys, 1982; Chovwen, 2004). The higher females' self-esteem, the better equipped they may be to survive in male dominated work environment (Odejide *et. al.* 2005). However, there are controversies concerning this view.

Other field of studies reiterates that women's traits, behaviours, attitudes, social roles and socialisation are different from those of men and have been said to make them inappropriate or deficient as workers and leaders (Porter, *et. al.* 1985; Peltz, 1990; Eagly and Karau, 2002; Singh, 2002; Odejide, 2006b; Omoike and Idigho, 2008). These factors make them unwilling to take risks (Morrison and Glinow, 1990). Howerel and Bray (1988) reported that female and male managers were more similar than different in personality, motivation and abilities factors. According to Howerel and Bray (1988), racial differences were higher than sex differences, but among the high potential managers assessed, the relative weaknesses in intellectual ability among blacks were compensated for by superior performance in interpersonal skills and stability of performance.

Research evidence also show that women and men in leadership positions have similar aspirations, values and other personality traits as well as job related skills and behaviours (Noe, 1988; Powell, 1988). This may be expected to influence the interpretation of their experiences; human capital variable such as education may determine women's experience in the workplace. Moreover, the result of a study on matched pairs of female and male managers by Donnell and Hall, (1980) led to the conclusion that 'the disproportionately low number of women in leadership positions and management can no longer be explained by the contention that women practice a different brand of management from that practiced by men. Other submissions have it that, if the above contention is correct, then women should choose the occupational setting they prefer and invest accordingly in their own human capital. Thus any policy changes adapted to correct differential experiences however, career growth and treatment should then be directed to the educational processes rather than the employment setting because no differences other than those in human capital are seen as operating.

The human capital explanation assumes that investment pays off equally for all groups, but recent studies suggest that investment yields higher returns for white

men than for women and minority. Results of a survey of Asian Americans in professional and managerial positions indicate that education and work experience yield low returns in promotion and advancement (Morrison and Glinow, 1990).

From the explanations of this theory, it can be subsumed that the higher female academics' self-esteem and career self-efficacy, the better equipped they may be to survive in male dominated work environment of academia. This theory has been able to shed some light on how differentiation in sex, gender, and race can affect women's self-esteem in a male dominated career. However, theory needs be tested in a multicultural, multiethnic and mono-racial setting of Nigeria, which also has colonial history. Few theories have attempted to explain the career experiences of women; among them is career self-efficacy theory which explains women's belief about self and how this informs their career status, self-concept, challenges and behaviour towards work. In addition, Career self-efficacy theory of Hackett and Betz (1981) gives credence to Kanter's Structural Empowerment theory because it deals with personality dispositions, thus are executed within social structures and confines.

Career self-efficacy theory was developed from self-efficacy theory postulated by Albert Bandura (1977). Self-efficacy is the belief in one's effectiveness in performing specific tasks. People who regard themselves as highly efficacious act, think, and feel differently from those who perceive themselves as inefficacious. They produce their own future, rather than simply foretell it (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy theory is an important component of Bandura's social cognitive theory, which suggests high inter-relation between individual's behaviour, environment, and cognitive factors. Although women have generally been shown to have lower self-efficacy expectations than men with regard to traditionally male occupations (Betz and Hackett, 1981; Wheeler, 1983), a number of studies have demonstrated that women's lower self-efficacy does not necessarily deter some of them from considering traditionally masculine-type professions (Clement, 1987; Chovwen, 2004).

Career self-efficacy theory is based on the assumption that cognitions mediate behaviour. Career self-efficacy theory attempts to understand how beliefs about self, influence the career development. Hackett and Betz (1981) use the self-efficacy concept to understand career development of women. They examined the differences in the range and nature of occupations considered by male and female. In their research of college students, they found differences between male and female in terms of

traditional occupations. Females have high levels of self-efficacy in relation to traditional occupations and low levels of self-efficacy when it comes to non-traditional occupations.

Low self-efficacy beliefs of women are thought to reflect the limited and disadvantaged position they have in the workplace and the limited range of career options presented to them by society (Hackett and Betz, 1981). On the other hand, (Osipow and Fitzgerald, 1996:171) found that males' occupational self-efficacy results are equivalent for both traditional and non-traditional occupations. Their theory, backed up by findings, postulates that due to socialisation experiences, women lack strong expectations of personal efficacy in relation to much career-related behaviour and therefore fail to utilize their capabilities and talents in career pursuits optimally.

Differential socialisation of both sexes was key factor in the research findings of Hackett and Betz, (1981:326) and Fitzgerald, Fassinger and Betz, (1995:94). They asserted that this notion is based on the assumption that gender socialisation influences cognitive processes, particularly expectations of personal efficacy, which in turn influence career decision making, adjustment, experience and growth.

Contrary to earlier submissions, Lent and Hackett (1987: p. 350) are of the view that the continued under-representation of women in the labour force, may be due to differential expectations of self-efficacy among women versus men. Hackett and Betz (1981) submit that women's under-utilisation of their career abilities and their under-representation in many higher status, higher earning, male dominated careers may be a direct result of socialisation and gender differences between traditionally male and female career domains. Hackett and Betz made use of Bandura's (1977:100) self-efficacy expectations concept to explain women's career development.

Self-efficacy expectations and beliefs is one's ability to successfully perform a given behaviour. These expectations influence the behaviour by determining whether the behaviour will be initiated, the degree of effort that will be expended and how long the behaviour will be maintained in the face of adversities (Brown, Brooks and Associates, 1990:367). Thus an academic woman's beliefs about her research and publication, cognitive, administrative and managerial skills for example are likely to affect career growth, leadership and the choice of staying in academics in the face of pressures, competition and micro-politics.

Bandura (1977: p. 104) conceptualises self-efficacy as varying along three dimensions: level, strength and generality. Level refers to the degree of difficulty in the tasks or behaviour that an individual feels capable of performing. For example different individuals may have the same level of skills but may not perform at the same level. People with low self-efficacy may not persist in a difficult task, they may have thoughts that they will be unable to do the task well, and they may feel discouraged or overwhelmed by the task. Strength refers to the confidence a person has in his or her estimates. Individuals with strong self-efficacy will persist in the face of obstacles. Generality of self-efficacy refers to the range of situations in which an individual feels efficacious (Lent and Hackett, 1987:348). Research has shown that academic women are less efficacious in scholarly publication (Butler, 2005), but it has not been proven if this is due to their cognitive deficiency or as a result of their dual role responsibilities.

The above argument subsumes that low expectations of self-efficacy are viewed as a major means by which barriers to women are classified as internal and are manifested in career-related behaviours. Some barriers external to women are: perceived discrimination, sexual harassment, exclusion, lack of social support systems, organisational climate, which requires self-efficacy expectations to overcome. Therefore, Hackett and Betz (1981: p. 329) consider career self-efficacy theory relevant for the modification of internal barriers and management of external barriers among women.

Bandura (1986: p. 399-401) describes four sources of efficacy information through which individuals acquire self-efficacy expectations as: personal accomplishment, vicarious learning, including observational learning through modelling; social or verbal persuasion and one's physiological state. The above are the bases from which the postulations of low, weak and less generalised career-related self-efficacy expectations emanate. Performance Accomplishment: Successful performance of a task or behaviour provides information that tends to increase expectations regarding efficacy in relation to that task or behaviour.

Research cited in Hackett and Betz (1981: p. 331) states that females have characteristics or qualities that are emotionally expressive: nurturance, sensitivity, and passive-submissiveness whereas males have qualities such as assertiveness, activity,

competitiveness and dominance (Deaux & Emswiller, 1974; Kanter, 1979; Eccles, Gettys & Cann, 1981; Dickerson and Taylor, 2002). Those qualities that females possess are nurtured by socialisation and they facilitate positive efficacy in tasks that are of nurturance by nature, for example social work, nursing and teaching at lower levels (Oti, 2001; Aremu & Fasan, 2011). In academics, females have been found to tend towards more of teaching and student counselling than research and publication.

Vicarious Learning

Vicarious learning is another source of information crucial to increasing efficacy expectations. It is learning through observation of other people. Males are exposed to vicarious learning experiences that are more relevant to career-related efficacy expectations. In children's literature and the media, women are portrayed as homemakers and playing mother and wifely roles (Wood, 1994).

On the other hand, boys are exposed to more outdoor activities like mechanical tasks, sports, and other activities that prepare them for work life. Therefore, girls are at a disadvantage as they are more preoccupied with domestic activities, hence there are few female career role models for them and they lack encouragement from others of the same sex (Lent and Hackett, 1987:350).

Physiological State

One other important factor which affects self-efficacy is emotional arousal. Studies cited in Hackett and Betz (1981:332) indicate that females have higher levels of anxiety than males. It is further suggested that the presence of anxiety decreases the initiation and sustenance of behaviour or task in efficacy expectations (anxiety for women in male dominated career). Being in the minority could spell anxiety for female academics and this may affect their self-esteem and self-efficacy.

Verbal Persuasion

The fourth source of information is verbal persuasion which comes from verbal suggestions of other people for example, parents, teachers, colleagues, supervisors and superiors. Men have received more encouragement than women in their career pursuits because of societal beliefs on the importance of male achievement.

Evaluation of Career Self-Efficacy Theory

The above exposition on career-self-efficacy theory has been able to explain certain aspects visible in the lives of female academics, it can be deduced from the above that female academics do not get promoted as often as their male colleagues because they lack graded mastery or are held back because of dual or multiple roles they play outside paid employment, which has no correlation with self-efficacy. They have self-doubt about their ability because there are no role models, they lack social persuasion because they do not have good appraisal for equal tasks and hence they are not self-motivated. They lack social support, therefore anticipate negative outcomes expectations. .

The interaction of self concept variables (internally generated with external influences) and organisational climate have been explored in this theoretical discussion. We have discussed the relationship of persons-centred approach, career self-efficacy, role congruity, and Kanter's structural empowerment theory on the careers and leadership experiences of female academics.

This study has made use of combination of theories to explain the career and leadership experiences of academic women, as one single theory is inadequate to sufficiently give explanation and deep understanding of the phenomenon. Persons-centred approach explains the socialisation process of academic women in retrospect, and how it affects "self" negatively. Career self-efficacy gives explanation to low self-efficacy in female academics; which puts them in disadvantaged position in the university system role congruity explains the conflict between women's social role and its incongruity with leadership role and expectation, which is why female academics will experience hostility in leadership position and some, will rather not aspire. Structural empowerment on the other hand explains the power structure in the University system and how the dominant members decide its directions. And feminist theories give explanation to the class oppression of women by men. This study finds its ground in these theories to explain that academic women lack opportunities and power in the University system because of their minority status, as a result of 'male culture' that exists in academic environment, they lack access to equal opportunity and the enabling environment for career growth.

2.2.0 Empirical Related Studies

2.2.1 The Glass Ceiling and Women's Career

Research on the career development of women managers in general often refers to the glass ceiling that restricts advancement to top executive positions, it is the pervasive phenomenon of women going just so far and no further in their career and professions. This concept assumes that women have the motivation, ambition and capacity for positions of power and prestige, but invisible barriers keep them from reaching the top (Meyerson & Fletcher, 2000). They can see their goal, but they bump their heads at the ceiling that is both hidden and impenetrable. The United States Department of Labour defines the glass ceiling as “those artificial barriers based on attitudinal or organisational bias that prevent qualified individuals from advancing upward in their organisation into management level positions” (Martin, 1991).

Literature confirms that in spite of the presence of such barriers however, few exceptional women have broken through the glass ceiling and obtained executive level positions in Universities in Nigeria and elsewhere. Literature has discussed broader issues concerning the opportunities and problems faced by women in the University but systematic research on psychological, social and organisational climate variables are not adequate. Given that women have career challenges that prevent them from growing and attaining leadership.

The study of career academic women has become increasingly important as the percentage of the labour force that is female has begun to increase (ILO, 2000; UNESCO, 2002). As more women join the academic labour market, the focus has shifted from “women oriented toward homemaking versus careers” to traditional versus non-traditional careers and identifying career patterns of women (Guttek, & Larwood, 1987 p. 178). This shift reflects the changing career expectations of women in academia. Women have entered the labour market in larger number and are more likely to remain in the workforce for significant parts of their lives. If this trend results in more women pursuing lifelong careers in their chosen occupations, it should also result in more women reaching top-level positions (Morrison, 1992; Nelson-Porter, 2004).

The relative difficulty women encounter moving into top rank positions in academia is an important topic of concern given that an increasing number of women

are in the lower rung of academic workforce ladder of Nigerian Universities. The significant absence of Nigerian female academics in the highest and most visible positions in academia should not be ignored, because of the effects of tokenism on their self-esteem and self-efficacy. Studying and understanding the careers and leadership experiences of academic women and factors that predicts their career growth and leadership is pertinent. The Tables that follow show an illustration of gender proportion of academic women and men in Universities in Commonwealth States of which Nigeria is a member.

Gender Distribution of Academic Staff in Commonwealth Universities
Table 2.1: Overall gender proportions of Academic Staff

Country	Women No	%	Men No	%	Unspecified No	%	Total
Australia	5991	29.6	13585	67.2	651	3.2	20227
Bangladesh	368	16.8	1758	80.3	64	2.	2190
Brunei Darussalam	53	22.0	160	66.4	28	11.6	241
Canada	4182	23.4	13213	74.1	443	2.5	17838
Cyprus	27	20.5	105	79.5	0	0.0	132
Ghana	78	9.5	735	89.6	7	0.9	820
Hong Kong	741	20.9	2775	78.3	28	08	3547
India	2506	21.1	9034	76.2	314	2.7	11854
Jamaica	129	50.2	116	45.1	12	4.7	257
Kenya	72	13.0	445	80.2	38	6.8	555
Lesotho	58	23.9	182	74.9	3	1.2	243
Malaysia	1107	31.5	2375	67.5	36	1.0	3518
Malta	52	14.6	304	85.4	0	0.0	356
Mauritius	57	31.8	120	67.0	2	1.2	179
New Zealand	619	26.3	1680	71.4	53	2.3	2352
Nigeria	893	13.6	5508	83.6	188	2.8	6589
Pakistan	218	17.9	960	78.6	43	3.5	1221
Papua New Guinea	52	16.7	245	78.8	14	4.5	311
Sierra Leone	13	15.3	71	83.5	1	1.2	85
Singapore	2132	17.0	833	66.6	205	16.4	1250
South Africa	1277	26.1	3468	70.8	150	3.1	4895
South Pacific	69	27.5	176	70.1	6	2.4	251
Sri Lanka	611	3.5	1372	68.4	23	1.1	2006
Swaziland	60	28.0	148	69.2	6	2.8	214
Uganda	26	19.3	107	79.3	2	1.4	135
United Kingdom	8007	24.7	23185	71.6	1197	3.7	32387
United Republic of Tanzania	89	11.0	710	88.0	8	1.0	807
West Indies	195	26.0	528	70.4	27	3.6	750
Zambia	71	10.	550	84.5	30	4.	651
Zimbabwe	9	9.7	81	87.1	3	3.2	93
Commonwealth	27 842	24.0	84530	72.9	3582	3.1	115 954

Source: Singh, (2002; 2008)

The above country wide survey report draws attention to the gender audit of men and women in academia. The survey reveals the positions that women hold within the academic hierarchy and their consequent inability to influence the policy and direction of their institutions, at departmental, faculty and institutional levels. The Table further shows that the proportion of female academics in all the Commonwealth Universities, in both developed and developing countries are not far between. The overall Commonwealth aggregate is 24%. Jamaica has the highest percentage of 50% trailed by Mauritania 31.8% and Malaysia 31.5%. Nigeria pooled 13.6% which is significantly low.

Table 2.2: Professors by country (Commonwealth)

Country	Women No	%	Men No	%	Men and Women
Australia	166	9.4	1992	90.6	1758
Bangladesh	84	10.4	722	89.6	806
Brunei Darussalam	0	0.0	4	100.0	4
Canada	719	11.8	5357	88.2	6076
Cyprus	1	6.7	14	93.3	15
Ghana	1	10.0	9	90.0	10
Hong Kong	27	7.3	343	92.7	370
India	274	10.5	2341	89.5	2615
Jamaica	0	0.0	1	100.0	1
Kenya	0	0.0	9	100.0	9
Lesotho	0	0.0	10	100.0	10
Malaysia	28	9.6	264	90.4	292
Malta	1	2.1	47	97.9	48
Mauritius	0	0.0	4	100.0	4
New Zealand	24	9.5	229	90.5	253
Nigeria	40	5.0	762	95.0	802
Pakistan	10	8.5	107	91.5	117
Papua New Guinea	1	5.	16	94.1	17
Sierra Leone	0	0.0	3	100.0	3
Singapore	0	0.0	18	100.0	18
South Africa	73	8.0	844	92.0	917
South Pacific	1	4.5	21	95.5	22
Sri Lanka	17	12.2	122	87.8	139
Swaziland	0	0.0	8	100.0	8
Uganda	2	16.7	10	83.3	12
United Kingdom	333	8.6	3542	91.4	3875
United Republic of Tanzania	5	8.6	53	91.4	58
West Indies	5	7.1	65	92.9	0
Zambia	2	8.3	22	91.7	24
Zimbabwe	0	0.0	4	100.0	4
Commonwealth	1814	9.9	16543	90.1	18357

Source: Singh, (2002; 2008)

Table 2.2 shows that Nigeria, the subject of this study, records 5.0% for female professors as against 95.0% for male professors. With the issue of women professors, it is only logical to theorise that the fewer the number of female academics; the fewer women who will become Professors. Table 2.3 shows the percentage of Associate Professors/Readers and Principal Lecturers by country.

Table 2.3: Associate Professors/Readers/Principal Lecturers by Country

Country	Women No	%	Men No	%	Men and Women
Australia	348	16.1	1807	83.9	2155
Bangladesh	99	19.9	399	80.1	98
Brunei Darussalam	0	0.0	18	100.0	18
Canada	1332	25.7	3858	74.3	5190
Cyprus	3	9.1	30	90.9	33
Ghana	3	5.3	54	94.7	57
Hong Kong	128	16.7	637	83.3	765
India	58	20.3	2303	79.7	2891
Jamaica	11	52.4	10	47.6	21
Kenya	0	0.0	12	100.0	12
Lesotho	0	0.0	12	100.0	12
Malaysia	153	20.4	59	79.6	749
Malta	1	4.3	22	95.7	23
Mauritius	2	11.8	15	88.2	17
New Zealand	17	.2	256	93.8	273
Nigeria	25	9.3	245	90.7	270
Pakistan	21	8.6	223	91.4	244
Papua New Guinea	1	7.1	13	.9	14
Sierra Leone		0.0	7	100.0	7
Singapore	7	8.4	76	91.6	83
South Africa	6	13.9	421	86.1	489
South Pacific	0	0.0	24	100.0	24
Sri Lanka	26	2.2	77	74.8	103
Swaziland	1	6.7	14	9.3	15
Uganda	3	20.0	12	0.0	14
United Kingdom	509	16.2	2641	83.8	3150
United Republic of Tanzania	3	3.8	7	96.2	78
West Indies	1	5.0	19	95.0	20
Zambia	0	0.0	25	100.0	25
Zimbabwe	1	33.3	2	66.7	3
Commonwealth	351	19.4	13903	80.6	17,254.

Source: Singh, (2002; 2008)

From Table 2.3, at the level of Reader/Associate Professor, less than 20% of positions were held by women; suggesting that large number of women were stuck in mid-cadre position waiting to step up. Overall gender proportion for Nigeria stands at 9.3.0% for female and 90.7% for male lecturers; this is indeed a wide gap (UNESCO, 2002). Canada has the highest number in this category with 5190; 25.7% for female academics and 74.3 for male academics; this is followed by United Kingdom, India and Australia. The overall figure for women is 19.4% which is significantly low compared to men. The next table illustration shows lecturers by country.

Table 2.4: Lecturers by Country

Country	Women No	%	Men No	%	Men and Women
Australia	3144	42.3	4286	57.7	7430
Bangladesh	80	23.7	257	76.3	337
Brunel Darussalam	28	25.0	84	75.0	112
Canada	56	50.5	153	49.5	309
Cyprus	18	48.6	19	51.4	37
Ghana	44	10.1	390	89.9	434
Hong Kong	147	27.0	398	73.0	545
India	1211	36.8	2080	63.2	3291
Jamaica	68	55.7	54	44.3	122
Kenya	32	12.3	229	87.7	261
Lesotho	33	26.8	90	73.2	123
Malaysia	681	34.5	1294	65.5	1975
Malta	15	17.9	69	82.1	84
Mauritius	43	40.2	64	59.8	107
New Zealand	310	44.0	394	56.0	704
Nigeria	41	17.0	2006	83.0	2416
Pakistan	59	16.0	309	84.0	368
Papua New Guinea	31	20.3	122	79.7	153
Sierra Leone	7	7.5	33	82.5	40
Singapore	107	28.5	69	71.5	376
South Africa	697	43.0	923	57.0	1620
South Pacific	39	33.9	76	66.1	115
Sri Lanka	258	35.5	496	64.5	727
Swaziland	55	35.7	99	64.3	154
Uganda	9	18.	41	82.0	50
United Kingdom	3584	32.7	7365	67.3	10949
United Republic of Tanzania	25	10.7	209	89.3	234
West Indies	134	35.6	242	64.4	376
Zambia	39	10.2	344	89.8	383
Zimbabwe	8	10.8	74	90.2	82
Commonwealth	11 472	33.8	22 442	66.2	33 914

Source: Singh, (2002; 2008)

Table 2.4 shows that women begin to be represented in numbers that almost equal or come close to that of their male colleagues only at the lecturer level. But the average for the Commonwealth is still 33.8%. At this level, the representation is more favourable in the developed countries compared with the developing countries. Australia, New Zealand and Canada had 42.3%, 44.0% and 50.5% female lecturers respectively. Of the newly emerging countries Malaysia has 34.5%, South Pacific 33.9%, Sri Lanka 35.5%, and India 36.8% women lecturers. Of the less developed countries with low proportion of female lecturers are Uganda (18%), Nigeria (17.0%), Pakistan (16%), Zimbabwe (10.8%), Tanzania (10.7%) and Zambia (10.2%).

In 2008, a follow-up survey was conducted which showed slight improvement in female's access to leadership in these Universities (Singh, 2009). The Commonwealth Universities Yearbook for 2008 (Singh, 2008) reports that 23 of the 35 countries in the Commonwealth still have all their universities led by men. The picture is one of a hierarchical pyramid with fewer and fewer women at the higher levels (Garland, 2008).

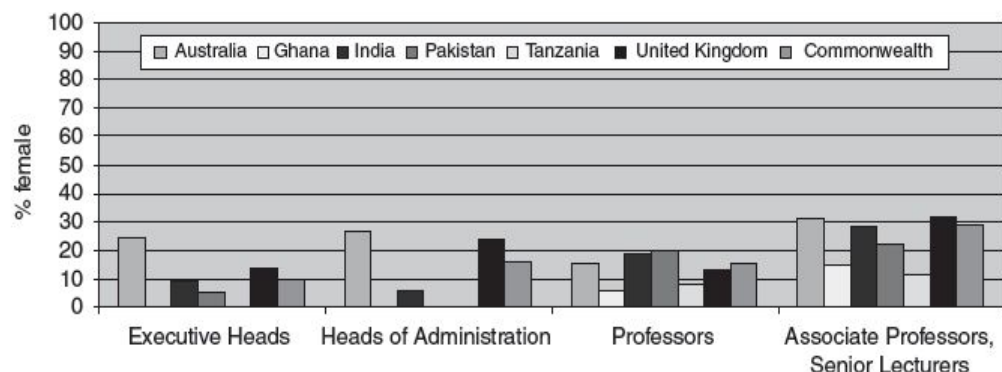


Figure: 1
Women's participation in management and academic leadership in selected Commonwealth countries, 2006. Data source: Singh (2008, p. 11–33).

Indeed there has been little change in women's participation in leadership in Commonwealth universities in the last ten years: only one in ten Vice-Chancellors or Presidents had been a woman. Among senior academic positions in Commonwealth countries there had been some slight improvement: there were 9.9% Professors in 1997, and 15.3% in 2006. But women Heads of Administration had decreased from 18.6% to 16.2%. Figures from the European Commission (See Figures 2006) indicate that only 15% of those at the highest academic grade (Grade A) in higher education in the European Union were women.

