

**PSYCHO-SOCIAL FACTORS AS PREDICTORS OF FEMALE
ACADEMIC STAFF JOB COMMITMENT IN UNVERSITIES
IN SOUTH WESTERN NIGERIA**

BY

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CERTIFICATION

I certify that this study was carried out by Adenike Omowunmi Fagunwa (Matric No 53348) under my supervision, in the Department of Adult Education, Faculty of Education, University of Ibadan.

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DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to Almighty God, the Alpha and Omega.

My parents Late Mr. J.A. Akinabi and Mrs. M.A. Akinabi.

My husband Olusola Fagunwa and my little angel

Adejumoke Oluwafunmito Fagunwa

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

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ABSTRACT

Most female academics have over the years developed low contentment and feelings about various aspects of their jobs arising from work-family life stress. This has resulted in a weak attachment to their institutions and low level of willingness to exert high level of efforts on their jobs. Though literature on job commitment and performance in Nigerian universities is vast and rich, most past studies have focused more on the male faculties' job commitment with little attention paid to the females'. This study, therefore, investigated psycho-social factors predisposing job commitment of female academic staff in universities in South Western Nigeria.

The survey research design was adopted. The total enumeration and purposive sampling techniques were used to select 1125 single and married female academics (922 junior and 203 senior academic staff) from nine universities comprising: three each of federal, state and private. Six instruments were used: Social Factors Scale ($r=0.62$), Self- Efficacy Scale ($r=0.75$), Self- Esteem Scale ($r=0.83$), Self- Concept Scale ($r=0.85$), Work Value Scale ($r=0.71$) and Female Academics' Job Commitment Scale ($r=0.64$). These were complemented with eighteen sessions of in-depth interviews (IDIs) with two female academics per university. One research question was answered and five hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics, t- test, Pearson Product Moment Correlation, multiple regression and content analysis.

Psycho-social factors significantly correlated with female academics' job commitment ($F_{(7, 1118)} = 90.14$; $R^2 = .571$, $p < 0.05$). They jointly accounted for 32.2% of the variance in job commitment; with social factors accounting for 10.0 % and psychological factors accounting for the remaining 22.2%. Their relative contributions were: psychological factors ($\beta = .467$, $p < 0.05$) and social factors ($\beta = .210$, $p < 0.05$). Significant relationship existed between each of the components of the psychological factors and female academics' job commitment as ranked: self esteem ($r = .577$), self concept ($r = .517$), work values ($r = .468$) and self efficacy ($r = .344$). Further, significant relationship also existed between each of the components of social factors and job commitment as follows: networking ($r = .521$), mentoring ($r = .348$), educational attainment ($r = .089$), work experience ($r = .029$), age ($r = .019$) and marital status ($r = -.038$). There was a significant difference in female academics' job commitment on the basis of rank ($t = 6.26$, $p < 0.05$): junior academic staff ($\bar{M} = 46.89$) and senior academic staff ($\bar{M} = 49.55$). Also, significant difference was observed in female academics' job commitment based on institutional ownership: federal ($\bar{M} = 48.42$), state ($\bar{M} = 48.14$) and privately owned ($\bar{M} = 45.91$). This, therefore, show that female academics' job commitment was more pronounced in federal universities followed by state and private universities respectively. The IDI revealed that the university's academic culture was too rigid and insensitive to the females' work-family life stresses particularly among the junior levels.

Psycho-social factors contributed fairly to female academics' job commitment. Therefore, there is the need to provide female academics with necessary career information and supports through networking /mentoring within a more women-friendly academic environment.

Key words: Psycho-social factors, Female academics, Job commitment

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page	i
Cover Page	ii
Certification	iii
Dedication	iv
Acknowledgement	v- vi
Abstract	vii
Table contents	viii-x
List of figures	xi
List of Table	xii
Charts	xiii
Abbreviations	xiv
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Background of the Study	1-7
1.2 Statement of the Problem	8-9
1.3 Objective of the Study	10
1.4 Research Questions	10
1.5 Significance of the Study	10- 11
1.6 Scope of the Study	11- 13
1.7 Operational Definition of Terms	13- 14
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	
2.1 History of Female Employment in Nigeria	16-18
2.2 Women and Work	19-22
2.3 Women in Academia	22-25
2.4 Barriers against Women in Academics	25-29
2.5 The Concept of Job Commitment	30-34

2.6.0	Psychological Factors and job Commitment	35-36
2.6.1	Self Concept and job Commitment	36 - 39
2.6.2	Self Efficacy and job Commitment	39 - 44
2.6.3	Self Esteem and job Commitment	44 - 47
2.6.4	Work Value and Job Commitment	47 - 55
2.7.0	Social Factors and Job Commitment	55 - 56
2.7.1	Marital Status and Job Commitment	56 -59
2.7.2	Age and Job Commitment	59 - 62
2.7.3	Women Educational Attainment and Job Commitment	62 - 65
2.7.4	Rank and Job Commitment	65 - 69
2.7.5	Mentoring and Job Commitment	69 - 77
2.7.6	Networking and Job commitment	77- 79
2.7.7	Work Experience and Job Commitment	79 - 86
2.8	Job Performance and Job Commitment	87- 90
2.9	Empirical Studies	90 - 94
2.10	Theoretical Framework	94 - 103
2.11	Appraisal of Literature Review	106 - 107
2.12	Hypotheses	107

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1	Research Design	108
3.2	Population of the Study	108
3.3	Sample and Sampling Techniques	108 - 109
3.4	Instrumentation	109 - 115
3.5	Procedure for Data Collection	115 - 116
3.6	Method of Data Analysis	116

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULT AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1	Result and Discussion of Findings	116-153
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CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENATIONS

5.1	Summary	154 -156
5.2	Conclusion	156
5.3	Recommendation	156 -157
5.4	Contribution to Knowledge	157 - 158
5.5	Limitations to the Study	158
5.6	Suggestion for Further Studies	159
5.7	Reference	160-199
5.8	Appendix	2000 -208

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

List of Figures, Tables and Chart Figures

Page

2.1 Model for the Study

104

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

Tables	Pages
1.1 The Universities to be selected for the Purpose of the Study	12 - 13
3.1 Schedule of IDI Session Conducted for the Study	114
4.1a Joint Effects of Psycho-Social Factors on Female Academics’ Job Commitment	122
4.1b Relative Contributions of each of the Independent Variables (Psycho-Social Factors) to Female Academics’ Job Commitment	122
4.2 Correlation Matrix Showing the Relationship Between the Selected Psychological Variables (Self – Efficacy, Self – Esteem, Self – Concept and Work Values) and Job Commitment among Female Academics Staff in Universities	129
4.3 Correlation Matrix Showing the Relationship between the Social Variables (Marital Status, Age, Educational Attainment, Work Experience, Mentoring and Networking) and the Job Commitment Among Females Academic Staff in the Universities	136
4.4 Relationship between Job Performance and Level of Job Commitment of Female Academics Staff in Universities	146
4.5. a. Differences on the basis of Rank and Job Commitment of Female Academics in Universities	147
4.5. b. Difference in Institutional Ownership and Job Commitment of Female Academic Job Commitment in Universities	151
4.5. c. The Mean Score of the Analysis	151

Charts	Pages
4.1 Distribution of the respondent by age	116
4.2 Distribution of the respondents by status	117
4.3 Distribution of the respondents by ownership of institutions	118
4.4 Distribution of the respondents by length of service	119
4.5 Distribution of the respondents by educational attainment	120
4.6 Distribution of the respondents by rank	121

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

Abbreviations

A.S.	-	Abstract of Statistics
A.U.T.	-	Association of University Teachers
E.F.A.	-	Education for All
F.B.S.	-	Federal Bureau of Statistics
F.G.N	-	Federal Government of Nigeria
F.M.E.	-	Federal Ministry of Education
I.D.I.	-	In-Depth Interview
I.L.O.	-	International Labour Organization
N.R.C.	-	National Research Council
O.B.S.E.	-	Organisation-Based-Self-Esteem
U.N.D.P.	-	United Nations Development Programme
U.N.E.S.C.O.	-	United Nations Educational, Science and Cultural Organisation
U.N.I.C.E.F.	-	United Nations Children's Educational Fund
U.N.I.F.E.M	-	United Nations Development Fund for Women

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

It is obvious that when career or working class women spend eight or more hours in their workplaces, they have spent the better parts of their day in the work organisations mostly dominated by men (Heilman & Okimoto, 2008). This, they combine with domestic works at home. Thus, no matter, how tired a woman is, when she returns from the day's work, she will still have to attend to her children and husband (Wilson, 2001). This process of combining career life with household chore is stressful for most career women unlike the men (O'Laughling & Bischoff, 2005).

However, this differential contribution of both sexes to family life does not in any way reflect their natural endowment but a function of tradition and social beliefs with an attendant effect on the type of education acquired by either sex. Williams (1993), also, notes that considerable prejudices affected the few educated Nigerian women who sought wage employment since the 1940s. These prejudices were the views that the woman's roles were domiciliary and procreative (Baker, 2008). This has been supported over the years by traditional conservatism and colonial male chauvinism. According to Okoro and Adedokun (2008), the small number of women in high occupational hierarchy in most societies, including Nigeria was due more to virtue of tradition than by statutory limitation.

The prevailing situations in tertiary institutions in Nigeria are not different from the above scenario. It is interesting to note that it has been established that since the inception of university education in Nigeria over 60 years ago, women are still under-represented as staff in the university system (Okebukola, 2002). Men mostly constitute the academic and technical staff categories, while women remain dominant as administrative staff (Olubor, 2006). This also reflected in the appointment of academic staff, skewed positively towards

men in Nigerian universities, though there is no evidence that female academics are intellectually backward. Observably, women are under-represented from the lowest level of entry into the academic cadre (Okoro & Adelokun, 2008).

Onokala and Onah (1998) report that universities which are expected to play proactive roles in achieving the goals of gender equality (of opportunities) in the society is facing the acute problem of gender inequity in respect of overall representation of women in academic and administrative positions in the system. Okebukola (2002) buttressing this, opines that since the inception of university in Nigeria, there is evidence of a continuing pattern of disadvantage characterising women's employment in the universities. For instance, it is on record that as at 2002, females constituted 13 per cent of the entire academic staff and 30 per cent of the administrative staff population in Nigerian universities (Okebukola, 2002). Also, the Federal Bureau of Statistics (FBS) (2006) reveals that in 2006, the number of female academics increased to 17 per cent and administrative staff, 35 per cent, with just 6.9 per cent of them constituting the professorial cadre and they were rarely made neither deans of faculties nor vice-chancellors. The above, therefore established the fact that the academic profession is male-dominated with majority of the females featuring prominently at the bottom and middle cadre of the academic career structure.

Even at the global level, a 1975 UNESCO-commonwealth report on women in higher education management shows that with hardly an exception, the global picture is one of men outnumbering women with about five to one at middle management and about twenty to one at senior management level (UNESCO, 1999). This trend has recently become of great concern to many who are agitating that women be given the opportunity to contribute meaningfully to development and be part of policy making process. More recently, a 2002 World Bank report further showed that female academic staff number has stagnated at a level of about 14 per cent forming minority of university teachers in Nigeria. It is obvious that such

under-representation produces two negative consequences for the university system. First, it deprives universities of access to some of the country's best female minds for teaching and research. Second, it undercuts the academic performance of female students through the limited provision of female role models who may be more appreciative of the special challenges faced by women on campus (Olubor, 2006).

Ogbogu (2006) stresses that males establish patterns of control in the maintenance of power in universities and a powerful boy's network protégé system. Besides, studies have shown that women are less likely than men to have full-time positions or senior status (Brooks, 1997; Rosser, 2004; Leahey 2006,). Thomas, Bierema and Landau (2004) report that female academics tend neither to lead research nor apply for or hold large research grants. This implies that the culture of tertiary institutions is sometimes indifferent to the needs and aspiration of women.

Various metaphors have been used by different authors to describe this problem, the best known is the "glass ceiling" (Luke, 2001; Brooks & Mackinnon, 2002; Currie, Thiele & Harris, 2002). This popular image depicts the phenomenon of women in high-status occupational areas (business, government, academia, and the military) not achieving the top levels of the organisational or professional hierarchy. Another is the "leaking pipeline" that refers to women dropping out during their advanced studies or in the early career stages (Oakely, 2000; Fox, 2005; Baker, 2008). Other researchers have noted that the "bottleneck" is situated at the stage of recruiting and entrance to the academic career (Duggler, 2001; Nakhaie, 2002; Okoro & Adedokun, 2008). All these points to one major fact that women in academics appear to lag behind their male colleagues in many respects.

Female academics are often seen as less productive, especially when it comes to publication rates (Baker, 2008). Specifically, literature has established that women academics publish less than their male counterparts, regardless of how productivity in academics is

defined (Brooks, 1997; Long, 2001; Nakhaie, 2002 & 2007). Bellas and Toutkoushian (1999), also argue that women in academics are more likely to work in departments with low publication rates and high teaching loads, to have non-refereed publications, to see themselves as generalists rather than specialists and to downplay their expertise.

The predicament of females in academics has been linked to the family-work conflicts which an average woman encounters in the course of her career. High level of family stress has been related to work stress, and work stress is particularly high in the pre-tenure years when productivity levels need to be elevated to retain one's job (O'Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005). Most women academics unlike men had commented negatively on the family-work life, which requires long working hours with the absence of suitable childcare services and restricted geographic mobility and career opportunities (Sweet & Moen, 2002).

The above notwithstanding, universities are one of the important institutional organisations for human capital formation and national development whose effective running depends firmly on their coordination in direction of societal expectation. Ben-Peretz (2001) reports that successful tertiary educational programmes lie on the effective coordination of efforts, involvement, performance and professional conducts of all staff, academic and non-academic. This in turn is dependent on staff's job satisfaction, commitment, performance as well as retention; which are very crucial to the effective attainment of objectives of the academic institutions. Cohen (2003) maintains that staff commitment, an attitude reflecting an academic staff's loyalty to the institution is crucial to the effective attainment of the goals of the institution. It is an on going process through which academic staff express their concerns for the institution and its continued success and wellbeing. Commitment in tertiary institutions is a concept that enhances organisational performances of leaders particularly academic staff.

Bagilhole (1993) observes that women tend to have higher lecturing, administration, and pastoral workloads when compared to their male counterparts. However, the academic reward system has not traditionally taken these into account when it comes to making appointment and promotion decisions. The emphasis is almost exclusively on research and publication outputs, activities that male lecturers, traditionally, have always had more time for. Lecturing quality, administrative responsibilities, counselling activities and other community activities continue to be largely overlooked in the promotion exercise. Sutherland (1985) points out that although many women no longer have to sacrifice their careers for their home, it is still a widely-held view that women should remain at home during their children's formative years. She reports that the decision to have a family can affect career progression. Even if women academics postpone having children until after they have completed a PhD and post-doctoral work, the arrival of young children often coincides with when they are still expected to make an impact in their chosen fields through high-quality research and a regular output of publications. While maternity leave is a legal requirement in the universities, most women in Sutherland's study who had taken or were considering taking maternity leave were particularly concerned about the possible impact of this on their careers. They felt maternity leave was counter-productive and reduced women's promotion opportunities.

Ogbogu (2006) observes that, in spite of changing cultural expectations about the roles of women in the society, many women feel guilty leaving their children with child-minders or nannies. According to Watts (2008), while attitudes towards women academics may have changed in the work situation, they were still hampered by attitudes towards their non-work responsibilities. While crèches, domestic help, support from partner and relatives can all help with child care, the ultimate responsibility for children invariably seems to rest with women. It is women who usually have to take time off work to look after sick children or leave work

early in order to pick them from school. She also observes that some women academics feel society still expects them to give family assistance to elderly or ill relatives.

The above picture of the career life of most female academics reflects displeasure and negative feeling about their family-work life, with grave implication for their overall job commitments. There is evidence from literature that female academics at a point in their career develop negative attitude, feelings and low contentment towards their job (Nakhaie, 2002; Fox, 2005; Ogbogu, 2006; Okoro & Adedokun 2008; Olubor, 2006; Uwe, 1999). Hence, it has been established (Baker, 2008; Brooks & Mackinnon, 2001; Fox, 2005; Oakley, 2000) that the only way by which the problem of “glass ceiling” and “leaking pipeline” in academics can be reduced is to ensure a greater level of commitment among female academics (Levin & Stephan 1998; Baker, 2008). There are several factors considered to be vital to job commitment, because they all influence the way a person feels about her job. Hence, there is the need to identify a number of potential barriers affecting female commitment in academics with a view of advancing their academics career like their male colleagues.

Souza-Poza (2000) maintain that staff commitment is an attitude reflecting an academic’s loyalty to the institution as an on- going process through which academic staff both male and female expresses their concerns for the institution and its continued success and wellbeing. Commitment in tertiary institution is a concept that enhances organisational performance Brown (2005) is of the opinion that such commitment is thought to result in better quality, lower turnover, a greater capacity for innovation. However, the predictors of job commitment of female academic staff are not the function of just one or two factors; rather, it is an amalgamation of many factors. These could include some psychological and social factors such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-concept, work value, age, marital status, educational attainment, networking and mentoring (Chen, Chen & Chen, 2010; Ware &

Kitsantas, 2007; Ackner, 2004; Blake-Beard, 2001; Mayfield, Mayfield & Mayfield, 2007; Grogan & Brunner, 2005).

Observably, most studies carried out on job commitment were on male academics with little attention paid particularly to factors determining female job commitment. Even those on female faculties focused on isolated areas like work-family conflicts (Guest, 2002; Jacobs & Gerson, 2004; Byron, 2005), female work status (Fox,2005; Ezzedeen & Ritch,2009; Okoro & Adhlakun, 2008), female occupational hierarchy (Karis,2002; Davies & Thomas,2002 and Doherty & Manfredi, 2006), gender equality and representation (Curtis,2005; Forster,2000, and Jacobs & Gerson,2004), career prospect and advancement (Harris,2009; Todd, Madill, Shaw & Brown,2009; Forster, 2000; Doyle, Wylic & Hogden,2004), power sharing system (Grogan & Brunner,2005; Thoma, Bierema, & Landau, 2005; White,2003, and Young,2003), research grants (Xie & Shauman, 1998 and Ginther & Kahn, 2004), recruitment and job entrance (Wilson,2001and Woodd.2000), publications (Nakhaie, 2002; Rosser,2004; Fox, 2005 and Leahey,2006), work stress (O'Laughling & Bischoff,2005 and Young & Holley,2005 , Ress,2001), reward system (Todd & Birds,2000; Van-Anders, 2004 and Kulis, Sicotte & Collins 2002), work structure (Acker and Armenti.2004; Brooks & Mackinnon,2001, and Currie & Thiele,2001), networking and mentoring (Ragins ,& Cotton, 1999; Haggins & Kram, 2001; Godshalk & Sosik 2003; Huwe, 2003;Mavin & Bryans, 2002, Ragins & Kram, 2007 and Ibarra, 1993), funding opportunities (Toren, 2000; Forster, 2000, Loeb,2001). Hence, the dearth of literature on the combined effects of these factors on the commitment of female academics, particularly in the universities in Nigeria.

Statement of the Problem

Men and women enter the academic profession at the same level, with similar human-capital and credentials, do the same kind of work (teaching and research), and officially enjoy equal opportunity regarding promotion on a single, orderly career line leading to the top. All these notwithstanding, there is still distinct career patterns of women and men in the university system (Koehler, 2008). Societal expectations and the responsibilities of female academics have affected the rapid career advancement as well as family-life of these female faculties. As the female academics become more engaged and involved in their academic careers they are considered 'tom-boy', even though without the opportunities of benefiting from the powerful boy's network protégé system (Niehoff, 2006; Northcott, 2000).

Academics generally establish informal connections on the basis of principle gender homophile (Buell, 2004). However, it is predominantly men who form social networks – male academics gives supports to their male colleagues. Members of the male network groups, particularly senior male academics act as gatekeepers, obstructing women's academic career progression. The term gatekeeper is used as a metaphor to describe a type of doorman who determines who is nominated and who is excluded. Gatekeepers therefore influence and contribute to the (re) production of gender inequality in academia (Mullen, 2005; Foster, 2005; Cummings & Worley, 2009).

Essentially, women are grossly under-represented as staff in the university system, particularly in the academic and technical components. This is regardless of the fact that women are equally endowed as men in scholarly endeavours. This under-representation is stretched by the fact that appointment of academic staff is skewed in favour of men. The presumption of this researcher is that there is a link between women's under-representation,

particularly at high post level and their job commitment (Olubor, 2006; Leahey, 2006; Higgins, 2001).

Further, women progress in the university system is largely curtailed by their home front commitment; a commitment that their male colleagues are largely free from (Baker, 2008). This problem is rarely factored into female academics progress in their job. It is generally known that they care for their children, husband and at times relatives that are ill. This impact negatively on their research output, particularly publications. This problem is conceptually known as family-work conflict (Probert, 2005; Bracken, Allen & Dean, 2000). Notably, women in academics system are burdened more with more lecturing hours, excessive administrative work and pastoral workloads. These are burdens that their male colleagues are not burdened with. Meanwhile, these activities that over-burden female academics are not factored into considerations for career progress (Nakhaie, 2007).

