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**PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS PREDICTING
PERCEIVED ACCEPTANCE AND CAREER
GROWTH OF FEMALE EXECUTIVES. IN
SELECTED OCCUPATIONS IN NIGERIA**

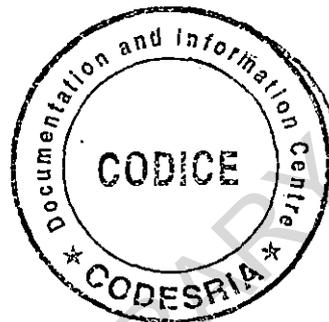
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**PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS PREDICTING PERCEIVED
ACCEPTANCE AND CAREER GROWTH OF FEMALE
EXECUTIVES IN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS IN NIGERIA**

BY



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**A Ph.D. THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF
PSYCHOLOGY, FACULTY OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL
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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
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ABSTRACT

The experiences of females have been found to contrast with those of males in male dominated occupations and this has led to the perception of unequal opportunities and differential treatment by females within male dominated work environment. Therefore, understanding the influence of personal and social factors in predicting perceived acceptance and career growth of female and male executives in male dominated occupations necessitated this study. The research seeks to compare the factors that determine perceived acceptance and growth for males and females in male occupations, females in female dominated and sex-neutral occupations. In addition, it intended to enhance literature on minority group in Nigeria by combining data from literature, survey and qualitative study in order to check for consistency of findings and make recommendations.

The occupations represented medicine, law, engineering, architecture, the force (armed, and paramilitary), nursing, banking, accounting, journalism, teaching and administration. A total of 356 respondents (113 males and 243 females) participated in the study. Standardized instruments were used to measure all the independent and dependent variables.

Multiple regression results revealed that self-esteem, self-efficacy, recognition and supportive management accounted for 16% ($P < .01$) and 42% ($P < .001$) of the total variance in perceived acceptance for both male and female

executives in male dominated occupations. For the female executives, results revealed that self-esteem was the best predictor of perceived acceptance while for their male counterparts; self-esteem and supportive management were the significant predictors. On the second dependent variable (perceived growth), all the psychosocial variables accounted for 34% ($P < .001$) of the total variance for female executives, and there was no significant joint influence of the variables for males. Results also indicated that although recognition and supportive management influenced perceived growth for females, none of the variables influenced perceived growth for the males in male dominated occupations.

One-way ANOVA results revealed a significant difference between female executives in female dominated and sex neutral jobs on perceived growth ($F(2,24) = 3.19, P < .05$). Those in sex neutral jobs ($\chi = 51.13$) perceived more opportunity for growth than those in female dominated jobs ($\chi = 47.76$). The findings also showed that among females in female dominated occupations perceived acceptance was predicted by self-esteem and career self-efficacy while perceived growth was significantly influenced by recognition. For female executives in sex-neutral occupations, perceived acceptance was predicted by self-esteem and recognition while recognition and supportive management predicted perceived growth.

Generally, self-esteem significantly influenced acceptance for males and

all females in the different occupational categories. The significant influence of self-esteem across the three occupational categories means that work environments that consistently reinforce perception of the self may place women at a disadvantaged position. In addition, recognition was found to significantly influence growth for women across the occupational categories but did not affect growth for males.

T-test results revealed a significant difference between male and female executives in their perceived acceptance (male executives' perceived higher acceptance than females) but no significant difference in perceived growth. Two-way analysis of variance results revealed that self-esteem had significant main effect on perceived acceptance ($F(3, 98) = 24.47 P < .001$) for female executives. In addition, it interacted with career self-efficacy to influence acceptance. Thus, perceived acceptance was high with low career self-efficacy and high self-esteem but this reduces with high career efficacy. Under condition of high career self-efficacy acceptance was high with low self-esteem for female executives ($F(3, 98) = 20.51 P < .001$).

In support of these findings, the qualitative study indicated that women in male dominated occupations perceived low acceptance and growth. Additionally, the influence of the self (e.g. self-esteem and competence), and practices in organisations (which reflects the level of recognition and support for female

executives) are essential for perceived acceptance and growth. Findings of focus group and in-depth interviews indicated that women in male dominated occupations perceived low acceptance and growth and that their work experience may be affected by perceived stereotype and feeling of vulnerability. This suggests the existence of an unfriendly climate that has implication for the entry, retention, subsequent performance and development of women in leadership positions.

In conclusion, the perception of differential treatment in male occupations may hinder the full expression of hidden potentials and negatively impact on performance and advancement of women. The introspective nature of the qualitative report emphasised and strongly supports the need for the creation of gender sensitive environment in male occupations in Nigeria.

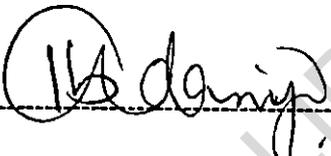
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CERTIFICATION

I certify that this work was carried out by Chowwen, Catherine Oluwatoyin (Matric no.47442) in the department of Psychology, University of Ibadan.

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Finally, I wish to acknowledge the support of the Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA) in providing the fund which enabled me to carry out this research.

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DEDICATION

To the ones who make life challenging and interesting for me,

Tony, Caleb and Ese.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION.

Over the years, the world of work in most societies, Nigeria inclusive, hardly seemed like a place of equal opportunities mainly because of the varying experiences of both males and females. Explanations for why these occur have looked at either personal or social structural factors influencing relationships that exist both in the workplace and society at large. Specifically, it has been observed that people's way of life and the processes of socialization that males and females go through in every society may inform the social categorization that influences gender relationships. For example, in most homes and communities in Yorubaland, various tasks are divided within the home based on age and gender. Traditionally, men farm and carry out the other rigorous activities in farming while women and children perform prescribed gender compatible and supporting activities. Thus, the cultural division of labour stereotypes certain careers as masculine and feminine.

Additionally, leadership positions are assumed based on certain characteristics believed to be inherent and reinforced in males and as such women are not considered fit for such positions. These characteristics include aggressiveness, dominance rational reasoning ability and so on while the feminine characteristics include nurturance and passivity. As male children grow up, the

dominant qualities are developed in them and they are thereby prepared for challenges in future, while the female child is groomed to be submissive and dependent, a different orientation from that of the male child. Subsequently, in almost every part of Nigeria, community leadership such as Igwe, Baale and Mogaji are positions exclusively reserved for males. Furthermore, in most homes, heads of households and key decision-makers are males. Women are not supposed to get engaged in critical assignments or hold public offices. Even when they do, they are not active practitioners but always play a supportive role such as deputies or secretaries to the males.

The above depicts a structural classification in which the males are above and the females beneath. At the higher levels, the males are the power brokers and decision-makers, while in most cases the womenfolk concur and follow. This trend, which is the basis of gender stereotype to large extent, influences the goal females set for themselves, the method of achieving these goals, the perception of females by females and others, and the interaction that exists between males and females. The cognitive developmental theory assumes that a child is essentially self-socializing, developing rules for categorization with gender as the primary label and then fitting her/himself into these categories (Kelly, 1981). Most often, females avoid and see certain occupations as not being within their ability and identify with duties and occupations they consider as being able to offer them some

range of opportunities. For example, females have low self-concept about their abilities in science and mathematics (Erindero, 1986), a domain considered to be meant for males. For those who ventured in such domains, their experiences have been found to be unpleasant and different from those of males (Tack & Patitu, 1992; Judge Locke & Durham, 1997).

Some of the reasons why there is an influx of females into traditional male occupations in contemporary times is that generally, masculine occupations are more valued by the society and are rewarded and paid more although the work done sometimes involves physical danger and requires physical strength. On the other hand, feminine work is often underpaid and undervalued. It is emotionally involving and is regarded as an extension of women's role in the home. Secondly, women are encouraged to join occupations hitherto considered male dominated. Females who want to work in masculinised occupations have traditionally not been welcomed. They are often not considered as indigenous to the environment and are seen as tokens because of their representation status. Essentially in every occupation, the dominant members greatly influence the norm, values, ideas and culture of the group. Collinson and Hearn (1994) analysed typical masculinities which overlaps and coexist with other specific processes to shape and impact on organizational climate and life. They were of the view that certain cultural patterns and management ideas that entrench gender stereotypes, position women and men

differently through certain work practices. The resultant effects of these practices impact more on women compared to men.

The Nigerian Common Country Assessment (2001) (cited by United Nations Development Fund for Women 2000) indicated that the ratio of male to female in professional/technical category in the Civil Service Commission between 1985 and 1995, and from 1996 to 2000 is 70: 30. Within this same period, male/female ratio in managerial/administrative level is 72:22 and 83:17 respectively. The International Labour Organisation (1998) and Nigerian Federal Office of Statistics (1998) reported that women occupy less than five percent of top jobs. Though, women have made some progress in recent times, this data implies that a lesser percentage of women occupy top positions in male dominated jobs.

Of particular importance in this study are the experiences of women in management positions. Some studies have been carried out, while programs have been designed to look into the problems of female managers and proffer solutions. These studies have found that in addition to the negative images of women, they lack encouragement and appropriate training and these creates boundaries beyond which women cannot go. These factors directly or indirectly influence whether or not women get appointed to leadership positions and also affect the motivation and interest of women in management (Udegbe, 1999). Eagly (1983) reported that because there are status differentials resulting from status differences between

traditional male and female occupations, females lack role models and influential representatives. However, the situation of female executives in male dominated occupations, which remains a complex one, has not received adequate attention. Some other researches which have attempted to investigate problem associated with leadership offer limited insight into the experiences of female executives in traditional male occupations in Nigeria compared to their males counterparts.

Problems in this area seem to center on access, acceptance and growth. It would therefore be important to investigate these issues as they relate to women in leadership positions. One of the gaps in literature, particularly in male dominated work environment, centers on perception of treatment in the workplace. This study would therefore illuminate problems of women with regard to their perception of treatment in traditional male occupations. It is pertinent to know that understanding how to survive in male dominated work environment is crucial to women's development. This experience must be understood if remedies or solution to females' problems at work must be adequately considered.

1.2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

There is evidence that women's experience in male dominated work environment differ from that of men. Literature (e.g Morrison, 1992; Naff, 1994) indicated that overt and covert sex discrimination or differential treatment of individuals because of gender is a major reason why women's experiences differ from men's as well as explanation for glass ceiling. Glass ceiling is coined to describe the subtle barriers that block the advancement of women and minorities (Naff, 1994). The two dimensions of glass ceiling are the nature of barriers that limits women's advancement and women's perception of their treatment in the workplace.

Kanter, (1977a), explained that in the interaction between males and females is gender bias that may influence women's experience at work. When females are perceived, treated (not recognized and supported), and evaluated based on certain preconceived notion, there is a signal indicating an unfriendly atmosphere (Naff, 1994). As suggested by social psychologists, a hostile environment is created through everyday interaction that defines gender as a process of deference for women and dominance for men (West & Zimmerman, 1987).

Niemann and Davidio (1998) and Yoder (1985) reported that in situations where women are not welcome, tokens felt highly visible encapsulated in their

roles and highly contrasted with members of their work environment. This is because being in the spotlight has advantages but when it is consistent, it can be a liability and this could be a source of pressure for females. Kanter (1977a) further explained that being under pressure in these environments; women want to perform better than they would have done in a sex neutral or female dominated environment, where the atmosphere is friendlier.

In addition, women's self evaluation (which reflects in their self-esteem and self-efficacy) may significantly impact on their perception of acceptance and career growth. For example, women have often been viewed as being less capable and competent than men. Women's self-perception has been hampered by these views from others (Snyder and Hoffmann, 1992). Related to this is the fear expressed by the dominant group (males) that tokens (females) possess a competitive edge. For the males, this may highlight token's achievement to the exclusion of males. Threatened with change, for example hiring women, dominant group would renew its common bond and culture as insiders.

On the other hand, visibility may obscure tokens' performance, because it may be less likely that the tokens' action will be noticed than non-tokens'. In addition, they may not be recognized or sufficiently supported by colleagues. Social isolation and lack of recognition may deprive women of a feeling of belonging to the peer group and robs them of the opportunity to develop informal

linkages and contact with others that become increasingly important if they want to rise in the organization (Yoder, 1989). It is important to note that because of negative attitude and stereotypes, observable differences may be stigmatizing for minority.

These discriminatory practices which Rowe (1990), defined as micro inequities may suggest lack of acceptance. Lack of acceptance may be associated with actions, which are unjust toward individuals, and the particular treatment of the individual occurs only because of group characteristics such as sex, status, race, religion, age or nationality. Micro-inequities are efficient in perpetuating unequal opportunities that could negatively affect women. This may become notable in the area of training and promotion, the consequence of which is wide disparity in the growth rate between males and females along their career path. In situations like this, how do women's (internal) personality characteristics such as self-esteem and self-efficacy and factors (external) such as recognition and supportive management influence perception of their experience in terms of acceptance and growth in the workplace. Both personal and social factors have been found to influence work experience.

Peters (1999), in his findings revealed that discrimination and organisational obstacles supported by historical and cultural norms, and personality characteristics combine with management strategies create problems for female

executives in the workplace. Since perception is a function of person and situation variables, appraisal of the external world is affected not by the attributes of what is perceived but by the deepest assumption people hold about themselves, other people and the world around them.

Thus, there is the need to extend research on women in management to those who have risen above the glass ceiling, and also to compare them with their male counterparts by documenting their experiences in terms of their perceived acceptance and growth in male dominated occupations.

1.3. PURPOSE OF STUDY

This study investigates the experience of female executives in male dominated occupations in terms of their perceived acceptance and growth. It examines the data obtained on perceived acceptance and growth in survey and both focus group and in-depth interviews from female executives in male dominated occupations. Investigation of the experience of female executives in male occupations was considered because there is rich literature on women in management and fewer ones on female executives in this category and a greater part of such research findings may not be totally applicable to a country like Nigeria. This is because of the various cultural, personal and social factors likely to be at play in determining female executives' work experience in different

societies. A research of this nature is therefore necessary for empirical examination and documentation.

The study also addresses the factors associated with perceived acceptance and growth of females in male dominated occupations and compares these with that of their male counterparts. Although, literature has suggested the contrary, it is often assumed that male dominated work environment does present equal opportunities for males and females. If males and females indeed compete favourably without any ill feeling, and females reach equity with men in all ramifications in these occupations, women will not only remain in them but more younger women will be attracted to such occupations. Thus, there is the need to verify what literature says by researching on women's acceptance and growth in male occupations.

The third objective is to compare experiences of female executives in three different occupational categories, which are male dominated, female dominated and sex neutral. This will shed light on the possible factors that make for differences in perceived acceptance and growth in the three occupational categories.

Finally, the study aims to enhance literature on minority group in Nigeria by combining data from literature, the survey method and both focus group and in-depth interviews to check consistency of findings and make recommendations for policy making and implementation.

1.4. RELEVANCE OF STUDY

The few leadership studies in Nigeria that have focused on women have emphasized women in middle management and factors preventing them from breaking through the glass ceiling, giving little or no attention to what happens after the ice has been broken. To bring the problem of women in this position into focus and give it the prominence it deserves, a study of this nature is needed. By investigating the work experience of female executives in terms of acceptance and growth in male dominated occupations and comparing it with that of their male counterparts, there would be an insight into the various micro inequities that render male dominated work environment uncondusive for female leaders.

Women's labour force predicaments have been reported to result either from past socialization (which invariably affect their personality) or certain structural parameters in the work place. While these literature provide some information, each view taken on its own may not provide adequate information. Thus a combination of both personal (self esteem and career self efficacy) and social/structural variables (such as recognition and supportive management) in this study would provide a broader perspective and enhance understanding of their contribution to the opportunities given to women to perform.

The present study is also relevant in highlighting the factors influencing perceived acceptance and growth across the three occupational categories. This would lead to an understanding of the relationship between women's employment in these occupational categories and the climate created for performance. A lag in this relationship would enhance effort made to bridge the gap in order to give full expression to female potential.

In relation to the issue of diversity in the workplace, the findings of this present research are useful. It will provide new insight leading to awareness and understanding of male dominated occupations. Since most male dominated occupations favour personal masculine characteristics such as aggressiveness and competitiveness, (which females are assumed not to possess) retaining competent females would suggest a change in the culture. It then means values, which include respect for difference, and co-operative teamwork must be objectively integrated into male dominated work culture. This could be adopted through the organisation of program that value difference or diversity in the workplace. This is important because workforce diversity and the globalisation of business will require far more acceptance of individual differences and flexibility in management approach and style than ever before. Designing such programme would lead to the elimination of misconceptions and make members of the opposite sex, organisation policy makers and government to be sensitive to demographic realities of individuals.

The result of this research has the potential to highlight the need for the formal constitution of units that specifically provide support for women and help in devising effective plans to address women's concern. Such units could ensure effective implementation of national labour laws and international standards, which protect women, and also see to the elimination of all discriminatory practices against the full participation of women in the public and private sectors of the economy. This has particular implication for the Nigerian work place, since most organisations do not have any formal unit put in place to address gender sensitive issues such as those mentioned above.

The findings of this study would assist organisations in job redesign that could lead to full expression of leadership potentials and engender positive perception for women in Nigeria. Finally, as the global market becomes more competitive, the result of this study would motivate women to engage in constant self-reflection, be more determined and focused. If for example the reasons for perceived lack of acceptance and growth result from deficiency in personal characteristics, there is the need for women to get engaged in self-development program that would better equip them to face the challenges in traditional male occupations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Under this section, a number of theories that offer explanation as to why sexual and racial differences exist in management will be discussed. These are person centered, rational bias, Alderfer's Inter-group, Kanter's Organisational Structure perspective, Sex-role, Attribution and Social Influence theories.

2.1. THEORIES EXPLAINING DIFFERENTIAL TREATMENT

2.1.1. PERSONS CENTRED THEORY

Several theories have been postulated to explain the reasons (among which is the issue of glass ceiling) for sexual and racial differences especially in the management cadre. Some of these theories are those that assume that deficiencies perceived to be in minority groups inform differential treatment in management. The effect of differential treatment in this study is measured on perceived acceptance and growth of female executives. Riger and Galligan (1980) have noted that psychology researchers have emphasised person-centred variables to explain women's low job status. This is particularly important when one considers

the role of self-esteem and efficacy in predicting the work experience of female executives in male dominated occupations.

Since 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. Thus both self-esteem and self-efficacy have been used to produce explanation for the continued under-representation and experience of women in male dominated careers (Humphreys 1982). The higher females' self-esteem and career self-efficacy, the better equipped they may be to survive in male dominated work environment.

However, there are mixed results concerning this view and current field studies have generally refuelled this explanation. Women's traits, behaviours, attitudes, and socialisation are said to make them inappropriate or deficient as managers because of such factors as their unwillingness to take risks (Morrison & Glinow, 1990). Howerel and Bray (1988) reported that female and male managers were more similar than different on personality and motivation factors as well as abilities. According to him, race differences were higher than sex differences, but among the high potential managers assessed, the relative weaknesses among blacks in intellectual ability were compensated for by superior performance in interpersonal skills and stability of performance.

There is considerable evidence that women and men in management 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. Also, human capital variable such as education may determine women's experience in the workplace. For example, the result of a study on matched pairs of female and male managers by Donnell and Hall's (1980) led to the conclusion that "the disproportionately low numbers of women in management can no longer be explained away by the contention that women practice a different brand of management from that practised by men.

Blan and Ferber (1987) contended that if this explanation is correct, then women should choose the occupational setting they prefer and invest accordingly in their own human capital. Thus any policy changes adopted to correct differential 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 minorities. 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 & Glinow, 1990). However it has been noted that person centred theory is not

adequate in explaining differential treatment in management; other factors have to be considered.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence is a new concept derived from Thorndike's 1920 Social intelligence concept. Social intelligence refers to the ability to understand what motivates people, how they work and how to work co-operatively with them. It also includes the ability to act wisely in human relation. Emotional intelligence is understanding one's emotions, controlling and directing it in a way that enhances one's productivity, personal power and quality of life. Emotional intelligence is a term coined by Salovey and Mayer (1990) to mean being able to regulate one's own and other's feelings, and to use feelings to guide thought and action. It is not fixed at birth but can be learnt and practised. Self-awareness, empathy, handling interpersonal relationships, self-motivation and managing emotions make up the core of emotional intelligence. Self-awareness, empathy and handling interpersonal relationships are important dimensions of social intelligence. According to Malhi the dimensions of emotional intelligence are related to other concepts of psychological maturity, emotional awareness, empathic listening and assertiveness. Examples of emotional competencies are self-confidence, self-motivation, persistence, adaptability, empathy and initiative. It has been found to determine both personal and professional success. Emotional intelligent managers have been

found to be able to handle their emotions to guide their thinking and behaviour, while those who lack this ability have had their emotions work against them with unproductive outcomes. Careers have been destroyed due to interpersonal relationships rather than lack of technical know how, failure to build and lead a team and inability to change and adapt during a transition.

