CONTENTS

EFFECTIVENESS OF WOMEN MANAGERS IN ORGANIZATIONS: CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS

By

Fagbemi, O. Ayodele, (PhD) and Hassan, Adedoyin Rasaq
Both of Lagos State University, Ojo, Lagos.

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the barriers faced by women managers in the public and private organizations in moving to the topmost level of their managerial career. A sample of three hundred and ninety-seven (397) women managers spread across major relevant sub- sectors of the Nigerian economy (that is, manufacturing, banking, insurance sub- sectors and the public service sub-sector) and an additional sample of fifty (50) male respondents who were top managers from public and private organizations in Nigeria were exposed to statistically validated questionnaires and oral interviews that measured their perceptions on the barriers faced by women managers. It was discovered that a significant relationship existed between the gender stereotype of a woman manager and hercareer aspiration and that women managers possess all the attributes for top management, but what affects them are the individual factors, gender-imposed and organizational factors within their context of operation. Suggestions on how the barriers can be broken include: gender-sensitivity in the organization, leadership training and development for women, women education /education of the girl child and mentoring, among others. Also, the develop-ment of relevant skills in management is recommended for women, to make them effective leaders and managers.

INTRODUCTION

Nigeria is a highly patriarchal society, where men dominate all spheres of women's lives (NGP, 2007). As in other male-dominated societies, the social relations and activities of Nigerian women and men are governed by patriarchal systems of socialization and cultural practices which favour the interests of men above those of women. The access of women to leadership positions is constrained by gender roles of men and women (Olojede, 2004; Olowé, 2002 and Fagbemi, 1996).

In the Nigerian Federal Civil Service, which is the largest single- entity employer in Nigeria, 76% of civil servants are men, while 24% are women (CIDA Nig. GSAA, 2006). Also, in spite of the appointment of women to the position of Permanent Secretaries,

they hold less than 14% of the total management level positions in the Nigerian public sector.

In Lagos state, Nigeria, 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, 2005/06; Goldstar, 2006/07.

Anker (1997) among several scholars, conducted studies on women's participation in the formal sector of the economy and attested to the fact that not only is women's participation in the formal sector low, but that women are being discriminated against in terms of occupational segregation. This could be horizontal segregation, that is, women being engaged in lower paying and lower status jobs; or vertical segregation, that women occupy non-strategic positions in workplace. They seldom reach top level positions in organizations and they do not appear to move up the hierarchy as rapidly as their male counterparts (Droste, 2002). They represent 40% of the world labour force, yet their share of management positions remain unacceptably low, with just a tiny proportion succeeding in breaking through the glass ceiling to obtain top jobs (Cole, 2004; Otowe, 2002 and ILO, 1998). Blake-Beard (2005) discovered in a research study that women in the United States of America were yet to reach the top echelon in significant numbers irrespective of their involvement in managerial positions. Also, in the United Kingdom, women held less than 5% of 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 work force (Cole, 2004). In-spite of the fact that both sexes appear to have opportunities of leadership success, in reality, there existed implicit boundaries beyond which women could not go (Crompton, 2006 and Udegbe, 1997).

This study was developed to ascertain if the pre-conceived barriers to the upward mobility of women to top management as suggested by scholars are still obtainable in the present day management. The paper is in seven sections.

After this introduction, the next section is on the theoretical framework which is hinged on gender, organizational structure and the Attribution theories. They all explained the workplace behavior of women from the perspectives of personal qualities of women, contextual variables, and a combination of internal and external factors of the female individual respectively. The literature review section features the works of Schein (1973), Udegbe (1997) and Doyin Hassan (2006) among others, and it prevails on the participation of women managers in the formal sector in the

Nigerian economy, and the discriminations being faced by them. Sections four (4) and five (5) of this paper are the explanations on the research methods as well as the findings of the study and, their discussion. The barriers to the upward mobility of women managers are discussed in section six (6), while the last section is on the conclusion and recommendations emanating from the study.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The gender and organisation theories form the bases for this study on women managers in the workplace. The Gender Theory is a valuable contribution towards explaining occupational segregation by sex. it shows how closely the characteristics of female occupations mirror the common stereotypes of women and their supposed abilities and behaviour in the work place (Anker, 1997). 'Positive', 'Negative' and 'Others' stereotypes were identified as factors affecting the workplace behaviour of women. The Gender Theory used family interests and personal qualities to explain female work behaviour (Riger and Galligan, 1980, and Fagenson, 1986), but it ignores the type of work and working conditions (Ama, 1998). Again, it refused to consider the situational variables at the workplace, such as nature of product/service, 'organizational policies formulation and implementation, type of industry, among others.