All these have negative effect on female job commitment which most often arises from the interaction and the relationship that the female academics have with their institutions. Besides, job commitment is important indication of how the female faculties feel about their jobs and essential predictors of such deviant work behaviour as absenteeism, turnover, and organisational citizenship. Researchers have shown that the higher the level of commitment, the better and higher the level of any employee's efficiency and performance, hence the need for Nigerian Universities to understand the predicting factors of job commitment among female faculties with a view of eliminating them and thus enhancing their career advancement and development. It is on this basis that the study, therefore, determined the extent to which psycho-social factors predict the level of job commitment among female academics staff in universities in South Western Nigeria.

Objectives of the Study

The following objectives form the basis of this study:

- (i) Investigate the extent to which psycho- social factors predict job commitment among female academics staff in universities in South Western, Nigeria,
- (ii) ascertain the relationship between the psychological factors (self-efficacy, self-esteem, self-concept and work value) and job commitment of female academic staff,
- (iii) determine the extent to which the social factors (marital status, age, educational attainment, mentoring, networking and work experience) relate to job commitment of female academic staff in universities in South Western, Nigeria,
- (iv) .examine if there is any relationship between the level of job commitment and job performance of the female academics in universities in South Western Nigeria and
- (v) assess if there are significant differences in job commitment of female academics on the basis of rank and ownership of university.

Research Question

Based on the stated objectives above, the following research question was raised to pilot the study:

RQ₁: To what extent do psycho- social factors predict job commitment among female academic staff in universities in South Western, Nigeria?

Significance of the Study

Findings from this study provided immense significance to different categories of stakeholders in education especially tertiary education. To a very large extent, the findings provided a sound basis for informing female academic staff themselves about the effects of

their own psycho- social factors on their job commitment. This will put them in a better position to be able to pay serious attention to these variables.

The findings also provided opportunities for institutional administrators to be adequately informed on the need for periodic arrangement of seminars, conferences and workshops whereby, positive causal linkage of female academic staff psycho- social necessary steps and adjustment.

Furthermore, findings from this study revealed the causal linkages among the selected variables and how they determine female academic staff job commitment in Nigerian Universities. The study also served as database for interested researchers in the field of education.

Institutional administrators will also find results from the present study useful for instance; it will afford them the opportunity to know how to tap the potentials of the female academic staff in their various institutions which will improve their job commitment.

Scope of the Study

The study is set to investigate the predicting level of psycho-social factors on female Academics' job commitment in universities in South Western, Nigeria. Therefore, the study was restricted to nine universities in South-western, Nigeria: three federal owned, three states owned and three privately owned universities in South-western, Nigeria. These institutions were selected on the basis of years of establishment. None of the universities used were less than ten years of existence.

In the state and federal owned universities, three faculties were used: Art, Social Sciences and Science. In the private universities, all the faculties were used. In Bowen University, there are four faculties and one college, namely, Science and Science Education, Humanities, Social and Management Sciences, Agriculture and College of Health Sciences. In Covenant University, all the three Collegiate were used, namely: Science Studies, Human

Development Studies and Science and Technology. Further, in Babcock there are four schools, all were made use of; Education and Humanities, Law and Security Sciences, Management and Social Sciences and Science and Technology. All the female academic staff in the private universities was used because of the small number of female academic staff in the selected private universities used for the study.

Further, the study was delimited to female academic staff that had spent two years and above in the employment of these universities, those that were no longer under probation. In addition, the study focused on such independent variables as psychological factors, namely; self-concept, self-esteem self-efficacy, and work-value and social factors such as marital status, educational attainment, age, work experience, mentoring, networking and rank.

Table 1.1 The Universities selected for the purpose of this study are:

	University	Location and State	Ownership	Year of estab.
1.	University of Ibadan	Ibadan, Oyo State	Federal Government	1948
2.	University of Lagos	Akoka, Lagos State	Federal Government	1962
3.	Obafemi Awolowo University	Ife, Osun State	Federal Government	1962
4.	Lagos State University	Ojoo, Lagos State	State Government	1983
5.	Olabisi Onabanjo University	Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State	State Government	1982
6.	Ekiti State University	Ado-Ekiti, Ekiti State	State Government	1982
7.	Covenant University	Otta, Ogun State	Private	2002

8.	Bowen University	Iwo, Osun State	Private	2001
9.	Babcock University	Illisan-Remo, Ogun State	Private	1999

Operational Definitions of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms are operationally defined in order to convey their meanings based on their usage in the study:

Job commitment: This is the level of loyalty which a female academic has towards her university. This predicts her work behaviours such as absenteeism, willingness to stay with the institution as well as her readiness to give her best to the development of the institution.

Self-concept: This is an orderly and consistent ways by which a female academic staff thinks, feels, views and reacts about themselves in relation to their work.

Self –esteem: It is used in this study as female academic staff competence and worthiness in relation to her job.

Self-efficacy: This is the expectation of female academic staff's capacity to organise and execute the behaviour needed to successfully complete what is expected of them.

Mentoring: It is a process in which female academic staff receives advice from a more experienced academic member of the institution on a range of issues relating to the individual's job and career development.

Net Working: Efforts made by female academic staff to have access to information and social resources for recognition and promotion to higher academic position.

Female Academic Staff: These are female lecturers that have spent at least two years working in universities, who are involved in teaching, publication and research.

Tertiary Institution: Institution of higher learning in Nigeria.

Social Variables: These are features of female academic staff capable of influencing their academic work. The selected ones for the purpose of this study are age, educational attainment, mentoring, networking, marital status and work experience.

Psychological Variables: These are the characteristic behavioural features of female academic staff towards their academic work. They are also known as motivational characteristics. The selected ones for the purpose of this study are self-concept, self-esteem, self-efficacy and work value

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter dwells on a critical review of some of the literature and theories that are relevant to the study. It examines the major constructs involved in this investigation to bring out their relevance to the present study. The literature review is carried out under the following sub-headings:

- 2.1 History of female employment in Nigeria.
- 2.2 Women and Work
- 2.3 Women in Academia
- 2.4 The concept of job Commitment.
- 2.5.0 Psychological Factors and Job Commitment
 - 2.5.1 Self-concept and Female Job Commitment
 - 2.5.2 Self-efficacy and Female Job Commitment
 - 2.5.3 Self-esteem and Female Job Commitment
 - 2.5.4 Work Value and Female Job Commitment
- 2.6.0 Social Factors and Job Commitment
 - 2.6.1 Marital Status and Female Job Commitment
 - 2.6.2 Age and Female Job Commitment
 - 2.6.3 Women Educational Attainment and Female Commitment
 - 2.6.4 Rank and Female Job Commitment
 - 2.6.5 Mentoring and Female Job Commitment
 - 2.6.6 Networking and Female Job Commitment
 - 2.6.7 Work Experience and Female Job Commitment.
- 2.7 Job Performance and Job Commitment

- 2.8 Empirical Studies
- 2.9 Theoretical Framework
- 2.10 Appraisal of Literature Review
- 2.11 Hypotheses

HISTORY OF FEMALE EMPLOYMENT IN NIGERIA

In Nigerian culture, females are not expected to take up important, high prestige occupations, but expected to acquire their status through the husband's occupational attainment (Fapohunda, 1978). A woman's primary role has been that of wife-mother. With the increasing participation in the labour force, women are acquiring knowledge and experience which have begun to erode the sex-based stereotype, yet, sex role standards continue to exert pressures upon individuals to act in prescribed ways (Cleveland, Stockdale & Murphy, 2000). Sex is a major factor which affects female's "ease entry" into some selected occupations.

However the participation of women in wage employment in Nigeria has increased over the years basically because of the recent growth in the industrial sector. There has been as a result of this, many social and economic researches in recent time to assess the contributions of men and women in national development. Comparing manpower input at various levels, the general verdict has been that there exist appreciable differences in the inputs and economic returns of the various cadres of manpower. The increasing number of women in wage employment and their contributions to development at all levels can be ascribed to the vastly increasing number of educated women in the society.

Research has revealed that women are mostly educated along a particular social belief or value that made them subordinates to the men as far as wage employment is concerned (Etzkowitz, Kemelgore, & Uzzi, 2000; Dugger, 2001). They are not only subordinates, they

are also discriminated against and socially devalued. Whilst women are considered less able intellectually and practically, men have greater access to academic and political courses and employment opportunities than women who are often excluded from 'male' subjects and occupations (Garuba, 2006). The idea that women are less competent is created by their active exclusion from many areas of educational training and employment. The job discrimination has an effect on the contribution of men and women. While men are socially over-valued and are believed to contribute more to the economy, women are socially under-valued and are believed to contribute less to the economy (West & Curtins, 2006). There exists, discrimination that is less open and may be almost unconscious and whose causes are complex. They include prevailing attitudes concerning patterns of behaviour supposed to be common to women, which are still deeply engraved in the minds of many people. Part of the inequality of opportunities experienced by women arises from direct discrimination against those equally qualified and available for work. Such discrimination has long been recognised, in principle as unacceptable. Such attitudes are reflected in unequal opportunities in education and training which lead to girls being directed into a number of fields at school and after school (Williams, 1993).

Even in the universities, technology remains almost exclusively a masculine preserve while in apprenticeship, traditional trades such as hairdressing, tailoring, are open to young women who find themselves in a majority of cases forced to compete with each other in a restricted range of occupations. This is asserted by Garuba (2006) that the Nigerian boys generally get a head start in science-related activities whereas the girls are encouraged in domestic activities. To him, depriving girls of mechanical toys and puzzles as they grow are contributory factors to their under achievement in science and technology.

Apart from being educated along gender factors, women are being subjugated and discriminated against in some other areas that hinder their contributions to development when

compared to their male counterparts. For instance, in the teaching and nursing professions where there had appeared a sizeable female working population, the labour code, prescribed a low salary scale (Leahey, 2006).

Discrimination against women at work is made manifest at selection and assessment training and promotion. Job segregation, restriction on physical mobility and on social interaction and sexual harassment are problems which men do not have to face in professional life but women do contend with them often. The inability of women to overcome some or most of these problems, limit their contributions to development generally (Fox, 2005).

Fapohunda (1978) reports that apart from the problems faced by women in education and wage employment, the status of women has been enhanced by the realisation that education, rather than deprive them of means of livelihood, confers on them economic power. The striking examples of educated women who have achieved social and economic independence have silenced cynicism and opposition to women education. It is this factor also that contributed to the reversal of sex composition in the primary schools in Nigeria today. Where there are more girls than boys. This is also responsible for the disappearance of the idea that a girl is being trained for another family.

With attainment of a new level of social consciousness women have become a revolutionary force in a revolutionary age, a force that must be reckoned with by the advocates of programmes of social improvement. Development is one of the revolutions of our age because it is one programme that involves everybody and leaves its impact on every sector of the society.

Women and Work

The barrier placed against women's self-actualisation especially in traditional Nigerian society was without recourse to the roles they played in such society. Apart from the domestic tasks which may be seen as part of socialisation and convention, women were also very productive in the economic sphere of the Nigerian society. Adeyokunu (1981) reports that women in Nigeria are more involved than men in virtually all areas of agricultural activities ranging from farm clearing to processing. In spite of this, women suffer and are victims of a social order that treats them largely as second position role players. Thus, gender bias against women ranges from labour market discriminations to exclusion from policy making. According to Mamman (1996), this discrimination exacerbates poverty by preventing majority of women from obtaining, education, training and legal status needed to improve their prospects. One clear area of noted imbalance against women has been education. It is therefore not surprising that women's inadequate access to education has been seen as the source of the various discriminations they suffer (Afigbo, 1991). It must be understood that historically, education in Sub-Saharan Africa and even Asia was initially available only for males (EFA Report, 2003/2004). This then entails that women were from the onset disadvantaged in the formal employment sector since jobs in this sector are mainly negotiable through acquisition of education and skill. In fact women's late entrance into education and the tailoring of women's education to meet mainly domestic needs is not peculiar to Nigeria. Thus, it has been reported that even in Latin America where the expansion of the educational system started early, women were denied formal education during colonialism but often received instructions to enable them perform domestic tasks and raise their children (Avalos, 2003).

Job can be seen as an activity that produces value for other people (Steers, 1981) and which is undertaken in return for payment, reward in money or in kind (Akpala, 1982). Work

then refers to the participation of an individual in the labour process or employment. Having a job has always been a crucial factor in Nigerian society as individuals are identified by their occupations. A person's job reveals her personality and it influences the nature of interactions she has with people. It largely determines the individual's social status, affiliation, economic status and self-concept. Job therefore offers a lot of benefits to organisations, individuals and the society at large. However, at times individuals are usually denied the opportunity of securing jobs due to gender or personality factors.

According to Fapohunda (1978), Nigerian women's modern economic sector behaviour is influenced by dynamic economic and social factors which invariably predispose employers to display bias against women. One other factor seen as adversely affecting women's employment is their productive roles which often entail working part-time or interrupting employment to raise children (Barata, Hunjan & Leggat, 2005). Also, women face a number of other constraints to formal employment besides education. Some of these include lower income in relation to men, low quality employment, sexual harassment, violence, exclusion from network, retirement and pensions (Rubery, 2004; ILO, 2008; UNIFEM, 2005). For instance, Uwe (1999) observes that in Nigeria women are marginalised while men are given greater opportunities to advance. She stresses that women are hindered progressing through discrimination on the basis of gender, early marriage and childbearing.

Consequently, they are denied sound education, job opportunities and are incapacitated generally by the society. Women, therefore become less exposed or experienced and less competent in areas that need high degree of skills, intelligence and extensive training such as engineering, medicine and astronomy (Wallace, 2001). Stereotype and gender discrimination could be responsible for unequal and low representation of women in public and private organisations in Nigeria. The number of women who eventually get employed in the formal economic sector may not really reflect the increase in the number of women who are

qualified to be there (White, 2003). Closely related to this, is the patriarchal nature of the Nigerian society. Men are usually more likely to see their wives as first and foremost homemakers rather than fellow workers and partners in national development. This has led to a situation whereby many women despite their educational attainments or qualifications have been kept out of the economy because of the desire of the husbands (Olubor, 2006). This is particularly the case where the man has the means with which to take care of the whole family. A major obstacle to female academic career progression is attributed to the gender stereotypes despite emerging evidence that among top managers, academics and futurologists women are excelling as leaders and managers. Women are equally as innovative, charismatic, visionary and initiatory as men (Johnson, 2000).

Gender stereotypes are defined by Cleveland, Stockdale and Murphy, (2000) as socially shared beliefs about the characteristics or attributes of men and women in general that influence our perceptions of individual men and women. Gender is seen as an important variable that affects career development (Hernandez & Morales, 1999) and questions about hierarchical relations between men and women and in organisations are becoming critical issues (Nath, 2000). This is more dramatic when women take up positions of power that were previously reserved for men (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004). Consequently, many women with career aspirations tend to leave universities and this makes it difficult for women to establish a critical mass (White, 2003). The suggestion that the university environment is perceived as a masculine culture needs further examination. Researchers share the view that organisations exist within cultural contexts (Neelankavil, Mathur & Zhang, 2000). Therefore, management and employee assumptions and behavioural, organisational structures and functions are influenced by national culture (Hofstede, 1983). In other words, socio-cultural factors generated by patriarchy influence women's participation in paid employment.

Umar (1996) explains that in any traditional Nigerian community, it is believed that the place of the girl-child and subsequently women, is the kitchen or at home and she is socialised into accepting the family. Thus, women are seen as weaker sex who can not perform at equal level with their male counterparts. They are denied opportunities to display their talents and potentials.

Women in Academia

Reviewing the history of women in academic employment, a puzzling phenomenon emerges. Creamer (1998) observes that while women have embraced academic opportunity, and the number of women obtaining Ph.D. in all fields has increased dramatically, their distribution within faculty and administrative ranks of colleges and universities is not proportional to their availability in the labour pool. Schneider (1998) affirmed that Women in academics are clustered in the ranks of part-time, non-tenured faculty and staff positions. Women are underrepresented among the ranks of tenure-track, tenured and senior administrative level faculty. Evidence given in the Hansard Society Commission Report (1990) showed that women have suffered from discrimination in academia for decades. A higher proportion of women are found in junior research positions and in fixed term contract grades. Even when their positions are tenured, women are promoted less often than men and hence continue to be concentrated in less senior posts. On the average, women academics also earn less than men. The 1992 Audit on academic pay, by the Association of University Teachers (AUT), indicated a differential of 16 per cent (Association of University Teachers, 1992). They explained this discrepancy by the fact that some 90 per cent of women were in junior lecturer grades compared with just over 60 per cent of men. The Audit also found that, while 25 per cent of men were at the senior lecturer/reader level, only 10 per cent of women occupied these positions. Men are four times more likely than women to be professors and three times as likely to be in the senior lectureships (Park, 1992). Affirming this, the Hansard

Society Commission Report observed that in general, the proportion of women promoted from lecturer to senior lecturer tends to be less than the proportion of women lecturers available for promotion' there is clear evidence that women are still concentrated into a narrow range of academic disciplines, with a greater concentration of women in nursing, psychology, law, languages and education. They are still poorly represented in chemistry, physics, maths, computer studies and engineering, they are also more concentrated in junior academic posts. In general terms, women are better represented in the social sciences but are poorly represented in 'traditional' sciences (Etzkowitz, Kemelgor, & Uzzi. 2000).

Academic publishing is tightly connected to College and University faculty members' prospects for promotion, tenure, salary increases and professional recognition and is often regarded as one's scholarly contribution to a given field (Blackburn & Lawrence 1995). Various studies reported that women in academics appear to lag behind their male colleagues in many respects. This is problematic because, as many researchers have clearly documented, women publish less than men (Brook, 1997; Rosser, 2004; Fox, 2005; Leahey, 2006). Because female faculty produces fewer publications on average than their male counterparts, they also receive lower pay and are more likely to hold the ranks of assistant and associate professor (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995; Creamer, 1998; Schneider 1998). According to Nakhaie (2002), gender differences in publishing have narrowed in most disciplines over the past two decades, in most cases, men still publish more than women by a ratio of two to one. Men are three times more likely to have published more than 10 journal articles than their female counterparts (Nakhaie, 2002 & 2007). Women's lower publishing rates are not indicative of less ambition. Other explanations for the gender gap in academic publishing are that female faculty are more likely to work in non-tenure-track, part-time or temporary positions, to work at teaching colleges and lack access to institutional support, resources or time needed for prolific publishing (Roland & Fontanesi-Seime, 1996; Schneider, 1998).

Even when all else is equal, female faculty tend to be more involved than their male counterparts in activities other than research, such as advising, administrative work and serving on departmental committees (APSA Committee on the Status of Women, 1992; Sarkees & McGlen, 1992; Schneider, 1998).

Women are also more likely than men to interrupt their careers for child-bearing, child-rearing, caring for an elderly relative or supporting a spouse (Long, 1992; Petti & Hook, 2005; Schneider, 1998). Wilson Sutherland (1985) points out that although many women no longer have to sacrifice their careers in order to take care of their children, it is still a widely-held view that women should remain at home during their children's formative years. She observes that this view was shared by some women academics involved in her study. She also made important point that the decision to have a family can affect career progression. But, even if women academics postpone having children until after they have completed a PhD and post-doctoral work, the arrival of young children often coincides with the age when they are still expected to make an impact in their chosen fields through high-quality research and a regular output of publications. However, family responsibilities probably have less effect on women's publishing activity than work assignments and time.

Routinely, the continuing lack of positive role models and mentors means women are handicapped on a daily basis in the area of publishing, applying for grants to carry out research and promotion systems, because women in male dominated environment lack the benefits of colleague relationships and collaboration, which include intellectual stimulation and encouragement. This affected their research productivity. The effects of being in a minority can be seen as an important factor in the process of discrimination against women academics (Bagilhole, 1993). A number of researchers have looked at structural barriers to equality in the male dominated profession (O'Leary & Mitchell, 1990, Acker, 2004, 1992; AUT, 1992; Park, 1992; Bagilhole, 1993; Husu 2004). Broadly speaking, they have identified

five main structural barriers: recruitment and selection policies, the lack of mentors and role models, career development and promotion policies, appraisal systems and institutional male power and the roles of women academics, all of these authors pointed to a very simple fact there are still far too few women in the academic profession at all levels, there is a need to critically examine recruitment, selection and promotion policies. O'Leary and Mitchell (1990) report that many academic posts were filled through personal or informal contacts even when the department in question went through the motions of formal interview and selection procedures. They suggest that these informal systems inevitably lead to subjectivity and even discrimination in selection. They also argue that women are less likely to have access to these informal professional networks and contacts, which can assist their career, because there are so few senior women with whom they can network in the same way men can. Knight and Richard (2003) and Cann, Jones and Martin (1991) observe that the interview process is flawed in many male dominated departments, with interview panels being criticised for being too large, intimidating and dominated by male members of staff.

Barriers against Women in Academics

While representation of women at high academic leadership positions is disappointing, there are several reasons why women have difficulty in advancing to the top of academic leadership positions such as dean, provost or chancellor. Women are even scarcer on the administrative career ladder. An exception is in traditionally female fields such as nursing and education (Dugger, 2001), yet many social science and professional fields have shown substantial gender desegregation and an increasing supply of women for these positions. Where women are in top positions, it is typically in smaller, less prestigious schools. With women over-represented as instructor/lecturer ranks (controlling for experience, publications, and educational attainment) and taking longer to reach the associate and full professor ranks

(Dugger, 2001) which generally are tapped for leadership positions, the small number of women administrators is yet another piece of the problem. A multitude of practices impact women's advancement through either the professorial or administrative ranks.