GESTALT THEORY

The concept of perception is of great importance to both individuals and organisation because people fill in missing information and draw on past experiences to give meaning to what they see, hear and touch (Bernstein, Clarke – Stewart, Roy, Srull and Wickers 1994). According to constructionist view of perception, images of reality are constructed from sensory information, which explains how the image is perceived. Figure /ground perception and grouping are two principles that guide the organisation of what is seen. When an individual looks at a complex scene he or she automatically simplifies the situation by picking out objects that stand out and relegating the others to the background. The ones picked out are “figures” while the relegated ones are considered as background. A figure is part of the visual field that has meaning, stands in front of the rest, and always seems to include the contours or borders that separates it from the relatively meaningless background. Perception is not only an active process but also a categorical one. Inherent properties of stimuli allow for separation into figure and

ground. Gestalt Psychologists in describing the principle behind grouping argued that people perceive sights and sounds as organised whole. According these psychologists these are different from and more than the sum of individual sensation and the following properties influence perceptual organisations.

- 1) Proximity. The closer the objects the more they are likely perceived as belonging together.
- 2) Similarity. Similar elements are perceived to belong to a group.
- 3) Closure. People tend to fill in missing gap to form a whole object.
- 4) Continuity. Sensations that create a continuous form are perceived as belonging together.
- 5) People tend to group features of a stimulus in a way that provides the simplest interpretation.

The above concept provides an understanding of how others perceive women's position and how women make sense their experiences and behaviour and those of others around them. For example, stereotypic views about women are used to fill up missing information about women. This method of information processing represents the major points at which information input involves a selective step in which relevant information is selected from a complex social environment in part through the process by which it is comprehended or recognized.

2.1.2. Rational Bias Explanation.

Differential treatment is explained by focusing on bias shown by the dominant group. For example, labour market discrimination explanation is an economic theory that assumes that relevant stakeholders examples of whom are employers, customers, employees, and so on have discriminatory tastes even when women or minorities are perfect economic substitutes for men in the workplace (Becker, 1957). Blau and Ferber revealed that employers with discriminatory tastes hire women only at a wage discount large enough to compensate for the loss of utility or level of discomfort associated with employing them.

This is a psychological theory that suggests that discrimination is influenced by contextual circumstances in which sexual or racial bias results in career rewards or punishments (Larwood, Gutels & Grattiker, 1984). In situations like this, a manager's decision to discriminate is based on whether such discrimination will be viewed positively or negatively by relevant stakeholders and on the possibility of receiving rewards for discriminating. This is related to the group gain theory, which argues that dominant social groups discriminate against subordinate groups because individual members of the dominant group enjoy concrete gains as a result.

Discrimination by the dominant group was addressed by Wells and Jennings (1983), who argued that black individuals are not rewarded on the basis of their performance. Blacks are systematically excluded from advancement. This

argument, which relates to blacks, can also be extended to the experiences of females who are considered minorities in male dominated jobs. For example, because of the belief by males that females are less suited for management positions particularly in traditional male jobs, they may be accorded less recognition and support. These may influence perceived acceptance and growth. Even when no differences exist, some studies have suggested that deficiencies are presumed (Stevens 1984; Thomas & Alderfer, 1989). Thus, ambiguity or lack of specific information about an individual contributes to bias against women and minorities because judgments are based on negative stereotypes of the group as a whole (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

2.2.0 SYSTEMIC BARRIERS

2.2.1 Alderfer's Intergroup Theory

In psychology, structural barriers are included as part of situation centered perspective (Ruger & Galligan, 1980) and organizational structure perspective (Fagenson, 1988). Alderfer's Intergroup Theory highlights structural discrimination. According to Alderfer, two types of groups exist in organizations: identity group and organization group. The identity group is based on ethnicity, family, gender or age. The organization group is based on common work tasks, work experience, and position in hierarchy.

It is assumed that tension results because organization's group membership changes whereas identity group membership does not. It is believed that when the pattern of group relations within an organization mirrors the pattern in society as a whole, such as when males predominate in high status occupations and positions, evaluation of females are likely to be distorted by prejudice. This indicates an unfavourable attitude toward people because they are members of a particular group. Consequently because females are considered outsiders in male occupations, they may not be welcome and evaluation of their performance may be based on preconceived notions.

Intergroup theory has elements in common with the dual labour market concept in economics. The dual labour market consists of a set of better or primary jobs and a set of worse or secondary jobs with little mobility between the two. Groups most frequently associated with the secondary labour market including women and minorities are largely confined there, and discrimination is often justified as economic efficiency (Osajima 1988). Within management, the secondary jobs may not only be those at lower levels but also those in staff versus line functions, when women and minorities are found in disproportionate numbers. The dominance of males in management thus poses problem for female minorities.

Research has shown that many females and black managers feel excluded from informal relationship with colleagues (Thomas & Alderfer 1989). Also,

Thomas and Alderfer revealed that minorities struggle with fitting into two distinct cultural worlds. Those from cultures other than that of the dominant work group must choose how to manage the stress of moving physically, cognitively and emotionally. Situations like this may be perceived as unwelcoming and frustrating and accounts for differential treatment.

2.2.2 Kanter's Organisational Structure Perspective.

Simmel (1950) in his analysis of the significance of numbers in social life argued that numerical modifications affect qualitative transformations in-group interaction. He dealt with the impact of absolute numbers with group size as a determinant of group interaction. His focus excludes the issue of relative numbers, which is the properties of interacting social types, the neglect of which has often led to inappropriate or misleading conclusions. However, other researchers such as Kanter (1972); Niemann and Davidio, (1998) shed light on the issue by looking at the effect of proportions on group life and relationship of solo status and perceived distinctiveness to job satisfaction respectively.

Kanter (1977a) emphasised that women's lack of opportunities and power in organisations and the sex ratio of groups within organisations explain women's lack of managerial success. The work of Kanter (1977b) laid the groundwork for understanding effects of minority status in work environment. Cioffi (1995) and Major (1991) argued in their study 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's (1977b) work highlights the significant aspect of social life particularly important for understanding interactions in groups composed of people of different culture, categories or status. In her work, she explained that groups with 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 (Zalesnick, Chnotensen, & Roethlisberger 1958). It reflects the effect of contact across categories as a function of their proportional representation in the system.

Kanter (1977b) identified four types of groups on the basis of various proportional representations of kinds of people. Uniform groups have only 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 sex, race 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 symbols rather than individuals. If the absolute size of the

skewed group is small, tokens can also be solitary individuals or "solos", it is difficult for them to generate an alliance that can become powerful in the group.

Next is the titled group, which moves toward less extreme distributions and less exaggerated effects. In this situation, with a ratio of perhaps 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 about 60:40 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 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. This is because, it is one encountered by large numbers of women in-groups and organisations in which numeric distribution have traditionally favoured men.

Kanter (1977b) further enlarged our understanding of male-female interaction and the 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 the 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 whereas workingwomen 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 upon what happens to women who occupy token status and are alone or nearly alone in a peer group of men. Women entering traditional male fields at every level of organisational structure commonly face this situation. But 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. The dynamics of interaction is likely to be very similar in all such cases, though the content of interaction may reflect the special culture and traditional roles of both token and members of the numerically dominant category.

Use of the term "token" for the minority number rather than "solo", "solitary" or "lone" highlights some special characteristics associated with that position. Tokens are people identified by ascribed characteristics (such as sex, race, religion and so on) or other characteristics that carry with them a set of assumptions about culture, status and behaviour highly salient for majority category members. These characteristics, which Hughes (1944) referred 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 if members of the majority group have a history of interacting with the token's category in ways that are quite different from the demands of task accomplishment in the present situation as is true of men and women.

Furthermore, because tokens are by definition alone or 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 a hyphenated member, as in woman engineer and so on. The group with a skewed distribution of social types generate certain perceptions of the token by the dominants. 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 member of the same social type declines as the proportion of total membership occupied by the category increases. This is because each individual becomes less and less surprising, unique or noteworthy. In Gestalt term, they more easily become "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 member's 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 numerical dominant group more aware of both their commonalities with and their differences, especially because tokens are by definition too few in number to prevent the application of familiar generalisation of stereotypes. It is thus easier for the commonalities of dominant to be defined in contrast to the token than it would be in a more numerically equal situation (Kanter, 1977b). One person can also be perceptually isolated and seen as cut off from the group more easily than many, who begin to represent a significant proportion of the group itself.

Assimilation, the third perceptual tendency, 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, it is easier to retain the generalisation and distort the perception and assumption about the token. Token's social category allows us to see the development of patterns of adjustment as well as the perception of and response to tokens. However, the concepts identified here is applicable to other kinds of tokens who face similar interaction situation

The analysis undertaken here also suggests the importance of structural and social psychological variables in affecting male female interaction and the roles of women in work groups and organisations. Investigation of the effects of proportion on group life and social psychological theory for understanding male-female interaction is a step toward identifying the structural 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.

It is perhaps evident that elements of the different approaches are significantly related to the experience of female executives measured in terms of perceived acceptance and growth in male dominated occupations. Thus, the interaction of situational factors and person centred characteristics account for

differential treatment (Riger & Galligan, 1980). The understanding of the interaction between person centred and situation specific variables is not complete without making mention of how observable sex role behaviour of men and women which results from early socialisation is mentioned.

2.3.0 SEX ROLE THEORY

Explanations of the acquisition of sex role behaviour using social learning principles are the most widely accepted today. Focusing mainly on observable behaviour, social learning theorists have formulated a set of hypotheses, which describe and explain simple learning in humans. Social learning theory is particularly useful in explaining the development of gender role differences. According to this theory, sex role- appropriate responses are rewarded by parents and others and are repeated in the future. Sex role inappropriate behaviour or those responses that deviate from behaviour defined as appropriate to one's gender role are likely to be punished and as a result become less frequent in the culture and eventually do not occur.

Basically, behavioural differences are explained as a differential sex role socialisation process. Sex differences in social behaviour are perceived as resulting from societal position of men and women thus, gender roles are so tightly woven into the fabric of the society that no individual development is free from their influence. These roles are associated with several characteristics. According to

Funnel et.al (1978). the differential sex role socialisation observed in the behaviour of males and females can be explained by the successful socialisation of individual to their appropriate sex role. The early socialisation differences are reinforced as individual develops an adult personality. That society has an influence on sex linked social behaviour is demonstrated in the differences that exist in female and male behaviour in different societies. Such differences range from extreme submission on the part of the female and domination on the part of males (Marshall, 1982).

Other studies have highlighted the behavioural differences in career aspirations and attitudes. For example, one of the important variables associated with women's participation in non-traditional occupations have been sex role (Lyson & Brown, 1982). For example, women have less confidence than men do in their ability to do science (Erionsho, 1994; Erindero 1986; Strenta, et al 1993;). Also, the choice of course to major has been associated with gender appropriateness and occupational choice (Strange & Rea, 1983). Women with more traditional sex role attitudes have tended to see male-dominated occupations as less often within the range of possible choices. Thus, women's perception of their peers' attitudes, and of barriers versus opportunities for participation in non-traditional occupations (Harring, Bayard-Tayler, & Gray, 1983) has impacted women's education and occupational behaviour (Chatterjee & McGarrey, 1989).

Certain assumptions made in line with social learning theory revealed that, expectancies are transformed into sex differences in psychological attribute and social behaviour in two ways. First, is the learning of sex typed skills and second is the direct influence of expectancies associated with gender roles on people's behaviour and disposition (Calligen, 1982). The studies of Denmark (1977) revealed that sex role expectation influences women's leadership style and their selection of power strategies. As a result, Denmark suggested that women may increase their effectiveness as leaders by expressing a leadership style that is compatible with sex role expectation which is a human relations oriented leadership style. These are the basis of gender stereotypes.

Gender role stereotyping is the promotion or expression of commonly held beliefs about gender role differences, sometimes to the point of caricature. According to gender role stereotypes operation, one group is assigned a set of traits that would facilitate their dominance and control of another group (female), which in turn, is assigned another different set of traits that would render them easily controlled. The stereotype picture of men as the dominant gender group and women as the submissive one is strikingly similar to the actual relative state of men and women in our society and in the work setting.

Despite women's increased education over the years they are still far from being represented in the whole range of occupation. Prestige occupation and

professions are still seen by both women and men as the proper domain of men. The exclusivity with which their position has traditionally been assigned is pervasive although in a much more subtle way, since work discrimination is no longer tolerated in most societies. The social structure reflected in most occupation and professions can be regarded as a microcosm of the social structure of the larger society, where it is held that women's place is inferior to that of men.

Long held attitudes regarding the appropriate position for men and women do not vanish overnight. Most men in the employment are unable to accept women in position of authority or dominance over them. At the same time, certain occupations continue to be seen as belonging to men's domain, not because women are incapable of fulfilling the job requirements, but because many of those jobs exist within a social atmosphere similar to that of an exclusive man's club. Thus, masculine behaviour and language and even the kinds of jokes regularly exchanged by occupants of these jobs convey the impression that the job is closed to women. Such is the case too, when women are excluded from consideration for a particular job.

These observations reinforce the preconception that the job in question is parts of man's world, where women have no business trespassing. Men are also casualties of occupational segregation, which prevents them from diversifying their employment role. There are jobs regarded as inappropriate for men, but they are

also seen as decreasing the pressure of traditional masculine role also prevent them from entering job that do not allow them to prove themselves as men through the exercise of power and dominance. Thus, social and psychological pressures that prevent men and women alike from diversifying their employment role prevent an individual from expressing his or her potential in employment. The different sex role expectations have been instrumental in describing and explaining what others do. This has led to review of the attribution theory.

2.4.0 ATTRIBUTION THEORY:

This theory has been used to explain how our perceptions colour the characteristics of what we perceive (Klein, 1989). According to Cheng and Novick (1992) people tend to form implicit theories about why people (including themselves) behave as they do and about what behaviour to expect in future. Three major steps were developed in finding the reasons why people behave the way they do. These result from Heider's (1958) proposition that a major job of a perceiver in understanding the world is to find underlying causes of things he sees happening. Heider identified two broad classes of causes: personal and environmental. In other words, we attribute actions to personal dispositions or to situational factors.

Jones and Davis (1965) and Kelly (1967) extended Heider's proposition and developed the third key notion, that perceiver collects three kinds of information:

- (1) How often a person took a similar action in a similar circumstance in the past

(consistency), (2) how often that person performed the same action in different circumstances (distinctiveness) and (3) how many other people did that sort of thing in similar circumstances (consensus). In relating this to men's attitude toward women, it can be inferred from the above that men attribute women's performance to inability rather than other factors outside them.

These attributional differences may help males and impair females in maintaining self-confidence and persistence in the face of failure and difficulties especially in environments where they are considered aliens. Females' self-perception has been influenced by negative views from others. Causal attribution are not without some errors and one prominent example is fundamental attribution error which is a widespread tendency to attribute others behaviour to internal factors (Burgar, 1991). Also an initial impression or belief can constitute a self-fulfilling prophecy (Merton, 1948). This is because it elicits behaviour that ultimately confirms it. This also helps to maintain judgement about groups.

One of the consequences of attribution is that it can generate confidence about impressions of other people and can also lead to underestimation of the variability in another person's behaviour created by external causes. The general tendency to overestimate dispositional factors often stops short of our own behaviour, which we perceive as situationally determined.

2.5.0 SOCIAL INFLUENCE THEORY.

According to social role theory (Eagly 1983), men and women are distributed into social roles and these influence the perception of how competent females and males are. First based on the division of labour in the family, men have often had the role of financial provider and women the role of the homemaker. Second, paid employments are highly gender segregated with men's positions conferring higher levels of status and power than women's. Typically, the higher status occupational roles to which men have been assigned require agentic behaviours, such as tasks competence, leadership, and dominance. Conversely, women's domestic roles and lower status occupational roles more often require communal behaviours such as nurturance, kindness and selflessness.

Eagly (1983) argued that people have deduced the gender stereotypes through observation of men and women in these highly segregated roles and as a result, have come to expect men to behave in a more agentic manner than women. The association of men with powerful high status roles has resulted in men generally possessing higher levels of status than women. According to expectation states theory (Berger, Fisek & Zelditch, 1977), gender acts as a diffuse status characteristic, a general attribute that is associated with an individual's relative status in society. The variety of diffuse status identified includes gender, race, degree of physical attractiveness, and education. Thus characteristics considered

desirable such as white, being male and well educated confers high status. High status individuals are assumed to be more competent than low status individuals and people seek the opinion of people in this category and yield to their influence than low status individuals (Berger et al. 1977).

Social influence theory argued that gender differences occur as a result of gender stereotypes. The theory reveals that women and girls exert less influence than men and boys because females more than males must establish themselves as competent and likeable sources in order to be influential. Likeable sources appeals to their audience because they are similar to them, are physically attractive, or possess other socially desirable characteristics. Competent sources appear knowledgeable, intelligent, and articulate conveying competence and expertise. Influence agents who establish themselves as competent (Holtgraves & Lasky, 1999) and likeable exert greater influence than those who do not. This suggests that males may exert greater influence than females because gender stereotypes presuppose that males are more competent than females.

The tendency to encourage high status people to contribute their ideas and act as task leaders creates a self fulfilling prophesy: the more individuals make task contributions, the more they enhance their status, increase their influence and emerge as leaders (Hawkins, 1995). Therefore, high status individuals are not only expected to exhibit higher levels of competence and performance, but these

expectations lead them to actually be more successful at influencing others. While high status individuals are given the opportunities to exert influence, low status individuals are denied these opportunities. Individuals' diffused status not only affects their perceived competence and expectations about their future performance, but also affects expectations about what constitutes appropriate behaviour in the group. People perceive low status individuals to lack legitimacy as authorities and, as a result, are more likely to resist the influence of low status than high status individuals (Ridgeway & Berger, 1986). When low status individuals behave in a status asserting manner, overtly attempting to influence others or taking on leadership roles, they are ignored or penalised and rejected, which drops their status further (Meeker & Weitzel-O'Neill, 1985).

Status theorists have argued that women's lower status relative to men is particularly highlighted in interactions between men and women. As a result men more than women disapprove of high levels of competence and authority in women and therefore resist women's influence. This analysis suggests that because men generally possess higher status than women, men, more than women, would be given opportunities for full expression in male occupations.

EMPIRICAL AND RELATED STUDIES

2.6.1 WOMEN'S SELF-CONSCIOUSNESS IN TRADITIONAL MALE OCCUPATIONS.

It is well established that gender becomes a more salient issue in non traditional occupations where women must not only demonstrate their competence on the basis of their skills but must somehow overcome their difficulties as well (Mansfield, Vicary, Cohn, Koch & Young, 1988). In addition to these obstacles, male dominance of senior management positions presents other challenges to women, when sex ratios are skewed. In situations like this, women may feel that they are not a good fit with the prevalent culture, or that they need to change in some ways to fit in (Cox, 1994). Arnold et al., (1995) explained further that women taking on management position in particular might discover sex role conflicts within themselves.

These perceptions and conflicts result from women internalising traditional female behaviour through socialisation (Havard, 1986). It is obvious that a great deal of learning about sex roles takes place among women during the early phases of their lives, and this can translate itself into an attitude that creates difficulties later in work life or life in general. The internal blocks that women experience which derive from early sex stereotyping and socialisation has led to some women being caught in low expectation trap particularly when performing a task meant for

men and many avoid success in order to behave in a socially approved manner (Homer, 1970). They may feel that their performance is unequal to the task, which is often a self-fulfilling prophecy.