The organizational structure perspective posits that observable differences in management behaviour of men and women are due to contextual or situational variables. Such variables are: organizational promotion policies formulation and implementation, nature of work and type of industry. A combination of the gender centered and organization structure perspectives gave birth to the Attribution theory which that behaviour can be attributed either to the internal factors within a person (such as abilities relating to the individual's gender), and the external factors within the environment (such as a difficult task imposed on the individual by the organization). This theory examines the causal inferences that subordinates hold as responsible for why they fail to receive promotion or are denied a developmental opportunity (Datey, 1996). A successful person may attribute his success to his own efforts, while he blames the environment for his failures or career stagnancy. This line of thought parallels the idea of an internal versus external locus of control, where outcomes are attribute to one's own actions and the circumstances beyond one's control respectively (Kreitner., Kinicki and Buelens, 1999 and Daley, 1996). This study adopts the attribution theory approach in examining the effectiveness of women managers in organizations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Women are underrepresented in management positions in comparison to men all over the world (Tal, Sims and Randi. 2005). Female manager who are hitherto called "women managers", are faced with strongly held negative stereotypes distinguishing them from their male counterparts in the workplace. Past Research results indicated a tendency to describe female managers as less self-confident, less emotionally stable, less analytical, less consistent and having poorer leadership abilities than male managers (Owen and Todor, 1993). Some assumptions typical of negative stereotypes attributed to female managers are that: women tend to place family demands above work considerations. They have children to care for; thus they loose time for an interest in their jobs; women work for supplemental income and that they lack the necessary drive to succeed in business; women take negative feed back personally rather than professionally and that they may run from the room in tears if criticized; and that women are unsuitable for top management position because they are too emotional and lack aggressiveness. (Schein, 1973)

Furthermore, a significant number of researches have been conducted on the participation of women in the formal sector of the economy and discrimination against women in the work place. The research findings identified by Doyin-Hassan (2006) reveals the following: firstly, the failure of women to attain the highest management positions in proportion to their number in the organization; Secondly, that the prevalence of negative subordinates' perceptions of female superiors; thirdly, that male superiors have un favorable attitudes toward having women in management and would probably not promote a woman to the top executive slot even when her abilities are proven and those of the alternative male were not; and fourth, that male superiors are more likely to give male subordinates more favor able treatment than female subordinates in decisions regarding recommendations for a promotion, attending a training seminar and upholding a personal decision made by the subordinates (Harris,(1 999) and Udegbe, (1997). Mounting evidence suggests that there are negative gender stereotypes about women which make them encounter more barriers than men in the workplace. These negative stereotypes or beliefs are more apparent when women seek or hold managerial positions. Despite many changes (for example, people becoming better educated and technological advancement) the age-old myths about women's and men's capabilities remain largely unchanged.

An argument has evolved over the last few decades, which queries whether women manage or lead differently from the ways men do. There are three views on this

argument. The first is that "women do lead differently" which postulate that women inherently possess or develop certain traits that diverge sharply from male leadership characteristics. The opposing argument perceived little or no gender differences in leadership styles. The third position on this issue dismissed the difference-in-leadership style debate as being inconsequential. What is important from this perspective is the end result. It does not make any difference how you lead as long as your leadership style is effective (Standford etal., 1995).

Similarly, Udegbe (1997) contends that male stereotypes of independence, assertiveness, competence, competitiveness, lower emotional and analytic minds are consistent with the demands of leadership. On the other hand, female stereotypes reflecting dependence, weakness, emotional, nurturance and talkativeness are inconsistent with the functions of a leader. However, some women, in order to increase their effectiveness as leaders and dispel the notion that women are a weaker sex, may express autocratic leadership style. Thus, women and men are assumed to be identical in managerial behaviours, that is, a successful manager possesses some masculine attributes. Women are expected to behave like men and to conform to the male norms in the business world (Chow 1999).

Based on the foregoing, Udegbe (1997) suggested that there is no distinct female leadership style. In contrast to these negative perceptions about female superiors, some subordinates benefit from working with the female superior because they believe women have the natural milk of kindness that makes it difficult for them to unleash hardship on their subordinates. The subordinates' "Luck" shines better with a woman. Whenever they encounter female bosses they record success. Also, some subordinates perceive female bosses as being more accommodating than their male counterparts. These subordinates fondly refer to their elderly female superiors as "mama" (mother) because she treats them Uke her own children and practices an "open-door-administration'. These motherly female superiors are also interested in the well being of their subordinates and advise on how to handle matrimonial problems. This category of subordinates attributes the cordial relationship they enjoy with the female superior to their own ability to understand and differentiate what their female superiors like from those they dislike. Punctuality and hard work are some of the virtues those female superiors uphold and detest lateness, telling lies and laziness (Jolayemi and ldowu, 1996).