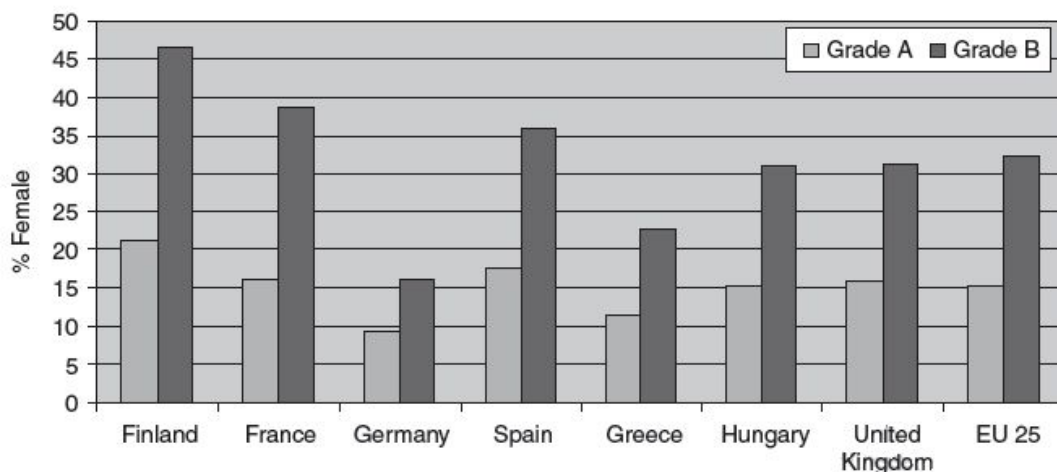


Figure: 2

Proportion of female academic staff by grade in selected countries of the European Union, 2004 Data source: European Commission (2006, p. 57) cited in Singh, (2009).

Among UK higher education institutions women numbered 42.3% of academics in 2006/2007, but only 17.5% were professors. Currently there are 19 women Chief Executive Officers who are members of UK Universities, out of 133 institutions (14%). Thus although there has been some improvement over the decade in the number of women worldwide who become university leaders, it is a far from satisfactory situation. Representation at other levels of leadership has increased marginally but the firm basis from which the top posts are likely to be drawn has not been sufficiently established.

The figures above, especially for Nigeria have implication for this study. It is evident that women's career growth in academia is not commensurate with their number at the lower cadre of the profession, and they are less visible at the leadership cadre. To further understand the factors responsible for the above situation of female academics, empirical literature will be reviewed beginning with self-esteem as a variable under psychosocial factor.

2.2.3 Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is a widely used concept both in popular language and psychology. It refers to an individual's sense of value or worth or the extent to which a person values, approves of, appreciates, prices, or likes him or herself (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). The most broad and frequently cited definition of self-esteem

within psychology is Rosenberg's (1965), who described it as a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the self.

Self-esteem is generally considered the evaluative component of self-concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive and behavioural aspects as well as evaluative or affective ones (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991). While the construct is most often used to refer to a global sense of self-worth, narrower concepts such as self-confidence or body-esteem are used to imply a sense of self-esteem in more specific domains. It is also widely assumed that self-esteem functions as a trait that is stable across time within individuals.

Self-esteem has been found to influence job tenure (Hackett, 1983), job satisfaction (Bandura, 1997; Lewin, 2006), work experience (Matsui, Ikeda, and Ohnishi, 1989; Madsen, 2006), career choice and aspiration, especially in male dominated careers. It has also been found to correlate with performance, achievement and gender in mathematical cognition (Hackett, 1985; Erinosh, 2005), leadership aspiration (Alele-Williams, 1990; Odejide, 2003; Chovwen, 2004). High self-esteem has been found to correlate with career success of migrants' physical therapists professionals, who move from developing to developed countries (Irikefe-Onoriode, 1998; Oyèyemí, 2001).

Women in engineering face double stigma, in the form of suspicions about their ability (Steele, 1997; Spencer, Steele, and Quinn, 1999), combined with a competitive evaluative academic environment. In a daily report study of self-esteem among male and female engineering and psychology majors, women in engineering whose self-worth was based on academics are more likely to experience significant drop in self-esteem.

In another study which investigated the influence of psychological variables upon female college students' aspirations for leadership positions in their future careers, Boatwright, Egidio and Kalamazoo (2003) with a sample of 213 undergraduate women (mean age = 19.63) attending a predominantly White, selective Liberal Arts College in the Midwest United States, found that connectedness needs, gender role, self-esteem, and fears of negative evaluation accounted for a significant amount of the variance in predicting college women's leadership aspirations.

This finding corroborates the theory of Kanter, where she reiterated the effect of absolute numbers; where a particular sex, race or ethnicity is the dominant number; the minority may exhibit negative self-evaluation (low self-efficacy) and low self-esteem. This researcher presumes that if a study of this nature is conducted in a mono-racial setting like Nigeria, result may be different. Moreover, Boatwright *et al.* (2003) used undergraduate students as subject, which is one of the reasons why the present study attempts to find out the predictive nature of effect self-esteem on female academics career growth and leadership position.

Much of the literature has attempted to explain the reasons for women's low representation in certain careers and occupations, especially in male dominated professions. Oakley (2009) argues that explanations for the low status of women in these careers must go beyond organisational policies and practices and should examine the nature of self concepts. Therefore, self-esteem and self-efficacy are important factors to the careers of women; especially in male dominated careers (Singh, 2002; Chovwen, 2004).

2.2.4 Self-Efficacy

The construction of self-efficacy, which was introduced by Albert Bandura, represents one core aspect of his social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1997). Self-efficacy expectancies refer to personal action control or agency. A person who believes in being able to cause an event can conduct a more active and self-determined life course. This "can do" cognition mirrors a sense of control over one's environment. It reflects the belief of being able to control challenging environmental demands by means of taking adaptive action. It could be regarded as a self-confident view of one's capability to deal with certain life stressors.

Research suggests that some women are reluctant to pursue certain tasks because they lack confidence in their ability to succeed, Dickerson and Taylor (2002) in their study using global self-esteem and task-specific self-efficacy as predictors of task choice and task preference, found that task-specific self-efficacy was a stronger predictor of whether a woman would choose a leadership task rather than a group-member task. In addition, task-specific self-efficacy predicted the strength of the woman's preference for the group-member task.

Self-efficacy makes a difference in how people feel, think and act. In terms of feeling, a low sense of self-efficacy is associated with depression, anxiety and helplessness (Bandura, 1995), and such individuals also have low self-esteem and harbor pessimistic thoughts about their accomplishments and personal development. In terms of thinking, a strong sense of competence facilitates cognitive processes and performance in various settings, including quality of decision-making and academic achievement. When it comes to preparing action, self-related cognitions are major ingredients of the motivation process. Self-efficacy levels can enhance or impede motivation.

People with high self-efficacy choose to perform more challenging tasks (Bandura, 1995). They set high goals for themselves and stick to them, actions are pre-shaped in thought, and people anticipate either optimistic or pessimistic scenarios in line with their level of self-efficacy. Once an action has been taken, high self-efficacious persons invest more effort and persist longer than those who are low in self-efficacy. When setbacks occur, they recover more quickly and maintain the commitment to their goals. Self-efficacy also allows people to select challenging settings, explore their environments, and create new environments.

Studies have found that men, more than women are efficacious in nature, in terms of task accomplishment, high self-esteem, self-motivation and optimism even in the face of challenging tasks and crisis situations (Shanahan, 1997). Women on the other hand have been found to possess low self-efficacy, are slow to take decision, devalue their own achievement and competence (Vasil, 1996). Self-referent thought has become an issue that pervades psychological research in many domains; it has been found that a strong sense of personal efficacy is related to better health, higher achievement, and more social integration. Self-efficacy has been found to correlate with such diverse areas as school achievement, emotional disorders, mental and physical health, career choice, and sociopolitical change. It has become a key variable in clinical, educational, social, developmental, health, and personality psychology (Schwarzer, 1992, 1994; Maddux, 1995; Bandura, 1997).

Self-efficacy is commonly understood as being domain-specific; that is, one can have more or less firm self-beliefs in different domains or particular situations. But some researchers have also conceptualised a generalised sense of self-efficacy. It refers

to a global confidence in one's coping ability across a wide range of demanding or novel situation. General self-efficacy aims at a broad and stable sense of personal competence to deal effectively with a variety of stressful situations (Schwarzer, 1994). Academics is a domain that requires different skills for different purposes and functions, it has been referred to by many researchers as a "greedy institution", very demanding and incongruent with the "make up of females" and their social roles (Gardner, Edwards and Ramsey, 1998; de la Rey, 1998; Luke, 1999; Morley, 2005) for instance male academics have proven to be more efficacious in research and publications than females, while females have been found to be more efficacious in teaching.

The power of self-reactive regulation has been verified in major domains of functioning including academic development (Zimmerman, 1989; Zimmerman, Bandura, and Martinez-Pons, 1992); creativity (Zimmerman and Bandura, 1994); health behaviour (Bandura, 1998); organisational functioning (Bandura, 1991; Wood and Bandura, 1998); transgressive conduct (Grusec and Kuczynski, 1977; Perry, Perry, Bussey, English and Arnold, 1980; Bandura, 1991; Caprara et al., 1998); and aggressive patterns of behaviour (Perry and Bussey, 1977). After self-regulatory capabilities have been developed, behavior usually produces two sets of outcomes: self-evaluative reactions and social reactions. They may operate as complementary or as opposing influences on behaviour. The way in which gender roles are orchestrated is largely determined by the interplay between personal and social sources of influence.

In the agentic socio-cognitive view Bandura (1997) posits that people are self-organising, proactive, self-reflective, and self-regulating and are not just reactive organisms shaped and shepherded by external events. The capacity to exercise control over one's thought processes and motivation, operates through mechanisms of personal agency. More central or pervasive is the belief in individual's capabilities to produce given levels of attainments. When people believe they can produce desired effects by their actions they have incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties. Perceived efficacy is, therefore, the foundation of human agency. The theoretical analysis and growing body of research on how efficacy beliefs are formed, the processes through which they operate, their diverse effects and their modification have

been extensively reviewed and will be summarised here (Schwarzer, 1992; Maddux, 1995; Bandura, 1995; 1997). People's beliefs in their efficacy can be developed in four major ways. The most effective way of instilling a strong sense of efficacy is through graded mastery experiences, successes build a robust belief in one's personal efficacy; failures undermine it, a resilient sense of efficacy requires experience in overcoming obstacles through perseverance.

The second way of creating and strengthening self-efficacy is by social modeling. Models transmit knowledge, skills and strategies for managing environmental demands. Seeing people similar to oneself succeed by sustained effort raises observer's beliefs in his/her own capabilities. The failures of others instill self-doubts about one's ability to master similar activities. Studies have shown that academic women and women found in male-dominated professions often have a feeling of isolation and lack role models (Morley, 2005), hence few or no mentors of their gender and the creation of self-doubts and low self-efficacy.

Social persuasion is the third mode of influence. Expressing faith in people's capabilities raises their beliefs that they have what it takes to succeed. But effective efficacy builders do more than convey positive appraisals. They structure activities in ways that bring success and do not place people prematurely in situations likely to bring failure. People also rely partly on inferences from their physical and emotional states in judging their capabilities. Studies have found that academic women often miss out in obtaining social persuasion from the opposite sex, seniors and colleagues, and when they do, there is mutual or social suspicion of sexual intimacy from other colleagues and the community (Heilman, Madeline, Simon and Reper, 1987).

The fourth way of modifying efficacy beliefs is to reduce people's stress and depression, build their physical strength and change misinterpretations of their physical state. Efficacy beliefs exert their effects through their impact on cognitive, motivational and affective processes and on selection of activities and environments (Bandura, 1997). Perceived personal efficacy influences the choices people make, their aspirations, how much effort they mobilise in a given endeavour, how long they persevere in the face of difficulties and setbacks. Whether their thought patterns are self-hindering or self-aiding, the amount of anxiety and stress they experience in coping with tasking and threatening environments, their vulnerability to depression,

and their resilience to adversity, efficacy beliefs play a pivotal role in the exercise of personal agency because they not only operate on behaviour in their own right, but through their impact on other classes of motivators.

The effects of goals, outcome expectations, causal attributions, and perceived environmental opportunities and impediments on motivation are partly governed by beliefs or personal efficacy (Bandura, 1991, 1997). The outcomes people anticipate depend largely on their beliefs of how well they can perform in given situations. Those of high efficacy expect to gain favourable outcomes; those who expect poor performances of themselves conjure up negative outcomes. It is partly on the basis of efficacy beliefs that people choose what goal challenges to undertake, how much effort to invest in the endeavour, and how long to persevere in the face of difficulties. When faced with obstacles, setbacks and failures, studies have suggested that women often invest less in professional endeavour, throw in the towel in the face of difficulties and shy away from leadership positions (Lewin, 2006).

Bandura notes that those who doubt their abilities slacken their efforts and give in, often settle for mediocre solutions. Those who have strong belief in their abilities redouble their effort to master the challenges. Efficacy beliefs influence causal attributions, people who regard themselves as highly efficacious ascribe their failures to insufficient effort, inadequate strategies or unfavourable circumstances. Those of low efficacy attribute their failures to low ability, (Deaux and Emswiler, 1974) found women to be in this category. Efficacy beliefs also play an influential role in how formidable obstacles appear. People of high perceived efficacy view impediments as surmountable: those of low efficacy view them as daunting obstacles over which they can exert little control.

In judging their environmental circumstances, people who are assured in their efficacy focus on the opportunities worth pursuing rather than dwell on risks, and take a future time perspective in structuring their lives (Eppel, Bandura and Zimbardo, 1999; Krueger and Dickson, 1993: 1994). Academic women in Nigeria have often attributed the slow pace of their career to factors they have accepted they cannot change; family responsibilities: motherhood, child rearing and care of the elderly (Oti and Oyelude, 2006).

Efficacy beliefs affect the life paths of men and women though selection processes is most clearly revealed in studies of career choice and development (Bandura, 1997; Hackett, 1995). Occupational choices are of considerable importance because they structure a major part of people's everyday reality, provide them with a source of personal identity and determine their satisfaction and the quality of their work life. Even in the same profession, men and women have been known to follow different paths. For instance in academia, women have been said to prefer teaching to research, and have performed poorly in research and publications, which is a vital element to career growth, (Ramona and Stambach, 2003; Richley and Lingham, 2008).

Efficacy beliefs set the slate of options for serious consideration for example, people rapidly eliminate from consideration, entire classes of vocations on the basis of perceived efficacy, regardless of the benefits they may hold. Those who have a strong sense of personal efficacy consider a wide range of career options, show greater interest in them, prepare themselves better for different careers and have greater staying power in their chosen pursuits (Lent, Brown and Hackett, 1994). Other studies disagree with this notion because even where women have wide a range of options, show great interest; other extraneous variables have worked against them, like child rearing, child care, household chores and spouse's career (Biernat and Wortman, 1991; Odejide, 2006; Mabawonku, 2006).

Moreover, occupational pursuits are extensively gendered; the pervasive stereotypic practices of the various societal subsystems eventually leave their mark on women's beliefs about their occupational efficacy. Male students have a comparable sense of efficacy for both traditionally male and female-dominated occupations. In contrast, female students judge themselves more efficacious for the types of occupations traditionally held by women, but have a weaker sense of efficacy that they can master the educational requirements and job functions of traditionally male gendered occupations, though they do not differ in actual verbal and quantitative ability (Betz and Hackett, 1981).

The disparity in perceived efficacy for male and female-dominated occupations is greatest for women who view themselves as highly feminine, distrust their quantitative capabilities and believe there are few successful female models in traditionally male-dominated occupations, like academia (Matsui, Ikeda and Ohnishi,

1989). Although efficacy beliefs contribute more heavily to occupational preferences than beliefs about the benefits attainable by different pursuits, women base their occupational preferences even more heavily on their perceived efficacy than on the potential benefits the vocations yield (Wheeler, 1983).

Gender differences disappear, when women judge their efficacy to perform the same activities in everyday situations in stereotypically feminine tasks than in the context of male-dominated occupations (Betz and Hackett, 1983; Matsui and Tsukamoto, 1991; Junge and Dretzke, 1995). Such findings suggest that gender related efficacy impediments arise from stereotype linkage rather than actual capabilities. Gender stereotyping of pursuits that suggest lesser ability and diminishes judgments of personal efficacy.

Women's beliefs about their capabilities and career aspirations are shaped by undermining social practices within the family, the educational system, peer relationships, the mass media, the occupational/organisational system and culture at large (Dweck, Davidson, Nelson and Enna, 1978; McGhee and Fruch, 1980; Gettys and Cann, 1981; Hackett and Betz, 1981; Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987; Jacobs, 1989; Eccles, 1989; Phillips and Zimmerman, 1990; Signorielli, 1990; Bandura, 1997). Furthermore, quantitative abilities are an essential entry skill for scientific and technical occupations; a low sense of mathematical self-efficacy operates as a major barrier to a whole range of occupational pursuits requiring quantitative skills. Research conducted by Hackett (1985) provides evidence that perceived efficacy is a central mediator through which socialisation practices and past experience affect educational and career choices.

Gender affects perceived mathematical efficacy through mathematical preparation in high school, mathematical achievement and masculine gender-role orientation. Masculine gender-role orientation and level of mathematical achievement foster math-related educational and career choices through their effects on perceived mathematical efficacy rather than directly. Perceived mathematical efficacy promotes selection of mathematically-orientated educational and career pursuits directly and by lowering vulnerability to anxiety over mathematical activities.

Gender and prior mathematical preparation also have a direct effect on choice of academic major, as in selection of quantitatively-oriented course work; the effect of gender on mathematical performance is mediated through perceived self-efficacy rather than operates directly (Pajares and Miller, 1994). Simply invoking the gender stereotype can undermine women's efficacy to make good use of the mathematical competencies they possess (Steele, 1999). This explains the paucity of women academics in Science and Technology.

Women's lowered sense of mathematical efficacy is, of course, changeable. Mastery experiences eliminate gender differences (Schunk and Lilly, 1984). This might give credence to why there are very few females in core science, engineering and technology departments, both as students and academic staff Erinosh (2005). In focusing on the influential role of perceived efficacy in gender differences in career aspirations and pursuits, one should not lose sight of the earlier discussion that cultural and religious constraints, inequitable incentive systems and truncated opportunity structures shape women's career choice, and growth.

It should also be noted that the variability within sexes exceeds the differences between them. Therefore, modal sex characteristics in perceived efficacy should not be imputed to all members within each sex group. Indeed, women who take a more egalitarian view toward the role of women display a higher sense of efficacy for traditionally male occupations and are more oriented toward such careers in high school and pursue them in college (Hackett, 1985; O' Brien & Fassinger, 1993). They construct different identities and futures for themselves. Perceived self-efficacy predicts career non-traditionality. Here it can be hypothesised that, academic women will be efficacious because they have chosen a non-traditional career.

Gender differences are also evident in the way in which beliefs of personal efficacy affect emotional well-being. For example, women are generally more prone to depression than men, a difference that emerges in late adolescence (Nolen-Hocksema and Girgus, 1994; Culberlson, 1997). Perceived inefficacy to control things one values contributes to depression in several ways and one route is through unfulfilled aspirations (Bandura, 1991; Kanfer and Zeiss, 1983). It is assumed that women in this study would like their career to take them to leadership positions in academia, but many (especially the late comers) will never attain it, some who are qualified to get

there will be held back by stereotypes, negative attitudes of colleagues and perceived discrimination. This study assumes that frustration as a result of inability to attain is likely to cause slow career mobility and inability to reach the apex of their careers.

A second route to depression is through a low sense of social efficacy which refers to social relationships that bring satisfaction and advancement to one's life and career and these make chronic stressors easier to bear (Holahan and Holahan, 1987). Social support in turn produces beneficial effects to the extent that it raises perceived coping efficacy in the face of difficult challenges (Major, Mueller and Hildebrandt, 1985; Cutrona and Troutman, 1986).

The exposition above on self-efficacy theory has been able to explain certain aspects visible in the lives of female academics, it can be deduced from the above that female academics do not attain growth in their career compared to their male colleagues because they lack graded mastery, they have self-doubt about their ability because of paucity of role models, they lack social persuasion because, they do not have good appraisal for equal tasks and hence are not self-motivated so they anticipate negative outcomes expectations.

Pajares and Miller (1994) used path analyses to test the predictive and mediational role of self-efficacy beliefs in mathematical problem solving, using 350 samples. Their results revealed that math self-efficacy was more predictive of problem solving than was math self-concept, perceived usefulness of mathematics, prior experience with mathematics or gender (N = 350). They also found that self-efficacy mediated the effect of gender and prior experience on self-concept, perceived usefulness, and problem solving. Gender and prior experience influenced self-concept, perceived usefulness, and problem solving largely through the mediational role of self-efficacy.

Men had higher performance, self-efficacy, self-concept and lower anxiety, but these differences were due largely to the influence of self-efficacy, for gender had a direct effect only on self-efficacy and a prior experience variable. The result of Pajares and Miller has become controversial as many variables have been suggested for lower efficacy, performance and self-concept in mathematical ability in women among which, is the difference in society's treatment of males and females beginning from pre-school, negative re-enforcement given to girls by both their fathers and peers for playing with "boys" toys, teacher engagement of boys in posing more

questions at them in classroom, the type of question is more open-ended and challenging than those asked girls (Sandler, Silverberg and Hall, 1996; Cihonski, 2003).

Therefore, females have less practice with open-ended problems, leading to less confidence in mathematical and analytical tasks (Franklin, 2005); this leads to narrow career options. Apart from self-efficacy, female's career growth and visibility in leadership have been influenced by other factors like spousal support.

2.2.5 Social Support

Social support has been defined as the "actions of others that are either helpful or intended to be helpful" (Deelstra, Peters, Schaufeli, Stroebe, Zijlstra and Doornen, 2003: 324). It includes a variety of interpersonal behaviours among workers that enhance individuals' psychological or behavioural functioning. These may include mentoring, providing emotional support, assisting others with assigned tasks, and teaching (Hill, Bahniuk, Dobos and Rouner, 1989). Beginning with the earliest need-fulfilment theories of job satisfaction, social support has been identified as a predictor of job satisfaction (Vroom, 1964; Orpen and Pinshaw, 1975; Smither, 1988; Stamps, 1997).

Most researches have found social support to be positively predictive of job satisfaction and other positive outcomes (Winstead, Derlega, Montgomery and Pilkington, 1995; Smith and Tziner, 1998; Harris, Moritzen, Robitschek, Imhoff, and Lynch, 2001). However, there are exceptions to this rule in literature (Ducharme and Martin, 2000). Social support also predicts a variety of negative outcomes, including absenteeism and turnover (Winstead *et al.*, 1995), burnout (Myung-Yong and Harrison, 1998), and depression and anxiety (Olson and Shultz, 1994; El-Bassel, Guterman, Bargal and Su, 1998). Findings may be mixed because the construct of social support is multifaceted (Bahniuk, Dobos and Hill, 1990), the source of support may be a supervisor, mentor, or colleague, spouse, and parents or parent figure; the content of the support may include information, appraisal, assistance with tasks, or emotional support (Bahniuk *et al.*, 1990; Deelstra *et al.*, 2003).

In her quantitative study of the educational histories of 20 female academic biologists, Scholer (1993) found the availability of support networks such as parents, high school and college faculty, spouses, advisors, laboratory supervisors, role

models and peers acted as key factors to their career success as academicians, majority of the subjects in Scholer's respondents were of the view that each time they felt like throwing in the towel, these network of supports were in place to make them forge ahead during periods of frustration and in the face of failure. A few others (numbers not specified) spoke of how lack of support networks has had negative impact on their careers, both as postgraduate students and as academic staff. In the words of one of them:

But I have often felt like, if I'd had more support, I could have done more. I could have done better. ... Usually when you begin publishing in a field, your name is co-author with the senior person who is in that field, and that is your introduction. I have felt that (because of the departure of her postdoctoral adviser) it's taken me about twice as long, or more than equivalently talent people to break in to the field.