This culture trap creates difficulties for women because most organisations are dominated by male values and behaviour where women (if allowed) in are expected to play a less achievement oriented, less aggressive and more dependable roles. Within this system, Marshall (1995) reported that the participants in her study explained that they would sometimes modify their behaviour or try to control their presentation of self. The ambiguities about their image however undermined their organisational status and personal confidence. For some in order to dispel the notion that women are the weaker sexes, they adapt autocratic leadership style, which has been found to be at the cost of social relationships at work (Udegbe, 1997).

The situation is not different in academic profession thought to be gender neutral. Merilainen and Katila, (1999) revealed that academic women expressed themes of professional marginalisation and exclusion from centre of professional authority. They have a tendency to keep a "low profile" even in cases of apparent discrimination. They often attribute academic success to fate or luck unlike men in academia who usually see their success as the direct result of their achievements (Wager, 1994; Hawkins & Schultz, 1990; Stolte-Heiskanen, 1991).

Thus, it appears that women are faced with the possibilities and ambiguities that arise from defining the self-concept and evaluating their ability. Such expectancies may affect minorities self perception as noted in Cooley's (1902) "looking glass" self metaphor, resulting in a feedback loop (Kanter 1977a), in which response and behaviour are connected and become self perpetuating, self sealing systems.

From the above review it is evident that the self is a significant determinant of work outcomes such as work attitude. As Brockner (1988) argued, employees bring to the work different levels of self worth that correlate with how they feel and think while on the job. All individuals need to feel good about themselves and much of what they do and believe is concerned with enhancing, presenting and restoring this self-esteem. Brockner noted that compared to workers low in self-esteem, those high on this trait are among other things more apt to strive hard in response to negative feedback.

He recognised that self-esteem may be global and specific, and that there is a whole range of related concepts such as self-confidence and self-assurance. Those high in self-esteem believe that their career is more likely to satisfy their desires and that they possess more ability in order to succeed than those low in self-esteem. This is because low self-esteem people relate to social comparison and uncertainty concerning the correctness of one's beliefs and behaviour; have a

greater susceptibility to the influence of negative feedback.

In a related manner, in explaining the influence of self-efficacy, Bandura, (1982) stated that individuals avoid activities that exceed their coping capabilities and perform those activities of which they judge themselves to be capable. Thus, women are lower in self-efficacy for non traditional occupations because of traditional sex role socialisation. This subsequently affects the development of specific career efficacy. Whereas, Kanter (1977b), suggested that these outcomes could occur for either gender when they were a minority group, recent research and reviews have indicated that these outcomes occur only for women in predominantly male occupations (Ragins & Cotton, 1996; Yoder, 1991).

2.6.2 EXPERIENCE OF PARADOX IN WOMEN EXECUTIVE'S SEARCH FOR IDENTITY

The review of literature suggests that most women in male dominated culture perceive some overt and covert expressions of resentment, which place them differently from men or disadvantaged them. Their experiences suggest that they have sometimes been affected by some subtle gender typing of the environment in which they work. The social environment of work is based on processes of interaction that produces symbolic representation, meaning and interpretation rather than a world of objective facts (Kätilä & Meriläinen, 1999).

Previous research has shown that work requires perpetual action by the participants and as such perception of equality and discrimination extends beyond the work activities carried out to involve the social relations and interpretive processes that sustain it. In a study that focussed on the balancing acts of women scientists and engineers in today's rapidly changing world reported in Catalyst (1992), it was revealed that women mentioned some of the challenges they face to include isolation and gaining credibility and respectability from peers. They described the climate as hostile and that women were seen as a problem, an anomaly or deviant. This implies that the working conditions for women may not be favourable.

Consequently, individual experiences are subject to the interpretations available in the social discourse that operates within such system. As a result, individuals who are categorized as women face a lot of ambiguities that arise from the concept of their roles and status. Subsequently, in this situation women experience a general sense of doubt about self worth. This sense of doubt according to Hamberger (1981), results from the experience of boredom, vagueness and withdrawal. All of these have been associated with alienation, a state of estrangement within the self that is felt consciously and unconsciously as a split-level personality.

Alienation among executives within the work culture/environment could be caused by the paradox of "reality" and "anxiety" (Hamberger, 1981) Reality lies in the question of loyalty to either of the parties involved in the business game since every group consists of the dominant and submissive members. In another way, the dominant and submissive group could be described as chauvinistic and androgynist group. This dichotomy represents individualistic and co-operative tendencies. The anxiety side of the paradox is the question of "can I be the real me in this reality choice". Within this culture where a person without a "rudder" and some standard of how to steer will be tossed to and fro, how can the executive without self worth and determination survive?.

Relating Hamberger's (1981) findings to the world of women in male dominated occupations, certain assumptions can be made. Firstly, the dominant culture is patriarchal and this reflects itself in the stereotypical categorisation of women's identity. It has been assumed that women's identity is located in the body and emotion as opposed to men's identity that is located in the mind. For example, certain qualities such as logical reasoning, production activities in the public life are associated with masculinity, while the opposite sets of qualities such as feelings and private or domestic activities are associated with femininity.

Consequently, women are characterised, as lacking in characteristics required for professional and executive identity. Thus, masculinity is taken as the

norm while femininity is seen as the difference. This presents the reality of the situation, which is considered "chilly" and lonely. In line with this, Gutek and Dunwoody (1987), reported in their study that in such environments women may be more vulnerable to experiences of isolation, sexual harassment and discrimination.

Secondly, the anxiety side of the paradox describes women's adjustment in their chosen fields. Marshall and Wetherell's (1989) study of professional identity of female lawyers revealed that women engage in general discourse, which interpret structural inequalities in terms of some important sex linked characteristics such as independence, high intelligence, for males and being passive and emotional for females. These characteristics are perceived to be related to a system of values which prioritized masculinity. Consequently, women are seen to belong to the family or domestic spheres that are devalued. This position has forced women into a situation in which they wonder how they can express the real selves, and struggle to handle the tension between personal and professional identities, which Katila and Menlaine (1999) believed are at odds with one another. They further explained that in this sense, women are simultaneously present and absent. According to these researchers, the entry of women into the workplace has not created a new relationship between gender, but rather has reproduced a gender relationship previously confined to the private sector.

In resolving the crisis, Hamberger pointed out that executives start new business or conform to what operates in the environment. In a related manner, Gherarch (1994) explained that this entails forcing, shifting, and reducing the boundaries between male and female in both social practices and in systems of thought. Although the increase in the number of women in existing traditional male occupations suggests a conducive work environment to which women are welcome but research has shown that women long for an ethical process amidst their daily contradicting demand.

Thus, the search for full expression and meaning has led some women to be self-employed. To this group of women, this is a celebration of personal power that involves taking control of one's life. For example, Udegbe (2001) in her study of the effect of high-tech work demand on women's reproductive behaviour found that respondents supported self employment or informal sector employment because they are more flexible in terms of work schedule and they place less obstacle for women's' non-work responsibilities. Similarly, Buttner and Moore (1997) noted that among other things, blocked mobility within corporate settings and women's desire for challenge and self determination motivate them to become entrepreneurs. This is preferred to struggling to achieve an identity they value, and feeling under pressure in the organisation. For others, remaining to challenge the dominant

culture is the best option but this has not been without some personal costs that include withdrawal and vagueness as earlier explained.

Franklin (1968), pointing to the importance of cultural milieu emphasised that an individual experience a feeling or sense of serenity or healing when there is a meaning in the universe, which reflects an accepting cultural milieu. This combined with qualities such as being purposeful in life and self-transcendence would enable such an individual break the barriers of the paradoxical ethics that may operate in the workplace, thus relieving cultural alienation. It then means that commitment to building up of personal qualities such as self esteem and self-efficacy are essential for women to make major impact in male dominated work environments. It is believed that women can positively influence their identities and can reject, ignore, challenge and reform expectations and the range of option available to them. Consequently, there must be a definite stand to succeed, and a continuous advocacy for change to make male dominated work environment a better place for themselves and others after them.

2.6.3 IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL POLICIES AND PRACTICES ON THE STATUS OF WOMEN.

Gender discrimination, according to World Bank Policy Research Report (2001) remains pervasive in many dimensions of life world-wide. This is particularly so in many developing nations despite the considerable advances made

in gender inequality in recent times. In Nigeria, gender issues in development were treated as peripheral in national planning until the declaration of UN decade for women development between 1975 and 1985. However, it has been observed that in spite of all these subtle discrimination exists in the workplace.

While the political bureau of Nigeria recommended in 1987 that five percent (5%) decision-making positions should be reserved for women in all spheres of national life (Akande 1996), it has been discovered that less than five percent (5%) positions are occupied by women. With respect to public service appointment, the number of permanent secretaries/director general rose from three percent (3%) in 1985 to ten percent (10%) in 1993 and this is still well below ten percent (10%) (Nigeria Country Report, 1995). In explaining the trend relating to the proportion of females in top level positions Auster, (1988), identified three processes among many that contribute to bias with regard to gender, and these are informal structure, recruitment and selection processes and slow promotion processes.

The informal culture prevails in both the public and private sectors of the economy. Subtle discrimination exists in the informal culture and this stems primary from men feeling uncomfortable working with women or threatened by their achievements (Gutek 1985). The informal culture refers to the values, attitudes, beliefs, and norms that are cultivated within an organisation. It is one of

the most elusive sources of sex bias that permeate everyday activities, human resources decision, and women's long run career success (Cutek & Cohen, 1987; Sutton & More, 1985). Sex bias often thrives in the informal structures of some organisations particularly those that until recently were male dominated. Thus sex bias, they explained takes many forms which include exclusion from informal gatherings, information, decisions, comments or evaluation meetings that make it clear to a woman that she is treated first as a woman and second as a "fellow" employee.

Secondly, recruitment and selection processes are sources through which sex bias may take place in an organisation. Recruitment refers to the processes by which employers attract application; selection refers to the process of choosing employers to hire from the pool of applicants recruited. The areas of recruitment and selection that may affect the magnitude of bias include decisions about how, where, and when position are advertised and the nature of the advertisements; decisions about who does the recruiting, who conducts interviews, questions and format of the interviews, and decisions about how applicants are screened and the criteria used to evaluate them.

A second area where recruitment and selection may contribute to sex bias is the nature of the interview process. Since information collected during the interviewing process will become the basis for selection, both the persons involved

in that process and the question and format of interviews may affect whether sex bias emerged and whether women are discouraged from pursuing the job. Once interview have been carried out, sex bias may emerge in the process of evaluation.

It is difficult to have systematic comparison of candidates in many organisations, particularly at professional and managerial levels where job responsibilities are often more ambiguous. Although these impressions are important, they are often open door for factors unrelated to performance, such as gender to enter the process. For example, Genders and Garber's (1983) study of 64 upper level managers found that when the job description's stated requirements needed to be interpreted in light of the application materials, evaluators assumed that the "male candidate possessed the required skills and the female candidate lacked these stereotypically masculine skills". In recent times however, women are more likely to be recruited for professional and managerial positions than in previous times, even then, research have shown that their experiences may be negative because they will be treated as "tokens" (Benokraitis and Feagin, 1986).

Differential task assignment between men and women is often an underlying cause of sex bias that emerges in performance appraisal outcomes, in compensation, and in promotion decision. Sex segregation by division occurs when women are assigned to the less prestigious, lucrative, visible, and critical division of the organisation than their male counterparts (Benokraitis and Feagin,

1986; Kanter, 1977). Women in investment banking often are found in research, administration whereas the "hot" division such as corporate finance, merger and acquisition remain exclusively male.

Thirdly, slow promotion processes for women have been noted to result from many sources examples of which are, being hired or promoted onto ladders that are short or dead ends. It may also result from previous human resources decisions such as assigning women less critical dimension, giving them less critical tasks with the dimension. It may also stem from women having unequal access to training needed for promotion. All these often mean spending more time than their male counterparts in each position or moving horizontally while males move vertically on their career ladder. These known processes have subtly been institutionalised in our employment structures and have greatly impacted negatively on the experience of women compared to men. These in some cases have affected the well-being of many women and have led many out of paid employment, a situation many did not prepare for.

2.6.4 REVIEW ON MALE DOMINATED CULTURE.

Collinson and Hearn (1994) identified five ideal-typical masculinities which overlap and coexist with other specific processes to shape and impact on organisational climate and life. These are : (1) Authoritarianism - This is a process that involves aggressive domination and giving orders to others especially

subordinates. (2) Paternalism- is a practice of treating or governing people in a fatherly manner. (3) Entrepreneurialism- entails managing and creating actions in response to opportunities especially when it is difficult. (4) Informalism- is a flexible practice or relationship in a group. (5) Careerism- is the pursuit of professional advancement as one's sole aim. According to Collinson and Hearn's analysis of the above, certain cultural patterns position women and men differently through their practices of work and the inclusion of management's ideals that are transformer of gender stereotypes.

Collinson and Hearn paternalism structure, which emphasises male authority, could be related to Marshall (1995) definition of male dominated culture. In her study, she defined male dominated environment in three ways. This is an environment in which men are in the majority numerically. Secondly she sees the environment as one marked by the dynamics of collective and interpersonal interaction that fitted stereotyped and or degenerative images of men's behaviour. These make women feel excluded, under attack, less than effective, marginalised and isolated. She defined it as some recruitment and career development practices equal to those experienced by men. The first two definitions by Marshall formed the background for this study. This is because the experiences of female executives reviewed are subsumed under these two definitions. This is importantly so because sexual construction of gender identities and practices take place both in the

interaction of persons and policies in the environment within which those interactions take place. In line with Hamberger's (1981) view, perception of misfit in this environment constitute a great chasm between what women feel they are and what they long to be. This is the chasm between being and meaning. This invariably would affect female executive's perceived acceptance and growth, which have been assumed to be different from that of their male counterparts.

2.6.5. REVIEW ON SELF-ESTEEM, CAREER SELF-EFFICACY AND ACCEPTANCE.

Some researchers (e.g Carter and Kirkup 1990; Swanson and Woitke 1997) have referred to the existence and influence of both internal (within the person) and external factors (in the environment) acting as barriers against women in the workplace. Although these barriers have been dichotomised, an intertwining of the variables does take place. Self esteem and career self-efficacy are significant variables that could influence women's perception of their experiences in terms of acceptance and growth in male work environment. While self-esteem is a personal judgement of worthiness (Coopersmith, 1967), it exerts an approving or disappointing attitude about one's self as well as the scope to which one believes himself or herself to be capable, successful, significant and worthy. Career self-efficacy is a specific form of self-efficacy which refers to people's beliefs that they

can successfully perform job activities that are a part of specific occupations (Betz and Hackett, 1981).

Hackett and Betz (1981) applied Bandura's (1982) self-efficacy theory to career development of women. Hackett and Betz (1982) made the proposal that women possess lower and weaker career-related self-efficacy expectations, which explains restricted ranges of careers and underutilisation of women's abilities. Though self-efficacy has been used to explain under-representation of females in male dominated career. (Farmer 1976, Phafflin 1984) this may also be related to their experience within the work setting.

Research findings on learning environment in disciplines considered male majors do not differ from those on male work environment. As women begin their careers in science and engineering for example, they face a hostile environment due to gender issues related to learning styles and development (Pearson and Gallaher, 1994). These issues affect the retention of women in these fields. Some of the reasons for why women leave these disciplines include lower level of confidence in self and ability to do science and engineering (Pearson and Gallaher, 1994). Brush (1991), stated that the prevailing attitude in society that women are not well suited to do science and engineering are strong signals before high school. Seymour (1994) amplifies this thought in discussing the dampening effect of cultural messages, which suggests that women either "couldn't or shouldn't do science".

Pearson and Gallaher concluded by saying that because of the belief that women are unsuited for science, women are treated differently in the classroom.

Similarly, Seymour (1994) found that young women experience a double bind situation whereby winning male acceptance in academic terms, they lose acceptance in personal terms. Women who achieve in academic terms are at odds with their gender role. The male oriented culture of science and engineering poses unique gender problems for women that are not present for men. The consequence of this is that women are exposed to years of learning that women's experience does not matter and that women's voices are silent (Yllo, 1989). This pressure forms a personal attack on the development and identity of young women and affects the feeling of belonging to the profession (Pearson and Gallaher 1994).

Most masculinised occupations and their environment for example, Policing are deeply resistant to change and they continue to operate with deeply sexist views about women (Niland 1996). As such men have traditionally not welcomed women who find themselves in masculinised occupations. According to Niland, a number of arguments have been advanced for this. These include: women are being protected from engaging in physically demanding arduous jobs, women would be at risk; women undermine men's conditions, women's destiny are biologically determined, and because their work is seen as trivial, they will undermine men's

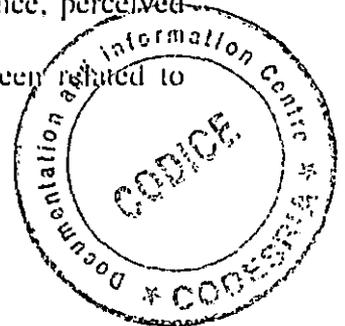
work which is highly esteemed. These cultural messages continue to uphold the status quo.

The messages sent from the larger society and sexist environmental barriers have a threefold impact. First, they convey that women are not as valuable or as competent as men, especially in traditional male sex typed work environment. Secondly, they suggest that it is not appropriate for women to pursue a non-traditional career. Thirdly, they suggest women will not be rewarded appropriately and may even be punished. The external sexist messages and barriers impinge on women so persuasively that the messages are no longer perceived as external but rather as something wrong or deficient in women themselves (Washor-Leihaber, 1982). The disbelief in women's ability and commitment may affect women's self esteem and career confidence (Krubally and Snyder, 1998). For example, competition is one of the factors that elicits fear and anxiety in women because the anticipation of certain negative consequences and because women have the impression that their own cognitive style particularly if it is imaginative or intuitive is not the appropriate one for example in scientific research (Brush 1991).

This resulting self-evaluation influences women's career related behaviour (Marshall, 1995). For instance, research findings on gender in a male dominated scientific community indicated that academic women experiencing themes of professional marginalisation and exclusion from centre of professional authority,

(Marilainien and Katila, 1999), and reported a decline in self-esteem and self-efficacy, among others (Yoder, 1984). This suggests that women in these environments are considered as outsiders. A common feature in their stories is that the female academics have a tendency to keep "low profile" even in cases of apparent discrimination. Also, they attributed their academic success to fate or luck unlike men who attributed their success as the direct result of achievement. In search of a new identity through professionalism, these women are reluctant to place their experience within a larger cultural or institutional context of sexism, or to admit that discrimination has affected them. Feeling that their professional identity is precarious, they avoid using their intellectual skills politically because that could constitute a threat to the relations they have established with colleagues (Morley, 1994).

Similarly, those females working in male dominated occupations reported lower satisfaction than those working in occupations with fewer men at the top. In addition, Matyas (1992) found that high achieving girls at adolescence face considerable conflict between continuing to work for academic success and giving in to pressures to suppress their academic talent in order to be more socially accepted by their male counterparts. Women's lack of self confidence, perceived difference of subject matter, self doubt and fear of failure have been attributed to



perception of unfriendly masculine culture and lack of success (Peltz, 1990; Tobias, 1978; 1990),

The higher a person's self esteem and efficacy, the better equipped an individual is to adjust. Persons with high self-esteem are more likely to implement their self-concept (which is the identity or self one thinks he or she is) in their vocation. At management level, anything less than perfect work could be used as a reason to take women out, thus women's approach to problem solving has been cautious, thoughtful and defence-oriented. This decision making style is a response to male dominated culture that has shaped and influenced the style that women have needed to adopt. This style hinders women managers from being given management opportunities and high-risk assignments that provide visibility and make careers (Peters, 2003).

The disbelief in women's ability and commitment may affect women's self esteem and career confidence (Krubally & Snyder, 1998). There exists an elitist corporate culture, which excludes women's views and causes them to be uncomfortable. In such situations, women are sometimes less confident in their technological performance and their abilities than are men at comparable levels. Women scientists and engineers because of their situation are more likely to take direction rather than to set direction (Catalyst Perspective, 1992). However, successful scientists and managers grow in self-confidence as they learn how to

tackle increasingly difficult problems and as others recognise and reward their skills.

