CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Background to the Study

Traditionally, in Africa, as well as in Nigeria, females are subordinated via social, religious, cultural practices and beliefs of the society. These inhibit their participation at all levels and in all spheres of a development process, including ascending into, occupying and performing leadership roles in the workplace which could be very herculean due to gendered socio-cultural practices and beliefs. They are seen as subordinates to men because of the cultural norm of maleness that is regarded as superior to femaleness (Abolade, 2014). These behavioral patterns are underpinned by patriarchy and are reproduced in the form of sexist and discriminatory practices against women in work organizations.

Despite the Nigerian constitution guaranteeing equal right for male and female citizens, women in the country are still marginalized and face peculiar obstacles that impede their full participation in public life (Abolade, 2014). A report by the National Population Commission (2004) indicated that Nigerian women have a lower social status than their male counterparts; they do not measure up in virtually all areas of development which include access to education, employment opportunities, resources, leadership and political power .Even when women acquire specialized higher education, they are sometimes prevented by social, cultural or economic barriers from taking jobs or occupying positions that will use the valuable skills they acquired. Consequently, their potentials are thus underutilized. In spite of all these, many women are the caretakers or heads of their households (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2009).

Leadership has been conceptualized as a process of influencing the activities of organized groups in their efforts towards goal setting and goal achievement. Also, leadership is based on an influence relationship that is multidimensional and non-coercive, and that both leaders and followers work together to bring about substantial changes (Yukil, 2010,

Jachson and Parry 2008). Zaccaro and Klimaski (2001) opine that leadership is contextually defined and caused and involves processes that establish the direction of the followers to achieve the organizations' balance purpose.

Interrogating the social contexts of a particular group or phenomenon refers to seeking for answers in the prevailing social, cultural, religious values and belief systems that formed the basis of the socially sanctioned realities of men and women in different institutions. It refers to the man-made factors which are acquired as members of a given society which usually affected the perceptions, awareness, motivation, attitudes and behavior of a people (Isiugo-Abanihe, 1994).

The status of the Nigerian woman has improved significantly, women have indeed attracted greater visibility as more are being appointed to key positions of authority in the public and private sectors (Twenge, 2001). In Nigeria, women now hold political appointments both at federal and state levels. The emergence of a female presidential candidate in 2003, 2011 and 2015 elections was another significant development although, universally, studies indicate that women in prominent leadership positions (that is Presidents, Chief executive officers) compared to men are still relatively few. In the United Kingdom, women hold less than 5% of the senior management posts, and perhaps, some 26% of all managerial-type positions, in a situation where they made up more than 40% of the total workforce (Cole, 2004). Akinboye (2004) opines that less than 5% of managers in strategic sectors are women and are still seen as inferior to men which could give indication that they might not perform well in their profession or career as leaders. In the federal civil service which is the largest single-entity employer in Nigeria, 76% of civil servants are men and 24% are women. Women constitute less than 14% of the management level positions. Furthermore, 17.5% of those engaged in the medical field are women compared with the 82.5% of men (CIDA, 2012:17).
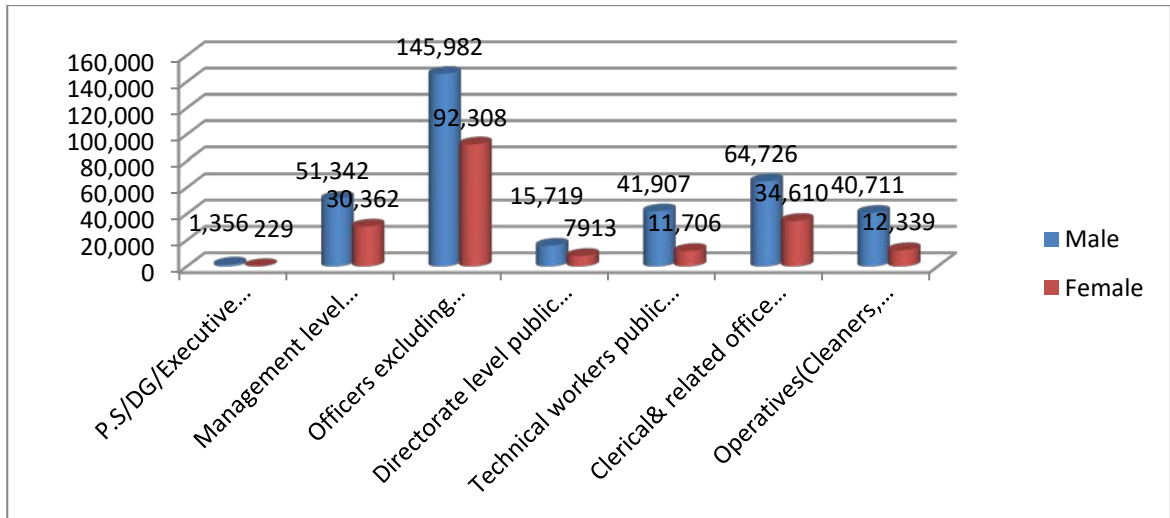
Figure 1: Total No of employees in Ministries and Parastatals in Nigeria (Federal and States)

Source; National Bureau of Statistics 2014

As the world becomes a more global society, the roles performed by women continue to change and present new challenges (Davidson and Burke, 2000). Women are now involved in multiple roles as workers, housekeepers, members of associations and heads of households among others. In the light of this, women face challenges of modernization including difficulty to adapt or develop coping strategies against the internal and external pressures from patriarchally structured work organization, and gendered family domestic roles that were neither designed in conjunction with women nor the support of a family structure (Maria and Martinez, 2007; Bons-Schafer and Larger, 2006; Young and Skrla, 2003). For most women, the struggle is a daily aspect of work life cycle. However, there are others who have benefited from the work of earlier generations of women who blazed the trails. Such women have attained individual prominence and achievements that insulate them against or reduces incidents of gender-based inequity experienced in workplaces. The central focus of this study was to examine the social contexts of administrative leadership positions among women and the experiences of the few women who were able to transcend the barriers and rise to positions of leadership hitherto termed men's positions in Oyo State Civil Service (those who were able to shatter the glass

ceiling) their experiences at the family and the workplace levels and the various strategies used to achieve success.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Many women are confronted with constraints at the individual, institutional and societal levels and so make sacrifices in the effort to succeed, whether professionally or personally (Dhlomo, 2001). At the individual level, women experience stress and double day work resulting from juggling family and work responsibilities, which often generate conflicts at various levels of interaction at home and workplace. Within the work place, women experience difficulty with upward-mobility because of stereotypes attached to females and organizational positions. They are expected to tailor their ambitions towards "sex-appropriate" activities (Kanter 1997), remain content with a subordinate status rather than seeking leadership positions considered incongruent with social perceptions of female roles (Kront, 2006). The spill-over effects of family and workplace conflict on one hand, and gender-based discrimination at work on the other, sometimes combine to reduce their level of productivity and hinder their self-actualization and prospects as leaders of institutions.

The procedures and criteria used in promotions may present obstacles to women's career advancement and attainment to leadership positions. Women can be undervalued and deprived of leadership opportunities because of "unfair promotion procedures" (Brown, 1997:124). Moreover, women candidates are mostly dependent on recommendations from men, as few women administrators are available at the level where recommendations are influential. Furthermore, most women if not all are excluded from informal networks that sometimes serve as unofficial platforms for decision making in work organization. Consequently, they may experience isolation and systemic discrimination that hinder their promotion and leadership attainment.

Ample evidence exists that managers link management ability with being male and possessing masculine characteristics (Powell, Butterfield and Parent, 2002; Schein, 2001). When female leaders are assertive and goal-oriented, some subordinates perceive this as

mean and ruthless, but they are regarded as emotional pushovers when they exhibit contrary behaviors. Consequently, greater preferences for male than female bosses exist and persist even though this is decreasing over time (Simmons, 2001). Because of doubts about women's leadership ability, they are generally held to a higher standard of competence than men. Differences exist in expectations for men and women leadership styles, especially in Boss-subordinate dyadic relationships based on gender stereotypes (Udegbe, 1998). In Nigeria, female leaders more than males experience insubordination in the workplace when they verbally chastise a recalcitrant female or male subordinate. Moreover, female leaders have a tendency to exhibit the 'queen bee syndrome', the tendency to treat females in subordinate roles less favorably. As a result, they lose vital support required to achieve organizational and personal goals even from fellow women.

It is not surprising that women are the usual focus of discussions of the impact of gender on leadership (Miller, Taylor, and Buck 1991); people direct their attention to the adequacy of women's leadership styles. As women increasingly enter leadership roles that traditionally were occupied by men, the possibility that the leadership styles of women and men differ continues to attract attention. The variability in styles due to gender has several implications for women in work organizations including its influence on workplace mobility and leadership attainment. Women experience impediment in upward mobility as a result of gender-based leadership styles. Consistent with role incongruity theory, when leaders are agentic, which most leaders have a tendency to be, they have the inclination to recommend and promote men - because they are perceived to be mostly agentic - into leadership positions at the expense of women who are deemed to lack qualities such as assertiveness and instrumentality, which people perceive as characteristic of successful leaders (Cejka and Eagly, 1999, Deaux and Kite 1993).

Combining family responsibilities and workplace demands particularly for women with leadership aspiration is for most a difficult task undertaken. One of the prices that women pay for success in their profession according to Hensel (1991) is to remain single or childless. Studies by Villadson and Tack (2000) indicated that women executives in public institutions juggled multiple families and career demands by developing coping/balancing

strategies such as compartmentalization which required clear boundaries between home and work time, and delegation which includes use of support structures they could get, including hiring full-time maids to help them meet family's needs. How do women in Oyo state civil service cope with managing family and workplace conflict/demands?

In an attempt to explain why women are so poorly represented in leadership positions, scholars have studied the barriers women face in accessing leadership positions and came up with factors which included cultural stereotypes and patriarchal beliefs among others (Rhodes, 2003; Angolu, 2002; Adukwu-Bogunjoko, 2000; Aina, 1999; Yakubu, 1999; Olaitan, 1999;). Similarly, scholars have also examined a variety of barriers to women administrators in educational and managerial leadership (Okafor, Fagbemi and Hassan, 2011; Mugweni, Tafara, Dholomo, 2011; Christman and Maclellan, 2007). It has also been documented that some women have successfully broken the 'glass ceiling' though the number gaining access to senior management positions is still relatively few (Acker 2004). However, not much has been documented on the experiences of the few who are able to transcend cultural barriers and rise to positions of leadership. In other words, little is known about the contributions problems and experiences of the few women in leadership positions, that is, those who have made it to the top in their organizations especially in public sectors of the economy and how they have been able to shatter the glass ceiling.

Therefore in understanding the position of women in Nigeria, there is need to examine their lives and participation in the formal institutional sectors of the social organization. It is against this backdrop that the study seeks to fill this gap by examining the experiences of women in administrative leadership positions in line with their coping strategies in Oyo State Civil Service.

1.2 Research Questions

Based on the above statement of the problem, this study was designed to answer the following research questions:

What is the perception of women in administrative leadership positions on the promotion procedure in Oyo State Civil Service?

What is the nature of the constraints (Cultural, Social, systemic) that women encounter in administrative leadership positions in Oyo State Civil Service?

Do gender-related leadership styles impede or promote access of women into administrative leadership positions in Oyo State Civil Service?

What is the nature of the social relations (how easy or challenging, vis a vis their experiences at the point of entry, while climbing the ladder of leadership and at the peak of their career) of women in their bid to access and retain administrative leadership positions within the Oyo State Civil Service?

What are the various strategies adopted by women in administrative leadership positions to cope with the gender- related constraints in Oyo State Civil Service?

1.3 Research Objectives

The main objective was to investigate the social contexts of women's occupation of top administrative positions in Oyo state Civil Service, Nigeria.

Specific objectives were to:

1. Examine how women in administrative leadership positions perceive the promotion procedure in Oyo State Civil Service.

2. Determine the nature of the female- related constraints in administrative leadership positions in Oyo State Civil service.

3. Investigate the influence of gender- related leadership styles on women's access to leadership positions.

4. Share women's experiences while occupying administrative leadership positions.

5. Document the strategies adopted by women in administrative leadership positions to cope with gender related constraints in Oyo State Civil Service.

1.4 Significance of the study

The research contributed to existing knowledge on practical experiences of women in leadership positions, for as literature acknowledges while in the abstract people might think about leadership in a certain way, this has little relevance to what they do in practice, which is difficult to predict (Billing and Alvesson, 2000). By examining the experiences of women from a variety of backgrounds and occupational areas, the research contributes to the development of a richer picture regarding how individuals become leaders in their field of activity. By taking an in-depth look at what has been and what continues to be important in the lives of women in leading positions; more insight was gained into how leadership is currently construed by women and the study also explored the implications of this for leadership theory and practice. Furthermore, research information concerning how women perform in the Public service in Nigeria may be used as an index of how Nigerian women have fared regarding overall emancipation and empowerment within the framework of the Nigeria gender policy and global gender equity awareness.

The study also provided information and understanding as to how socio-cultural background that gives leverage to the male gender (gender prejudice and stereotypes) come to play in the planning and organization of public institutions. Such information and understanding will help in the reconstruction or re-organization of the public institutions in such a way that opens up the public space or institutions equally for both men and women, thus, the male and female gender will have equal access to Public service and opportunity to aspire to top civil service positions. The study also identified various incentives, strategies and policies that will improve women involvement in leadership positions in the public service. It is also intended to be immensely useful to the policy makers, educationists and students for future references.

1.5 Scope of the study

The study included the women administrators who participate in running the administrative apparatus in the Oyo state Civil Service. To be considered as occupying a leadership position, a respondent was expected to be able to influence decisions and to direct the activities of others towards the accomplishment of organizational goals and objectives. The respondents that properly fit this description were those on salary grade level 13 and above. This included clerical and secretarial staff whose peak was level 13 as well as the administrative and professional cadres who rise above level 13.

1.6 Operational Definition of Terms

This sub section provides operational definitions of the following common terms used in the context of this work.

Administration: This refers to the act of execution; the government of public affairs; the services rendered, or duties assumed, in conducting affairs; the conducting of any office or employment; direction. In this study, the administrative department is a body that is entrusted with the execution of policies and laws.

Context: This refers to the settings or circumstances in which an event occurs and which help determine its meaning, value and significance. In this study, contextual factors are cultural characteristics and markers that produce differences in leadership and leadership perceptions among leaders and followers in the institution and set the boundaries within which leaders and followers interact.

Gender: This is used to refer to the socially- created division of society into those who are masculine and those who are feminine. In this study, it refers to the social identities attributed to men and women. Gender is rooted in social institutions and results in patterns within society that structures relationship between women and men and that give them differing positions of advantage and disadvantage within the institutions.

Glass Ceiling: The phrase glass ceiling, refers to an invisible barrier, which prevents someone from achieving further success. It is most often heard in the context of women

who cannot advance to the highest level of power in the workplace. The glass ceiling is a way of describing whatever keeps women from achieving power and success equal to that of men.

Leadership: This refers to the process whereby an individual directs, guides, influences or controls the thoughts, feelings or behavior of other human beings. In this study, it is essentially a group phenomenon and occurs in a situation calling for interaction between a group of people, the leader or leaders, the problem or task and its possible solution.

Social contexts: Refer to variables that were found to be crucial to understanding the experiences of women in leadership positions in the study. These included; Gender, Stereotypes, Culture, Patriarchy and workplace relational issues influencing women in leadership positions. It also refers to the social setting in which the women live and interact. In this study, the social settings are the marriage settings of the women in leadership positions and the entire workplace (ministries and parastatals) as Institutions of interaction

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a comprehensive and systematic review of literature that is relevant to the objectives of this study. It is divided into sub-sections which include: Leadership, leadership styles of women and men, leader-subordinate working relationship, leadership challenges of women, selection criteria/procedure, social-cultural constraints of women in leadership positions, women family lives and career advancement, perspectives on women's mobility in the workplace and the various coping strategies for overcoming the challenges.

2.1 The Concept of Leadership

The term leadership is an important factor in most businesses as every organization desires to achieve certain goals and objectives it sets for itself. Achieving these goals and objectives is one of the ways of making the organization to stay afloat and meet the expectations and aspirations of its clients, customers and other stakeholders. In achieving these goals and objectives, the roles and responsibilities of an effective leader in management becomes very crucial. Various researchers have usually defined leadership according to their individual perspectives, environment and the aspects of the phenomenon of most interest to them. After a comprehensive review of the leadership literature, Stogdill (1974) concluded that "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. The flow of new definitions of leadership has continued unabated since Stogdill made this observation. Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviors, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships, and occupation of an administrative position etc.

Northouse (2010) defines leadership as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Similarly, Tannenbaum (1966) defines leadership as the exercise of power of influence on social collectivities such as groups,

Organization, countries or nations. Yukl (2010) defines leadership as the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives. Leading therefore presupposes that all parties to the leadership relations have a common goal that is, leadership may be said to occur within a group and a leader in that group is fulfilling a group role. Leadership is also all about influence; it is the ability to influence your subordinates, your peers, and your bosses in a work or organizational context. Without this influence, it is impossible to be a leader. Nevertheless, having influence means that there is a greater need on the part of leaders to exercise their influence in a just manner (Yukl, 2010).

Leadership is part of management but not all of it. It is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. It is the human factor which binds a group together and motivates it towards goals. Lipham (1964) defines leadership as the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives. Also, Morphet, Johns and Peter (1982) define leadership as the act of influencing of the actions, behaviors, beliefs and goals of one actor in a social system by another actor with the willing cooperation of the actor being influenced.

From the definitions of leadership enunciated above, it is possible to define who a leader is. A leader is generally the person in a group who has influence on the group's activities and beliefs. He or she is the one who initiates action, gives orders, makes decisions, settles disputes between members and makes judgments. A leader is also a person who dispenses approval and disapproval, offers encouragement, serves as an inspiration and is in the forefront of any of the group activities. Leaders direct their energies and the energies of their followers to the achievement of something together. These functions enumerated are merely examples of the general influence the leader exerts over the group, any particular

leader may not perform all these functions, but to be a leader, he or she must perform many of them (Okafor and Okunade, 2005).

2.1.1 Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Transformational and transactional leadership behaviors are described in terms of two broad behaviors, each with specific categories. The classification was identified primarily by factor analysis of behavior description questionnaire called the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Yukl, 2010).

The discussions about leadership styles of men and women was popularized around 1990s, because of new research attempting to identify the styles that are in tandem with the contemporary realities. The new emphasis was on leadership that is transformational in the sense that it is future oriented rather than present oriented and that strengthens organizations by inspiring followers' commitment and creativity.

Transformational leadership entails establishing oneself as a role model by gaining followers' trust and confidence. Transformational leaders state future goals, develop plans to achieve those goals, innovate, even when their organization is generally successful. (Bass, 1985). By mentoring and empowering followers, such leaders help followers to develop their potential and thus to contribute more effectively to their organization (Eagly and Carli, 2003). Transformational leadership appeals to the moral values of followers in an attempt to raise their consciousness about ethical issues, and to mobilize their energy and resources to reform institutions (Yukl, 2010). These characteristics make transformational leadership communal, and given women's stereotype as nurturing, caring and people oriented, this leadership style is easier for female leaders to achieve.

Transactional leadership motivates followers by appealing to their self-interest and exchanging benefits. For a political leader, these activities include providing jobs, subsidies, lucrative government contracts, and support for desired legislation in return for campaign contributions and votes to re -elect the leader. For corporate leaders, transactional leadership means providing pay and other benefits in return for work effort.

Transactional leadership may involve values, but they are values relevant to the exchange process, such as honesty, fairness, responsibility, and reciprocity (Yukl, 2010).

Avolio, (1999) another leadership researcher, identified transactional leaders as who appeal to subordinates' self-interest by establishing exchange relationships with them. Transactional leadership involves managing in the conventional sense of clarifying subordinates' responsibilities, rewarding them for meeting objectives, and correcting them for failing to meet objectives (Eagly and Carli, 2003).

Researchers in transformational and transactional leadership, have reasoned that transformational leadership might be particularly advantageous to women because of its androgynous qualities (Yoder, 2001) and, indeed, the substantial research literature comparing women and men on these styles has yielded interesting outcomes (Eagly and Carli, 2003).

2.1.2 Androgynous Leadership

The debate on leadership styles is further complicated by the concept of androgynous leadership, which combines both masculine and feminine leadership styles. Androgynous leadership has been studied by (Oplatka, 2006. Coleman, 2000; Coleman and Low 1999; Hall, 1996; Morris) and these authors claim that good leaders have both masculine and feminine characteristics available to them and can select the most appropriate for a particular situation. One of the most important findings in favor of this leadership style comes from Oplatka's (2006) review of 14 major journals in educational administration, gender studies and comparative education in developing countries, which found evidence that female leaders in these countries seem to adopt an androgenic style (Ngan, 2011).

Debate on female leadership style is ongoing, but the argument that women can lead at least as well as men is persuasive. With regard to androgyny, whilst it is inescapable that leadership style is influenced by gender, what forces women to cross their gender stereotype boundaries to adopt a more masculine style? The explanation for the participants' choices in the above study is perhaps linked to cultural differences (between

Singapore and England) (Morris et al., 1999), and to "a strong male-dominated culture" in developing countries (Oplatka, 2006: 615).

Careerist Leadership and Representative Leadership

According to Biseswar (2008), leadership is in two basic forms: careerist leadership and representative leadership.

To him, careerist leadership involves occupying top posts in organizations, companies and other institutions where the basic requirement is to abide by the company's, organizational or institutional culture, professing effective and efficient management and decision-making skills. The principal aim is to successfully promote the organization's aims and objective's interests (Biseswar, 2008).

Representative leadership on the other hand, has to do with taking the lead and becoming representative of a constituency or an interest group or a movement, taking responsibility for its well-being. It requires a different kind of ideological nature which is arguably more challenging. Supporting this, Josephine Mendez-Negrete (1999) aptly states that leadership is not just the acquisition of a status to lead; it entails far more than that. It is the capacity 'to demand liberty, justice, equality and fairness'. This form of leadership takes representation as a matter of seriousness. It is not concerned with careerism or playing the game according to the androarchal or bureaucratic rules; it requires possessing a clear vision for the common good of the whole group or community being led (Mendez-Negrete, 1999).

2.1.3 Gender and Leadership

Issues of gender have relatively lately been seen as women's issues and included in the discussions of leadership (Coleman, 2002; Hall, 1996). This stand is reinforced by Shakeshaft, who states that gender has been associated so closely with women that in some cases they are synonymous. She defines gender as a cultural term which: " is socially constructed and describes the characteristics that we ascribe to people because of their sex, the ways we believe they behave or the characteristics we believe they have based upon our cultural expectations of what is male and what is female" (Ngan, 2011).

Due to the diverse nature of leadership, many researchers have been preoccupied with male and female leadership styles (Mitroussi and Mittroussi, 2009; Coleman, 2000; Morris et all, 1999) as well as whether gender and leadership are interrelated or independent.

Several researchers claim that gender determines leadership styles (that is, men and women lead and manage differently) Athanasoula-Reppa and Lazaridou 2009; Dean, Heather and Henry 2009; Pounder and Coleman, 2002; Eagly and Johannessen-Schmidt, 2001 Hall, 1996; Lyman, Ouston, 1993; Supporting this, Gold (1996) maintained that a body of research which supports this argument has been growing since the mid-1980s. Prior this time, differences in the way men and women led were not taken as a matter of seriousness probably because the scarcity of women leaders rendered them almost imperceptible.

Evetts (1994) asserts that with regards to the way male and female leaders do their tasks and their respective leadership styles, "gender has been shown to be a differentiating variable. It is maintained that gender decides leadership styles because of the socialization process which develops in women the values and characteristics that lead to leadership behaviors which are different from those traditionally associated with men (Shah, 2009; Pounder & Coleman, 2002; Hall, 1996; Neville, 1988; Shakeshaft, 1987 Marshall, 1985).

Moreover, women are forced to behave in accordance with their stereotypes as dependent, compliant (Neville, 1988), emotional (Ouston, 1993) and careful and prudent (Qiang, Han and Niu, 2009). Strengthening this stand, Eagly (1987) further argues that "expectation is a central aspect of the socialization process" (as cited in Pounder and Coleman, 2002, p. 125). The fact that women are culturally expected to be caring, supportive and cooperative may account for their different approaches to leadership from men. Evidence suggests that leaders who perform contrary to the stereotypical expectations of their gender are evaluated negatively by the society (Campbell, Bommer and Yeo, 1993; Jago and Vroom, 1982). It is concluded that gender influences human behavior (Shakeshaft, 1993) and therefore, can also influence leadership styles (Ngan, 2011).

However, reviews on this research on gender and leadership were faulted by some scholars (Eagly, Darau and Makhijani, 1995; Powell, 1993; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Bass, 1990). For instance, Eagly and Johnson (1990) conducted a meta-analysis of the gender studies with actual managers and found no gender influence on leadership. Some other reviewers concluded that there is no evidence of important connection in gender and leadership. Other reviewers in a recent debate published in Leadership Quatterly shows the complexity of the issue and the extent to which scholars disagree (Eagly and Carli, 2003a; Vecchio, 2002).

2.1.4 Culture and Leadership

Culture is ubiquitous, it is present everywhere. It resides at multiple levels, from civilizations, nations, organizations to groups (Shein, 1985) and it is generally defined as: The enduring set of beliefs, values, and ideologies underpinning structures, processes, and practices that distinguish one group of people from another. The groups of people may be at school level (organizational culture) or at national level (societal culture) (Walker and Dimmock, 2002).

We are conversant with terms like African culture, Western culture, Yoruba culture, Igbo culture, Hausa culture etc. At lower levels, there exist occupational and business cultures. Patriarchy (Cooper and Strachan, 2006; Celikten, 2005; Cubillo and Brown, 2003), also called androcentrism, that is, "viewing the world and shaping reality through a male lens" (Hough, 1986 as cited in Hall, 1996, p. 23), is an ideology embedded in many cultures both in the developed and developing world (Oplatka, 2006). Much research on female leadership has noted the function of patriarchal culture as a barrier to women's advancement (Akao, 2008; White, 2003; Rutherford, 2001; Norris and Inglehart, 2000; Coleman, Qiang and Li, 1998; Eggins, 1997; Acker and Fueverger, 1996; Dunlap and Schmuck, 1995;; Shakeshaft, 1987).

It has been established in the previous research work that cultural values and traditions can influence the attitudes and behavior of people in leadership positions in a number of different ways (Fu and YukI, 2000; Adler, 1997;; House et at, 1997; Lord and Maher,

1991). The values are likely to be internalized by leaders who grow up in a particular culture, and these values will influence their attitudes and behavior in ways that may not be conscious (Yukl, 2006).

The literature has also acknowledged the influences of and interactions between culture and leadership. Shein (1985) considers culture and leadership as "two sides of the same coin". He asserts that leaders create and manage organizational culture, but culture, in turn, creates their next generation of leaders (Ngan, 2011).

Furthermore, some studies also indicate that culture affects leadership styles (Oplatka, 2006; Pounder and Coleman, 2002; Morris et al., 1999). Schein (1985) points out that notion of what are the most important characteristics of effective leadership may vary in cultures. Therefore, in some cultures, a leader might need to be strongly decisive, whereas in other cultures a prerequisite is a collaborative and democratic style. He further argues that these different conceptions will influence the evaluation and perceptions of leaders' behaviors and characteristics in different cultures. For example, a culture that favors an authoritarian style is likely to interpret a leader's sensitivity as weak, whereas the same sensitivity is considered essential in cultures adopting a more nurturing style. Culture greatly restricts "the efficiency and role satisfaction of women's leadership" (Akao, 2008, p. 130). As mentioned above, the pervasive and long lasting influences of patriarchal culture have been acknowledged as major obstacles to women's access to leadership roles and their career progress. This literature therefore suggested that leadership practice is greatly influenced by culture.

2.2 The Leadership Styles of Women and Men

Of a great interest among practitioners as well as scholars is the discussion about possible differences between men and women in leadership behavior. In other words, there is possibility that the leadership styles of women and men differ continues to attract attention.

Leadership style is viewed as a composite of "relatively stable patterns of behavior that are manifested by leaders" (Eagly and Johannessen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 781). However,

many researchers are interested in leadership styles in an effort to find out differences and similarities in the ways males and females lead (Grogan and Brunner, 2005; Coleman, 2004; Pounder and Coleman, 2002; Eagly and Johannessen-Schmidt, 2001; Morris, Low and Coleman, 1999; Hall, 1996). In other words, scholarly works on leadership styles frequently look for the uniform characteristics associated with one gender and determines whether males and females leadership differs. But, as women increasingly enter leadership roles that traditionally were occupied mainly by men, there has been a recent focus on the literatures on women in leadership. For instance, authors such as Gilbert and Walker (2001) and Greed (2000) have assumed that female management styles place greater emphasis on teamwork, consensus, relationship, empathy and negotiation skills which offer more humane forms of management. Even though it is uncertain whether such attributes are nurtured and challenged by the construction of the work environment (Perry, 2009). The focus of these debates on sameness versus difference can obscure the array of causal factors that can produce differences or similarities.

Whether men and women behave differently in leadership roles is a much-debated question. Although there is general agreement that women face more barriers to becoming leaders than men do, especially for leadership roles that are male-dominated (Eagerly and Karau 2001), there is much less agreement about the behavior of women and men once they attain such roles. This issue is usually discussed in terms of leadership styles, when style is understood as relatively stable patterns of behavior that are manifested by leaders. Differences in styles can be consequential because they are one factor that may affect people's views about whether women should become leaders and advance to higher positions in organizational hierarchies.

It is not surprising that women are the usual focus of discussions of the impact of gender on leadership; because social perceivers generally concentrate on the non -prototypical members of categories (Miller, Taylor and Buck 1991). People direct their attention to the adequacy of women's leadership styles, for example, Elaine La Roche commented in reference to her experience as an executive at Morgan Stanley "that issue of style with respect to women can unfortunately often be more important than issues of substance"

(Thrall, 1996:4). Female politicians thus worry about "projecting gravitas," as former U. S. Congressional Representative Patricia Schroeder noted (Schroeder, 1999:17). In contrast, because men have long held these roles, they have defined the styles to which people have become accustomed. Despite this focus on women's leadership, there is little agreement about how women actually lead. These debates reflect the common cultural debate about difference and similarity, which has been especially important in feminist writings (Kimball, 1995).

Some feminists thus fear that the perception of sex differences in leadership style or other attributes can provide a rationale for excluding women from opportunities and especially from male-dominated leadership roles.

Other feminists believe that the perception of sameness would fail to acknowledge the relational qualities that are a traditional source of female pride and that may contribute to superior performance by women leaders. Contrary to our view that sex differences and similarities vary with social contexts, experts who have written about this topic have generally maintained that either differences or similarities prevail.

The advocates of difference include several writers of trade books who have drawn on their personal experience in organizations and informal surveys and interviews of managers. These writers have claimed that the leadership styles of women and men are different, mainly along the lines of women being less hierarchical, more cooperative and collaborative, and more oriented to enhancing others' self-worth (Book, 2000, Rosener, 1995).

In contrast, social scientists have typically either claimed that female and male organizational leaders do not differ or minimized the importance of those differences that have been observed (Powell, 1990). However, careful examination of relevant research has revealed more complex findings than acknowledged by the advocates of difference or the advocates of similarity.

In furtherance of the above, impacts of gender and stereotypes in masculinity and femininity cannot be overemphasized in discussing the leadership styles of women and

men. It is good for us to know that the physiology and psychology of gender are intertwined but differ at the same time. As for physiology, we are men and women as a result of our physical characteristics at birth. Meanwhile, our sense of masculinity and femininity is not only influenced by our physiology but psychological uptake of these roles as influenced by the environment we live in. According to Fieldman (1999), the roles imposed on us by society are our gender roles and these roles place on us certain expectations which affect the decisions we make in our day-to-day lives. The roles also lead to stereotypes which are the expectations one has for a certain group of people.

Moreover, Eagly (1987), opined that in terms of gender, there are two different types of leadership qualities or behavior that are prominent: namely, communal and agentic qualities.

The term agentic means the aspect of behavior that is characterized by assertive, goal oriented and controlling tendencies, and include qualities such as aggressiveness, ambition, dominance, independence, self-reliance, self-sufficiency, correctness, and decisiveness. According to the studies conducted by Werna and La Russa (1985), Rosner (1990), and Gardiner and Tiggerman (1999) they concluded that men are more often than not concomitant with agentic characteristics or transactional leadership style. This male development of agentic features according to Gibson (1995) may result in a tendency for males to emphasize certain leadership behaviors and styles more so than others. In addition to this, Cornelius (1998) suggests that masculine behavior uses power in order to attain different status when compared with colleagues. During interaction, the masculine approach tends to be highly competitive and attention is always directed towards the final result.

From the Eagly's study previously mentioned above, he discovered that femininity aligned with the communal dimension of gender or transformational leadership style and this represents a concern with the welfare of other persons. According to Eagly, the qualities that come with communal dimension are nurturance, ability to devote self to others, eagerness to sooth hurt feelings, helpfulness, sympathy, awareness of the feelings of others, and emotional expressiveness. Additionally, Werna and La Russa (1985), Rosner

(1990), and Gardiner and Tiggerman (1999) submitted that in general, females are more often characterized by communal qualities than other qualities. Also drawing on Cornelius submission above, it is said that the feminine stereotype is interacting in a way that is more concerned with using power to attain equality. In addition, it is broadly accepted that females usually play the main role when it comes to children rearing and fulfilling the role of the primary home maker. It is suggested by Gibson (1995) that the use of communal characteristics by females will see them adopt the same qualities in their approach to leadership styles in the work place. They argued that women lead more flexibly, intuitively and holistically (Lyman et al., 2009). Some argue that women embrace superior leadership styles (Coleman, 2003).

Logically, it is easy to assume that masculine style careers will value qualities such as aggressiveness, correctness and assertiveness, while female style careers will value communal qualities such as affection; ability to devote self to others, eagerness to sooth hurt feelings and helpfulness.

2.2.1 The Roles of Work Culture or Climate on Women Leadership Styles

The most important factor that constitutes and influences work culture in any organization is the combination of the people and more specifically gender related factors (Dainty et al, 2000). Burke and Litwin (1992) identify the ways by which work climate fits into the overall construct of work culture. They described climate as being "how their local work unit is managed and how effectively they and their day-to-day colleagues worked together on the job. To them work climate is particularly important since it remains the primary aspect of the work environment that managers must respond to, and is subsequently the major yardstick to describe or define their leadership style.

According to Gilmer (1996) work climate can be defined as those characteristics that distinguish the organization from other organizations and which influence the behavior of people in an organization. Moran and Volkwein (1992) provide more detail by their definition which identifies work climate as a relatively enduring feature of an organization which distinguishes itself form other organization with respect to such dimensions as

autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation and fairness; produced by member interactions; serves as the basis for interpreting the situation;; reflects on the prevalent norms and attitudes of the organization's culture: and acts as a source in shaping behavior.

Having established the importance of work climate on work culture, it is evident that masculine organizations will be dominated by male work climates, while feminine originations will be dominated by female work climates. For instance, Kanter (1977) and Gardiner and Tiggerman (1999) states that for an organization to be male dominated, less than 15% of the employees in that industry are expected to be women and 85% men. For instance Dainty et al (2000) stated that less than 2% of women in the construction industry are in leadership positions. It is therefore logical to say that construction industry is a male dominated industry and subsequently should hold a masculine culture and masculine work climate. For instance, based on the findings from a research undertaken by Perry (2009), the main leadership style adopted by women in the construction industry is authoritative which conforms to the agentic characteristics (as stated by eagerly, 1987) such as assertiveness, goal oriented, self-reliance, decisiveness and controlling traits. Similarly, it also noted in the study that the secondary leadership style of women in leadership position is by far a democratic style (92%).

In contrast with construction industry is nursing industry. The nursing industry fits the previous proportion of gender as being female dominated industry. In addition, the culture of traditional health industries is feminine in nature (Gale and Cartwright, 1995). For instance, the major emphasis is on empathy and healing sick people. In terms of the main leadership style used by women in the nursing industry, the findings reveled again that both the main and secondary style adopted by most women in the Nursing industry conform with communal features and feminine stereotypes, in other words, they are democratic. Consequently, the agentic masculine styles such as authoritative masculine styles were virtually not present (Perry, 2009).

2.3 Leader-Subordinate Working Relationship

The Vertical Dyadic Linkage relationship (VDA) theory, renamed Leader Member Exchange (LMX) is renowned for the analysis of many leadership related issues in organizations. It suggests that there are differences in the way a leader relates with each of his/her subordinates due to the limited time faced by the leader on the job as well as differences in subordinate's role expectations.

Advocates of the LMX have therefore hypothesized that the subordinate role and the quality of leader-subordinate exchange are divided into two basic categories. One of them is the in-group class, characterized by high trust interaction, support and reward; while the other is the out-group category, characterized by low trust interaction, support and reward (Adebayo and Udegbe, 2004).

Empirical research demonstrates a strong support for the concept of a unique leader-subordinate relationship or exchange especially in America and Japanese industrial environments.