Collegial support includes sharing friendships, personal problems and confidence. Bahniuk *et al.* (1990) posit that among business managers, instrumental support and mentoring from colleagues both predicted higher levels of job satisfaction, along with perceived success, managerial level, and income. The relationship between workplace social support and the length of time an employee chooses to remain on the same job (job tenure) has recently been explored. Positive relationships with supervisors have been reported to strongly predict job tenure (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999; Vecchio and Boatwright, 2002; Van Breukelen, Van Der Vlist and Steensma, 2004). Collegial support mentoring and career shadowing has also been found to be rewarding, and determinants of job satisfaction and leadership especially for junior female academics, (Eliason, Berggren and Bondestam, 2000; Oti and Oyelude, 2006).

In their comparative analysis of experiences of women world leaders, Watson, Jencik and Selzer (2001), are of the view that parental influence was strong for female political leaders especially the influence of their politician fathers, as many of them came from political families where fathers or mothers were national leaders. According to Watson, *et al.* (2001) such family connections to the office exist for many women world leaders in both modern times and rulers from antiquity. The Russian Empress Alexandra, who ruled from 1915 to 1917, governed in her husband's absence when Nicholas II was away in battle, she was the daughter of Queen

Victoria.

In modern times, Benazir Bhutto who headed Pakistan, an Islamic nation, was the daughter of the country's former leader. Other examples of women who were perceived to receive support from either parents or spouses and made success or are making success out of their various political careers include; Maria Corazon Aquino of the Philippines, Megawati Sukarnopatri of Indonesian, daughter of first Indonesia's president (Eklof, 1999). An example is that of America's only female presidential candidate, Hilary Rodham-Clinton, (now Secretary of States) whose husband was a former president of the United States. One key parental support given to all women political leaders by their parents (Watson *et al.*, 2001), is education. All the women were highly educated, had various degrees including post graduate and doctoral degrees and also attended prestigious western universities.

Spousal support in this study is viewed from the premise of husbands' emotional, physical and other support that would positively enhance or impede the careers of academic women. Such support is associated with reduced perceived work/home conflict (Oti and Oyelude, 2006), increased job and life satisfaction and enhanced perceptions of control and few stress-related health problems. Studies have reiterated that women are more likely to seek social support than men and tend to demonstrate greater health benefits from it.

Researches have shown that balancing career and parenthood is a challenging task for women and men from all careers. Balancing parenthood and a successful career in academia holds unique challenges, especially for women who often report greater demands in terms of child care and family obligations (Piotrkowski, Rapoport and Rapoport, 1989; Dressel and Clark, 1990; Oti and Oyelude, 2006). Other studies regarding the importance of spousal or partner support corresponds with previous research on work/family stress that has found marital-role quality (Baruch and Barnett, 1986; Barnett, Marshall, Raudenbush and Brennan, 1993; Milkie and Peltola, 1999) and spousal support of career specifically (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985) to be associated with lower levels of work/family conflict and career progression.

In their study of the impact of family supportive policies and practices on organisation commitment, Bourg and Segal (1999) argue that in general, the support that the military provides to families had a positive effect on officers' wives. However

the measures of Army policy supportiveness had no significant effect on wives' commitment. Nonetheless their findings reinforce the idea that supportive policies and leaders are important for the development of commitment of officers to the military organisation.

Other studies have reiterated that men receive more support than they give and are more committed to work for this reason. Findings reveal that female veterinarians have higher levels of marital, family stress and less perceived spousal support of career than males (Philips-Miller, Campbell and Morrison, 2000). For many professional women who are married and living with a spouse, success is dependent on the grace and favour of the spouse, Alele-Williams (1993), corroborated by Mabawonku, (2006) point out that it is virtually impossible for academic women in Nigeria to manage their dual roles without the support of the husband, Mabawonku is of the opinion that academic career is easier for women who have academics as husbands.

In Arab States and India, women generally require the permission of the primary male to work. Squinting indicators of traditional value systems are seen in industrialised countries as well. In North America and Europe, where the husband's career is generally considered primary, Featherman (1996) notes that women still carry the burden of domestic responsibilities and plan their careers around those of their husbands, though this pattern is changing slowly, more couples are beginning to share domestic responsibilities and juggling careers with great ingenuity and at cost to personal relationships. This however, may not be too far fetched from current economic realities in regions of the world, including Nigeria.

Aside from the aforementioned studies that examined the influence of parents on their children's career choice, aspiration, and success, Humts and Marotz Baden (2003) explain the basic management systems model of inputs, throughputs and outputs in a family setting. Bowen's (1976) family systems concepts are pertinent in understanding the possible influence (negative or positive) of parents, siblings and home environment on the leadership development of women presidents. Contrary wise, Hildreth and Mancuso (1999) posit that from a system perspective, one cannot consider the development of a single child without assuming that the behaviour of any one part of a system (e.g. parents, siblings, and home environment) will influence and be influenced by all other parts of the system.

Madsen (2006) posits that all 25 women in her qualitative study remembered their childhoods as warmth of their relationships with their parents and they assumed a special role in their parents' eyes. These interviewees identified more with fathers, which appears to have more importance for their success. They tended to look down on their mothers. According to the author, Chief Executive Officers' recollections of their mothers were "vague and generalised" while the father-daughter relationship was central in the development of skills, abilities and prospective needed to be successful leaders, especially at that period.

According to Madsen (2006), these women did not see their mothers perform any leadership role they could identify with, all of their mothers were house wives except one (whose mother was a teacher), this is in spite of the fact that 13 of the mothers' education was superior to the fathers', this means that not all educated women who have superior education to those of their husbands engage in paid employment. Reasons for this are not subject of this study.

In another study, Hentz (1982) posits that mother's career involvement is very important, she submits that career involved women tend to have mothers pursuing traditional occupations. Daughters who have career involved mothers perceive it is important to their mothers that they pursue a career, this notwithstanding; they do not appear to have a close relationship with their mothers since they perceive their mothers as too critical and unfair to them Hentz (1982). Reason for this may be due to the Oedipus complex concept put forward by Freud (1933), which was discussed in the background.

In this review of social support, the importance of parents, spouses, relatives and colleagues have been explored but not much has been done employing the effects of social support variables on the career growth and leadership of academic women.

2.2.6 Women's Career Growth and Leadership Positions

Observations and studies have affirmed that the careers of female academics are different from those of their male counterparts, as they are often faced with peculiar challenges of slow career mobility, stagnation, attrition and low representation in the field of science, engineering and low representation in high echelons of academic management.

In order for women to grow in their career and assume the position of leadership, either in politics, economy, education, especially higher education, they require high qualifications and sustained career progression. Some of the literature reported studies of women who generally had linear career paths as they rose through the ranks to become leaders (White, 2003). Walton (1996) submits that the careers of United States women were traditional steps up the academic ladder. Yet, literature (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2003; Waring, 2003) also report that women leaders had informal or nonlinear paths. Women in the study of Madsen, (2006) did not intentionally look or apply for leadership positions and were sometimes reluctant to take up these positions, when offered. Hartman (1999) however concludes there was no single formula or path to leadership.

Literature also addresses gender differences in the careers of men and women, Hojgaard (2002) asserts that women achieve their leadership positions via professional and middle management jobs and that “a higher proportion of the male leaders start their top-leadership career from a broader range of jobs” (p. 25). Henning and Jardim (1977) argue that “women see a career as personal growth, self-fulfilment, satisfaction, making a contribution to others, doing what one wants to do, while men undoubtedly want these things too, they however, visualise a career as a series of jobs, progression of jobs, a path leading upward with recognition and reward implied” (p. 14). Radin (1980) reports most enriching developmental experiences of women’s life experiences.

It was concluded that successful women leaders did not intentionally look for leadership positions (Madsen, 2007) but worked hard in their current jobs and performed to the best of their abilities. All said that each position provided them the opportunity to learn and develop essential knowledge and competencies which inform imperative for success; yet, every woman took a different path. Madsen’s research supports the notion that various career paths can lead to top leadership positions in academia. Some researchers argue that women should decide early and plan more direct career paths toward their intended leadership goals.

In their study of male and female heads of schools, Chesterman, Ross-Smith and Peters (2007) asserted that the academic careers of men and women follow different pathways. They reiterated that men are more mobile and gain promotion through their ability to change institutions. One of their male respondents, a Dean,

described “conventional” academic career as “going from one place to another every five to seven years, even changing country between those positions.” On the other hand, women in their study were less mobile, had been in the same institutions for years. Only three of the women interviewed mentioned experience in overseas positions; three mentioned appointments at universities interstate. Feminist analyses suggest that male careers are always more likely to take precedence over women’s career within a relationship and a dual career marriage.

Chersterman (2004) also posits that women start academic careers late, sometimes after child-rearing. A female Deputy Vice-Chancellor explained the negative career implications of this, particularly considering the traditional emphasis given to research and publication in promotions:

Often female academics come in slightly later. They haven't got that tradition of leave school, go to university, get honours, go into a PhD, become a tutor and do your research and by the time you are 30, you are ready to take on a management position. A lot of females come in later, start to do all their degrees and always take on administrative and management jobs because they are good at it. You're doing it all. But then you have a research profile that is not as vibrant as the male who had spent ten years devoted to research.

Reviewing the careers of female economists, Khan, (1993) using survey method, found females to begin their careers in academia late and are more likely to enter other sectors, of those who enter academia directly after receiving PhD, women are less likely to enter tenure – track job. Only 58.1 per cent of females enter tenure track job, while 73.3 per cent of men do, females have a more difficult time receiving tenure and take longer achieving it. The median time for tenure was seven years for males but ten for females; (1993) found no gender differences in the promotion to full professor.

The careers of the women world leaders studied in Watson *et al.*, (2001) did not follow a uniform pattern. Six of the ten women world leaders in their study rose progressively from low to high political cadre either through appointment or election, Two out of this six remained in one position of member of parliament, 4 others rose from house-wives to political leaders and through the influence of their late husbands, became the party opposition leaders and prime ministers respectively.

The careers of women in general have been subject of discourse among researchers. Some of the literature reported studies of women who generally rose through the ranks to become leaders. White (2003) posits that women who attained leadership roles in universities in Australia “merely replicated the behaviour” of a narrow management profile and were often tokens (p.50). Walton (1996) studied women presidents/educational leaders from the United States (U.S.) and United Kingdom (U.K.). White found that the careers of U.S. women were, in general, ‘steps up to the academic ladder: faculty member, departmental chair, academic dean or vice president’. Clark, Caffarella, and Ingram (1999) cited in Madsen (2007) interviewed 23 mid-level women managers from education, corporate organisations and religious ministries and found that twice as many women in their research described their career paths as linear; however, most of the women in their study were single. The question is would the result have been different if they were married?

Literature reports findings of women leaders having informal and emerging careers. Aldoory (1998) cites in Madsen 2007, corroborates that many of the participants in her study (public relations leaders) stated they did not intentionally look for leadership positions. They took on responsibility but claimed they did not aspire to official leadership positions. Hill and Ragland (1995) cited in Madsen (2007) studied women educational leaders but did not find commonalities in their career; they concluded that (at least for women in their study) there was no norm in terms of job sequencing to reach top levels of school leadership.

Waring (2003) interviewed six African American College Presidents and reported they followed more informal career paths, they were termed reluctant leaders. The women in Waring’s study became administrators in one of two ways, they were “drafted” by others who identified their leadership potentials and helped to develop it, or they were interested in improving the educational opportunities for students, primarily minority students, and took administrative position where they felt they could have an “impact” (p.37). After they entered administration, they worked hard and their “record of success propelled them steadily upward” (p.37).

In a similar study, Hartman (1999) interviewed a variety of women leaders, including those serving at the educational institutions, and concluded that there was “no single formula for leadership, nor a single path to leadership” (p.246). Other

findings have reiterated the fact that women often do not plan their careers as men do. On the contrary, Cheng, (1988) and Vinnicombe and Singh (2003) posited that women are at a disadvantaged point because of their other roles.

The summary of the above findings reveal that the path to career growth for women and men are different. Women often do not go out to seek leadership positions and sometimes are reluctant to lead. They are slow at moving up, especially when they have little children. It is interesting to note that there are few studies emanating from the Nigerian locality, where different cultures, economy, and other variables influencing females' career growth and leadership position.

2.2.7 Organisational Climate and Women's Career

Climate can be described as 'the unwritten rules' or 'the way things are around here'. It is a complex blend of attitudes, behaviour, expectations, policies and norms that affect motivations and behaviours (Idogho, 2006; Gul, 2008), within every organisation, a climate exists. Within every team or workgroup a micro-climate exists and factors such as leadership style, levels of trust, power, bureaucracy, attitude, inclusion, fairness and all contribute to the measurement of organisational climate.

Research has shown that positive organisational climate and the presence of friends or family at a particular work site have been reported to predict employee retention (Pizam & Ellis, 1999; Milman, 2003; Van Breukelen *et al.*, 2004). The general climatic condition in the university is that few women are employed in academic positions compared to men; therefore, increase numbers of women cannot be expected at management level. Data from Peru, provided by Zamora (1993) noted that in spite of the difficulties that women face in gaining access to education, there are women well-qualified for academic positions who nevertheless fail to be selected. "A man is preferred because he is a man" Zamora (1993). Zamora submitted that appointment and promotion in University are discriminatory; this can be a hindrance to career growth.

A study by Idogho (2006) investigates academic staff perception of organisational climate in universities in Edo State, Nigeria. The sample for the study was made up of 1025 participants drawn from three universities in Edo State. From the data, it was revealed that academic staff in universities in Edo State perceived the

organisational climate of their institutions as favourable; but there was a significant difference among academic staff in their perception based on sex, age and status.

Nesbitt *et al.* (2001) revealed that the results from a faculty survey show that female faculty members differ from male faculty members in their thoughts about separating from academic appointments and in the factors that might be connected with these thoughts. It seems important to realise that female as compared to male faculty members - perceive the situation of women faculty in general as being worse than the situation of male faculty. More importantly, women faculty members report more personal discrimination concerning distribution of resources, career opportunities and sexual harassment than male faculty members. Their results are significant for any administrator who reflects on future faculty shortages and remedies for this problem.

The present study would want to know the predictability of organisational climate on female academics' career growth and leadership position.

2.2.8 Attitudes towards Women in Careers and Leadership

People generally have been accustomed to the familiar role of women in the society, but recently, women have begun to make in-roads to the world of work as well as being visible (though in small numbers) in leadership positions. In view of this, there are diverse public reactions towards women in careers and leadership. Few studies have sort to understand this trend (Hammond *et al.* 1993) in a descriptive study of Women in Higher Education Management in the Arab region showed that 72 per cent of their respondents do not have any preference of working with male or female superiors. 15 per cent prefer to work for men and 8 per cent prefer to work for women.

With regard to working with subordinates, 70 per cent of the respondents said they have positive relationships with both male and female subordinates, who behave on the basis of respect, cooperation and understanding however, 14 per cent of them from Arab Gulf Area, said men are rather sensitive to having a woman as superior and do not trust her aptitudes even if she is much more qualified than them and if she is much more qualified than them, they implicitly reject her leadership. This result may be due to the Islamic religious culture of Arab Gulf, since women are predominantly secluded from men and public arenas.

In exploring attitude towards women managers in Turkey and Pakistan, Guney, Gohar, Akinci, and Akinci (2006) find significant differences in several managerial attitudes between these two countries' respondents, both women and men in Turkey have a negative attitude toward women managers when compared to Pakistani respondents. In contrast to earlier findings, women's attitudes towards women managers in Turkey were more negative than that of men; while Pakistani women have more favourable attitudes than Turkish women toward women managers. Also Pakistani men showed more positive attitudes toward women managers than Turkish men.

The favourable attitude of Pakistani men may be explained by Pakistani culture. To criticise or object to administrators/leaders is not a prevailing tradition in Pakistan, whatever the sex of a leader is, because of this tradition; people in Pakistan tend to show positive attitudes toward their leaders and executives. Pakistan's late Ex-Prime Minister, Benazir Bhutto stated this in a speech she gave to BBC:

It was only when I came to Oxford and Harvard that, suddenly I saw the power of people. I didn't know such a power existed. I saw people criticising their president. You couldn't do that in Pakistan- you'd be thrown in prison.

Pakistani men's positive attitude toward women leaders may have been informed from the cultural disposition of accepting their leaders without inhibition, irrespective of sex, ethnicity or other social divide. It should however be noted that in spite of this culture of "respect" for their leaders; Benazir Bhutto was brutally murdered by leftists in Pakistan.

2.2.9 Women in Academic Leadership Positions.

Academic leadership can be divided into three primary areas: research, teaching and administration, with some persons combining two or all three. Ostendorf, Lawrence, Nortkin, Smith, Johnson, and Denton (2005) asserted that Leadership in research involves good research work; having a vision of what could be accomplished through a strong team effort and having good interpersonal skills to motivate and bring colleagues together.

Leadership in academia generally involves quality teaching, scholarly work, administrative duties and community service. This includes a variety of positions that involve managing groups of various sizes and compositions such as Department Chair/HOD, Associate HOD, Academic and Associate Dean, Dean of undergraduate and graduate schools, the Chair of the Faculty, Chair of Senate, and Director of research centres, Vice-President, Provost, Associate provosts, and the Vice-Chancellor. Irrespective of whether the leadership role is in research, education, administration or some combination, there are responsibilities related to strategic planning, team building, fund raising and budgeting (Ostendorf *et al.* 2005) which requires skill and commitment.

Studies have attempted to investigate the paucity of women at the three levels of academic leadership, especially at administrative level. Cohn (2007) observed that the United States continues to fall behind countries such as China and India in producing high-level female scientists, Cohn points out that one immediate and obvious solution would be to take advantage of the many women who have obtained doctoral degrees in science but have been passed over in their attempts to rise to the position of tenured professor.

According to Cohn's (2007) review of *'too few women in sciences achieving academic leadership positions'*, lack of women in academic leadership positions can be attributed to a combination of "unconscious biases" and "archaic university structures." She pointed to the antiquated tenure system of universities in America, Canada and Australia in which women are often held back from advancing to tenured professorships because of child-bearing and family responsibilities, as being in need of reform.

Cohn, (2007) suggests that relatively simple and straightforward changes such as tenure clock extensions, quality childcare or job-sharing could enable an existing pool of talented and capable women scientists move into the upper echelons of academia and scientific research and boost America's competitiveness in research output across various scientific and engineering disciplines. Aside from the influence of parents shaping the careers and leadership aspiration of their daughters; others studies found collegial support to be a predictive factor to the career advancement of men and women (Nesbitt, Inglehart and Sinkford, 2001). Oti and Oyelude (2006)

found mentoring to be a determinant of female academics' career advancement. Apart from the influence of social support, the climate of the organisation in which people work influences their behaviours and attitudes.

The influence of organisational structure on women's career has been extensively studied (Kanter, 1977; Fawcett and Pringle, 2000). These studies have emphasised the systemic barriers to women's career experience and advancement. These research streams suggest that beliefs and attitudes held by the organisation, including women not being viewed as leaders, as well as contextual features, such as organisational structure, are the principal barriers that impact on women's low status in career and leadership positions (Jackson, 2001). However the influence of organisational climate on academic women's career growth and leadership has not been adequately explored.

2.2.10 Appraisal of Reviewed Literature

From the reviewed literature it is evident that there are more males than females in Academic Profession in Nigeria and there are very few women in academic leadership positions. It is also evident that there are marked differences in the career experience, development, and growth of both genders in the university system. Research has also proven that although there are overt and covert gender issues permeating the Nigerian University system; much of the literature reviewed are foreign. Some of the studies that emanated from Nigeria had their focus on participants in the industries; while employing similar variables.

Other studies focused mainly on the effects of the independent variables of this study on the career aspiration, career choice, leadership, mathematical achievement of subjects like college students, student nurses and female executives in industries and women in academic medicine. Some of the reviewed works are also dated and are not located geographically within the Nigerian context and culture, therefore some of their findings needed to be re-tested given the differences in culture and methodology. The reviewed studies established some already known facts about low representation of women in academics; but did not give possible cause and effect this might have on female academics' career growth and leadership positions in the University system.

Therefore, this study attempted to make up for this gap by not only making an empirical contribution to literature in the areas discussed; but also in relation to career experiences of academic women in Nigerian Universities.

2.2.11 Rationale for Qualitative Research

This part of the study made use of qualitative approach. In-depth interviews were conducted to complement the quantitative data. This was with the aim of capturing what the quantitative data was unable to capture. It explored how self-esteem, self-efficacy, spousal support, collegial support, parental influence and organisational climate influence female academics' careers and leadership positions. The investigation was phenomenological in approach, allowing for the lived experiences of the phenomenon to be analysed for underlying meanings. This is with the view that traditional approaches were sometimes not enough to frame the experiences of this group.

Qualitative inquiry was adopted to complement the quantitative aspect of the study. This was done to “contribute to a greater understanding of perceptions, attitudes, and processes” (Glesne, 1999: p. 24). This method of data gathering was preferred because the goal of this study was exploration of the lived experiences of female professors as it relates to peculiar factors revolving around their careers and experiences as leaders in academia. The study lent itself not only to a positivist paradigm that measures known and quantifiable variables, but to a constructivist or naturalistic paradigm – one that describes unquantifiable aspects such as perceptions, emotions and experiences (Guba and Lincoln, 2000). Meanings can be “varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views” (Creswell, 2003, p. 8).

Creswell (1998) and Guba and Lincoln (2000) set out several axioms that differentiate rationalistic inquiry that is quantitative from the naturalistic inquiry that is qualitative (Creswell 1998; Guba and Lincoln 2000). These axioms are knowledge claims made about the nature of reality and truth by both rationalistic and naturalistic perspectives respectively. To explain further, these axioms are belief statements that researchers following either of the two approaches will necessarily adopt in designing their study. What is the nature of being (ontology), for instance? While in the rationalistic approach, reality is single and convergent, in the naturalistic approach

reality is subjective, multiple and possibly divergent. Quantitative studies look for the one correct answer to a problem while qualitative studies are open to answers that are varied, textural, and sometimes even conflicting.

The second axiom has to do with the nature of truth statements. In quantitative studies, these are context free and focused on similarities; in qualitative studies, these are context-bound and focused on differences. Accordingly, quantitative studies, most of the time, seek to control and manipulate variables and create laboratory situations whereas qualitative approaches seek no control and examine their questions in lived contexts or real life situations.

With the third axiom, in quantitative approaches, actions are manipulated so as to explain causes; in qualitative approaches actions are relational and interactive. The idea in quantitative research is to separate variables as much as possible in order to determine causes in the true experimental designs. When this cannot be precisely done as in quasi – experimental studies, correlational relationships are sought. Therefore, in most educational studies, where effect of the variables cannot be isolated, correlations are explored.

The fourth axiom states that the inquirer/respondent relationship is independent in quantitative approaches unlike qualitative studies where this relationship is inter-related; one example of the latter is participant observer research. The fifth school of thought sees quantitative research as value-free process whereas qualitative research is value-laden (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003b). The researcher reports and explains any biases present in the process of doing qualitative inquiry.

It is left to the researcher to choose which design best fit his/her method of inquiry, more important, the nature of the questions asked as well as the kinds of answers should determine which approach the researcher may adopt. In this case, the goals and purposes of this study were aligned to the naturalistic design. For example, one of the assumptions in this study was the nature of gender relationships that exist between male and female academics and the construction of gender in the academic system of universities in South Western Nigeria as it affect female academics' career, as well as construction of gender in the parental and conjugal homes the women emanate from.

Qualitative research seeks truth that is context bound and focused on uncovering as many different perspectives as are existent in the context(s); moreover, these differences may be as interesting as similarities and sometimes even more so (Guba and Lincoln, 2000). Meanings arise out of participants' social histories and interactions with human communities. Consequently the importance of meaning that emerged out of human interaction was a knowledge claim made in this study.