RESEARCH METHODS

The total sample of respondents used in this study were three hundred and ninety seven (397) women managers spread across seven (7) parastatals, eight (8) ministries

and thirty-five (35) private organizations in Lagos State. The sampling technique adopted was both purposive and stratified. Purposive, because the study targeted strictly at women managers, and stratified because the respondents represented major relevant sub-sectors of the Nigerian economy (that is, manufacturing, banking, insurance sub sectors and the public service sub sector). An additional sample of fifty (50) male respondents who were top managers from public and private organizations in Lagos State were exposed to another questionnaire making investigations on their perception of women managers, as a 'check' on the self assessment made by the sampled women managers. Lagos was chosen as the sample frame because of its cosmopolitan nature and its status as a commercial nerve centre, where a lot of managerial activities take place, coupled with a significant concentration of businesses in Lagos.

The questionnaire was divided into four (4) major sections: Section A measured the demographic characteristics of the respondents. Section B measured the gender characteristics of the women managers on sixty (60) gender ten is, which either made them masculine, feminine or androgynous based on the psychometric ratings of respondents about their own personal traits. Conceptual clarification of a clear-cut difference between sex and gender has led us into the understanding that it is possible to be woman and possess masculine traits at the same time, hence the need for us to measure if the gender of a woman manager can affect her career aspiration in management. Section C is the career aspiration measure of the respondents, while Section D asked general questions on their career mobility. The Bern Sex Role Inventory (Section B) and the career aspiration measure (Section C) have their reliability coefficients (Cron-bach Alpha) at 0.83 and 0.81 respectively. The technical opinions of scholars of management and gender studies confirmed the content validity of the measures used, while the pilot study result confirmed their predictive validity.

FINDINGS AND THEIR DISCUS SION

Table I shows the demographic statistics of the three hundred and ninety-seven (397) sampled women managers. One hundred and forty-four (144), which stood at 36.27% of the respondents fell between 36-40 years of age, but twenty-two (22) of them, (5.5%) had attained age forty-six (46) and above. One hundred and twenty (120) and ninety five (95) standing at (30.23% and 23.9%) of the respondents were between 31-35 years on one hand, and 40-45 years respectively. Only sixteen (16) of the sampled respondents (4%) were between 25 and 30 years of age.

Sixty-five (65) of the respondents (16.37%) claimed to have spent above 10 years as manager, while one hundred and nine (109) that is, 27.46% of the total respondents had spent between 6-10 years. One hundred and eighty (180) which was 45.34% of the respondents had spent 1-5 years in managerial positions, but forty-three (43) of them (10.83%) had only put in below one (1) year managerial positions, but forty-three (43) of them (10.83%) had only put in below one (1) year.

Seventy-two (72) of the sampled women managers (18.1%) were single, two hundred and seventy-nine (279) of them (that is, 70.28%) majority were married, twenty-seven

Table 1: Demographic Statistics of the sampled Women Managers.		
VARIABLES	Frequency	%
Age of Respondent		
25-30 years	16	4.0
31-35years	120	30.2
36-40years	144	36.3
40-45 years	95	23.9
46 and above	22	5.5
Length of Years as Manager		
Under 1 year	43	10.8
1-5 years	180	45.3
6-10 years	109	27.5
Above 10 years	65	16.4
Marital Status		
Single	72	18.1
Married	279	70.3
Separated	27	6.8
Widowed	9	2.3
Divorced	10	2.5
Number of Children		
1-2	131	33
3-4	190	47.9
5 and above	49	12.3
None	27	6.8

Occupation/Profession		
Service	264	66.5
Manufacturing	112	28.2
Others	21	5.3
Academic Qualification		
School certificate	0	0
A level/OND	7	1.8
B.Sc.	150	37.8
HND	86	21.7
Masters	129	32.5
Above masters	11	2.8
Others	13	3.3
Blank	1	0.3
Academic Discipline		
Management	182	45.8
Management Related	184	46.4
Others	31	7.8

Source: Field survey, 2008.
Legend: Percentages do riot add up to 100 in some cases because of rounding.

(27) of them (6.80%) were separated, nine (9) of them (2.27%) minority were widowed, while another 2.52% minority (10 respondents) were divorced.

One hundred and thirty-one (131) of the respondents, one hundred and ninety (190) and forty-nine (49), representing 33%, 47.86% and 12.34% of the total number of respondents had 1-2 children, 3-4 children and above 5 children respectively, while twenty-seven (27), representing 6.8% minority of the sampled respondents had no child.