2.6.5 REVIEW ON SELF-ESTEEM, CAREER SELF-EFFICACY AND GROWTH

Self-efficacy is influenced by past learning experiences and the environment. These expectations are believed to influence the likelihood of engaging in behaviour and the length of persistence of that behaviour. According to McWhirter et al., (1998), they can serve as a barrier to the extent that they are unrealistic, or to the extent that they reduce the likelihood that a female worker will behave in manner that increases her success and satisfaction at work. Low outcome expectation serves as a barrier because they reduce the likelihood that a female worker who finds herself in a situation in which she may not be considered for promotion will engage in behaviour that address the restriction or further her goals in the workplace. In addition, previous research has found that women often have lower self-evaluation than men (Stake 1979). Clance (1985) attributes low self perception to the impostor phenomenon in which some high achieving women believe they have only gained career success through luck or pretence, rather than their own ability and that at the moment their incompetence may be revealed. The culture of most masculinised occupations e.g. policing prevents many women from achieving their potential (Niland, 1996).

The culture emerges from underlying values that inform the organisation's behaviour, and the sum of attitudes, beliefs, values and customs that are rewarded and accepted as normal. Those who exhibit values contrary to expectation such as feminine values in such environments may find it difficult to be accepted in those cultures. Thus, their progression will depend on their acceptance by an old boy network (Niland 1996) and upon their personality make up (Catron 1995). There exists an elitist corporate culture, which excludes women's views and causes them to be uncomfortable. In such situations, women are sometimes less confident in their technological performance and their abilities than are men at comparable levels. Women scientists and engineers because of their situation are more likely to take direction rather than to set direction (Catalyst Perspective 1992). However, successful scientists and managers grow in self-confidence as they learn how to tackle increasingly difficult problems and as others recognize and reward their skills.

Catron, (1995) reveal a gender gap in self-esteem that increases dramatically in the teen years through the college experience and into adulthood. Declining self-esteem affect women's confidence and aspirations and choice of college major or occupation (American Association of University Women). Hackett and Betz (1981) made a proposal that women possess lower and weaker career related self-efficacy experience which explains restricted use of career

underutilisation of women's ability which may in turn affect their development and growth. For example, Mellwee and Robinson, (1992) suggests that women lack self-confidence in performing manual tasks with tools and may avoid working on projects where the performance of such tasks is required. They found that the performance of manual tasks and use of tools are important factors in career development.

There appears to be many reasons why women are not succeeding or progressing in male occupations. Such reasons range from competition, perceived difficulty of subject or task, lack of self-confidence, all coupled with an unfriendly masculine culture (Peltz1990; Tobias 1978; 1990). Additionally, Hagan and Medway (1998) reported that learned helplessness and egotism in past, failure performance also offer explanation for lack of women's success in technological fields. This inability to take on the challenges of male dominated occupations may deter women from fulfilling their ambitions, a situation that hinders progress. This lack of self-affirmation may make women leave male dominated field and the effect is on growth (Schnabel 1993).

Self-efficacy and self-esteem are essential for fulfilment and actualisation (Brandon, 1994). To this Johoda (1958) included self-acceptance and a sense of identity, integration, autonomy, freedom of distortion from distortion of reality because of one's personal awareness, and environmental mastery of adequacy on

interpersonal relations. This then presupposes that an individual with high self-worth and ability would be able to handle the influence of micro inequities in the workplace. As Lettman (1981) reported, persons with high self-esteem appear to take into consideration the opportunity to satisfy their internal needs and are more intrinsically motivated and more resistant to societal influences in their career. For these individuals self esteem and career self-efficacy is ultimately involved in growth.

2.6.6 REVIEW ON RECOGNITION, SUPPORTIVE MANAGEMENT AND ACCEPTANCE.

Research has shown that many of the conditions associated with senior management positions such as the small proportion of women increase the likelihood that sex stereotype and its effect will be salient (Kanter, 1977b). This may manifest in attitudinal reactions of peers, which are indications that women may be considered "outsiders" or "insiders". Gold (2000) suggests that how others perceive women presents itself as a hurdle that women have to overcome in proving themselves capable of more senior positions. Negative perceptions may be amplified when a woman is the first female to occupy a position. Thus, women experience stereotyping and discriminations that may make it difficult for them to achieve acceptance as leaders.

In particular, leadership is stereotypically viewed as the province of males and incompatible with women's traditional roles as nurturer, mother and subordinate (Eagly et al 1995; Powney 1997). The problem of belonging and identity for women in male occupations are linked because the qualities especially smartness, assertiveness and competitiveness that women feel they must demonstrate in order to win the recognition for their right to belong raises concerns that such recognition can only be won at the expense of their perceived femininity (Seymour 1994). Brush (1991) in his study reported that there is a problem when male faculty comes from cultures where women by virtue or custom have a very restricted role. Some male faculty may have difficulty in perceiving or treating females as anything but inferior intellectually and as sex objects. He further reported that females face barrier of having their answers and theories about science devalued because of their speech and other verbal and non-verbal method or communication.

Discrimination maintains itself in a variety of ways, working within the dominant culture against the person considered alien. For example, Katila and Merilamen (1999), in analysing how gender division based on sex differences are discursively produced concluded that some discourses are privileged over others and patriarchy is one of such discourses. These various discourses they maintained have opportunities to present themselves by adopting various strategies of

controlling and ensuring their eminence. Also, studies by Greebler, Thomas and Kuczysk (1982) and Thomas and Greebler, (1983) indicated that the types of job involved might influence the attitudes of male employees toward female employees. More negative attitudes were reported in departments where the participation of women was more rare.

Holmer- Nadesan (1996) in agreeing with the above defines patriarchy as a system of discourse that participates in the articulation of social relations. From this perspective, it is believed that patriarchy organises materials and linguistic practices around a primary signifier that might be experienced as male authority. Subsequently, within this context, the social category 'woman' is subordinated to the category man, and they are discursively characterised as "leading" in relation to the characteristics required for the professional identity. This implies that women's entry into such jobs has reproduced gender relations initially confined to the private life and thus has continually affected their occupation. Within this background, the varying attitudes experienced towards women rendered traditionally male job environment hostile and this in turn has imparted negatively on women.

Results of various management studies concur on the fact that within the prevalent culture of male dominated work environment women are invisible marginalised stereotypes (Hargreaves, 1996). Thus, it is not surprising for

example that some senior women managers voiced a sense of isolation and lack of support in their attempt to carve out opportunities for themselves. This sense of isolation was conspicuous and they often voiced a sense of frustration in being excluded when key decisions were being made (Cunningham, Lord & Dekney, 1999). They went further to explain that senior managers in their study of the impact of organisational change on opportunity for women in the civil service, feel that they lack the means to challenge the 'masculine' culture of the organization because of deeply entrenched attitudes. It was perceived that those who voiced their dissatisfaction with this situation will be seen as a threat and will be further isolated. Even younger female executives in position of authority complained that men resented them and resisted taking orders from them (Rogan, 1984), this may signal lack of recognition. In addition, revealed that female engineers tend to be interrupted more frequently and their recommendations ignored more than male counterpart (Catalyst Perspective, 1992).

Similarly, leadership research indicated that employees are often reluctant to have a female supervisor, resulting in a less supportive environment and an indication of the existence of subtle barrier for female managers (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). On the other hand, Deaux (1979) reported that female dominated occupations were perceived to and presents less difficult challenges than male dominated ones. Whereas Kanter (1997b), suggested that these outcomes could

occur for either gender when they were a minority group, recent research and reviews have indicated that they occur only for women in predominantly male occupation (Ragin & Cotton, 1996; Yoder, 1991).

In analysing token status and its effect, Spangler, Gordon, and Pipkin (1978) confirmed the perceived role entrapment of tokens, and Wolman and Frank (1975) found that tokens felt more isolated than non-tokens. This experience influence women's perception of their status. For example, Mellor (1996) found women's ratings of their competence and opportunity to participation in activities of local union offices to be lower in locales of smaller proportion of women. Token performances are hindered because of the pressure to which their visibility subjects them. These experiences may be stigmatising for individuals because of traditional or prevailing social attitudes and stereotypes.

These same dynamics may affect people of colour because they are sometimes racial bias in management ranks. In this regard, discrimination occurs in part because of the belief by white men that women and people of colour are less suited for management than white men.

2.6.7. REVIEW ON RECOGNITION, SUPPORTIVE MANAGEMENT AND GROWTH.

The experience of subtle barrier against women and minorities in their career advancement has been described as glass ceiling. This is a top rung on the

Nigeria. Consequently, when there is perception of one's situation as discriminatory, this can be a high source of stress for women especially when the need for recognition is high (Davidson & Cooper 1983). This can also result into low self-esteem, withdrawal and resignation or poor work (Rowe, 1990). According to Naff (1994) women respondents in his study of advancement of women in federal civil service reported that they face uphill battle in proving their competence to their colleagues that men did not face, and that their colleagues believed that they had been promoted only because of their gender and not their qualifications. His finding generally demonstrated that women are perceived and have been treated differently than men. It is not surprising then that Deaux (1979) found in his study that male reported better relationship with their supervisors and received more approval for their work than females. Consequently, women tend to develop support groups, which play key role for women in management as a means of obtaining advice and providing role models.

Stroh, Brett, and Relly (1992) also examined several possible explanations for women's lack of progress to upper management. In a study of women who had the 'right' education comparable to their male counterparts, relocation for career advancement, an equal voice in family decisions, (when married) and employment as often as men in higher paying industries observed that despite these women's adherence to a "male model"

employment ladder considerably below that of men (Toohey and Whittaker, 1993). These have implication for government regarding equal representation of women in employment, and for women and organisation because disparate treatment can have adverse effect on both. Previous studies that focus on human "capital" factors such as age, education and length of service (Lewis, 1986b; Taylor, 1979), generally have not ruled out the existence of discrimination because they did not find that the difference in human capital fully explained the variance in men's and women's achievement

In a study of employees in Natural Sciences and Engineering, participants reported that they had to work harder than men to prove themselves. Many women felt they were judged by an entirely different set of standards. Women who were enthusiastic about the nature of their work during the early stages of their career were disappointed after choosing their career, a path they considered to have the most rapid advancement. Udegbe, (1997) observed that particularly in male dominated occupations; the presence of women threatens the solidarity of the work culture and eradicates the trust and camaraderie among them. She added that such attitudes tend to impede upward movement opportunities for women. The study of Tomkiewicz and Adeyemo (1995) which examined attitudes towards women as managers corroborated Udegbe's assertion as their findings revealed that female management aspirants are likely to experience barriers to their advancement in

of career advancement, their salaries had increased substantially less rapidly than men's salary. This suggests the presence of gender discrimination (Frieze, Olson, and Good, 1990). Similarly, longitudinal studies by Wood, Coreonan and Courant (1993), Cox and Harquail (1991), which track comparably qualified men and women such as graduates of the same program have shown that over time there is degradation of women's compensation that can not fully be explained by differences in qualification. One of the reasons for this may be because women managers often do not get the diversity of experience that male managers do (Van Velsor and Hughes, 1990). This is an important factor in the development of expertise (Horgan, 1989). Lack of diversity of experience can be particularly detrimental to promotion prospects in policing, as often-operational experience is valued above administrative experience.

Likewise in a comparison of career and work experiences of executive women and men in financial services, Lyness and Thompson (1997) found similarities in several organisational outcomes, such as compensation and many work attitudes. Important differences were found however, with women having less authority, receiving fewer stock options, and having less international mobility than men. Women at the highest executive levels reported more obstacles than lower

level women, and lower satisfaction compared to men. In female occupations, women experience more flexible time and job satisfaction than those in other occupations (Blau & Jusenius, 1976).), This may be a reflection of a conducive environment in which they are perceived more positively than their female counterparts in male dominated occupations (Udegbe and Onare 1994). In addition, Gardiner and Tiggemann's (1999) study revealed that compared to those in female dominated occupations, females in male occupations reported that one's sex is a disadvantage when it comes to career progress. This means that even when women and men's jobs are at the same organisational levels, women's jobs may not be comparable in status, authority and advancement potential (Reskin & Ross 1995).

Other factors such as mentoring in formal policies and practices have been suggested to influence career advancement (Fine, Johnson & Ryan, 1990; Bayes 1991; Dept. of Labour 1991). Experiences such as mentoring critical to success in organisation might be restricted for women. While some women do have mentors others have found it difficult finding appropriate one. Few women at the top may be available as mentors, and these few are likely to be in great demand, and the greater visibility of women in organisations makes the 'female mentor' and 'female protégé' relationship easily noticeable. Lawrence (1985) observed that some studies consider the female protégé in a negative light. For example, men may

hesitate to take on female protégé because they may perceive the relationship as a great risk and may be comfortable developing a professional and personal relationship with another male. Sponsors and mentors seem to be important to women's progress and as Noe's (1988) and Okurame's (2002) finding suggested starting a cross gender relationship may be a problem but once it is established, the benefits are immense. Okurame's study further revealed that whether an employee is a male or female informal mentoring is essential for career success.

Literature (e.g Morrison & Branter 1992) indicated that new comers reported that in getting oriented to the practices, procedure, shared values and expectations of existing organisational members, they establish social relationships and seek acceptance. The benefits for mentor protégé and organisation outweigh the risks involved in mixed gender mentor relationship. Importantly, mentoring relatively makes accessible many different communication channels within the organisation (Stroken, Riger & Sullivan, 1995). Equally important are foreign task assignments, receiving helpful feedback, getting appointment to important committees that are critical determinants of promotion and these may differ for men and women.

Research has suggested that marriage and children adversely affect women's (but not men's) career advancement (Johnson & Duerst-Lahti, 1992; Kelly et al., 1991). This is mainly because women take on primary responsibility

of the home and children, and this is likely to have an impact on their work life and careers. This may in turn affect the attitude of supervisors and co-workers when this conflict with work. As a result of this, women are often bypassed for important career enhancement assignment, developmental opportunities and promotion. Moreover, evidence has suggested that the impact of the assumption about women's commitment to their careers extend beyond women with children.

Naff (1994), in his study found out that during the first five years of their careers, women with and without children advance at nearly the same rate, while both groups of women advance more slowly than all men. According to him, the difference between childless women and men narrows as these women remain in the workforce for more than five years, while women with children continue to lag behind. This suggests that even women without children are assumed to be less committed to their careers until they have demonstrated their commitment in remaining in the work force for several years without having children. Consequently, the above imply that dissipation in any form has social psychological consequences. Individuals or groups with limited opportunities may respond with psychological disengagement from work, lowered career aspiration, including narrow instrumental orientation to work.

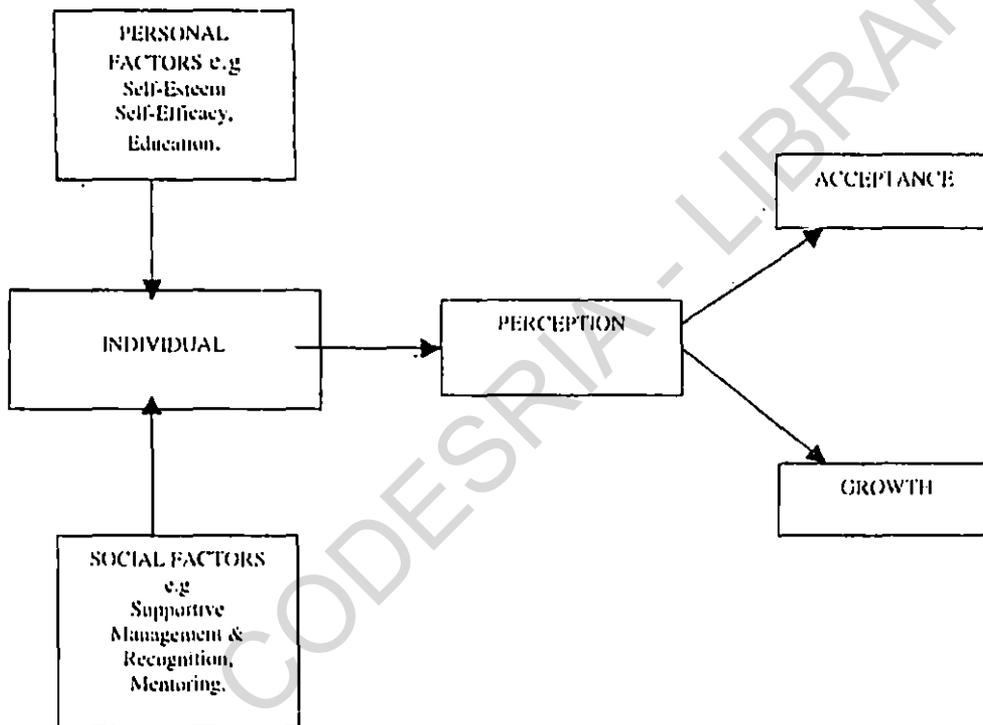
Conceptual Framework

The theories and literature cited in this study generally explain the different experiences of individuals in the work place. Specifically, person-centered and sex role theory explained differential treatment in management to result largely from deficiency in underrepresented groups. These deficiencies relate to personal variables that limit women's abilities in carrying out certain tasks. Secondly, rational bias and Attribution theory partly explains bias and stereotyping on the part of men in power and the majority population as the major cause of inequities. These discriminatory practices especially in the workplace underlie actions of management and colleagues, which in turn reflects societal ideologies about the place of women. Third are theories that pinpoint structural systemic discrimination as the root cause of differential treatment rather than actions or characteristics of individuals. These theories claim that widespread policies and practices in the social system perpetuate discriminatory treatment of women and people of colour.

Each of the above theories taken singly as many studies have done is not adequate in capturing and explaining differential treatment in the workplace. More importantly, it is assumed in this study that women's perception of acceptance and growth in male dominated work environment would be influenced not only by factors internal to the individual but also by a combination of factors considered internal to the individual and social /structural factors prevalent in the work place.

Additionally, most of the literature reviewed essentially investigated differential treatment in culture different from the one being studied. An understanding of relevant psychosocial factors determining perceived acceptance and growth in the Nigerian work context would provide empirical results for future reference.

Fig.1. Conceptual Model showing the relationships between Personality and Social factors influencing perceived Acceptance and Growth



The model in figure 1 indicates that personal variables such as self-esteem and self-efficacy exert direct influence on the individual's perception of acceptance and growth. Similarly, social factors such as recognition and supportive management directly influence individual's perception of acceptance and growth. This implies that women's perception of acceptance and growth in male work environment is a function of both personality and social factors.

2.7.0 Hypotheses.

- (1) Among female and male executives, self-esteem, self-efficacy, supportive management and recognition will jointly and independently contribute positively and significantly toward male and female perceived acceptance.
- (2) Among female and male executives, self-esteem, self-efficacy, supportive management and recognition will jointly and independently contribute positively and significantly toward male and female perceived growth.
- (3) Self-esteem, career self-efficacy, recognition and supportive management will jointly and independently contribute positively and significantly to perceived acceptance and growth of female executives in female dominated occupations.
- (4) Self esteem, career self- efficacy, recognition and supportive management will jointly and independently contribute positively and significantly to perceived acceptance and growth of female executives in sex-neutral occupations.

- (5) Sex, educational qualification and mentoring will independently and jointly, significantly and positively predict acceptance and growth for male and female executives in male dominated jobs.
- (6) Female executives in male dominated occupations will report lower acceptance and growth than male executives in same occupations.
- (7) Female executives in female dominated and sex neutral occupations will score higher on acceptance and growth than female executives in male dominated occupations.
- (8) Female executives in male dominated occupations with high self esteem and high career self efficacy will score higher on acceptance than female executives with low scores on self esteem and career self efficacy.
- (9) Female executives in male dominated occupations with high recognition and supportive management will score higher on acceptance than female executives with low scores on self-esteem and career self efficacy.
- (10) Female executives in male dominated occupations with high self esteem and high career self efficacy will score higher on growth than female executives with low scores on self esteem and career self efficacy.
- (11) Female executives in male dominated occupations with high recognition and supportive management will score higher on growth than female executives with low scores on recognition and career self-efficacy.

- (12) Female executives who had stayed longer on present position will report lower acceptance and growth than those on shorter duration.