Creswell (1998) summarised some criteria that addressed knowledge claims for qualitative research in methodological and rhetorical claims. Qualitative inquiring is more suited to investigations done in natural settings (for example, ethnography and case studies) and the researcher functions as an instrument for collection of data (for example, using interviews and observations). Also data are collected in words and pictures (interviews, artefacts, and documents) are analysed inductively (from details to universal tenses). Finally, qualitative research describes a process and is expressed in language that is persuasive, clear, and engaging, possibly yielding unexpected ideas. The design of this qualitative aspect met these criteria. This research sought to question the academia and the way female professors experience it, as well as other variables that shape their careers and leadership. This leads us to the design strategy of this study, which is phenomenology. Rationale for conducting a phenomenological survey. Moustakas (1994) stated:

Phenomenology is the first method of knowledge because it begins with things themselves; it is also the final court of appeal . . . As far back as I can remember, I have sought to know the truth of things through my own intuition and perception, learning from my own direct experience and from awareness and reflections that would bring meanings to light. The most significant understanding that I' have come to, I have not achieved from books or from others, but initially, at least, from my own direct perceptions, observations and intuitions (p. 41).

Though the above remarks by Moustakas (1994) may sound rather too self-focused, in reality they referenced not just the researcher but also the participants in a phenomenological study, who wanted to learn from their own experiences. More important the remarks gave credence to the power of direct or concrete experience as a unit of meaning and intuition or reflection as a process of achieving that meaning in

this study. To clarify further on the importance of direct experience, phenomenology forced the question of different perspectives (Giorgi, 2001) considering that life was complex, people's experiences were assumed not to be always the same and therefore, phenomenology required that actual and individual experiences were investigated.

Phenomenology deals with experience at the "pre-reflective" stage that is, before we conceptualise, categorise or reflect on it (Van Manen, 1990: p. 5), with this statement, Van Manen captured the beginning stages of any phenomenological study...an account of the phenomenon. No theories to explain behaviour are presented, but the pure details of the phenomenon are given first. The experience is lived first, reflection is made in retrospect, not in introspect. The participants in this study shared their experiences as female academics retrospectively and many times would begin answering a question in the in-depth interview with "I hadn't thought about that. "Leadership means different things to different people", "but for me"...

Similarly, phenomenologist stresses epoch, the bracketing of pre-conceived notions about the phenomenon. During data gathering, phenomenologist focuses on relevant meaning for the study. The word, phenomenology, comes from the Greek word *phaenesthai* which means to flare up, show itself, appear (Moustakas 1994: 26). Furthermore, Van Manen explicated phenomenology as the "systematic attempt to uncover and describe the structures, the internal meaning, structures of lived experience" (1990: p. 10) after we access that world through consciousness.

This means that through the lived experiences, underlying meanings as they relate to the variables of study were constructed. Phenomenology, however, is not an explication of one's biography or life history nor is it ethnography – study of cultures (ethnography), nor of a group (sociology). Its primary distinguishing feature is that it seeks the meanings derived from a chosen phenomenon or experiences even as it takes into "account the sociological and historical traditions that have given meaning to ways of being in the world... of fulfilling what it means to be human" (Van Manen, 1990: p. 12).

In fact, Dezin and Lincoln (2003b) described this examination of people's history and intellectual traditions by qualitative researchers as tension-laden. Part of the goal of this study was to examine the breadth and depth of the lives of the participants as they related to variables of the study. In a sense, when we use

phenomenology, we want to first describe the career development of female academics. This is why Huberman, & Miles, (2002) explain the importance of descriptive and interpretative validity in writing up a study. While the descriptive captures the direct data, interpretive data has to seek meaning. Consequently, the researcher had to remove loaded words at the descriptive stage; such words that were removed were considered value judgement.

In summary, a phenomenological study describes the meaning of the lived experiences for several individuals about a concept or the phenomenon. The phenomena here are key variables of this study in both dependent and independent variables. The major tool for exploring the experiences of the participants in this study is in-depth interview guide.

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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the design and methodology of the study, it investigated how psychological factors (Self-esteem and Self-efficacy). Social Factors (Parental Influence, Spousal Support, Collegial Support, and Attitude towards Women) and Organisational Climate Factors (Fairness, Inclusion and Climate) predicted female academics' career growth and leadership positions in selected Universities in South-West Nigeria. The chapter covers the various aspects of research design, selection of samples and rationale for choice of samples, variables in the study, instruments adopted, procedure for the study, scoring and data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

This study adopted a descriptive research design of the *ex-post facto* type. This was considered appropriate for the study because the researcher did not manipulate any of the variables in the study. Close-ended questionnaires were constructed to elicit responses from female academics, male academics as well as members of Appointments and Promotions Committees in each university. This is the quantitative approach adopted; the study is also qualitative in some respect; in-depth interviews were conducted with female professors in each of the six Universities.

3.1.2 Variables

The following independent and dependent variables groupings are involved in this study namely:

Independent Variables of Study

Psychological Variables

Self-Esteem

Self-Efficacy

Social Variables

- Spousal Support
- Academic Men's Collegial Support
- Parental Influences
- Academic Men Attitudes towards Women

Organisational Climate

- Fairness
- Work Climate
- Inclusion

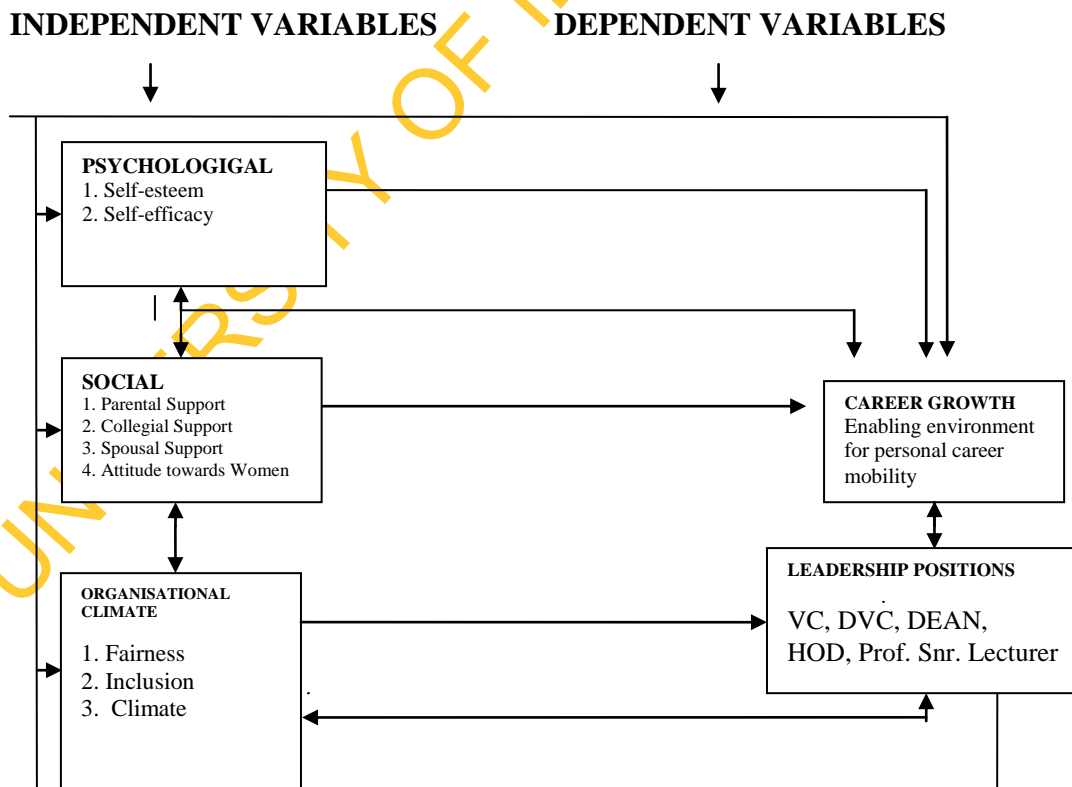
Dependent Variables

- Career growth
- Leadership Positions

3.1.3: Illustration of Variables

The data contained in figure 3.1 illustrates the explanation and classification and interactions of these variables.

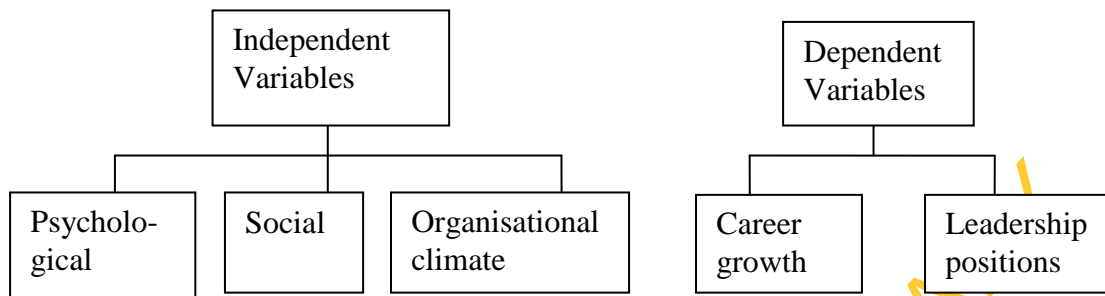
Figure 3.1: Conceptual Illustration of Variables



Source: conceived by the researcher.

Figure 3.2: Variables of the Study

The following independent and dependent variables' groupings are employed in this study, namely:



Source: conceived by the researcher.

3.2 Population of the Study

The population of study included female academics from graduate assistants to professors in six universities from South-western Nigeria, senior academic men and members of appointments and promotions committees.

3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Techniques of the Study

A multi stage sampling technique was employed for the study. The first stage involved the listing of all approved universities in Nigeria. The second stage was the extraction and stratification of Universities in South West of the country. Purposive technique was employed in the selection of six oldest universities in each State of the South-western Nigeria. This was under the assumption that they will have adequate number of academic women needed for the sample. Incidentally, the oldest Universities in the region are four federal and two state universities out of five federal and nine state universities in the southwest as at the time of data collection, this represents 45 per cent of the University population. Purposive sampling was used to select academic women; being the major focus of the study. However, in each of the Universities, stratified random technique was employed in the selection of respondents. List of names of academic staff, their faculties and departments were obtained from the registrars' offices. The names of those qualified to be involved in the study were extracted and wrapped in ballot papers. The ballots were selected at random, giving equal opportunity to everyone to be selected. Those whose names were picked participated in the study.

As regards the quantitative survey, the researcher intended to administer questionnaires to six hundred female academics from Assistant Lecturer to Professor. They were purposively selected because they are the major focus of the study. Proportionate stratified random sampling was used in their selection from each of the Universities. Five hundred and eighty seven samples (587) were selected. However, five hundred and eleven (511) questionnaires were returned and analysed for the female academics. Three hundred male academics from senior lecturer to professor were disproportionately selected (fifty from each university) under the assumption that they are colleagues of academic women. Ten members of the Appointment and Promotion Committee from each university were purposively selected, because appointment and promotion are key determinants of career growth. Table 3.1 shows an illustration of the sample procedure explored.

3.3.1 In-depth Interview Size

The researcher planned to interview thirty female professors (FPs), but on getting to the field, some Universities did not have up to five (FPs). Consequently, she interviewed twenty seven. They were selected using stratified random sampling. The following universities were involved: University of Ibadan, University of Lagos, Obafemi Awolowo University (OAU) and Olabisi Onabanjo University (OOU). Absolute numbers were used in the Federal University of Technology Akure (FUTA) and University of Ado-Ekiti (UNAD).

Table 3.1: Sample Distribution

University	Total Academic	No of Female	No of Male	Sample Female Academic	Sample Male Academic	Total Female Prof.	Female Prof. sample
UI	1156	285	871	128	50	47	5
OOU	814	213	601	86	50	15	5
UNILAG	847	215	632	66	50	22	5
OAU	1150	450	700	146	50	10	5
FUTA	462	64	398	42	50	4	3
UNAD	273	76	197	43	50	4	4

(Source: Researcher's field work data)

UI- University of Ibadan
 OOU- Olabisi Onabanjo University
 UNILAG- University of Lagos
 OAU- Obafemi Awolowo University
 FUTA- Federal University of Technology
 UNAD- University of Ado-Ekiti

Table 3.2: Selected Universities in South-western Nigeria.

S/N	Federal Universities	State
1	University of Ibadan	Oyo
2	Obafemi Awolowo University	Osun
3	University of Lagos, Akoka	Lagos
4	Federal University of Technology Akure	Ondo
	State Universities	
5	Olabisi Onabanjo University	Ogun
6	University of Ado-Ekiti.	Ekiti

(Source: Researcher's field work data)

3.4 Research Instruments

Five research instruments with 149 questions were used to collect data for the study.

They were:

1. Psychological Factors Instruments; comprising of Self-esteem (Developed by Adanijo and Oyefeso (1986) and Self-efficacy (Jerusalem and Schwarzer in 1981, adopted and modified by the researcher) scales.
2. Social Factors Instruments: comprising of spousal support (developed by the researcher), parental influence (developed by the researcher), academic men collegial support (developed by the researcher) and academic men attitude towards women (Adapted from Spence, Helmrich & Stapp, (1978)) scales.
3. Organisational Climate Factors Instruments: comprising work climate, fairness and inclusion (Adapted from Nesbitt, Inglehart & Sinkford (2001) and Work Climate Survey (2001) by Healthy Culture and the Human Resource Institute).
4. Academic Women's Career Growth Questionnaire. (Developed by the researcher).
5. Academic Women's Perception of Leadership Position Questionnaire. (Developed by the researcher).

3.4.1 Questionnaires and In-depth Interviews

The data for the study was collected through five sets of structured questionnaire; they are Psychological Factors Questionnaire (PFQ), Social Factors

Questionnaire (SFQ) and Organisational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ), Career Growth Questionnaire (CGQ), and Leadership Position Questionnaire (LPQ). They were drawn on a Four Point Likert Scale rating SA = 4 strongly Agree, A = 3 Agree, D = 2 Disagree, SD = 1 strongly Disagree. Demographic information were directed at the female academics, this had components numbered 1-17. The PFQ focused on issues of self-concepts, that is: self-esteem and self-efficacy of academic women. The SFQ had to do with factors external to the women, but based on their relationship with Colleagues, Spouses, Parents and general attitude of the opposite sex to career academic women. The OCQ is focused at appointment and promotion committees in a bid to elicit responses on the question of fairness, inclusion and work climate of the University.

3.4.2 Selection of Participants

Participants in the qualitative aspect were Female Professors (FPs). List of faculties with the number of female professors were obtained from each University's Registrar's office, names of (FPs) their faculties and departments were obtained, from the list, where there were more (FPs) ballot sampling technique was used, where they were few; total number was selected. Each (FP) was purposively selected to ensure that faculties were represented. Where selected (FPs) were unavailable or indisposed; they were replaced with the ones available. Some of the female professors were reached through link from other academics and non-academic staff (key informants). Respondents in each of these universities were interviewed based on availability and readiness to respond to the researcher, appointments were booked and interviews took place on various dates of the appointments, some of the appointments were however cancelled by some of the FPs as they had to attend to pressing assignments.

Male academics were selected using stratified random sampling technique and ballot. List of academics were obtained from the registrars' offices, names of male lecturers were extracted and ballot was used to select fifty from each university. List of designations and names of appointment and promotion committee members were obtained from the registrars' offices, from which alternate names were selected.

3.4.3 In-depth Interview Guide

In-depth Interview Guide was developed by the researcher after reading literature on ethnographic and qualitative studies on women's career and leadership experience (Alele-Williams, 1993; Chesterman, 2003; Chovwen, 2004; Madsen, 2006). These comprise Section A, fifteen demographic information, Section B, thirty (30) open-ended statements which were administered on female professors. Items covered and elicited responses on key variables of the study: psychological, social and organisational climate. Items that were originally constructed were forty (40), after it went through face, content and construct validity, all ambiguity were removed.

Responses were obtained through verbal interviews with each selected subject. All interviews were recorded with the use of digital audio tape and these were transcribed. Demographic information was analysed using descriptive statistics. All interview phrases and statements were grouped thematically and numeric values were allocated to primary themes that emerged from the classifications, these were merged. The merged items were scored by simple percentages and frequency counts. Statements that were considered as key and significant to the findings were quoted verbatim.

3.5 Validity of Questionnaires

In carrying out the validation of the questionnaires, the researcher with the guidance of her supervisor ensured that all the questions were related to the objectives of the study. The researcher's supervisor and other lecturers in the Department of Teacher Education, Faculty of Education as well as lecturers from the Faculty of the Social Sciences of the University of Ibadan critiqued the questionnaires. Content validity of the questionnaires was determined through comments of the experts that reviewed them. These comments assisted the researcher in correcting and improving the questionnaires before the final draft was compiled and administered.

3.6 Reliability of the Instruments

The reliability of the instrument was determined through a pilot study of 50 randomly selected respondents from two privately owned universities; namely Bowen University, Iwo and Lead City University, Ibadan. Reliability Coefficient was obtained using Cronchbach alpha. Psychological (R=0.82), Social (R=0.87), Organisational

Climate ($R=0.84$), Career Growth ($R=0.79$) and Academic Leadership Questionnaires ($r=0.84$). Data were analysed using multiple regression. These were complemented with in-depth interviews with 27 Female Professors; qualitative data were analysed using quasi-statistics, which process is explained under data analysis.

3.7 Method of Qualitative Data Collection

The primary tool for collection of qualitative data was interview; the format of the interviews was open-ended and semi-structured interview format which allowed for “individual respondents to define the world in unique ways” (Marriam, 1998: 74). Each interview lasted between forty five and ninety minutes. Each interview was transcribed by the researcher as suggested by Seidman (1998). Interviewing afforded the researcher “the opportunity to learn about what you cannot see and to explore alternative explanations of what you do see” (Glesne, 1999: p. 69). In addition, interviews allowed for the “serendipitous learning’s that emerge from the expected turns of discourse” (p. 69) questions raise consciousness, allowing respondent to not only learn about themselves, but about the researcher and the topic. All interviews took place in the university offices of the participants and one was concluded in the campus home of the respondent, this was as a result of interruptions in the office.

3.8 Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analysed using multiple regression. Qualitative data were analysed using the following procedures: All recorded interviews on tape, were transcribed, all interview phrases and statements were grouped topically and primary themes that emerge from the classifications were merged. The merged items were given numeric values and scored by simple percentages; however, statements that are considered as key and significant to the findings of the study were quoted verbatim.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents findings of the study. It presents analysis of demographic information, statistical results and discussions with reference to the twelve research questions raised in the quantitative aspect and the thirty questions in the qualitative part of the study.

4.1 Analysis of Socio-Demographic Data

Analysis of Demographic Information (Female Academics)

The analysis of data on personal characteristics of the female academics is presented in this section. The information regarding age, marital status, university, faculty, and department, number of children, qualification when employed, present qualification, number of years in service were explained in details. This was done for the purpose of giving some information about the personal and career background of the respondents with the view to drawing inference and making deductions.

Table 4.1.1: Age Range of Female Academics

N=511

Age	Frequency	Percentage
20 – 30	75	14.7
31 – 40	134	26.2
41 - 50	241	47.2
51 – 60	61	11.9

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

Table 4.1.1 shows that a greater number of academic women fall between 41 and 50 years, followed by 31 to 40 years, 26.2 per cent, those within the age range of 51-60 are 11.9 per cent which shows that these are nearing retirement. Only 14.7 per cent within the 20 to 30 years range will likely remain in the profession for a longer time.

Table 4.1.2; Academic Women’s Marital Status

N=511

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	75	14.7
Married	398	77.9
Separated	20	3.9
Divorced	10	2.0
Widowed	8	1.6
Total	511	100

(Source: Researcher’s field work result)

Table 4.1.2 shows that academic women who are single represent 14.7 per cent, those married are 77.9 per cent, those who are separated are 3.9 per cent, those divorced are 2.0 per cent and those widowed are 1.6 per cent. This shows that majority of female academics are married. The implication of this is that academic women still manage to remain married in spite of their responsibilities and career. Only 5.9 per cent fall within the category of divorced and separated. This means that majority of female academics are married.

Table 4.1.3.: Frequency and Percentage of Responses from the Universities

N=511

University	Frequency	Percentage
UI	128	25.1
OAU	146	28.6
UNILAG	66	12.9
FUTA	42	8.2
OOU	86	16.8
UNAD	43	8.4
Total	511	100

(Source: Researcher’s field work result)

- UI- University of Ibadan
- OAU- Obafemi Awolowo University
- UNILAG- University of Lagos
- FUTA- Federal University of Technology, Akure
- OOU- Olabisi Onabanjo University
- UNAD- University of Ado-Ekiti.

Table 4.1.3 shows the frequency and percentage of responses from the six universities in the study. Number of responses from University of Ibadan is 128, representing 25.1 per cent; Obafemi Awolowo University has the highest number 146, 28.6 per cent; University of Lagos has 66, 12.9 per cent, FUTA 42, 8.2 per cent Olabisi Onabanjo 86, 16.8 per cent, and UNAD 43; 8.4 per cent.

**Table 4.1.4: Number of children
N=511**

No of Children	Frequency	Percentage
0	185	26.2
1	48	9.4
2	75	14.7
3	93	18.2
4	67	13.1
5	25	4.5
6	18	3.5
Total	511	100

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

Table 4.1.4 shows that academic women who either did not respond to, or do not have children are the highest 185; 26.2 per cent. Those with only one child represent 9.4 per cent. Those with two children are 75; 14.7 per cent. Women with three children are 93; 18.2 per cent, the highest among those who responded to the questions. Women with four children are 67; 13.1 per cent, while those with five children are 25; 4.5 per cent, women with the highest number of children have six, representing 18; 3.5 per cent. The explanation one can deduce from this is that 3 is the mean number of children that female academic's have. This reveals that career academic women have few children.

It is pertinent to note that some of the respondents find it “unafrikan” (Africans do not count number of children) to reveal the number of children they have. It is assumed that this informed the response of some of the women, especially those who chose not to respond to whether they have children or not. This is assumed because in the qualitative in-depth interviews, some FPs strongly declined stating the number of children they have, their age and actual marital status. In table 4.2; 77.9 per cent of respondents are married, however, it was noted that 63.4 per cent had children when all those who have children ranging from 1 to 6 were computed. Further studies should

find out whether Nigerian academics are delaying child bearing for the sake of their career advancement.

Table 4.1.5: Academic Qualifications from Least to Highest

N=511

Academic Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
NCE/ B.A/B.ED/BSC.	65	12.7
B.A/B.ED/BSC./BL/BLS	81	15.9
M.A/M.ED/MSc/LLM/MLS	308	60.3
Ph.D	57	11.2
Total	511	100

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

Table 4.1.5 shows that 65, representing 12.7 per cent of the academic women have NCE (National Certificate of Education) which means they did not gain admission straight to the university. Eighty-one of them representing 15.9 per cent have Bachelors degree while 308 representing 60.3 per cent have master's degree and 57 representing 11.2 per cent have Ph.D. This implies that majority of academic women are still teaching with their masters degree and are yet to obtain their Ph.D. This goes to show that there are very few women who are qualified for academic leadership.

Table 4.1.6: Academic Qualification from Least to Highest

N= 511

Academic Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
1 st Degree	168	33.1
Masters	286	55.9
PhD	57	11.0
Total	511	100

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

Table 4.1.6 shows that academic women who started employment straight after their first degree represent 33.1per cent, those who entered with master's degree 55.9 per cent and those who started with PhD represent 11.0 percent, while 55.9 per cent representing the majority are graduate assistants and assistant lecturer cadre. When this table is juxtaposed with that of age range of the women, it can be deduced that many of these women with Masters Degree will fall within 41 to 50, if they are not about

finishing with their PhD studies, they are very unlikely to become professors before they retire, moreover, they might also not occupy any leadership position. Some of them may never experience being in position of leadership before their retirement, apart from the general leadership lecturers give to students. The implication of table 4.1.6 is that female academics are tick in the mid-career.

Table 4.1.7: Faculties in the Study

N=511

S/N	FACULTY	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
1.	Arts & Humanities	186	36
2.	Social Sciences	102	20
3.	Education	117	23
4.	Basic Medical Sciences	26	6
5.	Veterinary Medicine	9	1.3
6.	Engineering & Eng. Tech.	4	0.7
7.	Technology	7	1
8.	Environmental Science & Environmental Tech.	7	1
9.	Law	12	2
10.	Sciences	15	3
11.	Agric & Forestry & Agric Tech.	26	6
	Total	511	100

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

Table 4.1.7 above shows that the highest number of responses for the questionnaires are from the Faculty of Arts/Humanities 36 per cent; followed by Education, 23 per cent, Social sciences 20 per cent, Agriculture and Basic Medical Sciences 6 per cent, with other faculties following with 3, 2, and 1 per cent,. This is a reflection of the Faculties where women are mostly populated, both as academic staff and students.