Women may not achieve tenure at the same rate as their male counterparts because many work as part time or as adjunct faculty (Harris, 2009; Langan & Morton, 2009; Wolfinger, Mason, & Goulden, M. 2009). As a result, they may have higher teaching loads and fewer opportunities for research funding or facilities to support their teaching or research projects when compared to male colleagues. These women may also be seen as not having strong commitment to academics or to a research trajectory since they do not hold a full time faculty appointment. Consequently, they may be viewed as temporary workers by the wider campus or department and have less opportunity for travelling to not only share their research with other professionals but also to network with colleagues living far away. However, many women purposively choose to work part time or as adjuncts early in their careers (Report of the ASHP task force on Pharmacy's changing demographics, 2007).

Women may also have difficulty being promoted or in reaching the top of their academic career because to a great extent women are more involved in pastoral or administrative work than their male counterparts. This pastoral or administrative work includes advising students, teaching courses, especially at the undergraduate level or serving on departmental or campus committees. These assignments add responsibilities and commitments to what is normally expected for a faculty position yet may not count as much as scholarship towards tenure (Barata, Hunjan, & Leggat, 2005; Sakamoto, McPhail, Anastas, & Colarossi, 2008; Todd, Madill, Shaw & Bown, 2009). As a consequence, some women may not believe they will be able to meet the tenure criteria and therefore withdraw their candidacy from consideration before actually being evaluated.

Another barrier to women's advancement in academics is that male academics, when compared to females seem to have a more realistic understanding of how important scholarship is when being evaluated for tenure. Consequently, they often devote additional time and effort in the evenings and on weekends to their research (Todd, Madill, Shaw & Bown, 2009). On the other hand, female faculty tends to work in the evenings and on weekends because of teaching responsibilities, especially if they value teaching over research. In addition, if men have greater access to equipment needed for their research and better clerical support for their research and teaching needs, (NRC, 2009), women may be less motivated to even seek tenure (Knight & Richard 2009).

There also is the "hidden curriculum" (Thomas, Bierema, & Landau 2004.), where women learn to assimilate into the male culture by downplaying their attributes. Women are required to prove themselves more extensively than men in order to advance (Oakley, 2000). It is indeed an arduous trek to the advanced positions, adding the previously described gender bias in selection, evaluation and promotion processes. Then, the chilly climate becomes even "colder at the top" (Sandler 1986) as the few women do not neatly fit into male styles and cliques and become more isolated yet increasingly visible for scrutiny. Women also lack adequate mentors who can assist them in understanding the expectations and requirements of an academic appointment, especially those related to scholarship (Wassertstein, Quistberg & Shea, 2007; Wallace, 2001).

A mentor can buffer women from overt and covert forms of discrimination and help them navigate the obstacle course to top positions. By conferring legitimacy on their female and minority protégés, mentors can alter stereotypic perceptions and send the message that the protégé has the mentor's powerful support and backing. Research indicates that mentors provide "reflected power" to their protégés and use their influence to build their protégé's power in the organisation (Grogan & Brunner, 2005, Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000).

Mentors can train their female and minority protégés in the "ins and outs" of corporate politics and provide valuable information on job openings and changes in the organisation-information that is typically provided in the "old boys' network" (Hayes, 2001).

Through the centuries, traditional mentorship, a relationship between a respected, accomplished elder and a novice, has been credited for providing the support and know how for career advancement. Mentoring has been proven effective in understanding organisational culture, providing access to informal and formal networks of communication, and offering professional stimulation to junior and senior faculty members. By supporting professional growth and renewal, mentorship informs and empowers faculty as individuals and colleagues (Goldner & Maysless, 2009).

In academia, mentoring has both invigorated senior academic staff and assisted junior academic staff in learning the ropes. Nevertheless, women in academia have continued to face barriers in acquiring nurturing mentorship which subsequently appears to have limited the number of women who achieve prominence in their field (Hult, Callister & Sullivan, 2005).

Non academic issues including family obligations involving children and/or a spouse often make it difficult for women in academics to meet tenure criteria and this may interfere with attending conferences, writing, publishing, completing research projects, obtaining funding, and traveling for work related opportunities within the pre tenure years (Aluko, 2009; Ceci & Williams, 2010; Harris, 2009; Mason & Golden, 2004; Price, 2009; Stewart, Ornstein & Drakich, 2009; Todd, Madill, Shaw & Bown, 2008). Indeed, the family like the academy has been termed a "greedy" institution (Currie, Thiele, & Harris, 2000) which makes excessive demands on women and may cause internal conflicts as women with children and/or a spouse are pulled in different directions because of these competing demands (Harris, 2009). Consequently, those who seek to balance the demands of both institutions

commonly experience loyalty conflicts between the family and the academy and between motherhood and a profession.

The family leave policies often do not entirely remunerate women for their efforts in the area of work-family stress, these non academic issues affect women disproportionately when compared to men (Stewart, Ornstein & Drakich, 2009). This may be because in many societies, women are typically socialised to identify with familial roles and expected to be nurturing, and compliant (Caldwell, Liu, Fedor, & Herold, 2009). Most workplace contexts including academia reinforce these traditional gender roles and women are then often seen as subservient and passive (Aluko, 2009; Harris, 2009; Hewlett & Luce, 2005; Langan & Morton, 2009). Therefore, they may not seek to have the campus family leave policies changed so they are more supportive of these efforts. On the other hand, men are typically socialised to adopt more dominant and aggressive roles and frequently demonstrate these behaviours in their employment/work roles (Caldwell, Liu, Fedor & Herold 2009; Harris, 2009; Hewlett & Luce, 2005; Langan & Morton, 2009), and may not see a need to have campus family policies changed, especially if not married to a female academic.

Another non academic issue related to family obligations, is that some women in the academy, if married to another academic, may relinquish their own careers to facilitate the career of their spouse. This is especially true if the spouse's career takes precedence over the woman's own (Young & Holley, 2005; Wolfinger, Mason & Goulden, 2009), and means she may move from one institution to another at the expense of her career. Indeed, this situation would make it less likely for her to achieve tenure before another geographic movement occurs.

The Concept of Job Commitment

Organisational commitment is highly valuable. Studies have highlighted that commitment has a great impact on the successful performance of an organisation (Coshen & Freud, 2005; Ricketta, 2002 & Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Organisational commitment is a psychological stabilising or obliging force that binds an individual to courses of action relevant to the target of the organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) and it is a form of loyalty to the organisation (Lambert, 2004). This is because a highly committed employee will identify with the goals and values of the organisation, has a strong desire to belong to the organisation and willing to display greater organisational citizenship behavior. That is, willingness to go over and beyond their required job duties. And if human resources are said to be an organisation's greatest assets, then committed human resources should be regarded as an organisation's competitive advantage (Lambert, 2004 & Oshagbemi, 2000).

One of the factors that could lead to healthy organisational climate, increased morale, motivation and productivity is organisational commitment. An individual's attitude toward career is described as career commitment. Career commitment is recognised as a form of work commitment that an individual has on a career facet (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Toponytsky, 2002). Individuals with a strong degree of career commitment may show high levels of expectations and requirements from the organisation in which they have forged relationships. It also implies that career-committed individuals may be more motivated when their expectations are satisfied by the organisation than those who are less committed. Organisations need committed workers in order to face worldwide economic competition. The concept of commitment could be traced from views based on classics, sociology, psychology and management approaches. The classical view was given by Kierkgard (1988), who views commitment as being a consequence of choosing with one's whole self to go in a direction, which irrevocably defines that self from that point. This definition, views

commitment as a set process following a definite pattern without putting into consideration the inconsistent nature of commitment due to internal and external factors.

Looking at the concept from sociology perspectives, Becker (1996) argues, there is little formal analysis of the concept and little attempt to integrate it explicitly with current sociological theory. People make use of the concept, when trying to account for the fact they are engaged in consistent lines of activity and behaviour, especially when a person continues remain in the same organisation. It is the view of Becker (1996), that, consistent lines of activity seem to imply a rejection by the actor of feasible alternative.

According to Kantor (1979), commitment is described as a diverse phenomenon and, the willingness of social actors to give their energy and loyalty to social system. However, Etzioni (1979) regards it as an awareness of the impossibility to choosing a different social identity or not rejecting a particular expectation under forces or penalties. For Mowday (1999), commitment is the binding of an individual to behavioural acts.

Greenberg and Baron (2003), operationalised commitment using a rather psychological approach which they define to include identification, involvement and loyalty. They saw commitment as a partisan satisfaction of the individual. It is the view of Kuvaas (2006), that, when an individual genuinely identifies herself with a group, leader and subordinates, she is in effect saying that the goals and values associated with that cause have become her own. Self-consciously, she directs her efforts towards those goals and gains that give intrinsic satisfaction through self achievement.

Etzioni (1979) views commitment in a rather narrow sense as positive involvement. To him, commitment is the cathective evaluation orientation of an actor to an object, characterised in terms of intensity and direction. Positive cathective evaluative is called alienation. He further saw commitment as moral inducement. Mowadays, Steers and Porter

(1979) in their argument asserted that commitment differ from the narrower concept of job satisfaction in the sense that commitment is more global, reflecting a general effective response to the organisation as a whole.

Cohen (2003) is of the view that, people become members of formal organisations because; they can attain objectives they desire through their members. If the individual discovers that she cannot obtain the reward she originally desired, she leaves the organisation and joins another. If this is not possible, she accepts those rewards which she can obtain and may at the same time feel less committed to the organisation. It is Cohen's contention that readily obtained reward weakens one's obligation to the organisation

Introducing the element of time and the idea of investment, quality of organisational participation in a bid to redefine the simple exchange paradigm, Payne and Webber (2006), stress that the more one has at stake in an organisation, the greater the career commitment to the organisation. They visualise job commitment mainly as a structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual organisational transactions and alternations that be can invested over time.

Wiener and Vardi (1980), writing on job and organisational commitment assert that, a person could be committed to her work or job but not necessarily to her organisation or vice versa. They claim that job and organisational commitment are clearly two distinct attitudes and could have different effect on behavioural out-comes. It is their contention that organisational commitment could be influenced by the introduction of organisation oriented behaviour, while job commitment could be influenced in a work setting by job oriented behaviour. Thus, the largest relative contribution to work effort would be made by job commitment, while the largest relative contribution to organisational attachment could be made through organisation commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1997) use the tri-dimensional model to conceptualise organisational commitment in three dimensions namely, affective, continuance and normative commitment. These dimensions describe the different ways of organisational commitment development and the implications for employees' behaviour.

The first dimension of organisational commitment in the model is affective commitment, which represents the individual's emotional attachment to the organisation. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), affective commitment is "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation". Organisational members, who are committed to an organisation on an affective basis, continue working for the organisation because they want to (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Members who are committed on an effective level stay with the organisation because they view their personal employment relationship as congruent to the goals and values of the organisation (Bergman, 2006).

The second dimension of the tri-dimensional model of organisational commitment is continuance commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) define continuance commitment as "awareness of the cost associated with leaving the Organisation". It is calculative in nature because of the individual's perception or weighing of costs and risks associated with leaving the current organisation (Meyer & Allen 1997). Continuance commitment can be regarded as an instrument attached to the organisation, where the individual's association with the organisation is based on an assessment of economic benefits gained (Bergman, 2006). Organisational members develop commitment to an organisation because of the positive extrinsic rewards obtained through the effort-bargain without identifying with the organisation's goals and values. This argument supports the view that when given better alternatives, employees may leave the organisation. Therefore, in order to retain employees who are continuance committed, the organisation needs to give more attention and recognition to those elements that boost the employee's morale to be effectively committed.

The last dimension of the organisational commitment models is normative commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) define normative commitment as a feeling of obligation to continue employment. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), employees with normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organisation because they feel it is the proper thing to do. Wiener and Vardi (1980) describe normative commitment as the work behaviour of individuals, guided by a sense of duty, obligation and loyalty towards the organisation. Organisational members are committed to an organisation based on moral reasons (Cohen 1991). The strength of normative organisational commitment is influenced by accepted rules about reciprocal obligation between the organisation and its members (Coshen & Freund, 2005). This implies that individuals often feel an obligation to repay the organisation for investing in them, for example through training and development.

It is the view of the above researchers that, although job and organisational commitment may be different or distinct to some extent, they are inter related. An organisation is normally set up to achieve a goal. This goal could only be achieved by the operation of different tasks and thus if a task is not performed well enough it could have effect on the total organisational goal. The job of the organisation can only be achieved by the provision of necessary tools, good environment and adequate financial support with which to work. A right organisational commitment would no doubt instil a right job commitment (Salami & Omole, 2005; Wiener & Vardi 1980; Etzioni, 1979).

Some researchers found that organisational commitment is a function of several variables such as job satisfaction, motivation, participative decision making, organisational support, financial reward, communication, promotion prospects and leadership styles (Alarape & Akinlabi, 2000; Brown, 2002; Salami & Omole, 2005).

Psychological Factors and Job Commitment

Psychological commitment has been defined as an attitude involving employee loyalty to the organisation with those individuals who are committed willing to contribute something to their organisations (Smith & Hoy, 1992). Chen, Chen and Chen (2010) define psychological commitment as the extent of loyalty and responsibility felt toward a shared mission and the level of willingness to exert to achieve that mission. Psychological commitment is the employee's psychological attachment to the organisation. In effect, it is a universal rule in psychological commitment that a high degree of commitment would bring positive outcomes for the organisation. Psychological commitment is an attitude, which happens between the individual and the organisation that is why it is measured as a comparative strength of the individual's psychological identification and contribution with the organisation (Jaramillo, Prakash, & Marshal, 2005). Hence, this psychological conceptualisation addresses affective commitment where it contains three factors: identification, involvement, and loyalty (Banai, Reisel & Probst, 2004). Psychological commitment focuses on a bond linking individuals to the organisation (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). It also refers to the employee's emotional attachment to the organisation. It is commonly measured as three dimensional constructs comprising of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment that relates to a sense of obligation (Aydin, Sarier, & Sengul, 2011; Chen, Chen & Chen, 2010; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007). The personnel who have psychological commitment have more competence in doing their task in contrast to non-aligned personnel (Ng & Feldman, 2011). Highly committed employees will have high performance as compared to those employees with less commitment to the organisation (Muhammad, Ziauddin, Farooq, & Ramay, 2010).

Organisations, no matter their nature, always aim at achieving their corporate goals; otherwise, the survival of such enterprise will be more of a dream than a reality. The success of any organisation is often measured by the degree of its productivity. Although, this can be said to be independent of the attitude and morale of the workers in form of their level of job commitment. No company can therefore afford to ignore any of the many factors that may contribute to the boosting of the commitment levels of its workers. For the purpose of this research, self-concept, self-esteem, self-efficacy and work value will be examined under psychological characteristics.

Self-Concept and Female Job Commitment

‘Self’ as a concept, is a complex system of conscious and unconscious beliefs, which an individual holds about self. It is like looking at oneself in a mirror with a beautiful image that indicates good self-concept while an ugly image gives a bad self-concept (Merton1988). The development of a sense of self plays an important role in the maintenance of high or low self-esteem (Bednar & Heywood, 2006). Becoming an individual with a strong sense of self and confidence is important for success. Understanding the value of one's personal choices, surroundings and people that influence career success are essential. Self-concept is an important factor in any organisation because the capabilities and potentialities of a worker often affect her output. According to Plucker and Stocking (2001), self-concept is currently gaining prominence in educational research and evaluation studies, both as an outcome sought for its own value and as a variable moderating other relationships.

Sweet and Moen (2002) maintain that self-concept is an individual's reflection of oneself, as well as her view. Bandura (1997) views self-concept as self confidence which is the anticipation of successfully mastering challenges, obstacles or tasks. It is also the nature and organisation of beliefs about one's self. Self-concept is theorised to be multi-dimensional. For example, people have separate beliefs about physical, emotional and social,

aspects of themselves. Self-concept or self-identity also refers to the understanding a sentient being has of itself, as can be expressed in terms of self-assessments that involve persistent attributes. It presupposes but can be distinguished from mere self-consciousness which is an awareness of one's self.

Self-concept has typically been defined in terms of the cognitive appraisal one makes of the expectations, descriptions, and prescriptions that one holds about one's self (Sung & Oh, 2011). Heywood (2006) describes self-concept as consisting of "beliefs, hypotheses and assumptions that the individual has about herself. It is the person's view of herself as conceived and organised from her inner vantage and includes the person's idea of the kind of person she is, the characteristics that she possesses and her most important and striking traits" (Cooper & Thatcher, 2010). As such, one's self-concept provides structure, coherence and meaning to one's personal existence.

Generally, self-concept refers to the totality of a complex, organised and dynamic system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinions that each person holds to be true about her personal existence. Self-concepts represent knowledge structures that consist of beliefs about the self, including one's attributes, social roles and goals. The main factors determining the formation of self-concept of an individual are the environment as well as people with whom the individual lives. In other words, self-concepts are cognitive structures that can include content, attitudes or protect one's sense of basic worth (Doherty, 2011).

The burgeoning importance of incorporating positive psychology in the workplace is recognised as important and crucial for organisational commitment (Ismail, Jafari & Khurram, 2011). Yahaya and Ramli (2009) state that there is a great deal of research which shows that the self-concept is, perhaps, the basis for all motivated behaviour. It is self-concept that gives rise to possible selves which creates the motivation for behaviour. Therefore, self-concept is important to work and organisational commitment it is, in essence,

“what an individual believes she is”. From a psychoanalytic perspective, Kohut (1977) expanded the view of self to include "a stable cohesive center of personality" upon which experiences are built and where the capacity to initiate action or attain coherence is derived.

Studies have shown that self-concept has positive effects on organisation. Social work behaviour in organisational context are those behaviours that are not required for one's job performance but are important for organisational effectiveness. Such behaviours as caring co-workers and being cooperative with others are sometimes called “extra role behaviour” in the literature when the “in-role” refers specifically to job performance. They are in fact important role expectations for the employee, colleague and group member roles. Individuals who value or identify with these roles will have the motivation to make those “extra” efforts to meet such expectations (Hung, Law, chan, & Wong, 2001). Also synonymous with self-concept are other ambiguous descriptors of the same human attribute such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, self-worth, self-image, self-perception, self-respect and self-estimation.

On the other hand, the organisational –based role-set in workplace self-concept covers the major part of the domain of individual's work organisational experiences. As a result, Kohut's theory or perspective emphasises the roles of relationships and empathy in the development of the self and places importance on the relatively enduring aspects of an individual's psychological state in which self-cohesion is firm, or where the cohesion of the 'self is not disturbed. In addition to being stable and cohesive, Kohut's model views the "self as having an important connection to the relational contexts and relationships of individuals throughout their development (Gergen, 1991). Various life experiences affect the concept of self, esteem, or confidence and are important factors in career or academic development. As individuals who perceive a strong sense of self succeed, this will contribute to their identity.

The two conceptual models of Kohut (1977) and Gergen (1987 & 1991) have two different perspectives: one of a stable and cohesive "self initiating action and one of a

changing "self in a particular social or work context; however, they both refer to the attributes of self (self-concept, self-esteem, and self-confidence) which are key elements for successful careers. The theories concerning concepts of self and relationships affect self-confidence and play an important role in academic and career development. A strong self fosters confidence when tasks are completed. The view that self-concept consists of a "stable sense of self (Kohut, 1977) that is adaptable to a changing environment (Gergen, 1987) is key to achieving personal goals, leadership and success in the work or academic environment.

Self-Efficacy and Female Job Commitment

Perceived self-efficacy is defined as people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives (Bandura, 1994). The construct of self-efficacy represents one core aspect of Bandura's social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1994). Bandura (1994) postulates that these expectations determine whether or not a certain behavior or performance will be attempted, the effort the individual will contribute to the behaviour and how long the behaviour will be sustained when obstacles are encountered. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave. Such beliefs produce diverse effects through four major processes namely cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes.

Personal well-being and human accomplishment are enhanced by a strong sense of efficacy in many ways. People with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided (Bandura, 1994). It can be regarded as an optimistic and self-confident view of one's capability to deal with certain life stressors. Such an efficacious outlook fosters intrinsic interest and deep engrossment in activities. People, with high self-efficacy set for themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them while they also heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure. After failure, they quickly recover their sense of efficacy. They attribute failure to

insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills which are acquirable, therefore approaching threatening situations with assurance that they can exercise control over them.

An individual's self-efficacy belief can vary in level, generality and strength (Bandura, 1997). Level refers to the simplicity or complexity of the task that the individual feels competent to perform. The self-efficacy the individual feels is measured against the challenge that the present task provides. Generality of self-efficacy indicates the range of tasks the individual feels able to accomplish. While some individuals feel capable of handling a wide range of tasks, others may feel particularly competent in more specific arenas. Strength refers to the level of confidence the individual exhibits in being able to complete the task at hand. While a very strong sense of self-efficacy does not necessarily mean an individual will be more likely to participate in a given task, it does lead to greater perseverance in the face of obstacles (Bandura, 1977).

Bandura (1986) offers the analogy of driving a car. An individual who feels comfortable and confident driving in heavy traffic is not only secure in her ability to perform individual tasks such as shifting gears or using the gas pedal, but feels able to perform multiple tasks at once while anticipating and handling unexpected situations. This concept can be translated into feelings of self-efficacy in the workplace. An individual who feels adept and proficient in her occupation is likely to have confidence in several of the specific tasks that are to be performed as well as feeling able to handle and use judgment in dealing with unanticipated circumstances. This is particularly true of female academics. Female academics are expected to handle complex and unexpected situations. These jobs are not reliant on the female academic's ability to perform one task repeatedly, but to use critical thinking and decision-making skills in handling challenging circumstances.