In terms of occupation/profession, two hundred and sixty four (264) representing 66.5% of the three hundred and ninety-seven (397) respondent women managers worked in service organizations, while one hundred and twelve (112) of them (28.21%) worked in manufacturing organizations. In the category of 'others', were twenty-one (21) of them (5.29%) minority.

One hundred and fifty (150) and eighty-six (86), which represented 37.78% and 21.66% of the respondents had B.Sc (Bachelor of Science) and HND (Higher National Diploma) respectively. Seven (7) and one hundred and twenty-nine (129) of the sampled women managers had A' Level/OND and masters degrees (1.76% and

32.49%) respectively, while eleven (11) of them (277%) had above master degree. Fourteen (14), representing 3.52% of the sampled women managers did not disclose their academic qualifications.

One hundred and eighty-two (182), representing 45.84% of the three hundred and ninety-seven (397) respondents did management as a course during their education, while one hundred and eighty-four (184) representing 46.35% claimed to have done management related courses. Thirty-one (31) respondents which stood at 7.81% minority did not do management or management related courses.

In terms of years of managerial service in the present organization seventy-four (74) of the respondents, which represents 18.64% of the total number of sampled women managers had worked for 1-3 years, eighty-one (81) of them (20.40%) had worked for 3-6 years, eighty-eight (88) of them (22.17%) had worked for 6-10 years, while ninety-eight (98) of them (24.69%) had worked for 10-15 years. Fifty-six (56) women managers (14.11%) had worked as managers for over 15 years. Table 2 shows the results of the respondents' opinions on the training and development opportunities available to them and their mentorship status. A little over half of the women managers used for this study claimed to have gone for training just once or twice in the last five (5) years, while seventy-eight (78) of them were not trained at all. Over eighty percent (80%) majority of those who were not trained attributed the cause to gender discrimination and their organizations' lukewarm attitude towards training. Two hundred and sixty three (263) out of the three hundred and ninety-seven (397) sampled women managers had no mentors.

Table 2: Respondents' Reactions on Training and Mentoring

VARIABLES	Frequency	%
Number of Professional/Management Training Attended in the last 5 years		
(a) Above 6 times	37	9.32
(b) 3-5 times	80	20.15
(c) 1-2 times	202	50.88
(d) None	78	19.65
	397	100%

Reasons given for not being trained		
(a) I don't need training	6	7.69
(b) Because of my gender	34	43.59
(c) My husband will not allow it	3	3.85
(d) My company has a lukewarm attitude towards training	31	39.74
(e) No one take care of my children	4	5.13
	78	100%
An indication of whether the respondents have mentor(s)		
(a) Yes	134	33.75
(b) No	263	66.25
	397	100%

Source: Field survey, 2008.

Table 3 is on the harriers to career advancement of women managers. Fifty men respondent ranked the barriers to career advancement of women managers. The findings are from the field survey by the researchers.

"Family issues" ranked highest on the list of barriers (48%), followed by the low level of aspirations for managerial positions exhibited by the women. Little or lack of mentoring was identified by seven (7) male respondents, while leadership behaviour, organizational discrimination and lack of opportunities for training and development of women at five (5), two (2) and two (2) votes respectively. Seventy percent (70%) majority of the interviewed women managers claimed not to have low aspiration for managerial positions, while seventy percent (70%) of the sampled male respondents coincidentally moved the opposite direction, by expressing that the women managers had low levels of aspiration for managerial position. The women managers' seventy percent (70%) majority was dominated by the opinion of public sector women, while the male respondents' seventy percent (70%) response was dominated by private sector men (46%). This finding is an indication that the opinions of both sexes did not agree in the area of the aspiration of women for managerial positions.

Table 3: Ranking of the Barriers 10 the Career Advancement of Women Managers by Male Respondents Source: Field Survey 2008.

	Identified Barriers	Frequency	Percentage
1	*Family issues*	24	48
2	*Low levels of aspiration*	8	16
3	*Little or lack of mentoring*	7	14
4	*Leadership behaviour*	5	10
5.	*Organizational discrimination*	2	4
6	*Lack of Training and Development opportunities*	2	4
7	*Nil*	2	4
Total		50	100

Source: Field Survey 2008.

Barriers to the Upward Mobility of Women Managers

The barriers to the career advancement of women to top management positions identified in the study are: Lack of mentoring; fewer opportunities for training and development of women; low aspiration level of women managers and gender stereotypes. This list is not exhaustive of all the barriers, but studies have confirmed them as some of the prominent constituents of glass ceiling inhibiting the upward mobility of women managers.