Table 4.1.8: Length of Employment in the University**N=511**

No of Years	Frequency	Percentage
1	95	18.6
2	39	7.6
3	103	20.16
4	44	8.0
5	38	7.4
6	26	5.8
7	27	5.3
8	14	2.73
9	14	2.73
10	21	4.1
11	16	3.13
12	22	4.31
13	10	1.95
14	6	1.17
15	6	1.17
16	6	1.17
18	6	1.17
22	6	1.17
24	6	1.17
27	6	1.17
Total	511	100.0

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

Table 4.1.8 shows that the highest number of women 103, representing 20.16 per cent have spent only three years in the university employment. This means that majority of female academics are still inexperienced to handle leadership positions, since these positions come with seniority and years of experience in the system.

Some 7.4 per cent of the women have spent only five years in university employment; only 4.1 per cent of the women have spent ten years, the year at which if one decides to retire voluntarily; retirement benefits will be paid. Table 4.1.8 reveals that a fragment of the women 1.17 per cent, have only spent between 15 to 27 years. This implies that not too many women have spent time enough on their career as academic staff and those likely to occupy leadership positions are those who have experience on the job; going by the number of years they have put in. it should be noted that some of the women crossed from being secondary school teachers to University employment.

4.2 Presentation of Results

To provide answers to research question 1a, Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 are relevant.

4.2.1: Research Question 1a

What is the composite effect of psychological variables: self-esteem and self-efficacy to female academics' career growth?

Table 4.2.1: Pearson Correlation of Female Academics' Self-esteem, Self-efficacy And Career Growth

N=511

Statistic	Variable	Career Growth	Self-esteem	Self-efficacy
Pearson Correlation	Career Growth	1.000	-.022	.300
	Self-esteem	-.022	1.000	.014
	Self-efficacy	.300	.014	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Career Growth	.	.310	.000
	Self-esteem	.310	.	.374
	Self-efficacy	.000	.374	.

*Significant at $P < 0.05$

Table 4.2.1: shows that female academics' self-esteem has a relationship which is negative, very weak but not significant with their career growth ($r = -.022$; $p > .05$). However, self-efficacy of women academics has a positive, weak and significant relationship with their career growth ($r = .300$; $p < .05$). From this, while self-esteem could increase without a corresponding improvement in career growth, an improvement in self-efficacy could enhance career growth of female academics. Further, Table 4.2.2 deals with the composite effect of the two factors on career growth.

Table 4.2.2: Summary of Regression of the Two Psychological Variables and Career Growth

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.301 ^a	.091	.087	7.6286

From Table 4.2.2, the two psychological factors: self-esteem and self-efficacy correlate positively with female academics' career growth ($R=.301$). This means these factors could explain career growth to a meaningful extent. Also, the Table shows the R square value of .091 indicates that 9.1 per cent of the total variance in the women academics' career growth is accounted for by these two psychological factors while the remaining 90.9 per cent is due to other factors and residuals. To test for the significance of the R value, Table 4.2.1 is presented.

Table 4.2.3: ANOVA Table for the Regression on Psychological Variables and Career Growth

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	2954.965	2	1477.482	25.389	.000*
Residual	29563.004	508	58.195		
Total	32517.969	510			

Table 4.2.3 shows that the R value of .301 is significant ($F=25.389$; $P<.05$). Hence, the observed composite effect of the two psychological factors: self-esteem and self-efficacy on career growth did not occur by mere chance.

Research Question 1b

What is the composite effect of psychological variables: self-esteem and self-efficacy on female academics leadership position?

Table 4.2.4: Relationship of Self-esteem and Self-efficacy with Female Academics Leadership Position

N=511

Statistic	Variables	Leadership Position	Self-esteem	Self-efficacy
Pearson Correlation	Leadership Position	1.000	.156	.272
	Self-esteem	.156*	1.000	.014
	Self-efficacy	.272*	.014	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Leadership Position	.	.000	.000
	Self-esteem	.000	.	.374
	Self-efficacy	.000	.374	.

*Significant at $P < .05$

Table 4.2.4 shows that female academics' self-esteem ($r=156$; $p<.05$) and self-efficacy ($r= .272$; $p<.05$) have positive, weak and significant relationship with female academics leadership position. To this end, the two variables have the tendency to contribute to the improvement of female academic's leadership positions.

Table 4.2.5: Summary of Regression of Psychological Factors on Leadership Position

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.312 ^a	.097	.094	8.0001

Table 4.2.5 further shows that the two psychological variables: self-esteem and self-efficacy correlate positively with leadership position ($R=.312$). They also explained the variations in female academics' leadership position to the tune of 9.7 per cent ($R\ square = .097$). Hence, the remaining 90.3 per cent is due to other factors and residuals. This composite effect is tested for significance on Table 4.2.6.

Table 4.2.6: ANOVA table of Regression of Psychological Factors and Leadership Positions

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	3500.959	2	1750.479	27.351	.000*
Residual	32512.845	508	64.002		
Total	36013.804	510			

*Significant at $P < .05$

From Table 4.2.6, the composite effect of the two psychological variables: self-esteem and self-efficacy is significant on female academics' leadership positions ($F= 27.351$; $p< .05$).

Research Question 2a

What is the relative contribution of self-esteem and self-efficacy to female academics' career growth?

Table 4.2.7: Relative Effects of Self-Esteem and Self-Efficacy Factors on Career Growth

Psychological Factors	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Rank	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	25.274	2.536			9.965	.000
Self-esteem	-3.05E-02	.049	.026	2 nd	-.620	.535
Self-efficacy	.432	.061	.301	1 st	7.107	.000*

*Significant at $P < .05$

Table 4.2.7 shows that self-efficacy made a greater contribution ($\beta=.301$; $P<.05$) than self-esteem ($\beta= 0.26$; $P>.05$). While the contribution of self-efficacy is significant that of self-esteem is not.

Research Question 2b

What is the relative contribution of psychological factors: self-esteem and self-efficacy to female academics' leadership position?

Table 4.2.8: Relative Effects of Psychological Factors on Leadership Positions

Psychological Factors	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Rank	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	20.335	2.660			7.646	.000
Self-esteem	.186	.052	.152	2 nd	3.609	.000*
Self-efficacy	.408	.064	.270	1 st	6.403	.000*

*Significant at $P < .05$

Table 4.2.8 shows that self-efficacy made a greater contribution to female academics' leadership position ($\beta=.270$; $P<.05$) than self-esteem ($\beta=.152$; $p<.05$). Both variables made significant relative contributions to the dependent measure.

Research Question 3a

To what extent would psychological variables of self-esteem and self-efficacy predict female academics' career growth?

Table 4.2.7 shows that only self-efficacy could not predict female academics' career growth ($B=.432$; $p < .05$). Self-esteem could not predict the dependent variable ($B=-3.05E-02$; $p > .05$).

Research Question 3b

To what extent would psychological variables of self-esteem and self-efficacy predict female academics' leadership position?

From Table 4.2.8, both psychological factors: self-esteem ($B=.186$; $p < .05$) and self-efficacy ($B=.408$; $p < .05$) could predict female academics' leadership positions. To complement the quantitative result are findings and statements salient to the variables of the study.

All the Female Professors interviewed except one believe they have positive self-esteem, they also believe that they are efficacious in the discharge of their duties and that working in a male dominated environment does not have any negative effect on their self-esteem and self-efficacy. They are of the opinion that if they were not, they would not be professors, it should however be noted that all of them were conscious of their minority status, they believe they have to work twice as hard as the men to grow and gain recognition. There is an element of wanting to prove to the men that they have what it takes. One of them took pride in being first female professor in her field of study. One does not know whether men in female dominated field will feel the same way.

One of them has this to say:

Prof. K

It is even boosting our morales, efficacy and our progress because seeing them (men) we like to compete, we like to move with them ... and prove to them that what men can do; women can do even better.

The only Prof. with a contrary opinion is of the view that working in a male dominated environment does have negative effect on women's self-esteem and efficacy.

Prof. J

Wow! It does challenge your self-esteem because from time to time you're held down or prevented from pinning a particular aspect of your career because you're a woman and It's not even subtle.

This particular respondent said she was able to overcome discrimination by working twice as hard as her male colleagues. Where 10 papers were required for promotion, she submits 15 to 20 quality papers. The underlining thing about the women is that; though they contend that working in a male dominated environment doesn't in anyway have negative effect on their self-confidence and efficacy, they were all self-conscious in their active statement and non verbal expressions. Some of the statements are: "I think to an extent, women here are conscious of it" "it" here means minority status.

Prof. K

They (men) will always want to work with a woman who is very understanding

Prof. K

I am quite confident in myself, whenever you see me walking, I march.

Prof. Y

I believe our male counterparts appreciate us when they see us at this level." (This level means Professorial level).

Prof. K

Women in position of authority should be diplomatic and should respect men, (because men have ego and don't want to be bossed by a woman) if not they (men) will pull you down.

Though the women categorically stated they have high self-esteem and self-efficacy, the above statements contradict some of their assertions.

Research Question 4a

What is the composite effect of the social variables: parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and attitudes towards women on female academics' career growth?

Table 4.2.9: Pearson Correlation of Social Variables and Career Growth

N=511

	Career Growth	Parental Influence	Spousal Support	Academic men Collegial Support	Academic men Attitude Towards Women
Pearson Correlation					
Career Growth	1.000	-.175	.162	.028	.054
Parental Influence	-.175*	1.000	.110	.136	.050
Spousal Support	.162*	.110	1.000	-.013	.005
Academic men Collegial Support	.028	.136	-.013	1.000	.936
Academic men Attitude Towards Women	.054	.050	.005	.936	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)					
Career Growth	.	.000	.000	.263	.111
Parental Influence	.000	.	.006	.001	.129
Spousal Support	.000	.006	.	.388	.452
Academic men Collegial Support	.263	.001	.388	.	.000
Academic men attitude Towards Women	.111	.129	.452	.000	.

*Significant at P < .05

From Table 4.2.9, parental influence has a negative and weak relationship which is significant with career growth ($r = -.175$; $p < .05$). The Table also shows that spousal support has a positive, weak but significant relationship with the dependant measure ($r = .162$; $p < .05$). However, both academic men collegial support ($r = .028$; $p > .05$) and academic men attitude towards women ($r = .054$; $p > .05$) have very weak positive relationship which are not significant with career growth. To determine the composite effect of the four social variables on career growth, Table 4.2.10 is presented.

Table 4.2.10: Summary of Regression of Social Factors and Career Growth

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.260	.068	.060	7.7398

*Significant at $P < .05$

Table 4.2.10 shows that the four social factors: parental influence, spousal support, academic men collegial support, and academic men attitudes towards women jointly correlate positively with career growth ($R = .260$). The R square value of .068 also shows that 6.8 per cent of the variance in career growth is due to the four social factors leaving the remaining 93.2 per cent to other factors and residuals. The significance of the R-value is determined using Table 4.2.10.

Table 4.2.11: ANOVA Table for Regression of Social Variables and Career Growth

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	2206.333	4	551.583	9.208	.000*
Residual	30311.636	506	59.904		
Total	32517.969	510			

*Significant at $P < .05$

Table 4.2.11 shows that the composite effect of the social factors as indicated by the R-value of .260 is significant ($F = 9.208$, $P < .05$). Hence, the R value is not due to chance.

Research Question 4b

What is the composite effect of the social factors: parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women to female academics' leadership position?

Table 4.2.12: Pearson Correlation of Social Factors and Leadership Positions

N=511

	Career Growth	Parental Influence	Spousal Support	Academic men Collegial Support	Academic men Attitude Towards Women
Pearson Correlation					
Leadership Position	1.000	-.376	.217	-.072	.018
Parental Influence	-.376*	1.000	.110	.136	.050
Spousal Support	.217*	.110	1.000	-.013	.005
Academic men Collegial Support	-.072	.136	-.013	1.000	.936
Academic men Attitude Towards Women	.018	.050	.005	.936	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)					
Leadership Position	.	.000	.000	.053	.339
Parental Influence	.000	.	.006	.001	.129
Spousal Support	.000	.006	.	.388	.452
Academic men Collegial Support	.053	.001	.388	.	.000
Academic men Attitude Towards Women	.339	.129	.452	.000	.

*Significant at $P < .05$

As shown in Table 4.2.12, parental influence has a negative, weak, significant relationship with female academics' leadership position ($r = -.376$; $p < .05$) spousal support has a weak, positive relationship which is also significant ($r = .217$; $p < .05$); academic men collegial support has a negative, weak and not significant relationship ($r = -.072$; $p > .05$) and academic men attitude towards women has a positive, weak and not significant relationship with women's leadership position ($r = .018$; $p > .05$). The composite effect is presented in Table 4.2.13.

Table 4.2.13: Summary of Regression of Social Variables and Female Academic's Leadership Positions

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.480 ^a	.230	.224	7.4006

Table 4.2.13 shows that the four social factors: parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women have positive multiple relationship with female academics' leadership position (R = .480). Also, the R square value of .230 indicates that they could explain 23.0 per cent of the variance in leadership positions. The remaining 77.0 per cent is due to other factors and residuals. This composite effect is tested for significance on Table 4.2.14.

Table 4.2.14: ANOVA Table for Regression of Social Variables and Academic Women's Leadership Position

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	8300.4	4	2075		
Residual	64	5	.116	7.888	.000*
Total	27713.06	10	54.7		
	341	5	69		
	36013.804	10			

*Significant at P < .05

From Table 4.2.13, the R-value of .480 obtained is significant. Hence, the social factors have significant composite effect on female academics leadership positions.

Research Question 5a

What are the relative contributions of parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women on female academics' career growth?

Table 4.2.15: Relative Effects of Social Factors on Academic Women's Career Growth

Social Factors	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Rank	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	31.966	4.774			6.695	.000
Parental Influence	-.112	.025	.197	1 st	-4.402	.000*
Spousal Support	.133	.032	.183	2 nd	4.216	.000*
Academic men collegial Support	-3.92E-02	.310	.016	4 th	-.127	.899
Academic men attitude Towards Women	.164	.264	.078	3 rd	.623	.533

*Significant at $P < .05$

Table 4.2.15 shows that parental influence made the greatest contribution to female academics' career growth ($\beta=.197$; $P<.05$). This is a significant contribution. Spousal support is next with a decreasing magnitude ($\beta=.183$; $P<.05$). This is also a significant contribution. The third on the list is the contribution of academic men attitudes towards women ($\beta=.078$; $p>.05$) while the lowest contribution is that made by academic men collegial support ($\beta=.016$; $p>.05$). These two factors made no significant contributions to female academics' career growth.

Research Question 5b

What are the relative contributions of the social factors: parental influence, spousal and collegial support and attitudes towards women on female academics' leadership position?

Table 4.2.16: Relative Contributions of Social Factors on Academic Women's Leadership Positions

Social Factors	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Rank	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	42.747	4.565			9.364	.000
Parental Influence	-.220	.024	.368	3 rd	-9.050	.000*
Spousal Support	.191	.030	.250	4 th	6.343	.000*
Academic men Collegial Support	-1.080	.296	.419	2 nd	-3.648	.000*
Academic men Attitude Towards Women	.947	.252	.428	1 st	3.755	.000*

*Significant at $P < .05$

Table 4.2.16 shows that academic men attitude towards women made the greatest contribution to leadership position ($\beta=.428$; $p>.05$). This is followed by academic men collegial support ($\beta=.419$; $p<.05$), parental influence ($\beta=.368$; $P<.05$) and spousal support ($\beta=.250$; $p<.05$) in that order. All the contributions are significant.

Research Question 6a

To what extent would social variables of parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women predict female academics' career growth?

From Table 4.2.15, both parental influence ($B= -.112$; $t= -4.402$; $p<.05$) and spousal support ($B=.133$; $t= 4.216$; $p <.05$) could predict female academics career growth. On the other hand, academic men attitude towards women ($B=.164$; $t=.623$; $P>.05$) and academic men collegial support ($B= -3.92 E-02$; $t=1.27$; $p>.05$) could not predict female academics' career growth.

Research Question 6b

To what extent social variables would: parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women predict female academics' leadership position?

Table 4.2.16 shows that all the four social factors could independently predict female academics' leadership position. These are: academic men attitude towards women ($B=.947$; $t=3.755$; $P<.05$), academic men collegial support ($B= -1.080$; $t= -3.648$; $P<.05$), parental influence ($B= -.220$; $t= -9.050$; $p<.05$) and spousal support ($B=.191$; $t=6.343$; $p<.05$). Some of the results of the IDI validate the quantitative data on social factors while some are contrary.

All the FPs believes they are generally accepted by their male colleagues and that if there is any dissenting voice, it is not significant. This is in agreement with the quantitative result as academic men collegial support did not predict female academic career growth. However one of them has this to say about the general attitude of men:
Prof. K

Men's attitude is that women are inferior so I compete and work hard for these benefits.

Researcher: In a situation where a woman and man equally qualify for the same position, which in your opinion would get it?

Their general response is that as much as possible, the interviewer or recruiting panelists are always fair in their judgment but some of the women expressed human factors of bias in certain situations.

Prof. D

Performances at job interviews are usually equal among panelists, also it depends on personal interest, if the panel of judges have personal interest in a candidate, they will score the person high beyond his/her performance.

Prof. F

It depends on so many factors; it could be gender, post and department, though any of the two can get it.

Prof. U

I don't think appointment is done on gender bias.

Prof. F

What I found in research is that, it is not open (bias), it is not about discrimination because the University Act does not allow you to be overtly discriminated against. But in operations, there are situations where you think that this is discrimination. ...Some people think there are some jobs which are meant for male, for example workers in maintenance department, you rarely find a woman there except the secretary. I interviewed two women who were welders and it was really interesting. In the question of elective positions... male will dominate even where both of them qualify.

The female professors narrated varying degrees of support they receive or do not receive from their spouses, as well as the influence of these on their career.

Twenty three of the women said their husbands are in full support of their career, providing them with emotional and physical support by assisting with household chores, assisting with child minding when their children were young, providing financial assistance when the need arose. Two said their husbands supported somehow (at the time of this interview one was preparing for the wedding of her daughter, the husband was around waiting to be attended to). Two of the women said they never had the support of their husbands; the two women are divorced and separated. One never married but has two children. All said that combining roles as mother, wife, daughter and worker is challenging. Some of the key statements they made on spousal support are presented below:

Prof. C

One of the motivators of my career is my husband. Sometimes I felt that my commitment as a young mother and wife might not allow me do one thing or the other He encouraged me in

many... Many women don't have such a support, if you don't have support in the home, it's as if you're being given an option to either keep the home or keep the job...

Prof. H

He can make Eba for himself but if I'm there he would not do it. He can cook rice, egusi soap for himself. He will not make my own.

Prof. K

...for any woman to reach the top, you need your partner's support. If it is not there, it will be difficult.... My husband never supported me. In fact my husband doesn't like a woman who has career. If I knew I would never have married him, because if somebody doesn't like what you're doing, you should not be with that sort of person, not to talk of being his wife...

The Prof. whose husband was waiting has this to say about the support she gets:

...well, he wants a wife that is highly placed, at the same time he wants me at home so I don't know how I can divide myself like what we are experiencing now...

Prof. Y

After the account of the support of their spouses, the research sought to find out if they have the support of their colleagues.

All the women said they have cordial working relationship with their male colleagues; they describe them as supportive, good, friendly and one of respectful. One of them said categorically that she doesn't wait for support. Another important variable

to this study is parental influence. Questions were posed on the degree of influence each of their parents had on them in their growing up years that has influenced their careers.

Which one of your parents is more influential to your career development?

All the women except one spoke passionately, lovingly and nostalgically about their fathers than their mothers. Only one of them spoke in such a manner about her mother. They described their mothers using the following adjectives: caring, hardworking, disciplinarian, very supportive. One was not happy at all with the inadequate role her father played in her academic pursuit; she believed that as brilliant as she is, all her father did was to send her up to grade III and nothing more but for the benevolence of her teachers and significant others, she would never have become a professor.

Many of them used multiple adjectives to describe their fathers' personality and role in their lives. They however, would use a word or two to describe those of their mothers' personality. The fathers were greater influence on their career development. The only one, who mentioned mother, is the one whose mother is a professional (medical practitioner). They use words like; very nice, hardworking disciplinarian, very supportive to describe their mothers: some had this to say about their fathers:

...His determination that his children must be better than he was; succeed and the fact that he did not accept the counsel that he was not to train a girl. He had hope and confidence in me though I was a girl and I know I must not let him down.

Prof. D

Another woman has this to say about her father:

My father wanted me to get good job, whenever I can get it; he would not care if I'm married or not but my mother wanted me to get married. After my PhD he wanted me to be a professor. My father wanted me to get to the top. Prof. P

Prof. H said:

My father had a great influence on me, he wanted me to be a medical doctor, though he died early, I was not good at

mathematics. So he would teach me himself at home. In school my mathematics teacher had two sessions; one for the dead and the other for the quick. So my father would ask me, I hope you haven't joined the dead.

Attitudes towards Women

On whether they ever experienced any negative attitude to their position as leaders?

All said categorical NO! At the same time however, they accepted that there are subtle gender discrimination, as well as overt and covert ethnic power play. Prof. E who had been a DVC had this to say.

Prof. F

...in my own days, I had been HOD two times, I had been the coordinator of General studies programme, I've been active in committees, I had been director of Distance Learning Centre... when I now became DVC, people felt "why do you want a woman?" They were convinced that that was the way to go because the university had existed since 1948, the highest level a woman could reach in academics is Dean or Director never DVC whether academic or administration.

The expression of the above opinion, that some people actually raised eye brow or kick against having a woman, the reason majority gave for the need to have a woman now is that the university had never had a female DVC, let's give her a chance to prove her worth. Kanter (1977) calls this act of tokenism. The woman in question was not 'given' the opportunity for a second term, though she would not have minded.

The next variable is organisational climate, though quantitative data was directed at A & P, the qualitative was administered on female professors as a way of cross examination.

Research Question 7a

What is the composite effect of organisational climate: fairness, inclusion and work climate on female academics' career growth?

Table 4.2.17: Pearson Correlations Organisational Climate Factors and Career Growth

N=511

Statistic	Variables	Career Growth	Fairness	Inclusion	Work Climate
Pearson Correlation	Career Growth	1.000	.093*	-.042	.034
	Fairness	.093*	1.000	-.454	.023
	Inclusion	-.042	-.454	1.000	.418
	Work Climate	.034	.023	.418	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Career Growth	.	.018	.171	.222
	Fairness	.018	.	.000	.305
	Inclusion	.171	.000	.	.000
	Work Climate	.222	.305	.000	.

*Significant at $P < .05$

Table 4.2.17: shows that fairness has a weak, positive and significant relationship with career growth ($r=.093$; $p<.05$). However, both inclusion and work climate have no significant relationships respectively with career growth. For inclusion, there is weak negative relationship ($r=-.042$; $p> .05$) and for work climate, the relationship is weak but positive ($r=.034$; $p>.05$). Table 4.2.18 presents the summary of the regression analysis.

Table 4.2.18: Summary of Regression of Organisational Climate Factors and Career Growth

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.100	.010	.004	7.9686

From Table 4.2.18, there is a positive multiple correlations among the three organisation climate variables: fairness, inclusion, and work climate and career growth ($R=.100$). Further, the Table shows that the R value for the regression is .010

indicating that 10.0% of the variance in female academics' career growth is due to the three organisational climate factors. The remaining 90 per cent is due to other factors and residuals.

Table 4.2.19: ANOVA Result on Regression of Organisational Climate Factors and Career Growth

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	324.208	3	108.069	1.702	.166n.s
Residual	32193.760	507	63.499		
Total	32517.969	510			

Not Significant at P.> .05

Table 4.2.19 shows that the R value of .100 in Table 4.2.1.18 obtained is not significant (F= 1.702; p>.05). Hence, the composite effect of the three organisation climate factors could be ascribed to chance.

Research Question 7b

What is the composite effect of organisational climate of fairness, inclusion and work climate on female academics' leadership position?