Differences exist in expectations for men and women leadership styles, especially in Boss-subordinate dyadic relationships based on gender stereotypes (Udegbe, 1998). In Nigeria, it may be acceptable for a male supervisor to verbally chastise a recalcitrant female or male subordinate, whereas the same behavior by a female supervisor may be perceived as out of role and unacceptable particularly in predominantly Muslims North of the country.

The disproportionate representation of women, particularly at the upper echelons of most Nigerian organizations, may also have implications for social interactions amongst working women. This would suggest that junior female workers may not have enough female leaders as prototype model to look up to in comparison to their male counterparts. It may also give them the wrong impression that upward mobility is difficult, if not impossible. Added to this, is the operation of the 'queen bee syndrome' which refers to the tendency of females in supervisory roles to treat females in subordinate roles less favorably.

The queen bee is the alpha female who tries to protect her power at all costs. Instead of promoting her subordinates, feels threatened by them, and in many cases end up obstructing their attempt to climbing the corporate ladder. An interesting new piece of research by psychologists at the University of Cincinnati shows that women on top are even more likely to support and mentor male subordinates than females working at the same level (Azuh, 2011). The overall consequence is that relationships among females working together may be impaired. This could have a negative impact on the nature and quality of relationships in the Boss-female subordinate dyad (Adebayo and Udegbe 2004).

The myths built around female bosses are many, 'they are tough, have overblown egos, crafty, have a complex, harder on female subordinates, are driven by their hormones, emotionally unpredictable, take their marital life issues to the office, sleep their way to the top, and aggressive. According to a study by the American Management Association, 95percent of women felt undermined at some point in their career by other women (Punch, 2011).

A female boss who is every bit as assertive and goal-oriented as the archetypal businessman will be deemed by some subordinates as mean and ruthless. If she's not as aggressive as her male counterpart, she's an emotional pushover.

The girl-child is also socialized to believe that she is valued for being young and attractive, once this is not so, especially as she grows older and climb the corporate ladder, she becomes afraid of being replaced by someone younger, smarter, or whatever the perceived competition of the moment seems to be.

In other way round, according to an old saying, actions speak louder than words. One way a leader can influence subordinate commitment is by setting an example of exemplary behavior in day-to-day interactions with subordinates. Leading by example is sometimes called role modeling. It is especially important for actions that are unpleasant, dangerous, unconventional or controversial. A manager who asks subordinates to observe a particular standard should also observe the same standard. A manager who asks subordinates to make special sacrifices should set an example by doing the same. Some of the most

inspirational military leaders have been ones who led their troops into battle and shared the dangers and hardships rather than staying behind in relative safety and comfort (Van Fleet and YukI. 1986b), a negative example is provided by the executives in a large company that was experiencing financial difficulties. After asking employees to defer their expected pay increases, the executives awarded themselves large bonuses. This action created resentment among employees and undermined employee loyalty to the organization and commitment to its mission. A more effective approach would have been to set an example by cutting bonuses for top management before asking for sacrifices from other employees. The values espoused by a leader should be demonstrated in his or her daily behavior, and it must be done consistently, not just when convenient. Top-level leaders are always in the spotlight, and their actions are carefully examined by followers in a search for hidden meanings that may not be intended by the leader, Ambiguous remarks may be misinterpreted and innocent actions may be misrepresented. To avoid sending the wrong message, it is important to consider in advance how one's comments and actions as a leader are likely to be interpreted (Yukl, 2006).

2.4 Socio-Cultural Constraints of Women in Leadership Positions

Women continue to aspire to leadership positions in all spheres of governance both in the public and private sectors. Great strides have been made in the political realm, and women's participation in both the freedom struggles and democratic processes of many African countries have been notable. However, this participation has not always translated into equal representation in leadership positions. Some countries like South Africa have made much progress within a short space of time in their efforts toward a gender-neutral society, but for others the pace has been much slower.

Historically in Nigeria, cultural factors constituted a serious source of constraints for the development of women into leadership positions, and even our cultures have continued to distort the development and status of Nigerian women in their roles in politics. Our traditions and cultures see women as appendages to men, even in a situation where women have excelled in educational qualifications, ability or performance. Women in Nigeria have for a long time been discouraged from aspiring to greater heights; their domain is

regarded to be only within the home and anything outside that domain of influence should be left to their husbands or fathers. The degree to which females are dominated in some parts of the country, and to which the dignity of the Nigerian female is trampled upon, especially in the rural parts, is beyond what a person could describe just by words of mouth (Udegbe, 2003).

In sharing political power, history has always portrayed women as the weaker sex who cannot be trusted to handle certain responsibilities of leadership. Women hardly occupy decision-making positions, even though they may sometimes be deeply involved in mobilizing and campaigning for the political party. The political history of Nigeria shows that the society has been quite unfair to women (Udegbe, 2003). Since independence, the trend has been for women to be used only as means to get men accepted and voted into politics; they also help men prosper in the political offices they hold. After that, women are forgotten until the next election campaign (Badawi, 2007).

It should also be noted that attaining positions of power and leadership is one thing, but could it be that women pay a higher price than men? Gwendolyn Mikell (1997) captured the dilemma for women in her statement that "Contemporary African women sometimes think of themselves as walking a political/gender tightrope" in that African women are concerned about the large number of economic and political problems facing their communities, but at the same time they are "grappling with how to affirm their own identities while transforming societal notions of gender and familial roles" (Mikell, 1997,:1). However, there is no doubt that there are success stories. Of interest are the efforts women have made to rise above such circumstances and fight for recognition, despite the risks involved: of being "labeled," and the risk of breaking family ties.

Historically, leadership has carried the notion of masculinity and the belief that men make better leaders than women is still common today. Although the number of female leaders has increased, they are often named as an afterthought. According to Højgaard (2002), the societal conventions regarding gender and leadership traditionally exclude women, and top leadership is viewed as a masculine domain. The same author further argues that the cultural construction of leadership in itself instigates difference and this is only now being

transformed or contested as women gain access to leadership positions. In African societies, it is believed that men lead and women follow (Ngcongo, 1993, in Grant, 2005). It is not uncommon in rural villages in Africa to find the man literally walking ahead of the woman. Different reasons may be advanced for this but ultimately it illustrates the deeply held notion of leadership as masculine.

There was a time that it was believed that leaders were born with certain leadership traits. However, current thinking on leadership assumes that leadership can be taught and learned, hence the many leadership-training programs (de la Rey, 2005). Cheryl de la Rey (2005) lists the traits commonly associated with leadership as effective communication skills, task completion, responsibility, problem solving, originality, decision making, action taking, vision, self-awareness, confidence, experience and power. While it is possible to develop these traits in any individual, regardless of gender, in male dominated societies (as is often the case in African societies) male leadership and leadership styles predominate and are regarded as the more acceptable forms of leadership. In a situation where men and women of the same group were present, they were not only further divided by their biological sex, but when it came to performing leadership tasks that required strength or deciding who has the final say in settling disputes, men were the ones whose decisions prevailed. Aina (1998) notes that though women in matrilineal societies of Africa may have had some advantages but still the decisions of the men always prevail.

Growe and Montgomery (2000) defined leaders as people "who provide vision and meaning for an institution and embody the ideals toward which the organization strives". From that perspective, leaders are alike and genderless. However there is still skepticism when women lead and in many situations, gender, more than age, experience or competence determines the role (position) one is assigned. There is research to show that such fears or doubts about women are baseless. Growe and Montgomery (2000), in studies on school administration, found that schools with female administrators are better managed (the quality of pupil learning and professional performance of teachers is higher), and on average perform better than those managed by men. Similar findings have been reported by Aladejana (2005) in her study regarding female representation in

leadership positions in education administration in South West Nigeria. The difference may be in the leadership styles of women versus those of men. There seems to be enough evidence to suggest that women lead differently from men (Eagly and Johnson, 1990, as cited in de la Rey, 2005). For instance, women portray a more participatory approach, are more democratic, allow for power and information sharing, are more sensitive, more nurturing than men, focus on relationships and enable others to make contributions through delegation (de la Rey, 2005; Growe and Montgomery, 2000; Tedrow, 1999). Tedrow (1999) also noted characteristics such as building coalitions and advancing individual and community development are construct that women display in their relational styles. Women are also better at conflict management, having better listening skills and show more tolerance and empathy. While men and women do have different leadership styles, that should not mean that one is dominant over the other. It has been observed that the differences we see in leadership style are partly due to the way men view leadership as leading, while women see leadership as facilitating (Growe and Montgomery, 2000). In contrast to the characteristics of women given above, men lead from the front and attempt to have all the answers while stressing task accomplishment, the achieving of goals, the hoarding of information and winning (Growe and Montgomery, 2000). Contemporary work environments could definitely benefit from leaders who portray more of the traits associated with women.

Sadly, in a situation where accepting women as leaders is problematic, it is possible to overlook their positive leadership traits and view them as weaknesses. In fact, stereotypes of how women lead have made it difficult for women to access or even stay in leadership positions. Tedrow (1999) argued that women who display more relational styles of leading are likely to be marginalized within their organizations and viewed as 'outsiders'. Even more disconcerting is the fact that women who seem to 'make it' as leaders often end up conforming to the strong male culture in the work place, and adopt male leadership styles. As indicated by Growe and Montgomery (2000), since female leaders see gender as a hindrance, they are compelled to lead the way men do as it is considered the norm. In their view, utilizing men's methods of leadership is not only the easiest way for a woman to be

hired for any position of leadership, but is the most successful method of attracting promotion and recognition.

One underlying problem for women has been the difficulty in dealing with the inherent patriarchal structures that pervade the lives of people, the processes of state and the party (Nzomo, 1997). Research on women's leadership has found that women face barriers on their way to the top jobs, and while in those positions they may experience unequal employment opportunities and role conflict as well as patriarchal attitudes towards women (Coleman, 2009; Shah, 2009; Sperandio, 2009; Shakeshaft, 1987). These factors stem from culture, whether Western or third world, and create a "glass ceiling" (Weyer, 2007; Cubillo and Brown, 2003; King, 1997) for women who want to access leadership positions. Shakeshaft (1987) asserts that "the major barrier to women has been a culture characterized by male dominance because all of the specific barriers identified can be traced back to a society that supports and enforces a male-dominant system". She believes that gender inequity, and such internal barriers as lack of confidence, low aspiration and low motivation, are caused by patriarchy. This ideology results in an androcentric society, which explains why in many societies senior leadership roles are occupied by men rather than women and women are still assigned a secondary place by the prevailing customs and culture (Ngan, 2011).

2.5 Underlying Forces Militating against Womens' Access to Leadership

Positions

Various factors are at work in limiting women's potential to aspire and access positions of leadership. In an attempt to explain this, a growing body of research has studied the barriers women face in accessing leadership and whilst filling their roles (Weyer, 2007; (Cubillo and Brown, 2003; White, 2003). Correspondingly, scholars have identified many factors that contribute to this, including bias in hiring, and promotion practices (Komaki, 2007; Perry, David-Blake and Kulik, 1994) fewer opportunities for advancement and mentoring (Catalyst, 2009; 2004), and a perceived mismatch between the traits of a leader and the traits of women (Schein, 2007; Heilman, 2001).

Statistics also reveal a high level of disparity in levels of gender diversity at top management positions in Nigeria. For instance, in the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, which is the largest employer of labour in the country, 76% of civil servants are men, and 24% are women with women holding less than 14% of the total management level positions in the Nigerian public sector (Goldstar, 2005/06). In Lagos state, Nigeria's largest commercial hub, private sector involvement of women as directors and top management were 13.87% and 13.84% respectively in 2005, while 8.14% and 13.11% were recorded for women directors and top managers respectively in 2006, representing a slight decline of their involvement in the succeeding year (Goldstar, 2006/07). Whatever these barriers are termed, either horizontal/vertical (Weyer, 2007), internal/external (Sperandio & Kagoda, 2008; Brown, 1997) or cultural (Norris and Ingleghart, 2000; Shakeshaft, 1987), these findings reveal the obstacles and challenges women encounter.

One difficulty women face in their access to leadership roles and career development is the lack of formal and informal support and encouragement. This was reinforced by a study by Bell and Nkomo (2001) who stated that one of the major barriers to advancement of women to leadership positions (especially black women) was limited access to social and informal networks in their organizations. The formal and informal network forged by men identified within the literature as 'men's club' is acknowledged by women as a key factor that impedes women's advancement in organization (Carter 2000;). Here, another issue that attracts the attention of many researchers is empowering women with such programs as networking, mentoring, and works shadowing (Dean, Bracken and Allen, 2009; Collard and Reynolds, 2005; Eggins, 1997; Wisker, 1996; Strachan, 1991). In supporting this view, a review of the literature (Lewis 2006) revealed that women have not been readily admitted to these organizations and those that are hired into managerial positions find it difficult to become part of the existing networks of power coalitions, which is built upon work relationships and other social as well as relational networks. Men and the few women who are part of these networks earn more promotions and advance faster in their jobs than people who are not members of the network. For Coe (1992) some women break into these networks by developing mentor relationships with men or women

in higher level organizational positions. Generally, women are gradually beginning to develop their own networks (Coe, 1992).

A study by Babcock and Laschever (2003) also found that women were less likely than men to ask for promotion and initiate the types of negotiations likely to favor it. Another study by Lyness and Heilman (2006) found that women needed more of the required skills than men to advance to executive positions, and the difference was greater for the line positions traditionally held by men than for the staff positions. Sadie (2005) advanced the argument that at the bottom of the constraints that women face in accessing leadership positions is the patriarchal system where decision making powers are in the hands of males.

For instance, in the African context, (Ekong, 2003) in his study of women in the Niger Delta area of Nigeria, found out that access to communal facilities in the Nigerian rural communities is relatively skewed towards men, and several cultural practices or control modes are being used in the to keep women away from the fishing trade (Mbenga, 2000; Geheb, 1997). These include informal regulatory mechanisms in determining the use of the communal facilities, which are not favourable to women; examples are mode of inheritance, fishing right among others (Ukeje, 2004; LVFRP/SEDAWOG, 2000).

Moreover, African traditional beliefs and cultural attitudes regarding the role and status of women in society are still prevalent and many women are part of this system finding it difficult to dislocate from this culture and tradition lest they be ostracized. Despite women's education and entry into the job market, the woman's role is typically one of homemaker. The man, on the other hand, is the bread winner, head of household and has a right to public life (Sadie, 2005). Confining women's identity to the domestic sphere is one of the barriers to women's entry into politics and politics by its nature catapults one into public life. Apart from this, a number of factors have been attributed to being responsible for the low level of participation of women in political activities in Nigeria. Several writers (Adesoji, 2001; Umezurike, 1999; Hassan, 1992;; Sambo, 1991; Uku, 1991) have emphasized those factors which comprise lack of adequate education, illiteracy, and the discriminatory attitude of the Nigerian men to women in politics, lack of

adequate political information, political thuggery, financial constraints, and a general apathy of women towards politics, among others. Generally, cultural attitudes are hostile to women's involvement in politics. Some women were able to transcend cultural barriers and rise to positions of leadership (whether in politics or elsewhere), but more often than not, it meant having to juggle cultural expectations with their leadership roles.

In a similar vein, Ahmad (1999) asserts that most vibrant and intelligent women who are interested in politics in Nigeria are not economically buoyant enough to compete with their male counterparts who are economically sound (Okiys, 2006). Also, of all the factors of womens' political barrier discussed previously, the issue of not being politically informed and articulate enough is generally agreed to be the worst. It has been identified as the key factor that should be addressed in order to empower women and help them overcome their present constraints as far as active involvement in politics is concerned.

Furthermore, the socialization of the girl child in many societies is also to blame for perceived inabilities on the part of women. To quote Melody Emmett (2001:67), "The life passages of women are not sacramentalised, celebrated or even acknowledged". This is illustrative of the position ascribed to women, right from the birth of the girl child, in comparison to the boy child and the subsequent position of men in society. In many African cultures, the rituals and rites of passage pertaining to the boy child, nurture them for leadership positions, whether at local or national levels of governance, in business, politics or public administration. Religion tends to cement these cultural norms. As observed by Emmet (2001), all mainstream religions have stereotypical roles for men and women where women are perceived as less equal than men, often being kept separate in the way roles are assigned. In her discussion of women's experience of religion, Emmet (2001) analyzed the rituals performed for and by men in various religions (including Hinduism, Islam and Christianity), finding that men are generally valued and empowered by religion in many ways. Women do not enjoy such privilege, being disempowered by religious structures and practices.

In other public arenas, women's access to leadership positions has been hindered by discrimination and stereotyping. Women are more or less persecuted for seeking an

executive position. This is largely due to society's attitude toward appropriate male and female roles. In their discussion on barriers women face in accessing leadership positions, Growe and Montgomery (2000) say that compared to men, women receive little or no encouragement to seek leadership positions. There are also few social networks (formal and informal) for women such as membership in clubs, resulting in a lack of recognition that leads to advancement.

Administrative/leadership positions require hard work, long hours and are stressful. For women, this burden is added on to their child-care, home, and family responsibilities, a phenomenon referred to as the 'double shift' in Sadie, et al. (2005). These observations are also true of women in higher education. In addition to issues of family responsibility that make it difficult for women to advance, cultural beliefs about the roles of men and women inhibit women's advancement to top leadership as much as it does in politics (Pandor, 2006). Pandor (2006) also pointed out the all too common statement (often not taken seriously) that women at senior level positions are not always supportive of other women and tend to want to maintain the status quo. Of course, institutional culture and micro politics do act as barriers for women implicitly or explicitly influencing the research environment that ultimately breeds professors and executive leaders. For many women, the time demands of such positions conflict with the demands of the family, and this in itself is a barrier.

With regards to conditions of gender positioning, Hojgaard (2002) looked at marital status, presence of children and distribution of work at home. The male leaders were more likely to be married, while a higher proportion of women leaders were divorced or independently living together. Furthermore, a higher proportion of women had no children. The partners of female leaders were also more likely to be working full time, while among the partners of male leaders (especially business leaders) there was a high proportion of part time work and full time housewives. Two thirds of male leaders did little or no housework, indicating that most male leaders (unlike female leaders) are relieved of the burdens associated with family life and can devote all their energy to their jobs.

These findings are very illustrative of the social cost of leadership for women, and the gender positioning conditions illustrated in the Danish study could be applied to African women. As such, it is little wonder that many women are hesitant to take up positions of leadership because of the stress involved. For women who do seek leadership positions, some factors that contribute to this stress include balancing work and family, domestic violence and discrimination (Cole, 2006, Gardiner and Tiggermann, 1999). In the African context, the work and family dichotomy is filled with many contradictions for women that provoke stress.

African women have certain expected roles to play. They are expected to bear and nurture children, as well as manage the home. At the same time, today's African woman is expected to earn a living and contribute to the running of society (BBC News, 2005). In short, Gwendolyn Mikell (1997) referred to contemporary African women as walking a political/gender tightrope, but it is also a leadership and gender tightrope.

Tsitsi Dangarembga from Zimbabwe, in her interview with BBC News (BBC News, 2005) said that one of the reasons there are few women in positions of power is a lack of unity among women themselves. The explanation she gave was that since women were vying for scarce resources, they tend to see other women as a threat and are jealous of one another. She further went on to say that women have the potential to bring about change, but they lack organization due to lack of time, given their multiple roles as bread winners, wives and mothers. African women also fear to raise their voices and speak out for fear of victimization (supposedly by fellow women but also by men, given the cultural expectations of what a woman should or should not do). In this interview, Dangarembga also pointed out that women fear to excel because it makes them seem threatening. Women who want to get married have to present themselves as good marriage material by being meek and submissive.

Another reason for the difficulty African women have in attaining national and international recognition is their daily struggle for survival. It is difficult in the African environment with its extreme deprivation to emphasize women's issues when there are so many pressing national issues (BBC News, 2005). The lack of time due to women's

reproductive roles is also mentioned as a limitation to women's participation in leadership (Shayo, 2005).

These barriers are not unique to African women. Similar issues have been raised regarding educated Chinese women. Qin (2000), in examining the development of female college students in China, found that several factors combine to restrict their desire to become successful career women. These include traditional prejudice, social pressures, women's sensitivity to people's misconception of successful women, and the tendency of men to choose 'family-oriented' wives. These women even fear being more capable than men and as a result shy away from demanding jobs. Women are torn between work and family as, on the one hand they do not want to be housewives but at the same time they are challenged to be super women. They wish for and fear the opportunities and challenges of the external world.

Professional women in managerial positions face many challenges and those in institutions of higher learning are no exception. Moutlana (2001) noted that the socialization of women at the work place occurs within a system of power and inequality and that such system tend to reproduce various forms of inequality. In South Africa, traditional universities have had corporate cultures whose norms and values were those of the dominant white male society (Moutlana, 2001). When women join such institutions as leaders, they soon realize that they are expected to conform or assimilate to the established culture. After all, how can one be admitted to an exclusive club, and then contradict the club's core values? Moutlana argues that women in management are more visible, experience more hardship and feel isolated. Women have to work extra hard as they do not seem to be given the latitude to make mistakes.

In many institutions women's attainment of leadership positions has been facilitated by the implementation of employment equity policies and affirmative action. However, because of this there is the perception that one was 'let in,' and even the most capable women are viewed with suspicion. Leadership for women is not an easy task, and, as observed by Moutlana (2001), moving up and staying at the top is not necessarily filled with joy.

Clearly, many women do make sacrifices in the effort to succeed, whether professionally or personally. For example, women still expect and are expected to take responsibility for bringing up their children, but less parental responsibility is expected of men. As observed by Polly (1988), "If women don't care enough for their children, they know their children risk neglect. If men don't care enough, they know their wives will" (Washington Monthly, May 5, 1988). This observation is true for many working African women today. The issue of children, or family for that matter, is one that disturbs many women as they make the decision to take up a leadership position. Therefore, it is not surprising that some women are perceived as avoiding success in order to care for their families.

Constraints at three levels are also identified by (Esere, 2001, Mufanechiya and Dhiomo, 2011.) which are:

(i) Individual level;

(ii) Institutional level; and

(iii) Societal level

(1) Individual level constraints: These are constraints that directly affect the person's ability to function fully as a human being and in relation to his/her quality as a leader or manager.

These include: Illiteracy or lack of education that prevents women from holding leadership positions. Women often drop out before completing secondary schooling. They lack specialized, marketable skills and are automatically confined to low level jobs that do not offer leadership opportunities. In general, illiteracy excludes women all together from the labor market.

Stress and double day work resulting from the fact that they have to juggle family (child bearing and rearing, housekeeping, care giving to the elderly and sick, etc.) and work responsibilities.

The self-perceptions of women have also constrained women's rise to leadership and managerial positions. Many women sell themselves short and are not ambitious enough to

fight for managerial positions because of lack of professional confidence and low self-esteem. Many women are brought up and taught to be followers and not leaders.

Some Women are not pro-active and supportive of other women. In some cases, women do not want to work with other women, or to solve their problems (Badawi, 2007).

(2) Institutional Level Constraints:

Many African countries are signatories to many declarations and made commitments to make laws and regulations to achieve gender equality, including in public administration. However, most of these declarations have not been domesticated or even made into local laws. Where they have been made into laws, they are not enforced. Reservation clauses in declarations are used by governments to avoid addressing tough issues concerning women. Consequently, women continue to be subjected to sexual harassment and exploitation at work, unequal opportunities for securing jobs and promotions at leadership levels.

 Some public institutions still discriminate against women, even when women have equal experience and qualifications as men, they still face discrimination in promotion, and recognition. Institutional cultures present constraints to advancement of women to high level leadership and managerial positions. For example, job advertisements for managerial positions require many years of "continuous" experience. Some women take time off during their career life to raise children, or to care for the needy in families. They are automatically disqualified. Meetings are held late into the night or over evening drinks and on golf courses.

These practices keep out women from participating in leadership and decision-making. Men continue to dominate leadership positions, and to make all decisions, while women have been relegated to being companions and backstage supporters to men.

In a similar vein, another factor that impedes the configuration of women as leaders in the labor market in Nigeria is the impact of the Nigerian political system, particularly the lack of stable government and robust labour policies (Mordi and Mmieh, 2009). It can be argued that various governments have had a variety of political economic agendas. Since

independence in 1960, Nigeria has fluctuated between the democratic and military forms of government, with the latter being in existence for a total of 28 out of 44 regimes of government. One consequence of frequent change of government is the lack of sustained labor policies. However, these policies were often changed due to the frequency with which military governments were overthrown or changed. On the whole, these factors affect the nature of careers and the factors that aid or impede the career aspirations of females (Mordi, 2011).

Additionally, men can easily abandon jobs that are not convenient or are less fulfilling, and can leave the home and family anytime they get a better job elsewhere, to seek for comfort and greener pastures beyond the reach of their wives. A good number of the Nigerian women do not enjoy such freedom because of family and marital bonds. For example, a man can decide to take up a lucrative appointment without getting complaint from the wife, yet most of them will not allow their wives to do likewise without complaining and sometimes even the risk of the marriage getting into deep trouble. Instead, women are often told to choose between the job and the family. It is lugubrious that Nigerian women are being treated as less important beings in society and held in low esteem, irrespective of their accelerating statuses in cultural workplace.

(3) Societal level constraints:

Society plays a critical role in preparing women for leadership and managerial positions. But many beliefs, cultures, practices in the society still pose constraints. For instance, there exists cultural belief that tends to prohibit women in menstruation from accessing anywhere near river and lake as it was believed that they would provoke the anger of the river deity, and consequently affect the lake's productivity (LVFRP/SEDAWOG, 2000; Ukeje, 2004). These prevailing culturally imposed gender inequities in African communities diminish greatly women's' efficiency of labour as well as limiting them from reaching the top echelon both within the workplace and within the society. In other words, rules, behaviour codes, cultures of societies subjugate women.

Aside this, there are also the issues of women not supporting fellow women. It is alleged that women in general are not pro-active in supporting women leaders or leadership development initiatives.

Women are socially vulnerable and are subjected to violence, trafficking, early marriages, and denied education as a "girl-child" at early age (Mufanechiya and Dhiomo 2011; Esere, 2001).

Lewin's Forces Model of Women in Leadership Positions

Despite the successes of women in the last few decades, they still hold fewer top leadership positions than men in business, politics, non-profit organizations(Kamiski and Yakura, 2008; Eagly and Carli, 2007,) and at the same time do not receive the same pay with men for performing the same task.

Findings have revealed the factors that contribute to this phenomenon like bias in recruitment, promotion, unfavourable policies etc. (Komaki, 2007; Perry, David-Blake and Kulik, 1994).However, there is no platform where these finding can be integrated into a model for better explanation and understanding the state of women's' leadership.

The major telnets of Lewin's (1947) theory was built on the purpose to improve social conditions and solve social conflict. Lewin uses the concept of a quasi-stationary equilibrium to describe the status quo. The implication of this is that it is not completely static, but rather remains balanced between the opposing forces. The major task in Lewin's model is to bring out the factors or forces that brought about the situation into its current position. In a bid to do this, two things need to be done. First, we need to identify both forces that support change (i.e. advancement for women) and two; we need to also identify forces that reject change (i.e. those factors that restrain women's advancement). Repertoires of such forces have already been identified in the literatures– but typically focus on a few of these at a time. Integrating the various supports and limitations into a model has at least three advantages:

1. It provides a framework for a comprehensive understanding of the lived experiences of women in leadership positions.

2. Combining them into one model allows for the integration of the present findings in the leadership/career literature so that we begin to ask questions such as which forces are the most significant, and how can we change these forces to create labor organizations that are supportive of women and women's leadership.

3. It will help in providing framework of understanding the phenomenon and the relative approach to solve the problem.

Lewin's attention on this model is on a field of analysis or environment in which the individual lives. He believes that the status quo is determined by a set of supporting and restraining forces. To him, a change in behavior is predicted by a change in the relative strength of the forces.

Applying this approach to women in leadership positions, will seek to identify the forces that support and restrain women's advancement in the organization, the implication of this approach is that individuals' achievement in their career is a result not only of their own expertise, skills, and ambition, but also of the supporting and restraining forces in their fields of action. Thus, even highly talented and driven women may not achieve their leadership goals if they are working in an environment in which opposing forces are significantly more than supporting forces.

Additionally, individual woman may experience support at some levels and opposition at others. The sources of support and opposition may change over the course of a women's career as a leader. For example, it is common for female leader to be less active in the union while her children are still young, and to become conspicuously more active when her children have grown up.

2.5.1 Male Attitudes

Androcentrism (i.e. a world view which is male centered) favours men and honours "men and the male principles above women and the female" (Shakeshaft, 1987). This produces an acceptance that male is superior and female is inferior, meaning that female qualities are undervalued. This masculine value system, together with the socialization process of

males and females results in sex discrimination, which is often associated with negative attitudes towards women (Ngan, 2011).

A countless number of studies claim that men's antipathy to hiring women is a major obstacle to female entrance and advancement in educational leadership (Phendla, 2009; Schmuck, 1995; Shakeshaft, 1993). For Adler (1983), organizations largely created by men, have rules of conduct based on experience acquired through male socialization. As a result, men appear to be more capable of developing an instinct for organizational politics than do women. Adler, (1983) further contends that one reason why male managers limit the number of female managers is simply because they do not want more competition. The extent to which men are able to achieve this is a function of their power and authority.

In addition, the perception of male privilege resulting from a patriarchal culture and the socialization process creates "internal barriers" for women such as lack of confidence Brown, Vali, 2010; Akao, 2008) and lack of motivation or aspiration (Mitroussi and Mitroussi, 2009; Phendla, 2009). There is no doubt that male prejudice towards women perpetuates sex discrimination and impedes women's progress. It is important to bear in mind that patriarchy exists not only in the indigenous culture but is present at the organizational level as well.

Furthermore, discriminatory treatment of women occurs because people typically hold different stereotypes about women than about men. Stereotypes reflect people's assumptions that individuals who share membership in some social group are also likely to share common characteristics. In the case of gender stereotypes, there is cross-cultural consensus about what characteristics are thought to distinguish men and women. In one study, across 30 different countries, people considered men to possess traits such as competitiveness, assertiveness, competence, whereas women were considered kinder, warmer, more supportive, and gentler (Newport, 2001; Williams and Best, 1990a). The constellations of traits that people associate with women are thought to be highly communal and to reflect a concern with the needs and feelings of others. In contrast, the constellations of traits that people associate with men reflect the belief that men are more agentic and status-asserting (Spence and Buckner, 2000; Hall and Carter, 1999).

In other way, explaining male attitudes towards women in leadership positions, literatures provide additional evidence that people credit men with higher levels of agency and competence. Indeed, people recognize agentic behavior more quickly when the behavior is exhibited by men than by women (Scott and Brown, 2006). In addition, research has revealed a double standard in the evaluation of men and women. A number of studies, for example, have shown that when participants are asked to indicate what level of performance would be necessary to conclude that someone had a high level of ability at some task, the performance standards are set higher for women than for men (Biernat and Kobrynowicz 1997; Foschi, 1996). The clearest evidence showing male favoritism in perceived competence comes from experimental studies where gender differences in performance or are manipulated to be identical or no information about performance is given. College students asked to evaluate the intelligence, general competence, and academic performance of male and female college students solely on the basis of photographs reported higher estimates for men than women (Rashotte and Webster, 2004).

In addition, other studies have shown that female managers (Heilman and Okimoto, 2007; Heilman, Block, and Martell, 1995) and undergraduates (Carli, 1990) are evaluated less favorably than their male counterparts for the same level of performance. Moreover, when participants read about mixed-gender dyads that performed poorly at a management task, they attributed the failure to the woman more than to the man (Haynes and Lawrence, 2012). Similarly, research has documented that for women to receive comparable evaluations to men, participants must be given substantial evidence of female superiority, such as being told that a woman outperformed men on a standardized test (Wood, and Worchel, 1996; Foschi, Sigerson and Lebesis, 1995; Shackelford,; Ford, and Ford, 1986; Wood and Karten, 1986). For example, when participants read about a work team composed of a man and a woman who had created a successful investment portfolio, they assumed the man had been the primary contributor to the task unless given clear evidence that the woman had made unique contributions to the project or that she had a history of exceptional past performance (Heilman and Haynes, 2005).

In one study, college students assigned to mixed-gender groups worked on a survival exercise in which they were asked to identify whom they believed was the most expert member of their group. Group members chose men more often than women, even though there were no actual gender differences in expertise, and members showed more accuracy in identifying the most expert member when that member was a man, rather than a woman (Thomas-Hunt and Phillips, 2004). In fact, in this study, the more expert the women were, the less expert they were perceived to be.

Likewise, in studies of military cadets (Boldry, Wood, and Kashy, 2001) and college students (Wood and Karten, 1986), men received higher performance evaluations than women, in spite of an absence of objective gender differences in performance. Similar results have been found in research on the evaluation of leaders: A meta-analysis revealed that for comparable levels of performance, female leaders overall receive lower evaluations of competence than male leaders (Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky, 1992). Just as men are perceived to be more competent than women, women are perceived to be more communal than men (Bosak, Sczesny, and Eagly, 2008; Deaux and Kite, 1993). But the stereotype about female communion is not merely a description of how women are thought to be, but also a demand for women to be especially concerned with the needs of others.

Barriers of Women's' Career advancement

Researchers and practitioners have ascribed many of the problems recounted by women in the leadership positions to the "gendered" society (Kimmel, 2004; Alvesson and Billing, 1997; Buzzanell, 1995; Witmer, 1995 Golombok and Fivush, 1994; Kanter, 1993 Acker, 1992; Brown and Gilligan, 1992). In a gendered society, gender stereotypes as well as gender socialization knowingly and unknowingly have an impact on every component of the society, including individuals, families, education (e.g., higher education), and the workplace Ropers-Huilman, 2003; Hearn, 2001;Curry, 2000; Sandler and Valian, 1998; Johnsrud and Heck, 1994; Jones, 1993; Johnsrud, 1991;; Mark, 1981;). For women to survive and thrive in the traditional male field of higher education administration, they must first prepare themselves at the level of individual (Tiao, 2006).

There are two major groups of barrier that women face in their journey to top managerial positions:

(a) Individual Barrier

(b) Professional Barrier

Individual barriers will be defined as obstacles or conflicts that women in leadership positions experience at the personal level. Personal barriers reported by women in leadership positions can also be divided into these two sub-groups:

(1) Psychological and,

(2) Family-related barriers.

Nearly all of these personal barriers are directly or indirectly related to the polarized value systems and gender roles of men and women in the society. Traditionally, "being a man" requires assertion, separation, control of the environment, competition, and rationality, while "being a woman" demands meekness, connection, cooperation, compassion, and sensitivity (Kimmel, 2004; Golombok and Fivush, 1994; Marshall, 1984; Gilligan, 1982). While being able to compete and control are not only common but also essential for men, women usually feel less comfortable with competition and separation. According to Harter (1993), it was revealed that women have more difficulty developing self-confidence and leadership tone, focusing on the big picture instead of the details, and getting ready for ongoing planning and negotiation.

Correspondingly, in the words of Witmer (1995), the fear of success and fear of failure are "two sides of the same coin". She believed that since women are not socialized to compete and stand out (positively or negatively); they have more to deal with, win or lose. Since women usually take their jobs more seriously than men, they frequently have difficulty separating failure of a task from failure as a person.

In a study conducted by Flanagan (2002), he interviewed eight women leaders who challenged the status quo for leading differently; they admitted experiencing fear when they are strongly resisted.

According to Dietz (1997), senior women leaders interviewed testified to the the issue of isolation for women occupying top leadership positions as well. In fact, gender stereotypes can negatively affect both men and women. For instance, while women are expected to be the source of strength for successful men, acting as catalysts for successful women is not an easy task for men at al. In fact, intelligent and successful wives today are often perceived more as a threat than a blessing. Moreover, as part of the socialization process, women generally feel obligated to assume more family responsibilities than men. Although women today can pursue their own careers, they are still expected to put their families first because no matter how good they are in the workplace, home still remains "their" primary job (Kimmel, 2004; Witmer, 1995; Jones, 1993; Mark, 1981)

Professional Barrier to Women's' Career Advancement

Several literatures have recorded different categories of professional barriers ranging from structural barriers like sex segregation in occupations, promotions, positions, to earnings among others. In their study in Duncan University, Konrad and Pfeffer (1991) examined the hiring patterns in which the findings revealed that some positions in colleges and universities were segregated by gender. They also found that women were more likely to be hired for lower-paying and lower-level jobs. Several scholars among (Kulis, 1997; Johnsrud amd Heck, 1994; Johnsrud, 1991; Sagaria, 1988; Tinsley, 1986) also reported gender stratification of college and university workers as well (Tiao, 2006).

In another way, Moore (1984) in his national study on male and female administrators in four year institutions reported that "Women appear to be able to build careers in some job paths more easily than in others, that they were more likely to be "pocketed" in certain positions, and that they were less likely to be promoted as principal administrators. Similarly, Tinsley (1986) established that majority of the women administrators in higher education were still engaging in "women's work" and that they were "far more likely to be assistants to, assistants, or associates than they were to be registrars, deans directors, provosts, or presidents".