Lack of Mentoring

Women have been reported to have greater barriers to getting a mentor than men (Scandura, 1999). This was based on the assumption that there was scarcity of female mentors at higher organizational ranks, and because cross-gender mentoring relationship was less likely to engage in close friendship and that social roles that involve after-work networking activities could be threatened with an appearance of romantic involvement (Scandura 1999). Again, multiple (i.e. one mentor, several mentees) and same-gender (i.e. female/female) mentoring were found to the more common and more successful than single and cross-gender mentoring (Aladejana, Aladejana and Ehindero, 2006). Though it has been studied that women faced more problems and were less likely to benefit from mentoring relationships, specifically with less number of women in top management positions, women were paired up with successful senior men, and factors like: sexual stereotypes and lack of gender similarity hindered the growth of such mentor-protégée pairs. Women have reportedly preferred senior women as their mentors than men, as they looked forward to role modeling (Chosh, 2003).

Furthermore, researchers suggest that women at higher ranks were unwilling to mentor because they did not want to share the limelight with others, and also because competitive feeling toward other women prevented them from filling this role (Ragins, 1994). The "Queen Bee Syndrome" (Staines., Travis and Jayeraute, 1973) as mentioned by Ragins (1994) can only explain this kind of behaviour. However, an empirical study by R (1994) found no support for this phenomenon. Thus, the shortage of female mentors could only be explained by analyzing and studying the problems that they faced in organizations (Ghosh, 2003). Cross-gender mentoring relationship involving a male mentor and female protégée became necessary because of the following three (3) reasons:

- There was an under representation of women in executive-level positions:
- Women perceived more negative drawbacks to becoming mentors than did men; and,
- There were a number of individual, group and organizational barriers that inhibited mentoring relationship for diverse employees (Tepper, 1995; Vincent and Seymour, 1995; Parker and Kram, 1993).

A study conducted by Brown (1986) revealed that cross-gender mentoring relationship could be as beneficial and successful as female-to-female mentoring. A number of women had refused to submit themselves to the cross-gender mentoring relationship arrangement because, they preferred women as mentors. They thought that women, having gone through some experience could better identify with their problems and sorrows whereas, they were doubtful whether men mentors would misunderstand these problems to be their weaknesses instead of helping them out with those problems (Ghosh,2003). In the contrary, Okurame (2006) described cross-gender mentoring as a more beneficial mentoring relationship. The increasing diversity of the workforce adds a new dimension to the mentor mentee matching process. People were attracted to mentors who talked, looked, acted and communicated like them. Gender, race, ethnicity and religion could play a role in matching. If mentor-mentee matching is left to occur naturally, women, African, American, Hispanics and Asians may be left out (Wilson and Elman, 1990).

Training and Development opportunities for women managers
Abdullahi (2006),. Ola-Aluko (2003) and Fagenson-Eland and Parker (1998) identified lack of adequate education, training and experience in the past, as contributive to the difficulties women experience in getting management jobs. Other empirical studies revealed that fewer developmental opportunities were made available to

women (Bevan, and Thompson 1992; Wernick 199 Hall, 1995 and Burton and Ryall, I 99

Access to organizationally sponsored training and development schemes, and to educational opportunities is often unequal between the sexes. The human capital model is frequently adopted to justify differential treatment towards male and female employees with respect to training and educational opportunities (Anker, 1997). The model stressed that employers tried to maximize profits by minimizing costs to the extent possible. Women were often considered to be higher-cost workers due to family issues such as:

- Women were often said to have higher rates of absenteeism (probably in part because of family responsibilities which caused women to miss work in order to care for family members).
- Women were late to work frequently (probably in part because of family members).
- Women had higher labour turnover rates, which could be an important indirect cost for employers' who had to find and train new workers (Anker, 1997; Woodall., Edwards and Welchaman, 1995; Beck and Steel, 1998).

Low Aspiration of Women Managers

Women's aspiration is believed to be constrained both by a need to restrict career hopes to 'sex appropriate" activities and by the strength of occupational segregation in a particular sector. Expectations are viewed highly in sex-typed terms to express greater interest in a job only when they are aware that a high proportion of women have been successful in such. Hence, Homer (1972) opined that women tended to direct their career goals towards occupations that were in line with social perceptions of female roles. Contradicting the assumption that women had relatively low levels of aspirations, Kanter (1997) argued that women may make their aspirations consistent with realistic expectations about promotion and advancement for women. In a similar vein, Powell, Posner and Schmidt (1984) reported that given that women had to surmount several barriers to hold managerial positions than men, they tended to display more concern for their career in comparison with their family. Ragins and Sundstrom (1989) equally contested that if women expressed relatively low aspirations it may not have been unrelated to the actual barriers to their advancement.