Table 4.2.20: Pearson Correlations of Organisational Climate Factors on Academic Women's Leadership Position

N=511

Statistic	Variables	Career Growth	Fairness	Inclusion	Work Climate
Pearson Correlation	Leadership	1.000	.040	-.043	.189
	Position	.040	1.000	-.454	.023
	Fairness	-.043	-.454	1.000	.418
	Inclusion	.189	.023	.418	1.000
	Work Climate				
Sig. (1-tailed)	Leadership	.	.186	.164	.000
	Position	.186	.	.000	.305
	Fairness	.164	.000	.	.000
	Inclusion	.000	.305	.000	.
	Work Climate				

From Table 4.2.20, fairness has a weak, positive and no significant relationship with female academics' leadership position ($r=.040$; $p>.05$). Inclusion has a weak negative relationship which is not significant ($r= -.043$; $p>.05$) while work climate has a weak positive relationship which is significant with leadership positions ($r=.189$; $p<.05$).

Table 4.2.21: Regression of Organisational Climate Factors with Female Academic's Leadership Positions

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.235	0.55	.050	8.1912

Table 4.2.21 shows that the three organisational climate factors have positive multiple correlation with leadership position ($R=.235$), which accounted for 5.5 per cent of the total variance in the female academics' leadership position. Thus the remaining 94.5 per cent is due to other factors not covered in this study.

Table 4.2.22: ANOVA Result on the Regression of Organisational Climate Factors with Leadership Positions

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1996.130	3	665.377	9.917	.000*
Residual	34017.674	507	67.096		
Total	36013.804	510			

*Significant at $P < .05$

It is obtained from Table 4.2.22, that the R-value of 0.55 is significant ($f= 9.917$; $p<.05$). Therefore, the composite effect of the three organisational factors could not be ascribed to chance.

Research Question 8a

What are the relative contributions of organisational climate: fairness, inclusion and general climate to female academics' career growth?

Table 4.2.23: Relative Contributions of Organisational Climate Factors on Career Growth

Organisational Climate Factors	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Rank	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	27.335	7.779			3.514	.000
Fairness	.251	.157	.082	1 st	1.599	.111
Inclusion	-8.17E-02	.211	.022	3 rd	-.388	.698
Work Climate	.209	.255	.041	2 nd	.817	.414

Not Significant at $P > .05$

Table 4.2.23 shows that fairness made the highest contribution to career growth ($\beta=.082$; $p>.05$) followed by work climate ($\beta=.041$; $p>.05$) and then inclusion ($\beta=0.22$; $p>.05$). They all made contributions which are not significant to career growth.

Research Question 8b

What are the relative contributions of organisational climate: fairness, inclusion and general climate to female academics' leadership positions?

Table 4.2.24: Relative Effects of Organisational Climate Factors on Academic Women's Leadership Position

Organisational Climate Factors	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Rank	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	28.845	7.996			3.607	.000
Fairness	-.146	.162	.045	3 rd	-.901	.368
Inclusion	-.681	.217	.174	2 nd	-3.144	.002*
Work Climate	1.400	.262	.263	1 st	5.336	.000*

*Significant at $P < .05$

From Table 4.2.24, work climate made the greatest contribution to leadership position ($\beta=.263$; $p<.05$) followed by inclusion ($\beta=.174$; $p<.05$). These are significant contributions. Fairness made the lowest contribution which is not significant ($\beta=.045$; $p>.05$).

Research Question 9a:

To what extent would organisational climate (fairness, inclusion and work climate) predict female academics' career growth?

From Table 4.2.23, none of the three organisational climate factors could predict career growth. These are fairness, ($B=.251$; $t=1.599$; $p>.05$), inclusion ($B=-8.17E-02$; $t=-.388$; $p>.05$) and work climate ($B=.209$; $t=.817$; $p>.05$).

Research Question 9b

To what extent would organisational climate (fairness, inclusion and work climate) predict female academics' leadership position?

From Table 4.2.24, both work climate ($B=1.400$, $t=5.336$; $p<.05$) and inclusion ($B = -.681$; $t = -3.144$; $p<.05$) could predict women academics' leadership positions. Fairness ($B= -.146$; $t= -3.144$; $P>.05$) could not predict women academics' leadership position. IDI on Organisational climate is here expounded.

All the women described the working relationship with their male colleagues as cordial. All of them are of the view that there is no overt gender discrimination in academia because there are guidelines and transparent rules guiding recruitment, selection, appointment and promotion. Yet six of them, when probed further agreed they have at one point or the other witnessed or have been victims of gender discrimination in promotion and recruitment. All of them expressed the fact that the university climate is still gendered, as there are more men than women and positions which women are not qualified to occupy.

Prof. R

Some of the posts are gender bias because they don't have female to fill them. But things are changing because women are coming to fill in some posts.

Prof. S sounded worried about the slow career mobility of academic women, as well as their attrition from the system which she had intended to research into.

Prof. B

I do not know? There was a time when I intended to do a study here on mobility, the movement of people. How long it takes a man and how long it takes a woman. I know that a lot of women dropped out at a certain level leaving men to dominate. I don't know why but I know that most women have their fear but have never even talked about it.

Many of the women said “yes”; they would not mind to become a Vice-chancellor but the only obstacle is that the position is political; one of them has this to say:

Prof. H

...ehn yes but it is political and I don't want any problem for myself. I can't be going about looking for what to give to somebody. If it comes naturally from God, I will accept it but to fight for it with all I have, I can't". Prof. Jade

Another respondent said:

Perhaps ten years ago, when I was 50, I would, but right now I'm getting closer to retirement and the challenges are different now. I have to take care of my grand-children now and my children need me to come and help with looking after their children, I want to be able to take time off formally but if I am Vice-chancellor, it would be difficult. So I think there's time for everything.

Prof. C

Majority of them were simply not interested as they see leadership from their own perspective as discussed earlier, for example giving guidance to students, mentoring them, living a disciplined and exemplary life, working hard and casting vision. From leadership, the researcher enquired from the women if they have the support of their husbands.

Research question 10a

What is the composite effect of psychological, social, and organisational climate factors on female academics' career growth?

Table 4.2.25: Composite effect of psychological, social, and organisational climate factors on female academics' career growth

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.397	.157	.142	7.3955

Table 4.2.25 shows that the three factors: Psychological, Social, and Organisational Climate have positive multiple correlations with female academics career growth $R=.397$, they also accounted for 5.7 per cent of the total variance in the female academic career growth. Thus 94.5 per cent is due to other factors not included in the study.

Table 4.2.26: ANOVA Result of the three factors: Psychological, Social, and Organisational Climate on Career Growth

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	5116.848	9	568.539	10.395	.000*
Residual	27401.121	501	54.693		
Total	32517.969	510			

*Significant at $P < .05$

Table 4.2.25 reveal that the R-value of .157 is significant ($F=10.395$; $p < .05$) and could therefore not be ascribed to chance.

Research question 10b

What is composite effect of the three factors: Psychological, Social, and Organisational Climate on female academics' leadership position?

Table 4.2.27: Summary of regression of the three factors: Psychological, Social, and Organisational Climate on female academics' leadership position

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.545	.298	.285	7.1060

Table 4.2.27 reveals that the three factors: Psychological, Social, and Organisational Climate have positive multiple relationship with female academics leadership position ($R=.545$). The R square value of .298 indicates that they could explain 28 per cent of the variance in leadership position; the remaining 72 per cent is due to other factors and residuals. The composite effect is tested for significance on table 4.2.28.

Table 4.2.28: ANOVA Result of Psychological, Social, and Organisational Climate factors' Effect on Leadership Position

Significance of variance	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	10715.562	9	1190.618	23.579	.000*
Residual	25298.242	501	50.495		
Total	36013.804	510			

*Significant at $P < .05$

From table 4.2.27, the R value of .545 is significant. Therefore, Psychological, Social, and Organisational Climate factors have significant composite effect on female academics leadership position.

Research Question 11a

What is the relative effect of each of the independent variables when taken together on female academics' career growth?

Table 4.2.29: Relative Effects of the Nine Variables on Female Academics' Career Growth

Factors	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Rank	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	19.282	10.131			1.903	.058
Self-esteem	-.115	.054	.099	6 th	-	.033
Self-efficacy	.402	.061	.280	1 st	2.133	.000*
Parental influence	-.120	.025	.212	2 nd	6.584	.000*
Spousal support	.132	.031	.182	3 rd	-	.000*
Academic men collegial support	.180	.362	.073	7 th	4.887	.620
Academic men attitude towards women	-.281	.374	.133	4 th	4.258	.453
Fairness	.380	.320	.124	5 th	.497	.235
Inclusion	.123	.325	.033	8 th	-.751	.706
Work climate	-6.306E-02	.285	.012	9 th	1.190	.825
					.378	
					-.221	

*Significant at $P < .05$

Table 4.2.29 shows that when the nine variables were taken together three were significant: self-efficacy made (1st) the highest contribution to female academics career growth ($\beta = .280$; $p < .05$) followed by parental influence 2nd ($\beta = .212$; $p < .05$), spousal support 3rd ($\beta = .182$; $p < .05$). Six of the variables were not significant and attitudes towards women rank 4th ($\beta = .133$; $p > .05$); 5th fairness ($\beta = .124$; $p > .05$); 6th self-esteem ($\beta = .099$; $p > .05$); 7th Collegial support ($\beta = .073$; $p > .05$); 8th inclusion ($\beta = .033$; $p > .05$); 9th work climate ($\beta = .012$; $p > .05$).

Research Question 11b

What is the relative effect of each of the independent variables when taken together on female academics' leadership position?

Table 4.2.30: Relative Effects of the Nine Factors on Academic Women's leadership position

Factors	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	Rank	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	33.530	9.734			3.444	.001
Self-esteem	8.227E-02	.052	.067	9 th	1.586	.113
Self-efficacy	.370	.059	.245	3 rd	6.316	.000*
Parental influence	-.216	.024	.360	1 st	-	.000*
Spousal support	.169	.030	.221	4 th	9.104	.000*
Academic men collegial support	-.511	.348	.198	5 th	5.673	.142
Academic men attitude towards women	.599	.359	.271	2 nd	-	.096
Fairness	-.498	.307	.155	6 th	1.472	.105
Inclusion	-.369	.313	.094	8 th	1.667	.239
Work climate	.555	.274	.104	7 th	-	.043*
					1.180	
					2.028	

*Significant at $P < .05$

Table 4.2.30 shows that when the nine factors were taken together self-efficacy, parental influence, spousal support and organisational climate (inclusion) were significant. However, in order of ranking; Parental influence is 1st ($\beta = .360$; $p < .05$); academic men attitudes towards women 2nd ($\beta = .271$; $p < .05$); self-efficacy 3rd ($\beta = .245$; $p < .05$); spousal support 4th ($\beta = .221$; $p > .05$); academic men collegial support 5th ($\beta = .198$; $p < .05$); fairness 6th ($\beta = .155$; $p > .05$); work climate 7th ($\beta = .104$; $p > .05$); inclusion 8th ($\beta = .094$; $p > .05$); and self-esteem 9th ($\beta = .067$; $p > .05$) respectively.

Research Question 12a

Which Of Psychological, Social, And Organisational Climate Factors Could Predict Female Academics' Career Growth?

Two of the three factors: Psychological ($B=.402$; $t=6.584$; $p < .05$) and Social factors ($B= -.120$; $t= -4.887$; $p<.05$) predicted female academics' career growth.

Research Question 12b

Which Of Psychological, Social, And Organisational Climate Variables Could Predict Female Academics' Leadership Position?

The three factors: Psychological ($B=.370$; $t=6.316$; $p<.05$), Social ($B= .169$; $t = 5.673$; $p<.05$) and organisational climate ($B= .555$; $t =2.028$; $p<.05$) predicted female academics' leadership position.

4.3: Analysis of Qualitative Demography Data and other Related Research Questions

Information gathered in this part of the study is enormous and quite revealing; however, those that are considered key and relevant to the study have been carefully sifted and are thus represented. Statements that are considered important to the study are stated verbatim, but real names of the respondents are not included in order to shield their identity. Part of the qualitative data corroborating or contrary to the quantitative findings have been discussed under research questions 1-9.

The researcher sets out to interview 30 female professors in six universities, but for reasons stated earlier, 27 were interviewed. Demographic information on the interviewees is presented as follows.

Table 4.3.1: Demographic Information from IDI

N=27

31-40	41-50	51-60	65+	Total
Nil	17	9	1	27

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

In Table 4.3.1, 63 per cent of respondents fall within the age range of 41 to 50, 33 per cent fall within 51-60, and 4 per cent 65 and above. The only respondent that is over 65 is an emeritus professor.

Table 4.3.2: Marital Status- Frequency Table

N=27

Single		Married		Divorced		Widowed		Separated		Total	
1	4%	22	81%	2	7%	1	4%	1	4%	27	100

(Source:

Researcher's field work result)

The above table shows that 81 per cent of the women are married, 7 per cent are divorced, 4 per cent are single, 4 per cent are widowed, and 4 per cent separated.

Table 4.3.3: Sampling of Respondents

N=27

UNAD	UI	UNILAG	OAU	OOU	FUTA
4	5	5	5	5	3

(Source: *Researcher's field work result)*

Five full professors were interviewed in University of Ibadan, University of Lagos, Obafemi Awolowo University and Olabisi Onabanjo University. Two full professors in University of Ado-Ekiti and two in Federal University of Technology, Akure and two associate professors in UNAD and one in FUTA.

Table 4.3.4: No of Children

N= 27

No of children	Frequency
1	1
2	7
3	6
4	9
5	3
6	1
Total	27

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

Table 4.3.4 shows that the highest number of children by a professor is six and only one female professor has this high number and only 1 has one child too. The mean number of children is four.

Table 4.3.5: Highest Academic Qualification when Employed

N=27

Qualification	No	Per cent
BA/BSC	9	33
MA/MSC	13	48
PhD	5	19
Total	27	100

The Table 4.3.5 illustrates that more women started their career with a master's degree which is 48 per cent. Those who started with bachelor's degree, 33 per cent and only 5 representing 19 per cent started their career with a PhD.

Table 4.3.6: Years of Employment**N=27**

Number of years	Frequency	Percentage
16-20	9	33
21-25	7	25
26-30	5	19
31-35	5	19
36-40	1	04
Total	27	100

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

Table 4.3.6 represent the number of years each female professor has spent in the university employment. Nine have spent between 16 to 20 years, seven have spent between 21 to 25 years, 5 have spent between 31 to 35 years, and one has spent 36 to 40 years. All of them have PhD degree; without which it is impossible to become a professor or an associate.

Table 4.3.7: Period of Last Promotion**N=27**

Last Promotion	Frequency	Percentage
1989-1995	3	11
1996-2000	6	22
2001-2009	18	67
	27	100

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

The Table shows that 67 per cent of the women became professors of recent, nine years ago, 22 per cent got their last promotion from 1996 to 2000, and 11per cent got theirs between 1989 and 1995.

Table 4.3.8: Ever Put Yourself up for Promotion?**N=27**

Yes	No	Total
3	24	27

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

The Table above shows that 3 of the 27 respondents have in the past put themselves up for promotion while others said they had no cause to so do.

Table 4.3.9: Current Title
N=27

Professor	Associate Professor
24	3

Twenty four of the women were full professors while three were Associate Professors.

Table 4.3. 10: Parents' Highest Qualification
N=27

S/N	Education	Father	Mother
1	No education	3	7
2	Diploma (Ed)	-	1
3	Clergy	1	-
4	Secondary	2	1
5	Grade I/II	1	1
6	Standard 6	6	5
7	Adult Education	1	1
8	NCE	2	4
9	Nursing/Midwifery	-	4
10	HND/BA/BSC/B.ED	5	2
11	LLB/LLM	2	-
12	MBBS	-	1
13	MSC/MA	4	-
	Total	27	27

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

Table 4.3.10 above shows that fathers of FPs have superior education than their mothers and there are more illiterate mothers than fathers. There are also more professional fathers than mothers.

Table 4.3.11: Parents Occupation

N=27

S/N	Occupation/Profession	Father	Mother
1.	Clergy	3	-
2.	Trading/Petty Trading	3	8
3.	Nursing	-	6
4.	Teaching	5	7
5.	Legal	2	-
6.	Medicine	1	1
7.	Civil Service	4	1
8.	Farming	3	2
9.	Business	3	2
10.	Accountancy/Auditing	3	-
	Total	27	27

(Source: Researcher's field work result)

Table 4.3.11, it could be seen that occupation of parents range from 1 to 10, ranging from clergy, trading, nursing, teaching, legal, medicine, civil service, farming, business, to accounting/auditing. The fathers are not represented in nursing while the mothers are not represented in accounting, legal and clergy. This goes to show that men at those times had more occupational options than women.

4.3.1 Education and Career Development of the Respondents

The career development of the FPs differs significantly as they went to different schools, raised by different parents, had different academic disciplines and teach in different universities, but a unifying factor is that they are professors or associate professors as the case may be and they are all women. Some key issues that emanated from the interviews are discussed in what follows: majority of the women interviewed had a hitch free educational career starting from elementary, secondary, advanced levels, to first degree. Four had difficult academic development owing to poor parental background, lackadaisical parental attitude, though the resources were perceived to be available and one of the fathers in question had a master's degree.

Four of the professors did not have a smooth sail education as they went to primary school, standard six, teachers' grade II or III respectively, A/Levels,

colleges of education, and then the university. They all attended university, 24 (88%) of them did all their education here in Nigeria, two had government scholarships and one was sent abroad for her university education by her father.

There are some elements that distinguished some of the women from the rest. Fifteen (56%) of them taught in various secondary schools before securing a university employment, others worked at various companies, ministry of justice, and teaching hospital before getting university employment. One got married and had three children before going to university for undergraduate studies; her father chose her school and course of study.

Only nine of the FPs consciously had in mind what they wanted to do for a career, went for the courses they applied for, and are doing what they set out to do by themselves. For the rest of the women, they did not consciously choose what they are doing right now, their present career choice was informed either by their fathers, teachers, husbands, mothers and circumstances surrounding admission criteria but along the line they began to develop interest in their career and profession. Like many young people, many of them started out with the ambition of becoming Medical Doctor, Lawyer, Accountant and other popular professions. One had interest in teaching but went to read law to satisfy her father, she later went back to teaching and became a professor of law.

Key phenomenon that cut across the career history of all the women except one is marriage. At one point or the other they each got married; one after General Certificate of Education (Advanced Level) A/Ls, others after NCE, some others after first degree and the rest after a master's degree. All the women except two shared with utmost satisfaction their marital experiences as regards spousal support. However, it was noticed that after marriage they all experienced a downward trend in their career progression, especially with those who got pregnant almost immediately and those who had to relocate with their husbands, both outside and within the country.

Prof. P

After I got the admission, he (my father) said I should go on with it that he is ready to sponsor me because I was already married and I've had three children. So I went to the university to read law, but all along, I had the flair for teaching so I made up my mind that even if I read law, I will still cross back to teaching.

Prof. J

I will say that the journey was a little bit rough in that I had my Master's and I knew I had to go back for my PhD. By the time I started my PhD, I found out that I'm pregnant. So combining lecturing with teaching and going to school at the same time probably slowed down my progress. It also slowed down the promotion but also gave me good leadership experience.

All but one did not mention anything about marriage as she is single with children. All did their PhDs as married women with children. 99 per cent of them got married after first degree, had breaks in their career to have children and four of them had to follow their husbands as they proceeded either for academic or professional engagement abroad, thereby breaking their career.

Researcher: *When you travelled, what was the purpose?*

Professor A: *My husband was going to study; he was going to do his masters and PhD.*

Researcher: *So you had to go together.*

Professor A: *We had got married and we went together.*

98 per cent of them admitted they did not conclude their PhD programme in time for various reasons which slowed down their career progression, ranging from family responsibilities, child-bearing, child-rearing, marital stress, and husband's career; only one said hers was for lack of seriousness. She spent ten years on her PhD, in her words.

Prof. H

“I was not just serious, and I had marital problems.”

One of them went for a degree in Medicine and Surgery after three children and a previous degree in chemistry. Three of them got scholarships, one graduated with first class but had to delay going for master’s scholarship because she got married and had to travel with her husband to further his education abroad. She however, completed her own scholarship during this time.

Prof. I had this to say:

“I will say that the journey was a little bit rough... Probably slowed down my progress”

The father of one of the women was strongly advised not to send a girl to school, as it would be a waste because her father’s business further went down as at the time she wanted to further her education, his response according to her “was prophetic”

Prof. D

She is my first born and she’s very diligent and intelligent, if I don’t sent her to school; how am I sure that the boys will do equally well.

I said this is prophetic because actually in my family now, it’s the girls that have the highest education and profession. Some of the boys are at the level of average and some are being fed by their wives, because they are not making it. He died when I was writing my O’ level exams. I wish he was here to see me become a professor.

One of the women said though she was brilliant and was top of her class but had to go to college of education instead of HSC because her parents could not afford to send her for HSC, and at Adeyemi College of Education tuition was free at the time, so she had to go there for lack of funds, after she obtained her NCE, she got married, had two children before going for bachelors degree.

4.3.2 Career Choice of Respondents

Eight of the women chose academic career for personal interest, six had their fathers choose their careers for them, four were influenced by their husbands, two decided to go into teaching because they considered that the timing is flexible, therefore will give them ample time with their family. Four were influenced by their teachers, the way these teachers taught with mastery, confidence and passion, three of them got into it by accident and they just knew they had to go to the university but were not particularly focused on any course of study. One wanted to study pharmacy but did not meet the cut-off point; she was admitted for chemistry/education, she made effort to cross to pharmacy as she was promised; but was denied, eventually she studied chemistry/education to PhD level. Some of them made the following statements:

Prof. F

Did I have a reason? I just, it seems like the natural cause of event for me. I enjoy reading books; I have a library in my home.

Well, I only love academic right from my secondary school. In my secondary school I made 8 A's, in short I made good grades.

Prof. B

I had a very good French teacher". "During that period that I developed the idea of going to the University to further my education, personally, I thought on studying Sociology and Anthropology, but my husband said that I had the attributes of Being a good lawyer. So I collected the form to read Sociology and Anthology in U.I also collected form to read law in Ife. So I was given admission for both. And then incidentally my father being a lawyer ...and I happened to be the most liked, but I took after my father very much.

The professor in question eventually read law and continued in academics.

4.3.3 Research and Publication

This question elicited different responses from the women. Some are of the opinion that bias and discrimination on the part of evaluators can be a factor but they were in the minority. Others owe it to laziness, not publishing, multiple roles of women and the level of the woman. In explaining the multiple roles of women:

Prof. U

Women are busy doing so many things, you are having business, you are going to the market, and you are ha! (she giggles) going to Church, there is a lot of work; in fact do you ever see a man bring his babies for breast feeding in the class? At Agbe (a mini campus in one of the universities), a lecture was going on and the women just like in my picture (referring to a portrait in her office) were writing and breastfeeding at the back of the class. If the child cries, that is the end of the lecture for her.

Prof. R

They are not publishing. They will say you are a woman so you must not publish. You have to publish, you have to do research, and you have to write.

4.3.4 Academic Women and Academic Leadership

Each female Professor was asked what she understood by leadership and if women should aspire to lead and attain the position? In their responses, it was evident that leadership and leadership positions meant different things to different women. Leadership meant different thing to each of the women; but some have similar opinions. They described leadership in the following manner:

Leadership is helping and bringing up younger ones, it is to live and lead by example. It is commitment to whatever you have chosen to do. It means to provide the right environment. It means to be responsible and to take decisions. Leadership is doing the right thing. It is to provide quality teaching, research production, community service, good administration and accountability (FPs).

Two of them, one a former DVC and the other a current DVC expressed the view that leadership requires skills. It is pertinent to note that none of the women used the words authority and power to describe leadership.

All except one expressed the view that women should aspire to the position of leadership, she is of the view that the home and family should be more important to a woman than leadership position. She said a woman should stay clear if her position outside the home will have negative impact on her marriage.

A respondent expressed the present contentions in her university on the necessity of women to assume leadership positions.

Prof. Y

We are ever fighting that now; that is what we are putting before our Vice- Chancellor, that women have to ... we are fighting the VC seriously that we want women in leadership and key positions of the university...

Prof. I

Yes, more women should aspire (to lead) because we have qualities that make for good leaders because we are mothers; we are sympathetic so you don't cheat anybody...