2.8.0 Operational Definition of Terms

Acceptance

This is an attitude that indicates a readiness to react to others as "outsiders" or 'insiders' in a predetermined manner. It may reflect a negative or positive reaction that indicates whether an individual feels he belongs to the in-group or not. Low score indicates low acceptance while high score indicates high acceptance.

Career Self-efficacy

This is the belief that one is competent, capable and has the ability to successfully handle job duties of specific occupation. High score indicates high self-efficacy and low score indicates low self-efficacy.

Growth

This is defined as individuals perception of progress made along career path as indicated by both organisational and personal evaluation of individual level of effectiveness that results in promotion. Low score indicates low growth level while high score indicates high growth.

Recognition

This is the belief that the individual is accepted for who he/she is and that her efforts and contributions are approved and appreciated. Low score on this variable indicate low recognition and high score indicates high recognition.

Self-esteem

This is an evaluation of actual self and ideal self; it is a personal sense of worthiness. When there is congruence, the individual concerned has high self-esteem. High score indicates high self-esteem and low score indicates low self-esteem.

Supportive management

This is the feeling that the work team and environment is accommodating and flexible. This feeling presupposes that an individual can succeed or fail without fear or intimidation. Low score indicates low management support while high score indicates high management support.

CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the mode of the study, the sample involved, instrument used and how the instrument was administered, scored and analysed.

3.3. Design

In this study, an independent group and a descriptive survey design were adopted. The research involved an exploratory and interpretive investigation of the factors associated with female executives' perceived acceptance and growth in male dominated occupations. The study further compared samples of males and females in male dominated occupations on their perceived acceptance and growth. Although their jobs may not be identical, executive men and women in jobs that are comparable in important characteristics such as organisational level were chosen for the study.

This design also involved a comparison made between female executives across the three occupational categories of male dominated, female dominated and sex neutral. The independent variables for the study were self-esteem, self-efficacy, supportive management and recognition. Each of these variables has two levels, which are 'low' indicating a score of 1, and 'high' indicating a score of 2. The

dependent variables were Acceptance and Growth. High score indicates higher level on each the underlying construct.

3.1.Subjects:

One hundred and thirteen (31.7%) males and 243 (68.3%) females participated in this study. The age range for the female is between 26 and 68 with a mean age of 42.89 years, and SD of 7.29. For the male executives their ages range from 30 to 61 years with a mean age of 42.82 and SD of 7.50. The various fields represented in the study and percentages of respondents in each field were

Occupations	Number	(%)
Male Dominated		
Architecture	5	(1.4%)
Accounting	8	(2.2%)
Armed forces	51	(14.3%)
Engineering	24	(6.7%)
Medicine	52	(14.9%)
Law	20	(5.6%)
Female Dominated		
Administration	66	(18.6%)
Nursing	44	(12.4%)
Teaching	38	(10.4%)

Sex-Neutral

Banking	12	(3.4%)
Journalism	24	(6.7%)
Paramilitary	6	(1.6%).

These various occupations were classified into three categories; namely male dominated, (Accountancy, Medicine, Engineering, Architecture, and Law) female dominated; (Nursing, Teaching, and Administration), and sex neutral occupations; (Banking, Paramilitary and Journalism). The classification was based on reviewed literature and information collected from focus group discussions and in-depth interviews conducted with executives during the pilot study (see procedure pg 86).

Among the sampled population 289 (81.2%) were married, 27 (15 males and 12 females) (7.6%) were single, 14 (3.9%) were separated, and 13 (3.7%) were widowed. One hundred and seventy one (48.0%) of them had B.Sc degree, 109 (30.6%) had M.Sc degree, 16 (4.5%) were Ph.D degree holders and 47 (13.2%) had other professional qualifications. Two hundred and ninety two 292 (82.0%) of the respondents were in the senior management category, while 61 (17.1) belong to the junior management cadre. Tenure on the job ranged from 1 to 13 years with an

average of 3.47 and SD of 2.13. Additionally, 122 respondents indicated they had mentors while 95 respondents indicated that they had no mentor.

Setting

The organisations considered in this study are those in which occupations categorised as male dominated, female dominated and sex-neutral were found. A list of these organisations was drawn and the following were selected randomly. The University College Hospital Ibadan, Nigerian Association of Female Lawyers, Nigerian Customs and Immigration, High Court of Appeal, Federal and State Government Ministries such as Works; Nigerian Prisons, University of Ibadan, Nigerian Army and Police, Nigerian Television Authority, Banks such as Wema and Union, and National Youth Service Corps. These different organisations are located in Ibadan and Lagos. The two study locations were chosen because of the concentration of government, private and multinational organisations.

3.2. Instruments:

Quantitative and Qualitative:

Both qualitative and quantitative methods of data gathering were adopted in this study. The use of both qualitative and quantitative research methods strengthens the research design (Krueger 1994) because of its introspective nature that requires evaluation of female executives' experience in male occupations. The researcher was able to analyse information from the reviewed literature, the

focus group and in depth interviews, and the survey data to check the consistency of the findings and to make recommendation for further investigation.

3.2.1. Quantitative Measures:

A) Self-esteem Measure

Self-esteem was measured using the self-esteem scale developed by Adanijo and Oyefeso (1986). The scale consists of 15 items to which respondents were expected to express their degree of agreement using 5-point Likert rating method. These authors reported an internal consistency coefficient of $r = 0.79$ among bank officials. In addition, Adanijo (1987) found an internal consistency coefficient of $r = 0.78$ for bank workers. A pilot study was conducted to pre-test the battery of tests used in this study see (3.5 procedure). The internal consistency coefficient for the pilot study was $r = 0.76$, and the item total correlation ranged from 0.47 to 0.63. For the main study the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient was 0.80 while the Spearman Brown split half method yielded 0.72.

B) Self Efficacy

This is a 10-item modified version of self-efficacy developed by Riggs and Knight (1994). Responses to the items on the scale were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, which indicates respondents' level of agreement with items on the scale. The original scale had a coefficient Cronbach alpha of 0.82. For the pilot

study, the item total correlation for the 10 items ranged from 0.42 to 0.59 while the Spearman Brown (split- half) yielded reliability co-efficient of 0.77. The Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient for main study was 0.70 while the Spearman Brown split half reliability was 0.67.

C) Supportive Management.

This is a 5-item measure developed by Kahn (1990). The respondents were expected to indicate their level of agreement with each of the items, which were measured on a 5-point Likert scale rating ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). The author reported a reliability coefficient score of 0.83 for the scale. In the present study, cronbach alpha internal consistency reliability estimation were computed and found to be 0.66 and 0.68 for the pilot study and main studies respectively while Guttman split half method yielded 0.59.

D) Recognition

The scale was developed by Kahn (1990). It is a three-item scale with a reliability coefficient score of 0.76. The responses to the items on the scale were rated on a 5- point Likert scale ranging from (1) Strongly Disagree to (5) Strongly Agree. The reliability co-efficient for the scale for the pilot study was 0.55, while for the main study Cronbach alpha method yielded a reliability coefficient score of 0.56.

E) Acceptance

This variable was measured using a 10-item attitude toward women executive scale developed by Steers (1991). Attitude toward women scale was used to measure acceptance because as indicated by the study of Jagacinska (1987) who studied acceptance of women in male dominated jobs using the engineering field as case study, attitudes among other things, indicate acceptability of women to engage in leadership roles as men in industries. Also, attitude involves a perception of whether women possess the character and quality (e.g., self-confidence) required of someone in a male job like engineering. For the pilot study the reliability coefficient using male and female managers was 0.85. For the main study, Guttman split half method yielded reliability coefficient of 0.68 while Cronbach Alpha reliability was 0.76. The responses to the items were rated using the 5-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). To obtain construct validity, acceptance measure was correlated with that of growth and this yielded a correlation coefficient of 0.35 ($P < .05$).

F) Growth:

An initial list of twenty five items was prepared. Some of the items were derived from the existing literature on growth while others were constructed from a selected sample of managers' working experience derived from the qualitative research. The twenty five items generated were given to 5 psychologists for expert judgement on the suitability of the items. Nunnally (1978) considered this

procedure an acceptable method of achieving content validity. The items were cast in the form of statements that affirm perception of growth or lack of growth. These items were administered to 110 male and female managers who participated in the pilot study. They were asked to rate each item on a five-point Likert scale according to how accurately each item describes growth. The composite score of all the items on the scale were ranked in such a way that a higher score indicated higher levels of perceived growth. The data was subjected to iterative item-total correlation analysis and the items exhibiting lowest coefficients (below 0.40) were discarded.

The resultant score matrix with 14 variables on 110 subjects was subjected to a principal component analysis followed by varimax rotation. The analysis yielded 3 factors (accounting for 51.45% of the total variance). For the pilot study, Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.80. For the main study, the reliability coefficient using Guttman split half method 0.79, while Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient was 0.82.

To obtain convergent validity for the growth scale, it was correlated with job satisfaction. According to Herzberg, Mausner and Enyderman's (1959) two factor theory, factors that lead to job satisfaction are those that satisfy an individual's need for self actualisation in one's work, and it is only from performance of a task that the individual can get the rewards that will reinforce his

or her aspiration. When growth is denied, the result is lack of satisfaction. Thus correlation analysis of growth with job satisfaction yielded $r=.51$.

3.2.2. Qualitative Method

The qualitative aspect of the study was carried out for a period of ten weeks. It consisted of two focus group discussion and six in-depth interview sessions. The number of interviews was small because of the difficulty in getting a larger number of participants to take part in the different sessions. Focus groups and have been used successfully in qualitative research (Kruger, 1994) to study ideas in a group context, allowing a researcher to observe a large amount of interaction on a given topic in a limited amount of time (Morgan, 1988). In doing this, participants construct, give meaning and definition to the investigation being conducted (Le Compte and Preissle, 1994). This method of data collection is flexible enough for everyone to have an opportunity to participate and large enough to give a diversified opinion. In-depth interviews allows for individual expression of ideas without interruption from others. It is sometimes ideal for data gathering because of the difficulty of bringing participants together in a forum for discussion. Both methods allow the researcher to have a glimpse into the world of the participants.

Probing open-ended questions and prompting strategies were used to get clarification from the participants as they told their own stories. The enquiries

were conducted until theoretical saturation was achieved (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Strauss and Corbin (1990) concluded that theoretical saturation is completed when there is no new data forthcoming from the group, elements are accounted for and the relationship among categories are validated and well established. A discussion guide which consisted of 14 questions that would assist in gathering relevant information was developed and used during the interview sessions. To ascertain face-validity of the questionnaire used, the participants were asked to evaluate the items regarding their suitability for inclusion in the scale. Items not considered suitable were discarded.

A brief introduction was given to the research work at the beginning of the interviews. Before the commencement of the sessions, all the members of the study were approached to solicit for their assistance and co-operation toward the data collection. Those who indicated their willingness were randomly assigned to each group according to their availability to participate in a focus group at a particular time. The focus group consisted of 9 women who occupy managerial positions in their various organisations and enrolled as part time students of Masters in Managerial Psychology and Business Administration at the University of Ibadan.

The Focus group discussion interviews were conducted within the Faculty of the social sciences and each lasted for over a period of one hour. The in-depth interviews were conducted with six female executives in their different

organisations and each interview session lasted for between one and one and half-hours. The experiences of both groups of women (FGD and In-depth interviews) enriched the study. The data collected were tape recorded with notes taken by a secretary facilitated the process of transcribing the discussions.

The data was transcribed and analysed using the Open code software package for the analysis of qualitative data. This process of analysis involved reading through transcriptions, noting the similarities in responses and establishing a theme for each of the response categories. These are coded and tallied into a frequency count matrix. As the data were coded into meaningful themes, it was possible to keep a systematic and precise set of procedures based on the research questions. The criteria for a category or theme were set to keep all similar responses into a meaningful experience of participation response. Since the investigation qualitative data was exploratory, the objective of the analysis as reported by McCracken, (1988) was to ascertain the categories and relationships that form the participants' experiences in male dominated work environment.

3.5. Procedure

Occupational grouping was done with the aid of a manual obtained from Federal Office of Statistics (FOS, 1996 / 98) and two focus group discussions conducted with female executives who were running masters programmes in the Faculty of the Social Sciences, University of Ibadan, and six in-depth interviews

with female executives in their organisations. Each focus group consisted of eight members. Although a series of group interviews was necessary to have a rich data, participant's availability was a key factor in the make up of the group sessions. Thus, there was the need to conduct in-depth interviews with female executives. This proved to be a difficult experience because of the tight schedule of female executives.

The participants in the FGD and in-depth interview sessions were asked to identify various occupations and classify them into whether they were male dominated; female dominated or sex neutral occupations. The frequencies for the categories were obtained for all the responses and were tallied with the classification obtained from the Federal Office of Statistics, 1996 / 98. Any occupation in which there is a large preponderance of one sex type over another up to the ratio of 85:15 is considered skewed. This implies that the male dominated occupations considered in this study are skewed. Also, Zunckerman (1981) considered a ratio of one-third females students to two-third male students in a given major to be male dominated.

In the various organizations visited, females who were identified as heads of the organizations, who had spent not less than one year on the present position and employed full time were selected for participation in the study. The number of women identified for male dominated occupations was small and this did not allow

for random sampling procedure, thus a purposive sampling method was adopted so that comparisons relevant to the purpose of study could be made. For male executives, random sampling method was adopted as male ratio was higher than that of females. Accidental sampling method was adopted where no list of staff was provided and any of the executives identified as head and was willing to participate in the study was selected. Those selected were given the questionnaires to complete. A total of 800 questionnaires were distributed, 381 questionnaires were collected and 356 were used for the analyses. Twenty five questionnaires were discarded.

3.4. Statistical Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was carried to test hypotheses 1 -5. This involved regressing all the independent (self-esteem, self-efficacy, recognition and supportive management (hypothesis1-4), and demographic variables (hypothesis5) on each of the dependent variables (acceptance and growth). This was done in order to find out the independent variable that will significantly predict the dependent variables. 2×2 ANOVA (Analysis of variance) was employed to test hypotheses 6 -9 in order to find out the interaction effect of self-esteem and self-efficacy, recognition and supportive management on acceptance and growth for female executives. One-way analysis of variance was used to test hypothesis 5 which stated that female executives in female and sex-neutral occupations would score higher on acceptance and growth than female executives in male dominated

occupations. T-test for independent was used to test hypothesis 4 and 10 in order to compare the mean scores of male and females on perceived acceptance and growth.

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CHAPTER FOUR

In this chapter, results of analysis carried out to test the hypotheses previously stated are presented. Each of the results is presented in form of tables and is explained by reference to the tables. For each of the hypotheses statistical tests of significance selected and applied to the data are described followed by a statement indicating whether the hypothesis is rejected or accepted. The hypotheses were tested one by one and results presented hypothesis by hypothesis. Table 1 presents zero order correlation matrix of all variables (self-esteem, self-efficacy, recognition, supportive management, acceptance and growth) which reveals the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

Zero Order Correlation Matrix

Variables	Acceptance	Growth	Self Esteem	Self Efficacy	Recognition	Supportive Management
Acceptance	-	.035	-.467**	.302**	.224**	.094
Growth		-	-.051	.019	.336**	.306**
Self Esteem			-	.562	.110*	.068
Self Efficacy				-	.142**	.063
Recognition					-	.305**
Supportive Management						-

Correlation results revealed that self esteem, self-efficacy and recognition significantly with acceptance at .05 level of significance. Recognition and

supportive management also indicated a significant positive correlation with growth at .05 level of significance. In addition, Self esteem (.01) and self-efficacy (.05) and supportive management significantly correlated with recognition.

Level of significance * (.01), ** (.05).

The first hypothesis states that among female and male executives in male dominated occupations, self-esteem, self-efficacy, supportive management and recognition will jointly and independently contribute positively and significantly toward perceived acceptance. To test the hypothesis multiple regression analysis was computed and results are shown in table 2. These revealed that self esteem, self efficacy, recognition, and supportive management accounted for 52.5%, 65.% and 40.5% of the total variance on perceived acceptance for the total sample, female executives and male executives.

Table 2: Multiple Regression Analysis showing independent and joint prediction of Perceived Acceptance for Total sample, Female and Male executives in male dominated occupations, female executives in female and sex neutral occupations.

	R	R ²	B	β	T	P
Self-esteem	.525	.275	.374	.460	8.41	<.001
Self efficacy			2.21	.019	.339	n.s
Recognition			.529	.169	3.51	<.001
Supportive management			5.41	.027	.554	n.s
Self-esteem	.651	.424	.467	.580	5.89	<.001
Self efficacy			1.30	.014	.154	n.s
Recognition			.276	.111	1.35	n.s
Supportive management			.134	.083	.966	n.s
Self-esteem	.591	.349	.181	.271	2.053	<.05
Self efficacy			.384	.354	2.623	<.01
Recognition			-.171	-.050	-.486	n.s
Supportive management			.334	.185	1.833	n.s
Self-esteem	.560	.314	.398	.518	4.377	<.01
Self efficacy			-.008	-.062	-.533	n.s
Recognition			.744	.251	2.602	<.01
Supportive management			9.777	.040	.418	n.s
Self-esteem	.405	.164	.373	.387	3.15	<.05
Self efficacy			-1.58	-.030	-.243	n.s
Recognition			.773	.223	1.84	n.s
Supportive management			-.630	-.284	-2.21	<.05

This means that self-esteem, self efficacy, recognition, and supportive management are all important for perceived acceptance for the total sample, female executives and male executives. However, as shown in Table 2 individual contribution of

independent variables to perceived acceptance for the total sample indicated that self-esteem ($\beta = .460$) was the best predictor, followed by recognition ($\beta = .027$). This means for these respondents, recognition and self-esteem were significant determinants of acceptance. Self-efficacy ($\beta.019$) and supportive management ($\beta.027$) did not show significant individual contribution to perceived acceptance.

For female executives, multiple regression analysis result in Table 2 showed significant joint influences of all the independent variables on perceived acceptance ($R^2 = .42$, $F(4,97) = 17.9$, $P < .001$). However, individual contribution revealed that only self-esteem ($\beta.580$) significantly influenced acceptance of female executives in male dominated jobs. Self-efficacy ($\beta.014$), recognition ($\beta.111$) and supportive management ($\beta.083$) did not show significant independent contributions. It then means that self-esteem is an important factor influencing female's perceived acceptance in male dominated work environment.

Similarly, for the male executives, result obtained revealed that there was a significant joint influence of self-esteem, self-efficacy recognition and supportive management on their perceived acceptance ($R^2 = .16$, $F(4,67) = 3.29$, $P < .01$). Independent prediction revealed that self-esteem ($\beta = .387$) and supportive management ($\beta = -.284$) best influenced perceived acceptance. This means that self-esteem and supportive management were important factors influencing perceived acceptance of male executives in male dominated occupations. These

results indicated that the hypothesis was partially confirmed. As predicted all the independent variables jointly influenced acceptance for the executives.

The second hypothesis predicted self-esteem, self-efficacy recognition and supportive management would jointly and independently, contributes positively and significantly to their perceived growth of female and male executives.

Table 3: Multiple Regression Analysis showing independent and joint prediction of Perceived Growth for the Total sample, Female and Male Executives in male dominated occupations, female executives in female and sex neutral occupations.

	R	R ²	B	β	t	P
Self-esteem	.135	.190	-.139	-.139	-.241	<.05
Self efficacy			6.98	.048	.828	Ns
Recognition			1.17	.307	.603	<.001
Supportive management.			.563	.225	4.45	<.001
Self-esteem	.587	.344	-.138	-.107	-1.02	Ns
Self efficacy			1.59	.011	.011	Ns
Recognition			2.136	.534	6.143	<.001
Supportive management.			.461	.178	1.952	<.05
Self-esteem	.380	.144	-.116	-.140	-.928	n.s
Self efficacy			00.8	.060	.387	n.s
Recognition			1.196	.285	2.380	<.05
Supportive management.			.344	.154	1.333	n.s
Self-esteem	.570	.325	-.009	-.102	-.868	n.s
Self efficacy			004	.031	.267	n.s
Recognition			.845	.244	2.550	<.01
Supportive management.			1.206	.426	4.449	<.01
Self-esteem	.521	.272	.133	.228	1.014	n.s
Self efficacy			6.16	.007	.218	n.s
Recognition			.435	.207	0.766	n.s
Supportive management.			.413	.306	1.618	n.s

Multiple regression analysis in Table 3 above revealed that self-esteem, self efficacy, recognition and supportive management significantly influenced perceived growth of the total sample ($R^2 = .19$, $F(4,350) = 20.47$, $P < .001$). For the executives' perceived growth, independent contributions of variables showed that recognition ($\beta = .31$), supportive management ($\beta = .26$), and self-esteem ($\beta = .14$) were significant predictors. Self-efficacy ($\beta = .05$) did not show any significant individual influence.