Furthermore, it was established in the findings of a three-year study on men and women administrators in a large research university that women gained significantly less return from administrative promotions than men administrators did (Johnsrud 1991). A further analysis of the same data set by Johnsrud and Heck (1994) showed that gender had both an initial and a subsequent negative influence on the status and responsibility of employees even though females in the study had equivalent educational qualification and more experience than their male counterparts. They handled measurably more tasks with significantly lower salaries. To make matters worse, the stratification and wage gap was perpetuated and widened over time. Many women executives interviewed by Thompson-Stacy (1995) in her dissertation study also reported being paid less than men for similar work (Tiao, 2006).

In a study conducted by Collins (1998), it was revealed that another potential barrier for women was affirmative action. Although affirmative action was often cited as a remedy for unequal employment opportunity, but Collins found that the implementation of affirmative action could have both positive and negative impact on women. Precisely, women will be viewed as either a "token" hire or as a qualified, ideal selection depending on whether they were hired under the protection of affirmative action or not.

In furtherance, Sandler (1986) submitted that conflict of women's social and professional roles produced problems for women as well. For instance, the "double bind" refers to the dilemma of having to fulfill the traditional masculine image of serving as a good leader and the image of being a good woman (Curry, 2000; Tedrow and Rhoads, 1998; Jones, 1993; Sturnick, 1991).

In another way round, female's ability to lead was questioned if she did not follow the male pattern of leadership. On the other hand, her leadership was criticized and resisted if her behaviors contradicted with the traditional model of a nice, good, virtuous woman (Wajcman, 1998; Jablonski, 1996; Sandler, 1986). While male leaders can simply "be themselves" and easily establish their legitimacy, female leaders have to struggle between two incompatible roles and find a way to balance skillfully between them. For instance, Cline (1996) conducted an interview with six female vice presidents. All of them

expressed frustration owing to the fact that they received totally opposite feedback when exerting similar behaviors as their male counterparts. For example, they reported that they witnessed men being praised and rewarded for being assertive but got criticisms for their being "pushy" or "bitchy."

Another professional barrier against women is the one that emerged from the struggle over power and status between men and women. This was explicated in Stoke's study (1984) where he selected 23 possible barriers being reported in the literature and asked 240 women administrators working in nine Florida universities to identify which ones they had encountered. The result was amazing, of the 168 women (70%) who responded, half or more of them had experienced19 of the 23 barriers. Out of the 19 barriers, four were experienced by more than 80% of the respondents. The top four barriers were less access to power (89%), exclusion from informal networks (87%), having to work twice as hard (87%), and difficulties in receiving recognition (81%).

In terms of frequency, the two most regularly experienced barriers were having to work twice as hard and less access to power. With less access to power, information, and recognition or resources, these women felt they had to work much harder to be effective and to survive. In a similar vein, Kanter (1993) documented how women were excluded from informal networks after entering managerial positions, how men in power did not feel at ease dealing with women, and how existing managers' homosocial reproduction can place a negative effect on women. The exclusion of women from the old boys' networks means that they have to look for other means to connect with those at the helms of power to obtain the resources and essential supports they are in need of (Tiao, 2006).

Religion as a Barrier to Womens' Advancement into Leadership Positions

It has been observed that (religion) is one of the main reasons for discouraging women from participating in politics, and the few who have participated are sometimes discredited as women of low morals, who cannot but compromise their reputations. The exclusion of women from decision-making is a common practice (in Nigeria) women are hardly involved or represented in community institutions and organs where decisions that affect

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the community are taken. Reasons for the exclusion are very much linked to the perceived psychological deficiencies of women. Women who attempted to contest for leadership positions were blackmailed and discredited, using religion as justification (International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, 2005). Women are considered by many religions and cultures as being so feeble in mind and body that they cannot be entrusted with the leadership and governance of their people; in India, subjection was a cardinal principle. Day and night women were held by their protectors in a state of dependence. The rule of inheritance was agnatic, that is, descent traced through males to the exclusion of females. Women are never allowed to participate in any political role let alone for an office (Jamal, 2005). This tradition did not help women to empower themselves socially, economically, and most definitely politically, but for many have succeeded in keeping women in the background of events, especially where leadership and political participation are concerned (Badawi, 2007).

2.6 Women Family Lives and Career Advancement

One of the hot topics in the gender literature is the tightrope that women walk in an effort to successfully balance their work and family lives. As women have joined the workforce and climbed into higher positions of influence, particularly in Western societies, they have increasingly been beset with mastering the task of wearing multiple hats at the same time (Amanda, 2008). Therefore, for women who want both a career and a family, balancing these two priorities becomes their biggest personal challenge (Tiao, 2006; Rosynsky, 2002; O'Laughlin and Bischoff, 2001; Wilking, 2001; Lowery, and Arnold, 2000; Thompson and Beauvais, 2000;; Clark and Caffarella, 1999; Bruckner, 1998; Harris, Zakery, 1991). Furthermore, the most well documented pressures women experience in balancing work and family are overload and conflict due to multiple roles. They have too much work to do and too little time to do it (Lewis and Cooper, 1987). They have to look after their family, especially any children, do housework, make a living and take part in community activities. Balancing their work and family makes the burden very heavy.

Similarly, conventional wisdom emphasizes how women are overburdened and often prefer not to move up the career ladder. However, Moore and Sagaria, 1986; Sagaria,

(1988) did not buy into this notion. Based on two large-scale survey studies on women administrators, the study revealed that many women administrators were not only willing to move geographically but also expected such a move for career advancement. Regardless of possible negative consequences inherent in the advancement, the 84 senior women administrators and faculty leaders interviewed by Zakery (1991) in his study still aspired to higher positions. Similarly, many of the women in Walton and McDade's (2001) study carried out also said they were interested in becoming the president of the college. However, Watkins, Herrin, and McDonald (1998) and Patton (1990) submitted in their studies that not all women have the luxury of relocation for career advancement. Such geographic immobility can lead to limited bargaining power, limited job market and career choices, lower salaries, and infrequent promotions. Moving the whole family only for the sake of the wife's advancement is still culturally less acceptable in society and, thus, poses a great obstacle impeding women's career advancement (Touchton, Shavlik, and Davis, 1991).

Women in professional careers have several options when deciding whether, when and to what degree they embrace family roles. An increasing number appear to be delaying marriage and child bearing, stay single or are divorced or widowed to build a professional life (U.S Census Bureau, 2002), there is controversy about the wisdom of this decision (Shakeshaft, 1987).

On one hand, adopting a greater family role might lead to less career involvement for women (Marshal, 1995). In a similar vein, Shakeshaft (1987) regards home and family responsibilities as barriers for female administrators in two ways. On the one hand, a woman leader must effectively fulfill all her tasks. On the other, she must contend with the male's erroneous beliefs in the workplace that she will neither succeed in managing the balancing act nor is such an attempt appropriate for her.

In other way, delaying marriage and children increases the likelihood that these women will never marry and or have children (Hewlette, 2002), because marrying and having children are vital components of the life script of most professional women (Marshall, 1995). Valentine (1995) asserts that "childbearing, childrearing and household

management play major roles in women's lives and pose dilemmas in trying to fulfill career goals and to maintain family harmony" (p. 350). Many are looking for ways to successfully integrate work and home. Professional women who choose to marry and have children find it difficult to create a harmonious life in which they can successfully manage both work and family responsibilities (Eagly and Karau 2002). In Nigeria, the society and workplace is predominantly male-dominated, consequently the gendering of the workplace is still prevalent (Mordi et al., 2010). It would appear the current workplace policies appear to favor men, for this reason, women engaging in traditional male occupation tend to find a lot of challenges in balancing work and family duties (Mordi et al, 2011).

Even some in American society still criticize "women who seek a family life and a successful career" as their professional ambitions are not considered fully feminine (Dean et al., 2009, p. 241). As a result, academic women with a family quickly learn to build a wall separating their personal and professional lives to minimize cultural penalties for holding multiple roles, yet thereby also diminishing the potential for achieving any real integration or balance of the two (Dean et al., 2009, p. 242).

Research works on women show that some women choose not to seek leadership positions because of the perceived stress caused by a conflict of roles (Mitroussi and Mitroussi, 2009). The women were worried about balancing the demands of their job against those of their family. Aside this, some new mothers 'try to do it all', continuing to work long hours in their professional careers, while simultaneously investing heavily in their family careers. Others wind up in the so called 'Mommy Track' (yhat is, offering of a flexible working hours and generous maternity leave to women but not men in dual-career marriages to ameliorate the pressures of family and work) moderating their ultimate career aspirations in order to raise their children (Udegbe, 2004). Some choose to drop out of the workforce temporarily or permanently. Some choose to work part-time in their professional occupations reduction in work hours is cited by work-family advocates as a desirable option to facilitate work and family harmony especially for mothers with young children. Studies also show that the utilization of part time work, especially for women is

growing. This work is associated with lower work to family interference, better time management ability and improved life satisfaction. However, most professional women do not take advantage of part-time option because the costs in the form of reduced compensation, marginalization on the job, and fewer career advancement opportunities are perceived to be too great. Generally, part-time jobs are lower status jobs with less pay and fewer career opportunities (Yukl, 2006).

According to a study carried out by (Gerdes, 2003; Rosnsky, 2002; Gatteau, 2000; Nelson and Burke, 2000; Harter, 1993), it was revealed that given the huge demands placed upon women leaders, they were more likely to suffer from "mommy guilt," marital instability, health problems, role conflicts and stress unless they have reliable and quality backing and supports systems Tiao, 2006; Yusuf, 1995;).

2.7 Perspectives on Women's Mobility in the Workplace: Glass Ceiling, Glass Wall

The strong tendency to favor men over women in filling high-level leadership positions has been referred to as the "glass ceiling. Adler (1996) maintained that in 1995, about 5% of nations had a female head of state (e.g., prime minister, president). The number of women in top executive positions) in large business organization is also very small, although it is gradually increasing (Catalyst, 2003; Powell and Graves, 2003 :). In other words, over the last three decades, there has been a measured rise in the numbers of highly skilled female professionals and managers across different industries, which has led to a gradual re-configuration of the top management positions from male towards female (Ismail and Ibrahim 2007). However, existing statistics show a high level of discrimination towards women moving into leadership positions.

The failure of women gaining entrance into the workforce and their failure to attain the highest management positions can be described as "glass ceiling" or "glass wall" (Tlaiss and Kauser 2010). The glass ceiling perspective denotes an impenetrable barrier which is invisible and prevents upward movement, while glass wall refers to a lateral movement into positions (Mordi et al, 2011).

The term glass ceiling also refers to situations where the advancement of a qualified person within the hierarchy of an organization is stopped at a lower level because of some form of discrimination, most commonly sexism or racism. This situation is referred to as a 'ceiling' as there is a limitation blocking upward advancement, and 'glass'(transparent) because the limitation is not immediately apparent and is normally an unwritten and unofficial policy. This invisible barrier continues to exist even though there are no explicit obstacles keeping minorities from acquiring advanced job positions-there are no advertisements that specifically say 'no minorities hired at this establishment', nor are there any formal orders that say 'minorities are not qualified' (largely due to the fact that equal employment opportunity laws forbid this kind of discrimination, and open admittance of it is career suicide), but they do lie beneath the surface.

When a company exercises this type of discrimination they typically look for the most plausible explanation they can find to justify their decision. Most often, this is done by citing qualities that are highly subjective or by retrospectively emphasizing/de-emphasizing specific qualities that gave the chosen candidate the edge.

The term 'glass ceiling' is distinguished from formal barriers to advancement, such as education or experience requirements. Mainly this invisible barrier seems to exist in more of the developing countries, in whose businesses this effect is highly 'visible'.

This barrier makes many women feel as they are not worthy enough to have these high-ranking positions, but also they feel as if their bosses do not take them seriously or actually see them as potential candidate. The term 'glass ceiling' has been thought to have first been used to refer to invisible barriers that impede the career advancement of women to describe how while on the surface there seemed to be a clear path of promotion, in actuality women seemed to hit a point which they seemed unable to progress beyond. A client's preference for men may also help explain why men hold the highest paying, most prestigious, and most powerful jobs in the occupational structure. This is referred to as occupational segregation. Men tend to be highly concentrated in the top professions, such as supervisors, managers, executives, and production operators. On the other hand, women tend to be over-represented in the lowest –ranking and lowest paid professions in the

workforce, such as secretaries, sales associates, teachers, nurses, and child care providers. As a result, occupations become 'sex typed' as either being specifically male or female jobs. This segregation of women into less-prestigious and lower-ranked jobs also decreases a woman's chance of being promoted, as well as the chance of having any type of power over others.

In furtherance of the above, a study by Cao and Hu (2007) on gender difference and occupational mobility revealed noticeable differences between men and women in occupational mobility. Women are more likely than men to undergo lateral or downward occupational changes, but are less likely to experience upward moves. The estimates also show that the public-sector restructuring sharply increases the probability of downward mobility, more for women than men. The analysis suggests that women's ability to buffer against market shocks and advance their careers is limited by a variety of cultural and institutional factors, such as societal expectation of gender role, unequal access to social networks and social protection and assistance, and discriminatory practices on the part of employers (Yueping, 2011).

Literatures have acknowledged that women experience less upward occupational mobility than men during their careers, and the gender difference in occupational mobility is a main source of the gender wage gap in market economies (Lazear 1995). The gender differences in occupational mobility are often attributed to the differences in men's and women's labor market behaviors due to the societal expectation that men are the breadwinner and women are the caretaker. Women encounter workforce interruptions associated with child bearing and rearing, and women's intermittent labor force participation may reduce their human capital investment and thereby their chances of occupational upgrading (Royalty 1998; Jones and Makepeace, 1996). Women also tend to choose different career patterns from men because they value certain aspects of jobs, such as flexible working hours due to their household responsibilities (Polachek, 1980).

Also, men are more likely than women to leave the firm if not promoted; in contrast, women are more likely to quit for family reasons (following husbands or taking care of children or elderly parents). Because workers who quit for economic reasons are more

likely than those who quit for non-economic reasons to search for new jobs while still employed, the former should have a higher probability of receiving a better job offer than the latter (Keith and McWilliams 1999). Scholars in the Feminist circle contend that due to gender segregation and domestic responsibilities, personal contacts and informal information are less accessible to women than men, thereby hampering women's labor market outcomes (Timeberlake, 2005; King and Manson, 2001). Studies revealed that men were more active than women in job search (Keith and McWilliams 1999), and that men also spent more time contacting friends and relatives than women for job search (Jones 1989). Due to the gender differences in search activity, voluntary job mobility may have a bigger positive effect on men's career advancement than women's (Yueping, 2011).

The gender bias of employers in promotion and hiring is another widely recognized institutional factor in women occupational mobility. Analysts have noticed that women have less chance of being promoted to higher job levels than men and termed the phenomenon the "glass ceiling" effect. Lazear and Rosen (1990) explain the employers' bias against women in promotion by the differences between men and women in the value of non-market activities. They argue that because women have a comparative advantage in non-market activities and consequently face greater work-family conflict than men, the optimal response on the part of an employer is to set tougher promotion criteria for women than men. Krowas (1993) and Jones and Makepeace (1996) find evidence supporting the "glass ceiling" argument.

An alternative explanation for the gender differences in upward mobility is the "dead-end" argument. In light of this argument, women are less likely to be found in higher level jobs than men because employers are reluctant to hire women for jobs that offer opportunities for promotion (Yueping, 2011).

2.8 Challenges of Women in Leadership Positions

According to the previous literatures, senior women leaders in higher education still operate in a male-dominated environment. The majority of senate members, registrars, administrators, and faculty leaders are males. Women in leadership positions are not only

in the minority, but also are often viewed as "outsiders." Therefore, they are challenged with complex institutional barriers of great magnitude and profundity (Tiao, 2006).

Any female advantage in leadership style might be offset by disadvantage that flows from prejudice and discrimination directed against women as leaders. Prejudice consists of unfair evaluation of a group of people based on stereotypical judgments of the group rather than the behavior or qualifications of its individual members. When people hold stereotypes about a group, they expect members of that group to possess characteristics and exhibit behavior consistent with those stereotypes. Perceivers then tacitly assimilate information to their gender-stereotypic expectations (Hippel, Sekaquaptewa, and Vargas 1995) and spontaneously fill in unknown details of others' behavior to conform to those expectations (Dunning and Sherman, 1997). These stereotypic inferences yield prejudice against individual group members when stereotypes about their group are incongruent with the attributes associated with success in certain classes of social roles. This incongruity tends to produce discrimination by lowering evaluation of such group members as potential or actual occupants of those roles. According to Eagly and Karau (2002), incongruity between expectations about women (that is, the female gender role) and expectations about leaders (i.e., leader roles) underlie prejudice against female leaders Heilman, 2001; Burgess and Borgida 1999). This explanation, based on Eagly's social role theory of sex differences and similarities in social behavior Eagly, Wood and Diekman, 2000 ; Eagly, 1987) asserts that the activation of beliefs about women and men by gender-related cues influences people to perceive individual women as communal but not very agentic and individual men as agentic but not very communal.

Consistent with role incongruity theory, stereotype research reveals that people do consider men to be more agentic than women and women to be more communal than men (Deaux and Kite 1993). Also, the communal qualities that people associate with women, such as warmth and selflessness, diverge from the agentic qualities, such as assertiveness and instrumentality, which people perceive as characteristic of successful leaders. In contrast, the predominantly agentic qualities that people associate with men are similar to the qualities perceived to be needed for success in high status occupations, which would

include most managerial occupations (Cejka and Eagly, 1999). Stereotypes about women and men, like other stereotypes of social groups, appear to be easily and automatically activated (Fiske, 1998). Although stereotypes are not necessarily activated or applied to bias judgments of individuals, many circumstances do favor both activation and application (Kunda and Spencer, 2003). Because such circumstances are common, we assume that, in general, perceptions of individual leaders reflect both beliefs about leaders and beliefs about gender. Therefore, it is likely that judgments of female leaders ordinarily manifest an amalgam of the communal traits associated with the female gender role and the agentic traits associated with leadership roles (Heilman, Block, and Martell, 1995).

The typical similarity of the male gender role and leader roles requires no such amalgamation. Ample evidence exists that managers (and undergraduate and graduate business students) link management ability with being male and possessing masculine characteristics (Powell, Butterfield and Parent, 2002; Schein, 2001). Also, nationally representative survey data reveal greater preference for male than female bosses, although this preference has been decreasing over time (Simmons, 2001). Because of doubts about women's leadership ability, they are generally held to a higher standard of competence than men are. For women to be considered as instrumentally competent as men, perceivers must be given clear evidence of women's greater ability or superior performance compared to their male counterparts (Biernat and Kobrynowicz, 1997; Foschi, 1996; Shackelford, Wood and Worchel, 1996; Wood and Karten 1986). According to Boldy et al (2001) as cited in Adebayo and Udegbe (2004) most traditional sex role stereotypes perceive women's roles as incompatible with leadership roles. In contrast, stereotypes are constructed in ways that make men's roles compatible with leadership roles.

In a study of gender stereotypes and evaluation of men and women on military training, Boldy et al (2001) observed that both female and male cadets considered men to have the motivation and leadership qualities necessary for effective performance. Women, on the other hand, were believed to possess more character traits, e.g., integrity and selflessness which were seen to impair effective military performance. Carli (2001) also noted that when women are perceived as competent as men, they are often seen as violating

prescriptive gender role norms that require them to be communal. Consequently, people, particularly males, often dislike females and reject their contributions. Furthermore, Tisdell (1993) observed that men are generally socialized for leadership roles and are authoritarian, while women are socialized to be supportive and caring.

These Western stereotypical views of leadership and power structure which are essentially male-dominated, monolithic and unidirectional have also been observed in African organizations (Sofola, 1998; Udegbe, 1998 Awe, 1992). Some researchers have furthered argued that these Western, stereotypical views of leadership are impositions on African societies by Western thoughts (Oyewumi and Ogbomo, 1997). Contrary to these Western views of using gender as a basis of ranking, Oyewumi (1997) contends that 'body-type was not the basis of social hierarchy: males and females were not ranked according to anatomic distinctions' in pre-colonial Nigeria. The relationship and ranking amongst females and males in pre-colonial Nigeria is more often than not determined by seniority based on age. This can either be by biological age or the order of marriage into a given lineage (Ogbomo, 1997). As a result of the pervasiveness of Western culture, modernization and urbanization, there is no doubt that gender has become a basis of ranking in present-day Nigerian society, such that men hold most managerial or executive positions in organizations, with females predominantly in subordinate and lower cadre jobs (Udegbe, 1996). Women are considered as poor investment because at some point, they will interrupt their careers to raise a family. Management also act on the fact that women's quit rates are higher than men's which would imply the risk of augmented cost in finding and training new employees. Thus organizations are reluctant in employing women for jobs that will require appreciable on-the-job training and have opportunities to move from entry to advanced levels of increased pay and status. As a result, women in management positions have to work twice as hard and do twice as good a job as men before they are recognized (Chow, 1995).

Harragans (1977) therefore opined that women who want to survive in an organization must learn the rule of game about competition and sexuality. Formal decision making and

power often remained in the hands of men; this male supremacy, according to Davies (1970) is not confined to the developing world, it appears to be an international problem.

Conversely, it is also good for us to understand the nuances in the nature of the experiences of women in leadership positions. Feminist scholars assume the situated nature of knowledge and recognize the importance of contextual variables in their research (Oleson, 2000). Congruent with this epistemological stance, Prindeville and Gomez (1999) emphasized the significant impact of place and historical context in the experience of women in leadership positions. For example, in a study conducted by Prindeville's (2002), one of the female Navajo leader who was interviewed expressed the view that women on her tribal council were highly respected and even held some advantages because of their gender status. Her experience was different from that of other female participants whose gender effectively barred them from certain aspects of top leadership position (Barkdull 2009).

Prindeville's (2002) work also opens our minds to the unique ways in which values that are regarded as universal in Native American communities are manifest differently in different tribal settings. For example, the value of role complementarity, in which gender roles are proscribed but not devalued because they are different (a functionalist perspective that all roles are necessary to the harmonious functioning of a community), is viewed as foundational to many traditional Native American cultures (e.g., Klein and Ackerman, 1995). Prindeville (2002) stated that this value was expressed in the Pueblo communities, where women were excluded from political office, as well in many other communities where women were not.

In a similar manner, (Straus and Valentino, 2003) maintained that in the more conservative Pueblo communities in which Prindeville carried out her research, women believed that they were greatly influential in affecting policy making by exercising informal power. Respect accorded to women's leadership "behind the scenes" was also identified in an intertribal urban setting in a Chicago's historical study of indigenous women leaders (Barkdull 2009)

2.8.1 Colonial Constraints of Women in Leadership

According to Berger and White, 1999; Coquetry-Vidrovitch, 1997; Cutrufelli, 1983, European colonization on Africa women reveals that colonialism and capitalism contributed to the further limitations and constraints for women in leadership.

Colonial education affected three key areas: colonial administration and services including tax collection, mining, finance, commercial enterprise, including farming enterprises, and Missionary activities including evangelization and the provision of western education itself (Allman, Geiger and Musissi, 2002; Berger and White, 1999; Ajayi, 1996). As colonial education became an organizing principle for social change within the different colonial territories, the colonizers introduced policies towards attainment of development. According to Albert Sarraut, the Minister of French Colonies in the 1920s; "the first effect of education is to improve the mass of indigenous workers, as well as the number of skills. It should moreover set free and rise above the masses of labourers the elites of collaborators who as technical staff, foremen or overseers, employed or commissioned by the management will make up the shortage of Europeans and satisfy the growing demands of the agricultural, industrial or commercial enterprises of colonization" (Suret-Canale, 1971, p. 380-81). Sarraut's statements stated earlier revealed that the education of African women was not seen as crucial to sustain colonial bureaucracy and commerce. In the same vein, the few African men who had benefited from missionary education in the early 19th century were enthusiastic about maintaining the status quo because they considered it a prerequisite for obtaining jobs in the different modernized sector of the economy and above all for joining new elite's class originated from the colonialists. Hence, during the colonial period, African women found their prominent traditional economic roles obliterated by the introduction of formal education, cash crops economics and male breadwinner among other things. As a result of the attraction created by the colonial wage economy, men commanded financial resources that exceeded that of the women. Economic disparities were created between men and women. The wage system also instituted a system of male breadwinners and female house makers. Importantly formal education widened the gap between females and males since the colonialists chose males

to acquire the education of the colonial governments. Thus the exclusion of women during the advent of formal schooling had a negative effect on their education and most importantly prohibited their participation in labour market.

This elimination of women from formal colonial institutions of governance, commerce and education explains the roots of women's constraints in leadership positions in Nigeria (Euphrates, 2004).

Women Leadership and Influence through Political Participation

Most academic literature on women's political participation in the developing world, rather than providing a specific analysis of parties, tends to take a more general approach, emphasizing women's roles in national legislatures or institutions of local governance, or their participation as 'quota women'. Amrita Basu (2005: 1) noted: 'Scholarship on women's political engagement has devoted a great deal of attention to the state, but much less and less nuanced attention to political parties'. This, she attributed to authors wanting to write about the successes of state-level women legislators or social movements, rather than the comparative lack of progress in women's participation in parties.

Feminist and party literature on women and the role they play in parties as institutions is largely limited to the study of advanced industrial nations Dahlerup and Leyenaar, 2013 ;Childs and Krook, 2012; Murray, 2012;; Childs and Cowley, 2011; Campbell, 2006). The way in which IPU in 1999, assessing progress four years after Beijing, highlighted parties as a critical area for change: 'It is parties that hold the key to change, in the drafting of programmes, in taking account of women's needs and of the impact of all kinds of action on their situation, in nominating candidates, in providing logistic support for election campaigns and in many other areas' (IPU, 1999: 32). The few studies of women's roles and participation within parties that have been produced by IDEA are of high analytic quality but are limited in their coverage of country contexts (focused mainly on Latin American cases – Llanos and Sample, 2008; Htun, 2002;).

On the other hand, the literature on gender quotas is expanding rapidly and is increasingly focusing on 'critical actors' (Childs and Krook, 2009), including parties and party leaders.

In the past it focused primarily on the question of whether women's greater presence in elected office led to their greater influence and propensity to promote women's interests more recently expanding to look at the conditions for substantive representation (Francheschet, Piscopo and Krook, 2012; Childs and Krook 2009; Celis et al., 2008).

Remarkably in recent years there is an increased focus in the literature on women's access to executive branch and party leadership positions. This is still a very recent and nascent body of research focusing on women occupying executive positions, which analyses women's access to and performance in cabinet and in head of government roles, and the impact of their achieving these positions (for instance Jalalzai, 2013; Krook and O'Brien 2012). The body of work, summarised by Waylen (2015), signals that as power and decision-making mostly resides in the executive branch it is not enough to get women into the legislative branch; and second that there has in fact been a considerable increase in women accessing executive branch positions in recent years although this varies considerably. For instance, in Latin America there have been a number of female presidents increasingly less from political families, or elite groups, such Dilma Rousseff in Brazil. Waylen (2015, citing Mueller et al., 2014), notes that pathways to executive office for women are not necessarily that different to men's experience, in terms of political capital or effectiveness. Recent research finds that the symbolic value of women's presence in leadership positions in the executive branch is important in shifting attitudes towards women's leadership (Alexander and Jalalzai, 2014). Despite women also increasingly being appointed to the 'hard' ministries, such as defence or finance, there continues to be more recurrent appointments to the 'soft' cabinet posts. Further, it is also clear that mechanisms for women's participation in parties do not guarantee voice, leadership or access to decision-making (Walsh, 2012; Francheschet and Piscopo; 2012, Araujo, 2010; Baldez, 2007; Beck, 2003; Waylen, 2000). Much depends on the way in which mechanisms to promote women's participation in parties such as candidate quotas affect political incentive structures.

Even where mandatory party quotas exist (e.g. Argentina since 1991), parties have been accused of filling these with inexperienced, elite or party-line women (Piscopo and

Francheschet, 2012; Walsh, 2012; Waylen, 2000). Walsh (2012) outlines a case in South Africa where the ANC adopted a voluntary gender quota which allowed the party to handpick women who would toe the party line. As a result the party centralized power further, and denied women the opportunity to advance women's rights while giving the impression that they were more committed to women by adopting a quota. The number of parties seems also be relevant in shaping prospects for political advancement of women for instance more parties in the system can reduce the number of women reaching higher positions (Dahlerup and Leyenaar, 2013).

The way in which formal rules and processes for the inclusion of women as party candidates can only go so far in altering established institutional norms, practices and values within parties. While it is important to understand women's involvement in formal political processes (Goetz, 2003; Goetz and Hassim, 2003), research suggests that informal processes are just as critical. Waylen (2014a), along with the Pathways research at the Institute of Development Studies (IDS) Tadros, 2014; Cornwall, 2007), points to the way in which informal institutions are critical in shaping women's prospects for political involvement. Thus, the 'old boys' network' approach to party politics can hinder women's access to voice and leadership just as much if not more than the lack of a quota for women candidates (Bjarnegard, 2013; Longwe, 2010; Ballington and Karam, 2005).

Women Leadership and Influence through Economic Empowerment

Women's empowerment is often measured in relation to control over household resources. Klugman and her colleagues point to a range of studies confirming the importance of control of resources for 'greater self-esteem, respect from other family members, economic opportunities, mobility outside of the home, and decision-making power' (Klugman, 2014: 131). Control of resources can enable women to renegotiate the conjugal contract by altering their 'fall-back position'. This can have powerful implications for their ability to engage in household decision-making, their willingness to tolerate domestic violence and their ability to engage in markets and public forums.

Overall, there is mixed evidence on whether control over assets means that women can exercise greater decision-making or influence over other household-related issues. In one extensive study of a microfinance programme in Uganda, Lakwo (2006) demonstrates empowerment gains beyond decision-making ability, including the ownership of household assets commonly owned by males (such as poultry), ability to manage financial resources (through bank account ownership) and improvements in social standing and mobility outside the household. In an extensive review of the evidence on gender equality and female empowerment, Dekker (2013: 5) finds evidence linking women's secure property rights to land, houses and other assets to their increased decision making power in the household. This can occur directly, as a result of independent asset ownership, or indirectly through increased income or production (Doss, 2005; Smith et al., 2003 cited in Klugman, 2014).

Across the literature surveyed, it is clear that access to and control of resources can create conflicts, predominantly within the home (Wrigley-Asante, 2012; Haile et al., 2012; Mayoux, 1997). Haile et al. (2012) argue that marital conflict can arise when men pressurise women to access microcredit loans. Wrigley-Asante (2012) also notes the potential for microfinance to drive marital conflict in Nigeria. This fits within a broader literature that acknowledges changes in household economic relations can lead to conflict, including an increase in domestic violence (Wrigley-Asante, 2012). When backlashes to women's empowerment occur, they may have a considerable influence on women's future decision-making and opinion within the household.

Women in Higher Education Management: The Nigerian Context

Education for women has not been easy in any region of the world. The accesses are so narrow that it would seem that they are almost impassable. Women bear the brunt of educational discrimination in the face of parental poverty. Equal opportunities for both male and female off-spring are non-existent. In some cultures, it is even taboo to educate female children because they are expected to be available for early marriage to elderly but affluent suitors. The money thus realized as bride-price and presented to in-laws is used for the education of the male siblings, since they are the ones to retain and propagate the

family name. By this practice, females' access to education is delayed in favour of their male siblings and sometimes it is completely ignored. World population figures as recorded by UNESCO in 1988 indicated that 63 per cent of illiterate persons were female. This further highlights the degree of discrimination against women's education.

By the middle of the first decade of the 20th century, a sense of awareness swept through a handful of women who felt there was the need for enlightened women to re-examine their goals and aspirations so that the need to move them to high management positions could be pursued. There is no avoiding the fact that the fastest and surest way to hold managerial positions in all walks of life, including higher institutions of learning, is through the attainment of a high level of education. The higher the level of education, the better the chances of reaching top management positions. Compared to men, only a very small percentage of women have acquired the level of education that is necessary for the attainment of management positions in higher education institutions and other areas of human endeavor.

Even then, these few who are armed with the requirements needed to move into managerial positions do not find it easy because of sexual identity. As expected, the male, who has come to see himself as the superior being, intellectually, mentally and physically, was not ready to hand over his (birthright) to this new breed of women on a platter of gold. They therefore set out to place obstacles to ensure that as far as possible, women were not allowed into the elite club of top level management. Most females, faced with uneducated parents, poor career guidance, early marriages and child-bearing, ignorance, poverty, sex discrimination among other things do not get the right education to prepare them for management careers. The few who, despite the above obstacles, do get the right kind of education to prepare them for a career in management have a whole new range of obstacles to overcome on their way to the top (Williams, 1993).

Universities, the apex of educational institutions, are able to provide skilled and professional personnel for the civil service, private sector organizations and business concerns. Thus they contribute in no small measure to the economic growth and political

re-shaping of nations. High level manpower in most countries is often initially developed in the universities.

However university education has always favoured men. The numbers of women who hold academic and administrative positions in universities are fewer than their male counterparts. This has therefore resulted in the small number of women who eventually occupy policy-making positions in the universities. The trend has recently become of great concern to many women who are stirring that women should be given the opportunity to contribute meaningfully to development and to be part of policy-making bodies. (Williams, 1993).

Decision-making is one area of management which easily arouses criticism because of its wide-ranging impact. This is why problem identification, problem analysis and the techniques of problem-solving need to be studied and up-dated on a daily basis. The special quality which distinguishes a competent woman manager in higher education institutions from the rest is the willingness to solve problems as they occur and the ability to anticipate where they may occur in the future. A complex aspect of management in general, this becomes much more complex in institutions of higher learning because the student body is at its post-formative stage. Therefore a careful study of the tradition of the institution is most helpful. Decision-making and implementation drive all management functions in institutions of higher learning.

Pathway to Women's view and influence in public life

Across the thematic and sub-thematic sections there has been significant variation in terms of the scope, quality and depth of the existing knowledge base. Some knowledge areas, such as democratic quotas, engage directly and explicitly with our research questions, and draw on an established empirical, theoretical and analytical discussion about empowerment as manifested through women's view and influence. Other areas, such as the material on microfinance, assets and labour market participation, while significant, remain mostly detached from the questions about how women's opinion, access to decision-making roles and leadership is supported beyond the household level. For its

part, the material on gender social accountability lacks analytical depth in its consideration of women's opinion and influence. This is associated with both the youth of the field and with a tendency – given the weight of grey literature – to abstain from a sufficiently critical view of social accountability mechanisms and strategies.

Significantly, the degree to which different sub-thematic literatures include analytical lines of enquiry that purposefully review inter-linkages with other thematic areas or disciplinary fields varies. For example, social action features strongly in the political literature and so overlaps with the social movements' literature. By contrast, consideration of the connections between women's political and economic power are rare. When they do feature, they tend to be based on normatively derived assumptions about the inter-linkages between political voice, economic autonomy and decision-making capacity and leadership roles, rather than on empirical testing. For its part, the consideration of empowerment in the economic literature is disassociated from women's political action. This is in spite of the more theoretical literature that posits that the individual capabilities that arise from women's economic autonomy are relevant for their political agency. The frequent failure to make connections between women's empowerment in different spheres in the literatures reviewed is notable not only in the lack of theoretical cross-fertilization, but also in authors making linkages between similar empirical findings. For example, there are similar findings across the social, political and economic literatures that increasing women's influence requires strengthening their participation in mainstream organizations and institutions, but that women's autonomous organizations are more likely to set and drive transformational agendas (Hallward-Driemeier, 2013 Cornwall and Goetz, 2005; Molyneux, 2001).

The literature on women's political participation most explicitly engages with questions of women's voice, leadership and influence. There is a robust and wide-ranging treatment of the merits of electoral quotas and a critical assessment of women's descriptive and substantive representation, including for advancing gender equality. This literature overlaps with, but has evolved in parallel to, the literature on political parties. Across both sub-thematic areas most of the literature focuses on developed democracies, but there is a

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significant and emerging body of work on Latin America and some South Asian countries. Linked to this there is a budding body of work on women's role in decision-making roles in the executive branch. There is also a growing, if more recent, body of academic and grey literature on Africa.

In the economical aspect of accessibility of women influence, empowerment measurements and indicators include decision-making and some proxies for opinion, but not for leadership. However, there are only a few empirical papers that measure changes in women's voice, agency or decision-making at the community or formal political institutions and fora, and there is little empirical evidence that women's economic participation has led to women's increased political participation in community or national-level politics. Though, there is an emerging body of literature examining the role of women's collective action around economic identities.

It is clear that formal political institutions, social and political activism and organizing around collective economic identity or interests all provide opportunities for women to discuss, articulate and publicly express their needs and demands. Women often organize around their practical interests, particularly in the case of social and economic mobilization at community or district levels. Women, usually elite, also come together to lobby for gender equality and to advance their strategic interests through national political processes, but this is not guaranteed through women's presence in formal political space. In addition, women remain under-represented in formal and informal decision-making roles.

Importantly, organizing with other women can itself build the capacity for voice, such as critical consciousness and confidence. Women's participation in small community groups set up around economic programmes such as cooperatives or self-help groups have created new or strengthened forms of social capital resulting in increased awareness of community politics, avenues to discuss community-related issues around social norms (such as gender-based violence), and contact with local officials. Women's access to finances (through microcredit or direct transfers, for example), productive assets (such as land, property, livestock), or participation in the labour market can lead to changes in women's

decision-making and bargaining power within the household. However such changes are mainly related to decisions in 'women's domain', such as small household expenditure items, education and health.