One respondent who was a Dean at the time of interview vehemently declined accepting the position but for her senior colleague who persisted in building her confidence that she could do it. This goes to corroborate research findings that women often shy away from leadership positions and consider themselves ill-prepared for its responsibilities and challenges.

Prof. H

...When the person said I should come and be the Dean, I said don't just about that, he left me. Then he came back two days later. You are going to be the Dean in this Faculty. I said I can't even campaign. I like to be myself; I like to be away from people. Then he came back with a Senior Colleague. He said we have come to see you about the issue. I said please leave me alone, what do you mean? And that man said why can't you be a Dean?

What is wrong with being a Dean? I said, Dean, I don't even know what they do, so why are you running away. So, they will be calling me a Dean. So, what is wrong with calling you a Dean?

All the respondents rated the performance of female academics as good except one, who opined that some women are not approachable once they get to leadership position. In her words which she expressed in Yoruba and English:

Prof. K

Some of our women ti won ba ti de be; won a wa koga ru ni, mi o de like e. I feel that when you're there, o ye ko kawon kan mo ra; koo to ju awon to wa lehin. Sugbon tan be le de be, won tie fe ro birin bi tiwon mo; won tie fe kee sun mo won mo, so I have this against women.

Translation:

Once some women have the opportunity of getting to leadership position, they become puffed-up. They do not want to mentor young ones; they also become hostile to their fellow female colleagues.

Prof. G

Yeah! Of course because a woman is not conditioned to aspire, even if you look at female professors, a lot have their professorship at my age now (51). Many of them are nearly 60 before they become professor if at all.

4.3.5 Discussion of Findings on the Research Questions

The result of the findings on the research questions 1 to 3 and qualitative survey show that female academics' self-esteem is not as important to their career growth ($r = -.022$; $p > .05$) as self-efficacy ($r = .300$; $p < .05$). This is because while self-esteem could increase without a corresponding improvement in career growth, an improvement in self-efficacy could enhance career growth of female academics. While

this present study has found self-esteem to have and negative relationship with academic women's career growth, self-efficacy has positive significant relationship with both their career growth and leadership position. Other studies, while using subjects other than female academics found self-esteem to influence job tenure (Hackett, 1983), job satisfaction (Bandura, 1997; Lewin, 2006), work experience (Matsui, Ikeda, & Ohnishi, 1989; Madsen, 2006), career choice and aspiration, especially in male dominated careers. None of the studies examined the influence of self-esteem and self-efficacy on academic women's career growth.

Further, self-esteem and self-efficacy correlate positively with women academics' career growth ($R=.301$). This means these factors could explain career growth to a meaningful extent. Also, the R square value of .091 indicated that 9.1 per cent of the total variance in the women academics' career growth is accounted for by these two psychological factors while the remaining 90.9 per cent is due to other factors and residuals. This finding of both variables correlating with academic women's career growth is in agreement with the findings of (Hackett, 1985; Erinosh, 2005), who found self-efficacy to correlate with performance, achievement and gender in mathematical cognition. Also, Oyèyemí (2001) and Irikefe-Onoriode (1998) found self-efficacy to correlate with career success of migrations of physical therapists professionals, who move from developing to developed countries.

The results obtained show that female academics' self-esteem ($r=.156$; $p<.05$) and self-efficacy ($r=.272$; $p<.05$) have positive, and significant relationship with female academics leadership position. To this end, the two variables have the tendency to contribute to the improvement of female academic's leadership positions. They also explained the variations in female academics' leadership position to the tune of 9.7 per cent ($R\ square = .097$). Hence, the remaining 90.3 per cent is due to other factors and residuals. This finding is consistent with those of Chovwen (2004) and Boatwright, Egidio and Kalamazoo (2003) who found both variables to correlate with leadership aspiration of women, though their subjects were female executives in the industries and college students.

Moreover, the finding of this study is in agreement with the theory of Kanter (1977), reiterated the effect of absolute numbers, where a particular race or gender is the dominant number. The minority may exhibit negative self-evaluation and low self-

esteem. Here, male academics are the absolute numbers and female academics the minority, though Kanter's theory was tested in a mono-racial setting; results have proven to be consistent.

Research Questions 2a and 2b show that self-efficacy made a greater contribution ($\beta=.301$; $P<.05$) than self-esteem ($\beta= 0.26$; $P>.05$) to career growth. While the contribution of self-efficacy is significant, that of self-esteem is not. Self-efficacy also made a greater contribution to female academics' leadership position ($\beta=.270$; $P<.05$) than self-esteem ($\beta=.152$; $p<.05$), however, both variables made significant relative contributions to leadership position. This reveals that academic women need high self-efficacy to grow in their career and attain leadership position; they also require high self-esteem to attain leadership position. Previous studies did not examine the contributory effects the independent variables on female academics career growth and leadership position. Rather Wheeler, (1983) asserted that although self-efficacy beliefs contribute more heavily to occupational preferences than beliefs about the benefits attainable by different pursuits, women base their occupational preferences more heavily on their perceived efficacy than on the potential benefits that the vocations yield. The above findings is related to those of (Tobias, 1978; 1990; Ware, Steckler, and Leserman, 1985; Peltz, 1990) which concluded that lack of self-confidence, self doubts, fear of failure, and mathematics anxiety, all coupled with an unfriendly masculine culture, contribute to women's lack of success and perceived impaired career growth.

Research Questions 3a and 3b reveal that only self-efficacy predicted female academics' career growth ($B=.432$; $p< .05$). Self-esteem did not ($B=-3.05E-02$; $p.05$). However, both self-esteem ($B=.186$; $p<.05$) and self-efficacy ($\beta=.408$; $p<.05$) predicted female academics' leadership positions. This is a slight departure from the findings of Chovwen (2004) who found both variables to predict women's career growth, although her subjects were female executives in industries.

Result from the qualitative method also revealed that female academics are conscious of their minority status, feel a bit uneasy and have this behaviour of wanting to prove themselves, especially to the male colleagues. This is a reflection of low self-esteem; nonetheless this does not seem to affect their career growth as found in the

quantitative aspect of the study. But, this might affect their attainment of leadership positions, especially if they are seeking elective positions as they would require the votes their male colleagues who are in the majority. Therefore, results from both quantitative and qualitative methods are complimentary.

Research questions 4, 5 and 6 showed that parental influence has a negative, weak, relationship which is significant with career growth ($r = -.175$; $p < .05$). Spousal support has a positive, weak but significant relationship with the dependant measure ($r = .162$; $p < .05$). This finding is consistent with the findings of (Biernat and Wortman, 1990; Chovwen, 2004; Oti and Oyelude, 2006) who reiterated that work/home conflict is a major challenge faced by career women aspiring to leadership.

Moreover, both academic men collegial support ($r = .028$; $p > .05$) and academic men attitude towards women ($r = .054$; $p > .05$) have very weak positive relationship which are not significant with career growth. This finding is contrary to the submissions of earlier studies that found collegial support to be significant with career satisfaction, retention and tenure of women (Grant, Kennelly and Ward, 2000; O'Laughlin and Bischoff, 2005; Young and Wright, 2001). The four social factors: parental influence, spousal support, academic men collegial support, and academic men attitudes towards women jointly correlate positively with female academics' career growth ($R = .260$). Parental influence has a negative, weak, significant relationship with female academics' leadership position ($r = -.376$; $p < .05$), this result corroborate that of Madsen, 2006. Spousal support has a weak, positive relationship which is also significant ($r = .217$; $p < .05$); academic men collegial support has a negative, weak and not significant relationship ($r = -.072$; $p > .05$).

This result explains the importance of the support and cooperation of spouses to the careers of women which was complimented by the qualitative part of this study. Some of the women agreed that a woman who does not have the support of her husband is being given a choice between the home and her career. Academic men attitude towards women has a positive, weak and not significant relationship with women's leadership position ($r = .018$; $p > .05$). The composite effect shows that the four social factors: parental influence, spousal and academic men collegial support and academic men attitudes towards women have positive multiple relationship with female academics' leadership position ($R = .480$).

5a and 5b show that parental influence made the greatest contribution to female academics' career growth ($\beta=.197$; $P<.05$). This is a significant contribution. Spousal support is next with a decreasing magnitude ($\beta=.183$; $P<.05$). This is also a significant contribution. The third on the list is the contribution of academic men attitudes towards women ($\beta=.078$; $p>.05$) while the lowest contribution is that made by academic men collegial support ($\beta=.016$; $p>.05$). Although past studies found collegial support mentoring and career shadowing to be rewarding, and determinants of job satisfaction and leadership especially for junior female academics, (Eliason, Berggren and Bondestam, 2000; Oti and Oyelude, 2006) this study is a departure from earlier findings. This may be due to the fact that collegial support in this study is narrowed down to male academics alone.

Academic men attitude towards women made the greatest contribution to leadership position ($\beta=.428$; $p>.05$) though not significant, findings from qualitative aspect confirms this contribution. The women pointed out that the attitudes of male colleagues and even some senior female colleagues are not encouraging and detrimental to their attainment of leadership, this is corroborated by the work of Hammond *et. al.* (1993). This is followed by academic men collegial support ($\beta=.419$; $p<.05$), parental influence ($\beta=.368$; $P<.05$) and spousal support ($\beta=.250$; $p<.05$) in that order. All the contributions are significant.

6a and 6b showed that both parental influence ($B= -.112$; $t= -4.402$; $p<.05$) and spousal support ($B=.133$; $t= 4.216$; $p <.05$) predicted female academics leadership positions. On the other hand, academic men attitude towards women ($B=.164$; $t=.623$; $P>.05$) and academic men collegial support ($B= -3.92 E-02$; $t=1.27$; $p>.05$) did not predict female academics' career growth. The four social factors independently predicted female academics' leadership position. It is pertinent to note that though academic men attitude towards women and academic men collegial support did not predict female academics' leadership position, the qualitative discussion is to the contrary as the women reiterated the importance of having the support of the male counterparts to get to elective positions. Looking at it quantitative result from another angle, these two variables (academic men attitude towards women and academic men

collegial support) were not significant because with or without the support or egalitarian attitude of male colleagues; women will still grow attain leadership as long as it is not an elective position.

Research question 7, 8 and 9 show that fairness has a weak, positive and significant relationship with career growth ($r=.093$; $p<.05$). However, both inclusion and work climate have no significant relationships respectively with career growth. For inclusion, there is weak negative relationship ($r=-.042$; $p>.05$) and for work climate, the relationship is weak but positive ($r=.034$; $p>.05$). The qualitative aspect of this study validates the significance of fairness to career growth, as many of the women pointed out that the way academics is structured is unfair to academic women; this includes appointment, distribution of resources and other forms of discrimination. These were also corroborated by previous studies (Kanter, 1977; Nesbitt *et al.*, 2001; Odejide, 2003; Chovwen, 2004).

Also, there is a positive multiple correlations among the three organisation climate variables: fairness, inclusion, work climate and career growth ($R=.100$). Further, the R value for the regression is .100 indicating that 10.0% of the variance in female academics' career growth is due to the three organisational climate factors. The remaining 90 per cent is due to other factors and residuals.

Furthermore, fairness has a weak, positive and no significant relationship with female academics' leadership position ($r=.040$; $p>.05$). Inclusion has a weak negative relationship which is not significant ($r=-.043$; $p>.05$) while work climate has a weak positive relationship which is significant with leadership positions ($r=.189$; $p<.05$). This result validates Kanter (1977) theory of absolute and the way they dominate and determine the climate of the organisation. The three organisational climate factors have positive multiple correlation with leadership position ($R=.235$), which accounted for 5.5 per cent of the total variance in the female academics' leadership position. Thus the remaining 94.5 per cent is due to other factors not covered in this study. The R-value of 0.55 is significant ($f= 9.917$; $p<.05$). Therefore, the composite effect of the three organisational factors could not be ascribed to chance.

Moreover, fairness made the highest contribution to career growth ($\beta=.082$; $p>.05$) followed by work climate ($\beta=.041$; $p>.05$) and then inclusion ($\beta=0.22$; $p>.05$). They all made contributions which are not significant to career growth. Work climate made the greatest contribution to leadership position ($\beta=.263$; $p<.05$) followed by inclusion ($\beta=.174$; $p<.05$). These are significant contributions. Fairness made the lowest contribution which is not significant ($\beta=.045$; $p>.05$). None of the three organisational climate factors predicted career growth. However, both work climate ($B=1.400$, $t=5.336$; $p<.05$) and inclusion ($B = -.681$; $t = -3.144$; $p<.05$) predicted women academics' leadership positions. Fairness ($B= -.146$; $t= -3.144$; $P>.05$) did not.

Research Question 10a and 10b: Psychological, Social, and Organisational Climate have positive multiple correlations with female academics career growth $R=.397$, they also accounted for 5.7 per cent of the total variance in the female academic career growth. The three factors: Psychological, Social, and Organisational Climate have positive multiple relationship with female academics leadership position ($R=.545$). Therefore, Psychological, Social, and Organisational Climate factors have significant composite effect on female academics leadership position.

Research Question 11a and 11b: show that when the nine variables were taken together three were significant: self-efficacy made (1st) the highest contribution to female academics career growth ($\beta= .280$; $p <.05$) followed by parental influence 2nd ($\beta= .212$; $p <.05$), spousal support 3rd ($\beta= .182$; $p, <.05$). When the nine factors were taken together self-efficacy, parental influence, spousal support and organisational climate (inclusion) made significant contributions to leadership position. However, in order of ranking; Parental influence is 1st ($\beta= .360$; $p <.05$); academic men attitudes towards women 2nd ($\beta= .271$; $p <.05$); self-efficacy 3rd ($\beta= .245$; $p, <.05$); spousal support 4th ($\beta= .221$; $p >.05$); academic men collegial support 5th ($\beta= .198$; $p, <.05$); fairness 6th ($\beta= .155$; $p >.05$); work climate 7th ($\beta= .104$; $p >.05$); inclusion 8th ($\beta= .094$; $p >.05$); and self-esteem 9th ($\beta= .067$; $p >.05$) respectively.

Research Question 12a and 12b

Two of the three factors: Psychological ($B=.402$; $t=6.584$; $p <.05$) and Social factors ($B= -.120$; $t= -4.887$; $p<.05$) predicted female academics' career growth. While all the three factors: Psychological ($B=.370$; $t=6.316$; $p<.05$). Social ($B= .169$; $t =$

5.673; $p < .05$) and organisational climate ($B = .555$; $t = 2.028$; $p < .05$) predicted female academics' leadership position. Most studies that examined the effect of organisational climate focused on other dependent variables other than female academics' career growth and leadership positions (Hagedorn, 2000; Johnsrud, 2002; Volkwein and Zhou, 2003).

This study has revealed the significant effect of these variables on the careers of female academics. Furthermore, all the three (psychological, social and organisational climate) factors have proven to be significant to their career growth and leadership position. Therefore, academic women may not grow in their career and also may find it difficult to aspire to or attain leadership in the absence of these variables.

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5a and 5b show that parental influence made the greatest contribution to female academics' career growth ($\beta=.197$; $P<.05$). This is a significant contribution. Spousal support is next with a decreasing magnitude ($\beta=.183$; $P<.05$). This is also a significant contribution. The third on the list is the contribution of academic men attitudes towards women ($\beta=.078$; $p>.05$) while the lowest contribution is that made by academic men collegial support ($\beta=.016$; $p>.05$). Although past studies found collegial support mentoring and career shadowing to be rewarding, and determinants of job satisfaction and leadership especially for junior female academics, (Eliason, Berggren and Bondestam, 2000; Oti and Oyelude, 2006) this study is a departure from earlier findings. This may be due to the fact that collegial support in this study is narrowed down to male academics alone.

Academic men attitude towards women made the greatest contribution to leadership position ($\beta=.428$; $p>.05$) though not significant, findings from qualitative aspect confirms this contribution. The women pointed out that the attitudes of male colleagues and even some senior female colleagues are not encouraging and detrimental to their attainment of leadership, this is corroborated by the work of Hammond *et. al.* (1993). This is followed by academic men collegial support ($\beta=.419$; $p<.05$), parental influence ($\beta=.368$; $P<.05$) and spousal support ($\beta=.250$; $p<.05$) in that order. All the contributions are significant.

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter consists of the summary of the findings discussed in the previous chapter, policy implications and recommendations, limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

5.1 Summary

This study examined psychosocial factors and organisational climate as predictors of female academics' career growth and leadership positions in universities in south-west Nigeria. The research employed the ex-post facto survey design which involved a sample of 871 respondents selected through stratified random sampling, on whom questionnaires were administered as well as 27 participants in in-depth interviews in six purposively selected universities in south west Nigeria.

Each respondent completed questionnaires allotted to them from the five sets of instrument: Psychological Factors Questionnaire (PFQ), Social Factors Questionnaire (SFQ) and Organisational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ), Career Growth Questionnaire (CGQ), and Leadership Position Questionnaire (LPQ), and multiple regression was used to analyse the data collected in order to provide answer to twelve research questions raised in the study.

5.1.2 Research Findings:

There is positive, significant relationship between female academics' self-efficacy and career growth ($r=.300$; $p<.05$), as well as self-efficacy and leadership position ($r=.272$; $p<.05$).

1. Female academics' self-efficacy made greater significant contribution to their career growth ($\beta=.301$; $p<.05$). Also female academics' self-efficacy made greater significant contribution to their leadership position ($\beta=.270$; $p<.05$). The contribution of self-esteem to leadership position is also significant ($\beta=.152$; $p<.05$).

2. Female academics' self-esteem did not predict their career growth ($B=3.05E-02$; $p>.05$). Self-efficacy predicted academic women's career growth ($B=.432$; $p<.05$). Both self-esteem ($B=.186$; $p<.05$) and self-efficacy ($B=.408$; $p<.05$) predicted academic women's leadership position.
3. There is significant positive relationship between parental influence and academic women's career growth ($r=-.175$; $p<.05$). Spousal support had a positive significant relationship with academic women's career growth ($r=.162$; $p<.05$). Collegial support ($r=.028$; $p>.05$) and attitude towards women ($r=.054$; $p>.05$) did not significantly correlate with academic women's career growth. When the four social variables are taken together, they have positive correlation with career growth. Parental influence has positive significant relationship with academic women's leadership position ($r=.376$; $p<.05$). There is positive significant relationship between spousal support and academic women's leadership position ($r=.217$; $p<.05$). The relationship between collegial support ($r=-.072$; $p>.05$) and attitude towards women ($r=-.81$; $p>.05$) is negative and not significant.
4. Parental influence has the greatest positive relative contribution to academic women's career growth ($\beta=.197$; $p<.05$). In order of rank spousal support is next in its positive relative contribution to academic women's career growth ($\beta=.183$; $p<.05$). Third is collegial support. It has positive relative contribution to career growth ($\beta=.078$; $p>.05$). The fourth is attitude towards women, which also has positive relative contribution to career growth ($\beta=.016$; $p>.05$). Attitude towards women rank 1st, and has positive relative contribution to leadership position ($\beta=.428$; $p>.05$). Second is collegial support with positive relative contribution to academic women's leadership position ($\beta=.419$; $p<.05$). Third is parental influence, it has positive relative contribution of ($\beta=.368$; $p<.05$) to leadership position. Fourth is spousal support which has positive relative contribution of ($\beta=.250$; $p<.05$) to leadership position.
5. Parental influence ($B=-.112$; $t=-4.402$; $p<.05$) and spousal support ($B=.133$; $t=4.216$; $p<.05$) predicted academic women's career growth. On the contrary,

collegial support ($B=-3.92E-02$; $t=1.27$; $p>.05$) and attitude towards women ($B=.164$; $t=.623$; $p>.05$) did not predict female academics' career growth. All the social variables of Parental influence ($B=-.220$; $t=.9.050$; $p<.05$), spousal support ($B=.191$; $t=6.343$; $p<.05$), collegial support ($B=-1.080$; $t=.3.648$; $p<.05$) and attitude towards women ($B=.947$; $t=3.755$; $p<.05$) predicted female academics' leadership position.

6. Only fairness has positive significant relationship with academic women's career growth ($r=.093$; $p<.05$). The relationship of inclusion and work climate were not significant. In the relationship with leadership positions; Inclusion has a weak negative relationship with the dependant variable ($r=-.043$; $p>.05$). Work climate has a weak positive relationship which is not significant with leadership positions ($r=.189$; $p<.05$).
7. Fairness made the highest contribution to career growth ($\beta=.082$; $p>.05$) followed by work climate ($\beta=.041$; $p>.05$) and then inclusion ($\beta=0.22$; $p>.05$). Their contributions were however not significant to career growth. Work climate made the greatest contribution to leadership position ($\beta=.263$; $p<.05$) followed by inclusion ($\beta=.174$; $p<.05$). These were significant contributions. However, fairness made the lowest contribution which is not significant ($\beta=.045$; $p>.05$).
8. None of the three organisational climate factors could predict career growth. These are fairness, ($B=.251$; $t=1.599$; $p>.05$) inclusion ($B=-8.17E-02$; $t=-.388$; $p>.05$) and work climate ($B=.209$; $t=.817$; $p>.05$). Both work climate ($B=1.400$, $t=5.336$; $p<.05$) and inclusion ($B = -.681$; $t = -3.144$; $p<.05$) predicted female academics' leadership positions. Fairness ($B= -.146$; $t= -3.144$; $P>.05$) could however, not predict women academics' leadership position.
9. There is significant positive relationship among psychological, social and organisational climate factors and female academics' career growth and leadership position
10. If taken together, psychological and social factors had significant contribution to female academics' career growth, while the three factors (psychological, social and organisational climate factors) had significant contribution to female

academics' leadership position. However, among the variables under the factors that contributed to career growth, self-efficacy is the greatest contributor, followed by parental influence, spousal support, Attitude towards women, fairness, self-esteem, collegial support, inclusion and work climate. Among the variables that contribute to academic women's leadership position; parental influence is the greatest contributor, followed by attitude towards women, self-efficacy, Spousal support, collegial support, fairness, work climate, inclusion and self-esteem.

11. Psychological and social factors predicted career growth, while all the three factors predicted leadership position.
12. Two of the three factors: Psychological and Social factors predicted female academics' career growth, while the three factors: Psychological, Social and organisational climate predicted female academics' leadership position.

5.1.3 Discussion of In-depth Interviews

Result of the in-depth interviews among female professors in the six universities revealed that female academics are very conscious of their minority status. Although the women said they have no problem with self-esteem and self-efficacy, it was evident from the interview, that some of them doubt their abilities, because of the consciousness of their status. This is in agreement with the quantitative aspect, because self-efficacy could predict both career growth and leadership position, while self-esteem predicted leadership position.

Concerning social support, majority of the professors spoke passionately about their fathers, and were less passionate about their mothers. Many of them were quite close to their fathers, and their career choice was influenced by them. They were very nostalgic about their growing up experience, especially about how some of their fathers were dissuaded about sending a girl child to the University. All the women were married except three; one was never married and two were divorced. However, they unanimously reiterated that career academic women need the support and understanding of their spouses for unhindered growth and attainment of leadership.

This result was upheld in the quantitative study, as both parental influence and spousal support predicted career growth and leadership position.

The professors are of the opinion that they have good working relationship and collegiality with their male colleagues, although few of them mentioned some negative gender relations, for example, insubordination and denigration of their capacity to perform; to corroborate this result collegial support did not predict career growth. It however predicted leadership position, FPs who have occupied elective positions recognise the fact that they required the votes of majority male to get elected. Some of them also admitted that women have to learn to be “good girls” and respect their male colleagues in order to attain leadership position. This submission was upheld in the quantitative study as collegial support predicted leadership position.

Some of the women opined that at one point or the other they had been victims of gender discrimination and bias through negative attitudes emanating from both female and male colleagues. They were of the opinion however that this did not affect their career mobility, because university regulations concerning appointment and promotion (A&P) were transparent. Contrary to this submission, one of them said women have to “fight” for recognition and opportunities as it were. The FPs agreed that, although things are changing, attitude towards women is still not very positive. Attitude towards women predicted both career growth and leadership position.

As regard the organisational climate, and appointment and promotion A & P, the FPs unanimously opined that the guidelines are clear enough, and with that; favouritism and discrimination is minimised, hence the A&P is fair. But even at that the FPs still had a feeling that women are “not being included” in decision making processes of their institutions. They also mentioned subtle discrimination based on gender in appointment. Fairness could not predict the dependent measures, but work climate and inclusion predicted leadership position.