Bandura (1997) cites four determinants or sources of feelings of self-efficacy. The first, enactive mastery refers to knowledge and skill gained through experience and perseverance. In order for self-efficacy to be gained, some failures must be experienced. If success comes easily, it is likely the individual does not have a sense of accomplishment and feelings of mastery are likely to diminish. Sears (2003) observe that women who encounter difficulties and exhibit adaptive behaviour during this period feel more self-assured later in life than those who did not have to struggle with any difficulties. Progressive mastery has been shown to enhance feelings of self-efficacy and improve analytic thinking, goal setting, and commitment (Bandura & Jourden, 1991). When failures are encountered, the individual has the opportunity to make adjustments to actions taken and exercise better control over what is taking place (Bandura, 1997), a sustained effort leads to a greater sense of self-efficacy. Whether success or failure occurs is less important than how the individual perceives the significance of the event and the individual's overall competence (Bandura, 1995).

The second determinant is vicarious experience, which refers to the experiences others use as a model and as a level of comparison as to what skills are necessary to complete a task (Bandura, 1997). This may involve observing another individual who is proficient at a task and gauging whether one possesses the potential and perseverance to attain the same or a higher level of skill. Many factors are associated with how important vicarious experience is as a source of self-efficacy, including the level of skill at the time modeling is observed and similarities between the individual and the person who is serving as the model. Modeling is also important in creating outcome expectations, as behaviours that result in reward are more likely to be replicated by the observer than those that result in punishment (Schunk & Pajares, 2001).

How effective vicarious experience is in increasing feelings of self-efficacy is often linked to the similarities of personal characteristics of the observer and the person being observed. Those who are similar to the observer regarding age, ethnicity and educational and socioeconomic level often serve as the most effective models and are more likely to increase the observer's feelings of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). It has also been shown that observing an individual who must cope with difficulties prior to experiencing success is more effective in increasing self-efficacy than observing an individual who is able to master the activity with little struggle (Bandura, 1997). This goes along with the idea of similarity, as the observer is often struggling to gain self-efficacy and observing an individual who is able to overcome obstacles provides feelings of hope and motivates the individual to persevere.

Verbal or social persuasion is the third determinant which serves to reinforce feelings of efficacy when facing the minor failures mentioned above. Although social persuasion is not the most crucial method in which self-efficacy is strengthened, it makes it easier for individuals to maintain perseverance and faith in themselves when experiencing feelings of doubt (Bandura, 1997). For social persuasion to be effective, it should come from someone who the individual feels is a reliable source of feedback. In the workplace, self-efficacy can be strengthened by managers who provide constructive and realistic feedback while avoiding placing employees prematurely into situations they are not ready to handle (Malone, 2001). The activities and work assignments provided by supervisors as well as the verbal feedback provided are extremely important in increasing employees' feelings of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997).

The fourth determinant is physiological and affective which also serves as sources of information toward an individual's self-evaluation of competence. A person's physical reaction to difficult situations can influence how prepared that person feels to effectively handle the situation. If a person feels overwhelming feelings of stress, she is likely to doubt

her ability to carry out the task (Briar, 2009). This can have a direct effect on whether an individual is able to maintain feelings of motivation and perseverance in the face of obstacles and failure. Therefore, altering an individual's perception of somatic reactions to difficult situations, such as feelings related to stress, fear, or embarrassment, can greatly affect feelings of self-efficacy (Cioffi, 1991).

Feelings of self-efficacy have been shown to have a significant effect on the level of motivation and effort an individual demonstrates. High levels of self-efficacy are associated with an increased level of goal setting, which leads to a firmer commitment in achieving goals that have been set and greater resolve to persevere in the face of obstacles (Bandura, 1989). This strong commitment to success increases the likelihood that goals will be met (Bandura & Schunk, 1981). Belief in one's abilities also decreases the amount of stress and depression that is experienced in intimidating or strenuous situations (Brayfield & crockett, 2002) thereby increasing the likelihood that these difficult situations will be overcome and motivation will remain intact.

Several aspects of Bandura's (1997) predictors of self-efficacy are closely related with peer support. Verbal or social persuasion given by an individual whose opinion is trusted can increase female academics feelings of self-efficacy. Vicarious experience refers to the idea that an individual can increase feelings of self-efficacy through observing and interaction with another individual who serves as a model for completing difficult tasks (Bandura, 1997). Social persuasion and vicarious experience can be obtained through positive social interaction at the workplace. Peer support has been found to be closely related with job "embeddedness", a concept that incorporates characteristics such as allegiance. Therefore, the advice, assistance and moral support from a co-worker or peer may have an effect on the level of self-efficacy of a new worker (Zeldin & Pajares 2000) and also shown to be influential to female academic job commitment in the academic profession (Acker, 2004).

Sadri and Robertson (1993) argue that enhanced task performance is the major consequence of high levels of specific self-efficacy perceptions. Although research on the possible effects of self-efficacy on employee attitude and commitment is limited, it seems plausible that the higher one's level of self-efficacy is in some tasks, the higher one's positive affect associated with it (Lee & Bobko, 1994; Schwoerer & May, 1996). Bandura (1997) observes that employees with low level of self-efficacy shy away from difficult tasks doubt their own capability and are not very committed to the goals and aspirations they set for themselves.

Self - Esteem and Female Job Commitment

Self-esteem is typically defined as appraisal of one's value as a human being that is overall self-evaluation of one's competencies. It is that self-evaluation and descriptive conceptualisation that individuals make and maintain with regard to themselves. In this sense, self-esteem is a personal evaluation reflecting what people think of themselves as individuals (Brockner, 1988). Self-esteem is the experience of being competent to cope with the basic challenges of life and of being worthy of happiness. It consists of two components: Self-efficacy—confidence in one's ability to think, learn, choose and make appropriate decisions, and, by extension, to master challenges and manage change; and self-respect—confidence in one's right to be happy, and, by extension, confidence that achievement, success, friendship, respect, love and fulfillment are appropriate for oneself (Branden, 1994). Global self-esteem represents an overall value judgment about the self, whereas domain-specific denotes appraisal of one's value in a particular area (work, family social, intellectual spheres (Leary & Baumeister, 2000). Self-esteem reflected the degree to which the individual “sees herself as a competent, need-satisfying individual” thus, the high self-esteem individual has a “sense of personal adequacy and a sense of having achieved need satisfaction in the past” (Gardner & Pierce 2001).

Hsu and kuo (2003) note that self-esteem also consists of an affective (liking/disliking) component – high self-esteem people like who and what they are. Employer with affective commitment is defined as an individual's emotional attachment to identification with, and involvement in an employing organisation, characterised by a strong belief in an acceptance of its goals, a willingness to exert considerable effort on the organisation's behalf, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Mowday, Porter, & Steer, 1992.). Employees with strong positive affective commitment remain with an organisation because they want to, rather than because they feel they ought to or because they need to (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). Committed employees identify with, are involved in and enjoy their working membership. Moreover, they tend to develop a strong workplace bond and to internalise work -related problems as own, showing a wiliness to go the extra distance (Meyer, Stanly, Herscovitch, & Toponytsky, 2002.). Given their close emotional ties, affective committed employees have a strong desire to see their organisation succeed (Luchak, 2003). The self-esteem construct is usually conceptualised as a hierarchical phenomenon. As such, it exists at different levels of specificity, commonly seen in terms of global, and task or situation-specific self-esteem (Yeunh & Martins, 2003). As a multifaceted conceptualisation of the self, scholars (Pierce & Gardner, 2004; Hough, 2003) generally agree that self-esteem may also develop around a number of other dimensions (e.g., the social, physical, academic, and moral-self).

Building upon the notion that self-esteem is a hierarchical and multifaceted phenomenon, Yeunh and Martins (2003) observe that self-esteem indicates the extent to which the individual believes herself to be capable, significant, and worthy, Pierce, Gardner, Cummings and Dunham (1989) introduced the concept of organisation-based self-esteem .Organisation-based self-esteem(OBSE) is defined as the degree to which an individual believes herself to be capable, significant and worthy as an organisational member.

Elaboration of the construct casts OBSE as a self-evaluation of one's personal adequacy (worthiness) as an organisational member. It reflects the self-perceived value that individuals have of themselves as important, competent, and capable within their employing organisations – employees with high organisation-based self-esteem believe “I count around here.” Consistent with Korman's (1971, 1976 & 2001) view of self-esteem, people with strong organisation-based self-esteem have a sense of having satisfied their needs through their organisational roles.

Scholars have reasoned that individuals form a self-concept around work and that their organisational experiences play powerful role in determining their level of self-esteem (Brockner, 1988; Korman, 1976 & 2001). Yeunh and Martins (2003) suggest that self-esteem is affected by several forces (forces similar to those that give rise to self-efficacy; Bandura, 1982). These determinants can be categorised as; the implicit signals sent by the environmental structures to which one is exposed; messages sent from significant others in one's social environment; and the individual's feelings of efficacy and competence derived from her direct and personal experiences. Building upon this work, Pierce, Biar (2009) reason that the determinants of organisation-based self-esteem are similar, yet grounded in one's work and organisational experiences.

As people experience high levels of self-expression and personal control, there is an increased likelihood that the individual will attribute positive events to themselves, thereby affecting their level of organisation-based self-esteem. It could be argued that as work environment structure decreases and personal control increases, people will realise they are capable of independent action and thereby develop a sense of self-worth consistent with that personal image.

A second major source from which self-esteem emerges are the social messages received and internalised that come from meaningful and significant others (Gardner, Dyne &

Pierce, 2004). To the extent that others think that an individual is able, competent, and need-satisfying, and over time communicates that perception through their words and behaviours, an individual will hold similar self-beliefs (Korman, 1976 & 2001). In this sense, an individual's OBSE is, in part, a social construction, shaped and modified according to the messages about the self transmitted by role models, teachers, mentors, and those who evaluate the individual's work. Once these messages are internalised and integrated into the person's conceptualisation of and evaluation of the self, they become a part of the self-esteem.

Finally, it has been suggested that self-esteem finds part of its origin in direct and personal experiences (Brockner, 1988; Korman 1976,). Individuals who feel efficacious and competent, derived from their own experiences (e.g., successful completion of a project), hold positive images of themselves. Generally speaking, experiences of success in an organisation will bolster an individual's organisation-based self-esteem, while the experience of failure will have the opposite effect. Bandura's (1997) work with self-efficacy provided some insight into this relationship. He suggests that the impact of past performance (e.g., success and/or failure) on self-beliefs depends on the individual's interpretation of that performance and the attributions that are made. Individuals who have successful experiences and who attribute that success to themselves are more likely to experience an increase in self-efficacy, which in turn and over time impacts OBSE (Gardner & Pierce, 1998 & 2001). Similarly, an individual who experiences failure and attributes it to the self will eventually experience a diminution of self-esteem.

Work value and Female Job Commitment

A value is a principle or standard held in high esteem by an individual, and is related to all aspects of one's personal and work life. Value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or

converse mode of conduct or end –state of existence (Hatrup, Mueller & Jones, 2007). Value signifies desired goals scaled according to importance, which guide a person's life (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009), behaviour that is directed towards goals (Glazer, 2004), and criteria for choosing those goals.

Values develop so that individuals can meet their needs in socially acceptable ways. The more individuals know about their work values, the better they will be at determining which work environment best fits their personal and professional needs, and the skills they want to use and develop there (Ueda & Ohzono, 2011). Research suggests that values are stable and predictable of behaviour over time (Farh, Hackett & Liang, 2007). Thus values play a central role in human motivation and achievement (Wasti, 2003) and decision-making processes (Brown & Associates, 2002). Work values are thus one aspect of an individual's values system.

Sagiv and Schwarz (2000) define human values as desirable, trans-situational goals varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in people's lives. The crucial aspect that distinguishes these values from one another is the type of motivational goal they express. They further explain that values, in the form of conscious goals, represent three universal requirements in form of human existence: biological needs, requisites of coordinated social interaction and demands of group functioning. Ten distinct motivational types of values were derived from the three universal requirements. Below is a list of the ten value types as presented in Sagiv and Schwartz (2000):

- **Power.** Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people resource. (social power, authority, wealth)
- **Achievement.** Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards (intelligent, self-respect)
- **Hedonism.** Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself (pleasure, enjoying life).

- **Stimulation.** Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life.
- **Self-direction.** Independent thought and action-choosing, creating, exploring (creativity, freedom, independent, curious, choosing own goals).
- **Universalism.** Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and nature (broadminded, wisdom, social justice, equality, a world of peace, a world of beauty, unity with nature, protecting the environment).
- **Benevolence.** Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact (helpful, honest, forgiving, loyal, responsible, friendship, mature love).
- **Tradition.** Respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide the self (humble, devout, respect for tradition, moderate).
- **Conformity.** Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms (politeness, obedient, self-discipline.).
- **Security.** Safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self (family security, national security, social order, sense of belonging).

Values and work values in particular are supposed to play a functional role in work related central processes and outcome, such as job satisfaction, motivation, organisational commitment, work performance and vocational streaming (Dong, 2001). They are assumed to be predictors or moderators of these processes and criteria and they are further ascribed a central role in determining the fit between the individual and the employment organisation. The underlying assumption is that people will be happier, more motivated, satisfied, and committed when the individual's values are congruent with those emphasised in the organisation.

Values signify desired goals scaled according to importance, which guide a person's life (Elizur, 1996), behaviour that is directed towards goals (Hung & Liu, 2003), and criteria for choosing those goals (Charles & Grusky, 2004). Ryan (2002) has defined work values as goals that people strive to attain through working. In the definitions given above it is evident that the concept of goals is a core element of values and work goals are regarded to be synonymous to work values. They argue that different work goals are ordered by their importance as guiding principles for evaluating work outcomes and settings, and for choosing among different work alternatives. Because work values referred only to goals in the work setting, they are more specific than basic individual values.

Work values are the values that individuals hold a "desired end state" of their participation at work. Work values assisted in defining career paths and goals (Lowe, 2000). According to Norris (2004), work values of individuals affect their work desire or goal, as well as their effort and work performance. Brown (2002) argues that work values played a key role in influencing employees' affective responses to work in general and to specific task characteristics. According to Vecernik (2003) work values refer to the endurable and preferable thoughts and attitudes an individual creates and applies to specific work, the formation of which is a gradual accumulative socialisation process. Fontaine, poortinga, Delbeke & Schwartz (2008) describe work values as endurable beliefs and standards which judge the worth of what is done through work, justify the work experience and express one's working behaviours and pursuit for work goals whenever the individual is engaging in her own job.

As is the case with the concept of values, different authors present definitions of the concept of work values. However, it is evident that the idea of an "attitude towards or orientation with regard to work" constitutes a central element of most interpretations. Most definitions of work values agree with the notion that they are specific goals an individual

considers important and attempts to attain in the work context. One of the most important aspect that comes to fore from the theories of work and work motivation, is that workers differ with regard to the reasons they have for working and the needs they want to satisfy through work (Steyn & Hennie, 2004). Similarly, Hirschi (2010) defines work values as, end states that guide individuals work related preferences that can be attained through the act of working.

Work values are sometimes classified into several categories; the typical dimension are extrinsic and intrinsic (Gahan & Abeysekera, 2009; Hegney, Plank & Parker, 2006; Hirschi, 2010). Extrinsic work values are defined as “the traditional pursuit of success by advancing up the organisational hierarchy to achieve prestige, status, and high income “(Hirschi 2010,). In contrast, intrinsic work values are referred to as the “employee” natural desire to actualise, develop and grow at the work place (i.e. self development), to build meaningful and satisfying relationship with colleagues (i.e. affiliation) and to help people in need (i.e. community contribution) . In addition to this binary classification, Hegney, Plank and Parker (2006) have suggested a third dimension named social/environmental values referring to relations with coworkers and the work environment.

Other researchers Johnson (2002); Glazer, Daniel and Short (2004) and Ueda and Ohzono (2011) have investigated the priorities that shape individuals’ job preferences and conclude that these priorities constitute their work values. Despite a plethora of different labels, most work researchers appear to identify the same two or three types of work values :

Intrinsic or self-actualization; values,

Extrinsic or security or material values; and Social or relational values.

Elizur (1996) arrives at a related trichotomous classification of work values by considering the modality of their outcomes. The first work value in this classification referred to working conditions, pay and benefits therefore is defined as the instrumental outcome of

work. The second work outcome included an affective element and referred to social relations with associates, therefore it is name the affective outcome. The final component is called the cognitive work outcome and referred to responsibility, interest and achievement. This classification largely overlaps with extrinsic, intrinsic and social values introduced above. Stone, Stone and Lukaszewski (2007) view these three types of work values as conceptually parallel to three of the higher-order basic human values: intrinsic work values directly express openness to change values the pursuit of autonomy, interest, grow and creativity in work. Extrinsic work values express conservation values; job security and income provide workers with the requirements needed for general security and maintenance of order in their lives. Social or interpersonal work values express the pursuit of self-transcendence values; work is seen as a vehicle for positive social relations and contribution to society. In addition to the three work values defined above, Gahan and Abey (2009) suggest that a fourth distinctive type of work value could be defined which parallels the basic self enhancement higher-order value type. This type of work values, like self-enhancement, should be concerned with prestige or power. The fourth type of value has been classified as extrinsic in some studies Ueda and Ohzono (2011), Hirschi (2010), Gahan and Abey (2009) or intrinsic in others, Hegney, Plank and Parker (2006), Hatstrup, Muller and Jones (2007)

Another study which supports the four-dimensional work value categorisation is the one of Norris, (2004). The study revealed that, the category designated as cognitive, could be split into two separate regions of intrinsic and of prestige values. Among the distinctive intrinsic work values were interesting work, meaningful work, opportunity for growth and use of ability and knowledge. Among the prestige values are company that one is proud to swork for, advancement, influence in the organisation and influence at work. Arguing that organisational commitment can be better understood as a multidimensional concept, Meyer and Allen (1984) proposed a two dimensional model of organisational commitment. They

called their first dimension *affective commitment*, which is defined as “positive feelings of identification with, attachment to, and involvement in the work organisation” (Meyer & Allen, 1984). The second dimension was termed *continuance commitment*, which is defined as “the extent to which employees feel committed to their organisations by virtue of the costs that they feel are associated with leaving (e.g., investments or lack of attractive alternatives)” (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Later, Mayer and Allen (1991) added a third dimension, *normative commitment*, which is defined as employees’ feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation.

The three-component model of organisational commitment was later extended to occupational commitment using similar definitions, albeit with some changes in the scales. As a result, the three-component approach has not only dominated the study of organisational commitment, as demonstrated in the extensive meta-analysis conducted by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) but has also affected the study of occupational commitment. Because of the similar dimensionality of the two concepts, it is obvious that the basic difference between the two commitments lies in their focus: the organisation in the one case, and the occupation in the other. From the individual point of view, organisationally committed employees demonstrate a strong belief and acceptance of an organisation’s goals and values, a readiness to exert considerable effort for the organisation, and a strong desire to remain an organisation member. Individuals with high occupational commitment should be more likely to participate in skill development, devote great energy to furthering their careers, do more to advance their occupations and be less likely to leave their occupations (Bailey, 2001).

Values are supposed to play a functional role in work-related processes and outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and work performance. They are assumed to be predictors or moderators of these processes and criteria. Further, they are ascribed a central role in determining the fit between the individual and the employment

organisation. The underlying assumption is that people will be happier and more motivated, satisfied, and committed when their values are congruent with those emphasised in the organisation or vocational group (Boyar, Maertz, Moslry & Carr, 2008).

Women experience difficulty in the level of commitment required to succeed in academic work due to their disproportionate share of domestic responsibilities. University culture has also made hard work and the long hours needed to produce scholarly publications a virtue that leads to career advancement. One reason for this focus is that women have more career breaks due to childbearing, child rearing and other care responsibilities. For women with child-rearing and family responsibilities, moving up the ranks is challenging (Kinman & Jones 2008; Fagan, 2004). Work and family are most important roles in one's life. However, the expectations of these roles are not always compatible and frequently create conflicts between the family and work domain. Being a wife and an employer requires a great deal of psychic energy that in many cases cannot be given to both domains in a way that will satisfy them. Married female academics are more likely to experience high levels of stress and tension (Gornick & Meyer, 2003). In married female academics, family conflicts can give rise to higher absenteeism rates, more tiredness, higher turnover, lack of energy, mental health problems and reduced satisfaction from marriage. There also is the "hidden curriculum" (Thomas, Bierema, & Landau, 2004), where women learn to assimilate into the male culture by downplaying their attributes and have to prove themselves more extensively than men in order to advance. Adding the previously described gender bias in selection, evaluation and promotion processes, it is indeed an arduous trek to the advanced positions.