2.8.2 Selection Criteria/Procedure

The selection practices of an institution could be a limitation for women wishing to advance to senior positions. For instance, the pool from which candidates are drawn and the composition of the search committee may disadvantage women. Committees are usually composed of senior men. These senior men are often more concerned about the women's ability to fit in with the organization than they are about her skills, accomplishments and vision (Kaplan, 1994:68-69).

Moreover, women candidates are mostly dependent on recommendations from men, as few women administrators are available at the level where recommendations are influential. The scarcity of women at the upper echelon of power also means that the interviewing committee will most likely consists men only, putting women in the possible situation of being negatively judged by those of the opposite sex (Sutherland,1985).

In addition to the selection practices, the procedures and criteria used in promotions may present obstacles to women advancement. As early as 1979, Solderwell observed women in administration and noted that even with their competence, diligence, talents and contributions, women should not expect to be recognized and promoted. The promotion system for them sees to operate just below the highest levels of administration and decision making. There fewer competent and well qualified women managers who are accorded the highest positions than are available for executive leadership (Solderwell.1979). The position does not seem to have altered much even in the 20th and 21st century.

In some cases, criteria for promotion are either not clearly defined (Sutherland, 1985) or are poorly distributed to everyone or they 'operate in a fragmented, piecemeal and inappropriately confidential manner' (Brown, 1997:16)Women can be undervalued and deprived of employment opportunities because of "unfair selection or promotion

procedures" (Brown, 1997, p. 124). In Shein's (1985) view, one of the most potent ways in which culture embeds and perpetuates itself in an organization is how its members recruit, select and promote new members. Studies suggest that organisations tend to hire or promote those candidates who resemble themselves (Coleman, 2009; White, 2003 Schein, 1985). Where positions of authority are male dominated, women are under-represented in leadership.

The selection process that often favors men has been well studied (Sperandio, 2009 Eggins, 1997; Coleman, 1996; Dunlap and Schmuck, 1995). This unfairness can come from the hirer's concerns about possible economic losses for selecting women because they may require maternity leave and time for child-rearing (Coleman et al., 1998). Even in Western society, women experience the discriminatory attitude that "the job was too much for a woman with children..., although [this is] generally implied rather than stated overtly" (Coleman, 2009:14). Coleman (2009) suggests that selectors are influenced by the female stereotype which associates women with home and family, and that this link is difficult to break. According to Brown (1997), "women are judged informally and subjectively on the basis of their perceived suitability for a post or for promotion" by criteria such as age, relevance of experience, and ability to "fit in" (p. 114). The situation is similar for female academics in Australia where high quality work and commitment are not "recognized and rewarded" (Bagilhole, 2000:8 in White, 2003). As a result, Australian women academics are "ignored, excluded and regarded as 'light weight' and [receive] unequal treatment" (White, 2003:49). The selection process also disadvantages women through the assumption that their work efficiency can be limited by their fatigue and/or shortage of energy. All these prejudices and biases restrict women's opportunities to access and advance their career, which in turn discourages and demotivates them because they are afraid that a desire for something they believe they "can never have may lead to bitterness and unhappiness" (Shakeshaft, 1987, : 91). An unfair retirement policy in China also limits women's promotion opportunities and shortens their career life (Qiang, Han and Niu, 2009). In both Vietnam and China, women retire at 55, five years earlier than men. It is apparent that "deeply-embedded features of organizational culture are likely to

be major contributors to discrimination" (Brown, 1997,: 113) and affect women's access to leadership positions as well as their career progression.

Another promotion barrier for women is who makes the recommendation for promotion. Often the onus is on the head of department to make a recommendation. Ryder, 1996 and Brown, 1997 see this as a potential problem because frequently men are heads of departments, chances are that they would naturally put forward names of male administrators. In the case of a female manager, her chances of progress to the next level of management may be jeopardized.

Another hindrance is that women's suitability for a particular post or promotion is often based on whether they are considered to be committed to the job or on the perceived relevance of their experience.

The glass ceiling concept also ensures that women find it difficult to proceed beyond middle management level. The glass ceiling is a barrier so subtle that it is transparent yet so strong that it prevents women and minority groups from moving up in the management hierarchy. It allows women to see where they might go but stops them from getting there.

Lack of educational credentialing has also been cited as an inhibitor to women's progress.

Udegbe (1985) writes that in the formal sector, more female employees are usually at the lower paying positions than men. According to her, lower positions and benefits from women may be attributed to the lower level of relevant education which on itself may be largely due to the stress of having to perform their productive and reproductive roles simultaneously. The reproductive roles of women are in most cases constraints to their progress in formal employmen

2.9 Coping Strategies

As different experiences at work for men and women continue attracting the attention of researchers and practitioners, the question of what step women can take to handle such problems has been raised times without number. Given the lack of sufficient answers and way out of this critical matter of concern, this section will discuss the strategies through

which women in leadership positions use to confront problems created in a gendered working environment which is assumed will lead to success in their leadership positions.

2.9.1 Family and Work

Studies by Villadson and Tack (2000) focused on how women executives in public institutions juggled multiple families and career demands and emphasized that the coping/balancing strategies include compartmentalization which required clear boundaries between home and work time. Some women according to the study, made careful arrangements for their family duties and tried not to allow their work to spill over to their family life. Delegation and lowered housekeeping standards reduced women's burdens. At home, these women used all the support structures they could get, including hiring full-time maids to help them meet family's needs. However, one of the prices that women pay for success in the profession according to Hensel (1991) is to remain single or childless. He lamented that 'nearly one half of the women who stay in leadership positions either remain single or childless.

Also, Physical and intellectual or artistic escape," "friendships and social contacts," "vacations," "(putting off) publishing," and "continuing education" either helped women cope with the challenges or helped them set priorities and make it possible for balancing the roles. Similarly, Anglis (1990) obtained similar conclusions in his study of 14 women presidents and vice presidents and accentuated that the strategy of time management for combining personal obligations.

Furthermore, in their own studies, Shavlik, and Davis' (1991) also shared their strategies for overcoming personal barriers, they stated that the key to success was creativity during the negotiation process so that their needs and workable solutions were included in the final financial packages. These smart, busy, and experienced women knew that housing, entertainment staffing assistance for university events, live-in help for children or elderly parents, custodial assistance or a contract housekeeper, ground keeping, maintenance, or even involuntary separation were all possible issues that presidential candidates should

raise. To them, the most effective way to solve the problem of geographical immobility was to put it on the table and ask for the university's assistance.

Rosynsky (2002) in his study also highlighted the importance of effective negotiation, coupled with a very supportive "significant other" and family members, and establishing quality support networks for successful creation of balance between personal and professional obligations.

In addition, scholars and practitioners also shared their opinions about some strategies that women employed in coping with the barriers they encounter, such as choosing family-friendly environments (Marshall, 2002; Dietz, 1997) securing quality caregivers (Hensel, 1991); obtaining social support from mentors and networks (O'Laughlin and Bischoff, 2001); fostering positive attitudes to increase confidence (Ausejo, 1993); being assertive and speaking up (Dickson, 2000); making part-time arrangements for child care (Schreiber, 1998); and using time effectively, including time for stress relief (Jones, 1993).

Strategies for Overcoming Individual/Personal Barrier

In dealing with personal barriers, existing and aspiring women are advised to focus on improving their individual strengths and confidence. For instance, women leaders that participated in Dietz (1997), Gatteau (2000), and Flanagan's (2002) dissertation studies as well as those in Gerdes' (2003) survey emphasized that a future woman leader needs to know herself, be herself, do her best, recognize her limitations, view things positively, establish quality support systems, have confidence, use her strengths and advantages, and take assertive actions. This researcher found that while many opinion papers addressed the issue of combining personal and professional lives for women, very few empirical studies focused on strategies women leaders employed or should employ to overcome such barriers effectively.

Ausejo (1993) echoed what it takes for women to cope with the barriers, she stated that from early childhood women are not raised to be leaders, nor are they conditioned to develop the skills and attitudes that are needed to become effective administrators. Social

programming and the effects of sexism will not disappear overnight, but women who choose to succeed will see it as a challenge and will use it to their advantage (Tiao, 2006).

2.9.2 Strategies for Overcoming Professional Barriers

Gerdes (2003), highlighted that a woman leader need to know herself, be herself, do her best, recognize her limitations, view things positively, establish quality support system, have confidence, use her strengths and advantages, and take assertive actions.

According to Rosynsky (2002), executive women stressed the importance of knowing the culture of one's institution, adapt to the existing culture, and they specifically emphasized the strategy of taking the initiative to help their male counterparts feel comfortable working with them.

For women to blend into the predominantly male environment, as well as to avoid the double-bind barrier, the most common solution recorded in literature was the strategy of androgyny or balancing between role-related and gender-related expectations (Gerdes, 2003, Yoder 2001).   Many senior women administrators used the strategy of constant evaluation of the gender dynamics of different situations or events and application of gender knowledge and skills accordingly (Tedrow and Rhoads, 1999). They believed that women should use both status-enhancing and status-leveling strategies to be effective which include adopting team work, becoming exceptionally competent, conforming to group procedures first to accumulate credits before trying to influence and change the group. Other personal coping strategies include women develop confidence, have high aspirations, have a sense of humor, negotiate and establish support networks, obtain social support from mentors and networks (Marshall, 2002).

The scarcity of female mentors and the exclusion of women from the 'old boys' network perpetuates structural and organizational barriers which hinders women's leadership opportunities. An important component of work life is the informal network of communication within departments, institutions, and disciplines, which are often the source of important social, political, and intellectual exchange. Being included in them

may mean being aware of the latest developments in one's field, knowing the latest gossips (Simeon, 1987).

Professional networking may be a decisive vehicle to women's progress as it provides, among others, guidance role modeling and support (King, 1997). The professional network described by King was intended for women in similar fields or on similar career paths 'to make and share contacts'. Networks are especially valuable to women in senior positions as they serve as a place for information sharing, an avenue to learn about job opportunities and to get recommendations and references (King, 1997).

According to Rhodes (2003) women leaders focus on collaboration and socialization as an effective means of surviving in a male dominated environment. From her study, women leaders scheduled regular meetings with male colleagues in other to have regular contact with them, and that they also played sports with them. He highlighted that socialization and collaboration works best in terms of building relationships with them.

Other strategies used by women according to her include respect for others, understanding of people's different convictions, commitment to open communication and fairness- make sure no secret 'in' groups or favors given to certain individuals or cliques. Women also develop their own ways of leading, by being themselves. The importance of emotional intelligence, humor, thick skin, not taking oneself too seriously, letting go of negativity, not holding grudges, having the maturity to pick your battles, looking through the muck, and putting things in perspective to stay focused on what must be accomplished, accepting adversity as reality (Rhodes 2003).

Coping Mechanisms for Political Barrier

In an attempt to discuss the strategies being used by women in overcoming the barrier created by politics against their access in leadership position, the findings of Russo's (1986) study will be of an importance. She interviewed 117 women administrators, nearly one-third of the respondents were top-level leaders, while the rest were mid-level administrators. She found out that, in order of frequency, women administrators used expert, legitimate, information, reward, and referent power bases. Popular political

strategies used, in order of frequency, were alliance formation, visibility, networking, bargaining, coalition formation, mentoring, maneuverability, power plays, and immediate access to powerful people, control of information, compromise, and persuasion.

In her own view, Ropers-Huilman (1998) maintained that there is need for women leaders to know that power and leadership have multiple forms and strategies. For women to overcome the barriers in politics and become politically savvy, they must first know what kinds of power they possess and how they can use their influence skillfully and effectively.

In a similar vein, in a study conducted by Clemons (1998), Cline (1996), and Thompson-Stacy (1995), it was revealed from the interview with the top level women that for women to get over the barrier, they must be knowledgeable about the power bases on which they as well as other major players have relied. To break the barrier, women leaders must be willing to spend time identifying and analyzing the political situation and plan a strategy to confront their opponents, when necessary.

Also, from the study carried out by Bashaw and Nidiffer (2002), they examined women administrators' careers in higher education; they found three political strategies women leaders often used to overcome the barrier against their career advancement.

First, these senior women leaders were observant and formed strong male alliances to remain in power as well as to accomplish their goals. Second, they were highly skilled at fundraising. Last, they were flexible with a repertoire of different strategies that allowed them to maneuver around different roadblocks to, at least, partially achieve their goals.

In the same vein, English (2000) studied five women administrators and found that they dealt with the roadblocks by "assuming different roles, playing the game, and picking battles wisely".

In addition, other scholars and women leaders saw the art of negotiation as a fundamental strategy for women administrators to overcome political barriers as well.

For women leaders in Cline's (1996) study, the art of assessment and negotiation was part of their administrative life as in "when to take a step back, when to duck, and when to dodge".

In furtherance of the "battling strategies" that women used, Clemons (1998) conducted a study with 10 women leaders in a western state. She concluded her study with these women revealed the six commonly used negotiation strategies: "gathering information, delivering information, employing maneuvers, selecting battle weapons or tools, using allies/advisors, and using emotion". When devalued by the good old boys' networks as a woman with power, one of the women leaders in Dietz's (1997) study used male subordinate and supervisors to overcome this barrier, while another woman accepted men's "protection" to get needed information. Other solutions to the issue of devaluation of women's works proposed by scholars (Cook, 2001;Carli, 1998;) included documenting their achievements from the first day, taking credit for their ideas and successes, participating in and obtaining support from both female and mixed-gender networks, and working on interdepartmental projects to demonstrate ability as well as to increase visibility.

Other way out of the political obstacles included breaking through the informal information network by establishing one's own networking arenas, being political without losing one's integrity, being healthy and strong enough to bear a great amount of stress, learning to relax and be themselves (Harter, 1993), finding advocates and mentors Guteck, 2001; Growe and Montgomery, 1999;; Lynch, 1990), taking risks (Growe and Montgomery, 1999; Sturnick, 1999), creating individual as well as institutional ties and alliances (Growe & Montgomery, 1999), negotiation and delegation (Lynch, 1990), and promoting the status as well as legitimacy of women as leaders Yoder, 2001; Growe and Montgomery, 1999;).

Strategies for Dealing with Cultural Barrier

It is apparent that many of the men in both mid-level and senior management are struggling to accept women as peers on multiple levels of consciousness, and these

women "were never wholly part of the group and they were well aware of it" (Dietz 1997). As a result, executive women leaders in Dietz (1997), Rosynsky (2002), Thompson-Stacy (1995), and Zakery's (1991) dissertation studies all emphasized the importance of having the basic knowledge of the culture of one's institution and shared some strategies they employed to deal with this critical issue. Apart from using all possible and creative mentoring strategies to adapt to the existing culture, they especially emphasized the strategy of taking the initiative to help their male counterparts feel comfortable working with them. Women were advised to learn to relate to men on level at which they would feel comfortable.

On the other way round, for women to culturally overcome the barrier inherent in the predominantly male environment as well as to avoid the "double-bind" barrier, the most common coping strategy documented in the literature was the strategy of androgyny or balancing between role-related and gender-related expectations (Gerdes, 2003; Yoder, 2001; Tedrow and Rhoads, 1999; Twombly, 1999;).

Gerdes' (2003) study conducted on 84 senior women leaders and faculty members showed the importance of not being too feminine or too masculine. In support of this submission, Tedrow and Rhoads (1998, 1999) in their own opinion maintained that many senior women administrators in community colleges used the coping strategy of constant evaluation of gender dynamics of different situations and application of gender knowledge and skills in that respect.

In her own view, Harter (1993) shared her secrets of presidential success, she articulated the need for women to cultivate and demonstrate both feminine and masculine competencies. Similarly, Yoder (2001) asserted that the traditional male leadership style will bring women more problems than benefits. She believed that women should alternatively use both status-enhancing and status-leveling strategies to be effective. Her specific recommendations for women included being humorous and respectful of others, active listening, , adopting team work, conforming to group procedures first to accumulate credits before trying to influence and change the group, avoiding overbearing language, becoming exceptionally competent.

2.9.3 Strategies used to Ensure Equitable Representation in Leadership Positions

Worldwide, there are three policies that are applied to ensure women's representation in various structures, and Norris (2000) outlined these as rhetorical strategies, affirmative action programs, and positive discrimination strategies. Rhetorical strategies are an informal means of getting women to participate in decision-making structures articulated through political and other public speeches. Rhetorical strategies are often viewed as merely symbolic gestures made in order to appear politically correct and thus gain political mileage. However, rhetorical strategies may also represent the first step toward more substantive reforms if they encourage more women to be selected as parliamentary candidates (Norris, 2000). For instance, in Kenya a target of 30% representation of women in public service positions was set only through a presidential decree but has never been legalized. But this decree has resulted in many more women being nominated to parliament.

Unfortunately, rhetorical statements are made that may not always result in implementation and there are usually no mechanisms to ensure or enforce compliance. In the words of the chairperson to the Kenya women parliamentarians Association, "unless the 30 percent target is legalized, women will always remain short-changed" (Daily Nation, 2007). Rhetorical statements have to be followed up with concrete measures and women themselves should take up this challenge.

Affirmative action has been used in many countries to correct gender imbalances. According to Norris (2000), affirmative action programs are meritocratic policies that aim to achieve fairness in recruitment by removing practical barriers that disadvantage women. Affirmative action programs provide training (on public speaking for example), advisory group goals, financial assistance, and monitoring of outcomes. Gender quotas may fall into this category if they are advisory in nature.

Positive discrimination strategies on the other hand set mandatory quotas for the selection of candidates from certain social or political groups (Norris, 2000). Quotas can be set at

different levels (to indicate proportion of representation) or at different stages of the selection process. Quotas can also be binding and implemented by law or other internal party rules. Obviously when quotas are legally specified as part of the constitution, they are more likely to be implemented, and guarantee women (or other minority groups) inclusion in leadership. Some people view this process as unfair as some people are automatically included or excluded from recruitment processes exclusively on the basis of their gender or race. It has been argued that such strategies violate the principles of fairness and competence and contribute to a culture of laxity in women (Sadie, 2005).

2.9.4 Women's Activism

Activism by its definition, "implies acting upon, acting against, acting for causes and issues of social concern and not only personal concern" (Nair, 2004; p. 30). Activism is about social change and is a movement, or a struggle for a particular cause. As indicated by Nair (2004, p. 30), there is a desire to change systems that do not work, and a desire to create systems that do. To what extent have women's movements challenged barriers to women's access to leadership positions?

Women's activism, the world over, has been successful in creating the legal framework and constitutional changes that have enabled women to attain positions of power/leadership. There is no doubt that women have come a long way in challenging the status quo. African women in particular have made great achievements, especially in political activism given their cultural and social backgrounds. The growth in women's organizations in Africa since the 1990's, and their ability to organize locally and nationally to voice their concerns has been phenomenal (Tripp, 2003). The 1985 and 1995 UN Women's conferences in Nairobi and Beijing respectively, were key milestones for the women's movement internationally. When women's organizations started in Africa they centered on religious, cultural or welfare concerns. Popular activities were handicrafts, savings clubs, farming, and income generating activities. These organizations were tied to the single party states at the time, as women did not want to be at odds with government authorities and there was little or no advocacy to change the laws and policies that discriminated against women (Tripp, 2003).

Coping with Gender Stereotypes and Brehm's (1966) Psychological Reactance Theory

Strategies for coping with stereotypes vary from harmful threat responses to more compassionate reactance responses. Previous research on the impact of stereotypes on targets (women/men) generally demonstrated the malicious effects of stereotype threat, which could be defined as the apprehension that individuals feel when they are at risk of confirming a negative stereotype about their group (Aronson, Quinn, and Spencer, 1998). Stereotype threat demoralizes individuals' valuations of their abilities and results in decreased performance; it has been shown to play a germane role in the underperformance of minorities (Aronson, 1998; Steele and Aronson, 1995). Stereotype vulnerability effects have been demonstrated in the leadership domain. Davies (2005) established that experience of stereotypic commercials weakens women's leadership aspirations; however, exposing women with an identity safe environment eliminates this susceptibility. Additionally, Bergeron, Block and Echtenkamp (2006) revealed that men outstripped women on a managerial task, but only when such duty was a masculine sex role-typed task; this effect vanished on a task that is feminine sex role type.

Furthermore, women's' responses in identity safe environments (Davies, 2005) and feminine sex-typed tasks (Bergeron, 2006), stereotypes are not always met with vulnerability responses. Certainly, literature has shown that when gender stereotypes are explicitly revealed women sometimes respond by engaging in stereotype countering behaviors; that is to say, they demonstrate stereotype reactance (Kray, Thompson, and Galinsky, 2001).

Brehm's (1966) psychological reactance theory opines that people respond to perceived threats to their freedom (such as stereotyped expectations of inferiority) by trying to restate their freedom (engaging in counter stereotypical behavior). For example, Kray and Colleagues (2001) revealed that women blatantly presented with the gender and bargaining stereotype outperform men at the bargaining table. Additionally, Kray and Colleagues found that participants need to have sufficient power in order to react against the stereotype (Kray, Reb, Galinsky, and Thompson, 2004).

This distinction between stereotype vulnerability and stereotype reactance is similar to the distinction between stereotype assimilation and contrast (Stoddard, Kliengklom, and Ben-Zeev, 2003).

Assimilation effects refer to performance deficits resulting from stereotype threat. Contrast effects refer to increases in performance by individuals primed with negative stereotypes regarding their group. Stoddard et al (2003) examined the moderating role of the subtlety of the stereotype prime on women's desire to take on a leadership role. Specifically, they found that subtle stereotype activation induced assimilation such that women were less likely to desire a leadership position, whereas blatant stereotype activation resulted in a heightened desire to assume a leadership position (Hoyt and Blascovich 2007).

The Role of Efficacy in Regulating Stereotype Activation

Self-efficacy is a key construct derived from Bandura's social-cognitive theory (1986). It is defined as belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments (Bandura, 1997). Empirical studies produced consistent findings revealing that self-efficacy places a lot of influences on thought patterns, stress reactions, and coping; what people choose to do; their persistence in the face of difficulty; how much effort they put forth; and performance (Bandura and Wood, 1989; Hill, Smith, and Mann, 1987; Lent, Brown, and Larkin, 1987; Campbell and Hackett, 1986; Taylor, Locke, Lee, and Gist, 1984; Barling and Beattie, 1983; Bandura and Cervone, 1983;).

Self-efficacy has been shown to moderate responses to work-related stressors and is associated with the ways in which individual scope with stressors (Jex and Bliese, 1999; Stumpf, Brief, and Hartman, 1987). Individuals high in self-efficacy adopt a more problem-focused coping strategy; those lower in self-efficacy assume a more emotion-focused approach.

These approaches are not equally efficient; problem-focused coping is associated with more adaptive responses than emotion-focused coping (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984).

Construing stereotype activation as a potential stressor, reactions to stereotype activation seem likely to be moderated by levels of self-efficacy (Hoyt and Blascovich 2007).

Psychological Empowerment as a Strategy through which Women Cope with the Barrier

Empowerment could be defined as a process by which people gain control over their lives, democratic participation in the life of their community, and a critical understanding of their environment (Perkins and Zimmerman 1995). The definition highlights the essential connections between empowerment.

According to Zimmerman (1990) psychological empowerment is more than just a personality variable. It refers to the ability of individuals to cope but does not ignore ecological, cultural, and structural influences. Empowerment includes psychological variables, such as motivation, self-efficacy, and locus of control, but places them in ecological and cultural contexts. In line with the feminist perspective, Bond et al. (2000) emphasized that the process of women's empowerment involves gaining control over oneself, others, and resources and ecology (Serrano-Garcia and Bond, 1994; Trickett, 1994). Speer and Hughey (1995) described the principles of ecological community organization, such as interdependence, cycling of resources, adaptation, and succession, which they claimed are connected with empowerment and ecology (Speer and Hughey, 1995; Serrano-Garcia and Bond, 1994; Trickett, 1994) described the principles of ecological community organization, such as interdependence, cycling of resources, adaptation, and succession, which they claimed are connected with empowerment. Based on this, it can be assumed that psychological variables like motivation, locus of control etc. will increase women's sense of empowerment and sense of belonging to the community (Itzhaky 2003).

Faith and Spirituality as a Coping Strategy for Women in Leadership Position

Women in leadership positions usually encounter situations such as a hostile work environment, exclusion from social networks, and unwelcoming attitudes and behaviors that can produce adverse conditions in their leadership experiences. The resulting effect of this, such as isolation, alienation as well as lack of support networks could produce

emotional stress and pressures to individual wellbeing, including the ability to function effectively in professional roles (Estanek, 2006).

When these adverse situations persist, some women especially African American women in leadership positions take to faith in God to gain the strength to endure the adverse experiences that come from race, gender, and social class.

According to Walker (2009) in a study conducted among African American women in leadership positions, faith and spirituality have therefore been observed to have played a significant role for the women leaders, providing assurance that in the "midst of fear and confusion, amid turmoil and uncertainty, appropriate actions and responses will somehow be revealed" (Dym and Hutson, 2005). Regardless of their encountering with race, gender, and social class, women in leadership positions have drawn from an inner source of strength to endure and get over the oppressions played out by society by seeking to fulfill God's plan to lead.

Also, findings from a study by Thomas (2001) revealed that women leaders believed that personal connection to a higher power can enhance their effectiveness and provide a strategy for coping with difficulties that may come from the oppression (Thomas, 2001).

In summary, since leadership and management are still considered male territories, women today continue to be at a detrimental position and are still facing visible and invisible constraints that hinder them from achieving success easily. Most men are unaware of such differences because the higher education system was planned and upheld based on their strengths, ways of doing things and life style.

Finally, as for the strategies, what works best depends on the context and most research underscores a generalizable strategy. Thus, there is no single style that is successful, what is most important for every woman is to find a coping strategy that will be comfortable for her.

2.10 Theoretical Framework

This study was premised on three theoretical viewpoints which are the liberalist feminist theory, structuration theory and the Role theory.

2.10.1 Liberalist Feminist Theory

Liberalist Feminism is a variant of feminist theory that focuses on how women can achieve equality with men in the society. As a theory of gender inequality, it argues that equality with men can be achieved through an essential human capacity for reasoned moral agency, that the inequality experienced by women especially is a product of a sexist patterning of the division of labour, and that through the re-patterning of key institutions such as work and family, gender equality can be achieved (Benn, 1993; Lorber, 1994; Pateman, 1999; Schaeffer, 2001, Ritzer, 2011).

Liberal feminism has its roots in Serena Falls 1848 politically inspired document which she titled "Declaration of Sentiments". Falls' intention was to ensure that women's rights are included in the Declaration of Independence. Principally, it claimed for women the universal rights ascribed to all persons, under the natural law, on the basis of human capacity for reason and moral agency. She asserted that the denial of these rights – rights to happiness and self- actualization- by any law were "contrary to the great precepts of nature and of no… authority" and thus called for a change in societal customs and laws that will ensure women attain equality with men in society. She concluded that the denial of the rights by governments contravenes the natural law and is the tyrannical agenda out of multiple practices of sexism.

Liberal feminism rests on some beliefs;

(1) That human beings possess certain fundamental features –capacity for reason,

 moral agency and self-actualization

(2) The exercise of these capacities can be secured through legal recognition of universal rights

(3) The inequalities between men and women assigned to sex are social constructions having no basis in 'nature'

(4) Social change for equality can be produced by an organized appeal to a reasonable public and the use of the state.

In sociological discourse, contemporary liberal feminist theorists have in part attempted to define gender as a structure (Martin, 2004; Risman, 2004) rather than as social structure. According to Risman, gender is a highly complex structure; it models human behavior at three levels – individual, cultural/interactional, and institutional. As a result, Reisman sees the defining social effect of gender as "a socially constructed stratification system" (Reisman, 2004, 230). Following this line of argument, within liberal feminism discourse, gender is viewed as a system of stratification that produces a gendered division of labor, a structuring of society into public and private domains, and a cultural dimension of sexist ideology.

In contemporary societies, the sexual division of labor according to liberal feminism divides production on the bases of gender, and spheres defined as "public" and "private". Women have the responsibility to oversee the private domain while men have the freedom to access public domain which is considered the center of true rewards. While women have entered and more are still entering the public arena preserved for men, increasingly, the spheres regularly intermingle in the life of women than men even though both domains are shaped by patriarchal ideology and sexism. Women's experience within the public spheres of education, politics, work and public space is constantly restricted by the existence and practice of discrimination, marginalization and harassment (Benokraitis 1997; Ridgeway, 1997). Conversely, within the private sphere, they are victims of a "double bind" situation; they undertake a "second shift" in a form of home and child care at the close of paid employment, a condition underpinned by the ideology of intensive mothering (Hochschild, 1989, 1997; Shelton, 2000).

The pressures experienced by women are a product of combined and multifaceted factors. This is a major focus of liberal feminism, to understand the interactions emanating from

such pressures. Because women's ability to compete in career and profession is hindered by expectations of private domain (Waldsfogel, 1997), the "ideal worker norms" of the public sphere (Williams, 2000), patterned along male working schedule increases the stress of domestic responsibilities on women. This reduces the resources and time required for crisis management in the private sphere – the home. Moreover, the sexist expectations to provide emotional support, care giving, and routine maintenance in the private domain by women is expected, solicited and demanded of them within the public sphere. These "womanly skills" are however usually tied to under-remunerated jobs that have been commoditized and marketed (Adkins, 1995; Pierce, 1995). The sexist division of labor, patterning of work and at home puts enormous economic pressure and risk on women thereby engendering "feminization of poverty" (Edin and Lein, 1997; K. Harris, 1996; Hays, 2003).

2.10.2. Role theory

Role theory posits that human behavior is guided by expectations held by both the individual and by other people. The expectations correspond to different roles individuals perform or enact in their daily lives, such as secretary, mother or friend. For instance, most people hold preconceived notions of the role expectations of a secretary which might include answering phones, making and managing appointments, filling paperwork and typing memos. These role expectations would not be expected of a professional soccer player. Individuals generally have and manage roles. Roles consist of a set of rules or norms that function as plans or blueprints to guide behavior. Roles specify what goals should be pursued, what tasks must be accomplished, and what performances are required in a given situation. Role theory holds that a substantial proportion of observable day-to-day social behavior is simply persons carrying out their roles, much as actors carry out their roles on the stage or ball players theirs on the field. Role theory also argues that to change behavior it is necessary to change roles; roles correspond to behavior and vice versa. In addition to heavily influencing behavior, roles influence beliefs and attitudes to correspond with their roles. For instance, someone overlooked for a promotion to a managerial position in a company may change their beliefs about the benefits of

management by convincing him/herself that they didn't want the additional responsibilities that would have accompanied the position. Many role theorists see role theory as one of the most compelling theories bridging individual behavior and social structure. Roles, which are in part dictated by social structure and in part by social interaction, guide the behavior of the individual. The individual, in turn, influences the norms, expectations and behaviors associated with roles.

Role theory includes the following propositions

1. People spend much of their lives participating as members of groups and organizations

2. Within these groups, people occupy distinct positions

3. Each of these positions entails a role, which is a set of functions performed by the person for the group

4. Groups often formalize role expectations as norms or even codified rules which in clued what rewards will result when roles are successfully performed and what punishments will result when roles are not successfully performed.

5. Individuals usually carry out their roles and perform in accordance with prevailing norms; in other words, role theory assumes that people are primarily conformists who try to live up to the norms that accompany their roles.

6. Group members check each individual's performance to determine whether it conforms to the norms; the anticipation that others will apply sanctions ensures role performance.

2.10.3 Structuration Theory

Structuration theory was advanced by Anthony Giddens (1984; 1989); its focus is on social practices, it is a theory of the relationship between agency and structure. It synthesizes polemic ideas about the sociological explanation of duality of human actions and social structures, social behaviors and social situations. The major elements of structuration theory are as follows; in the search for a sense of security, actors rationalize

their world. By rationalization, they develop routines that not only give actors a sense of security but enable them to deal efficiently with their social lives. Actors also have the motivation to act and this motivation involve wants and desires that prompt action. Rationalization and reflexivity are continuously involved in action; motivations are more appropriately thought of as potentials for the action.

Motivation provides the overall plan for action, but most of the human actions according to this theory are not subject to motivation. Rather human motivation is generally unconscious. There are two types of consciousness; discursive consciousness, which entails the ability to describe our actions in words, the practical consciousness which involves the actions that the actors take for granted, without being able to express in words what they are doing. This latter type of consciousness is the main concern of structuration theory because it reflects a primary interest in what is done rather than what is said. The focus on practical consciousness by this theory necessitated Giddens to focus on 'agency', that is what agents actually do. Giddens posited, "Agency concerns events of which an individual is a perpetrator… 'Whatever happened would not have happened if that individual had not intervened" (Giddens, 1984:9). Due to its emphasis on agency, agents are accorded great power; agents have the ability to make a difference in the social world; an actor ceases to be an agent if his/her capacity to wield power or make a difference is denied or becomes non-existent. Although there are constraints on actors, they still possess the capability to make choices and differences. Thus, rationally, power is prior to subjectivity because actions involve power or the ability of actors to alter situations.

The core of Structuration as a theoretical template is premised on the ideas of structure, system, duality structure. Structure implies " the structural properties {rules and resources}… the properties which make it possible for discernible similar social practices to exist across varying spans of time and space and which lend them systemic form" (Giddens, 1989:17). Rules and resources are the sources of structures; structures do not exist in time and space independently. Instead, social phenomena have the capacity to be structured. So "structures, only exists in and through the activities of human agents" (Giddens, 1989:256), it is not external to and coercive of actors but rather, "it is what

gives form and shape to social life, but it is not itself the form and shape" (Giddens, 1989:256). The theory argues that structures not only constrain actors but is also enabling and so, structures imbue actors with the capacity to do what ordinarily they would not have been able to do.

Social systems are reproduced social practices or "reproduced relations between actors or collectivities organized as regular social practices" (Giddens, 1984:17, 25). Social systems do not have structures but they do exhibit structural properties. On the other hand, structures do not exist in time and space but are manifested in social systems in the form of reproduced practices. Rather than focus on intentional action that produce social system, an emphasis is placed on the unanticipated consequences of human action that produce such systems. Such unanticipated consequences may become unrecognized conditions of action that sometimes become uncontrollable, but actors constantly seek to manage such unrecognized conditions.

Structures do not exist independently but are "instantiated" in social system, they are found in "memory traces orienting the conduct of knowledgeable human agents" (Giddens, 1984, 17). Consequently, structuring properties namely rules and resources are thus visible in both macro level social systems and the micro level of human consciousness. From the foregoing, structuration theory is anchored on the idea that agents and structures are a duality rather than two independently constituted phenomena, a dualism. More so, the structural properties – rules and resources - of social system are both a pathway and product of practices they recursively organize. This implies that "the moment of production of action is also one of reproduction in the contexts of the day-to-day enactment of social life" (Giddens, 1984: 25, 26). Thus, it is a theory that explicates the dialectical relationship between agency and structure (Rachlin, 1991), that one cannot exist without the other.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Social Environment

- Agents of Socialization
  - ➢ Patriarchy
  - ➢ Family
  - ➢ Marriage
  - ➢ Religion
  - ➢ Education
  - ➢ Tradition/customs/norms

Private Domain –Reserved For Females

- Domestic care
- Child birth/socialization/care
- Emotional/Psychological Support
- Support/Augment

Gendered Role Expectation and Performance

- Wife
- Mother
- Significant other (sister, friend, daughter in-law)
- Paid Employee (civil servant, public

Public Domain

Dominated by Males

- o Paid Employment
  - Prestige
  - Financial Reward
  - Authority/Power
  - Leadership Position

Experienced Mostly by Females in work place

- o Gender Inequality
  - ❖ Gender Glass Ceiling
  - ❖ Concentration in mostly subordinate positions
  - ❖ Sexual Harassment
  - ❖ Tokenism
  - ❖ Gender Discrimination

Intervention Variables

Gender Equality Approaches

- Reasoned moral agency
- Re-patterning of key Institutions
- Legal recognition of human rights
- Sensitization/public enlightenment on gender equality State policy/ intervention on gender equality at home/formal work place Actors/Agency
- Fulfill workplace role and performance
- Constantly Rationalize and Reflexively analyze current position
- Motivation to attain upward mobility (Leadership position)
- Attend training, workshops and seminars
- Join informal networks

Domestic-Work Place Conflicts

- Marital conflicts
- Increased Domestic Stress
- Financial commitment towards domestic support (employing domestic servant)
- Distorted maternal child socialization
- Psychological/Emotional instability at home and work
- Stagnation of women in

Outcomes

- Emotional stability
- Equality in workplace opportunities
- Upward Mobility
- Women attaining leadership positions

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The conceptual framework in fig 2 provides the explanatory template for explaining the social context of women in administrative leadership positions within a formal work organization. The framework combined three extant sociological theories; liberal feminism, structuration and role theories. The synthesis of these theoretical approaches provides a nuanced explanation of the factors influencing the experience of women in attaining and maintaining leadership positions and how they deal with the challenges encountered in their career path.