Gender Stereotypes

Kreitner and Kinicki (2001) expressed gender stereotype as a belief that differing traits and abilities made men and women particularly well suited to different roles. For example, gender stereotypes viewed women as more expressive, less independent, more emotional, less logical, less quantitatively oriented and more participative than men. Men, on the other hand, were more often perceived as lacking interpersonal sensitivity and warmth, less expressive, less apt to ask for directions, more quantitatively oriented and more autocratic and directive than women (Eagly, Karau and Johnson; 1992; Broverman, Vogel, Broverrnan, Clarkson and Rosenkrantz, 1972). Marshall (1993) argued that the predominant? of male values in the western society, which shaped its organisations, language and culture, had led to the assumptions that women were considered inferior to men that is, female characteristics and values such as emotions, intuition, and inter dependence, were denied legitimacy and were covertly or actively suppressed. On gender stereotypes, it was hypothesized that both men and women managers described successful managers as possessing characteristics, attitudes and temperament more commonly associated with men than women (Schein, 1973).

CONCLUSION AND RECOM MENDATIONS

There should be a sustained focus on the education of the girl child and capacity building, to achieve economic empowerment of Nigerian women. The Federal Government's Universal Basic Education (UBE) policy that provides free and compulsory primary education, if fully implemented, is a step in the right direction. Inadequate education of women has contributed to the slow advancement of women in the work place. The various world conferences on women coupled with the 41 Millennium Development Goals have increased the awareness of the need for gender equality and equity in all aspects of life including even the religious sphere. Leadership training and development of women are also recommended, so that the many women managers in the private sector can assume leadership roles as much as their male colleagues:

This research on women managers discovered a significant relationship between the gender stereotype of a woman manager and her career aspiration. The findings also reveal that women managers possess all the attributes for top management, but what affects them are family issues, individual factors, gender-imposed and organizational factors.

Suggestions on what can make women better managers are grouped and listed below in a descending order of importance:

- Gender-sensitivity in the organization
- Women Education /Education of the Girl child.
- Male involvement in home front care.
- Leadership training and development for women
- Mentoring of women.

Top on the suggestions is the need for gender sensitivity in the organization. The respondents were of the opinion that the sex of individual should not be a basis for handling a managerial staff, and that elevation should be based strictly on merit and meeting 'stipulated criteria drawn by the organization as conditions for promotion to higher cadres. This will, in no doubt enhance the aspiration of women for managerial duties. Fagbemi (2000) listed a of essential skills women need to break through the stereotypical assumptions held against them by the men and the organizational culture facing them.

These are:

- Learning that personal victory precedes public victory;
- Gaining credibility and power in the organization;
- Networking among gender gaps;
- Creating own personal success;
- Negotiating 'win-win' results;
- Managing priorities and roles;
- Managing stress;
- Channeling emotional power to productive ends;
- Managing difficult people and conflicts among people, and
- Responding to the technological world.

It is believed that the afore-listed skills will positively affect the 'psyche' of women managers and further sensitize their aspiration for managerial positions.

REFRENCES

Abdullahi, H. I (2006) "Gender and Adjustment in Nigerian Manufacturing sectors". *A seminar paper.* Presented at the Centre for Social Science and Research Development. www.google.com. Retrieved 28 Jan.2006.

Aladejana, A; Aladejana, F. and Ehindero, S. (2006) "An Analysis of mentoring Relationship Among teachers: A case study of Obafemi Awolowo University, lie ife, Nigeria." *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and mentoring.* 4 (1), Spring. 2006.

Anker, R (1997) Occupational Segregation by Sex. *International Labour Review*. Geneva. Vol. 136.

Beck, J. and Steel, M. (1998) "Beyond the Great Divide". Landon on-line www.googie.com. 29th April, 2006.

Bevan, S. and Thompson, M. (1992): "Merit Pay, Performance Appraisal and Attitudes to Women's Work" *Institute of Manpower Studies Report*. No 234, Brighton, University of Sussex.

Blake-Beard, S. (2005) Critical trends and shifts in mentoring experiences of professional women. *Link and Learn*. September. Linkage Inc. Retrieved from www.linkaginc.com on the 29 of Dec. 2006.

Broverman, I. K., Vogel, S. R., Broverman, D. M., Clarkson, F. E. and Rosenkrantz, P. S. (1972) Sex Role Stereotypes: *A Current Appraisal. Journal of Social Issues*. 75.

Brown, R. D. (1986) The Role of identification in mentoring female Proteges. *Group and Organisation studies*. March-June. 72.

Burton, C. and Ryall, C. (1995) Managing for Diversity. *Research Report for the Industry task force on Leadership and Management Skills*. Canberra: AG PS.