The "chilly campus climate" and "gender schemas" are other factors which "help to account for women's failure to thrive in academia" (Hult, Calliste &, Sullivan. 2005). Lawlor (2003) in a Princeton study of women in science notes "nearly a quarter of the women said their colleagues engaged occasionally or frequently in 'unprofessional' behavior and

excluded women from professional activities". Women lack knowledge about tenure requirements, their research is segregated and devalued, they are overburdened with teaching and advising responsibilities, they feel their performance evaluations are negatively impacted by gender stereotypes, and they are excluded from administration and leadership positions (Kinman & Jones 2008; Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008; Guest, 2002). These assignments add responsibilities and commitments to what is normally expected for a faculty position yet may not count as much as scholarship towards promotion (Boyar, Maertz, Mosley & Carr, 2008; Byron, 2005, Hynes & Clarkberg, 2005) The institution does not understand the importance of family structure and responsibilities in their lives, and they frequently feel torn between their responsibilities to their families, their communities and their careers (Gibert, 2008; Ridgeway & Correll, 2004). As a consequence, some women may not believe they will be able to meet the criteria for promotion and therefore withdraw their candidacy from consideration before actually being evaluated, tenured professors are four times more likely to be male (Bailey, 2003). Women constitute a small minority of full-time academic staff and are mostly concentrated in lower-level positions (Bagihole, 1993). Zulu (2003) reported that most disciplines are still very male-dominated at the top, and even at the medium level in fact, the male dominance is remarkable. Women are far from reaching equality with men, and this inability to reach the upper levels of academia denies women the power to have their voices heard and encourage change in meaningful ways (Harris, 2009).

SOCIAL FACTORS AND JOB COMMITMENT

Social variables are used to show that age, marital status, mentoring, networking, work experience and educational qualifications have important effects on career commitment. Coshen and Freud (2005) assert that if an organisation is to be successful, it must continue to satisfy employees' requests to make them committed to their work. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) observe that committed employees are more innovative and creative. McLean and Andrew

(2008) affirm that social variables such as age, gender, marital status, and academic qualification are very important factors in career commitment. For the purpose of this study the following social variables will be made use of: mentoring, networking, educational attainment, age, marital status and work experience.

Marital Status and Female Job Commitment

According to Baker (2008), research has indicated that patterns of family formation differ for men and women with high level of educational attainment and job commitment. While educated men tend to have high rates of marriage and reproduction, educated women have lower marriage and fertility rates and higher divorce rates. Regardless of educational attainment, employed women are also more likely to make work concessions for family responsibilities (Beaujot, 2000). A gender gap has been apparent in most occupations, including academic, with more men teaching full-time in universities and reaching the peak of their professions (Probert, 2005).

Bracken, Allen and Dean (2006) affirm that pregnancy and infant care interferes with publishing and job searches more for mothers who are academics. Women doctorates with young children are less likely to find a full-time academic job immediately after graduation or in temporary positions with few promotional opportunities, or even to opt out of the labour force temporarily. Women pursuing a full time career as an academic in conjunction with responsibility for children are thus likely than their male counterparts to be confronted with a workload that adds household labour to employment (Nakhaie, 2007).

According to Sutherland (1985) in her study argues that while maternity leave is a legal requirement in all tertiary institutions, most of the women in Sutherland's study who had taken, or were considering taking maternity leave were particularly concerned about the possible impact of this on their careers. To most of them, maternity leave was counter-productive and reduced women's promotion opportunities. She also observes that, in spite of

changing cultural expectations about the role of women in society, many women in her study reported feelings of guilt about leaving their children with child-minders or nannies. O’Laughlin and Bischott (2005) and Probert (2005) note that academic women are more likely than their male counterparts to be in dual-career marriage. Female academics who become mothers take more responsibility than their partners for caring and domestic work at home. Academic women reported greater involvement in childcare and household task than their male counterparts. While crèches, domestic help, support from partners and relatives can all help with child care, the ultimate responsibility for children invariably seems to rest with women. It is women who usually have to take time off work to look after sick children or leave work early in order to pick them from school. She also observes that some women academics felt that society still expected them to be ready to give family assistance to elderly or ill relatives.

From this perspective, it has been argued that it is more difficult for women than for men to display the total availability that is seen as an indicator for their commitment to their job (Etzkowitz, Kemelgor, Neuschatz, & Uzzi, 1992). For instance, a survey among male and female full Professors in the Netherlands (Ellemers, 1993) revealed that, virtually all male Professors have a wife and family, women who have made a successful career in academics are likely to be single and childless. Thus, for women more than for men, there generally appears to be a trade-off between the dual responsibilities at home and at work, and this has been taken as an indication that paid labour plays a less central role in the life of women than of men. Accordingly, differential commitment to their work has been cited as a plausible reason why women are less successful than men in their careers (Levin & Stephan, 1998). Also, doubt has sometimes been raised about the capacity of women to maintain a high level of job commitment in addition to family life-cycle responsibilities (Creamer, 2006).

A study at the University of California found that women academic staff who were between the ages of 30 and 50 with children, reported working 100 hours per week when they included academic work, childcare and house work when compared with their male counterparts who reported working 85 hours per week (Mason, Goulden & Nicholas, 2006). High level of family stress have also been related to work stress, which is particularly high in the pre-tenure years when productivity levels need to be elevated to retain one's job (O'Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005). Women academics commented on the negative effect of work stress on their family life, including the requirement to work long hours, the absence of suitable childcare services and restricted geographic mobility and career opportunities (Sweet & Moen, 2002). They explained further that academic men are less likely to mention family stress as a concern, partly because many men have wives who work part-time and care for children at home. In fact, cross-national evidence consistently demonstrates that when husband and wife perform paid labor, when both partners have equal status jobs (Biernat & Wortman, 1991), and even when the woman is the breadwinner (Curtis, 2005), women do most of the childcare and household tasks (Van der Lippe, 1993) on their so-called 'second shift' (Hochschild, 1989; Sabbadini & Camporese, 1998). Thus, for women more than for men, there generally appears to be a trade-off between the dual responsibilities at home and at work, and this has been taken as an indication that paid labour plays a less central role in the life of women than of men. Accordingly, differential commitment to work has been cited as a plausible reason why women are less successful than men in their careers (Levin & Stephan, 1998).

Career advancement can occur through promotion within one's institution or movement from one tertiary institution to another. Bracken, Allen & Dean (2006) opine that academics who lack geographical mobility are less likely to be able to take advantage of opportunities or career advancement. Several studies have shown that marriage differentially restricts the

mobility of professional women (Mason & Goulden 2002; Leob, 2001). It was observed that women often moved to further the husband's career despite interruption to their own career, but moves that gave priority to women were rarely made (Sweet & Moen, 2002). Disadvantages can include having to take a lower level job as a consequence of following the spouse or being unable to accept an attractive position in a location removed from the spouse's employment (Loeb, 2001).

Age and Female Job Commitment.

Age has also been shown to have a positive relationship with organisational commitment. This may be due to the logic that as workers grow older, alternative employment opportunities becomes limited, making their current jobs more attractive (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). This is however, asserted in a study of the military personnel, in which Jans (1989) observe there is a 'monotonic' increase in organisational commitment as an officer's age but not tenure increased. The study concluded that organisational commitment does vary across career stages but this change may be due to the determinant variations across the career/life stages. Smith and Hoy (1992) observe that age is significantly related to total job satisfaction and organisational commitment within a small business context. It was established that older workers were more likely to be committed to their organisation as opposed to their younger colleagues. Russ and McNeilly (1995) discovered that the commitment of younger workers is likely to be more affected by disappointment with pay and promotion opportunities than the commitment of older employees who have achieved their advancement and income potential compared to younger employees who often make job choices on the basis of income and career potential. Older employees, on the other hand, have higher needs for affiliation and lower needs for achievement (Doering, Rhoades & Schuster, 1983). The older workers highly value close friendship with their fellow co-workers to provide emotional support for them to cope with various adverse life events (Schulz &

Ewen, 1993) and they view the organisation as a source of social satisfaction due to the strong social ties that have been established with the other members (Balfour & Weschsler, 1996). The difference of values held by older and younger employees which affects their level of organisational commitment is consistent with the views by Maslow (1970) that by the need for economic security. Hence, it may be reasonable to view age as moderating the relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Researches have found a U-shaped or a positive linear relationship between employee age and job commitment. That is, the employee becomes more commitment with her job as her chronological age progresses or her job commitment decreases initially and then increases with age. Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell (1957) were among the first to report the U-shaped relationship between age and job commitment. Herzberg and colleagues suggested that while morale is high among young workers, it tends to go down during the first few years of employment. The low point is reached when workers are in their middle and late 20s or early 30s. After this period, satisfaction steadily climbs with age.

Quinn and Steins (1979) presented US Quality of Employment Survey results, which were gathered in 1969, 1973, and 1977 respectively. Except 1977, respondents below 20 years reported the lowest level of job commitment. Weaver 1980 did similar investigation using general social survey results between 1972 and 1978 in the United States and he reported positive linear relationship in all years except 1974. Herman, Dunham and Hulin (1980) and Sweeny (1982) observe that older teachers were more committed to their job than younger ones. In a more recent study, Hickson and Oshagbami (1999) examine the effect of age on the commitment of academicians with teaching and research separately. Their results surprisingly indicated that age has quite different effects on academic teaching staff and academic research staff. The result for teaching commitment indicated that job commitment

decreases with age at a decreasing rate. On the other hand, the results for research commitment indicated positive linear relationship between age and commitment.

But whatever the relationship is, the presence of particularly high job commitment among older employees appears to be generally accepted. Clark, Oswald and Warr (1996) present six arguments to account for this tendency. First, they suggested that there was an influence for job change. Older workers possess more seniority and work experience, which enable them move into rewarding, attractive and satisfying jobs. Second, that older employees have specific work values, which make more attractive job characteristics that are less desirable to young people. Consistent with Wright and Hamilton (1978) and Kallenberg and Loscocco's (1983) studies, they claim the rated importance of many job features stable across ages, but that income and promotion opportunities were of less concern to older employees. Third, grinding down was suggested as an explanation. Older workers come to lower their expectations in some respects. If older people come to seek less from any possible job, then comparative assessments of their position relative to other possibilities will give rise to more positive feelings about their job. Fourth, they suggested that cohort differences might have an influence, that is, younger workers place significantly greater importance on intrinsic rewards like interesting and challenging jobs compared to older workers who are more concerned with extrinsic rewards such as pay and fringe benefits. Hence younger workers are more dissatisfied than older workers simply because they demand more than their jobs can provide. Fifth, they suggested that observed differences between age groups might be accounted for by varying rates of participation in the labour force. According to them, older employees somewhat less representative of their age group in comparison with younger ones; it is possible that, through greater self-selection into the sample, they have more positive work attitudes than those who are no longer employed. Sixth non-job variations explained as an explanation. It is possible that job commitment scores in part reflect context-free

variations in mental health, which are not restricted to feelings about a job. Besides these explanations, the theory of accommodation was suggested by Mottaz (1984). According to Brown (2002), employees after having stayed in their jobs for sometime, tend to adjust their work values to the conditions of the workplace, resulting in greater job commitment.

Despite women's longer life spans, they tend to retire earlier than men and the timing of retirement often coincides with their (older) male partner's retirement, or the pursuit of life interests relating to charitable work or grandchildren. This means that many academic women have shorter careers than their male counterparts, which contributes to lower academic rank upon retirement (Baker, 2008).

Women Educational Attainment and Female job Commitment

A major influence on the gender distribution of employment across is the educational attainment of labour market participants. An individual without post-school qualifications has limited access to job opportunities (Watts, 2008). Education is widely accepted as an important factor in enabling individuals participate fully in social and cultural, as well as economic life. Through higher education, women are able to raise their labour market status and achieve certain degree of economic independence, thereby enhancing their overall quality of life (Watts, 2008).

Liptak (2008) affirms that educational attainment is the key to career opportunity. A person's education level directly impacts that person's employability, job prospects, income and overall life and career satisfaction. Post-secondary education and training opportunities are considered the best gateways to high-skilled and high-paying jobs.

Women, even in contemporary times still live in a male-dominated world that gives more preference to the man than the woman. In education, this preferential treatment of the males has persevered. Education for women has not been easy in any region of the world (Olubor, 2006). The accesses are so narrow that it seems they are almost impassable (Williams, 1993).

In some culture it is an abomination to train or send a female to school because education of female is seen as a threat to male chauvinism and that women are expected to be good cooks and mothers this further affects the number of educated women (Garuba, 2006).

UNESCO (1988) report that 63 per cent of illiterate persons were female. This further highlights the degree of discrimination against women's education. Suda (2002) explains that women's limited access to formal education and lower adult literacy rates undermined their capacity to participate in the formal and informal labour market on equal basis with men. This unfortunate practice ensured that females remained many paces behind their male counterparts in terms of education and all the opportunities that goes with it. Where parents had means, women were encouraged to pursue only professional courses such as nursing, teaching, catering and the like, which place them a little above the kitchen level, or at best, at the middle management level before retirement age (Williams, 1993). Historically education in Sub-Saharan Africa and even Asia was initially available only for males (EFA Report, 2003/2004). Corroborating the above submission Olubor (2006) argues that the implication for most regions of the world is that few girls have the opportunities to participate in technical activities. It is at this level that interest and love for technical activities are built. This may eventually lead to few enrolments in technically based courses like engineering. Even among the few girls that opt for vocational courses, they tend to choose fields that are considered 'feminine' and less technical such as secretarial studies, catering etc. Odejide, Akanji and Odekunle's (2006) studies on gender in Nigerian Universities followed this trend of argument. They conclude that women's access to the Faculty of Technology is hampered by poor preparation at lower levels of education, male dominance of time and space and societal expectations of appropriate work for women. According to the World Education Report (1995), there has been a long-standing imbalance in participation of women in formal education. Nearly two-thirds of the world's illiterate adults are women (565 million), most of

who live in Africa, Asia and Latin America (Onsongo, 2002). UNESCO, 2007 report that girls still constitute 55% of all out-of-school children and that worldwide, for every 100 boys out-of-school there are 122 girls.

Studies have shown (Okebukola, 2002; Ogbogu, 2000; Odedeji, Ajanji & Odekunle, 2006) that University education system in Nigeria is bedeviled with gender inequality in terms of enrolment of students and recruitment of staff. A study by Okebukola reveals that of the total population of 526,780 from Universities that provided enrolment data, only 178,995 (34%) were female in Nigerian Universities. Women form minority of University teachers in Nigeria (World Bank, 2002). This assertion is affirmed by Onsongo (2002) that fewer women than men enroll in universities, this is one reason why there are few women staff, thus reflecting a vicious cycle. According to Watts (2008), the fastest and surest way to hold managerial positions in all walks of life, including university institution, is through the attainment of a high level of education. The higher the level of one's education, the better the chances of reaching top management position. Compared to men, only very few women have acquired the level of education that is necessary for the attainment of management positions in the Universities and other areas of human endeavour. Even, the few women who are armed with the requirements needed to move to top academic positions do not find it easy because of some certain barriers. As expected, the male, sees himself as the superior being, intellectually, mentally and physically, is 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 are not allowed into the elite club of top level management (Williams, 1993).

University education has always favoured men, though remarkable progress has been made in female participation in the labour force, however, the input of females in the tertiary education sector particularly among the academic staff category is still low. The number of

women who hold academic and administrative positions in tertiary institutions are fewer than their male counterparts. This has therefore resulted in the small number of women who eventually occupy top academic positions.

Studies have been carried out to determine the various factors which account for the persistence of gender inequalities in Nigerian tertiary institutions; socio-economic, cultural, institutional and political factors are recognised as major barriers to women's full participation and advancement in the tertiary education system. Other identified factors include: hostile work environment, sexual harassment, lack of opportunities for further training and promotion criteria (Ogbogu, 2006; Okebukola, 2002). Olubor, (2006) indicate that marriage, the biologically induced responsibility of childbearing and domestic responsibilities are major gender related factors which affect women's commitment at her workplace. The African society particularly places majority of the responsibility of raising children on the mother such that women perpetually retain responsibility for childcare and also carry out over 50 per cent of the household chores. For instance, a woman's decision to return to work after the birth of a baby is contingent on the availability of a competent nanny or adequate childcare centre. Family commitments leave academic women with little time to carry out effective research.

Rank and Female Job Commitment

Women constitute a relatively small fraction of the academic staff in the universities, polytechnics and even colleges of education, especially in the high ranking positions. While representation of women at higher professorial ranks is disappointing, women are even more scarce on the administrative career ladder. Relatively few women advance to top academic leadership positions such as dean, provost or chancellor.

Various reasons have been offered to explain the fact that fewer women stay in academics and those who actually choose to stay have difficulties in getting the high ranking positions. Researches on academic faculties suggest that women's minority size is negatively related to their career advancement in terms of rank attainment (Toren & Kraus 1987; Woodd, 200; Zulu, 2003). Namely, women's academic ranks are closer to those of their male counterparts in academic disciplines in which they are represented in small proportions (i.e., the natural sciences), whereas in scientific fields in which they comprise larger proportions (i.e., the humanities) rank inequalities between genders are augmented. Another pertinent example can be found in schools of social work or education in universities, where men are a minority but nevertheless dominate the high academic and administrative ranks

Those women, who dare enter the traditionally male domain of academic research, in particular the physical sciences and engineering, find that they are marginalised, that their work and contributions are not valued as highly as those of their male counterparts, and that they have to work very hard to disprove this received opinion (Bailey, 2003).

According to Keller (1991), the "academic culture" defines women as less competent to engage in science and underrates their worth as scientists and scholars. He describes successful scientists as those that are exhibiting primarily masculine characteristics, such as rationality, assertiveness, independence and commitment. While Ekehammar (1995) affirms that women on the other hand are depicted as lacking the capabilities and appropriate attributes to do creative intellectual work. They are perceived as being emotional rather than rational, passive, insecure and dependent and lacking the needed mathematical skills and power of abstraction. Further, it is in their "nature" to be more concerned with their children and families than with the vocation of science and scholarship that demands total commitment.

Singh (2002) identified a number of factors that illustrate women's disadvantage in higher education employment. She observes that gender differences in rank were not caused by differences in age, higher degree, publications, and time at one's university. Women gained much lower rank than their qualifications would provide if they were men and these effects were pronounced at senior lecturer and higher level. However, in a more comprehensive analysis, Castleman, Allen, Bastalich and Wright (1995) argue that women who are successful in Australian academic life are those who have emulated the characteristics of a male career path, namely overseas degrees, publications in international journals (not Australian) and overseas sponsors and speed of promotion and number, but not quality of publications.

Judgment and decision-making concerning recruitment, tenure and promotion are prone to bias and manipulation. When making these decisions or awarding research grants, prizes and honours, men are the traditionally favoured candidates. Women are scrutinised more rigorously and stricter criteria are applied in judging their worth because of the underlying stereotypes noted above and also because of the belief that women are more committed to their family than their job (Steinberg 1992; Curtins, 2005).

Research on women has identified various of obstacles inhibiting their career development, advancement and commitment. For example, marital and parental obligations that coincide with the first crucial years of the academic career (Hargens, McCann, & Reskin, 1978); the reluctance of academic men to serve as mentors and collaborate with women students (Gibbons 1992; Etzkowitz, Kemelgor, & Uzzi, 2000); limited geographical mobility; the minority status of women in academics (Toren & Kraus, 1987; Long 2001); the relative absence of female role models (Astin, 1985); exclusion from informal networks and some scientific specialties (Cole, 1979); and genderised stereotypes and discrimination against women in academia (Lorber, 1994; Valian, 1998).

The concept that best captures academic women's predicament is that of a "hurdle track" (Toren, 2000) denoting that obstacles are recurrent, appear at various career junctures and that their effects are interdependent and cumulative. In a review article on "Gender Inequality and Higher Education" (in the U.S.), Jacobs (1996) maintains that:

The notion of cumulative disadvantage seems to be a reasonable summary of the under-representation of women in academic positions. In other words, women have been disadvantaged to some extent in every stage of the academic career process.

At the initial entry stage cultural stereotypes and self-images have considerable influence and serve to limit recruitment by universities as well as by women's career choices. In the subsequent stage, when the young academician has to prove and establish her reputation (the first five to seven critical years), women may be impeded by childbearing and family obligations as well as by institutional arrangements that are not compatible with their special needs. Later on, in mid-career, the consequences of earlier obstacles created by overt and covert discrimination are exacerbated and placed women at a disadvantage position. Women who lagged behind when bearing and caring for young children do not usually pick up and close the gap when children grow up and are less dependent.

The concept of accumulation of disadvantage (Merton, 1988) is illustrated by the well-known phenomenon in academia that women on average stay longer (number of years) in each rank than their male colleagues. Moreover, they attain each successive rank increasingly later and the rank discrepancy between genders grows over time. As a result, women do not often make it to the rank of full professor (retirement is obligatory at the age of 65). Since only relatively few reach the highest rank, they do not participate in the most important decision-making bodies and committees, a fact that negatively influences their fate and that of other women. The discrimination against women is a continuous process of accumulation

of obstacles and disadvantage (a hurdle track) rather than barriers located only at career entry (thresholds) or at career peak (ceilings).

Mentoring and Female Job Commitment

Mentoring is the process of providing younger and less-experienced individuals with support, counsel, friendship and constructive examples in order for them to succeed in their careers and life. It is a voluntary learning relationship that offers personal development for the mentee.

Mentoring is traditionally viewed as an intense relationship between a younger adult and an older, more experienced adult who helps the younger individual learn (Kram, 1985). Hayes, (2001) reviews the mentoring literature across the disciplines of business, nursing and education and defines mentoring as a process of building trust between two people, one is experienced and the other is a newcomer. Fagenson, (1989) notes that a traditional mentoring relationship is one in which a senior person working in the organisation assists with the career advancement and professional development of a junior. Mentoring studies have provided insights into individual-level factors that account for the cultivation of such relationships including locus of control, mentor race and gender role. In addition, the organisation-level factors include organisational culture, organisational structure, diversity, promotion, career satisfaction and competences. Overall, these traditional concepts of mentoring have focused on a single or primary mentoring relationship.