The social context of women in leadership positions is underpinned by layers of social phenomena. The social milieu is the domain of social institutions that provides the platform for the socialization of individuals from childhood through adulthood. Additionally, during the socialization process, gender roles and the division of labor along sex lines are defined. As a result, males and females have clear role expectations and performance. During adulthood, gender roles and division of labor along sex lines becomes more explicit; through the agents of socialization such as family, religion, customs, traditions and marriage, division of labor or production is defined along sex lines and the spheres of influence divided into 'private' and 'public' domains. Women are relegated to the home front –private domain- where they fulfill role expectation as wives, mothers, and significant other and perform these roles by providing domestic care, child birth/socialization and emotional/psychological support for the spouse. Within this sphere, few engage in paid employment and very rarely as the employer of labor. The reward is minimal and mostly related to gifts and verbal acknowledgment.

The public domain where paid employment is the norm and where the reward includes prestige, monetary accruement, power/authority and leadership is dominated and treated as a male preserve. For women who enter the public domain especially paid employment, they are usually hindered by expectations of private domain (Waldsfogel, 1997), the "ideal worker norms" of the public sphere (Williams, 2000), patterned along male working schedule. Consequently, they suffer discrimination due to their gender, they are sexually harassed, treated with tokenism, experience slow occupational mobility because they are mostly concentrated in sub-ordinate positions –although few occupy leadership positions.

For women, fulfilling concurrent role expectations and performance within the private and public often generates family and workplace conflicts, which may include marital discord, increased domestic stress, increased financial commitment to engage domestic support (domestic servant), distorted maternal child socialization and emotional/psychological instability due to the double bind of family and workplace pressure. Inability to resolve the in-passé on time sometimes delays workplace upward mobility and attainment of leadership positions.

To resolve the logjam, the key institutions have to be re-patterned or modified, to promote gender equity and discourage family and workplace norms and practices that hinder women from achieving their human capacity for leadership. This must be supported by a reasoned moral agency and desire for self-actualization especially on the part of women. In other words, the actors must rationalize their disadvantage position and reflexively monitor the situation so as to improve their condition. Consequently, they must also act; consciously seek to influence the favorable factors within workplace institution that will enable them to experience up-ward mobility, attain leadership positions and maintain it. This they can do by equipping themselves; attend training, workshop and seminars to build capacity for leadership, join informal work groups or start one, apply for promotion when due and monitor the process. The outcome will include equal opportunity to experience up-ward mobility and attainment of leadership positions.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Research Design

This study employed cross- sectional survey design, was descriptive and combined both qualitative and quantitative techniques. Quantitative techniques are particularly strong at studying large groups of people and applying generalizations from the sample being studied to broader groups beyond that sample. Qualitative methods, on the other hand, are particularly strong at attaining deep and detailed understanding of a specific group or sample but at the expense of generalizability. Each approach has unique strengths and weaknesses, and each is valuable depending on the purpose of the research (Holton and Burnett, 1997). The adoption of both methods for this study, therefore, was to enable the researcher tap the advantages of both and to use the strength of one to support the weakness of the other.

3.1 Study Location

The study was carried out in Oyo state civil service located at Agodi Ibadan, in the South West geo-political zone of Nigeria. The Oyo state civil service is an agent or department of the executive responsible for the execution of the policies and programs of the government.

Study Population

The population for this research comprised women who are in administrative leadership positions. The target population, on the other hand, was the women administrators who participate in running the administrative apparatus in the state. The women in this category fall within grade levels 13 and above (these are made up of the heads of departments, deputy directors, assistant directors and the permanent secretaries who constitute the decision-making board).

However, their male counterparts were also included in the study (IDI) as their opinion as partners in the public service and who constitute the majority in leadership positions gave an insight into the study.

3.2. Sample Size and Sampling Technique

The total sample size for this study was 533.The researcher adopted total enumeration sampling technique. The lists comprising the women in each department of the various ministries and boards served as sample frame. Twenty ministries, boards and parastatals with the largest number of women were purposively selected.

The selection was as follows:

Ministry of Justice	15
Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Welfare	45
Ministry of Health	40
Ministry of Education	55
Teaching Service Commission	50
Ministry of Establishment and Training	35
Oyo State Library Board	22
Solid Waste Management Board Authority	15
Oyo State Board of Internal Revenue	30
Trade, Investment and Cooperatives	20
Office of the Head of Service	21
Office of the Executive Governor	25
Oyo State Pension Board	15
Agency for Adult and Non-Formal Education	25
Simeon Adebo Staff Development Centre	20
Broadcasting Corporation of Oyo State	25
Ministry of Environment and Habitat	15
Ministry of Finance	20
Office of the Surveyor-General	10
Oyo State Sports Council	10
Total	513

The process of selecting the remaining 20 respondents for the IDI and KII was as follows:

All female Permanent Secretaries	6
Five most senior women purposively Selected	5
Male Permanent Secretaries	5
Women Retirees(Former Directors)	2
Male Retirees(Former Directors)	2
Total	20

3.3   Methods and Instruments of Data Collection

The researcher made use of a combination of two instruments for the purpose of data collection and the Concurrent Triangulation of the mixed method design approaches by Creswell and all, (2003) was employed.

(a) **Questionnaire**: This was designed to gather the primary data for the study. The questionnaire administered was divided into various sections. Section A contained questions on the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. Other subsequent sections covered both close and open- ended questions relating to various aspects of the study and questions were raised in the order in which the objectives of the study were arranged. The close- ended questions provided options for the respondents to choose from while the open -ended questions enabled the respondents to express freely their views and opinions on the appropriate questions. Five hundred and thirteen (513) copies of the questionnaire were administered to women who met the criteria in the Oyo State Civil Service. The respondents were not required to identify themselves on the questionnaire. This anonymity and impersonality no doubt enhanced the rate of return of the questionnaire and objective response.

(b) In-depth Interview: This was also designed for gathering primary data needed for the study. The researcher conducted sixteen (16) in-depth interviews (IDI) with female and male permanent secretaries and Directors. The IDIs involved face to face interactions between the researcher and respondents with pre-determined structured and unstructured questions. The interactions were recorded with the aid of tape recorder. The in-depth interviews gave room for flexibility and provided the opportunity to probe deeper into some aspects which the questionnaire could not cover.

(c) Key Informant Interview: Four key informant interviews were also conducted with two female and two male retired directors.

(d) Case Study: Case studies and Personal life documents approach were used to appraise the histories of three female Permanent Secretaries, four female Directors, one female Executive Secretary and one Chief Confidential Secretary. Case study represents an in-depth analysis of only one setting. It is a thorough exploratory description of an individual, or group, or an organization. The researcher believed that a combination of these instruments was necessary to provide a basis for cross-checking for consistency, to capture a broad- based understanding of the research topic and provide greater reliability and validity for the study.

3.4.1 Matrix of Research Instruments and Objectives.

S/N	Research Instruments	Objective 1	Objective 2	Objective 3	Objective 4	Objective 5
1	Questionnaire	√	√			√
2	IDI	√	√	√		√
3	KII	√	√	√		√
4	Case study				√	

3.4.2 Reliability and Validity of the instruments

Warwick and Linninger (1975) described the goal of research instruments as being able to obtain information relevant to the purpose of the study; to collect information with maximal reliability and validity. Consequently, content validity was adopted to authenticate that the research instruments actually measured exactly what they were designed to measure. Also, to ensure the reliability of the instruments, a pilot study was conducted by administering ten percent (10%) of the instruments to the respondents. This allowed for proper review and modification of the instruments before the final administration.

3.5 Methods of Data Analysis

Two methods of data analysis were adopted for this study. These were the Quantitative and Qualitative methods.

3.5.1 Quantitative Method of data analysis.

The researcher carried out analysis of the primary data at two levels; univariate and bivariate levels. The quantitative data obtained through the questionnaire were analyzed with the aid of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), and results were presented in tables, graphs and analyzed and interpreted by the use of simple percentages. The data were after that subjected to univariate analysis to present and discuss the study variables while the bivariate analysis involved testing relationships between relevant variables of the study. While the univariate approach is descriptive, the bivariate approach involves tests conducted with chi- square.

3.5.2 Qualitative Method of data analysis.

The qualitative data obtained through the IDIs were analyzed using content analysis and descriptive methods. This process involved the qualitative data transcribed, sorted described and narrated qualitatively. The data were used to complement the data from the questionnaire and where necessary comments from the interviewees were quoted verbatim to bring out the important points that relate to the subject matter of the study.

3.6   Ethical considerations

According to Babbie (1998), ethical principles comprise the consideration for voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality. In compliance with these and other ethical standards on research work involving human subjects, the researcher made every attempt to uphold the principles which aim at protecting the dignity and privacy of every individual who in the course of the research work was requested to provide valuable information for the study. The principles were observed in the following areas.

Informed Consent

The consent of the respondents was sought before the instruments were administered. This was preceded by a careful introduction and explanation of the purpose of the research to the participants who eventually gave their consent before the data collection.

Voluntary Participation

Respondents' participation in the study was totally voluntary. They had the opportunity right from the beginning to voluntarily participate or to withdraw from participation at any point in time. On no occasion was pressure exerted on any respondent before and during the process of data collection.

Non-maleficence of participants

Participants in the study were not subjected to or exposed to any harm. Their identity was kept strictly confidential so as not to expose them to any harm.

Beneficence to participants

The general objective of the study was to analyze the social contexts of women in administrative leadership positions in the Oyo State Civil Service. This was a view to identifying various incentives, strategies and policies that will help in the reconstruction or re-organization of the public institutions in such a way that it opens up the public space or institutions equally for both men and women, thus the male and female gender will have equal access to public service and opportunity to aspire to top civil service positions.

Confidentiality of information

Information obtained from the respondents was treated with utmost confidentiality. This was done by ensuring that respondents in the study remained anonymous. Responses were coded to erase any link to individual respondents. Data collected was sorted and used strictly for the intended purposes. Publication from the data will present segregate data, not in personalized and recognizable form.

3.7 Field Work Experience

In every research work, there are bound to be challenges and unexpected situations. This research was not an exception. The first major challenge encountered was the delay in retrieving the copies of the questionnaire administered. This was due to the busy schedule of the respondents who occupy top positions in their respective ministries. This delay eventually led to the extension of the time frame initially allocated for the data collection.

Another major challenge had to do with conducting In-depth Interviews with the selected respondents. Although the targeted respondents were just twenty in number, but their busy schedule also caused delay, and the initial appointments had to be canceled and re-scheduled before they were eventually conducted.

3. 8 Oyo State Civil Service

The Oyo state civil service inherited the structures of the old western region civil service with a total population of 35,165 (including parastatals)(Oyo State Dairy, 2011) It is located in Ibadan which is one of the foremost cities to have early contact with the western world by western education. It is organized into departments, each department deals with a particular aspect of government work called a ministry. The public service comprises of various ministries, agencies boards and parastatals. The routine administrative work is being carried out by the civil servants who are coordinated by Permanent Secretaries, General Managers and Director Generals.

Oyo State "came into existence consequent upon State Creation exercises embarked upon after Nigeria gained Independence in 1960. Going down the memory lane, Western

Region was one of the three Regions created by the Macpherson Constitution of 1954 which introduced a high level of autonomy for the regions. The Western Region, which was led by a Premier, became self-governing in 1957 as a prelude to the Political Independence of the Country in 1960. In 1963, the Mid-Western Region, Consisting of the present Ondo and Delta States was excised from the Region. Also, in the 1967 State creation exercise, western Region was renamed Western State. Furthermore, during the 1976 States creation exercise, both the Ondo and Ogun States were created from the Western State and what remained of the state was renamed Oyo State out of which Osun State was carved out in 1991.

Right from the Western Region days the Oyo State Civil Service has been in existence which makes her the oldest Civil Service in Nigeria. Ibadan, which is reported to be the largest indigenous City in Africa, South of Sahara, has been the Capital and Centre of Administration of the Civil Service. The Oyo State Administration, true to its pace- setter Status, has contributed immensely to having in its workforce the cream of the most articulate and seasoned Civil Servant, who can hold their head anywhere in the world. Indeed, this has been an age long tradition as Ibadan; the State Capital has always been the seat of emerging administration since the Colonial era and all through its metamorphosis from the Western Regional Government to the present day Oyo State Civil Service (Oyo State Diary, 2008)

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0   Introduction

The broad objective of this study was to investigate the social contexts of women in administrative leadership positions.

To address the specific objectives of the study, copies of the questionnaire were administered to 513 women executive in the study location, 16 in-depth, 4 key informants' interviews and nine case studies were conducted with purposively selected men and women executives. This chapter covers the presentation and analysis of the data collected through these research instruments. Quantitative data obtained through the questionnaire were collated and analyzed in tables, graphs, simple percentage and discussed while the qualitative data were content analyzed and used to complement the quantitative data.

The data analysis is divided into various sections: Section one presents and discusses the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents while the subsequent sections presents and discusses the data obtained in respect of the substantive issues of the study, and this was done according to the arrangement of the study objectives.

4.1: Socio- Economic Characteristics of the respondents

This section deals with the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents and this included age, marital status, ministry, educational qualification, grade level, length of service, religious affiliation, ethnic group, state of origin, local government, nationality, present income, how long on the position, date of last promotion, number of children and status or position in the family. Questions 1-16 of the questionnaire were raised to address the socio-economic variables of the respondents. Advantages of having these characteristics are that they help to differentiate the respondents, to provide a basis for comparison of respondents and they also help to explain issues that may account for similarities or differences in response to substantive issues of research work.

Table 4.1. Frequency Distribution of Socio-Economic characteristics of Respondents

AGE	Frequency N=513	Percentage
25-34years	98	19.1
35-44years	130	25.4
45-54years	230	44.8
55yrs and above	55	10.7
MARITAL STATUS		
Single	55	10.7
Married	401	78.2
Divorced	11	2.1
Widow	27	5.3
Single mother never married	6	1.2
Separated	13	2.5
EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION		
First degree	335	65.3
Postgraduate	129	25.1
Professional qualification	49	9.6
GRADE LEVEL		
13	240	46.8
14	116	22.6
15	77	15.0
16	53	10.3
Permanent Secretary	27	5.3
Length of service		
5-10years	59	11.5
11-16years	116	22.6
17-22years	167	32.6
23-28years	129	25.1
29-35years	42	8.2
Religion		
Christian	331	64.5
Islam	176	34.3
Traditional	5	1.0
Others	1	0,2
How long have you been holding your present position		
1-2years	300	58.5
3-4years	156	30.4
5-6years	33	6.4
7-8years	24	4.7
Income (Monthly)		
₦100,000-200,000	474	93.4
₦201,000-300,000	33	6.4
₦301,000-400,000	6	1.2
Last Promotion		
2012	71	13.8
2011	40	7.8
2010	121	23.6
2009	92	17.9
2008	68	13.3
2007	36	7.0
2006	56	10.9
2005	29	5.7
No of Children		
1	38	7.4
2	102	19.9
3	190	37.0
More than 3	183	35.7

Source: Field Work 2014

Table 4.1 presents some socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. Regarding age, the mean age was 37±.10.5years, majority,44.8% were within the age bracket 45-54 years while 25.4% were within 35-44years respectively. With a majority here, it is expected that the study respondents would be matured regarding orientation to life, work life balance and ability to shoulder organizational responsibilities.

On the marital status of the respondents, 78.2% were married, while others were single, divorced, single mother never married, separated or widowed. With the majority of the respondents married suggests that women value marriage and probably due to the respect and prestige attached to marriage.

More than half of the respondents 65.3% had First degree while 25.1% and 9.6% had postgraduate and other professional qualifications respectively. This is an indication that more women are acquiring more knowledge by the day, with the high level of educational attainment as revealed by the data might have contributed to change in their statuses and gave them the opportunity to become more visible. This finding also suggests that they possessed the necessary qualifications and therefore duly qualified to hold the positions they were holding in the public service. Furthermore, the finding supports existing literature that women have indeed attracted greater visibility, and more of them are being appointed to key positions of authority in both public and private sectors. (Twenge, 2001). Educational qualification is a key factor for attaining positions of authority.

A significant percentage of the respondents 46.8% were on grade level 13, while 22.6%, 15.0%, and 10.3% were on grade levels 14, 15 and 16 respectively. Surprisingly, the minority (5.3%) were on the consolidated level (Permanent Secretary). Though women are being appointed to positions of authority, the proportion of women in leadership positions is still very few compared to men. The finding also supports existing statistics that in the Nigerian Civil Service, the distribution of Permanent Secretaries between 2001 and 2007 indicates that the percentage of men was 82.9% compared to 17.1% for women, the highest percentage of 20.7 for women in 2007 compared to 79.3% for men (National Bureau of Statistics, 2007).

On the length of service, a majority of the respondents(32.6%) have been in service for between 17-22years, while 11.5%, 22.6%, 25.1% and 8.2% have been in service for between 5-10, 11-16, 23-28 and 29-35years respectively. The mean number of years spent in service by the respondents is 19.3years. The reason for this may not be far from the fact that it is a public institution, and therefore, the rate of job security is high. Also, there is a laid down policy on retirement regarding age and length of service.

On the religious affiliation of the respondents, more than half of them (64.5%) were Christians, 34.3% were Muslims, 1.0% practiced African traditional religion and 0.2% practiced other religion.

Regarding how long the respondents have been in their various positions, a majority of them (58.5%) have been in their positions for between 1-2years, 30.4% between 3-4years, 6.4% between 5-6years and 4.7% between 7-8years. Promotion or selection into leadership positions in the public service is carried out every three years and is subject to a combination of laid down criteria among which are personnel estimates, disciplinary measures, promotion examination, vacancy and so on. Therefore respondents, who have been in the same positions for longer than expected, may have fallen short of the afore-mentioned criteria; also, the issue of vacancy is germane to promotion into leadership positions. Even if workers are due and qualified for promotion, but vacancy does not exist in the higher positions, workers may need to stay longer than expected in their current positions until vacancy exists.

On the monthly income of the respondents, 93.4% earns between ₦100-₦200 monthly, 6.4% earn between ₦201-₦300 and 1.2% earn between ₦301-₦400 monthly.

A small percentage of the respondents13.8% were promoted to the current positions in 2012, 7.8% were promoted in 2011,23.6% in 2010, while 17.9%,13.3%,7.0%,10.9%and 5.7% were promoted in 2009, 2008, 2007, 2006 and 2005 respectively. The issue of promotion may be subject to vacancy.

4.2. Factors Underlying Promotion into Leadership Positions in Oyo State Civil Service

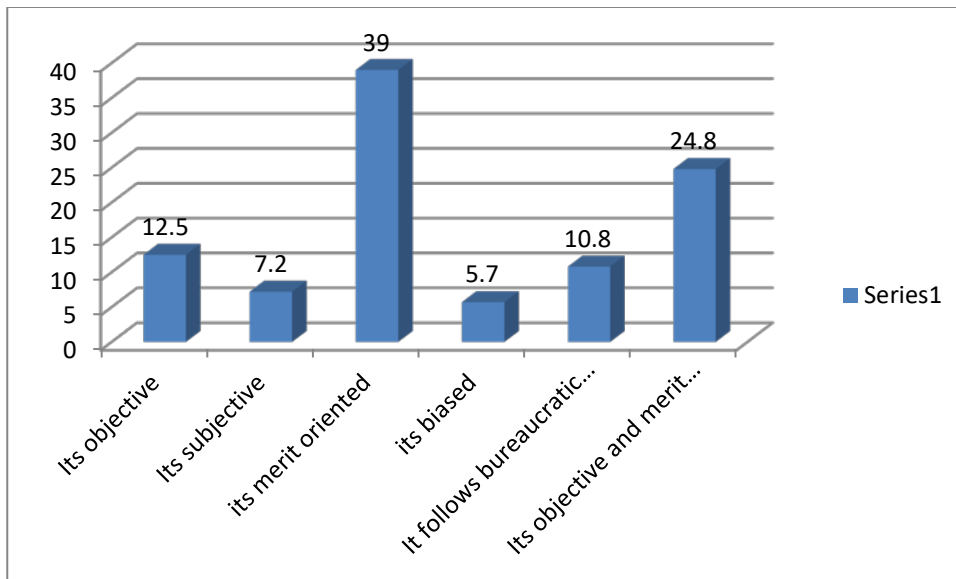**Table 4.2.1 Criteria Used For Promotion to Leadership Positions**

CRITERIA FOR PROMOTION	Frequency	Percentage
Merit	30	5.8
Years of service	20	3.9
Personnel estimates	78	15.2
Promotion exams	74	14.5
Performance appraisal	97	18.9
Disciplinary Measures/ actions	30	5.9
Sex	20	3.9
Vacancy	71	13.8
Merit, vacancy, promotion exam	93	18.1
Total	513	100.0

Source: Oyo State Civil Service Diary 2014

The above table presents data in respect of the criteria taken into consideration when workers are being promoted into positions of leadership. As shown by the data, 5.8% of the respondents disclosed that merit is a criterion used in promoting workers into leadership positions, 3.9% indicated years of service, 4.3% opted for personnel estimate, 10.5% said it is promotion examinations, while 18.9% which is the largest indicated that the performance Appraisal is being used. This number as revealed by the data may be due to the fact that in public institutions, especially in the public service, the performance appraisal which is a process of reviewing an individual's performance and progress in a job and assessing his/her potential for future promotion is being used with other criteria for promotion of workers to leadership positions. While 1.9%, 3.9% and 9.7% indicated that disciplinary measures, sex and vacancy are the criteria being used for promotion of workers to leadership positions. However, information from the Oyo State Civil Service revealed a combination of all these criteria are taken into consideration when promoting workers into positions of authority.

Women Perception of the Promotion Procedure

This section focuses on the perception of women in administrative leadership positions on the promotion procedure in the Oyo State Civil Service. This is important because the issue of perception of procedural fairness reveals the impact on the psychological experiences and behaviors of employees (Brockner et al. 2008). In a similar manner, workers' perceptions of promotion systems have the impact on the organizational justice and job satisfaction. If the promotion methods or criteria are perceived to be transparent, they will consider this as procedural justice and that the method is fair based on the assessment of performance. Therefore, fairness in promotions is a core issue for organizations as it is directly related to some of the most important organizational outcomes (García-Izquierdo et al. 2012). Consequently, pertinent questions relating to women perception of the criteria used for the promotion of workers into leadership positions in Oyo State Civil Service were asked.

Figure 3: Women's Perception of the criteria for promotion
Source: Field Survey, 2013

The bar chart above presents data on the perception of women in positions of authority on the criteria being used for promotion of workers into leadership positions in the Oyo State Civil Service. A small percentage (12.5%), disclosed that the criteria are objective, to

7.2% of them, the criteria are subjective. 39, % of them said the criteria are merit oriented, 5.7% said they are biased while 10.8% of them disclosed that they follow bureaucratic procedure. On the whole, it can be deduced from the findings that to a majority of the respondents, the criteria being considered for promotion of workers to leadership positions in the Oyo State Civil Service are objective and merit oriented. This may, therefore, suggest that majority of the respondents are being promoted as at when due. Although the issue of vacancy determine how long they stay on the current positions. On cross-tabulation of the perception of the criteria for promotion with socio-demographic characteristics, the following were drawn. On cross tabulation of the length of service with the perception of the promotion criteria, it was revealed that there is a significant relationship between the number of years the respondents have been in service and their perception of the promotion criteria.(p value=0.03,df=8 χ=9.481),This suggests that the more the number of years in service affords the respondents the opportunity to be acquainted with the criteria guiding the promotion process, Not only this, the respondents might have been affected positively or negatively by the process, thereby in the best positions to comment on the process as it affects them.

On cross tabulation of how long the respondents have been holding their positions and their perception of the criteria, the result showed that there was a significant relationship between the two variables. (P value=0.02,df=4,. χ=5.737). Also, on a further cross tabulation of the last year the respondents were promoted with their perception of the criteria, it was also revealed that there is a significant relationship between the last year promoted and their perception of the criteria for promotion (p value=0.01, df=14, χ =30.894).

Table 4.2.3 Women's satisfaction with the promotion criteria

Are you satisfied with the promotion criteria	Frequency	Percentage
YES	452	88.1
NO	61	11.9
Total	513	100.0

Furthermore, respondents were asked whether they were satisfied with the promotion criteria used in the Oyo State Civil Service. The result shown in the above table presents the responses obtained. The result revealed that a preponderant percentage of the respondents (88.1%) expressed their satisfaction with the promotion criteria while only 11.9% respondents were dissatisfied with the criteria. The former attributed their satisfaction with the promotion criteria (as shown from the table below) to the openness, sincerity and objectivity upon which the promotion is made. This may be because, in the views of the respondents, the processes may be devoid of any modicum of suspicion, favoritism and discrimination.

Table 4.2.4: Reasons for Respondents' satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the promotion criteria

Reasons for the response	Frequency	Percentage
The criteria/process is open, sincere and objective	342	66.6
They are biased in the process	63	12.3
The procedure is well known and well laid	108	21.1
Total	513	100.0

Source: Field Work 2014

Supporting the finding above, a respondent during an IDI Session opined:

> *In my view, the promotion procedure is objective because it follows bureaucratic procedures, with no element of bias known to me. Since I joined this service, I have always been promoted as at when due. (IdI/married/ female/ director/2013)*

Similarly, a female permanent secretary added:

> *The selection procedure is objective and fair enough to everybody, the principles guiding the process are known to everybody. In other words, it is transparent; therefore, there cannot be any manipulation by anybody. (IdI/married/female/ permanent secretary/2013)*

From the afore mentioned responses, it is evident that the promotion criteria are open, unbiased and largely based on objective principles. Such principles, as earlier mentioned,

include performance appraisal, promotion examinations merit, and vacancy. No doubt, these objective principles define the fairness in the promotion processes and equally serve as motivating factors for high performance to a candidate who has been selected for the promotion. This is in line with the study conducted by Harel et al., (2003) which revealed that fairness in promotion procedure enhances confidence and self-esteem, and confirms that, through healthy competition, the person selected deserved to be selected to the position because he met all the requirements of the promotion processes. Fairness, as observed by Janssen (2000), connotes that workers who are creative and productive should be rewarded and those that are not should not be.

However, it is worthy to note that vacancy of positions could encumber the promotion processes in any organization. Essentially, selection for a leadership position is significantly subject to the number of the vacant positions within any organization. The reality is that workers do stay longer than the expected time in a position until there is vacancy in another higher position. This was corroborated by the interview with a male Permanent Secretary who succinctly observed:

> *I can categorically say that the selection process is based on merit follows laid down principles and is objective. I can say this because I have been in the system for quite some time and I have been involved severally in the exercise. The only factor that can hinder it is a lack of vacancy. If workers are due and qualified but no vacancy, there is nothing anybody can do.*
>
> *(IdI/married//male/permanent secretary/2013)*

According to Beehr, Nadig, Gudanowski, and Such (2004), the distinctive features of promotion in any organization could be summarized as follows: it is limited to a single vacancy, even if several candidates deserve the position, decisions are generally dichotomous (the candidate is accepted or rejected).

However, respondents (12.3%) who were dissatisfied with the promotion criteria disclosed that there was bias inherent in the promotion processes. Specifically, the findings from these respondents during the IDI sessions revealed that for them the promotion into a leadership position is largely gender-based. In other words, for these few respondents,

promotion processes are reflections of the gender inequalities endemic in our societies. A female single Assistant Director who supported this view stated:

> *These criteria are put in place by men who are always in the majority. For me, there is an element of bias. I have been a victim of this bias twice but I won't narrate my experience because I'm trying to put the whole scene behind me. I hate to discuss it.*

> *(IdI /single//female/ assistant director/2013)*

The response above suggests that the promotion criteria are solely the creation of men. Top administrative positions are mostly populated by senior men and who equally dominate committee saddle with the responsibility of selecting and promoting workers. In deciding the promotion criteria, consideration is given by the committee only to women's ability to fit in with the organization than they are about their skills, accomplishments and vision (Kaplan, 1994). Other studies also suggest that organizations tend to hire or promote those candidates who resemble themselves (Coleman, 2009; White, 2003). Thus, there is an inverse relationship between the proportions of male and female workers occupying leadership positions in an organization. Put differently, where positions of authority are male dominated, women are under-represented in leadership.

Similarly, another interview with a married female permanent secretary also revealed that selection of women for leadership positions has been largely based on men's recommendation and approval. The interviewee has this to say:

> *For me oooo, it is subjective. I was denied my promotion three years ago because I was not in the good book of some of the men who carried out the exercise. It was later that I got to know. The fact is men always dominate the decision making body, and they are the ones to recommend for promotion, and if you don't dance to their tunes, you will remain in the same position for years.*

> *(IdI/married/female/ permanent secretary/2013)*

The above response further underscores the fact that the selection process often favors men at the expense of women in an organization (Sperandio, 2009; Coleman, 2002). Suffice to say that women candidates are mostly dependent on recommendations from men, as few women administrators are available at the level where recommendations are influential (Sutherland, 1985). This implies that the interviewing committee would most likely consist of men only, putting women in the possible situation of being negatively judged by those of the opposite sex. Corroborating this point was the response of a female permanent secretary in an IDI session:

> *Without mincing words, the male gender is more favored. A lot of factors militate against the female gender, especially in the past. Although things are changing gradually, in this Secretariat, out of about 26 ministries, only 6 are headed by females.*

IDI/married/female/Permanent Secretary/2013)

Another respondent who was a female assistant director added

> *You as a researcher go to establishment or finance department and go through the staff list. You discover yourself that it is the male gender that is more favored when it comes to selection into leadership positions. This African mentality of think a leader, think a man is really affecting the female gender.*

> *(IdI/married/female/assistant director/2013)*

The above responses are in line with the Liberalist feminist theory views of the domination of the female gender by the male gender as a product of sexist patterning of the division of labor and that these inequalities between men and women assigned to sex are social constructions having no basis in nature. However, a male director had a contrary view on the issue of which gender is more favored in promotion to leadership positions.

He said:

> *As far as I am concerned, women and men are the same when it comes to the issue of selection to leadership positions. If a woman possesses the required criteria for leadership, then let her occupy the position. I believe in equality and fairness. After all, it is often said*

that whatever a man can do, a woman can also do even better than a man at times. Give the women a fair playing ground to actualize their potentials.

IDI/married/male/Director/2013

Some of the male workers refuted the claims that promotion process in the Oyo State civil service is significantly influenced by gender stereotype. They purported that the promotion criteria create a platform where women and men can properly compete for leadership positions. Therefore, meeting the promotion criteria becomes very necessary and sine qua non for the attainment of leadership positions.

Probing if there are informal/extra formal criteria considered for promotion. The response below is in concord with the assertions of some female workers who opined that there are informal/extra formal criteria used in the promotion process. Although those who held tenaciously to this view were a modicum of the total population and they revealed that certain informal codes stand as an impediment in the pursuit of leadership positions by female workers in the Oyo State government secretariat. The experience of a retired female Director in a KII session explains this situation:

I was once a victim of these informal codes. And I can count like two or three women who suffered the same. Some time ago in one of the ministries at the secretariat, just one top position was vacant and two of us, the other person a man, were qualified by all standards. At the end of the exercise my sister, I was dropped. I was very furious. But somebody close to me who was on the panel told me I was dropped on sex grounds. In other words being a female. Their conclusion according to my informant was though this woman also qualified, but don't let us put a woman in this sensitive position! Tell me which position is sensitive that cannot be managed by a woman.

(KII/married/female/retired director/2013)

Similarly, a male retired director who participated in the KII session registered his displeasure.

There are informal codes that work silently during the promotion and some of them actually hinder the women. I have been part of promotion panels severally, and I have witnessed women being

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denied positions of authority due to silent but informal codes that worked against them. Informal codes like the issue of women maternity leave and child bearing, issue of transfer, ability to fit in and so on put women in disadvantaged positions. You see my worry is women would not be told not to apply for the post. But these people already concluded that no matter what, even when they both qualify, a woman would not be considered. It is not fair at all.

(KII/married/male/retired director/2013).

The selection process that often favors men has been well studied (Sperandio, 2009 (Eggins, 1997; Coleman, 1996, Dunlap and Schmuck, 1995; Neville, 1988; Shakeshaft, 1987). According to these authors, the unfairness towards women during the selection process can come from the hirer's concerns about possible economic losses for selecting women because they may require maternity leave and time for child-rearing (Coleman et al., 1998). Even in Western society, women experience the discriminatory attitude that "the job was too much for a woman with children..., although (this is) generally implied rather than stated overtly" (Coleman, 2009:14). Research has also demonstrated that even when the actual qualifications of men and women are equivalent, men are viewed as having higher performance ability, are expected to perform better and are therefore favored over women in the selection process. (Davison and Burke, 2000). Coleman (2009) suggests that selectors are influenced by the female stereotype which associates women with home and family and that this link is difficult to break. According to Brown (1997), women are judged informally and subjectively by their perceived suitability for a post or for promotion by criteria such as age, the relevance of experience, and the ability to fit in.

4.3 Socio-Cultural Constraints of Women in Leadership Positions

This section focuses on the socio-cultural constraints to the effective practice of leadership experienced by women within the Oyo State Civil Service. Essentially, the section examined the perceptions of female workers regarding gender stereotyping, with particular reference to their personal aspirations, motivations, family background, networking, mentoring, marriage, education and childbearing. It would be interesting to understand how these factors impact on their career progression.

Table 4.2.5 Existence of Socio-Cultural Constraints among women in Leadership Positions

Do you face socio-cultural constraints	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	453	88.3
No	60	11.7
Total	513	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Respondents were asked to express their knowledge of the existence of socio-cultural constraints facing career women in their workplace. The above table revealed that a preponderant percentage of the total respondents (88.3%) agreed that women in leadership positions are often confronted with socio-cultural constraints in their career pursuits. Only 11.7% respondents opined otherwise. This implies that the knowledge of the existence of socio-cultural constraints that confront women in their career pursuits is widespread and endemic, particularly in the context of Oyo State Civil Service.
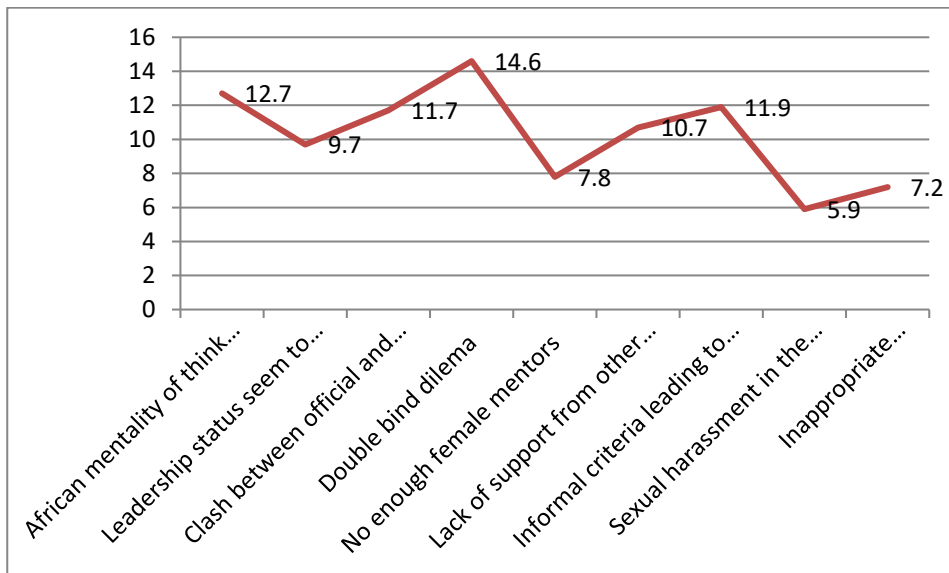
Figure 4: Drivers of Socio-Cultural Constraints of Women in Leadership Positions.
Source: Field Survey, 2013

Presented above were the various reasons given for their responses to the above question. The data indicated that 12.7% of the respondents disclosed women in leadership positions face socio-cultural constraints because of the prevailing mentality that a leader is typically a man. This implies that the societal conventions regarding gender and leadership traditionally exclude women, and top leadership is viewed as a masculine domain. Sadie (2005) maintained that at the bottom of the restrictions that women face is the patriarchal system where decision-making powers are in the hands of males. In this context, traditional beliefs and cultural attitudes concerning the role and status of women in society are still common and many women who are part of this system are finding it difficult to diverge from this culture and tradition they have been ostracized.

About 11.7% of the respondents said work-family conflicts exposed the women in leadership positions to constraints in trying to balance the two roles.

The most well- documented pressures women experience in balancing work and family are overload and conflict due to multiple roles. (Lewis and Cooper, 1987) Women now perform multiple roles as workers, housekeepers, members of associations and heads of households among others, thereby having too much work to do and too little time to do it.

In the view of about 14.6% of the respondents, the double- bind dilemma also contributes to the socio-cultural constraints that women face. A double bind is a psychological impasse created when contradictory demands are made of an individual, so that no matter which directive is followed, the response will be construed as incorrect. It is also a situation in which a person must choose between equally unsatisfactory alternatives (Calalyst.org 2007), this may imply that stereotypical perception creates several predicaments for women in leadership positions, all of which put them in a double bind. Therefore, women who lead are left with limited and unfair options, no matter which way they go, and no matter how they might choose to behave.