Result on female executives' perceived growth also revealed a significant joint prediction, ($R^2 = .344$, $F(4,97) = 12.73$, $P < .001$). This means that for female executives perceived growth was jointly influenced by self-esteem, self-efficacy, recognition and supportive management. Individual contribution of the independent variables indicated that recognition ($\beta=.53$), followed by supportive management ($\beta=.17$) significantly predicted perceived growth, while self esteem ($\beta =-.16$) and self-efficacy ($=.01$) did not show any significant individual contribution. This implies that recognition and support were important factors determining growth for female executives.

For the male executives (as shown in Table 3) there were no significant individual and joint variable effects on perceived growth ($R^2 = .27$, $F(4,67) = 1.46$, $P = ns$). These results revealed that hypothesis two was also partially supported. So far the analysis has examined males and females in male dominated occupations.

Also in this study, female executives in female dominated and sex neutral occupations were included as revealed in hypotheses three and four. Table 2 and three present the results.

For female executives in female dominated occupations, perceived acceptance was significantly influenced by self-esteem ($\beta = .271$) and career self-efficacy ($\beta = .354$). Recognition and supportive management did not exert any significant influence toward perceived acceptance. Joint prediction of variables revealed a significant result ($R^2 = .349$, $F(6,75) = 6.69$, $P < .001$). Perceived growth was significantly influenced by recognition ($\beta = .285$). Joint influence of variables did not indicate a significant prediction ($R^2 = .144$, $F(6,75) = 2.104$, $P = n.s.$).

On the other hand, acceptance for female executives in sex neutral occupations was significantly influenced by self-esteem ($\beta = .518$) and recognition ($\beta = .251$), while career self-efficacy and supportive management did not indicate significant influence on acceptance. Joint prediction of dependent variables revealed a significant effect ($R^2 = .314$, $F(6, 83) = 6.319$, $P < .01$). Similarly, perceived growth was significantly jointly influenced by all the independent variables ($R^2 = .325$, $F(6,83) = 6.651$, $P < .001$). Individually, recognition ($\beta = .244$) and supportive management ($\beta = .426$) significantly predicted growth.

Hypothesis five predicted that sex, educational qualification and mentor will significantly and positively predict acceptance and growth for males and females in male dominated jobs.

Table 4: Summary Table Joint and Independent Prediction of Acceptance and Growth by Demographic Variables for Female Executives.

Variables	R	R ²	B	β	T	P
	.664	.441				
Sex			4.284	.303	4.526	<.001
Age			3.479	.034	.418	n.s
M. Status			.496	.051	.757	n.s
Educational qualification			-.293	-.077	- 1.130	n.s
Management Level			.635	.041	.570	n.s
Time or present position			.513	.158	1.220	n.s
No. of promotion			.154	.042	.559	n.s
Last promotion			-.405	-.113	-.864	n.s
Mentor			.615	.059	.831	n.s
	.476	.227				
Sex			.120	.096	.010	n.s
Age			1.078	.092	1.157	n.s
M. Status			-1.417	-.076	-.893	n.s
Educational qualification			.754	.164	2.044	<.05
Management Level			.329	.084	.550	n.s
Time or present position			-.495	-.113	-1.260	n.s
No. of promotion			-.870	-.201	-1.306	n.s
Last promotion			1.271	.100	1.207	n.s
Mentor			-.168	-.173	-1.903	<.05

Multiple regression analysis showed a significant joint prediction of acceptance and growth of female executives by all the above mentioned variables $R^2 = .441$, $F(13,134) = 8.123$, $P < .001$ (acceptance) $R^2 = .227$, $F(13,134) = 3.020$, $P < .001$ (growth).

Individual contribution of all variables revealed that sex ($\beta = .303$) significantly contributed to perceived acceptance for female executives. This means that for female executives, gender is a significant factor that determines or influences whether one is accepted in male-dominated jobs or not. Results on perceived growth revealed that two variables significantly contributed to growth for female executives. This is educational qualification ($\beta = .164$) and mentoring ($\beta = .173$). This implies that educational qualification and mentoring are significant determinants of growth in male-dominated work environments.

For the male executives, there was no significant joint prediction for acceptance $R^2 = .234$, $F(13,61) = 1.593$, P n.s. and growth $R^2 = .244$, $F(13,61) = 1.518$, P n.s. Individual contribution of variables revealed that for perceived growth, educational qualification ($\beta = .365$) had a significant contribution.

Table 5: Summary Table Showing the Joint and Independent Prediction of Acceptance and Growth by Demographic Variables for Male Executives

Variables	R	R ²	B	β	T	P
	.659	.434				
Sex			2.218	.173	1.639	ns
Age			5.517	.054	.416	ns
M. Status			.170	.019	.173	ns
Educational qualification			9.760	.026	.191	ns
Management Level			-.846	-.052	-.464	ns
Time or present position			2.178	.654	.694	ns
No. of promotion			9.150	.024	.200	ns
Last promotion			-2.065	-.610	-.654	ns
Mentor			1.236	.125	1.142	ns
	.494	.244				
Sex			.128	.111	.737	ns
Age			1.480	.149	1.447	ns
M. Status			1.576	.365	2.351	n.s
Educational qualification			-2.489	-.135	-1.039	<.05
Management Level			3.894	1.028	.945	ns
Time or present position			-3.858	-.009	-.064	ns
No. of promotion			-4.388	-1.140	-1.059	ns
Last promotion			1.813	.162	1.276	ns
Mentor			-.235	-.240	-1.753	ns

The sixth hypothesis that stated that female executives would report lower acceptance and growth than male executives in male dominated occupations was analysed using t-test for independent samples.

Table 6: T Test Result Showing Difference Between Male and Female Executive on Acceptance and Growth.

Variable	N	χ	SD	SE	df	t	P
acceptance							
Male	113	35.39	6.74	.79	172	5.800	<.001
Female	102	40.71	5.34	.53			
growth							
Male	113	49.44	7.20	.85	172	.407	n.s
Female	102	48.94	8.55	.85			

Result in table 6 above indicated that there was a significant difference in their perceived acceptance ($t(172) = -5.800, P < .001$) while there was no significant difference in perceived growth ($t(172) = .407, P = n.s$). Observation of means as revealed in table six above indicated that female executives in male dominated occupations perceived lower acceptance ($\chi = 35.39$) than male executives ($\chi = 40.71$). In this regard hypothesis seven was partially confirmed.

Hypothesis seven compared female executives in male dominated, female dominated and sex neutral occupations on their perceived acceptance and growth using one-way analysis of variance.

Table 7(a): One – way Analysis of Variance Result Showing the Difference Between Female Executives in Male Dominated, Female Dominated, and Sex Neutral Jobs on Perceived Acceptance and Growth.

	Variables	SS	df	MS	F	P
Acceptance	Between group	156.486	2	78.243	2.406	n.s
	Within group	7805.514	240	32.523		
	Total	4378.700	242			
Growth	Between group	415.779	2	207.889	3.190	<. 05
	Within group	15638.378	240	65.160		
	Total	16054.156	242			

One-way analysis of variance result in Table 7 revealed that there was a significant difference in their perceived growth, ($F(2,240) = 3.19, P < .05$), there was no significant difference in their perceived acceptance ($F(2,240) = 2.41, P < n.s$).

Post hoc analysis result (Scheffe method) revealed that significant difference occurred between females in female dominated ($\chi = 47.76$) and those in sex neutral occupations ($\chi = 51.13$). Those in sex neutral occupations perceived more growth opportunities than those in female dominated occupations. Thus, hypothesis seven was partially supported.

Table 7b: Post-hoc Result

	Groups	N	Mean	Male dominated	Female dominated	Sex neutral
1	Male	102	48.94	-	-1.18	-2.19
2	Female	70	47.76		-	-3.37*
3	Sex Neutral	71	51.13		-	

Level of significance *(.01).

Table 8 below presents results for the different levels of self-esteem, self-efficacy, in relation to acceptance. Analysis of variance (2x2 ANOVA) was used to test hypothesis eight which stated that female executives in male dominated occupations with high self esteem and self efficacy will score higher on perceived acceptance than female executives with low self-esteem and efficacy.

Table 8(a): 2x2 Analysis of Variance Result Showing Joint and Interaction Effects of Self-esteem, Self Efficacy on Acceptance for female Executives.

	S.S	df	MS	F	P
Self esteem	443.263		442.263	24.467	<.001
Self efficacy	10.698		10.698	.591	n.s
Interaction (AXB)	371.55	1	371.5	20.508	<.001
Error	1775.46	98	18.177	-	-
Total	17188.000	102	-	-	-

Results in Table 10 indicated that self-esteem had a significant statistical main effect on acceptance, ($F(3,98) = 24.47$ $P < .001$). Self-efficacy did not have a significant effect on acceptance. ($F(3,98) = .591$ $< ns$). It was also shown that self

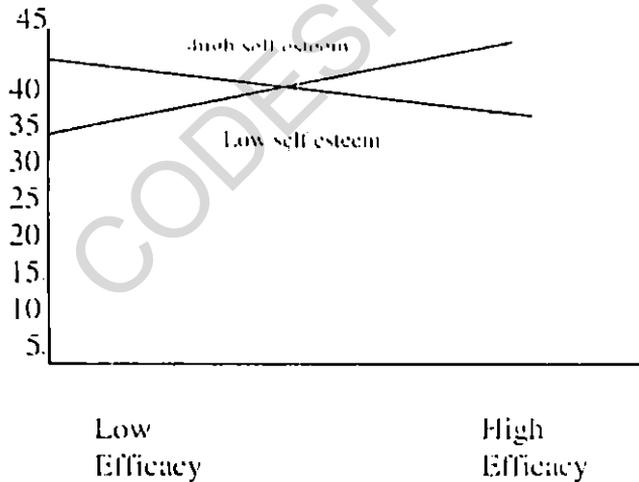
esteem and self efficacy had statistical significant interaction effects on acceptance as revealed in the result ($F(3,98) = 20.51$ $P < .001$). The mean difference between the variables and the interaction are shown in the Table 10b and figure 1 below.

Table 8b: Summary of means result showing the influence of Self Esteem and Career Self Efficacy on Acceptance.

Career Self Efficacy

		High	Low	Total
Self Esteem	Low	35.93	41.00	37.26
	High	45.00	41.40	42.75
Total		80.93	82.40	

Figure 2. Showing the interaction effects of self esteem and career self efficacy on perceived acceptance.



Specifically, the analysis of interaction effect between self-esteem and self-efficacy showed that under condition of low career self-efficacy perceived acceptance was high with high self-esteem. Similarly, perceived acceptance was higher when high career self-efficacy interacted with low self-esteem. This finding clearly showed the strong influence of interaction of self-esteem and career self-efficacy in influencing perceived acceptance.

Hypothesis 9 which stated that female executives in male dominated occupations with high recognition and supportive management would score higher on perceived acceptance than female executives with low recognition and supportive management. Results revealed that recognition had a main significant statistical effect on perceived acceptance ($F(3,98) = 15.17, p < .001$). Thus, females with high recognition perceived higher acceptance than those with low recognition. Supportive management did not show a significant effect ($F(3,98) = 1.30, p = n.s$) and there was no significant interaction effect of any of the independent variables on acceptance ($F(3,98) = 1.30, p = n.s$). Thus hypothesis nine was partially confirmed.

Table 9: 2x2 Analysis of Variance Result Showing Main and interaction Effects of Recognition and Supportive Management on Acceptance for Female Executives.

	SS	Df	MS	F	P
Recognition (A)	356.908		356.908	15.170	<.001
Supportive Management.(B)	30.655		30.655	1.303	n.s.
Interaction (AxB)	30.655	1	30.655	1.303	n.s.
Error	2305.662	98	15.097	-	-
Total	171888.000	102	-	-	-

Hypothesis ten which stated that female executives with high self esteem and career self efficacy would score higher on perceived growth than female executives with low self esteem and low career self efficacy was not confirmed. Results are presented in Table 10. There was no significant effects of self esteem and career self efficacy on perceived growth ($F(3.98) = .115$ $p=ns$), ($F(3.98) = .057$ $p=ns$).

Table 10: 2x2 Analysis of Variance Result Showing Effect of Self Esteem and Career Self Efficacy on Growth for Female Executives.

Variables	SS	df	MS	F	P
Self esteem (A)	11.617		11.617	.155	n.s.
Self efficacy (B)	4.304		4.304	.057	n.s.
Interaction (AxB)	17.217	1	17.217	.229	n.s.
Error	7366.833	98	75.165	-	-
Total	251704.00	102	-	-	-

Hypothesis 11 predicted that female executives in male dominated occupations with high recognition and supportive management would score higher on growth than female executives with low scores on recognition and supportive management. Although, recognition had a significant main effect on growth (F

(3,98) 18.50, $p < .001$), supportive management did not show any significant main effect ($F(3,98) .000$, $p = ns$). Result in Table 11 also showed no significant interaction effects between recognition supportive management on perceived growth ($F(3,98), .328$, $p = ns$).

Table 11: 2x2 Analysis of Variance result showing effect of Recognition and Supportive Management on Growth for Female Executives

Variables	SS	Df	MS	F	P
Recognition (A)	1149.921		1149.921	18.504	<.001
Supportive Management. (B)	2.347		2.347	.001	n.s.
Interaction (AxB)	20.289	1	20.389	.328	n.s.
Error	6090.218	98	62.145	-	--
Total	251704.000	102	-	-	-

Hypothesis 12 stated that female executives in male dominated occupations with long tenure would report higher acceptance and growth than those with short tenure. Results are reported in Table 12.

Table 12: T-test result Showing differences between Executives on a Short and Long Duration on Acceptance and Growth.

Variable	Tenure	N	\bar{x}	SD	Std error	df	t	p
Acceptance	Short	54	39.93	4.90	.67	100	-	<.05
	Long	48	41.58	5.72	.83		1.924	
Growth	Short	54	50.19	7.30	.99	100	2.005	<.05
	Long	48	47.54	9.66	1.39			

Result in Table 12 revealed that there was a significant difference between female executives on perceived acceptance ($t = (100) -1.924 P < .05$). Means scores reveal that those who had stayed longer ($\chi = 41.58$) reported higher acceptance than those on shorter tenure ($\chi = 39.93$). Similarly, a significant difference existed between female executives who had stayed for a longer period than those who had stayed for a shorter period ($t = (100) 2.005; p < .05$) on perceived growth. Observation of means indicated that those on shorter duration ($\chi = 50.19$) perceived higher growth than those on longer duration ($\chi = 47.50$).

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4. 2: Results from Qualitative Research.

Twenty four females participated in the in-depth interview and focus group discussions. Their ages range between 40 and 58, and they are senior management executives whose occupations include:

1	Bankers	5
1	University Administrators	2
2	3 Medical Directors/Consultants	3
3	3 Engineers	3
4	1 Insurance Company Director	1
5	4 Teachers	4
6	4 Heads of Government Parastatals	4
7	2 Accountants	2

Two focus groups and six in depth interviews were conducted. There was no hypothesis under this section but a list of 14 questions was drawn to serve as a guide for data gathering from the participants (See appendix).

Classification of occupations.

In responding to the question on whether there are occupations considered as male dominated, female dominated and sex neutral occupations, respondents for both FGD and IDI agreed that only occupations in which there is fewer number of females compared to males are considered male dominated occupations. Examples

of these are Medicine, Engineering, Physiotherapy, Law, Architecture, Insurance, and the Armed forces. They categorized Nursing, Teaching, Social work as female dominated, but categorized Journalism, Banking, Sales/Marketing, Administration as sex neutral occupations. Confirmation of the categories was carried out to ascertain the level of agreement with categories. Majority of the respondents agreed with the classification. Furthermore, they agreed that many occupations are now absorbing more women compared to what used to operate in the past when the ratio of males compared to females was higher. However, all the respondents were of the view that their position is male dominated and all but one of the respondents in the indepth interview happened to be the first female to occupy the position of the head in their organizations.

Factors influencing classification of occupational categories.

For the in-depth interview participants, the key factor determining whether a profession is classified as male dominated is the ratio of male/female. One striking feature emanating from focus group participants was that in addition to male/female ratio, they considered the type of task or duties carried out in describing whether the occupations are perceived as male dominated, female dominated or sex neutral. Examples of such tasks include assignments on the oil shores and fixing electrical or construction materials.

As indicated by some respondents (a banker and medical doctor), the reason for which there are more males than females in occupations identified as male dominated stem mainly from the socialization process that prepare males to face challenges compared to females and this has made life difficult for women in the workplace. This supported the views of Yeter (1992) that reported early socialization as responsible for under representation of women in engineering. This perspective is illustrated in the excerpt below.

“The problem is that there is male preference in education. People send boys to school and make the girl child to stay at home, that’s why most white-collar jobs are male dominated. One of the exceptional cases is the market area where you have more females than males selling and buying and this was the initial orientation”
(Excerpt 1: A 41 years old medical consultant working in the city of Ibadan FGD).

Experience of acceptance in male dominated occupations.

In considering the level of acceptance experienced by males and females, the respondents were of the opinion that males in male dominated occupations are more accepted than females. Furthermore, they mentioned that male acceptance of women depends so much on factors such as hard work, dedication, sense of competence or self efficacy, high self concept and perseverance in the face of opposition. This means some extra effort is needed for women to survive and excel in such situations. However, all respondents but one for (FGD and IDI) reported an

overwhelming influence of both subtle and overt negative practices toward females in male dominated occupations which are revealed in the relationship that exist in the workplace. These include derogatory comments, lack of consideration for views expressed by women and lack of approval for embarking on programs that could enhance women's capabilities.

While many participants believed that lack of acceptance stems from the influence of socialization, a few (FGD) participants expressed the view that females' inability to successfully prove their competence, others argued that it is the nature of task done which may have negative health implication that necessitates the creation of barrier by men. For example, 40 years old female Engineer working in an automated battery industry revealed that certain equipment and substance used may increase work hazard for women.

Socialization processes promote the development of certain preconceived notions, which are sometimes revealed in the attitude of men toward women.

Excerpt 2 highlights the views of a Female Engineer in the FGD group:

"Men have not been able to separate a woman's role in the domestic setup from her role in the working environment. They relate a woman in the office who is a colleague to a wife who should be subordinate to them".

The views expressed above revealed that, men still treat their female colleagues first as women (that are expected to stay at home) before they are treated

as workers. One FGD and two IDI respondents, who specifically narrated their experiences, revealed in their responses that their experiences were not pleasant.

These are their opinions:

Excerpt 3: A 40 years old Female Accountant based in Lagos

"I find it difficult, it is as if, you know, they just feel you are not one of them and you are treated as an outsider"

Excerpt 4: 55 years Female Federal Parastatal's Director in Ibadan (IDI).

"There exists an underlying current of resistance which is very subtle. It is very complex, however; women in such situations have no choice but to maintain their stand."

Excerpt 5: Female Medical Consultant in Ibadan (IDI)."

"At lower levels these practices are not highly prevalent, but at the top we are very few and discrimination is there.

Lack of acceptance is thus perceived from unwanted reactions and comments directed at females. According to the female executives, stereotypic views about women constitute hindrances to female acceptance in male occupations. Specifically in this study, stereotypic views about the status of women influence men's acceptance of women in male jobs.

To most men, according to the participants, "being too strict and rigid is unwomanly", so when women are found to exhibit such traits, they expose them

‘selves to reactions that constitute obstacles to their acceptance. Such women, according to these respondents are ‘seen as sources of challenge and opposition’ . In addition they reported that sometimes as counter reaction, views and opinions express by these females are not considered. The resultant effects according to the participants are frustration and lack of satisfaction in the job. In order to survive, it becomes apparent that the females who occupy senior management positions had to work harder and be resolved to continue working in these work environments. Having to work extra hard and being dedicated seem to be important for recognition and eventual acceptance. One FGD participant and two IDI respondents strongly pointed out that hard work, dedication and high self confidence on the part of women have posed some challenges to men, a situation men find difficult to tolerate.