From the results of the qualitative and quantitative study, the Nigerian academic environment is still very much gendered, making the climate a little “chilly” for the minority group, female academics therefore, positive self-esteem, self-efficacy, social support (especially from husbands and parents) are very important to the career

growth of academic women and their attainment of leadership positions. Egalitarian attitude from male colleagues and appointment and promotion committee is equally an essential factor for academic women not only to attain leadership, but to have the cooperation of colleagues, juniors and superior officers and grow in their chosen career.

5.2 Policy Implications

The findings of this study have some implications for the career growth of academic women and their attainment of leadership position in the Nigerian University system. Though on paper, there are no discriminatory practices against any gender towards career advancement, but at the same time there are no policies on ground except at the Obafemi Awolowo University, to address gender issues as they affect women's career.

At the University of Ibadan, the process of institutionalising gender policies is just under way (incidentally the researcher is part of the Gender Mainstreaming Project in the University of Ibadan). At both universities, the policies are still donor driven (initialized and funded by foreign Organisations). Therefore, gender issues in the Nigerian University system is not yet seen and treated as a localised problem. University policy implementers must look beyond the mere participation of women as academic staff, but focus on their career trajectories, social and gender related challenges they face as career academic staff members.

Global conventions, research, and changing cultures have affirmed the importance of women in nation building. The participation of women as academic staff of Nigerian universities (especially in the south west, which is known for educational advancement in Nigeria) shows that there is positive change in culture and socialization which had repressed and denied women western education and white collar career outside the home for decades.

Nonetheless, the findings of this study would provided an insight into the formulation of policies that have to do with psycho-social and organisational climate of the careers of female academics and their attainment of leadership position in academia. The time is now to formulate policies that will make the university

environment gender friendly in terms of building positive and egalitarian attitude towards the female gender and their inclusion in leadership positions.

The university policies on recruitment, promotion and training could be improved upon to give consideration for the peculiar challenges of academic women, while not compromising the standards. Moreover, the university system and national universities commission have a lot to do in formulating policies that are gender inclusive in grooming female academics for administrative and other leadership positions in line with international conventions and quotas. For example, policies that will re-dress the many years of inequitable distribution of and access to opportunities, power and leadership in women's disfavour should be addressed.

5.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations were arrived at based on the findings of the study:

1. Positive self-concept is an important factor for career growth of women, especially women in academics. Notably, out of the two self-concept factors that were reviewed in this study, self-efficacy is a more important predictor of the career and leadership experience of women. Therefore, career women and those aspiring have to do everything possible to build their efficacy in the areas of the individual careers. In academics, women have to build capacity in the following areas:
 - a) Mastery of research;
 - b) Mastery of publications and where to publish for acceptability by assessors.
 - c) How to write scholarly papers;
 - d) Emotional intelligence- positive relationship with colleagues, superiors and subordinates it is not enough to just write papers, human, social capital must be built among colleagues.
2. It is important and imperative for women to attend workshops and seminars that can boost their personal and career efficacy, so as to be better positioned for responsibilities.

3. Also, women must overcome personal limitations, have some degree of social support and have a determination to overcome cultural and institutional climate barriers.
4. The university system can help women come out of the web of low self-efficacy by organising gender specific seminars for women in academic leadership and aspiring ones just as it is done in universities in Australia, United Kingdom and South Africa, this is with the background knowledge that the socialisation of women is not consistent with the demands of academics which encourages competition, assertiveness and arguments. Women have been socialised to be passive, not to argue and not to compete for things or positions. This will help to re-orientate them and position them better for the challenges of academics.
5. The career and leadership seminars can be extended to include secondary school students and female undergraduates, in order to refocus them early and harness their potentials for the benefit of the university and society as a whole.
6. It is important for academic women to get the support of their husbands if they must make unhindered progress and attain leadership positions in their careers.
7. It has become imperative for husbands of career women to lend support to their wives, whether emotional, empathic, physical, financial or otherwise, considering the many roles women play in the home and society in general. Women who do not have this support have been found to spend longer time in career mobility, lack concentration or divorce or end their marriage in order to grow and reach the apex of their careers. Men should realise that whatever progress a woman makes should be a thing of pride to them; after all Nigerian women answer their husbands' last name.
8. Parents should pay attention to the development of their children, especially girls, this is because their influence is far reaching. It spans beyond their formative years, right through their making career decisions, career choice and influencing their work ethics.

9. The values parents put in their children have been found to be very influential in their adult years, values such as honesty, punctuality, hard work, discipline and trust.
10. It was found that many of the respondents were grateful that in spite of all odds, their parents could send them to school even at the time that it was not fashionable to invest in the education of girls. It is recommended that parents invest not only in the education of their girls but also show them love and acceptance. They should also endeavour to complement their effort when necessary. These are very important for developing positive self-esteem. Many of the female academics could cope and adjust with working in a male dominated environment if they have positive self-esteem.
11. Attitude towards women was found to contribute significantly to their leadership positions. Therefore, egalitarian attitude towards women in their career growth and leadership positions is very important for women to become leaders and gain acceptance in their careers and leadership. It is important for colleagues of women (male and female) alike, superiors and subordinates to cooperate with them for effective working relationship and the achievement of individual and organisational goals.
12. It is imperative for the university to create an enabling environment for all academic staff, an environment that will not exclude people in decision-making, leadership, promotion and appointment based on their sex or/and gender. An environment where opportunities will be equitably distributed. An environment that will be fair to all irrespective of the sex or gender.
13. The university climate should be favourable to all not minding gender or sex. It should create a gender sensitive climate that will encourage career growth of women and their attainment of leadership. The university community can organise periodic leadership empowerment seminars and workshops for women with the aim of developing management and leadership skills in them.
14. Appointment and Promotion committees should ensure that qualified women are employment without inhibition or discrimination against their gender;

women should also be included in functional committees and leadership roles. Gender should be mainstreamed into the university curriculum, so that men and women will have a deep understanding of the influence of gender in social relations and work.

15. Curriculum: Primary and Secondary school textbooks authors should portray Professors and other successful professionals as female.
16. FPs should take up mentorship roles and programmes in schools. They should adopt a school, which will serve to counter the impression that Professors are male and motivate girls to choose academics.
17. FPs should take to outreach teaching at West Africa Examination Council, National Examination Council Organisation, General Certificate Examination and Joint Admission and Matriculation Board Centres, etc.
18. FPs could through the Governing Councils ensure that the position of Deputy Vice-Chancellor is perpetually reserved for female and through the search committee ensure that at least 2 female professors contest for Vice-Chancellorship position.
19. FPs could energise the women in Nigeria and African universities project and ensure its national and continental visibility.
20. FPs should consider the abandonment of the principle of reversed discrimination and instead demand absolute equality.

5.4 Limitations of the study

The unwelcoming attitude of some respondents in this study (sample) was a major limitation. It constituted a culture shock for the researcher and research assistants who had expected that the subjects being researchers themselves would encourage those on the field knowing what was at stake. First attempt at door to door administration of questionnaires was not very successful as many of the respondents gave excuses of being very busy. Some who took the questionnaire did not fill them; some lost them several times over until the researcher devised the use of snowball technique (referral note or word of mouth introduction of the researcher from one academic staff to another). Also appointments with the professors were far in between with some few disappointments. All these made the field work to be elongated.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Study

Giving consideration to some of the limitations encountered in the course of this study, one could not claim that all questions regarding psycho-social and organisational climate factors predicting female academics' career growth and leadership position have been adequately answered. Nonetheless, the study though provides an insight to certain aspects of the discussion, acts as a spring board for subsequent related studies. Therefore, this study could be replicated in other regions of the country. Also, a comparative study of selected universities could be embarked upon.

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Appendix I

**PSYCHO-SOCIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE FACTORS AS
PREDICTORS OF FEMALE ACADEMICS' CAREER GROWTH AND
LEADERSHIP POSITION IN SOUTH-WESTERN NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES**

Dear respondent,

This research questionnaire is basically meant to elicit information from you (**female academic**) concerning your personal experience in relation to your career growth and leadership positions in academia. There is no right or wrong answer, be assured that your responses will be treated with utmost confidence. Kindly respond sincerely to all the items. Thanks for your cooperation.

SECTION A

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1) Indicate Your Age: Below 30 31-40 41-50 51- 60 61-65
65 +

2) Marital Status: a) Single b) Married c) Separated d) Divorced
e) Widowed

f) Others indicate

3) Your University Faculty Your Dept.

4) No of Children

5) Academic qualifications from least to highest. a) NCE b) BA/BSC c)
MA/MSC PhD

e) Others specify

6) Your Highest Qualification When Employed

7) How long have you been employed in the University?

8) What Is Your Present Title/Rank?

9) How Long Have You Been In This Position?

10) When Was Your Last Promotion? 12b) Are you due for another promotion?

11) Have you ever put yourself up for promotion?

12) Your Father's highest educational qualification?

13) Your Mother's highest educational qualification?

14) Father's occupation/Profession?

15) Mother's occupation/profession?

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FEMALE ACADEMIC PSYCHOLOGICAL QUESTIONNAIRES

	Self-Esteem	SA	A	D	SD
1.	My efforts always produce poor results.				
2.	I always try to lead any group I find myself.				
3.	In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than be my true self.				
4.	I rely on my friends and others to advise me on how to solve my personal problems.				
5.	When in a group, I am unlikely to express my opinion because I fear others may not think well of me.				
6.	I feel inferior to some of my friends.				
7.	If I hear that some one expresses a poor opinion of me, I do my best to please him/her.				
8.	I think am confident enough to speak in a group				
9.	I feel self conscious when I am with people who have superior position to mine at work.				
10.	I sometimes criticise myself afterwards for having acted silly or inappropriate in some situation,				
11.	I also become panicky when I think of something I might do wrong in future.				
12.	I don't believe much in my ability.				
13.	When I'm in a group I usually don't say much for fear of saying the wrong thing.				
14.	I live too much by other people's standard.				
15.	Although people sometimes compliment me I feel that I do not really deserve the compliments.				
	Self-Efficacy				
16.	I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.				
17.	If someone opposes me, I can find means and ways to get what I want.				
18.	It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my career goals.				
19.	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.				
20.	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.				
21.	I can solve most career-related problems, if I invest the necessary effort.				
22.	I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my career, because I can rely on my coping abilities.				

23.	When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.				
24.	If I am in trouble, I can usually think of something to do.				
25.	No matter what comes my way, I'm usually able to handle it.				

SOCIAL FACTORS QUESTIONNAIRES

	Parental Influence (Female Academic)	SA	A	D	SD
26.	My Father had high expectations of me.				
27.	My Father instilled in me a love for learning.				
28.	My Father has a strong influence on my career choice.				
29.	My Father was instrumental to who I am today.				
30.	My Father encouraged me so much to achieve in life.				
31.	My Father taught me that education was very important.				
32.	My Father encouraged me have a career and fulfil my ambition.				
33.	My Father was very supportive of my career.				
34.	My Father believed that having a career for a woman was very important.				
35.	My Mother had high expectations of me.				
36.	My Mother instilled in me a love for learning.				
37.	My Mother has a strong influence on my career choice.				
38.	My Mother was instrumental to who I am today.				
39.	My Mother encouraged me so much to achieve in life.				
40.	My Mother taught me that education was very important.				
41.	My Mother encouraged me have a career and fulfil my ambition.				
42.	My Mother was very supportive of my career.				
43.	My Mother believed that having a career for a woman was very important.				

	Male Academics Collegial Support	SA	A	D	SD
44.	I have excellent working relations with my colleagues irrespective of gender.				
45.	I have excellent working relations with my female colleagues.				
46.	I like my female colleagues.				
47.	I like my female superiors.				
48.	I like my female sub-ordinates.				
49.	I have difficulty collaborating with my female colleagues.				
50.	I recognize my female colleagues for their contribution to knowledge.				
51.	It is easier for me to accept the intellectual authority of a woman.				
52.	More men than women attend academic conferences, hence build more networks.				
53.	I feel more comfortable mentoring a male candidate than female.				
54.	I have mentored more males than females.				
55.	I always provide timely feedback that challenges and support my colleagues regardless of gender.				
56.	I have respect for my colleagues irrespective of gender.				
57.	I find it difficult to accept career women; because I see them as usurping male role.				
58.	Women are less successful in achieving promotion because they receive less mentoring.				
59.	Women are less successful in academics because they have fewer professional opportunities.				

	Academic Men Attitudes Towards Women	SA	A	D	SD
60	Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving intellectual and social problems.				
61	Both husband and wife should be allowed the same grounds for divorce.				
62	Telling dirty jokes should be mostly a masculine prerogative.				
63	Intoxication among women is worse than intoxication among men.				
64	Men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes, baby sitting and doing the laundry.				
65	It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause remain in the marriage service.				
66	There should be a strict merit system in job appointment and promotion without regard to sex.				
67	A woman should be free as a man to propose marriage.				
68	Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.				
69	A woman should not expect to have quite the same freedom as a man.				
70	It is ridiculous for a woman to be the Vice-chancellor.				
71	The wife should defer to the husband if found in the same career.				
72	Women should be concerned with their duties of childbearing and house tending rather than with desires for professional careers and/or leadership.				
73	The intellectual leadership in academic community should be largely in the hands of men.				
74	Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set up by men.				
75	On the average, women should be regarded as less capable of contributing to knowledge production than are men.				
76	There are many aspects of academic job in which men should be given preference over women.				
77	Women should be give equal opportunity with men for career advancement.				
78	A woman should have equal rights as a man in the Nigerian culture.				

	Spousal Support (Female Academic)	Very Often	Often	Some Time	Never
79.	My husband: Baby sits.				
80.	Does/did school run.				
81.	Takes/took care of the children if I have to travel for a conference,				
82.	Does/did the cooking for the family when the need arises.				
83.	Does/did not mind my working late in the office, When I have/had to meet deadlines.				
84.	Assists/assisted in sweeping the house.				
85.	Helps/helped the children with their home work.				
86.	Encourages (d) me to further my education.				
87.	Gives/ gave financial assistance.				
88.	Provides/provided and pays for domestic servant(s).				
89.	Assists/(ed) me with my paper work.				
90.	Advices (ed) and encourages (ed) me when I'm burdened with much work load.				
91.	Takes/took care of the home when I have/had to go for conference(s).				
92.	Bath/(ed) the children and dress(ed) them up.				
93.	Allow(ed) extended family members live with us, in order to assist with house-chores and care of the children.				
94.	Prays (ed) for me and prays (ed) with me.				
95.	Goes/went to food market to buy food stuff for the house.				

FEMALE ACADEMIC CAREER GROWTH QUESTIONNAIRE

	Career Growth	SA	A	D	SD
96.	My University encourages the use of personal initiative on the job.				
97.	My University gives great responsibilities to young female academics that ensure career growth.				
98.	My job in this University is secure.				
99.	My University offers adequate training opportunities for both junior and senior female academics.				
100.	My University provides an enabling environment for young female academics to grow in their career.				
101.	My University does not discriminate against the female gender in assigning administrative roles.				
102.	My University offers good opportunities for those who are upwardly mobile.				
103.	My personal career growth is stunted because I have not met the demand of publishing scholarly articles.				
104.	I am not making progress as I envisaged; so I'm working on it.				
105.	I have adequate opportunity for personal growth and development.				
106.	I am making tremendous progress in my career as an academic.				
107.	I am not making progress as I envisaged; therefore I plan to leave the system any time soon.				
108.	Career growth in the University system favours male more than female.				

FEMALE ACADEMIC LEADERSHIP POSITION QUESTIONNAIRE

	Leadership Position	SA	A	D	SD
109.	Leadership takes one away from research and publication; so I would rather not lead.				
110.	I don't have to be an HOD, DEAN, or VC before I consider myself a leader in academia.				
111.	I prefer leadership in teaching to administrative leadership.				
112.	I'm working very hard towards becoming a vice-chancellor in the nearest future.				
113.	After you have gone out to lead, it becomes difficult to get back into research and publication.				
114.	Leadership requires too much politics which I am not prepared for.				
115.	Leadership requires fundraising of some kind which can expose a woman to unnecessary harassment.				
116.	Leadership requires skills like managing staff, budgeting and planning which I am not proficient in.				
117.	Leadership at the apex of academia involves crisis management like student unrest/cultism and staff protest/strikes and a woman is not just cut out for these.				
118.	Administrative leadership involves having sufficient networking experience within and outside the university. I do not see myself being a socialite.				
119.	Elective leadership positions require the ability to take others along that is having follower-ship. I do not see many of my colleagues including women following me because of my gender.				
120.	A research and scholarship skill alone is not enough for leadership role in academia.				
121.	Leadership requires strong administrative skills and knowledge, which I do not possess.				
122.	I feel more comfortable with a male leader than a female.				
123.	I do not aspire to occupy leadership positions.				

**APPOINTMENT AND PROMOTION ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE
QUESTIONNAIRE**

	Fairness	SA	A	D	SD
124.	Academic staff are treated fairly and on the basis of what they do rather than who they are or who they know				
125.	More males than females apply for academic positions.				
126.	Performance evaluation is always a reflection of academics' contributions to knowledge.				
127.	Career and skill advancement processes are in place and are accessible to all academic staff irrespective of gender.				
128.	All academics get their fair share of opportunities and interesting assignments regardless of gender.				
129.	The culture of fairness in this University is very good				
130.	Many departments prefer to appoint a male than a female.				
131.	Selection committees value merit in the appointment of an academic more than any other thing.				
132.	Workload is unfairly distributed among male and female academics.				
133.	Academics are treated fairly and reasonably irrespective of gender.				
134.	Grievance procedures are fair to all irrespective of gender				
135.	There is adequate flexibility in workplace arrangements (for example, leave hours, working from home) for staff with family/career/cultural responsibilities (especially women).				
136.	The Campus and facilities are gender-friendly for current and/or potential academic staff.				
	Work Climate	SA	A	D	SD
137.	Female academics prefer to work in this University rather than somewhere else because of what this University stands for.				
138.	Academics feel proud to work in this university.				
139.	Female Academics feel valued as employees of this University.				
140.	Female academics are treated with dignity and respect in this University.				
141.	The work environment on this campus is welcoming to all academics irrespective of gender.				

142.	This university recognises the need for balance between work responsibilities and personal life.				
143.	The climate of this University is gender friendly.				
	Inclusion	SA	A	D	SD
144.	There is open acceptance of all academic staff irrespective of gender.				
145.	Female academics are treated differently on this campus because of my gender.				
146.	Female academics are included in decision making processes in this University.				
147.	Female academics are included in important committees in this University.				
148.	Female academics are adequately represented in the senate of this University.				
149.	This University is commitment to gender equity and inclusion; this is reflected in its policies and practices.				

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Appendix II
In-Depth Interview Schedule

Appendix I

**PSYCHO-SOCIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE FACTORS AS
PREDICTORS OF FEMALE ACADEMICS CAREER GROWTH AND
LEADERSHIP POSITION IN SOUTH-WESTERN NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES**

Dear respondent,

This research demographic questions and in-depth interview schedule are meant to elicit information from you (**female professor**) concerning your personal experience in relation to your career growth and leadership position in academia. The interview will last between 45-90 minutes. I wish to crave your indulgence that digital electronic recording device will be used to record our discussion, be rest assured that your responses will be treated with utmost confidence and your identity concealed. Thank you for your cooperation.

SECTION A

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1) Indicate Your Age: Below 30 31-40 41-50 51- 60 61-65
65 +

2) Marital Status: a) Single b) Married c) Separated d) Divorced
e) Widowed

f) Others indicate

3) Your University Faculty Your Dept.

4) No of Children

5) Academic qualifications from least to highest. a) NCE b) BA/BSC c)
MA/MSc PhD

e) Others specify

6) Your Highest Qualification When Employed

7) How long have you been employed in the University?

8) What Is Your Present Title/Rank?

9) How Long Have You Been In This Position?

10) When Was Your Last Promotion? 12b) Are you due for another promotion?

11) Have you ever put yourself up for promotion?

12) Your Father's highest educational qualification?

13) Your Mother's highest educational qualification?

14) Father's occupation/Profession?

15) Mother's occupation/profession?

SECTION B

Career Development

1. Kindly describe briefly your educational and career development.
2. What was your reason for choosing this career? Which aspect of the academics do you enjoy doing most (teaching, research and administration)?

Psychological factors

3. How does working in a male dominated work environment affect your self esteem?
4. How does it affect your efficacy? Would you consider yourself as efficacious? What are the specific aspects of academic work that gives you satisfaction?

Social Support

5. What is the general attitude of your husband to your being engaged in career outside the home? What is the general attitude of your husband to your attainment of leadership position in the University?
6. Do you experience any difficulty in carrying out your role as a wife, mother as well as being a professor?
7. If yes, how have you been able to resolve this?
8. Has your husband been supportive of your career as an academic? In what ways?
9. Kindly describe your working relationship with your colleagues, superiors and subordinates - male and female?
10. Do you receive any support from them? If yes, enumerate the kind of support. If no, explain.
11. What do you remember most vividly about your father and mother in your growing up years that influenced your choice of career?
12. Which one of them is more influential to your character?
13. What are the things you value most in your father, which helped you make your choice of career?
14. What are the things you value most in your mother, which helped you make your choice of career?

15. Who is the most influential person between your father and mother on your career choice?
16. Who is/are your role models?
17. What is your advice for aspiring female academics?

Organisational Climate

18. How would you describe your relationship with your colleagues, males/females?
19. Have you ever experienced any kind of discrimination or negative attitudes from your male colleagues based on your gender?
20. Are there specific perceived discriminations or bias against women in job selection, recruitment, promotion and academic opportunities?
21. In your opinion, is there any aspect of academic work that women generally do not want to be involved in?
22. Have you ever perceived that there could be some forms of gender disparity in recruitment and promotion activities in the academia?
23. In a situation where a man and woman equally qualify for a job position, in your opinion, who do you think would be given the employment?
24. What are the factors that restrict women from been promoted compared to their male colleagues? Did you encounter any difficulty in terms of promotion?

Leadership

25. In your viewpoint, what do you understand by the concept, leadership in the academia?
26. In your opinion, should women advance to leadership positions in the academia?
27. In your opinion, do you think there are fewer women than men in the academic profession? In your opinion, what is the male/female ratio in academic leadership positions?
28. How would you rate the performance of women in academic leadership in this university?

29. As a female professor occupying an academic leadership position, do you perceive you receive the same level of acceptance as your male counterparts?
30. Have you ever experienced any negative attitude to your position as a leader from superiors and/or subordinates? Would you aspire to become the Vice-Chancellor of this University?

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Appendix III

June 10, 2009

Ref. TEE/.....
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ADEPEJU OLAIDE OTI: MATRIC NO. 104602

This is to certify that ADEPEJU OLAIDE OTI (Mrs.) (with Matric. No. 104602) is a PhD candidate of the department of Teacher Education, Faculty of Education, and University of Ibadan. She is embarking on educational research, which necessitates collection of secondary data, administration of questionnaires to academic staff, and in-depth interviews with female Professors in your institution.

Her research topic is:

PSYCHO-SOCIAL FACTORS AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE AS PREDICTORS OF FEMALE ACADEMICS' CAREER GROWTH AND LEADERSHIP POSITIONS IN SELECTED NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES.

Kindly permit and oblige her in the interest of educational development in Nigeria.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Dr. Alice M. Olagunju

APPENDIX IV

June 10, 2009

Dear Prof.

I am a PhD candidate of the University of Ibadan, Faculty of Education, and Department of Teacher Education. I am currently on the field gathering data, as part of my research mandate; I need to conduct in-depth interviews with female Professors in selected Universities in the South western Nigeria.

My research topic is:

Psycho-social Factors and Organisational Climate as Predictors of Female Academics' Career Growth and Leadership Position in Selected Nigerian Universities.

Therefore, I would like to crave your indulgence to allow me and /or my research assistant to conduct in-depth interview with you; the interview will cover your career and leadership experiences and variables that have enhanced or impeded your growth and leadership. The interview will between 45 to ninety minutes.

I would like you to give me a date and time that will be most convenient for you ma. I thank you as I look forward to your positive and timely response. Attached is a letter of introduction from my Department.

Yours faithfully,

Adepeju Olaide Oti