Chow, l. H. (1999) Career Aspirations, Attitudes and Experiences of Female Managers in Hong Kong. *Management Review*. 10(1). 28-32.

CIDA Nig.GSAA (2006) 'Canadian International Development Agency/Gender Situation Assessment and Analysis' In NGP (2007) ed, *Federal Republic of Nigeria*. Abuja: Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development.

Cole, G.A (2004) *Management: Theory and Practice*. 6thed. London: Thomson Learning.

Cooper, C and David, M, (1992): *Shattering the Glass Ceiling*: The Woman Manager. London: Paul Chapman.

Daley, D. (1996) 'Attribution Theory and the Glass Ceiling: Career Development among Federal employees'. Retrieved from www.googie.com on the 29 of April, 2005.

Doyin-Hassan, B.A (2006) Perceptions of women in management. PhD seminar paper. Department of Sociology, University of Ibadan, Ibadan. 5th of June.

Droste, T (2002)'Women in Traditional Fields' *In Women in the Workplace retrieved from Http//equal opportunity.monster.com* on the 13th of June 2006.

Eagly, A. H, Karau, S. J. and Johnson, B. T. (1992): Gender and Leadership among School Principals: A Meta-Analysis. Educational Administration Quarterly. February. Pp 76 —102.

Fagbemi, A.O (1996) 'Determinants of Female Managerial Leadership Effectiveness in an African Context' *Greenhlll Journal of Administration*. Vol. 10. Ghana: GIMPA.

Fagbemi, A.O (2000) 'What makes women effective leaders and managers?' *A Workbook for Management Development and Training*. UK: Dotun Okubanjo, in associationwith Interceil Inc.

Fagenson-Eland.(1 986) Women's Work Orientations: Something old, Something New. *Group and Orientation Studies*. Vol. 11.pp.75-l00.

Fagenson-Eland and Parker, B (1998) "Women managers in organizations" In Poole, M and Warner, M (Eds) *The Handbook of Human Resources Management: International encyclopedia of Business and Management*. Thompson Business Press.

Farmer, H.S. (1985) Model of career and achievement: motivation for women and men. *Journal of counseling psychology*,. 32, (3).Pp. 363- 390.

Freedman S. and Phillips, J. (1998). The changing nature of research on women at work. *Journal of management*. 14 (2). Pp. 231— 251.

Gardiner, M.I. and Tiggemann, M (1999): Gender Difference in Leadership Style, Job-Stress and Mental Health in Male and Female-dominated Industries. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology Leicester*. 72. 301-31 5.

Ghosh, R. (2003) "Cross gender mentoring". www.indianfoline.com. Retrieved 7 Aug. 2006.

Gibson, J.L.; Ivancevich, J.M. and Doretly, J.H. (1997) *Organizations: Behaviour, Structures and Processes*. USA: Irwin/McGraw Hill.

Goldstar Directories (2005/06) *Nigeria's Top 500 companies*. 13th ed. Lagos: Goldstar Directories Limited.

Goldstar Directories (2006/07) *Nigeria's top 500 Companies*. 14th ed. Lagos: National Directories Division of Goldstar Group.

Growe, R. and Montgomery, P. (2000) "Women and the Leadership paradigm: Bridging the Gender Gap". Retrieved from www.nationalforum.com. on the 7 of Aug. 2006.

Hall, P. (1995) "Affirmative Action and Managing Diversity". *Affirmation Action and Agency Monograph*. No. 8. Canberra: AG PS.

Harris, H. (1999) Women's Role in (international) Management In Harrzing and Ruysseveldt (Eds.), *International Human Resource Management*. London: Sage.

Hassan, A. R. (2007) "Barriers to Women Participation in Management". *Journal of Social and Management Sciences*. 2(1). P.47-57.

Homer, M. (1972). Towards an Understanding of Achievement-related Conflicts in Women. *Journal of Social Issues*. 20.

ILO (1998) Will the glass ceiling ever be broken women in Management: Its still lonely at the top". *World of work* 23. February.

Jolayemi, E and Idowu, A (1996) The female boss, who is she? *The Guardian*, Nov. 6.

Kakabadse, A. (1999). 'The Debate: Do men and women have different Leadership styles?' *Management Focus Issue*, 12, Cranfield.

Kanter, R. (1997) *Men and Women of the Corporation*. New York: Basic Books.

Kreitner, R., Kinicki, A and Buelens, M (1999) *Organizational Behaviour*. London, McGraw-Hill Company. Pp 159-161.

Kreitner, Rand Kinicki A. (2001) *Organisational Behaviour*. 5th ed. New York: Irwin/McGrawHill pp 6-7, 87-91.