“When you are there, you have to work extra hard and this creates further problems. *(Excerpt 6: A 46 University Administrator based in Ibadan, IDI)*.

“Sometimes when it is time to have a meeting the head of department will say, don’t call her, she is a radical. This is because I speak out, I tell them things they do that are not right” *(Excerpt 7: A 41 years old Medical Consultant working in Ibadan FGD)*

Another IDI respondent expressed her view in the following manner.

“In this environment when you are progressing, males feel slighted but in my own case, my personality has

helped me. This is so because I put what they say behind me and continue "(Excerpt 8: *57 years-Female Federal Parastatal's Director in Ibadan (DI)*)

Participants generally believed that in the long run, hard work, high self-concept and perseverance in the face of opposition and determination convince males and make them recognize females' ability and worth. Some of the respondents further added that when they are appreciated and commended they feel motivated and encouraged continuing.

"Being recognized, praised and appreciated are factors that lead to high motivation in females and may influence their perception of acceptance" (Excerpt 9: *45 years old Female Engineer working in Lagos*).

It was assumed that these expressions indicated that for women in top positions and non-traditional occupations the atmosphere might be unwelcoming. It then means, knowing how to adapt is crucial to their acceptance and development. Thus, gaining the confidence, trust and respect of their male counterpart in male dominated occupation would require some work on the self in order to meet up with the challenges they face and to break the resistance and opposition from the male counterparts.

Issues constituting hindrance to acceptance.

It is interesting to note that there is an overlap in some of the factors identified as hindering and enhancing acceptance.

For example, factors such as "not compromising", "views and opinions considered", were seen to be significant factors enhancing and inhibiting acceptance of female executives. This was found to be particularly important for the IDI respondents. To them, when females maintain their stand even when their views are not considered, they experience a lot of attack that sometimes result into open conflict may mount up the pressure experienced at work. If in the end they do not give up, they are perceived as being tough (a masculine characteristics usually associated with men) and capable of weathering the storm. In the same vein, lack of that may indicate low level of acceptance.

Experience of growth in male dominated occupations.

Two major findings emerged from the analysis on growth. Firstly, majority of the respondents were of the view that opportunities for growth and actual growth rate or advancement for women are not the same as that of men, thereby concluding that men move faster than females, thereby limiting the number of women in management. This is mainly because females have not psychologically developed themselves well enough for the tasks and challenges that exist in male dominated occupations in order to attain the same status as men. This highlights the fact that females psychologically find it difficult to cope. As explained by all the respondents most females are not dedicated and focused, they allow marriage

and family responsibilities to stand in their ways and these hinder progress along their career paths. The following excerpts express this view.

“...a woman will sometimes not do certain things such as relocating because of her family...” (*Excerpt 10: Female Accountant ID1*).

Majority of the respondents who decided to remain in their jobs claimed that they have had things difficult. One of the respondents puts it this way .

“You see, you will find fewer women here and there... I happen to be the first female physiotherapist. You don't find females here because, they think about the hazard and it is difficult to get moving. But the true situation is this; I find it very difficult working with males (*Excerpt 11: A 45 years old Medical Doctor in the city of Ibadan FGD*).

Secondly, management practices and policies are solely responsible for the disparities that exist between the growth level and opportunities for growth open to males and females. According to the respondents, most women in male dominated jobs experience frustration and discouragement. This is because of certain practices embedded in the policies within work environment that have led many women to leave their jobs. Excerpt 12:

“Yes they are not moving up, many are discouraged. You find some women now in business, they are not practicing not because they do not have their professions but because of discrimination”(*An Accountant in a private Organisation FGD*).

Some other FGD participants were of the opinion that what determines growth is a thing of the mind, as long as females are prepared, the opportunities are always there for growth. Excerpt 13:

“It is her ability and determination that would speak for her ... she would be given same opportunities (*40 years old Female Teacher working in the city of Ibadan*).

For the IDI respondents, the problem lies with the organizations in which women work. *Excerpt 14: Female Banker*

Management legislation evident in employment practices and policies affect the number of females absorbed and promoted within the organization especially within the upper echelon.

Another respondent had this to say, Excerpt 15:

“ I am an engineer but I do not practice it, not because I am not qualified, this is just my experience. Any time I applied for a job or attended an interview and I introduced myself as a “Mrs”, I ended not being employed. On a particular occasion I decided not to include the “Mrs” in my applications and I was called for an interview, but I was told in the end that I was not going to be employed because I happen to be a female” (*44 years old female Engineer FGD*).

The above revealed that the problems faced by women in the workplace and particularly in male dominated occupations stems not only from women but also

in interactions and practices within the organizations. These highlight the gendered nature of the workplace and the larger society.

Issues constituting hindrance to growth.

However, the female respondents generally responded that a significant factor that hinders growth is that women are not always given the opportunity to maximize their potentials but those given equal opportunities as men have been found to progress along their career path successfully. The respondents concluded that even when the opportunities are not there, those who though, frustrated stood their ground progressed. Acceptance, ability and educational qualification were the most significant factors influencing growth. Other factors include being focused and objective appraisal by the organization.

In responding to the question on whether they had mentors and whether they considered them selves as role models, all IDI respondents agreed that they have had female or male role models who so far had positively influenced their attitude. This was done through comments and actions that had assisted them at one time or the other in building their career. The respondents spoke about the positive effect of the role models enthusiastically. Those who had male models reported that fewer female models existed then, especially at the early stages of their career.

The influence of mentoring/protégé relationship on women's experience in male occupations.

Majority of the participants reported they had mentors mainly because female mentors were not readily available when they started their career. Their experiences reflected that no formal mentoring program was put in place by their organizations and that the mentoring/protégé relationship developed informally. However, only two of the respondents reported that they know they are mentors to other females. This is because the relationship is sustained and in addition they get feedback from the protégés. According to them, networking with mentors and other females was seen as a good way to learn to talk with others in their field and have their questions answered. This they considered as an important resource for them. It was observed that the relationship served both psychosocial and career functions as reflected in the response of one of the respondents. Excerpt 16:

'My mentor is a male. While I was coming up my career ladder, I realized that his hard work, firmness, self confidence assisted me in moving on despite problems that came my way' (A 43 years old Female Banker working in Ibadan).

Additional findings.

Other findings from this study include the following. Firstly, the respondents were of the view that "politics" which involves "power play" within the organization has had significant negative influence on the experiences of females in the work

place. Kreitner & Kinicki (1998) described organizational politics as an annoying feature of modern work life. According to the respondents, the prevalence of organizational politics on several occasions has generated into conflict and has made the work environment un conducive for full expression of hidden potentials. Ferris, Frink, Bhawuk, Zhou & Gilmore (1996), in their study reported that men had a greater understanding of organizational politics than women and this may partly explain women's negative experience. He further suggested the practice of using mentors to help women develop their political skills. However, the participants acknowledged the fact that in certain situation crisis has led to changes that positively affected individuals and organizations.

Secondly, and interestingly too, all IDI participants expressed the view that female bosses should be caring, fair, and most importantly motherly. They have adopted and advocated participatory approaches in their leadership in order to experience acceptance and job satisfaction. The researcher observed that, the respondents who happened to be the first female executives in their organizations adopted this approach. Thirdly, one of these executives believed that:

"Male dominance is a disease that grips women from the inside, and this had made them to deliberately find something to contribute when in positions of leadership because we cannot afford to be let down" (A 50 years old State Director in Ibadan).

Finally, the need for women to persevere in the face of opposition be unyielding, focused, and firm and to go extra miles to prove themselves in order to succeed in these jobs was emphasized in this study. These qualities were believed to influence acceptance and growth especially for females who are considered representatives of female folk in their positions and occupations.

Summary of findings.

The findings of the qualitative research can be summarized as follows:

- *The classification of the occupational categories into male dominated, female dominated and sex neutral is based on male/female ratio and the type of tasks and duties in carried out in the different occupations.
- *Acceptance and growth of females in male dominated occupations are negatively influenced by
 - *Women's psychological unpreparedness.
 - *The policies and practices in the system in which women work
 - *The socialisation processes women go through in life.
 - *The success of women in male occupations would depend on networking with other women, determination being focussed and engaging in capacity building and other self-development programs.
- * Conflict that arises because of differences which may sometimes lead to change that benefits both individuals and organisations.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.1. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION.

The findings and implication of this research are discussed in this chapter with reference to the hypotheses tested and conclusions were made. Over the years, researchers have particular attention to both person and situation specific variables determining differences in work experience of male and female in management. Fewer researches have focussed on the experiences of executive females who had risen above the glass ceiling to achieve parity with their male counterparts. The dearth of research in particular on female executives in male dominated occupations necessitated a study such as this. Thus, the aim of this study was to examine female executives' perceived acceptance and growth in male dominated occupations. It also examined female executives' perceived acceptance and growth and compared these with those of their male counterparts in male dominated occupations, their female counterparts in female dominated and sex neutral occupations. Specifically, the influence of self-esteem, career self-efficacy, recognition and supportive management were examined on perceived acceptance and growth.

Twelve hypotheses were tested, three were fully confirmed, eight were partially supported and one was not confirmed. A survey was conducted among males and females working in male dominated occupations. Focus group discussion

and in-depth interviews were conducted with females working in male dominated, female dominated and sex neutral occupations. The occupations in these categories were Law, Medicine, Engineering, Armed Forces, Architecture, Nursing, Journalism, Banking, Teaching, Social Works, Marketing/Sales.

The patterns of gender differences and similarities observed in this survey were generally consistent with some of those observed in previous studies. The present findings indicated that male and female executives' perception of acceptance and growth in male dominated work environment is meaningfully related to both the personality, the social structure and the relationships with others within the work setting. The first two hypotheses, which predicted a significant joint and individual influence of independent variables and the third that predicted a significant influence of demographic variables on female and male executives', perceived acceptance and growth indicated varying degrees of variable effects.

The first hypothesis stated that self-esteem, self-efficacy, recognition and supportive management would significantly jointly and individually predict female and male executives' perceived acceptance. From the results, all the independent variables significantly and jointly influenced acceptance for both females and males. However, results further revealed that, specifically, for female executives, only self-esteem influenced perceived acceptance, while for the males self-esteem and supportive management influenced perceived acceptance. Part of this finding

confirmed the importance of self-esteem in self-evaluation and it is consistent with the findings of White (1963), which stated that self esteem is an evaluative measure which contributes to the evaluation individual worker makes about his/her work situation, and also determines how the worker reacts to the situation.

For both female and male executives, positive self-evaluation relates to perceived acceptance. In line with this, Judge, Locke and Durham (1997), argued that an appraisal of the external world is influenced by the deepest assumption people hold about themselves. They developed the concept of core evaluation, which refers to fundamental subconscious conclusions individuals make about selves, others and the world. These researchers proposed that people who consider themselves to be 'no good' will react differently on their jobs and to situations than those who consider themselves to be good. Judge et al's concept of core evaluation is related to Cantor (1990) cognitive mechanisms that pertain to midrange personality traits that govern how people interpret their environment.

This cognitive structure affects how people process information about themselves, the world and how they interpret reality. In addition, survey findings were supported by the qualitative result, which highlighted other variables that could influence perceived acceptance for female executives. The qualitative findings suggested that sense of competence, which is the feelings and confidence

about abilities in mastering the work setting and work itself (Babalola (1998), hard work, dedication, and perseverance could contribute to perceived acceptance.

According to Goffman's (1959) dramaturgical analysis of self presentation and Dryburgh's (1999) explanation of the 'work hard' culture of engineering, culture is an ordeal that requires women to demonstrate confidence in the face of strenuous challenges and anxiety. This makes women become competitive and further emphasized the contextual nature of women's experiences. It implies that though the atmosphere may be "chilly", or unfriendly, high self-esteem/concept, hard work, dedication on the part of female executives could make them to be recognized by their male colleagues and this may influence perception of acceptance. This is supported by the findings of Tobias (1990), which found that women's lack of self confidence, self doubt, and fear of failure have been related to perception of unfriendly masculine culture and lack of success. These findings of this research suggest that female executives particularly need to get involved in self development programs that would further enhance their sense of self worth, self efficacy, be more dedicated as these are factors that are likely to influence their acceptance in male dominated occupations.

For the male executives, in addition to self-esteem, the level of support derived from colleagues significantly influenced their perceived acceptance. To them supportive management is a factor that is crucial for the experience of

acceptance. As expected the camaraderie or team spirit within the male group are strong indicators of acceptance. This confirmed earlier studies (O' Leary, 1974; Terborg 1971) which revealed that male managers reported better relations with colleagues and supervisors and record more approval for their work, as compared to female managers in male dominated jobs. The none significance of result on the influence of supportive management on acceptance for female executives is at variance with the findings of Andrison (1978) who reported that there is evidence to support the contention that women are more concerned with associates and friends, which means they are interdependent and more interested in people than things.

In situations in which females are expected to exhibit masculine characteristics and they feel rejected, is it possible that the experience of support is not differentiated enough for them to report perceived acceptance. Future research is needed in this area. Surprisingly, while survey findings did not indicate a significant influence of recognition and supportive management on acceptance for executive females, qualitative results and the finding of Marshal (1999) and Hargreaves (1996) revealed that recognition is related to perceived acceptance. These differences further suggest that a world of difference exist for women in male dominated work environment.

The second hypothesis predicted that self-esteem, career self-efficacy, recognition and supportive management would significantly and jointly influence growth for female and male executives. For female executives, survey results revealed that perceived recognition and supportive management influenced growth, while none of the variables influenced perceived growth for male executives. For female executives, recognition (which involves appreciating and approving their effort), and the level of support they received significantly influenced their perceived growth. As explained by Deaux (1979), this suggests that external factors such as attitude of colleagues which reveals the level of recognition and support males accord females may be important to their perceived success or growth than typically used factors such as overcoming task difficulties and luck, particularly in traditional male occupations.

Although O'Leary, (1974); Terborg, (1977) reported that performance evaluation may be influenced by stable (ability of candidate and perception of observer) and unstable characteristic, (effort), the findings of this study also suggest that issues such as support and recognition are considered by female executives as valuable contributors to their perceived growth. These findings confirmed the result of Wolf and Fligstein (1979) who reported that behaviour and policies of employers and colleagues are more important causes of women's lack of authority

and influence and subsequent progress than are attitudes and behaviour of women in the workplace.

The significant variables positively influencing perceived growth as revealed in the qualitative study are acceptance, ability, and educational qualification. Other factors are responsibility outside work, lack of focus and management policies and practices. These were associated with women's inability to face the challenges of male occupations. However, the respondents reported that even when women possess the ability, educational qualification and other qualities necessary for growth the opportunities are not there for them to progress. The findings as suggested by the survey results showed that females in male occupations may not be recognised and supported and these factors are related to the numerous reasons conceptual literature e.g Naff (1994); (Simon 1995) have given for the lack of career progress for women.

For example, Terborg (1977), reported that females are given fewer opportunities to display competence, are not supported and they are at a comparative disadvantage for promotion. In support of the above, Taylor (1989); Lewis & Taylor (1989); Fine, Johnson & Ryan (1990) argued that human capital factors alone cannot account for slow growth rate of women or career advancement sex differences. They suggested that discrimination could not be ruled out. Conclusively, the findings of this study indicated that disparate treatment takes

place or subjective discrimination is experienced in male occupations. As long as this remains, the work environment may not be conducive for full expression of female potentials. This would have a negative psychological impact on morale and performance of women and subsequently, individual and organisational goals cannot be achieved.

For the male executives, self-esteem, career self-efficacy, recognition and supportive management accounted for 27% of the total variance. This confirmed the importance of self esteem, career self efficacy, recognition supportive management and other personality and situation specific variables on perceived growth as revealed in other studies (e.g Naff, 1994).

For hypothesis three which stated that all the demographic variables significantly predict acceptance and growth, result revealed that for females in male dominated work environment, the sex of the individual had a significant influence on whether the person working in male job would feel accepted or not. As earlier revealed by the findings in this study, behaviour and attitude that define masculinity and affirm its superiority are upheld within the confines of male group. Other variables that could influence perceived acceptance as revealed by the qualitative findings are hard work, perseverance, self-concept and ability.

None of the variables influenced perceived acceptance for males. Perhaps there are other variables that may likely predict acceptance for males which were

not considered in this study as these groups of executives were not included in the qualitative sessions. It is thus necessary for future research to investigate the likely variables. Perceived growth for female executives was influenced by educational qualification, (which was also mentioned by majority of the qualitative survey respondents) and mentoring. Education among other variables has been found to be an important predictor of advancement (Naff 1994). According to him, level of education is one important reason why women have not advanced rapidly as men.

The importance of education in predicting perceived growth for both males and females further affirms the fact that if educational qualification is objectively considered, it could result into promotion which translates to growth for executives. It is important to note that even if men did not learn required skills while in school, men project confidence in their rational and effective reasoning skills which enables them to be in charge and solve problems in any area quickly and efficiently contrary to women. These characteristics within the masculine structure are indicators of competence, which influenced growth. On the other hand, women's perception of their peers' attitude (Houser and Garvey, 1983) and barriers versus opportunities for participation in non traditional occupations (Haring, Bayard and Gray, 1983) have on occasion had impact on their educational and occupational behaviour. These have consequently influenced their perceived growth.

Mentoring as shown in both survey and qualitative results positively influenced growth. This confirmed the findings of Lawrence (1995) and Stroken, Riger and Sullivan (1995) who reported that mentoring is critical to women's acceptance and growth generally in the workplace. With particular reference to male occupations, studies such as those of Gutek (1989) and (Okurame 2002) confirmed that for those in non-traditional jobs, mentoring is important for professional advancement or career success. This is because mentor/protégé relationship helps the protégé to understand the culture of the workplace, gain new knowledge and problem solving skills, and develops confidence in self and ability to succeed at the task. Thus a mentor facilitates protégé's dream by playing the role of a teacher, sponsor, host, guide, exemplar and counsellor. As illustrated by some in-depth interview respondents, protégé-mentoring relationships assisted them in facing the tasks and challenges of male occupations.

The fourth hypothesis, which stated that female executives would report lower acceptance and growth than male executives in male dominated work environment, was supported. In this study, males perceived higher acceptance and growth than females in male dominated occupations. This result which corroborates the qualitative findings was not unexpected because the work environment was believed to be traditionally meant for men and few women that found themselves there may be perceived as "tokens". According to Kanter

(1977b), such women may therefore be treated as such. As reported by Katila and Menlainen (1999), male bonding in such an environment occurs, and similar interests by the prevailing elite contribute to a stronger sense of community among the men which is alien to women.

Example of such treatment is notable in large companies and organisations where women have achieved high-level management position: they are usually restricted to those areas considered less vital and strategic to the organisation such as human resources and administration (Reskin and Roos, 1990). Muggai (1991) further argued that such a practice limits the ability to function as effective managers even after years of experience. They further argued that though majority of professional women are handling challenges yet credit for their work goes to the top male managers who reward women in line with prescribed traditional gender ideology. Within this context, according to Super's (1980) vocational development theory, fulfilment of individual values, which leads to self-actualisation especially through his/her work role, may be hindered.

Experiences such as those reviewed above may reflect lack of acceptance for women in high-level management positions and particularly in male occupations. For women to remain in such environment, Dryburgh (1999) observed that they have to adjust to the occupational culture and masculinity of that culture. They not only have to portray themselves as competent to their employers and

clients but also to their male colleagues. Adjustment in this environment, Greenwood (1966) revealed, entails internalising values, norms and symbols of the professional culture. This adjustment, which involves some measure of impression management, can elicit a desired reaction from others, especially the male folk. For example, Mellwee and Robinson (1992), reported that both male and female engineers learn how to manage employers' impression of them as professionals in order to gain their trust, respect and confidence.

The result of hypothesis five which compared female executives in male dominated, female dominated and sex neutral work environment on perceived acceptance and growth, revealed that differences exists between females in female dominated occupations and sex neutral occupations in perceived growth. There was no difference in perceived growth between those in female dominated occupations and sex neutral occupations. In addition, no difference was found in perceived acceptance of those in female dominated occupations and sex neutral occupations.