Originally, a mentor is referred to as an influential individual with advanced experience and knowledge who provide support and mobility to their protégé's careers (Fagenson, 1989; Noe, 1988). Caffarella (1992) asserts that mentoring involves an intense caring relationship in which persons with more experience work with less experienced persons to promote professional and personal development. Anderson (1993) defines mentoring as the process in

which an individual has regular dialogue with, and receives advice from a more experienced member of the organisation on a range of issues relating to the individual's job and career development. Ragins and Cotton (1999) note that mentoring relationship is highly beneficial by providing career development aid and facilitating the protégé's advancement in the organisation. These contribute to the protégé's personal growth and professional development.

Mentoring is the partnership between a mentee and a mentor- usually a more senior person in an organisation, to provide support, information and advice and share professional skill and experience in order to advance the mentee's career goals (Kram, 1996). The literature on mentoring suggests that women see mentoring relationships as critical to their success. Mentoring provide a structured relationship that can affirm, support and provide guidance for the career challenges the mentee faces (Khian, 2008).

A mentoring relationship may be used to support the many and varied roles an academic is expected to fulfil in the course of a career. Mentoring is particularly valuable in acquiring new academic staff with the campus environment, helping them establish their career and nurturing a sense of profession identity (Hegstad & Wantling, 2005). It also plays an important role in supporting academic staff to improve their commitment (Oliver and Aggletion, 2004).

Over the years, the importance of having a mentor in career development has received ample attention (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Higgins, 2001; Scandura & Williams, 2001). For instance, employees with mentor's support gain more promotions, higher incomes and more work satisfaction than employees without a mentor (Baugh & Scandura, 1999; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2007). However, it is increasingly acknowledged that having a mentoring relationship became important for employees seeking career advancement in domestic and international management of various employment

contexts. Hence, it is argued that mentoring, too, has a great impact on career advancement of academics.

Women in academia have continued to face barriers in acquiring nurturing mentorship which subsequently appears to have limited the number of women who achieve prominence in their field (Hult, Callister, & Sullivan, 2005). Studies have established that having a mentor assists women in career advancement (Weiss, 1981; Young, MacKenzie, & Sherif, 1982; Burke, 1984; Peluchette & Jeanquart 2000). Supportive mentors who transmit empathy and concern lessen the female protégé's stress level especially if she does not have other women or junior faculty in the department (Chandler, 1996). Riley and Wrench (1985) note that women with one or more mentors achieve a higher degree of career success and fulfillment than women without a mentor, and Reich (1986) affirms that women who are mentored describe themselves as having improved self-confidence as well as enhanced professional skills. Additionally, mentoring has proven vital in assisting new female and minority faculty members to feel comfortable within the academic environment (Maack & Passet, 1994). Also, in academia, mentorship relationships have been helpful to both mentor and protégé who collaborate on research (Chandler, 1996). Ramey (1993) explains that women with mentors were more determined to climb the career ladder and aimed at becoming professors and even deans of faculties.

The research on mentors primarily has focused on the career progression of young adults as they socialised into the world of academia. In traditionally defined hierarchical models, the mentor, usually a seasoned elder, directs, advises, and supports an inexperienced protégé toward career progression (Kram & Isabella, 1985; Wright & Wright, 1987; Noe, 1988; Burke & McKeen, 1990; Levinson, 1996; Blake-Beard, 2001). Mentoring relationships can either be informally created or formally supported by institutional organisations (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000).

Tallerico, (2000) and Grogan and Brunner (2005) once disclosed a history of bias toward women in both formal and informal mentoring relationships, although formal mentorships have proven somewhat less restrictive (Clawson & Kram, 1984; Noe, 1988; Ragins, 1997; Tallerico, 2000; Grogan & Brunner, 2005). Besides this recognised level of discrimination and apart from the general challenges associated with formal mentoring programmes, it has been noted that feminists respond negatively to “authoritarian, power-based mentorships” and favour collaborative mentoring as a way to foster “diversity by bringing women and minorities into the network” (Mullen, 2005).

Mentoring is often viewed as a training and development programme that can be used to increase a group or individuals’ potentials to carry out particular duties and responsibilities, to familiarise with new techniques, and care all aspect of the mentees (Hanford & Erich, 2006; Long 2002). It is also viewed as integral to learning in the workplace to receiving carrier help and for developmental and psychosocial support (Long, 2002; Cummings & Worley, 2009). A formal mentoring program is often viewed as the structured and coordinated relationship between mentor and mentee, using standard norms, continuous action plans, time frame, and particular objectives (Hansford, Tennet & Ehrich, 2003; Noe, Greenberger & Wang, 2002). Specifically, this mentoring program has salient characteristics: first, the mentor is defined as a more knowledgeable and experienced person (e.g., senior staff) whereas the mentee is defined as a less knowledgeable and less experienced person (e.g., junior staff) (Kram, 1985; Niehoff, 2006; Noe, Greenberger & Wang, 2002). Second, mentors should act as role models, teachers, sponsors, encouragers, counselors, and be a friend to mentees in order to increase the individuals’ new knowledge, update skills and imbue positive attitudes (Blake-Beard, 2001; Allen & Eby, 2004). Third, they are regularly assigned to encourage group and/or individual activities within a defined period of time (Ritchie & Connolly, 1993; Ritchie & Genoni, 1999).

Informal mentoring relationships are dependent on the relationship developed between the mentor and mentee, and these relationships may last for many years (Hansman, 2000). In informal mentoring relationships, mentors and mentees choose with whom she may want to work. If both mentoring programs are properly managed and effectively implemented they may lead employees to achieve organisational strategies and goals (Friday & Friday, 2002; Khian, Ismail & Yaacob, 2009; Irving, Moore & Hamilton., 2003).

One key difference between formal and informal mentoring relationships is that informal mentoring relationships develop spontaneously, whereas formal mentoring relationships develop with organisational assistance or intervention—usually in the form of voluntary assignment or matching of mentors and proteges. A second distinction is that formal relationships are usually of much shorter duration than informal relationships (Niehoff, 2006). Informal relationships last between 3 and 6 years whereas formal relationships are usually contracted to last between 6 months and 1 year (Allen & Eby, 2004). Informal mentoring relationships develop on the basis of mutual identification and the fulfillment of career needs. Mentors select proteges who are viewed as younger versions of themselves, and the relationship provides mentors with a sense of generativity, or contribution to future generations (Northcott, 2000). Proteges select mentors who are viewed as role models. Proteges are in early career stages that involve developing a sense of professional identity, and role modeling helps proteges advance through this stage. Informal mentoring relationships also develop on the basis of perceived competence and interpersonal comfort (Godshalk & Sosik, 2003; Mullen, 2005; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2007). Mentors tend to select high-performing proteges who are considered rising stars or even diamonds in the rough. Members of informal mentoring relationships select partners they enjoy working with and often report a mutual attraction or chemistry that sparks the development of the relationship (Kram, 1983, 1985). In contrast, members of formal mentoring relationships are

typically assigned to one another by a program coordinator on the basis of application forms submitted by the potential mentor and protege (Christman, McClellan & Foster, 2005; Grongan & Brunner, 2005; Haggins, 2001). In many cases, the mentor and protege do not even meet until after the match has been made. Thus, in contrast to informal relationship identification, role modeling, and interpersonal comfort do not play a role in the development of formal relationships. It is therefore reasonable to expect that the psychosocial functions of role modeling, friendship, and counseling may be less in formal than informal mentoring relationships. Formal mentoring relationships are also less likely to be founded on mutual perceptions of competency and respect. Formal mentors are selected on the basis of their competency, but this judgment is made by the program coordinator rather than the protégé (Lankau & Scandura, 2002; Hegstad & Wentling 2005; Dennison, 2005). Informal and formal mentoring relationships have proven to be the pathway to professional. . Unfortunately, most women in academia have not experienced either a traditional formal or informal mentoring relationship and few have enjoyed collaborative mentoring structures. Women's work lives and priorities coupled with organisational bias have denied them the opportunity to benefit from this mentorship boost (McGuire & Reger, 2003).

A "chilly campus climate" and "gender schemas" are factors which "help to account for women's failure to thrive in academia" (Hult, Callister, & Sullivan, 2005). There are various individual and organisational factors that inhibit the prospering of mentoring relationships for women. For instance, women's career patterns often include late career entry, more interruptions, and fewer advancement opportunities all of which are factors that impair the forming of a mentorship (Noe, 1988). Also, career interruptions related to family or caretaking roles may impede the formation of relationships according to the traditional mentoring model. Research findings highlight parenting as a critical variable for women in determining their career objectives. Women are apt to divide their time between home work

and career compared to men who devote more time to their professional lives (Goff-Timmer, Eccles, & O' Brian, 1985). Family responsibilities appear to influence women's career choices where men appear to separate themselves from parenting commitments in favour of a professional focus (Chandler, 1996). Although women may have advanced degrees, they may choose part-time employment in order to attend to child-rearing responsibilities (Eccles & Hoffman, 1984; O'Connell, Betz, & Kurth, 1988).

Due to a non-linear career path, women may have multiple jobs or even multiple careers in a lifetime and may require different mentoring sources; latecomers to the profession, women may be dismissed by traditional mentors who conceptualise a protégé as older (Allen & Finklestein, 2003). Bronstein, (2001) further explains, "people don't like to have a subordinate who is older than them". The working mothers' intermittent work cycle and/or attention to career at a later age appear to denote to mentors lack of interest in professional advancement which seemingly limit mentoring opportunities. Schmuck and Schubert (1995) assert that politically, and personally, women administrators are torn between segregated into a culture of women and being integrated into a culture of men.

Oakley (2000) disclose that the most common barriers that affect women's commitment to their job include the following: a) promotion policies b) behavioural and cultural expectations c) corporate policies and practices d) compensation practices e) training and career development f) communication style g) stereotypes i) preferred style j) power in corporate culture k) maintaining the status quo "old boy networks and L) tokenism in top management circles. He further reported that these barriers can be overcome through mentoring. Another perspective is presented by Bush (2005) who reports that women move up more slowly than men and women who rise to the top often feel little responsibility to help others. There is also evidence that women face different barriers depending upon their job level in the organisation (Lyness & Thompson, 2000). Researchers point to the lack of

mentoring in the work lives of minority women and suggest that this shortfall tend to affect their commitment to their job and limit the presence of minority women in senior positions (Ismail, Khian & Abdullah, 2009). The lack of mentoring and subsequent lack of opportunity and substansive career movement to the top, beyond the “concrete ceiling” are said to be barriers for minority women in academics. It is often a struggle for women seeking the top jobs, due to many of the high ranking jobs being dominated by men. Therefore women really need someone (i.e mentor) who can coach them and help pull them up through the ranks. Even after women have climed the career ladder, often times, they still face more barriers than their male colleagues. In order for women to advance and to be committed and seen as valueable assets to their organisations they have to be more intelligent, stronger and out-shine men within their organisation (Saar, 2005).

Mentoring has been proposed as a way to address feelings of isolation and lack of support among women in academics (Langdon, 2001). Academic and social support provided through mentoring relationships has been associated with decreased attrition rates among female academics (Wasburn and Miller, 2004). Mentor may provide advice on questions of research methodology, targeting appropriate journals, or formulating research proposals. Mentors may also comment on drafts, offer advice on internal procedures for grant applications and put researchers in touch with those who have related interest. (Harper & Sawicka, 2001)

Studies have come to a conclusion that there is a strong connection between mentoring and career advancement (McClellan & Forster, 2005; Mullen, 2005; Bronstein, 2001). Mentoring relationship has led toward a higher satisfaction, trust, self-efficacy and achievement of career goals. Therefore, these have led to better performance and encouraged individuals for higher commitment to the organisational development (Schmuck and Schubert 1995). Designing comprehensive mentoring programmes which address the struggles faced

historically by women can provide an opportunity for egalitarianism in tertiary institutions. Revisiting and reframing perceptions of women faculty based on gender schemas, sporadic work cycles, and/or later life interest in career and mentoring them through child-bearing and rearing periods as well as modifying a timeframe for tenure based on an alternate career path, may permit more talented women, in the long term, to contribute significantly to academia and serve as mentors for others.

Networking and Female Job Commitment

Hearn (2004) point out that network ties provide access to information and social resources for recognition and promotion to higher academic position. An important consequence of participation in academic networks is the increased opportunity to exchange knowledge, learn and improve work performance, which enhances an individual's career outcomes. Such benefits allow academics to accomplish things and achieve their various goals, which would be impossible to achieve without network or would be achievable only with significant costs attached. It is a well-worn cliché that it is not only what you know, but also who you know that has a host of implications for a career outcome. Accordingly, for an academic career, it is important that an individual participates in social networks. However, academic culture is not a culture of inclusion but a culture of selection. The academic institutions of higher education, where men dominate (both in terms of number and hierarchy) and act to prevent women from fully participating in and integrating into formal and informal networks, are prime examples of homosocial institutions (Etzkowitz, Kemelgor & Uzzi 2000; Hearn 2004; Husu 2004).

Academics generally establish informal connections on the basis of the principle of gender homophily. Husu (2001) reports that many senior women interviewed in her study observed that their male colleagues supported each other through 'old boy's networks'. These networks, also referred to as the 'invisible college', (O'Leary & Mitchell 1990]) involve

informal power groups whose members are in a position to make (implicit) decisions about the academic rank, status and position of an academic. Academic women are often excluded from academic networks; this often puts them at a disadvantage (Kaufman 1978; O'Leary & Mitchell 1990; Toren 1991; Vazquez-Cupeiro & Elsto, 2006).

Rees (2001) contends that 'male networks are crucial for science organisation and that they are universal across the West European and North American higher education sector and extra-University research environment (Ledwith & Manfredi, 2000). Gatekeeping, much like networking, is a gender practice, or, as Husu (2004) put it, 'studying gate-keepers in academia means studying elite groups and studying men – until recently, these gate-keepers have been predominantly male. Members of male network groups, particularly senior male academics, act as gatekeepers, obstructing women's academic career progression. The term gatekeeper is used as a metaphor to describe a type of doorman who determines who is nominated and who is excluded. Gatekeepers therefore influence and contribute to the (re)production of gender inequality in academia.

In the words of Mahlck (2003), men more easily adjust to the academic way of functioning, partly because they can identify and interpret masculine culture at US universities more easily than women. Men seem to be more aware of the necessity of self promotion and they are more inclined to take as a challenge the need to prove their competence to others and to themselves. Kraus (2002), explains that 'agonal' motivation in academic institutions is more developed in men. Accordingly, they responded to evaluation contexts by promoting their talents, skills or achievements, which in effect, affect the performance of 'career masculinity' (Bagilhole & Goode, 2001).

Moss-Rascusin and Rudman (2010) note that despite the challenges that women face at moving up the organisational ladder some women have broke through the "glass ceiling" and gained significantly more access to previously restricted positions and careers that are male

dominated with the use of social networking. Women academics have endeavoured to create strong networks among themselves within their institutions and with other institutions internationally in order to support each other's efforts and promote collaboration on different programmes and activities that will gear towards gender equality and respect for women's right. Kumira and Vinncombe (2010) explain that women's network assist them to work together and strategies on how best to work with other women's group and other agencies both local and international in order to make their contribution more visible. Most academic institutions have shed off more traditional stances that tend to affect women's promotion and participation in decision-making positions through networking (Liu, Liu & Wu, 2010).

Adams and Ferreira (2008) report that with policies and strategies for coping with family and domestic responsibilities inculcated in most workplace, the policy benefit female employees by encouraging a better balance between work and family or personal lives which enable the career women to concentrate on their job and be more committed. Most women in academics have been able to effectively use their time by balancing family responsibilities with research, teaching and pastoral care (Still, 2006). With all these, women have been able to involve in both formal and informal network. With the change in the status of (some) women academics (e.g. women largely assumed control of the institution's managerial and leading positions) their positions within the network has improved and this has broken the glass ceiling to some extent, meaning that they have shifted from the periphery and closer to the centre (Koehler, 2008). Network provides the opportunity to become known within the complex hierarchical system while the lack of social networks increases vulnerability to become socially excluded and invisible (Desvaux, Devillard & Boumgarten, 2007).

Work Experience and Female Job Commitment

The participation of women in academics as educators is not a new phenomenon. Studies on women academics have focused on factors contributing to the shortage of women

in academics and factors affecting their commitment to their job. Among the factors are the patriarchal and non-conducive organisational culture and management practices (Glazer, 1999; Dugger, 2001; Young, 2003), stereotype perceptions that is based on male standards (Forster, 2001), work-family conflict (White, 2003), and other sexual discrimination practices that would very much influence performance evaluation and job commitment (Gilbert, 2008). Given the above scenario, it is important to understand in more details the career experience and behaviour of this small number of highly talented women academics in the Universities.

As women are making inroads into professional career streams and have severely shaken, if not broken, the ``glass ceiling`` in many occupations, the profile of women in academia has hardly changed over the last ten years. From research students to professors, in the ``new`` and ``old`` universities, women are still under-represented at all levels. Evidence given in the Hansard Society Commission Report (1990) shows women have suffered from discrimination in academia for decades and this has changed little in recent years (Halversen, 1999). A high proportion of women are found in junior research positions and fixed term contract grades. The available evidence shows that women in academia still face barriers to advancement which affect commitment to their job.

A major obstacle to female academic career progression is attributed to the gender stereotypes despite emerging evidence that among top senior academics, women are excelling as leaders and managers. Women are equally as innovative, charismatic, visionary and initiatory as men (Johnson, 2000). Gender stereotypes are defined by Cleveland, Stockale and Murphy (2000) as ``socially shared beliefs about the characteristics or attributes of men and women in general that influence one's perceptions of individual men and women``. White (2003) claims that universities continue to be ``boys clubs`` and that the skills needed for a successful academic career is part of a socialisation process that some men and virtually no women participate in. Doheerty and Manfredi (2006) further claim that academia is still

highly dominated by men and the existence of “good old boys’ networks” means they often ignore and discourage women from seeking senior managerial positions and other leadership roles within universities. In addition, Wilson, (2005) report that in academia, men still tend to consider women as having “different and inferior qualities” despite emerging evidence that academic women in senior positions are excelling as leaders and managers (Johnson, 2000).

The ability to balance work and family responsibilities is another factor that impact on female career progression and their commitment within an academic context (White, 2003). Universities have been slow to respond to work and family balance issues (Fox, 2005). Women in academia are often confronted with the challenge of having to manage their work and family responsibilities (Hochschild, 1997; Ismail, Rasdi & Wahat, 2004).

A number of researchers have looked at structural and socio-cultural barriers as some of the factors affecting the job commitment of females in academics (Bagilhole, 1993; Duggler, 2001; Bailey, 2003; Fox 2005; Baker, 2008,). All these authors identify five main structural barriers:

- recruitment and selection policies;
- the lack of mentors and role models;
- career development and promotion policies;
- appraisal systems; and
- institutional male power and the roles of women academics.

They point to a very simple fact that there are still few women in the academic profession at all levels; therefore, there is a need to critically examine recruitment, selection and promotion policies. O’Leary and Mitchell (1990) observe that many academic posts were filled through personal or informal contacts even when the department in question went through the motions of formal interviewing and selection procedures. They report that these informal systems inevitably lead to subjectivity and even discrimination in selection. They also argue

that women are less likely to have access to these informal professional networks and contacts, which can assist their career, because there are few senior women with whom they can network in the same way men can. Women's exclusion from informal communication channels with colleagues has been defined as a critical barrier to their advancement into leadership positions. The concept of networks has been strongly identified with the notion of the 'old boy' network and with the view that males effectively use such networks to foster relationships that enable them enhance, build careers and improve their commitment to their job. When viewed from such a perspective, women have traditionally been seen to be less effective than men at networking (Ledwith & Manfred, 2000; Vazquez-Cupeiro & Elso, 2006). Networks have been traditionally related to identification of shared values; male awkwardness with women in the workplace has therefore been identified as a major factor in the exclusion of women. Women have been prevented from gaining the knowledge needed to accumulate experience critical for leadership positions in their organisations, the information necessary to identify and access important 'gateways' and the visibility for their contribution and achievements to be recognised. Fox (2005) and Bailey (2003) observe that interview process is flawed in many male dominated departments, with interview panels being criticised for being too large, intimidating and dominated by male members of staff. This was affirmed by Rees, (2001) that there were some evidences of inappropriate and discriminatory questions being asked. Bagilhole (1993) goes on to say that:

Universities are prime examples of 'homo-social' institutions, being established and run by men. From this it follows that the rules pertaining to appointment are male driven and are evaluated according to male standard. (Bagilhole, 1993; p447).

Another area of concern is the way performance appraisal systems (PAS) are handled. Bagilhole, (1993) points out many faults with PAS, describing these as 'paternalist, competitive and managerialist'. She rightly points out that the only meaningful criterion

used in promotion decisions is a candidate's publication record. This discriminates against women because their other (non-accredited) academic responsibilities are not taken into account. She goes on to say that, if you are childless, mobile and male and accept the hegemony of a competitive male-dominated view of "performance", then you have a good chance of succeeding in this culture. She points to:

. . . the difficulties which women face in trying to put forward alternative discourses which accommodate domestic commitments or different models of academic work. In the new competitive academic culture, only those who are willing or able to work at highly intensified work rates have a chance of succeeding. Those who fail to match up to the new standards are discounted. Academics with alternative career structures, those who value teaching and counseling first and those with domestic commitments, all lose out in such a culture (Bagilhole, 1993; p 434).