Meanwhile, 7.8% of the respondents mentioned insufficient female mentors as a reason for the socio-cultural constraints faced by women in leadership positions. This finding shed more light on the disproportionate representation of women, particularly at the upper

echelons of most Nigerian organizations, which may also have implications for social interactions amongst working women. This would suggest that junior female workers may not have enough female leaders as the model to look up to in comparison to their male counterparts.

Furthermore, 10.7% of the respondents disclosed that lack of support from other women as being reason women in leadership positions face socio-cultural constraints. This finding supports existing literature on the operation of the 'queen bee syndrome' which refers to the tendency of females in supervisory roles to treat females in subordinate roles less favourably.

The queen bee is the alpha female who tries to protect her power at all costs. Instead of promoting her subordinates, feels threatened by them, and in many cases end up obstructing their attempt to climbing the corporate ladder. An interesting new piece of research by psychologists shows that women on top are even more likely to support and mentor male subordinates than females working at the same level (Azuh, 2011). The overall consequence according to Adebayo and Udegbe (2004) is that relationships among females working together may be impaired. This could have a negative impact on the nature and quality of relationships in the Boss-female subordinate dyad.

About 5.9% said the reason women in leadership positions face socio-cultural constraints was because women are now taking up leadership positions over and above what it used to be in the past. Consequently, not only do they have to contend with additional roles because of their gender, they have to deal with internal and external pressures to lead successfully and also according to Maria and Martinez, 2002, Young and Skrla, 2003, Bons-Schacfer and Larger, 2006 to navigate through the scrutiny they often encounter.

Other reasons from the remaining respondents included informal criteria leading to promotion denial, sexual harassment in the work place, lack of social networking and discrimination against the women.

Table 4.2.6 Nature of the Socio-Cultural Constraints encountered by Women in Leadership Positions

Socio-cultural Factors	Frequency	Percentage
Subtle insubordination from patriarchal oriented (Male-domination) male personnel	59	11.5
Role Conflict	78	15.2
Health complications arising from multiple tasks	67	13.1
Role Stress	71	13.8
Lack of informal social network with male colleagues	73	14.2
Insufficient female mentors	86	16.8
Discrimination against women in leadership positions	79	15.4
Total	513	100.0

It is no doubt that researchers are increasingly showing a curiosity in women in management matters worldwide, and are reporting on the demographic variations in top management positions by debating the status and circumstances of professional women. Consequently, there has been an improvement in the creation of awareness of women's academic and professional contributions. Nevertheless, women worldwide are still holding secondary positions and are largely underused in the labor market.

Elucidating on the socio-cultural constraints facing women, respondents alluded to several reasons for the subjugation of women in workplaces particularly in their efforts to attain top leadership positions.

Subtle Insubordination

The data revealed that 11.5% of the respondents disclosed that subtle insubordination from patriarchal oriented (Male domination) male personnel is a factor constraining women in leadership positions in the Oyo state Civil Service.

On cross tabulation to determine the relationships between the socio-demographic characteristics and responses to views on socio-cultural constraints facing women in leadership positions, the following were deduced: On cross tabulation of the age of the

respondents with the socio-cultural constraints, it was deduced that there was no significant relationship between the variables. (p=0.87, df=18, χ=11.483).This, therefore, suggests that age of the respondents has no relationship with the socio-cultural factors constraining women in leadership positions. Also, when the number of years the respondents have spent in service was cross- tabulated with the socio-cultural constraints, it was revealed that there was no significant relationship between them (p=0.43,df=24,χ=24.462). On further cross tabulation of the educational qualification of the respondents and the socio-cultural constraints, it was shown that there was also no significant relationship between the variables (p=0.20, df=12, χ=15.801).This means that the constraints they encountered did not have anything to do with their levels of educational qualification.

The qualitative findings suggested the notion that women in leadership positions are an invisible group relegated to the sidelines and easily combined with other groups is a convenient fiction that conceals the power and importance of their exercise of leadership. A female, married Permanent Secretary during one of the IDIs had this to say

> *Men often use their privilege to dominate, overrule and control the actions of women in the workplace. Even women in positions of leadership are subject to having their authority undermined. Though encounters with these types of discriminatory acts in today's workplace are less blatant and is experienced in a more subtle and overt manner, these encounters can be a source of confusion and frustration.*
> *Idi/married/female/ permanent secretary/2013.*

Explaining further on the issue of subtle insubordination from patriarchally oriented personnel, another female Head of Department speaking further tells the story of her male subordinate who questioned virtually everything she instructed him to do. He did underhanded things to keep her from being successful.   Her story

> *I had one particularly challenging situation. It took a lot of praying to deal with it. A male subordinate for that matter. He told me that he had a problem with a female being his boss.… But the only one thing I respected about him was that he told me. I didn't treat him any way differently or whatever. I thanked him for his honesty. But I told him "If you allow me to do and be what I need to be . . . Then I would allow you to do what you need to do." We disagreed several*

> *times. I even issued him queries. And he would most of the times come back and say, I know I didn't do what you told me to do and I know I said something out of the way to you when you instructed me to do this, but it's hard for me. It's just really hard. Can you imagine how frustrating this could be although, at the end of the day, he was transferred. Those are the kinds of insubordination women often encounter sometimes.*
> *Idi/married/female/Head of Department/2013*

Speaking further on the issue, another female married director shared her experience with her colleague who always undermined her authority. The lack of support from her superior to correct this type of situation was also a source of frustration for her

She narrates her experience

> *There was a situation where another male director, frequently assigned work to my staff without my knowledge . . . And that ended up initiating a procedural change within my department. It was as if he simply overlooked my existence as the person being accountable for the work my staff does or at least having knowledge about the work they were doing. When I confronted him about it, his response was that I want certain people to do my work. When I turned it around and asked him how he would like me assigning work to his staff without his knowledge, he became defensive.*
> *Idi/married/female/ director/2013)*

This response denotes that the presence of women is highly contested by men and this does not cease even when women are the bosses. Males are seen as controlling access to institutional power, and it is argued that they mold ideology, philosophy, art and religion to suit their needs. The exercise of male power is viewed as at least somewhat conspiratorial, and women- whatever their economic statuses are perceived as an oppressed class.

In African societies, it is believed that men lead and women follow (Grant, 2005). Regardless of women's education and access to the job market, the woman's role is considered to be the typical one of homemaker. The man, on the other hand, is the bread-winner, head of household, and has the right to public life. In other words, deeply rooted traditional values very often pose serious obstacles to women's equality with men in their workplaces. Speaking further on the issue of subtle insubordination from patriarchally oriented personnel, a married male Director also contributed to the discussion by

submitting that men who are socialized within patriarchal lines would continue to manifest the traits wherever they find themselves. He further buttressed this by narrating the ordeal of a female permanent secretary in the hands of her male subordinate. His report

> *I witnessed a scenario one day when a male subordinate insulted a female permanent secretary. It may shock you, though may be unintentional, but it happens. What happened was that the female permanent secretary asked the subordinate to pick something from the car... and I later got to know that that was the third time he would be asked to get one thing or another from the car. And all of a sudden the subordinate out of annoyance just shouted 'Ha! Ha! But madam you could have sent me once and for all instead of making me go up and down'. He insulted his boss. Surprisingly he said he has a wife who is as old as his boss and that his wife respects him and will never send him on errands. But he has forgotten that he was not at home where he can display his male ego anyhow. Though he later apologized, but am sure his boss will never forget that incident in a hurry. For me, this experience was not palatable at all, and it bothers on male aggression.*
> *Idi/married/male/director/2013)*

The above scenario invariably suggests a culturalist construction of the workplace that portrays the male contestation of the female presence and role taking. By implication, men, by force, direct pressure, or through ritual, tradition, law and language, customs, etiquette, education, and the division of labor define the part that women shall(or shall not) play. Women are thought of as a sub-group in a man's world. According to Onyeonoru (2005), since the majority of African society is organized along patriarchal lines, 'women are consciously or unconsciously exploited, oppressed, and dominated with various levels of intensity through different ideological lenses and patriarchal hegemonies, whether in a collective fashion or individually because the end is to secure material gains beneficial to men folk.

Role Conflicts

The Nigerian society and workplace are predominantly male-dominated, consequently the gendering of the workplace is still prevalent (Mordi *et al.*, 2010). It would appear that the current workplace policies favor men, for this reason, women engaging in traditional male occupation tend to find a lot of challenges in balancing work and family duties.

No wonder, a significant percentage (15.2%) of the respondents stated that they were delimited by the inability to resolve the clash/conflicts between their official and family demands. Pursuing a career which will give her the chance to get married, raise a family and at the same time rise to the very top of the ladder in an organization, while working on the same terms as her male counterparts has been a major problem for women in leadership positions. In the case of married couples, career opportunities for the wife may conflict with those of the husband. They have to look after their family, especially with children, do house work, make a living and take part in community activities. To them, balancing the roles makes the burden too much and sometimes impact negatively on their relationships. This is revealed by a single parent (separated) female director during one of the IDIs section. Her experience:

> *Sincerely speaking, these roles clash many times and balancing them is not always easy. This is the reason why I'm separated from my husband till date. Because of the requirement of my job and family responsibility with nobody to help, combining the two leaves me with too little time/energy to be the best wife I want to be. My husband was not supportive and he sorted himself (according to him). It was too much for me, Our relationship was strained and I quit. IdI/separated/female/Director/2013.*

Another respondent, a married retired female director, explained further that clashes between the family and official assignment, if not properly managed could affect the discharge of duties in the place of work and also at home and by extension the society at large. In her words

> *While i was in service, i always experienced this role clash...I discovered my output both at home and work was affected.... Little time to spend with my children. They were always on their own. Everything about me was somehow... I felt as if the whole world was crashing on me... These and much more are the experiences of women leaders due to clashes between responsibilities at home and the workplace. KII/Married/Female/ Retired Director/2013*

The above suggests that women are struggling to cope with the contestations of the role at work and also striving to meet up with the demands at the home front. This finding also supports the views of some scholars that linkage between work and family affect performance at work and family functioning both of which are important markers of social

well-being. (Edwards and Rothband2000, Court, 2004, Davis and Johnson, 2005. Dean et all, 2009). In reality, some companies as a matter of policy do not transfer married women for fear of creating domestic crisis, furthermore, married women are usually not receptive to, working longer hours, they do not like being involved in excessive traveling outside the town nor would they take kindly to being transferred out of the state where their families are domiciled. As a result of all these, a woman's profit motivating drive is never as strong as the man's, it drops considerably when she gets married (Akanbi and Salami, 2011).

The result is also consistent with the role theory which posit that individuals have and manage many roles and that these roles specify what goals should be pursued, what tasks must be accomplished, and what performances are required in a given situation. It can be deduced from the role theory that there are contradictory role expectations from a working woman while she is at work and at home. In an attempt to play one of the roles with perfection leads to an inadvertent sacrifice of the other. Therefore, women assuming multiple roles experience role conflict and role strain. When a conflict between two life domains occurs, the consequences are reflected in the organization, domestic life and the society at large.

Furthermore, a retired male director notes that acknowledging women in leadership positions as people with families of their own was not something which happened at work, except in the sense where there was a problem. He explained further that women complained that there was a lack of support for them as wives and mothers and that no one even acknowledged their predicament. In his observation:

> *There is no doubt women leaders experience clashes between family and official obligations. But they need to perform at both domains. Many times while in service, one of my heads of department was always complaining of fatigue due to domestic activities at home... but that does not mean she would not perform her duties at work. Sometimes they complain that men are hard on them, that nobody cares how they balance the two. But sincerely speaking balancing these roles could be very challenging for them.*
> *KII/married/Male/Retired Director/2013.*

The above finding portrays a silent desire to be heard and helped out, but not a desire to

stay off the job as a way out even when they can further attest to their resiliency.

Role Stress

Still on the socio-cultural factors constraining women in leadership positions in the Oyo State civil service, 13.8% of the respondents revealed that they experienced role stress arising from balancing gender roles and leadership roles expectations. The respondents revealed that many women feel as though they must choose between 'being liked 'and being effective. They, however, said that the requirements of their job, as well as their commitment to their personal values, demands that certain standards be enforced. The upholding of these standards, however, often contradicts staff expectations of leniency and leeway. One of the respondents had this to say

> *It is very hard to do what you know you should do, yet avoid the consequences of whatever action you take. Sometimes I make a decision then I come to my office and ponder on it. Sometimes I am confused and wish somebody could advise me. My boss just says these things come with the job....*
> *IDI/Married/Female/ Assistant Director/2013.*

Buttressing the above point, a married female permanent secretary explained further that people don't know that sometimes it doesn't help at all as women in leadership positions to have nice values. She went on to say that women leaders don't want to be mean, but circumstances at times force them to be. And if you become mean many at times, you forget you were ever nice, in the process hurt some people. Narrating one of her experiences, said:

> *Punctuality is my watch word and my staff knows that but some of them still come late to work...After series of warning, I resorted to the issuance of queries whenever anybody comes late. So they developed both fear and hatred towards me. But I need to take that decision to enforce discipline though they took it as wickedness. So you see it's not that I'm a wicked person, but just principled.Unfortunately, the action was misinterpreted.*
> *IDI/Married/Female/ Permanent Secretary/2013*

The above supports the view of Eagly et all and Kellerman and Rhode cited in Catalyst.org. (2007.) They stated that women leaders are subjected to extreme perceptions when women act in gender-consistent ways, that is, in a cooperative, relationship focused manner, they are perceived as 'too soft' a leader. They are perceived to 'fit in' as women

but not as leaders. When women act in gender- inconsistent ways, that is when they act authoritatively show ambition, and focus on the task, they are viewed as 'too tough'. In this case, they are often accused of 'acting like a man and of being overly aggressive. They might be acting leader-like, but not lady-like. Based on these extreme perceptions, women face tradeoffs that men in the same situation do not experience. Speaking further on the above, an unmarried male Director said,

> *There are contradicting perceptions of the behavior of women leaders. They are expected to be nurturing but seen as ineffective if they are too feminine. They are expected to be strong but tend to be judged as abrasive or strident when acting as leaders. This put them in dilemma of which way to do it best.'*
> *IDI/Single/Male/ Director/2013.*

Another Married Male Assistant Director also contributed. He opined

> *There are varying views on how women leaders should behave compared to their male counterparts. For instance, while men gain respect for expressing anger or sadness, women who show emotion openly are perceived to be out of control. There is too much contradicting pressure to behave or look a certain way. This may be a challenge for the women.'*
> *IDI/Married/Male/Assistant Director/2013*

Still in line with the above discussion, on further probing, it was discovered that many women in leadership positions have values and aspirations that clash with the requirement of their jobs, and or expectations of their colleagues or bosses. And that naturally, women are compassionate and honest, but sometimes they get into situations where they are being constrained as regards taking certain decisions like issuing a query to subordinates or tell lies to protect subordinates, colleagues, or bosses as the case may be.

A female retired Director during one of the KIIs narrated her experience while in service.

> *'Women in positions of authority in this public institution many times are being constrained due to the way people mix up the issue of gender in terms of the expectations of being a woman...and the expectations of that woman in that office or position of authority. But at the same time, people forget that these women leaders, who have secured their positions want to keep those positions by all means and not only that, protect their integrity. There was a fraudulent act by my immediate boss...in the course of the investigation, I was asked to put in black and white what I knew about the act. People came behind begging me to tell lies to cover*

him up...but unfortunately, they forgot that I needed to protect my integrity and also my job...They expected me to be compassionate as a woman and cover him, especially because he was my boss, but they also forgot that I was also expected to be honest. These and some other factors constrain women in positions of authority. At end of the day, I damned the consequences, though hard for me, but I needed to maintain my integrity.'
KII/married/female/ retired director/2013

Another important reason stated by 7.8% of the respondent was the lack of female mentors. The disproportionate representation of women, particularly at the upper echelons of most Nigerian organizations, may also have implications for social interactions amongst working women. This would suggest that junior female workers may not have enough female leaders as a prototype model to look up to in comparison to their male counterparts. Mentoring has long been described throughout the literature as helpful for career progression (Weir, 2003). Mentors are considered critical for career advancement as they participate in career progression though coaching, role modeling and counseling. This result is similar to previous studies conducted in USA where employees with mentors have been found to have access to important people and enjoy more career satisfaction and promotions more frequently (Singh et al., 2006).

Mentors are considered important to the success of female leadership because mentors help in the development of manager's sense of identity and professional confidence and reduce discrimination (Burke & Karambavya, 2004). However, some studies have highlighted the difficulties that female employees have in getting mentors (Burke & Karambavya, 2004). Essentially, there are few women in senior positions and the discomfort with cross-gender mentors. Given men's control in the organization they are more likely to be mentors. This suggests that female employees miss opportunities for career progression because they lack female role models.

Informal Social Networks

Similarly, 14.2% of the respondents disclosed that lack of informal social network was one of the factors constraining women in leadership positions in the Oyo State Public Service. Networking, according to the respondents is very important because as women in

leadership, they need connections and be able to make people recognize them. However, this is lacking and is also a difficult task to achieve as disclosed by the respondents. Based on their personal experiences, they believe that females have more difficulties creating networks compared to males. The reasons vary, depending on individuals, but they claim that males are easier to be open and socialized compared to females. They have through personal experiences discovered that females are more 'scared' by nature while it comes 'naturally' for males. This may lead to the lack of access to vital information that may be useful in the continued leadership. A married female assistant director shared her experience during one of the IDIs.

> *The thing that happens with a lot of women is that we're on the peripheral of the social circles and we can be locked out in many instances. Some women don't play golf or play squash. So we don't get those invitations. So the relation- ships that we form can mostly be those relationships that are on a work level... So they have formed a male social network. I recall a particular instance when I was part of a group of officers that had gone to an out-of-town meeting. I was the only woman among a group of about 12 men. After the meeting, we went out to eat at a spot. But the atmosphere had a bar-like setting and it turned out to be a drinking session as well. I don't drink at home, so I'm not going to drink in these types of settings. Being the novice I went back to my hotel room, feigning not feeling well. The next day I got into the meeting bright eyed and ready because I had gone to bed early. I was looking at the agenda and thinking about the decisions we would be making that day. Surprisingly, to them, a meeting was just somewhere to be. They didn't believe in following an agenda. So when I began to bring up items on the agenda, I was told, Oh, we decided on that last night! It may sound strange, but it happens.*
> *IDI/Married/Female/ assistant director/2013.*

The above is in line with the finding by Linstead, Fulop and Lilley (2004) concerning networks. They explained that females have historical experience in moral issues dealing with development of networks, compared to males. The main reason according to the authors is culture stereotyping that exists in societies. As buttressed by another female Director, women can be embarrassed by male colleagues when they attempt to join informal social networks. Sharing a personal experience, she explained thus!

> *One day I decided to engage one of my male colleagues in a discussion on informal social networking thinking it will help my career. He said a responsible married woman is not supposed to have anything to do with informal social networking with males.*

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IDI/Married/ Female/ Director/2013.

In line with above, a married male Director further explained.

> *Some members of the society, even women themselves, are not wearing gender glasses when concluding about these informal network activities. They see it as an avenue for sexual promiscuity. But that is not always true Women leaders need these for growth and development of their career. And indeed, women are lacking in this regards and is affecting some of them in their various positions of authority.*
> *IDI/Married/Male/director/2013*

The above finding support existing literature by Pini et al, (2004) who discovered in their study on women networking that women's network have not always been perceived as positive with even the intended beneficiaries questioning their value. In their study, some respondents worry that women's networks are viewed as 'have-a-chat clubs.' Also in a similar study by Bierenna (2005), women worry that joining women's networks could be seen as 'recipe swapping male-bashers 'or as sending a message that they 'need help. Lorber(1979), further claimed that females are more of outsiders in the context of equality and network building, and also that males are by nature more trust worthy to those who are more like them. However, another respondent had a contrary opinion. She avers that:

> *As a female, I have experienced difficulty in developing and creating networks in this institution. And as a matter of fact, this informal social network is very important for women leaders to succeed as women executives. From experience, I believe that the main reason for the difficulty was not issues of trust, but that females by nature are more 'scared' compared to males to create contacts of the network.*
> *IDI/Single/Female/deputy director/2013*

Discrimination

Furthermore on the socio-cultural constraints, some of the respondents disclosed that they are being constrained by discrimination against them in the workplace. They explained further that women begin to act the stereotypical female role as a child and continue along this same path as an adult. According to them, these gender stereotypes portray women as lacking the very qualities that people commonly associate with effective leadership, thus creating a false perception that women don't measure up to men when it comes to top

level management positions. Thereby in the workplace, these stereotypes can have extremely detrimental consequences.

A married female Director had this to say

> *There are so many negative stereotypes of women leaders. And you know what they are...Women are not principled, we are soft, we can't handle positions of authority_ all those things. I recall when I got to this position, I had first to establish what kind of woman I was...and once I beat those negative insinuations, then I had to be careful to preserve my integrity. Any woman leader who is not able to all of that will be demoralized by the discrimination she will be subjected to.*
> *IDI/married/female/ director/2013.*

This submission is consistent with existing literature that negative stereotypes about women in leadership positions represent one factor that contributes to the large disparity that remains between men and women in leadership positions (Eagly and Carli 2007). These negative stereotypes result in prejudice against women such that they are perceived as less competent leaders and less deserving of leadership roles (Heilman, 2001; Phelan and Rudman, 2010; Ridgeway, 2001; Schein 2001). In addition to this, the finding also supports the views of the liberalist feminist theory that differences between men and women exist from their earliest moments in life and results in fundamentally different ways of viewing the world. These differences are seen in the way women and men construct and interpret reality and how these influence the formation of their values and intentions. Men and women are inherently different because of differences in their socialization, training and experiences encountered before entry into particular work positions. Differences in nurturing result in different self-perceptions, motivations and belief structures. As a consequence, women adopt different approaches to work, which may or may not be as equally as effective as those adopted by men.

Another respondent, a married female Director also said.

> *The first thing we must do tolead successfully in these types of harsh environments is to trust God. Because if you don't, you will spend a lot of your energy trying to make things right that you don't have the ability to make right. You can't control how other people feel about you, you can't control how they react to you, but you can control your inner peace...women face harsh expectations. Therefore you*

> *work extra harder to prove your worth, otherwise, you will be*
> *sidetracked.'*
> *(IDI/married/female/ director 2013)*

A female retired director opines,
> *We face situations, deal with them, and move on. We don't*
> *necessarily expend time in trying to sort out the meaning of what*
> *happened because by the time we have pondered it even for a short*
> *while, another event is encountered that takes its place. We cannot*
> *seek to change people, but rather seek to change the situation.*
> *KII/married/female/retired director/2013.*

Buttressing the point being discussed, a married male Director explained further

> *Women have always had to deal with many setbacks in leadership*
> *positions, from traditional overwhelmingly male- oriented models to*
> *harsh expectations and standards imposed on them by society. They*
> *need to work harder and many times under pressure to prove their*
> *worth and that they are equal to the task.*
> *IDI/married/male/ director/2013.*

From existing literature, traditionally, leadership has been studied using male norms as the standards (Chiliwniak, 1997). Stereotypes paint men as a much more natural fit for top leadership positions than women (Eagly and Karau, 1992, Heilman 2001). This creates a barrier women have fought hard to overcome by adapting masculine leadership characteristics. Obviously, through the lens of the male oriented models, men are automatically viewed as better leaders, while women have to work to adopt masculine behaviors to be taken seriously as leaders. When it comes to bias and discrimination in the workplace, women leaders walk a fine line when trying to fit into the narrowly defined set of behaviors in which cultural feminism overlaps with leadership (Lips, 2009). This fine line is one of the most complex problems female leaders face in the workplace. They are often criticized for being too sexless or too sexual, too pushy or too soft, too strident or too accommodating and so on. With the necessity to conform to, often conflicting sets of expectations, women leaders are relentlessly held to a higher standard than their male counterparts (Lips, 2009).

4.4. Influence of Gender-Related Leadership Styles on Women's Access to Leadership Positions

In this section, attempt was made to unveil the similarities and differences in leadership styles of both men and women in the Oyo State Civil Service. Leadership style, as used in this study, is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. Understanding the leadership preference or styles of women in the Oyo State Civil Service is a prerequisite towards understanding some challenges that emanate from these leadership styles, and which to a large extent determine access of women into top leadership positions. Given, questions relating to whether the leadership styles of female workers in the Oyo State Civil Service promote or impede their access to higher positions were asked.

Table 4.2.7 Leadership styles adopted by women

LEADERSHIP STYLE	REGULARLY	SOMETIMES	OCCASIONALLY
Allows subordinate to use their initiatives	46.4	39.2	13.6
Allows subordinates to make contributions	46.8	37.8	13.8
Involves subordinates in decision making	45.4	35.9	17.2
Maintain inter-personal relations with subordinates	51.5	31.8	14.4
Maintain an open door policy with subordinates and colleagues	53.4	32.4	13.5
Insist on strict adherence to rules and regulations	40.0	42.1	14.6
Flexibility in organizational matters	27.5	40.0	27.1
Believes in equity and fairness to all	55.9	25.7	16.0
Does not care how their subordinates discharge their duties	11.7	15.8	21.6
Empathetic	26.5	52.0	14.8
Task-oriented	45.2	38.4	15.0
Coercive	16.0	44.8	29.0

Source: Field work 2013

Women in positions of authority vary in their leadership styles depending on the theory that informs their practices, their experience in the field, the issue that needs to be addressed just to mention a few. Respondents were asked about the type of leadership styles they frequently use.

The above table presented the various leadership styles adopted by women in leadership

positions in the Oyo state civil service.

The data shows that 46.4% of the respondents regularly allow their subordinates to use their initiatives while 39.2% sometimes allow their subordinates to use their initiatives and 13.6% occasionally allow their subordinates to use their initiatives. This finding suggests that majority of the respondents regularly allow their subordinates to use their initiatives while carrying out tasks in the workplace. Both parties stand to gain from this style of leadership in many ways which include working under harmonious environments; again, it opens up a channel for proper mentoring on the part of the subordinates. It will also give room for both parties to rub minds together and share ideas which invariably lead to greater effectiveness and efficiency. In the same vein, 46.8% of the respondents regularly allow subordinates to make contributions while 37.8% sometimes give room for subordinates to make contributions and 13.8% occasionally allow subordinates to make contributions. Furthermore, 45.4% of the respondents regularly involve subordinates in decision making, 35.9% sometimes involve the subordinates in decision making and 17.2% occasionally involve the subordinates in decision making. On cross tabulation of the length of service of the respondents with involving subordinates in decision making, the result shows a significant relationship(p=0.03,df=12,χ=22.632) exists between them This finding, therefore, suggests that majority of the respondents regularly use a participatory democratic style of leadership which is associated with the communal qualities of women. Also, 51.5% of the respondents regularly maintain an inter-personal relationship with subordinates, 31.8% sometimes maintain an inter-personal relationship with the subordinates and 14.4% occasionally maintain an interpersonal relationship with the subordinates. Again, a majority of the respondents (53.4%) regularly maintain an open door policy with subordinates and colleagues, 32.4% sometimes maintain an open door policy with subordinates and colleagues and 13.5% occasionally maintain an open door policy with subordinates and colleagues. On cross tabulation of marital status with maintaining inter-personal relationship with subordinates, it was revealed that there was no significant relationship (p=0.23, df=15, χ=18.509) between them. The data also shows that 27.5% of the respondents regularly display flexibility in organizational matters, 40% sometimes display flexibility in organizational matters and 27.1% occasionally display

flexibility in organizational matters. Also, 55.9% of the respondents regularly believe in equity and fairness to all, 25.7% sometimes believes in equity and fairness to all and 16% occasionally believes in equity and fairness to all. Furthermore, quite a minor percentage(26.5%) of the respondents regularly show empathy, while majority(52%) sometimes show empathy and 14.8% occasionally show empathy. When the marital status of the respondents was cross tabulated with being empathetic, the data revealed significant relationship(p=0.01,df=15,χ=49.028) between the variables suggesting that being married or single, may also determine how often the respondents show empathy in the workplace. The above findings suggest a participatory democratic style of leadership common among the respondents.

On further cross tabulation to show relationships between socio-demographic variables and leadership styles of the respondents, the following were deduced. On cross tabulation of how long the respondents have been in their positions with being task-oriented, the result shows that there is a significant relationship between the variables (p=0.01, df=6, χ=16.298) which suggests that women in leadership positions' attitude or disposition towards task orientation is directly related to, or is being prompted by how long they have been holding their various positions. However, the data also reveals that 45.2% of the respondents are regularly task-oriented, 38.4% are sometimes task-oriented and 15% are occasionally task-oriented. Similarly, 40% of the respondents regularly insist on strict adherence to rules, 42.1% sometimes insist on strict adherence to rules and 14.6% occasionally insist on strict adherence to rules. On further cross tabulation of respondents' educational qualification with their degree of insistence on strict adherence to rules and regulations, the result indicated a significant relationship (p=0.01, df=6, χ=33.582) between the variables, which suggests that their level of education determines their attitude towards enforcement of adherence to rules and regulations in the workplace. In the same vein, a minor percentage (11.7%) of the respondents does not care how subordinates discharge their duties, 15.8% sometimes does not care how subordinates discharge their duties and 21.6% does not occasionally care how subordinates discharge their duties. The data that 16% of the respondents are always coercive, 44.8 are

sometimes coercive and 28.0% are occasionally coercive. These findings therefore suggest that a minority of the respondents use a form of autocratic style of leadership which is associated with agentic qualities common among men.

Democratic-Participatory Style

Many of the women leaders saw their style of leadership as essentially serving the needs of others emphasizing reciprocity, mutuality, and responsibility toward others; is collective and participatory; focuses on relationships and empowerment; and highlights outcomes as a central goal of leadership. In contrast to men's style, they de- emphasize hierarchical relationships, individualism, and one-way power relationships. Whether men and women behave differently in leadership roles is a much-debated question. Although there is general agreement that women face more barriers to becoming leaders than men do, especially for leadership roles that are male-dominated (Eagly and Karau, 2001), there is much less agreement about the behavior of women and men once they attain such roles. This issue is usually discussed in terms of leadership styles when the style is understood as relatively stable patterns of behavior that are manifested by leaders.

Furthermore, 60% of the women acknowledged allowing subordinates use their initiatives, 60.6% said they give the subordinates the opportunity to make contributions while 62.6% noted that they involve their subordinates in decision making. Buttressing the above, a male respondent had this to say during the IDI session.

> *Women are good workers, they perform their duties with diligence*
> *are patient and willing to offer services to people and this has been*
> *helping some of them as they climb the ladder of leadership.*
> *Whereas men do not have the patience especially to work....*
> *Idi/married/ male/ assistant director/2013.*

These results confirm the assertion that female workers are more competent in taking initiative, practicing self-development, integrity and honesty and driving for positive results (Zenger Folkman, 2012), though Yukl (2002) observed that there is no difference in leadership ability amongst gender Furthermore, it is also apparent that women are more

likely to possess emotional intelligence than men. Emotional intelligence has to do with the capacity to be aware of, control, and express one's emotions, and to handle interpersonal relationships judiciously and empathetically.

Quite a high percentage of the respondents (65.9%) acknowledged the use of maintaining an interpersonal relationship with subordinates as a style of leadership. The women mentioned that they talk to subordinates when there are issues and find out what is happening in their lives. They also noted that they create a more family-friendly work environment to develop an organizational structure that supports the woman's way of working and this has been promoting their ascension as they move up the leadership ladder.

One female permanent secretary interviewee indicated that she supports her subordinates when the need arises, whether it is work-related or family-related; she explained:

> *Being a woman, I understand my women employees more than men around here. For example, there was a time i noticed that one of my women employees was very tense. She explained that her son was not studying well for his exams. She was upset as she could not pay enough attention to him because she was not at home most of the day. I flashed back on a similar experience I had ... I immediately told her to take casual leave for a couple of weeks for monitoring. There was a big noise from the men in the department, but I was firm in my decision....If there had been a man here instead of me, he would never have even thought of doing this. This behavioral attitude has been helping me a lot.*
> *IDI/married/female/ permanent secretary/2013*

This indicates that women leaders give attention to subordinates' wellbeing and support them in both work and family related matters. This is because transformative leadership favors their feminine values of nurturing and caring. Comparing female leadership style with their male counterpart, a female participant has this to say:

> *Men in leadership positions tend to lead from the front, attempting to have all the answers for their subordinates. Women lean towards facilitative leadership, enabling others. To make their contributions through delegation, encouragement and nudging from behind and this is a welcome style by subordinates.*

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Explaining further, she said

> *Women's main focus is on relationships, they interact more Frequently than men with colleagues and subordinates while men don't always do… and they tend to lead through a series of concrete exchanges that involve rewarding subordinates for a job well done and issuing them a query for an inadequate job performance, though this may not go down well with some subordinates, is an action that must be taken   appropriately.*
> *IDI/married/female/ assistant director/2013*

Many women support contributive, consensual decision making and emphasize the process, but men tend to lean towards majority rule and tend to emphasize the product, the goal. Further findings revealed that men utilize the traditional top-down administrative style while the women are more interested in transforming people's self-interest into organizational goals by encouraging feelings of self-worth, active participation and sharing of power and information. This is in line with Mckinsey, 2009 that women's style of leadership can be defined as people-based, role modeling, consensual decision making and clear expectations. Women are less hierarchical, more cooperative and collaborative, and more willing to enhance the self-esteem of others. Women are seen as friendly, unselfish, concerned with others and emotionally expressive. These confirm that women are likely to fare better with more ease in authentic leadership styles. However, the findings equally revealed that men are more likely to exhibit the punishment element of autocratic style of leadership. Women, on the other hand, are more interested in transforming people's self-interest into organizational goals by encouraging feelings of self-worth, active participation and sharing of power and information.

But when women don't lead in the style that is expected of them(Women's Politeness and Leadership Stereotypes) and lead in a more "manly, autocratic" style, the attributes, which were ascribed to them as, distinct from men and from successful managers, are hardly pleasant ones (Heilman, Block, Martell and Simon, 1989).

However, 60.6% of the respondents disclosed being task-oriented as their style of leadership, 54.6% indicated they always insist on strict adherence to rules and regulations

while 45% revealed a coercive style of leadership. This means that insisting on the strict adherence to organizational rules and regulations could be advantageous and disadvantageous. On the positive side, strict adherence to rules and regulation helps to achieve the organizational goals in an efficient and effective manner. No doubt, every organization has its norms and values that dictate what people are expected to do in the organization at any given point in time. The absence of these organizational norms can lead to worker's nonchalant attitudes and behaviors. On the other hand, insisting on strict adherence to rules and regulations may result to conflict and grumbling among workers.

On further probing whether these gender- related leadership styles impede or promote their access to leadership positions, the respondents disclosed that these styles of leadership sometimes have a negative impact on them. Some of them revealed that they have experienced oppositions one time or another when they were nominated to head project groups or when nominated for higher positions. A retired female Director had this to say.

> *I was the youngest in the meetings. So I had to be careful not to get angry easily. Sometimes I needed to be harsh on them for effectiveness and they turn around and grumble and to the extent that they (members of my ministry) voted against me when I was nominated to head a project.*
> *IDI/married/ female/retired/ Director/2013*

Many of them described a constant tension between being soothing and comforting to the employees and, at the same time, demanding performance and being assertive and for them communication plays an important role in displaying both behaviors. Interestingly, these women distinguished the impact of their assertiveness based on the attitude of the workers. A female assistant director noted this in one of the IDIs sessions. Her submission,

> *At that [top] level, it is a struggle. Even in a hierarchy, if you are as equal as another leader who is male, you will not get the same respect. They [employees] do not take women seriously at times you may find it difficult to believe… So, as a woman leader of the organization, one has to assert a lot. If you do not make them understand that you are the leader, they think of you as secondary because you are a woman.*
> *IDI/married/female/ assistant director/2013*

Another Male Retired Director indicated,

Women have to display 'manlike' traits to be recognized as powerful leaders Women are often considered polite and soft-spoken with no real power to lead an organization and therefore taken for granted sometimes. The display of these manlike traits at times may not be palatable to some and may also affect the women while climbing the leadership ladder.
KII/married/male/ retired director/2013

Influence Of Autocratic Style Of Leadership Of Women On Access To Higher Positions

When probed further about "manlike" qualities, the respondents mentioned that a task-focused approach with little consideration for personal issues and a competitive attitude were considered "manlike." Displaying power by adopting an authoritative attitude and using formal communication was considered part of behaving like men and women who display these manlike qualities are not most often liked by both colleagues and subordinates and sometimes impede their bid to move up the ladder of leadership but that they need to display such qualities for efficiency and effectiveness.

According to another female respondent,

I am a very principled and firm person, I look at situations objectively before I take decisions and I don't compromise but I have come to the realization that this style of leadership do not go down well with some people and it affects some women negatively, to the extent that if such women are nominated for some sensitive positions, they raise eyebrows because we don't compromise
IDI/married/ female/Director/2013.