Marshall, J. (1993) "Patterns of Cultural awareness: Coping Strategies for Women Managers". In Long, C and Kahn, S. (eds.), *Women, work and coping*, McGill-Queens University.

NGP (2007) 'National Gender Policy' *Federal Republic of Nigeria*. Abuja: Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development.

Okurame, D (2006) Career outcomes of Job experience and Gender occurrence of mentoring. *Ibadan Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(2).September.

Ola-Aluko, Y.A(2003) Gender and Management positions in Manufacturing Industries in South Western Nigeria. *A doctoral Thesis* submitted to the faculty of the Social Sciences. (Sociology). University of Ibadan. *Unpublished.*

Olojede, I. (2004) "Public policy and Gender politics in Nigeria". In Akinboye, 0.S (ed), *Paradox of Gender equality In Nigerian politics*. Lagos: Concept Publications limited.

Olowe, S. K. (2002) Female Professionals in Lagos state: Implications for counseling'. *PhD Thesis*. University of Lagos. (Unpublished).

Owen, C and Todor, W (1993) Attitudes towards Women as Managers: Still the same-few women Hold Executive Positions. *Women in Business.* Business Horizons. March April.

Oyekanmi, F. D. (2005) 'Institutionalization of Gender inequality in Nigeria; Implications for the Advancement of Women'. *Population Review*. 44(1). 56-71.

Parker, V. A. and Kram, K. E. (1993): Women Mentoring Women: Creating Conditions for connection. *Business Horizons*. March -April, 42-51

Powell, C., Posner, B.Z. and Schmidt, W.H. (1984). Sex effect on managerial value system. Human Relations, 37(11). 909-921

Procter, I. and Padfield, M. (1999) Work Orientations and Women's Work: A Critique of Hakim's Theory of Heterogeneity of women. *Gender Work and Organization.* 6(3).

Ragins, B. R (1994). 'Gender Differences in expected outcomes of mentoring relationships'. *Academy of Management Journal*. 37. 957-971.

Ragins, B. Rand Sundstrom (1989) 'Gender and power in organizations'. *Psychological bulletin*. 105.

Riger, S and Galligan, P. (1980) 'Women in Management: An Exploration of Competing Paradigms'. *American Psychologist*. 35:902-910.

Rosenthal, P. (1995) 'Gender Differences in Managers' Attributions for successful work performance'. *Women in Management Review*. 10(6).

Scandura, T. (1999) Mentoring-Positive Outcomes of Mentoring, Gender, Diversity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 3 of 7 Retreived from www yahoo com 23/10/2006

Schein, V. (1973) 'The Relationship between Sex role Stereotypes and Requisite Management Characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology* Vol 57

Standford, J.H., Oates, B.R., and Flores, D (1995) 'Women's Leadership Styles: A Heuristic Analysis'. *Women in Management Review*. 10(2). 9-16.

Tai, A., Sims and Randi, L. (2005) 'The perception of the glass ceiling in high technology companies'. *Journal of Leadership and Organization Studies*. Fall issue.

Tepper B J (1995) Upward Maintenance Tactics in supervisory mentoring and Non mentoring relationships. *Academy of Management Journal.* August 1191 - 1205.

Thompson J (1997) *Organizations in Action.* New York McGraw-Hill

Udegbe I B (1997) Gender and Leadership Images and Reality. *A seminar paper* Faculty of the Social Sciences University of Ibadan Ibadan 4 July.

Vincent, A. and Seymour, J. (1995) 'Profile of Women Mentors: A National Survey'. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 4 -10. Spring.

Vinnicombe, S. and Singh. V. (2003): "Women-Only Training: An Essential Part of Women's Leadership Development" *Journal of Change Management*. www.google.com retrieved on the 12 Jan. 2007.

Vinnicombe, S. and Singh, V. (2002): "Sex-role stereotyping and Requisites of successful Top Managers". *Women In Management Review*. Vol. 17 (3/4) Pp 120— 130.

White, B (1992) 'The career development of successful women'. *Management Review.* 10(3). 4-15.

Wernick, E. (1994) 'Preparedness, Career Advancement and the Glass Ceiling'. *Research Paper Prepared for the Glass Ceiling Commission*, U.S. Department of Labour.

Wilson, J. A. and Elman, N. S. (1990) 'Organisational Benefits of mentoring'. *Academy of Management Executive,* November, 88-94.

Woodall, J.; Edwards, C and Weichaman, R. (1995) 'Winning the Lottery? Organizational Restricting and Women's Managerial Career Development'. *Women in Management Review.* 10 (3). 32