The continuing lack of positive role models and mentors means women are handicapped on a daily basis in PAS and promotion systems, because women in a male dominated environment lack the benefits of colleague relationships and collaboration, which include intellectual stimulation and encouragement. This affects their research productivity which in turn affects commitment to their job. The effects of being in a minority can be seen as an important factor in the process of discrimination against women academics. Researchers have also argued that university cultures uphold a deeply ingrained male view of performance and make promotion to senior posts difficult for women. Women tend to have higher lecturing, administration, and pastoral workloads when compared to their male counterparts. However, the academic reward system has not traditionally taken these into account when it comes to making appointment and promotion decisions (Husu 2004). The emphasis is almost exclusively on research and publication outputs, activities that male lecturers, traditionally, have always had more time for. Lecturing quality, administrative responsibilities, counselling activities and other community activities continue to be largely overlooked in the promotion game (Huwe, 2003. McGuire & Reger 2003; Ismail &

Arokiasamy, 2007). Studies have established that having a mentor assists women in career advancement (Burke, 1984; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Weiss, 1981). Supportive mentors who transmit empathy and concern lessen the female protégé's stress level especially if she does not have other women or junior faculty in the department (Chandler, 1996). Riley and Wrench (1985) note that women with one or more mentors achieve a higher degree of career success and fulfillment than women without a mentor, and Reich (1986) affirms that women who are mentored describe themselves as having improved self confidence as well as enhanced professional skills.

With decades of formal legislation prohibiting gender discrimination in the workplace in most developed countries, tacit discrimination continues to foster and is extremely difficult to root out. People perceive women as less competent than men despite information indicating that work qualifications and background are identical. (Long, 2001). In fact, when surveyed, significantly more women than men holding academic appointments felt they experienced gender discrimination and sexual harassment which affect commitment to their job (Heilman & Okimoto, 2008). Male academics in contrast have relatively more significant, decision-making roles that place them in the 'pipeline' for future leadership. Aluko (2009) describe a common misconception between the reality of leadership and the culture of authority within a professional environment. Authority represents the power and tools necessary to carry out effective leadership strategies. Aluko declared that most positions of authority are held by men. Society does not typically trust women with this authoritative power. Therefore, women hold informal leadership positions, but do not have the authority to support their efforts.

The shared knowledge that women are more likely than men to suffer from dual responsibilities at work and at home may lead people to suspect that it is more difficult for women than for men to display the more than full-time devotion to academics. One possible explanation for discrepancies in the careers of men and women focuses on motivational

differences between male and female workers. A rather robust phenomenon across different social contexts is that men and women perform different social roles (Mason & Goulden, 2004). Throughout most of the 20th century, there was an unconscious and unquestioned assumption, in male-dominated organisations, that a woman should retire, if not after marrying, then certainly after the birth of any child (Bailely, 2003). Traditionally, males predominantly provide the family income through paid labour and women are primarily responsible for caretaking at home. In fact, cross-national evidence consistently demonstrates that also when husband and wife perform paid labour, when both partners have equal status jobs (Wilson, 2005), and even when the woman is the only breadwinner (Connelly & Kimmel, 2003), women do most of the childcare and household tasks (Krais, 2002.) on their so-called 'second shift' (Hochschild, 1989; Langan & Morton, 2009). From this perspective, it has been argued that it is more difficult for women than for men to display the total availability that is seen as an indicator for their commitment to academics (Etzkowitz, Kemelgor, Neuschatz, & Uzzi, 1992). Thus, for women more than for men, there generally appears to be a trade-off between the dual responsibilities at home and at work, and this has been taken as an indication that paid labour lays a less central role in the life of women than of men. Accordingly, differential commitment to their work has been cited as a plausible reason why women are less successful than men in their careers (Beaujot, 2000). Although many women no longer had to sacrifice their careers in this way by the early-1990s, it was still a widely-held view that women should remain at home during their children's formative years (Sweet & Moen, 2002.). Another important factor is the effect of the arrival of children on women academics' careers. According to Mason & Goulden, (2004) While maternity leave is a legal requirement in all universities, most of the women who had taken, or were considering taking maternity leave were particularly concerned about the possible impact of this on their careers. It is seen as counter productive and reduced women's promotion

opportunities. In spite of changing cultural expectations about the role of women in society, many women feel guilty about leaving their children with child-minders or nannies (O’Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005).

As reported earlier women in academia may experience non academic issues such as family obligations involving taking care of the children and the home. Women face more challenges with the task of achieving a balance between work and family life. These non academic issues often make it difficult to meet criteria for promotion and interfere with attending conferences, writing, publishing, completing research projects, obtaining funding, and travelling for work related opportunities which can assist them in their career advancement (Aluko, 2009; Harris, 2009; Mason & Golden, 2004; National Research Council(NRC),2009). These non academic issues affect women disproportionately when compared to their men counterpart. Women academics seem not to follow a conventional trajectory of successful faculty career in which male academics have more freedom from home responsibilities. One reason for this focus is that women have more career breaks due to childbearing, child rearing and other care responsibilities. Women’s hands are tied with children and family responsibilities. This may be because in many societies, women are typically socialised to identify with familial roles and expected to be nurturing, and compliant (Jacobs & Gerson, 2004; Charles & Grusky,2004).Traditional theories from literature work paint a picture of work and family as two incompatible, negative areas. Being a good mother seems to be mutually exclusive to being a successful academic. Consequently, those who seek to balance the demands of both institutions commonly experience loyalty conflicts between the family and the academy and between motherhood and a profession. Women experience difficulty in the level of commitment required to succeed in academic work due to their disproportionate share of domestic responsibilities.

Job Performance and Female Job Commitment

Performance is defined as processing inputs (energy, labour) into outputs (profits, number of units), according to certain quality and quantity specifications (level of customer satisfaction), while attempting to achieve certain goals (Williams, 2002; Riketta, 2008). Brayfield and Crockett (2002) explain performance as the extent to which an employee accomplishes the tasks that make up her job. Performance is a record of outcomes produced during a specific job, over a specific time. It is directly related to the concept of productivity because of aspects such as efficiency, quality and effectiveness (Williams, 2002). Performance refers to the amount of effort, initiative and absenteeism, maintenance of standards and commitment displayed by individuals while performing the job tasks (Rasheed, 2001). It is the transition of potentials into behaviour, can be viewed in terms of standards individuals must achieve in their work and can be seen as the desired result of behaviour (Blackmoore & Sachs, 2001).

Robbins (2005) explains that job performance is related to the willingness and openness to endeavour to achieve new aspects of the job which in turn will bring about an increase in the individual's productivity. Job performance has become the focus of organisational study. One main reason why job performance has become important is because it can determine profits and losses of the organisation. The better the employee's performance, the more the profits the company will get. Because of that, many organisations lay emphasis on enhancing performance at work. Payne (2005) defines performance as behaviour evaluated in terms of its contributions to the goals and objectives of the organisation. He addresses job performance as behaviour at work that can make some contribution to organisational goals. He further divided performance into efficiency, production and effectiveness. Efficiency is usually used to evaluate the outcome of an employee's work behaviours, production is generally used to determine the cost of efficiency and effectiveness is stand for the value of

efficiency and production. Wright and Bonett (2002) on the other hand, state that job performance is actually related to the importance of social standing within the vocation and to a certain extent, this opinion is similar to the earlier views put forth by Riggo and Tylor (2000) who point out a positive relationship between job performance and the status of the vocation. This positive relationship is brought on by the perks and benefits normally associated with a high standing occupation such as a high remuneration, a flexible working condition as well as an occupation which is less dependent on physical labour.

Commitment has been a core variable of interest in management and organisational studies. It can be characterised by at least three related factors; a strong acceptance of the organisation's values and goals, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. As a result, commitment is determined by a range of organisational and individual factors such as personal characteristics, structural characteristics, work experience and role related features (Ladebo & Awotunde, 2007). In addition, it has also been demonstrated that it is the affective characteristics which impact greatest on outcome variables such as absenteeism and turnover (Moser & Calais, 2007)

Having a job has always been a crucial factor in Nigerian society as individuals are identified by their occupations. A person's job reveals her personality, and it influences the nature of interactions she has with people. It largely determines the individual's social status, affiliation and economic status. Job therefore offers a lot of benefits to organisations, individuals and the society at large. However, at times individuals are usually denied the opportunity of securing jobs due to gender or personality factors. For instance, Uwe (1999) observes that in Nigeria, women are marginalised while men are given greater opportunities to advance. She stressed that women are hindered from progressing through discrimination

on the basis of gender, early marriage and childbearing. Consequently, they are denied sound education, job opportunities and are incapacitated generally by the society.

Divergent views have been expressed on the issue of female performance at work. Gender often plays a significant role in affecting employee performance, performance ratings and related human resource decisions (Nelson & Burke, 2002). The effect of gender on different outcomes is especially important in the work environment. When job performance is assessed by supervisors and managers, ratings of male and female workers may be influenced by gender stereotyping leading to more negative evaluations of women's job related activities (Valian, 1998; Xie & Shauman, 1997). Recent studies support the view that sex-role stereotypes still exist in the workplace (Fox, 2004) and that they are likely to be associated with men receiving more favourable performance appraisals than women (Lyness & Heilman, 2006). Literature on female academics has identified a variety of obstacles affecting their job performance and development. For example, marital and parental obligations that coincide with the first crucial years of the academic career (DeVaney & Chen, 2003); the reluctance of faculty men to serve as mentors (Gibbons, 1992; Rees, 2004); limited geographical mobility; the minority status of women faculty (Toren & Kraus, 1987; Long, 2001) the relative absence of female role models (Astin, 1985); exclusion from informal networks and some scientific specialties (Etzkowitz, Kemelgor & Uzzi, 2000); genderised stereotypes and discrimination against women in academia (Lorber, 1994; Valian, 1998). According to Olubor (2006), the persistence of gender inequalities in promotion in Nigerian Universities recognised socio-economic, cultural, institutional and political factors as major barriers to women's performance and full commitment, other identified factors include: hostile work environment, sexual harassment, lack of opportunities for further training and promotion criteria (Ogbogu, 2006). Olubor (2006) also indicates that marriage, the biologically induced responsibility of child bearing and domestic responsibilities are major

gender related factors which affect women's job performance and labour input in the workplace.

Empirical Studies

Some relevant studies have been surveyed in which the factors that affect female academics' job commitment have been adequately highlighted and emphasised.

At the level of national and institutional comparisons, various studies have found out that male academics demonstrate higher levels of research output than women (Cole & Zuckerman, 1984; McDowell & Smith, 1992; Dwyer, 1994; Creamer, 1998; Toutkoushian, 1998). On the other hand, there are some studies that have reported contrary findings (Davis & Astin, 1987; Curtis, 2005; Hakim, 2005). Studies of research citations, however, suggest that women's research, quantity, is not of lower quality and articles by women are just as likely to be cited as those by men (Long, 1992; Creamer, 1998; Karis, 2002; Doherty, 2006;).

Literature has identified publication problem, grant application for research and conferences/seminar attendance as potential barriers to academic women in advancing to senior position as effectively as their male colleagues. For example, studies of faculty workload such as those by Astin, Kom & Dey (1999), Russell (1991) and the United State National Centre for Education Statistics (1994) have found out that academics in the U.S. spend in excess of 50 hours a week on job-related work and women spend more time on teaching than men do. Yuker (1984) also point out that there has been little research on the factors behind how academics choose to allocate their work time.

Research has shown that mentoring and being mentored are important career development activities that can help women advance (Brown 2001; Johnson & Huwe 2003). Studies have established that women in academics have continued to face barriers in acquiring nurturing mentorship which subsequently appears to have limited the number of women who have achieve prominence in their field (Hult, Callister & Sullivan; 2005, Dreher

& Ash,1990 ; Weiss, 1981). An earlier research study by Cullen and Lunas (1993) examined senior female administrators and found that “few women were available to serve as mentors”. The above study also supports Cullen and Luna (1993) earlier findings. Of the 14 women who responded to her research question on mentor, five (36%) reported lack of women mentors during their ascension to upper leadership. One woman exclaimed, “Men mentor and promote other men. Men are more comfortable and relaxed with other men.” One other woman confirmed this absence of women mentors by noting, “In my first academic position where I served as an assistant professor up through full Professor and regents’ Professor, there were virtually no women administrators present in the scientific field of study I entered.” It was apparent that the field of study these women entered was also a factor impacting the lack of mentors available. One other study on mentoring conducted by Brown (2005) established that majority of the college presidents in the study had received mentoring. These results suggested that mentorship plays a critical role in advancing female college presidents up to the administrative ladder. A few studies document the significance of the relationship between women mentoring activities and academic career development (Bolton, 1980; Atcherson & Jenny, 1983; Cullen & Luna, 1990).

Another study contradicting previous research was conducted by Goodwin, Stevens and Bellamy (1998). They found "no statistically significant differences between men and women (faculty-to-faculty mentoring in Schools, Colleges, and Departments of education) faculty in their attitudes about mentoring or in their self reported mentoring behaviour and outcomes". Similarly, Fowler (1982) reports that there is no significant difference in the number or quality of mentoring relationships between male and female faculty. These findings directly oppose research that claims women felt they had less access to mentors than men and research articulating that women felt the barriers of tokenism, stereotyping, socialisation practices and attribution that exists in mentoring relationships.

It has been argued that it is more difficult for women than for men to display the total availability that is seen as an indicator for commitment to their job (Etzkowitz, Kemelgor, Neuschatz, & Uzzi, 1992). Female academics who become mothers take more responsibility than their partners for caring and domestic work at home. Academic women report greater involvement in childcare and household task than male academics. For instance, a survey among male and female full Professors in the Netherlands (Ellemers, 1993) reveal that, while virtually all male Professors have a wife and family, women who have made a successful career in academics are likely to be single and childless. However, previous research on gender differences in job commitment and/or job involvement has produced contradictory results. Sometimes women appear to be more committed (Powell, Posner, & Schmidt, 1984), sometimes men are more committed (Chusmir & Parker, 1992; Philips, 2004) and sometimes no differences occur or the results of the different scales contradict each other (Chusmir, 1986; Koberg & Chusmir, 1989). Accordingly, in their review Mathieu and Zajac (1990) conclude that there is no consistent relationship between gender and the degree of commitment, that is to say, when commitment is measured at the organisation level.

Dornstein and Matalon (1998) describe eight variables that are relevant to organisational commitment. These are: interesting work; coworker's attitudes towards the organisation; organisational dependency; age; education; employment alternatives; attitude of family and friends. The variables explain 65% of the variance in organisational commitment. Glisson and Derrick (1988) in Adeyemo and Aremu (1999), in their study of 319 human service organisation workers analyzed the effects of multiple predictors (job, organisation, and worker characteristics) on satisfaction and commitment. They showed that skill variety and role ambiguity are the best predictors of commitment. Ellemers, Gilder, and Heuvel (1998) found out that background variables such as gender, level of education or team size

were not clearly related to three forms of commitment. Adeyemo (2000) reports a positive correlation between education and organisational commitment.

Duncan, and Loretto (2004) establish that age was not related to organisational commitment. Meyer and Allen 1984 earlier argued that age might be correlated with commitment by postulating that it serves as proxy for seniority that is associated with opportunity to better one's position at work. On the issue of gender, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) report its relationship to organisational commitment. Similarly, it was reported by Hickson and Oshagbemi, (1999) that the men in their sample had higher level of commitment than the women. Granlesse and Sayer (2006) found significant relationship between job tenure and organisational commitment. However, Wiedmer (2006) found that education level and age were not significant predictors of job commitment.

Knight and Richard (2003), in their study measure the attitude towards gender discrimination in academic and report that there are significant tensions for women who combine work and family. Deem (2003) reports that it is a commonly held belief among men that discrimination against women in selection and decisions was linked to domestic responsibilities. Delphy and Leonard (1992) illustrate that the fact that some women are mothers is often applied to all women, regardless of their status and then used as a reason to support unequal job opportunities. Deem (2003) discovers that 85% of the males interviewed in her research were fathers with dependent children and she concluded that parenthood per se is not problematic. However, many males in her study told her that their success was due in part to their wives taking on the major burden of childcare. Many academic women who do have children reported high level of stress, exhaustion and sleeplessness associated with combining the stabilisation of an academic career with family life (Acker & Armenti, 2004). Women academics with young children tend to keep quiet about the problems they encounter (Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2003). They emphasise that being a mother in academic life is a

predominantly silent experience. This comment has been echoed in other studies, (Leonard & Malina 1994; Acker & Armenti, 2004; Probert, 2005).

Although, most studies pointed to an established patriarchal culture in the academic world, there are, however, a few exceptions. For instance, respondents in a study conducted in Ankara University, one of Turkey's foremost Universities in the world said there is no gender discrimination in academic promotion, management and administration in the University. The study concluded that most female academics in Turkey (67.3 %) think there is no gender discrimination and being a woman is far from being an advantage.

A number of previous researchers have reported mixed findings on the relationship between job motivation and job commitment. For instance, Curry, Wakefield, Price and Mueller (1986) found no significant relationship between job motivation and organisational commitment. However, other researchers (Busch & Pettersen 1998; Chiu-Yueh, 2000; Feinstein & Vondraek, 2006; Freund, 2005) found that motivation was a significant predictor of job commitment. Some researchers argued that motivation reflects immediate affective reactions to the job while commitment to the organisation develops more slowly after the individual forms more comprehensive valuations of the employing organisation, its values, and expectations and one's own future in it.

Theoretical Framework

Theories relevant to an understanding of job commitment abound in many studies. Adeniyi (2000), asserts that the function of theory in research is predicted on the felt needs establishing 'a cause and effect' relationship between variables with the purpose of explaining and predicting phenomenon. An established theory may suggest many applications of practical value. In view of an empirical investigation of this nature, one

cannot overlook some of the theoretical claims, assertions and generalisations by previous researchers.

It is an observed fact that, no organisation operates without human resources. These men and women have needs to meet and in order to meet these needs they perform some services for the organisation to be able to meet with the individual employee needs so that the individual can be satisfied, there is need for the organisation or institution to pay particular attention to issues affecting their employees or workers to ensure commitment to work.

A number of theories have been advanced in an attempt to explain why individuals behave the way they do. An understanding of these theories provides the basis for the manager to understand human behaviour at work, and hence aid him in channeling the employee's behaviour to tasks and activities that are mutually beneficial to the workers and the organisation. Two of these theories are outlined below.

Meyer and Allen's Theory of Organisational Commitment

Meyer and Allen's (1997) theory of organisational commitment suggested that "by understanding when and how commitments develop and how they shape attitudes and behaviours, organisations will be in a better position to anticipate the impact change will have and to manage it more effectively. Meyer and Allen define organisational commitment as "a psychological link between the employee and his or her organisation that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organisation" (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Meyer and Allen (1984) first identified two components of organisational commitment, those of affective attachment and cost attachment. But after continued research, Meyer and Allen (1990) identified a third component, that of obligation. The three-component model was developed as a result of three common themes within the commitment literature as noted by Meyer and Allen. Some of the common definitions within the affective orientation theme

include “an attitude or an orientation toward the organisation which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organisation” (Schneider, 2003) and “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation” (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Some of the common definitions within the cost-based theme are “profit associated with continued participation and a cost associated with leaving” (Kanter, 1968) and “commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side-bet, links extraneous interest with a consistent line of activity” (Becker, 1960). Some of the common definitions within the obligation theme include “the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interest” (Wiener, 1982) and “the committed employee considers it morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives him or her over the years” (Marsh & Mannari, 1977). From the three themes, Meyer and Allen identified the three components of organisational commitment as affective, continuance, and normative.

From the three-component model theory of organisational commitment, Meyer and Allen developed a multidimensional model of organisational commitment. The multidimensional model consists of five parts: Distal Antecedents, Proximal Antecedents, Process, Commitment and Consequences.

Distal antecedents. The first dealt with distal antecedents. The distal antecedents are categorised as: organisational characteristics, personal characteristics, socialisation experience, management practices, and environmental conditions. The “distal causes exert influence on commitment through their influence on the more proximal causes (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Studies (Edward, 2001; Meyer Stanley, Herscovitch & Toponytsky, 2002), have concluded that antecedents are a reliable predictor of organisational commitment.

Proximal antecedents. The second identified the proximal antecedents categorised as: work experiences, role status and psychological contracts. Proximal antecedents are variables that directly affect organisational commitment

Process. The third is the process in which the antecedents affect the various components of commitment

Components (bases) of organisational commitment. The fourth identified the three components of commitment: affective, continuance or normative. The three components were found to be related, but distinguishable from each other (Dunham, Grube, & Castañada, 1994; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolyntsky, 2001).

Meyer and Allen (1997) state that, “Affective commitment refers to an employee’s attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation”. An employee who has a strong affective commitment to an organisation stays with the organisation because he or she wants to continue working in the organisation. Meyer and Allen (1991) observe that the best predictor of affective commitment is work experience. Employees whose work experiences are consistent with their expectations and whose basic needs within the organisation are satisfied have a stronger level of affective commitment to the organisation. Employees with strong affective commitment remain with the organisation because they have no desire to leave

According to Meyer and Allen (1997), “Continuance commitment refers to the awareness of cost associated with leaving the organisations”. Employees with a strong continuance commitment to an organisation recognise that leaving the organisation may be detrimental to them financially due to the lack of employment alternatives and loss of investments (e.g., personal relationships, pension plans). Continuance commitment was originally a unitary dimension, but through continued research (McGee & Ford, 1987) was subdivided into two dimensions: continuance commitment - low number of alternatives (CC:

LoAlt) and continuance commitment - high personal sacrifice (CC: HiSac). The former reflects an individual's commitment to an organisation because of lack of employment opportunities, and describes an individual remaining with an organisation because of the personal loss that would occur by leaving the organisation. Employees with strong continuance commitment remain with the organisation because they have to. To confirm the distinction between the two variables, further research was conducted (McGee & Ford, 1987; Meyer, Allen & Gellatly, 1990; Somers, 1993; Dunham, Grube, & Castañeda, 1994).