Another female respondent said,

It is not that women are difficult to work with but we want to maintain our integrity, we don't bend and we are firm, which people may not like and this is being used against us as women in various ways.
IdI/married/Female/director/2013

Another Director also shared her experience

"…As a woman, I don't take nonsense. I have had the course to send people back home for Improper dressing and also have issued several queries for acts of indiscipline. You know what? When I was nominated for a higher post, a majority of them

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> *voted against me. But that doesn't change me. I remain who I*
> *am. I'm not bothered…"*
> *IDI/Married/Female/Director/2013*

A male Permanent Secretary also had this to say

> *Generally speaking, people, even women prefer working with*
> *males than females probably because women are perceived to*
> *be tough. So you discover that even women do not support*
> *their fellow women. It's that bad…"*
> *IdI/married./male/ Permanent secretary/2013*

Aspects of gender roles that is especially relevant to understanding leadership include agentic and communal characteristics (Eagly et al., 2000). Agentic characteristics, which are ascribed more strongly to men than women, describe primarily an assertive, controlling, and confident tendency–for example, aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, daring, self-confident, and competitive. In employment settings, agentic behaviors might include speaking assertively, competing for attention, influencing others, initiating activity directed to assigned tasks, and making problem-focused suggestions. Communal characteristics, which are ascribed more strongly to women than men, describe primarily a concern with the welfare of other people–for example, affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, nurturing, and gentle. In employment settings, communal behaviors might include speaking tentatively, not drawing attention to oneself, accepting others' direction, supporting and soothing others, and contributing to the solution of relational and interpersonal problems.

However, a study of women leaders, including leaders of public sector enterprises, found compassion and empathy in relationships, the ability to network more effectively among colleagues, and better management of crisis situations were strengths of women leaders (Budhwar, et al., 2005). However, Mehra (2002) reported that the majority of organizations do not consider these traits important, and are reluctant to accept an approach that would accommodate feminine values. Instead, men managers believe that emotions influence the decision- making processes of women managers. Women managers are considered weak because they are perceived as less assertive, less

competitive, and less aggressive in the demanding work environment (Gupta et al., 1998). These stereotypes exist due to the masculine structures of organizations (Kulkarni, 2002). Though limited, research on public sector leaders has reported similar findings; this literature indicates that the domination of masculine values leads to the devaluation of the feminine traits women bring to leadership positions, and thus creates barriers for women (Budhwar, et al., 2005; Naqvi, 2011). As a result, organizations fail to enable women to utilize fully their leadership capabilities.

4.5. Personal Experiences of Women in Administrative Leadership Positions in Oyo State Civil Service

CASE STUDY 1

CS1/married/female/Executive Secretary/2014

Family background: Her father was a disciplinarian, highly principled and attached great value to education. Though she was born with a silver spoon in her mouth, her family background and upbringing did not give room for her father's wealth to get into her head. Her father constantly reminded the children as they were growing that they should never depend on his riches but rather, they should also strive to acquire their wealth through legal means. Furthermore, he always told them that life is full of ups and downs and that in the midst of the challenges of life; they should look for the opportunities and never give up. Her watchword since then has been 'winners don't quit and quitters don't win'.

With all these at the back of her mind, she decided within herself that come what may, in whichever career she chooses, she will strive to stand out. She was appointed into the Oyo state civil service in 1983 with the support of her former boss at Queens School Ibadan where she was teaching. Her boss encouraged her to pick up the civil service form and personally followed up until she got the employment. She started as a level 8 officer. She has since being promoted as at when due. For her, the promotion exercise is objective.

Experience at the point of entry

She was appointed into the Oyo state civil service with the support of her former boss at Queens School Ibadan, who encouraged her to pick up the civil service form and personally followed up until she got the employment. She started as a level 8 officer and her appointment was confirmed after four years, afterward has been promoted as at when

due.

Leadership style

She believes in being a leader and not a 'boss'; enjoin collaborative efforts in the attainment of goals (team work) and transparency at work.

Challenges at work

She relates the prevailing trend of gender bias towards women, power play and contentions with male colleagues and subordinates who fail to recognize and accord her superiority. She narrated the instance of her nomination as the Executive Secretary of her present ministry; an incident that degenerated into a controversial stance that the position of an executive secretary cannot be properly handled by a woman. After her appointment against all oppositions, some colleagues and subordinates continually peddled untrue information, alleging her of having an affair with her immediate boss who nominated her for the post and also that she is chronically fetish and so on. It was also hinted by her that in a bid to frustrate her, some colleagues and subordinates did not give her the required support. She remained resolute to her duties as the Executive Secretary, ignoring their attitudes. In the course of the discharge of her obligation, she revealed that some of these people emerged un-expectedly to shower encomiums on her, avowing that no man has ever achieved what she has been able to achieve.

At present, her proposal has been sent to the Executive Governor for the appointment to the position of a permanent secretary, which is the peak in the civil service apart from that of the Commissioner, which is a political appointment. Furthermore, she informed that due to bias against the women folk when it comes to the issue of positions of authority, people advised her to seek for 'spiritual assistance' but she maintains that her hard work and past achievements would justify her competence. She has appeared for the interview and she is awaiting a positive response.

Challenges at home front

She emphasized that the challenges that confronted her in the home-front was traceable to her role in the workplace. Being a dedicated and committed career woman who was involved in formulation and execution of many projects that required holding meetings late into the nights, she gets home late often.

Besides, her work which involves travelling in and out of the country to supervise and monitor projects made her role at the home front quite difficult. Combining these roles were quite challenging and frustrating for her. This did not go down well with her

husband, who was always complaining and at some points had asked her to resign her appointment. She had had to turn down some offers because she knew fully well that she would not be able to combine the responsibilities involved with the family demands. She hinted that she had wanted to turn down the World Bank project but for the Permanent Secretary who insisted due to her leadership abilities and commitment demonstrated over the years. Had her husband not granted her consent, the opportunity would have been forgone as she recounts.

Coping Strategies

At the Work Place

Coping strategies employed by her for success at the workplace includes a strong determination to reach the peak of her career despite the gender bias, being focused at every stage of the job. According to her, the strongest factor for success is self-esteem, believing you can do it, believing you will do it and believing you deserve it.

At the Home Front

She recalls that she has always been engaging the services of domestic servants and support from relatives. However, due to inevitable conditions and circumstances overtime beyond her control, she had to put the children in the boarding school.

Achievements/Experiences

As an education officer in the planning, research and statistics at the Ministry of Education, she initiated and executed many projects where she was responsible for planning for all schools in Oyo state and she made remarkable achievements which served as motivating factors while mounting leadership position.

Due to hard work and commitment, she was made a project coordinator of a World Bank project. The project involved drawing a loan facility from World Bank and being able to make judiciously a fast use of the loan for execution of projects. During her tenure, out of sixteen (16) states, Oyo state came second and today when she sees the results of the projects she fills fulfilled.

Empowering/Enabling Factors: Parental counsel/guidance, Parental Support, Education, hard work and spousal support

CASE STUDY 2

CS2/ Married/Female /Permanent Secretary/2014

Family Background: She was born with a silver spoon in her mouth, according to her; she always got whatever she wanted from her parents being the only female child. For this singular reason, she could not remember being scolded at any time by her parents.

Experience at the point of entry

She started as an education officer with B.Sc. (Guidance and Counselling) teaching at Queens School, Ibadan. She noted that she had always had aspirations besides being a classroom teacher. As a result, she summoned the courage to cross to the civil service which availed her the opportunity she had always desired; transferring her service from the Ministry of Education to the Ministry of Social Welfare. She recalled she faced the first opposition from her boss, a female Director. She hinted that this opposition was devised through a transfer from Ibadan to Oshogbo by the boss; who disregarded the fact that she was as at the time a newly married woman who was based in Ibadan. However, through the intervention of a superior officer, the transfer was stepped down but that marked the beginning of her woes in that ministry with her female boss.

Challenges/Constraints at the work place

She noted that she did not enjoy the maximum support and cooperation of her colleagues and subordinates; all of whom were males, (coupled with the hatred displayed by her boss) because she was seen as a threat due to her academic qualification. According to her, most of her colleagues were experienced but not certificated. Given this situation, she did not have any mentor to look up to

She narrated her experience during a time she innovated the idea of inaugurating a youth arm of the Rotary club. She hinted she made efforts to ensure the success of the project. On the day the club was to formally launch this project claimed to have been her initiation, she was denied the privilege of anchoring the programm. She stated the Director demanded a copy of the programme, canceled where her name appeared and slotted in other persons as the anchor. Hence, she became a spectator of the ceremony of the project she has initiated. However, she remained dedicated and committed to her work despite the challenges because her vision was to reach the peak of her career. Gradually, she went for training with UNICEF, participated in various seminars, workshops with certificates, all of which helped her to move up the leadership ladder in the midst of the constraint and challenges. She also related she has had her share of sexual harassment.

Achievements

She originated numerous programmes in the civil service though with great difficulty, due to the discriminatory disposition towards her, being a female. When she joined the ministry of social welfare, it was a single department ministry, but for the progressive efforts and extra hard work, the ministry has been transformed into a full-fledged Agency with five departments. She noted that she had at one time or another been involved in the execution of many projects and has improved herself academically by pursuing her MSc degree.

With the determination to reach the peak of her career, when the call came for the appointment of PS., she also packaged and forwarded her proposal. She wrote the exams, Unfortunately she failed but because of her determination, she wrote a second time and passed; through hard work as well as Providence, she became a Permanent Secretary.

Leadership Style

Though she experienced a lot of power play and contentions, this did not influence her negatively. She decided to mentor female subordinates to be able to navigate through the challenges they may encounter. She is principled, uncompromising, maintain an interpersonal relationship with subordinates, believes in team work. Also, she claims combining motherly dispositions and at the same time firm and objective posture would foist a good leadership style.

Experience with political office holders

She reckons that in relation to political office holders, respect begets respect. According to her, there is the need to recognize them as bosses but in case they want to deviate from the norms, one needs to be resolute that the rules are to be maintained. Meetings were sometimes held till early hours of the morning.

Challenges at home front

The experiences have not been too palatable, though she acknowledged the maximum support by her husband while climbing the ladder. Now that the children are grown up, challenges at home front are minimized. However, she recalls a nasty experience in which one of her sons almost died due to the carelessness of her domestic servants who was taking care of them whenever she was at work.

Coping Strategies

At Work

She emphasized that staying focussed; embracing commitment, dedication, hard work and prioritizing roles would enable effective performance of any woman in her position.

At home

Employing the services of domestic servants and adequate support by husband are coping tips at the home front, according to her.

Empowering Factors: Desire to get whatever she wanted, Education, Spousal support

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CASE STUDY 3

CS3/married/female/ Permanent Secretary/2014

Family background/Empowering factors: She was brought up in an almost all males environment being the only girl in a family of five children. While growing up, she sometimes forgot she was a girl because she competed for virtually everything with her male siblings. The words from her parents were ''don't allow the boys to cheat you, struggle with them, make sure you fight for your rights and get them. She developed ''tomboy characters from her childhood days and throughout her primary and higher institutions, she was never afraid to compete with men for positions. She was her class representative from her first through her final year in the university.

Experience at the point of entry

She came into the Ministry of Education as an Education Officer with B.A. (English), posted to Government College where she taught. Due to having a desirable ambition that was beyond the classroom, she put in for ASCON lectures, wrote the exams and passed. According to her, this presented her the opportunity to cross to the administrative officer cadre.

Challenges/Constraints

She needed to work extra hard to prove her worth as female administrative leader because of the male dominated environment and the thought that women cannot effectively handle leadership positions. She experienced subtle insubordination especially from males who sometimes failed to recognize her superiority. She cited two instances when a Driver and A Messenger were rude to her. She also narrated an incidence that occurred when she was Director (Finance and Administration). Before she was posted to that Ministry, she hinted that a woman was promoted without the necessary qualification. During another promotion exercise after assuming duty, she refused to recommend the woman for promotion. People approached her and attempted cajoling her with gender sentiment, which she declined. According to her, being a female does not mean one should not maintain one's integrity. Her action was taken as an offense, and she stated it resulted in a spiritual attack against her (though she did not disclose the details of the incidence).

Achievements/Experiences

She was at a point in time Deputy Project Coordinator for Oyo State World Bank assisted project. She was also the Secretary of the Committee on the establishment of the first Oyo state University, now Ladoke Akintola at Ogbomosho. She was also a member of the Committee that established the defunct Trans International Bank to mention a few. In her efforts to move up the leadership ladder, she attained a Diploma in Public Administration for proficiency on the job. She also attended various seminars, and has obtained other certified qualification.

Leadership Style

She affirms that being principled, not compromising ethics and morals, which people sometimes misinterpret to be wickedness, are essential prerequisites. She developed this style in line with her experience. According to her, if one wants to succeed especially as a female, one need not solicit for unnecessary patronage from co-workers. She clarified that this is not to mean that one should not be worker-friendly rather that one should be diplomatic to maintain a leverage for addressing issues in accordance with the rules and norms of the organization in correspondence with roles and expectations from workers as a leader in charge of ensuring order and compliance with authority. This is the expectation of the status of leadership, either one is a male or female, according to her.

Experience with Political office holders

Hard work/Commitment

She narrated her experience during one of the past administrations. A prominent political godfather (late) had requested for a file when she was the acting Permanent Secretary of the Ministry, which she refused to oblige, simply because it was against the ethics of her profession. Pressure was mounted on her, but she damned the consequences and refused to deliver the file. It was not a smooth experience to maintain her grounds according to her as the confirmation of her appointment as Permanent Secretary was somehow delayed, which she believed was an aftermath of the refusal. She hinted that it is appropriate to avoid compromising one's statutory duty.

Family/Work Challenges

Due to meetings held late in the nights, she experienced series of complaints from her husband and other challenges at home.

Coping strategies

At work

Emphasis was laid on maintaining integrity, hard work, a priority of roles and being focused at work.

At Home

She benefited from the assistance and aid of her domestic servants and mother-in-law at the home front.

Empowering Factors: Education, Resiliency, hard work, self-motivation, spousal support

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CASE STUDY 4

CS4/female/married/Permanent Secretary/2014

Family Background: She was born into a polygamous family, therefore growing up was not palatable for her and her siblings, but their mother always told them that whatever situation they find themselves, they should endure and never give in to pressures.

Experience at the point of entry

She crossed to the civil service after attending ASCON lectures and having written the exams, she was promoted from a research assistant with NISER to an Administrative

officer on grade level 8.

Challenges/Constraints

According to her, she was socialized in a culture where men are in the majority and always wanted to dictate. This made her experience a lot of power play and discrimination which were not palatable. She paved her way to the top through commitment as well as by acquiring more education, attendance of seminars, workshops and even a second degree (MSc in Public Administration).

Achievements/Experiences

She was at a time, the head of Political and Security department and also the only woman in the whole department in charge of employment of security personnel. She successfully discharged her duties as expected though with female related challenges of having no mentor.

She was once also in charge of the Oyo state electoral commission which she headed for about ten years successfully in charge of local government elections. She successfully conducted about three elections, the last one in 2007, amidst challenges.

She narrated her experience during one of the elections when a huge amount of money was brought to her to manipulate results. At that time, the fear of being a female came upon her and she rejected the offer. She thought within herself, where to keep the money, where will she tell her husband she got the money from and then what may become of her in future.

Family/work challenges

They were always meetings held late in the nights and she recounted an occasion while holding meeting with the most senior boss around 12 midnight; her husband who is a journalist came looking for her, and saw she was in the middle of a meeting, went home without her while the meeting ended at 2 am!

Leadership Style

She operates by a tolerant policy, team work, and adheres strictly to required principles.

Experience with political office holders

She states that in relation to political office holders, she renders her loyalty in line with the rules and regulations, teaching junior colleagues to discharge the same. However, when she noticed the junior colleagues are faltering, she tread softly by engaging them

compassionately on such matter, making use of her discretion rather than official diplomacy.

Coping strategy

At workplace

Assertiveness, believe in oneself, and selfless ambitions, as well as a key understanding of priorities and separation of roles, are necessary prerequisites.

At home

She relates that she receives assistance from her mother, mother-in-law and other relatives.

Empowering Factors: Resiliency, Commitment, Education, Spousal support, Hard work

CASE STUDY 5

CS5/married/female/Director/2014

Family background/Empowering factors: She had a very humble beginning /background because she lost her father at a tender age and her mother took up the sole responsibility of taking care of the family. Despite the challenges, her mother who was her source of inspiration always sang it into their hearing that no matter the situations and circumstances in life, they should never live at the mercy of anybody. And this she demonstrated by struggling to cater for them and gave them some form of education to the best of her ability. The words of advice by her mother gave her the courage to become who she is today even in the face of the challenges.

Experience at the point of entry

She joined the civil service as a clerical officer on grade level 4 without any interview

because of her connection with the secretary to the state government at the time. Out of self-determination to move up the ladder of leadership, she went attained more education. Besides, she registered for ASCON, wrote the exams twice before she passed for her to cross from sub-officer cadre to the officer cadre.

Challenges at work

Combining education with work for her was not easy. She was queried severally while attending lectures and she had cause to abandon lectures a times and rush back to work because she did not get the support of her boss. Some of her colleagues discouraged her from furthering her education. She narrated her experience at a time when she suffered discrimination as her immediate male boss felt she was a threat and stepped her promotion down on the grounds that there was no vacancy. This incident could have occurred a second time but for the intervention of other superior officers. The reason would also have been tied to an issue that had nothing to do with the promotion. Above all, she is now a boss to some of her colleagues who discouraged her from furthering her education.

Achievements/Experience

She has been involved in many projects and has served as the Secretary of the technical committee of the Water and Sanitation Summit and also part of the organizing Committee involved in repairs of bore-holes at different locations in and outside Oyo State.

Leadership style

She asserted that transparency, team work and maintaining interpersonal relationship are the required leadership styles for women in her position.

Family/Work

Combining the two roles was not easy according to her. Often, she received complaints from her husband because she often stay late at work. She narrated one of her experiences one day when she had cause to stay late at work.

Empowering Factors: Ability to withstand pressures, Dedication, long suffering, Education

CASE STUDY 6: DIRECTOR/ FEMALE/MARRIED/2014

Family Background: She had a very humble beginning and had to move from one relation to another until she was grown to fend for herself. She did not have anybody to look up to, but she decided to make it in life despite all odds.

Experience at point of entry

She joined the service having passed the interview as an accounting officer with B.Sc. (Accounting) with the Oyo State Universal Basic Education Board. She was in this position for about five years without a promotion. Out of frustration, she sought for transfer to the present ministry.

Challenges at work:

According to her, working as one of the few women in a male- dominated environment with no mentor is quite challenging because of the thinking towards women and management of leadership positions. As a woman you need to work extra hard amidst oppositions and discrimination to achieve success, or else you are written off and you will discover that you would not be given any responsibility in the office and this can affect one's proposal negatively with time. She also recalled a time in her career when her promotion was stepped down arising from oppositions against her when nominated, due to the singular reason of being a woman.

She also recalls one of her experiences with her male subordinate although supposedly her colleague. One assumption of duty to the ministry, she was made his boss based on her additional qualification, though they were colleagues. One of their clients at a time brought a gift in the form of cash to them one time. Unfortunately, she was not around, so she asked her supposed colleague to keep the money. As the senior, she was supposed to share the gift appropriately, but her subordinate/ colleague insisted he was to share it. Being a female with a soft heart, she asked him to go ahead. He shared the money as he desired. If she were to be a man according to her, that would not have happened.

Challenges at home: It was not easy for her combining work, attending lectures and family demands.

Leadership Style: Strict adherence to rules and regulations, no compromise and exemplary leadership

Coping strategies

At work: Being focused and not showing emotions. Hard work.

At home: After her first issue, she decided with her husband to suspend child bearing until she is through with obtaining additional qualification to enable her climb the ladder with ease and reach the peak of her career. She is currently running her MBA at the University of Ibadan alongside other professional qualifications.

Empowering factors: Education, Spousal support, Dedication and desire to realize her dreams.

CASE STUDY 7: Married/ Female/ Director/2014

Family Background: She was born into an average family regarding standard of living, brought up to be independent and focussed in life.

Experience at the point of entry

She joined the Teaching Service Commission as a level 8 officer with B.A. Linguistics, by obtaining the form and she was offered the employment after scaling through the interview. Out of her determination not to remain at the lower rungs of the ladder and to break through the glass ceiling, she registered with the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria, attended the lectures, wrote and passed the examinations which enabled her to move to the Executive Officer Cadre.

Leadership style

She believes in transparency, firmness.

 She is principled and a disciplinarian.

Challenges at work:

She experienced opposition when she was to be promoted at one stage in her career, being the first female Director to serve in the Office of the Head of service. But her hard work

and commitment paved way for her and she was promoted at the end of the day. As the first female Director, she had challenging but interesting encounters. According to her, men would always want to dominate, even the subordinates, but as a woman, you need to put your feet down in order not to be side-tracked. She further said that a woman needs to work extra hard to prove her worth which could be very challenging.

At home:

While acknowledging the support of her husband, balancing work and family domains would not have been easy, but for the assistance of her mother and she sometimes engaged domestic servants who carry out the domestic chores.

At workplace

She is focused and not moved by oppositions or hearsays, hardworking, prayerful and dedicated.

Achievements

She has served as Secretary of many committees that have been involved in the execution of various projects. She recalls when she served as Secretary in the EBOLA outbreak committee in the ministry of finance, she was given a letter of commendation for her demonstration of hard work, not only that, the report she presented after was used to buttress the work of a larger committee set up later.

Empowering Factors: Education, Hard work, Spousal Support and a determination to reach the peak of her career

CASE STUDY 8

CCS (Chief Confidential Secretary)/Married/Female/2014

Family Background: She lost both parents to a fatal accident at age four, so she was adopted by a family who struggled to send her to school. According to her, she knew them as her parents until when she came out of secondary school. Although, they could not sponsor her beyond secondary education.

Experience at the point of entry

She saw the advert for the post of Typist in one of the dailies and applied. At that time, she had only school certificate, so she was employed as a typist on grade level 3. At inception, she was trained for about 18 months on the job, which is equivalent to attending the Polytechnique for a certificate in secretarial studies.

Challenges at work

She recalls sometimes ago when she was sexually harassed by one of her past male bosses.

According to her, it first started when after exchanging pleasantries, her boss always tried to touch her head anytime she bowed to greet him, At first, she waved it off, but when it degenerated into slaps on her buttocks, she had to let him know she was not interested being a devoted married woman. This displeased him, he made everything possible to frustrate her, and matters were made worse the moment he discovered she was pregnant. She had to seek for transfer to another Ministry when she could not bear the situation.

She also recalled some periods when they had to be sleeping in the office for about three days to tidy up the INEC programmes. And many at times she had had the course to work late and get home late to also face challenges at the home front.

At home

It was quite challenging for her especially when the children were growing up. Balancing home and official demands was challenging according to her for women in leadership positions.

Leadership Style: Confidentiality due to the nature of her job, also maintain inter personal relationship with colleagues and subordinates.

Empowering Factors: Self-determination, ability to withstand pressures, education and spousal support.

CASE STUDY 9; Director/Married/Female/2014

Family Background: She lost her father at a tender age; her mother single- handedly brought them up with her petty trading. Growing up was challenging for her, but God saw them through.

Experience at the point of entry

She joined the service as an ordinary school certificate holder but later decided to go back to school to further her education. She came back after obtaining her OND in Accountancy but unfortunately for her, the only vacant position was that of an assistant store officer. She took up the offer because she did not want to be a liability on people and because she did not want to sit at home doing nothing with her certificate. Along the line, she obtained HND accountancy on a part- time level, all in the bid to reach the peak of her profession. She also registered with ASCON, wrote and passed the exams and this enabled her to cross the officer cadre.

Challenges/Experiences at work

She recalls her experience with her boss when she was at the pension board commission. According to her being a female, her boss did not believe in her ability to carry out tasks, so she was at first being side tracked by her boss who refused to give her assignments but to her male subordinates. It took her extra hard work and persistence to be able to prove otherwise.

She also had a similar experience when she was serving with the Oyo state independent electoral commission where she was confronted specifically by her boss who told her that woman due to their nature, are lazy and cannot work under stress. Again she had to go the extra mile and made sacrifices to prove him wrong.

Leadership Style; She maintains open door policy, allow subordinates to participate in decision making but firm also.

At home;

The multiple tasks of being a worker, wife, mother and a student were not palatable for her.

Balancing them all was quite challenging.

Coping Strategies

She suspended all social engagements when she was furthering her education because she was always attending classes on weekends and had to end lectures late, arrive home late, also to face the demands of the home. Above all, the determination to reach the peak of her career kept her going and she has a lot of success stories to share.

Empowering Factors; Resiliency, spousal support, Education and hard work.

4.6 Thematic Discussions of the Case Studies

Some of the major themes that emerged from the study included Breaking the barriers, Education, Empowering factors, The importance of mentoring, Networking, Need for self-promotion, Work/Family life balance, Family background(Socialization), Balancing gender and leadership roles expectations, The influence of personal values on career decisions and the importance of leaving a positive legacy.

Breaking through the Barriers

To understand the limited movement of women into prominent positions of leadership, concepts such as the "glass ceiling" have come into wide use. The term is commonly used to describe the invisible barrier that blocks women's chances of further promotion or advancement up the corporate ladder (Glass Cliff, 2008, Olin et al, 2000). The glass ceiling is not simply a barrier for individual women, but it also applies to women as a group, who are kept from advancing simply because they are women. Subtle, indirect obstacles as a result of labeling or stereotyping place stumbling blocks in the career paths of many women. Undoubtedly, the responses from the study are indicative of the glass ceiling phenomenon, as it has been revealed that it is more difficult for women than for men to get to the upper-level positions in organizational settings. According to the literature about equal employment opportunities, the number of women in positions of responsibility is relatively small (García-Izquierdo & Ramos-Villagrasa, 2010), and the result of this study support this idea. There are numerous causes of the glass ceiling for women. One important cause is occupational segregation. The labor market, especially executive positions, remains segregated by gender (Onyeonoru 2005). Women executives are largely concentrated in specific areas, such as personnel, public relations, and even finance specialties, which seldom lead to the most powerful top management posts.

However, there are indeed women who have reached high management positions but are often viewed given their scarcity, as simply "tokens" so that corporate management cannot be accused of discrimination.

Many women in positions of leadership as revealed by the study insist that the most important career strategy for advancing to senior levels is to consistently exceed performance expectations. In other words, for women to shatter or break the glass ceiling, they must work harder and longer than their male counterparts. A standard excuse given by the male power structure is that, as a group, women have not moved into the most powerful positions because there are too few women with the right combination of training, education, and seasoning. In other words, doors have not been open long enough for women as a whole within the top leadership milieus. Bureaucracies that consistently reveal a dearth of women in choice executive positions insist that it is merely a matter of time before women close the equality gap with men regarding leadership. But many women who are climbing the corporate ladder disagree. They believe that the lack of gender equity in leadership positions exists because of the patriarchal values that undergird the structure of leadership. This is also in accord with some of the propositions of the Liberalist feminist theory that inequality experienced by women is a product of sexist patterning of the division of labor and that the inequality between men and women assigned to sex are social constructions having no basis in nature. In essence, women fail to get to the top because of systemic discrimination against them.

Educational Qualification

Part of the problems associated with the low visibility of women in formal occupation relative to men is their low educational status compared with men. Women access to education and training has, however, continued to improve since the 20th century providing many with the necessary qualifications to aspire to jobs in senior management (Onyeonoru, 2005).

More than any other time in the Nigerian history, women education is now considered a priority because it has become a major factor in the development equation, and in particular, a key to gender equity, justice and poverty reduction, improved skills and

technological knowledge acquisition, improved nutrition, reproductive health and general socio-economic development of a nation (Aina, 2012). Furthermore, it was acknowledged by the participants in the study that there has been gradual change overtime with respect to women occupying leadership positions in any organization. Majority of the respondents had made great efforts at improving their academic achievements by furthering their education amidst tight schedules and challenges, many of them who entered the civil service with B.Sc or a lower degree, went for second degree and other professional qualifications. They disclosed that they had dreams and an aspiration that was beyond the lower part of the leadership ladder but to reach the peak of their career and this was the propelling factor behind their actions. In their bid to achieve this, they registered with a body known as ASCON (Administrative staff college of Nigeria), attended lectures and wrote exams which gave them the opportunity to cross to the administrative officer cadres and continued rising on the leadership ladder. Some of them even disclosed that they wrote the exams more than once before they passed. The above is also in line with some of the propositions of Giddens's' structuration theory that in search for a sense of security, actors rationalize their world. By rationalization, they develop routines that not only give actors a sense of security, but enable them to deal efficiently with their social lives. Furthermore, that actor also has motivation to act and those motivations involve wants and desire that prompt action. In the case of the participants, they are being motivated by their desires to break the glass ceiling, reach the top, and erase the notion that women cannot handle positions of authority, and these prompted them to take actions or steps towards furthering their education to acquire more skills, access and retain leadership positions and also gain more visibility and recognition. And above all to perform effectively and efficiently in the positions that were hitherto termed men's positions.

Lack of Mentors

Scholars have observed that mentoring's efficacy is the result of interactions between the mentor and the mentee around career enhancement/development; psychosocial support; and role-modeling. The career enhancement/development mode of mentoring involves the mentor providing training and information about the organization or industry and

navigating a career through it. Kram (1985) identified five career-oriented roles of mentors: sponsorship, coaching, protection, exposure to higher power in the organization, and challenging work assignments

Another barrier to women in leadership according to the respondents is the lack of a critical mass of senior or visibly successful female role models and mentors. Mentoring is an arrangement whereby an individual who has experience and knowledge in a particular field can actively guide and offer support to facilitate the learning or development of another person. The arrangement generally involves a person in a leadership position providing guidance and assistance to an individual in a more junior position. While corporations or institutions of higher learning have recognized the importance and value of mentoring for their employees and have put formal structures in place to support this process, mentoring generally occurs on an informal basis. Given the old-boy network that has been central to men's mentoring and advancement, women traditionally have had fewer mentoring opportunities open to them than their male colleagues. Women in executive positions in the Oyo state Civil Service stress that the lack of mentoring among women has been detrimental to their upward movement on the corporate ladder. Because men generally occupy the highest positions of leadership, men are more likely to be in powerful positions to open doors for those with inferior status. This is a serious barrier to women's advancement. Since the basis of patriarchy has been organized through men's relationships with other men, a similar unity among women is an effective means by which to combat institutional forms and norms that largely exclude women.

Having an effective mentor according to the participants is one pathway around barriers women face along the path to top leadership, and the lack of mentoring may contribute to the disproportionate under-representation of women in top leadership positions. A substantial body of research supports the notion that mentoring contributes greatly to career outcomes.

Furthermore, a mentor can buffer an individual from overt and covert forms of discrimination, lend legitimacy to a person or position, provide guidance and training in the political operation of the organization, and provide inside information on job-related

functions. A mentor may compensate for exclusion from organizational networks where such information is usually found. Mentors can also provide reflected power by signaling that an individual has a powerful sponsor. Mentors can perhaps even increase self-confidence and facilitate career goals. Researchers have worked with several definitions of mentoring. The definitions may emphasize the conduct, content, and function of the relationship or they may emphasize the outcome of the relationship. Usually, they include the idea that two individuals are in a relationship at different levels of power, one more senior than the other regarding influence, position, experience, or maturity. The senior member of the relationship undertakes to advise the junior member about the environment, issues, and relationships he or she encounters or expects to encounter, in the job or in the career. In short, Mentoring is a developmental relationship that may have a career-oriented function and it may also have a psychosocial function. The former function may be characterized as helping the mentee —learn the ropes toward the outcome of enhancing the mentee's effective functioning in the organization. The latter may be characterized as providing —counseling, friendship, acceptance and confirmation and other forms of psychosocial support enhancing the mentee's —sense of competence, identity and work role effectiveness.

Networking

Almost all the women interviewed saw networking as something important they should do. To them, networking and relationships distinguish good leaders, helps them get up the career ladder, makes people look like they know what makes the workplace enjoyable and make life a lot easier, but unfortunately, for various reasons a number of them believe that women are not as good as men at networking and this constrains them.

Networking is another way of obtaining guidance around barriers to top leadership. In fact, networking is widely regarded as essential to positive career outcomes. Its definition is somewhat more fluid, but networking is conceptually distinct from mentoring. It may be thought of as a constellation of developmental relationships that function in various ways but contribute to positive career outcomes. It constitutes a part of the informal organizational system that is crucial for both men and women to advance through the

organizational hierarchy. It has been found that after one control for having a mentor, the size and diversity of one's developmental network is positively related to career success. Moreover, the size and diversity of the network appear to be more strongly correlated with the career satisfaction of women than of men. This is evocative of earlier studies suggesting that women managers, independently of mentoring, benefit more than do men from general encouragement from superiors, probably because such encouragement leads to training that leads to advancement. It is also consistent with Adler and Izraeli's findings that, worldwide, social networks contribute to the social capital necessary for advancement to top management. Some of the respondents in the study disclosed that lack of social networks constrains them to a much greater extent than it does men.

Discrimination

Unique barriers that affect women's ability to shatter the glass ceiling involve career assumptions by management about women as a group and contradictory expectations for women. Discriminatory attitudes are often veiled in inaccurate "facts" about women's capacity for leadership. From the study, women are presented as not aggressive enough when it comes to displaying leadership qualities, lacking the self-confidence required for the job, and not being serious enough about their careers to climb the corporate ladder. Furthermore, prejudices and gender stereotypes persist because they allow males to protect their privileged status and keep women in their place. Despite overwhelming evidence that these stereotypes are wrong, they persist. Many female executives, who participated in the study, are convinced that they are not taken seriously by their male colleagues, while few women report serious anti-women attitudes at work, the forces of discrimination are far more subtle: Women are simply ignored more than men. Similarly, it has also been proposed that perceptions of leadership are likely to be the most masculine for higher status, senior leadership positions, thereby increasing role incongruity for women in these positions. (Eagly and Karau, 2002). And indeed, research has shown that the higher the level of leadership, the more masculine and agentic are the expected behaviors for the leader (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Hunt, Boal, & Sorenson, 1990; Lord & Maher, 1993; Martell et al., 1998).

Balancing Family and official Demands

The participants emphasized the difficulties they had at one time or another balancing their personal lives with demands required in their roles. They shared sacrifices they made and highlighted pressures they felt as women. According to them, striking a balance is hard, and that there are things that are a part of them but had to give up to balance.

The Majority of the respondents emphasized that management is still viewed from a masculine perspective in the Oyo state Civil Service ignoring the domestic responsibilities of women. Hence, meetings are scheduled at odd hours. Some meetings end very late in the night and others are fixed on weekends. A woman who had small children found this too demanding, while other women who had husbands who did not understand the demands of their management positions had very serious challenges. To prove further the effect of family responsibilities on women administrators, the women were asked how they managed to combine the conventional roles of a woman with the social expectation of a successful administrator. The questions were asked because women professionals are expected to perform their traditional roles of mothers and wives. Those women who are successful face cultural barriers in the form of their internalized view of their roles and the expectations others have of them. The great professional women everywhere suffer great tension in their attempt to reconcile their professional roles. Moreover, their careers are dependent on the grace and favor of their spouses (Dines 1993). The women in the study were struggling as well.

One said, "It is a struggle. There are times either family suffers or the management suffers. This is due to the pressure of work."

4.7. Coping Strategies of Women in Leadership Positions in the Oyo State Civil Service

This section examined the coping strategies adopted by women in leadership positions in the Oyo State civil service. It is no doubt that to reach greater gender equality in leadership will demand creating and expanding opportunities for talented women and

ensuring an enabling environment for them to perform efficiently and effectively in their leadership positions. However, all these require strategies on the part of the women both at home and the workplace, because the effectiveness of the strategies often depends on the two domains. For example, women receive endless advice to find the right mentors and maintain a healthy work/life balance, but their chances of doing so may depend partly on organizational culture.

Table 4.2.8 At the Home

Coping Strategy	Always Used	Sometimes Used	Never Used	Total
Organization and Priotise roles	52.2	47.8	-	100
Delegate Responsibilities	48.3	51.7	-	100
Task Sharing with Husband	31.0	49.5	19.5	100
Reduction of Social Engagements	27.5	59.4	13.1	100
Engagement of domestic servants/Relatives	21.8	43.1	35.1	100
Sacrifice Career for Family	11.7	36.1	52.2	100

Source: Field work 2014

The above table presented data on the various coping strategies adopted by women in leadership positions to manage the challenges both at home front and the workplace. The women in this study had huge workloads, and balancing work with their families was very difficult, and their efforts were extraordinary especially when the children were younger. At the home front, some acknowledged the support of their husbands, mother-in-laws, relations and some engaged the services of domestic servants. The data further revealed that 52.2% of the respondents always organize themselves and priotise roles as a coping strategy to meet the demands at home front. The study also shows that quite a high percentage, 48.3%, always delegate responsibilities, while 51.7% sometimes do. However, none of the respondents indicated that they never delegated responsibilities. By implication, almost all the respondents adopted delegation of responsibilities as a coping strategy, according to them, it leads to faster and more task accomplishment. Further in line with coping at the home front, 31% of the respondents indicated that their husbands shared tasks with them at home, 49.5% said they sometimes enjoy the assistance of their

husbands while 19.5% said they never enjoyed any assistance from their husbands. The finding implies that, in Nigeria, where patriarchy is the order of the day, and where the majority of men are assumed to be the heads of households, quite a handful of them are very understanding, loving and caring to the point of being involved in task sharing at home with their wives to ease the burden of family demands on the women. Reduction in attendance of social engagements was also a coping strategy employed by majority of the respondents (59.4%), while 13.1% never considered it a coping strategy. The study also showed that 21.8% of respondents employed domestic servants and or relatives to assist them, 43.1% sometimes do while 35.1% never employed domestic servants nor engaged relatives to cope with the family demands for fear of various reasons ranging from maltreatment of the children, theft to hypnotism and witchcraft. A small percentage, 11.7% indicated that they sacrificed career for the family while 52.2% said they never considered sacrificing career for the family as a coping strategy at the home front.