Further analysis using Scheffe method of mean comparison was carried out and results revealed that females in sex neutral occupations perceived they had better opportunity for growth than those in female dominated occupations. This could mean, and contrary to literature (e.g Burke & Mekeen (1995; Deaux 1979; and Blau & Jasenius, 1976), and expectation, that subtle attitudinal barriers and policies blocking women's career path may be evident or practised in female

dominated occupations. In addition, studies such as that of L'Heureux-Barrett, and Barnes-Farrel (1991), found that females also show bias against female managers. As revealed by the in-depth interview findings in this study, factors that engender such bias include envy, politicking which involves power play. In particular, an in-depth interview respondent explained that

'Female colleagues express envy and resentment when they notice one is progressing.'

According to Tajfel's (1982) social identity theory, similarities result into distancing in same group and this may indicate lack of co-operation or encouragement, which are other factors necessary to facilitate women's promotion. Feminist researchers have described this situation as horizontal hostility, which involves infighting or factionalism within women's group (White and Langer 1994).

On acceptance, non-significance of result for female executives in male dominated, female dominated and sex neutral occupations is at variance with the findings of Moore (1985) and Burke and Mekeen (1995), which revealed significant difference in work experience such as job satisfaction for workers in male dominated, female dominated or sex neutral occupations. However the result of the qualitative research corroborates the findings of the survey that factors associated with acceptance such as self-concept, competence, appreciation, hard

work, perseverance, staying off politics were essential ingredients needed especially in male occupations. These findings have implication for the work place, and they suggest that programmes and strategies that target the development of personal qualities and positive healthy relationships among workers should be encouraged. This would increase women's confidence level and skill and also prepare colleagues to be bias free in their evaluation and interaction.

The sixth hypothesis which stated that female executives with high self esteem and high career self efficacy would score higher on acceptance than those with low self esteem and career self efficacy was tested using 2x2 analysis of variance. The hypothesis was partially confirmed as self esteem had a significant main effect on acceptance. The result indicated a significant difference between high self-esteem and low self-esteem female executives on acceptance. Observation of means revealed that women executives with high self-esteem perceived they had higher acceptance compared to those with low self-esteem. Explanation for the significant effect of high self esteem could be based on the assumption that the way in which people view themselves is more fundamental and to a large extent, is the source of the way in which people view others, their world and happenings around them (Judge, Locke and Durham 1997).

By implication it then means that people who consider themselves worthy and able to cope with exigencies of life bring a "positive frame" to the events and

situation they encounter, whereas people who do not see themselves as worthy and able bring a negative frame to the same situation. This view is supported by one of the respondent in in-depth interview:

“My personality comes into play here; in my job I identify myself as someone who can roughen the weather”.

This result supported the work of Lyson and Brown (1982) and Young (1984) which revealed that personality variables influence female participation in non traditional jobs. They maintained that women with non-traditional sex role attitudes have tended to see male dominated occupations as within the range of their possible choices. This would automatically influence their perception of acceptance. The result also emphasises the importance of the self-esteem in influencing sex role attitudes in the work place.

Although career self-efficacy did not exert a significant main effect on acceptance, there was a significant interaction effect of self-esteem and career self-efficacy on acceptance. Under conditions of low career self efficacy, acceptance was high with high self esteem, also acceptance was high when high career self efficacy interacted with high self esteem. This supported prior review (e.g Marshall 1995), which revealed that self evaluation influence women's career experience and behaviour.

The seventh hypothesis predicted those female executives with high recognition and supportive management would score higher on acceptance than those with low recognition and supportive management. It was found that for these female executives, recognition had a significant main effect on acceptance. Those with high levels of recognition scored higher on perceived acceptance compared to those who perceived low levels of recognition. Following Maslow's (1970) need hierarchy proposition, for female executives with high need for recognition, acceptance in male occupation is essential for personal accomplishment. It is assumed that when they feel accepted they would be motivated to put in their best.

Hypothesis eight predicted that those with high self-esteem and high career self-efficacy would score higher on growth than those with low self-esteem and career self-efficacy. Result did not indicate a significant influence of dependent variables on perceived growth.

Hypothesis nine predicted that those with high recognition and supportive management would score higher on growth than those with low recognition and supportive management. Result showed that recognition had a significant effect on growth. Every individual has a need to satisfy and this is part of what individual brings to the organisation. In this study, 'female executives' need for approval and positive evaluation was satisfied in their jobs as reflected in their perception of

growth. They found their environment to provide a sense of fulfilment that consequently enhanced their perception of growth.

Those with low level of recognition perceived low acceptance and growth because the subjective interpretation of their situation did not suggest they are appreciated and welcome. These differing result patterns show evidence of the influence of personality and social variables on women's perception of acceptance and growth in male occupations. However, it was rather surprising that supportive management had no significant effect on perceived acceptance and growth. This is because it was assumed that some element of support is related to acceptance and growth as women are likely to overcome obstacles and challenging opportunities through support from colleagues and organisation (Ohlott et,al 1994).

It could then mean that other factors such as hard work, perseverance, competence and self-concept; being focused; ability/ qualification and dedication as revealed by qualitative findings tend to be stronger in influencing perceived acceptance and growth respectively. The findings above emphasise the need for further studies to examine these on acceptance and growth in male occupations.

Result of the analysis revealed that male executives with high self-esteem reported better acceptance but perceived no difference in their perceived opportunity for growth. This means that high self-evaluation is pertinent to the perception of acceptance. Male executives with good self worth did not perceive

them selves as aliens or feel isolated, this invariably contributed to their satisfaction in these different occupations. Since the self-concept regulates feelings and motivation, it was not unexpected that male executives with high self-esteem reported better acceptance. This result confirmed the findings of Judge, Locke Durham and Kruger (1998) that people with positive self-concept stand on a higher platform compared with those with negative self-esteem. They see their jobs more positively because they possess the dispositional makeup that allows them to do so. However, the evaluation of growth may not be different as revealed by result if the yardstick for measurement is considered indiscriminating.

Unexpectedly, no significant difference was found between male executives with high and low self-efficacy on perceived acceptance and growth. This means for the male executives the belief in their capacity to succeed within male work environment was not different. Considering the fact that the standard within these work settings are set-up by males, both groups of male executives believe they perform adequately well. Compared to the female executives the different levels of recognition and supportive management did not influence perceived acceptance and growth of male executives. This also indicated that whether the male executives received low or high recognition and support, the perception of acceptance, satisfaction and growth remains the same. This further confirms the view that to some extent male bonding exists in male occupations

(Kanter 1977b; Marshall 1995). Since the work climate results partly from values and norms set by the dominant group (male), there may not be differences in perception of acceptance.

Result of the prediction made in hypothesis ten revealed that in considering tenure, a significant difference occurred between female executives who had stayed long compared to those who had stayed for a short period on present position on acceptance and growth. Observation of means revealed that for acceptance, those who had stayed for a long time on present position reported lower acceptance than those who had stayed for a short period. Interestingly too, they were the executives that advocate participatory approach of leadership in the qualitative findings.

Specifically, those who had been in their present position for more than five years reported lower growth compared to those who had spent less than five years. This is contrary to the findings of (Naff 1994) in his study, which revealed that females with close to ten years of service reported greater number of promotion than those with fewer years. It therefore further emphasised the fact that for individuals to feel accepted in any job and position there has to be prompt commensurate reward in terms of promotion for his/her input into the organisation. It means the approach adopted in leading and achieving objectives is very important for acceptance. It is essential to note that when there is adequate feedback

especially positive ones, this could increase the level of employees' commitment to work which eventually becomes a pay off for the organisation. Such a cycle promotes the employees and employers to the point of achievement.

5.2. CONCLUSION.

The issue of acceptance appears to be salient for female executives studied in both survey and qualitative aspects of this research as reflected by either partial or full confirmation of expected results. This is very significant because as earlier reported, male dominated occupations were considered male reserves and females were perceived as outsiders in such environments. It then becomes apparent that females in such environments had to prove their worth in order to adapt to the prevailing masculine culture. Of all the independent variables tested, self-esteem was found to be significantly related to acceptance. This further emphasized the importance of self-evaluation on adaptation and change suggesting that individual's dispositional tendencies affect how he/she interprets the favourability of the work attribute and environment.

Recognition and supportive management exerted varying degrees of influence on acceptance and growth for both male and female executives, but more salient for the females. Other variables that could significantly influence both acceptance and growth such as hard work, commitment, dedication, perseverance, stereotypic views, management practices, competence, being focused, non-work

family responsibilities were highlighted in the in the qualitative findings. These results indicate that self-esteem, recognition, and supportive management are important variables to be considered in improving females' acceptance and growth. It implies that whatever factors underlie these differences in perception, their mere presence is a cause for concern in organisation that encourages an environment where men and women have equal opportunities to succeed.

The report of lack of acceptance by the females in male occupations confirmed existing literature, which suggested a hostile environment for female executives. Additionally the study did not reveal a significant difference between female executives in male dominated and female dominated and sex neutral on perceived acceptance. This calls for further studies of the influence of variables such as organizational politics and commitment on perceived acceptance and growth of female executives in male dominated, female dominated and sex-neutral occupations. However, females in sex neutral occupations perceived they have more growth opportunities compared to those in female dominated occupations. This means better opportunities exist in sex neutral occupations for women to progress along their career path. This implies as organisations approach gender equity in male dominated and female dominated occupations, opportunities for growth increases.

As expected, results further revealed that junior executives reported lower acceptance compared to senior management executives. On the other hand, female executives on longer tenure reported lower growth than those on shorter duration. The finding of this result suggests that women should be exposed to better training opportunities once they enter male occupations. In addition, further studies should examine the implication of long duration or find out what experiences after long tenure promotes growth

Summarily, the study illustrates the potential role of person and contextual social variables in influencing perception of acceptance and growth. Also, it provides empirical evidence that Kanter's (1977b) work on token women generalizes to the experience of women minorities in male dominated occupations. How minorities construe their situation, which has to do with their acceptance and growth, may be affected by personal and social or situational factors such as self-esteem and self-efficacy recognition and support from colleagues. Failure to find significant influence of self-efficacy on work experience did not rule out the possibility of its influence. This is because self-efficacy relates to individual's core evaluation that affects actual perception of work attributes. Generally, the persistence of gender difference in results suggests a continuing potential for change in male dominated work environments as more women enter this domain.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS.

The major findings in this study are summarised as follows:

That self-esteem, recognition and supportive management are all important for perceived acceptance for female executives and male executives. Also, it revealed that only self-esteem significantly influenced acceptance of female executives in male dominated jobs. It is an important factor influencing females' perceived acceptance in male dominated occupations. In addition recognition was found to significantly affect perceived growth for female executives in male dominated, female dominated and sex-neutral occupations.

5.3. IMPLICATION AND RECOMMENDATION.

The results of this study contribute to several literatures on token status and particularly to acceptance and growth of females in male dominated occupations. These results extend the work on the effect of personal and social variables, and numerical token status on perception of work experience. Until recently the male folk dominated most profession and women are no longer exception in these areas. However, the situation for the female may be contrasted with that of males in these various occupations. This is because of group stereotypes and their relatively low representation in traditional male occupations.

The implication of this as revealed by the findings of this study is that female executives feel less accepted than their male counterparts. Such feeling of

acceptance was greatly influenced by their self-esteem, level of recognition and support they received from their male colleagues. Thus, it is important for organisations to create gender sensitive environment, which provides opportunities for success and others to come in. This result also support literature indicating that experiences of persons with observable e.g gender as opposed to non observable differences are subjectively unique (Miliken and Martins, 1996). This result also extend the work on stereotype threat which Steele (1997) described as an increase in the salience of negative stereotypic expectancies.

Additionally, the findings of this study suggested that the experience of female executives might be affected by perceived stereotype biases and feelings of vulnerability. This may bring an attributional problem for token women in male occupations. Thus, when women are unsatisfied with their situation they may allow sex to become the salient explanation for it. As such, female in male occupations may have a dilemma in determining whether they are unaccepted, not progressing and dissatisfied because of distinctiveness (their intrusion into traditional male occupation), or whether their subjective interpretation based on self-evaluation of the situation is what is causing differential perception of acceptance and growth. Since this study looked at individual and joint influence of both internal and external variables, further research is needed to pin point the causal direction of

influence. In addition studies should investigate other salient factors and compare experiences of female executives across the three occupational categories.

The result from this study also indicated that out of the dependent variables of interest, acceptance was quite important to the female executives, and self esteem, recognition and supportive management significantly influenced this. This suggests that women's entry to male occupations may be difficult and this has implication for development in the workplace. In the in depth interview conducted with female executives, critical factors perceived as hindering acceptance were "stereotypic views about women," "women's refusal to compromise", and lack of consideration for women's views. These to female executives do not provide a positive work environment. Consequently, for both males and females to work successfully together, the creation of gender fair environment that is important for the retention of women in the work place especially in male dominated occupations is necessary. Thus, in designing programs for culture change factors such as recognition and supportive management that are essential for women's perceived acceptance should be taken into consideration.

It is important to note that positive work environment would greatly contribute to the feeling of fulfilment and satisfaction experienced by employees. Such positive frames would facilitate recognition of complementary roles of different members that would lead to successful functioning of different

organisational arms. This is important, because there is rarely any work activity that is carried out in solitude. Individuals work with others whose wishes and personalities they have to learn and understand. This means organisations have to enact policies, practices and programmes to combat problems of differential treatment experienced by women. For example, programmes that highlight valuing differences and gender diversity in the work place can put in place. Newsletters and staff meeting are avenues through which the damaging effects of micro inequities can be passed across to workers. This would bring about the awareness of the implication of differential treatment for human, organisational and national development. Women's professional bodies should come together as support groups to share experience with others.

On the personal level, self-esteem was noted as being significant in predicting acceptance for both females and males. This is significant considering the fact that the self-esteem is an important personality component influencing behaviour and relationships. Specifically for women, the findings of this survey revealed that they have a significant role to play in improving their self-perception and skills. It was observed that if the social construction of women as incompetent and lacking in abilities required for performance in certain occupation were so successful that even females began to conceive this as an objective fact and begin to see themselves as such, then, this would pose problem, which has implication for

growth. The eventual result is that women may believe that they are not fit for these occupations, that they are not in control and this would go a long way in influencing their performance, the evaluation of which would count toward promotion. If these continue to materialise, fewer women would be exposed to promotional opportunities, while on the other hand, men who are always seen as competent would continue to gain important experience and credentials. This has implication for training and suggests that training packages for women should include assessment of self-esteem, recognition and support.

Previous research for example, White and Langer (1999) Tagiel and Turner (1979) revealed that the value of minority lies in its distinctiveness and membership. Findings of this study showed that the minority women sampled, did not value or appreciate their situation. In order to cope they set up networks and associations within and outside their work environment. This reflects Blumer's (1958) group position theory of prejudice based on protecting the in-group position from outgroup threat. It would be interesting to find out if their distinctive position and force as a body have positively influenced their adaptation and acceptance in traditional male occupations. Thus, future research should focus on issues that can make minority members perceive their position as being unique and adapt based on this perception.

5.4. LIMITATION OF STUDY

It is evident from the findings of this study that additional variables other than self-esteem, self-efficacy, recognition and supportive management influence male and female executives' perceived acceptance and growth in male dominated occupations. Thus, future research should consider the interplay between organisational politics and procedures such as appraisals and promotion exercise and other variables or measures, such as commitment, that may more directly tap into female executives' perception of acceptance, growth and job satisfaction.

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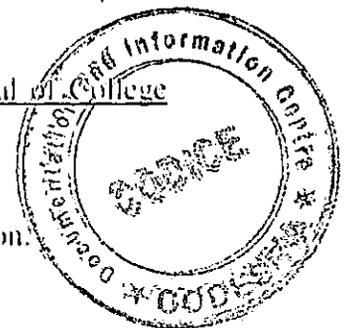
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QUESTIONNAIRE:

Department of Psychology, University of Ibadan.

Dear Respondent,

Good day to you. I am conducting this research as part of the requirement for a Ph.D. Degree. This questionnaire is meant to gather information concerning your job. Please, provide appropriate responses to the items. Your responses will be treated as confidential. Thanks for your co-operation.

Yours
faithfully,

C O. Chovwen

Section A

1. Sex
2. Occupation
3. Present Position
4. How long have you been in this position?

Less than 5 years.

Between 5 and 10 years.

Between 10 and 15 years.

Between 15 and 20 years.

5. How many times have you been promoted?

Pls. respond appropriately.

SA= Strongly Agree A= Agree U= Undecided D = Disagree SD = Strongly Disagree

Section B

		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	I have confidence in my ability to do my job					
2	There are some tasks required by my job that I cannot do well					
3	When my performance is poor it is due to my lack of ability					
4	I doubt if I can do my job very well.					
5	I have all the skills needed to perform my job very well.					
6	Other people can do my job better than I do.					
7	I am an expert at my job					
8	My future in this job is limited because of my lack of skills					
9	I am proud of my job duties and ability					
10	I feel threatened when others watch me work					

Section C

		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	Women often fail to have the same level of technical competence as men					
2	Women have a hard time supervising the work of male subordinates					
3	It is high time we have more women in executive position					
4	Women just make as good managers as men					
5	Women executives should receive the same respect and thrust as their male counterpart					
6	Men tend to be better suited for managerial positions than women					
7	Women are too emotional to succeed in top level management					
8	I would prefer not to work for a female manager					
9	Success as an executive had nothing to do with one's gender					
10	Many women get to the top because of connection					

Section D

		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	I am satisfied with the opportunity on my job for participation in working out methods and procedures					
2	I have the feelings of worthwhile accomplishment on my job					
3	I have the feeling of self fulfilment a person gets from being on my job					
4	I have opportunity for independent thoughts and action in my job					
5	I am satisfied with the opportunity for personal growth and development on my job					
6	I am satisfied with the opportunity on my job for participation in the setting of goals.					

Section E

		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	My effort always produce poor result					
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 to be my true self					
4	I rely on my friends, others to advise me on how solve my personal problem					
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 someone expresses a poor opinion of me, I do best to please him/her the next time I see him/her					
8	I think I 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 complement me I feel that I do not really deserve the compliment.					

Section F

		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	My boss is flexible about how I accomplish my job objectives					
2	My manager is supportive of my ideas and ways of getting done					
3	My boss gives me the opportunity to do my job as I see fit					
4	I am careful in taking responsibility because my boss is often critical of new ideas					
5	I can trust my boss to back up on decisions I make in the field					

Section G

		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	I rarely feel my work is taken for granted					
2	My superior generally appreciated the way I do my job					
3	The organisation recognises the significance of contributions I make					

Section H

		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	My organisation encourages the use of personal initiative on the job					
2	My organisation gives great responsibility for new entrants to those who are capable of career management					
3	I have opportunity for personal growth and development on my job					
4	My job with this organisation is secure					
5	My organisation provides adequate training facilities for every worker					
6	Management takes interest in ensuring workers safety					
7	There are constraints in the way towards my moving ahead					
8	Development of current capabilities is encouraged by my organisation					
9	My organisation provides an integrative manager friendly processes					
10	A supportive culture and clearly stated standards of performance is important to encourage employees					
11	Concepts and principles of career management are embedded in					

	the policies of my organisation					
12	Gaps in knowledge, skills, attitudes or experience need be filled to meet my aiming points					
13	I am convinced that this organisation offers good opportunities for those who want to get ahead.					
14	I am making a great deal of progress in this organisation					

Indepth-Interview and FGD Guide

1. Are there occupations considered as female dominated, male dominated and sex neutral?
2. How would you classify your occupation?
3. Comparing females and males in male dominated occupations, do you think they have the same growth level along their career paths?
4. What types of differences exist?
5. What factors hinder or enhance the acceptance of women to executive positions?
6. What factors enhance this growth level?
7. Do males and females in male dominated occupations experience same degree of acceptance?
8. What types of differences exist?

9. What factors hinder or enhance acceptance of women in executive position?
10. On the present job do you have a role model? Have you benefited from such a model?
11. Do you consider yourself to be a mentor?

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