4.2.9. At the Workplace

Coping Strategy	Always used	Sometimes used	Never used	Total
Self-reliance(strong belief in myself)	72.5	21.8	5.7	100
Ensuring hard work and task oriented	71.9	28.1	-	100
Assertiveness	66.1	33.9	-	100
Being focused at every stage	62.4	37.6	-	100
Self-development and training	62.4	34.9	2.7	100
Reward Hardworking staff	59.6	38.2	2.1	100
Emotional stability and face the challenges	59.3	40.7	-	100
Display confidence and high self- esteem	56.3	42.7	1.0	100
Organization and priority of roles	52.2	47.8	-	100
Sanctions and spot checks	50.3	45.0	8.8	100
Building positive relations with colleagues and superiors	50.3	44.8	4.9	100
Strict time management	48.7	42.5	8.8	100
Delegating responsibilities	48.3	51.7	-	100

Source: Field Work 2014

The data further revealed that72.5% of the respondents used self-reliance as a coping strategy, 24.8% sometimes use self-reliance and 2.7% never used it. This finding suggests

that the majority of the respondents relied on their ability, confidence and self-esteem to cope with the challenges either at the workplace or home front.

The Majority of the respondents (71.9%) disclosed that they always work harder and are task oriented, 28.1% of the respondents sometimes work harder and are task oriented while none of the respondents disclosed that they never ensured hard work as a coping strategy. This finding suggests that almost all the respondents adopt hard work and being task oriented as a measure for achieving success. This can be used both at home and the work place. Ensuring hard work and being task oriented no doubt leads to greater efficiency and effectiveness.

Further, 66.1% of respondents stressed being assertive as a coping measure in the place of work, 33.9% said they need to be assertive sometimes and none of them indicated they are never assertive. About 62.4% of the respondents said they are always focused at every stage, while 37.6% said they are sometimes focused at every stage.

Furthermore, 62.4% of the respondents revealed that they always undergo self-development and training, 34.9 said they sometimes undergo self-development and training, while a narrow percentage, 2.7% said they never used self-development and training as a measure to achieve success in the work place. Having majority of the respondents undergoing self-development and training shows its importance or relevance towards achieving more or new skills for becoming better leaders, not only to cope with the present challenges but also with new ones as they unfold in future. This automatically translates to greater efficiency and effectiveness in the workplace.

Further findings showed that 59.6% of the respondents are diplomatic and patient. 38.2% are sometimes diplomatic and patient while 2.1% of the respondents didn't consider diplomacy and patience as a coping strategy in the workplace.

Again, 59.3% of the respondents are emotionally stable and they face challenges as they appear, 40.7% are sometimes emotionally stable while there was nobody that chose

emotional stability as a never used strategy. This, therefore, suggests that to be emotionally stable and facing the leadership challenges squarely is a coping strategy for success and is common among the respondents.

This finding suggests that the majority of the respondents relied on their ability, confidence and self-esteem to cope with the challenges either at the workplace or home front.

Quite a significant percentage of the respondents (52.2%) disclosed that self-organization and prioritization of roles is a coping strategy for success both at home and in the workplace.

To achieve success at the workplace, 50.3% of the respondents said they always build positive network relationships with their colleagues and superiors, 44.8% said they sometimes engage in it, while a narrow percentage, 4.9% never engage in building network relationships with either colleagues or superiors. The Majority of the respondents, 46.7% indicated that they always connect with mentors to achieve success in the workplace, 36.4% said they sometimes connect with mentors when the need arise while 16.8% never used a connection with mentors to achieve success in the workplace.

Still on coping strategies employed by women in leadership positions to achieve success both at the home and the workplace,48.7% of the respondents said they managed time strictly without any compromise, 42.5% said they sometimes manage their time strictly without compromise and 8.8% never considered strict time management without compromise as a coping strategy.

Responses from the qualitative data also revealed that majority of the respondents enjoyed the support of their husbands who shared tasks with them at home to ease the domestic/family demands.

A married female deputy director respondent in one of the IDI Sessions stated:

> *At weekends, my husband does the shopping with me. At home,*
> *he does the washing and plays with the children when they*
> *were younger, while I'm cooking or cleaning. What's more,*

whenever I have problems in my work; I share with him he often advised me how to deal with it.

IDI/married/female/ deputy director/2013

Another respondent shared her experience:

When my husband saw himself how the roles were conflicting and affecting our relationship, he came to my rescue… he took care of the children at times while I engaged other chores, as there was nobody staying with us to help.

IDI/married/female/assistant director/2013

The qualitative data further showed that quite a handful of the respondents employed the services of domestic servants and also some disclosed having relatives staying with them to ease the burden of domestic chores at home.

A married female permanent secretary reported

Ever since I got married, I have always been engaging house girls. Though they are necessary evils but because of the workload at the time I was climbing the ladder; I didn't have any choice than to engage them, thank God now, they are all grown-ups.'

IDI/married/female/ permanent secretary/2013.

Another respondent who is assisted by her niece also said:

My niece moved in with us the moment I had my first child. and she has since been with me. If not for her, I would suffer Though she goes to school…. She does school runs and run errands for me.

IDI/married/female/assistant director/2013

Some were assisted by mother-in- laws.

We (my husband and i) had to send for my mother-in- law to move in with us because of the dual responsibilities. She was of great relief to me she did virtually everything for me. She cooks and takes care of

the children. You know what my children are used to her than myself.

IDI/married/female/ retired director/2013.

These findings are consistent with the findings of studies by Villadson and Tack (2000) who focused on how women executives in public institutions juggled multiple families and career demands and emphasized that the coping/balancing strategies include compartmentalization which required clear boundaries between home and work time. According to the study, some women made careful arrangements for their family duties and tried not to allow their work spill over to their family life. Delegation and lowered housekeeping standards reduced women's burdens. At home, these women used all the support structures they could get, including hiring full-time maids and services of relatives to help them meet family's needs.

However, the data also revealed that some women 'try to do it all.'

One of the respondents had this to say

The most important thing is to arrange work sensibly. As much as possible try to balance by getting done all my work during work time at work. And At home I take care of my family at night. Though sincerely speaking, at the end of it all, my blood pressure was always on the high side.

IDI/married/female/ assistant director/2013

Still on the above, another respondent had this to say.

After working so hard at work, I have to take care of my family and the children. So I hardly have any time for social engagements though my health was affected but today that is history because my children are of age.'

IDI/married/ female/ permanent secretary/2013

Other women as shown by the data prioritize roles as a form of coping strategy.

Another married female director said

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In the past, I believed I had to do everything perfectly to the detriment of my health but today, I do mainly what is important and to a minor degree what I ought.

IDI/married/female/ director/2013

The above findings is consistent with literature that some women try to do it all continuing to work long hours in their professional careers, while simultaneously investing heavily in their family careers (Udegbe 2004). Furthermore according to her, others wind up in the so-called 'mommy track' moderating their ultimate career aspirations to raise their children. The above findings also support the propositions of the role theory that people spend much of their lives participating as members of groups and organizations and that within these groups, they occupy distinct positions. In the case of the respondents in this study, it was also discovered that those women spend much of their lives participating as members of a workplace and various families as well, not only this, they occupy distinct positions (Directors, Assistant Directors, Permanent secretaries and so on) and at home(wives, mothers, daughter- in-laws and sometimes heads of households).Each of these positions entails a role, which is a set of functions performed by the respondents(women in leadership positions) at both levels. In the bid to carry out these roles at both levels, undoubtedly results in role conflicts or clashes. However, to ensure role performance at both levels, prompts the women to make use of available structures in the form of coping measures/strategies as revealed by the respondents above.

At the workplace

The above table presented the various coping measures employed by women in leadership positions in the Oyo state civil service against inappropriate discrimination in the workplace, the double- bind dilemma, subtle insubordination from patriarchally oriented personnel, and stereotypes about their abilities. Below are responses from the interview sessions to further buttress the various coping measures being used by women in leadership positions to manage the constraints in the workplace.

The Majority of the respondents indicated during the in-depth interviews that they are always self-reliant which suggests that they are likely to develop skills or ability over time

and always take time out at the individual levels to plan for a successful career path. This according to them, as gathered from the IDIs requires hard work, self-dedication, and spending extra hours on the job. This is buttressed by the words of one of the respondents:

> *I always make sure that I know what the position entails... and i develop skills that help me compete against everyone else at each level. I never stopped learning whether formally or informally on the job. And above all, i put in extra time and effort on every responsibility. This has kept me moving higher*

> *IDI/single mother/ female/deputy director/2013*

The concept of self-reliance, as used in this study, connotes a strong belief in one's ability to do things. Belief in one's ability is an essential ingredient of effective leadership in any organization. Self-reliance significantly involves self-reflection. Women in positions of authority need to be clear about their goals, values, weaknesses and strengths. Such knowledge is a precondition to developing new ability or skills and to navigate career path successfully.

The submission of another respondent

> *I never allowed my abilities to be discouraged or ignored I always make sure I display competencies in the discharge of my duties.*

> *IDI/married/ female/director/2013*

It is also evident that self-reliance requires commitment, hard work and diligence at work. It equally requires constant learning on the job. Through learning on the job, new skills and technical knowhow are acquired and sagaciously used in the performance of tasks. In other words, women leaders seek challenging assignments, acquire appropriate job experience, develop informal relationships with colleagues, and cultivate a reputation for effectiveness that exceeds expectations.

A very significant percentage of the respondents disclosed that they always ensure hard work. According to the respondents, they recognize the fact that competition does exist, so

they always work harder to exhibit the appropriate skills and behaviors needed to compete favorably.

The submission of a respondent:

> *As a member of the directorate, I can't remember when last I closed from work at 4pm I always work extra hours on the job and is a habit that I developed over time to be able to prove my worth and capability. This position requires hard work. It is not meant for a lazy person*

> *Hard work and self-reliance has been my watchword. And it has helped me record success.*

> *IDI/married/ female/director/2013*

Another respondent had this to say

> *In the midst of the challenges, I am always willing to balance; I am never put off my feet. I make sacrifices as at when due, relax when i am supposed to and develop survival skills that keep me going.*

> *IDI/single/ female/assistant director/2013*

Quite high significant proportions of the respondents are always assertive and are always being focused at every stage. These coping measures according to the respondents are to keep them going and to develop confidence to be recognized for a job well done. Being assertive, and focused make them perform exceptionally well on the job, gain more visibility and respect.

One of the respondents had this to say:

> *I recognized the fact that competition existed, therefore I am always assertive, put my feet down on issues; and always focused and balanced while discharging my duties.*

> *KII/married/ female/retired director/2013*

Buttressing the above, another respondent said:

> *In this male dominated environment, I have overtime developed the Courage and determination to battle the male dominated*

environment...And a commitment to work to stay ahead of the competition to be successful.'

IDI/married/female/ permanent secretary/2013

Furthermore, it was revealed by the respondents that they are always involved in self-development, always emotionally stable and seek support networks from male colleagues Workers who are not emotionally stable may experience work anxiety (including mental disorders) and the inability to tackle adequately the various leadership problems.

A married male permanent secretary had this to say

Sometimes, some of these women seek support from male colleagues. They don't keep quiet they consult male colleagues for information support and this has helped some of them a great deal.'

IDI/married/ male/permanent secretary/2013

This is necessary as it is pragmatically impossible to work effectively in isolation. Having smooth and positive relationships with co-workers is a sine qua non for the efficient and productive work performance for the ultimate attainment of organizational goals

A married female director further said:

No man is an island. You can't know everything. Women need men to survive and vice versa... Sincerely speaking, I consult, seek help and support when the need arises. I sometimes lean on the shoulders of male colleagues for breakthrough.'

IDI/married/female/assistant director/2013

However, the support network created by the women leaders with their male counterparts does not suggest indecision or over-dependence on the part of female leaders. On the contrary, the majority of the respondents explicitly stated that they are always assertive displaying high self-esteem and confidence. This implies that while women relate with their male counterparts, they still retain and maintain their self-worth and confidence, with the sole aim of keeping themselves on the right path to their career advancement. These coping mechanisms are basic and essential in the business of leadership. As pointed out by

the respondents, being assertive and confident make them perform exceptionally well on the job, gain more visibility and respect

On the issue of self-control and emotional stability, a male permanent secretary had this to say:

> *To my knowledge, women display self-control even when situations and circumstances called for annoyance or anger. I have seen them severally regulated their feelings and actions.'*
>
> *IDI/married/ male/permanent secretary/2013*

Buttressing the above, another respondent had this to say:

> *In the midst of this male dominated environment, I have learned always to display self-control and emotional stability. Even in discriminating situations, I just keep mom and pretend as if nothing ever happened....i don't react to all negative instances'*
>
> *IDI married/female/ director/2013*

Another female director also contributed:

> *I always control my emotions overtime and manage unpleasant situations   maturely If you are too emotional, one may be labeled a weakling, which for me, is not appropriate.*
>
> *IDI/married/female/ director/2013*

The above revelations are consistent with existing literature on the strategies women in leadership positions employ for overcoming professional challenges. Gerdes (2003), highlighted that a woman leader needs to know herself, be herself, do her best, recognize her limitations, view things positively, establish a quality support system, have confidence, use her strengths and advantages, and take assertive actions.

According to Rosynsky (2002), executive women stressed the importance of knowing the culture of one's institution, adapt to the existing culture, and they specifically emphasized the strategy of taking the initiative to help their male counterparts feel comfortable working with them. For women to blend culturally into the predominantly male environment, as well as to avoid the double-bind barrier, the most common solution

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recorded in literature was the strategy of androgyny or balancing between role-related and gender-related expectations (Gerdes, 2003, Yoder 2001) Many senior women administrators used the strategy of constant evaluation of the gender dynamics of different situations or events and application of gender knowledge and skills accordingly (Tedrow and Rhoads, 1999). They believed that women should use both status-enhancing and status-leveling strategies to be effective which include adopting team work, becoming exceptionally competent, conforming to group procedures first to accumulate credits before trying to influence and change the group. Other personal coping strategies include women develop confidence, have high aspirations, have a sense of humor, negotiate and establish support networks, obtain social support from mentors and networks (Marshall, 2002).

 The scarcity of female mentors and the exclusion of women from the 'old boys' network perpetuates structural and organizational barriers which hinder women's leadership opportunities. An important component of work life is the informal network of communication within departments, institutions, and disciplines, which are often the source of important social, political, and intellectual exchange (Simeon, 1987). Professional networking may be a decisive vehicle to women's progress as it provides, among others, guidance role modeling and support (King, 1997). The professional network described by King was intended for women in similar fields or on similar career paths 'to make and share contacts. Networks are especially valuable to women in senior positions as they serve as a place for information sharing, an avenue to learn about job opportunities and to get recommendations and references (King, 1997).

According to (Rhodes, 2003) women leaders focus on collaboration and socialization as an effective means of surviving in a male dominated environment. From his study, women leaders scheduled regular meetings with male colleagues in other to have regular contact with them, and that they also played sports with them. He highlighted that socialization and collaboration work best regarding building relationships with them. Other strategies used by women according to him include respect for others, understanding of people's different convictions, commitment to open communication and fairness- make sure no

secret 'in' groups or favors given to certain individuals or cliques. Women also develop their own ways of leading, by being themselves. Also, the findings support the views of the role theory that to ensure role performance and avoid sanctions, members of groups and organizations make checks and balances to conform to the norms of the positions they occupy. Given, the respondents in the study employed the above- mentioned coping strategies, to achieve success at home and the workplace.

4.8 Theoretical Discussion of Findings

The results of the study validated some of the propositions of the three theories adopted as research guide namely the Liberalist feminist theory, the Gidden's structuration theory and the role theory. Firstly, the findings of the study which revealed that during the promotion processes into leadership positions, the male gender is always favored above the female gender because according to the respondents, decisions and promotions are taken and carried out by the men who are always the majority. This finding confirmed the propositions of the Liberalist feminist theory who describe the situation of women as the consequence of a direct power relation between men and women in which men have fundamental and concrete interests in controlling, using and oppressing women, that is, in the practice of domination.

Women are subtly or overtly discriminated against, oppressed in the workplace, as indicated by the study, with encounters like clashes between their leadership and gender roles expectations, sexual harassment, having to work extra hard to prove their worth to annul the impressions that women cannot handle positions of authority and also because their leadership statuses is seen to challenge traditional, religious and historical stereotypes. These findings are also in line with the object of analysis for Liberalist feminist as the complex intertwining of a wide range of social inequalities. The Liberalist feminists develop a portrait of social organization in which the public structures of economy, polity and ideology interact with the intimate, private processes of human reproduction, domesticity, sexuality and subjectivity to sustain a multifaceted system of domination, the workings of which are discernible both as enduring and impersonal social patterns and in the more varied subtleties of interpersonal relationships. The theory

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recognizes the pervasive influence of gender divisions on social life and tries to understand women's oppression and the structures in society that espouse this oppression and subordination. Another finding from the study is the beliefs that women do not have the potentials to handle positions of authority, arising from the mentality of think a leader think a male and that man make better leaders than women. From the Liberalist feminist perspectives, looking at the similarities between the genders in relation to the finding, concludes that women and men have equal potentials for individual development but that the society holds the false belief that women are, by nature, less intellectually and physically capable than men, thus it tends to discriminate against women in the forum and market place. However, according to them, differences in the realization of that potential must result from externally imposed constraints and from the influence of social institutions and values.

The study also revealed that the status of women in leadership positions has changed, having gained more recognition and visibility and that more women are now being appointed into key positions of authority. This finding is in line with the propositions of the Gidden's structuration theory that in the search for a sense of security, actors rationalize their world. By rationalization, they develop routines that not only give actors a sense of security but enable them to deal effectively with their social lives. Furthermore, the structuration theory also believes that actors also have motivations to act, and these motivations involve wants and desires that prompt action. Due to the change in statuses of the women, they now perform multiple roles as workers, housekeepers, wives, mothers and members of associations, in the light of this, they experience role clash/conflicts arising from the multiple tasks they engage in. This finding confirmed the propositions of the role theory that individuals usually carry out their roles and perform in accordance with prevailing norms; in other words, role theory assumes that people are primarily conformists who try to live up to the norms that accompany their roles. By implication, it can be deduced from the role theory that there are contradictory role expectations from working women while they are at home and at work. On the professional front, she is expected to be committed, dynamic, competitive, straight forward, and non-sentimental and act in a business-like manner. At home, she is expected to be sweet, soft, sensitive,

adaptive, gentle, unassertive and domesticated. As an ideal woman, she wants to fulfill the duties of a faithful wife, a sacrificing mother, obedient and respectful daughter- in-law and an efficient and highly placed career woman. These contradictory expectations cause the most confusion, tension and create many other problems for her. A woman employee finds it difficult to do justice to these roles at the same time. An attempt to play any of the roles to perfection leads to the inadvertent sacrifice of the others.

Women are assuming multiple roles results in the work-family conflict because time and energy are shared, clubbed and even extended across the two spheres of activity. When a housewife enters into gainful employment outside the home, she not only finds a change in her role and status within the family and outside it, but she also finds herself under increasing pressure to reconcile the dual burden of the two roles at her home and her workplace because each is a fulltime job.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Summary

Findings from the study shows that the criteria underlying the promotion process into leadership positions in the Oyo state civil service included but not limited to merit, the length of service, personnel estimate, promotion examinations, vacancy and performance appraisal. Although the majority of the respondents indicated performance appraisal, it was however established that this is taken into consideration alongside other criteria. Over and above these criteria is the challenge of vacancy. The study revealed that even if workers are qualified and due for promotion if there is no vacancy to be filled, they may remain on the present positions longer than expected.

On the perception of women on the promotion process, majority disclosed its objectivity and meritocracy. Furthermore, quite a significant percentage expressed their satisfaction with the process, only a small minority expressed dissatisfaction with the process.

The study also revealed the nature of the constraints women in leadership positions encounter as being social-cultural. However, these constraints are subtle and not as strong as they used to be. Some of the constraints included African mentality of think a leader, think a man; the notion that men make better leaders than women and that women cannot handle positions of authority. Also, they experience role conflicts arising from multiple

tasks being performed at home, workplace and the community at large. This role conflict as gathered from the study, sometimes affect their health status, and some experience strained relationships. Furthermore, they are also being constrained by the double- bind dilemma (role stress) arising from a clash between their gender and leadership roles expectations. Other factors include lack of support from fellow women, whereby some women feel more comfortable with male colleagues and prefer working with or having men as their bosses. The constraints also included having no enough females as prototype models to look up to, various discrimination in the workplace making them work extra hard to prove their worth or capability.

The Majority of the respondents disclosed that the leadership styles of women differ from those of men. The reasons for this assertion according to them is that women generally display communal qualities and make use of participatory democratic style, maintain an interpersonal relationship with subordinates, show empathy and allow subordinates to use their initiatives. Men on the contrary from the study, display agentic qualities, utilize the traditional top-down administrative style, lean towards hierarchical relationships, individualism and one- way power relationships. The study further revealed that women support contributive, consensual decision- making and emphasize the process, whereas the men tend to emphasize the goal rather than process. However, occasionally, women also display agentic qualities that are believed to be associated with the leadership styles of men and these many a times work against them in their bid to access higher positions of authority.

Furthermore, the study revealed that all the respondents did not encounter any form of difficulty or challenge at the point of entry into the civil service commission. However, majority of them encountered various challenges while climbing the ladder at the work place ranging from discrimination due to male dominated environment, oppositions when nominated for higher positions, being women, constraints of having to strike a balance between their gender and leadership roles expectations, sometimes lack of support even from fellow women, challenges of being in the minority, thereby having no enough female mentors, challenges of lack of informal networking to the challenges of multiplicity of

roles. At the home front, the majority of the respondents often encountered roles clashes and roles conflicts which according to them were not palatable experiences. Over and above the challenges that confronted the respondents in the study, all of them had records of great achievements in their various career.

The study shows that they make sacrifices in the effort to succeed whether professionally or personally. Measures being used to manage the discrimination in the work place include self-reliance, establishing support networks, ensuring hard work and commitment to their jobs, emotional stability, self-organization and priority of roles, being focused at every stage of the job, assertiveness and delegation of duties. Coping strategies at home include making use of available support structures like engaging domestic servants, some have the support of their husbands, reduction in attendance of social engagements, support by in-laws and relatives among others provide relief measures to the women.

5.2   Conclusion

The women's movement has challenged the notion of predetermined gender roles as "natural." Gender roles are instead socially constructed classifications that are inspired and furthered by the overarching influence of patriarchy within society, communities, and families. It is thus imperative that these fundamental, patriarchal classification schemes are challenged and deconstructed. The fundamental structure of patriarchal Western society depends on an understanding that males are superior, more powerful, and that they represent the "norm," whereas women are understood as inferior, lacking in power and autonomy, and secondary. The power of socialization that underlies this system cannot be ignored. In fact, sexist, patriarchal values are so deeply engrained in society's consciousness that they are largely invisible. The very fabric of social organization has been woven by males, for males, to support males. In many bureaucracies, whether they are governmental or corporate, most of the upper positions are held by men. Women are generally concentrated in the lower, supportive positions necessary to keep this male leadership in power. Thus, the power, prestige, and privileges of those in positions of power, generally males, depend on the subordinate position of women. This ordering of power thus has serious consequences for women's leadership.

Numerous strategies have been adopted to overcome these barriers to women's leadership, particularly within the workplace. The goal is a fair representation of women within corporations, politics, the professions, religious organizations, and unions. But there are limits to promoting equality within the structures that are maintained by patriarchal values. Through existing male-dominated organizations, men have come to view their perspectives and norms as being representative of wider, gender-neutral human organizations. With this perspective comes an assumption that the structure is asexual. This results in an undervaluing of women's knowledge and experiences. Even when women move into leadership positions, they are conditioned by the perspectives and power structures to maintain the status quo; while gender composition may be changed, the underlying structure of power, knowledge, status and wealth is not challenged. Simply put, male dominance is the main obstacle to women rising to top positions in corporations and politics. Furthermore, traditional gender roles, still widespread in society, are barriers to women climbing corporate ladders.

The study investigated the everyday lived experiences of women in leadership positions in a public institution with deeply-rooted patriarchal influences. According to the women in this study, subtle insubordination from patriarchal oriented personnel, being the only one, being excluded from informal social networks, no enough role models, a clash between gender and leadership roles expectations and discrimination form part of the most salient encounters.

The findings also revealed that balancing work and family was the biggest difficulty for many of the respondents, especially while the children were growing up.

Furthermore, the study established that the leadership styles of women remain their dilemma, as they often impede their access to positions of authority. And above all, the study also identified the various coping strategies used to achieve success in the midst of the challenges.

5.3 Recommendations

There should be a change in social attitude towards women in leadership positions

There should be no discrimination against women, but rather men should support the administration of women as much as they do for their male colleagues.

Elimination of stereotypes from the collective conscience

The general public needs to be sensitized that both men and women can play an important role in development. We cannot afford to relegate one group of our society to traditional roles which are no longer viable for national development.

Provision of legislative/Equal Opportunity Policies

Public institutions need to provide legislative support to help women resolve the tension between personal and professional roles. Women managers should also be recognized as mothers and wives. There is also the need to make management women– friendly by finishing meetings on time and within working hours. There is also an urgent need for the formulation of equal opportunity policies that are distinct from those subsumed in the constitution and international documents. The absence of such policies makes it difficult to ensure equality of opportunity because there is no yardstick against which day-to-day practices can be measured. The formulators should be made aware of the gender- specific barriers to opportunities so that they come up with policies that are gender responsive. After the policies have been formulated, there is a need to put in place machinery for monitoring and evaluation to see to it that the right procedures are followed in the selection and recruitment of staff to senior management.

Institutional attitudinal climate needs to be made conducive for women.

The public institutions should mainstream gender issues in their programmes and curricular. This means that they should assess the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies and programmes, in any area and at all levels. This will make women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and social spheres.

Women should be encouraged to share their success stories

Regardless of the barriers that persist, it is obvious that talented women are succeeding and taking their place in leadership roles. Therefore, it is critically important that women learn from their experiences to inspire and coach aspiring female leaders. This can only be achieved by encouraging the women to share their success stories.

More importantly, research on women related issues should be intensified

Considering the dearth of statistics providing information on women in Nigeria, there is a need for more focused empirical studies to generate more information on the experiences of women in leadership positions and their contributions to the economy.

5.4   Contribution to knowledge

The study adds to knowledge on the factors underlying promotion into positions of authority in public institutions. The study contributes to knowledge on the objectivity of the promotion process into positions of authority in the Oyo state civil service. The study contributes to existing body of knowledge on the constraining factors confronting women in leadership positions as being socio-cultural in nature, though more subtle than before. In this study, the factors were found to operate at two levels, namely the institutional and home levels.

The study established that differences exist in the leadership styles of men and women thereby enriching the existing body of literature in the discussion on sameness versus the difference in the leadership styles of men and women, furthermore, the leadership styles of women often impede their access to positions of authority. The study also identified the various coping measures adopted by women in leadership positions to achieve success both at the home and the workplace levels, thereby adding to existing body of literature on the coping strategies of women in leadership positions.

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RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Serial No………

Date……………

Dept. of Sociology

Faculty of the social Sciences

University of Ibadan,

Ibadan

Dear Respondent,

I am a Postgraduate student of the Department of Sociology, Faculty of the Social Sciences University of Ibadan, Ibadan. I am carrying out a study on **The Social contexts of Women's Occupation of Top Administrative positions in Oyo state Civil Service Nigeria.** This questionnaire is aimed at obtaining data for this study.

You have been purposively selected. I will therefore appreciate your cooperation in completing it.

You do not need to write your name on it. I assure you that it is purely for an academic purpose, as such your confidentiality is guaranteed and it will have no effect on your employment.

Please tick or answer under the response column as appropriate.

Thank you.

Adefolake O Ademuson

APPENDIX A

SECTION A: SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Please tick/ explain as appropriate.

S/N	Question	Response	Code	Skip to
1	What was your age at your last birthday?			
2	What is your current Marital Status?	Single	1	
		Married	2	
		Divorced	3	
		Widow/Widower	4	
		Single mother never married	5	
		Separated	6	
3	In which ministry do you work?			
4	What is your highest educational qualification?	First Degree/HND	1	
		Postgraduate	2	
		Professional qualifications	3	
5	State your grade level			
6	How long have you been in service?			
7	What is your religion?	Christianity	1	
		Islam	2	

			Traditional	3	
			Others	4	
8	Ethnic Group		Yoruba	1	
			Igbo	2	
			Hausa	3	
			Others ,please state	4	
9	State of Origin				
10	Local Government				
11	Nationality				
12	How long have you been holding your position?				
13	What is your present income?				
14	When was your last promotion?				
15	Number of children			1	
				2	
				3	
16	What is your Status/position in the family?	1st		1	
		2nd		2	
		3rd		3	
		Others, please state			

SECTION B: PROMOTION PROCESS INTO LEADERSHIP POSITIONS IN OYO STATE CIVIL SERVICE

You can tick more than one option

1.   What criteria are used in promoting workers generally in Oyo state civil service?

    a) Merit   [ ]
    b) Years of service   [ ]
    c) Personnel Estimate   [ ]
    d) Promotion exams   [ ]
    e) Performance appraisal   [ ]
    f)   Marital Status   [ ]
    g) Disciplinary Measures/Action   [ ]
    h) Vacancy   [ ]
    i)   Sex   [ ]
    j)   Others Specify   _____

2.   What criteria are used in selecting workers into leadership positions in Oyo state civil service?

    a) Merit   [ ]
    b) Years of service   [ ]
    c) Personnel Estimate   [ ]
    d) Promotion Exams   [ ]
    e) Performance appraisal   [ ]
    f)   Marital Status   [ ]
    g) Disciplinary measures/Action   [ ]
    h) Vacancy   [ ]
    i)   Sex   [ ]
    j)   Others Specify   _____

3. What is your perception about Promotion process in the civil service?

    (a) It is Objective   [ ]

    (b) It is Subjective   [ ]

    (c) It is merit oriented   [ ]

(d) It is biased   [ ]

(e) It follows bureaucratic procedures   [ ]

(f) Others, please specify   _____

4. Are you satisfied with the promotion criteria/process into leadership positions in the Oyo state civil service?   (a)   Yes   (b)   No

5. Please state the reasons for your response to question 4 above.

_____

_____

SECTION C: SOCIAL-CULTURAL CONSTRAINTS OF WOMEN IN ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS

6. Do women in leadership positions face socio-cultural constraints?

   (a) Yes   (b)   No

7. State reasons for your response to question 6 above

_____

_____

_____

8. Kindly identify some of the constraints often encountered by women in administrative positions

You can tick more than one

ITEMS
RESPONSE

(a) Strong insubordination from patriarchal oriented(Male-domination) personnel [ ]
(b) Subtle insubordination from patriarchal oriented(Male-domination) personnel [ ]
(c) A clash between domestic/family and official demands   [ ]
(d) Promotion denial due to gender considerations   [ ]
(e) Sexual harassment in the place of work   [ ]
(f) Difficulty in working with a male boss   [ ]
(g) Difficulty in working with a male subordinate   [ ]
(h) Difficulty in working with a female boss   [ ]
(i) Difficulty in working with a female subordinate   [ ]
(j) Official challenges during pregnancy   [ ]
(k) Official challenges during child care   [ ]
(l) Training denial due to gender considerations   [ ]
(m)Lack of informal social networking with male colleagues   [ ]
(n) Lack of informal social networking with female colleagues   [ ]
(o) No enough female mentors   [ ]
(p) Striking a balance between gender and leadership roles   [ ]
(q) Discrimination against women in leadership positions   [ ]

What other factors constrain women administrators in the work place? List them

----

SECTION E: LEADERSHIP STYLES OF WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS

How often do you use the leadership styles listed below? (Tick appropriately)

	ITEMS	REGULARLY	SOMETIMES	OCCASIONALLY	NOT AT ALL
1	Allows subordinates to use their initiatives				
2	Give subordinates the opportunity to make contributions				
3	Involve subordinates in decision making				
4	Maintain inter-personal relations with subordinates				
5	Maintain an open door policy with subordinates and colleagues				
6	Insist on strict adherence to rules and regulations				
7	Flexibility in organizational matters				
8	Believes in equity and fairness to all				
9	Does not care how subordinates discharge their duties				
10	Empathetic				
11	Task-oriented				

12	Coercive				

13. How do civil servants perceive female top personnel?

    (a) They are caring and welcoming   [ ]
    (b) They are draconian and dictatorial   [ ]
    (c) They are very meticulous   [ ]
    (d) They are strict and punitive   [ ]
    (e) Any other, please state --

SECTION F: COPING STRATEGIES FOR SUCCESS

Listed below are several strategies useful in addressing challenges at the workplace and home. Please tick as many useful to you in your current position

	ITEMS	Always used	Sometimes used	Never used
1	Self-reliant(strong belief in myself)			
2	Delegate responsibility based on competences			
3	Reward hardworking staff			
4	Ensuring hard work and task oriented			
5	Diplomacy and patience			
6	Be emotionally stable and face the leadership challenges			
7	Self-organization and prioritize roles			
8	Being focused at every stage			
9	Strict time management without compromise			
10	Resort to fate			
11	Hiring housemaids/engaging relatives			
12	Task sharing with my husband			
13	Reduction in the attendance of social engagements(Burials, weddings)			

14	Sacrifice career for family			
15	Women activism			
16	Building positive relations with colleagues and superiors			
17	Mentoring(Connecting with mentors)			
18	Self-development and training			
19	Be assertive and do the job well			
20	Display high self-esteem and confidence			
21	Spot Checks			
22	Sacrifice family for career			

State any other coping strategies used to achieve success

_____

_____

_____

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR FEMALE AND MALE EXECUTIVES

Introduction: I am Adefolake Ademuson, conducting a research on The **Social Contexts of Women's Occupation of Top administrative Positions in Oyo State Civil Service Nigeria.** This interview with you is therefore to gather information that will be used for this research.

Confidentiality and Informed Consent: Please note that all information generated from this discussion is purely for academic purposes and will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Do I have your permission to continue?   Yes ( )   No ( )

Bio Data of Respondents

Sex:	**Position:**
Age:	**Years of Service:**
Education:	**Ministry:**
Grade Level:	**Marital Status:**
Religion:	

- ■ **Women's perspective on promotion procedure. Probe for:**
1. Women's perspective on promotion procedure into leadership positions (Give specific examples to support your response).
2. In selection to positions of authority, which gender is more favored (Give elaborate reasons for your response to this question).
3. Do women have a fair deal in the promotion process? (Give specific examples to support your response).
4. What are the formal criteria for promotion into leadership positions?
5. Are there informal/extra formal criteria considered for promotion? (Please elaborate).

- **Nature of the factors constraining women administrators. Probe for:**
1. The nature of the constraints encountered by women administrators (socio-cultural, systemic... (Please mention those known to you).
2. How do the factors mentioned above pose as constraints to women Administrators?
3. In the African culture, leadership positions are seen as the exclusive rights of men, what do you think of this disposition? (Discuss with illustration).

- **Differences in the leadership styles of women and men in leadership positions. Probe for differences in the leadership styles of women and men in leadership positions**
1. What are the leadership styles that are common among women in leadership positions? (Discuss with examples).
2. What are the various leadership styles you know?
3. Are there differences in the behavioral patterns of women and men in leadership positions in the place of work?(Give specific examples)
4. Please discuss the leadership and gender roles expectations of women administrators in the workplace?
5. Do these roles conflict? If yes, please give illustrations
6. Do this behavioral pattern/leadership styles influence access to higher positions. Please elaborate.

EXPERIENCES OF WOMEN IN ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS

Probe for:

Experiences at the point of entry into the civil service

Experiences while climbing the ladder of leadership

Relationship with subordinates, colleagues and superiors

Constraints/Challenges encountered on the job

Relationship with political office holders

Style of leadership

Experiences at home front

Achievements

Empowering factors for achievements/success/What is important in continued leadership

■ **Strategies employed by women to cope or overcome female-related leadership challenges. Probe for**

Strategies employed by women to cope or overcome female-related leadership challenges.

What strategies are used by women administrators to cope and/or overcome the challenges previously mentioned (Give specific examples)

1. Can the future reoccurrence of such challenges be prevented (Give specific examples)
2. Would women fair better if given the opportunity to occupy top positions? If yes, how can they be encouraged to occupy top positions in the Oyo State Civil Service?