The third component, normative commitment, reflects a feeling of "obligation to continue employment" (Meyer, Allen, & Smith 1993). An employee with a strong normative commitment feels he or she has a moral obligation to stay in the organisation. Normative commitment was developed on the basis that the organisation made a particular kind of investment in the employee, which gives the employee a sense of obligation to the organisation.

Consequences. The fifth and final section of the multidimensional model discusses the consequences of organisational commitment. These have been defined as retention (withdrawal behaviour and turnover), productive behaviour (performance), and employee well-being (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The consequences of affective commitment are low turnover and turnover intentions, better on-the-job behavior (attendance, organisational commitment behaviour, performance), and better employee health and well-being (Angel & Lawson, 1994; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolyntsky, 2001). The consequences for continuance commitment are low turnover and turnover intention, consequently, there was no (e.g., a negative outcome) of on-the-job behaviour and employee health and well-being (Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolyntsky, 2001). The consequences for normative commitment are lower turnover and

turnover intentions, better on-the-job behavior (attendance, organisational commitment behavior, performance), and better employee health and well-being (Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolynsky, 2001).

Feminist Theory

Feminist theory focuses on gender inequality through women's social roles and experiences, social relations with males and also the promotion of women's rights. The theory contends that existing patterns of gender inequality can and should be changed for the benefit of all members of the society (Grusec & Hastings, 2007). Many feminists see the subordination of women, in relation to men, as passive through all spheres of society. Feminists often criticise contemporary society because of its failure to recognise that gender can be a barrier to social well-being and its role in reinforcing patriarchal assumption about the women's role (and men); thus, supporting the marginalisation of women in the family and workplace (Lazer, 2005).

A systematic theory of gender and organisations is needed for a number of reasons. First, the gender segregation of work, including divisions between paid and unpaid work, is partly created through organisational practices. Second, and related to gender segregation, income and status inequality between women and men is also partly created in organisational processes; understanding these processes is necessary for understanding gender inequality. Third, organisations are one arena in which widely disseminated cultural images of gender are invented and reproduced. Knowledge of cultural production is important for understanding gender construction (Holmes, 2005). Fourth, some aspects of individual gender identity, perhaps particularly masculinity, are also products of organisational processes and pressures which may affect woman's job commitment in some professions. Fifth, an important feminist project is to make large-scale organisations more democratic and more supportive of humane goals.

A common theme seen across societies is female subordination to the power and authority of males. Further, women's activities are restricted to areas which are deemed suitable for them (e.g., childbearing, childrearing or other caretaking roles). Society ascribes these activities lower levels of status and respect in comparison to male activities (Ramazanoglu & Holland, 2002). These restrictions result in the isolation of women and the creation of imbalances in social relationships (Hooks, 2000). Feminist critiques question these previously accepted ways of knowing because they dismiss the experience of women and those classified as the "other" (Allen & Piercy, 2005).

Feminism has been described as lens used for analysis rather than a static set of rules (Doyle, Wylic & Hogden, 2004). Feminists endeavour to bring about personal and social empowerment and promote alternatives to patriarchal systems characterised by hierarchy and coercion (Van-Dij, 2008). The goal of feminist analysis is to validate the unique experience and contributions made by women. This process starts with an acknowledgment of women's inferior status followed by an inquiry into the causes of female inequality in the hopes of making recommendations for change (Neale, 2009). This gender appropriate behaviour pattern and belief system has long-reaching effects on educational and occupational expectations (Bradley & Healey, 2008). The masculine gender role places greater emphasis on achievement and occupational success of male while the female gender role socialises women to define success in terms of developing and maintaining relationships.

Certain fields of study or careers become off limits because they do not fit with the prescribed gender role. For girls, this means shying away from a career characterised by competitiveness and autonomy (e.g. business, sciences, research) because the skills needed to excel in these fields will jeopardise their ability to establish relationships with men (Doyle, Wylic, & Hogen, 2004). Hooks (2000) report there are a number of different theories explaining the acquisition of gender role behaviours. A commonality among these theories is

the important role that parents play in this process (Fitzsimons, 2004). Yet, women's inclusion in education, the franchise, public life and the labour market have been on the terms designed to meet the needs of individual men, unfettered by ties of motherhood, childcare and domestic labour (Neale, 2009). Women seeking inclusion have had to negotiate the conflicting demands made upon them by their dual role as best as they could on an individual basis (Bradley & Healey, 2000).

The differences seen in masculine and feminine personality traits and accompanying roles are attributed to the fact that having a mother as caretaker will be experienced differently by boys and girls (Flannery, 2005). As girls identify themselves as female they will experience themselves like their mothers, whereas, in identifying themselves as masculine, boys will separate themselves from their mothers. These differing experiences result in the feminine personality becoming defined in relationship to others more so than the masculine personality. The female experience of identity formation is characterised by attachment or connection with others, while the male's experience is defined by the process of differentiation (Ramazanoglu & Holland, 2002). This has implications in the development and maintenance of relationships. The separation accompanying masculinity is threatened by intimacy, while the attachment associated with femininity is threatened by separation. Throughout development and later in life, women's failure to separate is often interpreted as a failure to develop (Doyle, Wylie & Hogden, 2004).

Until feminists began to challenge it, the prevailing assumption held is that there is only one form of social expression and interpretation. The focus on the norm (i.e., male model) does not take into account the differing experiences of women. Therefore, men and women make sense of their experiences throughout their lives based on their understanding about human relationships (Grusec & Hastings, 2007). Because their experiences in relationships differ, the process and goals of identity formation will also differ based on gender. Women's

experiences and understanding of the importance of connection leads to their struggle in trying to strike a balance between concern for themselves and care for others. Women subscribe to the ethic of care, which connects relationship with responsibility. Further, they place a lot of value on interdependence and caretaking. Their focus on relationships is counter to the prevailing culture which values and rewards autonomy and separation (Flannery, 2000). This focus creates a struggle as women endeavour to form successful working relationships in the wider world while also honouring their commitment to connection and cooperation.

Studies have shown that the (Bradley & Healey, 2008; Holmes, 2005, Flannery, 2000) university exhibits several features which are characteristic of patriarchy. First, most of the key decision-making positions are controlled by men, who have a vested interest in preventing collective challenges to their positions. Women overwhelmingly occupy subordinate positions, as tutors, researchers, full-time career, which strongly favours men. Those who take breaks in their career for childbirth and child-rearing start their career late or prefer to work part-time, have little chance of receiving academic preferment. Many men receive valuable career support from their wives, whose subordination in this is integral to the success of their husbands and their colleagues through mentoring and networking (Blackmore & Sachs, 2001). Third, the ethos of academic life is built around career competition, intellectual aggressiveness and emotional aloofness, which is typically masculine behaviour, rather than the feminine characteristics of cooperation and emotional support. Finally, female staff and students are sexually exploited by many academic men.

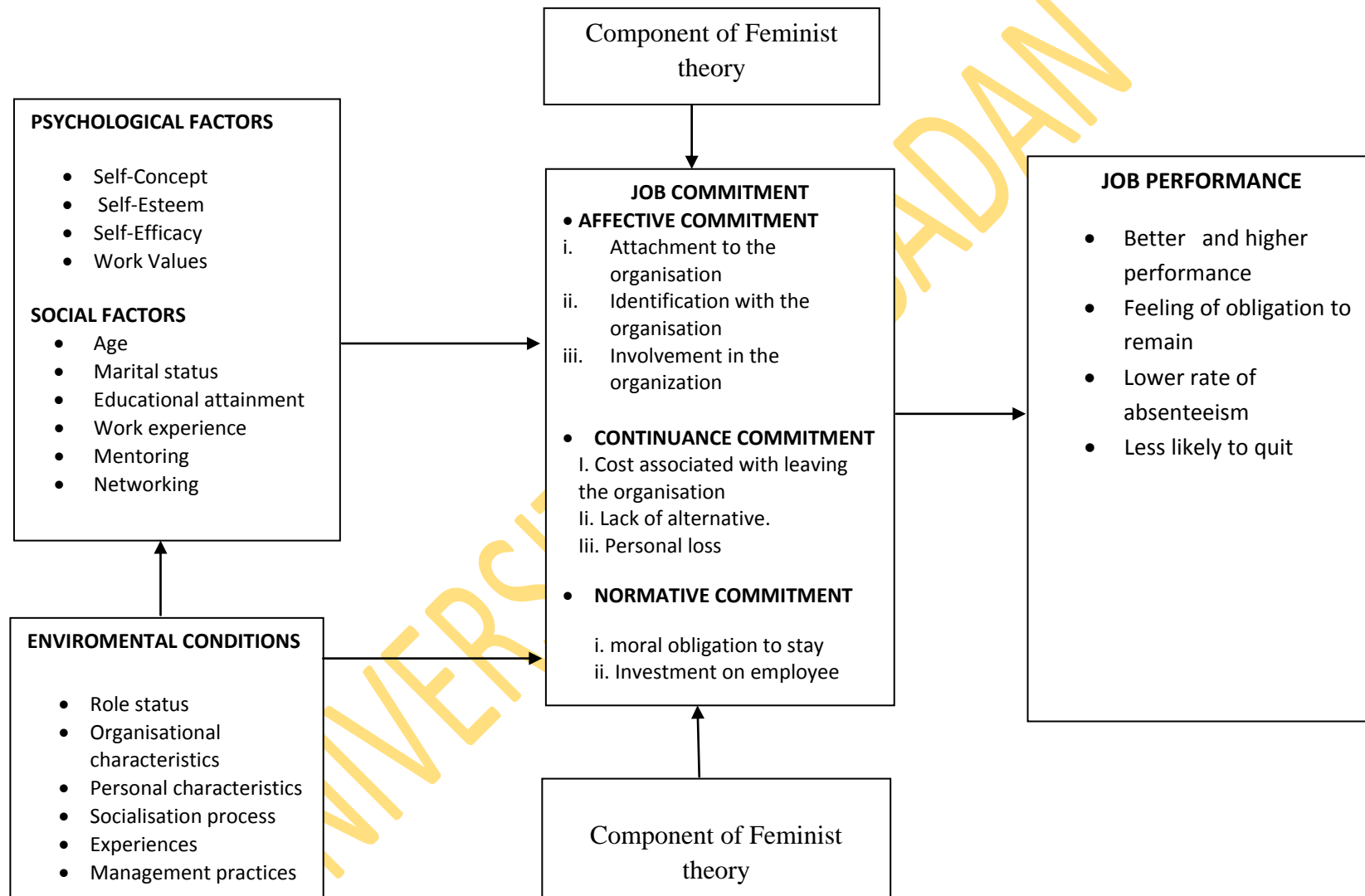
Some feminist researchers (Briar, 2009; Baxer 2003; Laxer 2005), have drawn attention to the fact that many "equal-opportunity" policies in academic work places are not equal and may be a disadvantage to women. Such policies they claimed are often imbued with male-hegemonic criteria that many women may be unable or unwilling to adopt. Because discourse

such as these that leave women in a disadvantaged position may potentially create tension and frustration for women as employees which may in turn affect commitment to their job

The findings of this study could help explain some of the factors that affect the commitment of women to their job and choice to pursue a field of study that is more consistent with their gender role. The hostile non verbal communication they receive reinforces the idea that certain fields of study will not be welcoming to them and could affect their future choice

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

Fig. 2.1 **Conceptual Model**



Source : Researcher

The university is established to impart knowledge, conduct research and provide services to the society, it is therefore, per eminent a knowledge institution, which produces knowledge in the form of skills, research and credentials. To achieve the above, the job commitment of academic staff in the universities is very important. A number of psychological-social variables have been linked to organisational commitment and are significantly related. Psycho-social variables such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-concept, work value age, marital status, work experience and educational attainment are relevant to career commitment.

Organisational commitment refers to the extent to which an employee identifies with an organisation and is committed to its goals. It is characterised by a belief in and acceptance of the organisational goals and values, a willingness to exert a considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and a strong desire to maintain organisational membership. It is an internal decision which cannot be forced. It refers to how important one's job is to one's life.

Allen and Meyer proposed a three-component model of organisational commitment, including affective, continuance and normative. Affective commitment implies employees' emotional attachment to the organisation, continuance commitment refers to employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation. Normative commitment is based on the cost that employees would have to incur if they decided to leave the organisation. In the present study, the term organisational commitment refers to affective commitment. Employees who are committed to their employing organisations are less likely to quit than those who are not. Greater organisational commitment has also been linked to lower rate of absenteeism and better job performance.

Further, various social and psychological variables have been frequently investigated as predictors of organisational commitment. The socio variables are age, educational attainment,

marital status, mentoring, networking and work experience while the psychological variables are self-esteem, self- concept, self-efficacy and work value.

Appraisal of Literature Review

The literature has reviewed the following

Literature emphasised that women have less discretionary time to conduct research; write papers and attend conferences. Studies have shown that they are more reluctant to put themselves forward, even when they meet the set criteria. They are sometimes discouraged, particularly if they have dependent children or other caring responsibilities. Women have been seduced into managerial roles in academia, they have taken a greater share of teaching and administration and often devote more hours to administrative and pastoral care than publishing and research work. Females often conduct research during traditional non-work time while performing caring or other home duties. These non-work activities have greatly impeded the time that is available for research. Studies have found that women with children most often cited time constraints as a major deterrent for completing research.

Gender stereotypes put female academics at a disadvantage. Gender stereotyping is an extremely pervasive phenomenon, in the sense that it influences individual judgments even in situations where a categorisation in terms of gender is clearly irrelevant.

Career interruption is another factor that affect women's career. Career interruption perspective noted that children make a difference to female academics in terms of their ascension to senior academic ranks (and presumably to their salaries as well) in a way not seen in the promotion rates and salaries of male faculty. Time taken for pregnancy, childbirth and raising children impacts women differently than men and those career interruptions impact on the human capital that women bring to their academic positions. Their experience and research productivity suffer these are variables that typically influence salary increases

and promotion opportunities. Once the choice to have children is made, time spent on childcare and other household responsibilities is different for men and women.

Institutional discrimination and biases encompasses a number of possibilities, but often discussed in terms of the processes and procedures that influence initial appointments, workload assignments, awarding promotions, determining salaries, and other factors.

Numerous publications are available on the lack of networking and mentoring opportunities for women academics. Researches have shown that mentoring and being mentored are important career development activities that can help women advance in academics. One major barrier to women's mentoring is that there are few women available to mentor others.

Several studies have also established that academic staff with a strong sense of self-efficacy, self-concept and self-esteem tend to exhibit greater levels of planning, organisation, and enthusiasm. They persist when things do not go smoothly and are more resilient in the face of setbacks.

Hypotheses:

HO₁: There is no significant relationship between social factors and job commitment of female academic staff in universities in Southwestern, Nigeria.

HO₂: There is no significant relationship between psychological factors and job commitment of female academic staff in universities in Southwestern, Nigeria..

HO₃: There is no relationship between the level of job commitment and job performance of the female academics in universities in southwestern Nigeria.

HO₄: There is no difference in job commitment of female academics on the basis of rank and ownership of university

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The research design adopted for the study was the descriptive survey research, the *ex-post facto type*. This design was considered appropriate for a study of this nature because the researcher did not manipulate the variables of interest in the study.

Population

The population consisted of all female academic staff that has spent at least two years in the services of the nine selected universities, comprising: three each of federal, state and private universities in the Southwestern geo political zone of the country. This was estimated to be 1250,

Sample and Sampling Techniques

A total of 1250 female academic staff in all the nine selected universities was used for the study. Total enumeration and purposive sampling techniques were used for the selection of respondents. Total enumeration sampling technique was used because all the female academic staff in the private universities were used. This was because of the small number of female academic staff in the private universities .While purposive sampling was used because it was only the female academic staff in the nine universities that were made used of.

Table 3.1 Population samples of Female Academic Staff in the selected Universities used for the study

Universities Used	Population	Population Sample
University of Ibadan <i>Faculties Used</i> Education – 45, Arts – 34, Social Sciences – 25, Science - 68, Law -14 Overall total - 186	186	186
University of Lagos, Lagos. <i>Faculties Used</i> Education – 43, Arts - 37, Social Sciences – 20, Science – 61, Law – 10, Overall total - 161	161	161
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ife. <i>Faculties Used</i> Education – 43, Arts – 38, Social Sciences – 43, Science – 30, Law - 15 Overall total - 169	169	169
Lagos State University, Ojoo, Lagos. <i>Faculties Used</i> Education – 40, Arts - 37, Social Sciences - 32, Science – 50, Law - 14 Overall total - 173	173	173
Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti. <i>Faculties Used</i> Education – 46, Art - 40, Social Sciences – 27, Science – 33, Law - 12 Overall total - 163	160	160
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye. <i>Faculties Used</i> Education – 47, Art - 29, Social Sciences – 35, Science – 37, Law - 12 Overall total - 160	163	163
Babcock University, Ilisan Remo. <i>Schools Used</i> Education and Humanities – 41, Law and Security Sciences- 11, Management and Social Sciences – 32, Science and Technology - 23 Overall total - 107	107	107
Bowen University, Iwo. <i>Faculties Used</i> Science and Education – 18, Agriculture – 14, Social and Management-26, Humanities – 32, Health Science - 4 Overall total – 65	65	65
Covenant University, Ota. <i>Collegiate Used</i> Science studies - 25, Human Develop. Studies – 34, Science & Technology - 15 Overall total - 74	74	74
Overall total - 1250	1250	1250

Instrumentation

The major instruments used for the study were six sets of questionnaire. These were: Social Scale (SS), Female Academic Staff Self- Concept Scale (FASSCS), Female Academic Staff Self-Esteem Scale (FASSES), Female Academic Staff Self-Efficacy Scale (FASSES), Female Academic Staff Work Value Scale (FASWVS) and Female Academic Staff Job Commitment Scale (FASJCS). These were complemented with the used of the qualitative method of the In-depth Interview (IDI).

Social Scale

The questionnaire covers items relating to mentoring, networking and work experience as they relate to female academic staff job commitment in universities in Nigeria. The questionnaire items were structured by the researcher with the assistance of her supervisor. It is made up of 4 sections of 39 items drawn on a modified four-Likert scale of strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD) and carried the weights of 4,3,2,1 respectively.

A pilot study was carried out on female academic staff of the Polytechnic, Ibadan. This was to ascertain the reliability of the instrument. The reliability was determined through test-re-test method. The researcher administered the same questionnaires to the female academic staff over an interval of two weeks. Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) was used. The r- value of the instrument is 0.62.

Female Academic Staff Self- Efficacy Scale

The questionnaire was to seek information on female academic staff self-efficacy. It was adapted and modified from Schwarzer & Jerusalem General Self-Efficacy Scale (1995). All the items were restructured to suit the purpose of this study. It comprised of 1 section of 10 items drawn on a modified four-point Likert scale of Not at all true, Hardly true, Moderately

true and Exactly true. It was scored with the weights of 1,2,3,4 respectively. This was to determine the face and the contents validity of the instrument. Further, a pilot study was carried out on female academic staff at the Polytechnic Ibadan. These staff were found appropriate for this purpose because they share similar characteristics with the female academic staff in the university however, they were not included in the real study. This is to ascertain the reliability of the instrument. The reliability was determined through test-re-test method. The researcher administers the same questionnaires to the female academic staff at an interval of two weeks. Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) was used. The r-values SES was 0.75. This shows that the instrument was reliable.

Female Academic Staff Self- Esteem Scale

The questionnaire was titled Female Academic Staff Self-Esteem Scale (FASSES) and adapted from Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (1965) on the four- point Likert scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) and carried the weights of 4,3,2,1, respectively instead of five –point Likert scale in the original instrument. All the items were restructured to suit the purpose of the present study. This questionnaire was to seek information on female academic staff self-efficacy .The validity of this instrument was determined through the modifications and corrections suggested by the researcher’s supervisor and other experts in the field of research methodology and measurement and evaluation. This was to determine both the face and the contents validity of the instruments. Further, a pilot study was carried out on female academic staff of the Polytechnic, Ibadan. This was because they shared the similar characteristics with the female academic staff in the university, though they were not included in the main study. This was to ascertain the reliability of the instrument. The reliability was determined through test-re-test method. The researcher administered the same questionnaires to the female academic staff over an interval

of two weeks. Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) was used. The r - value of the instrument was 0.83.

Female Academic Staff Self- Concept Scale

This questionnaire focuses on female academic staff self-concept, the questionnaire was titled female academic staff self-concept scale (FASSCS). It was designed to collect information on female academic staff self-concept. It was adapted from Wylie (1974) Self - concept Scale with modifications to suite the purpose of the present study and made up of 1 section of 12 items, drawn on a modified four-point Likert scale of Most Like Me (MLM), Like Me (LM), Least Like Me (LLM), and Not Like Me (NLM) which carried the weights of 4,3,2,1 respectively. Copies of the instrument were given to experts in the field of research methodology and measurement and evaluation. This was to determine both the face and the contents validity of the instruments .Also, a pilot study was carried out on female academic staff at the Polytechnic Ibadan. This was to ascertain the reliability of the instrument. This is because they shared similar characteristics with female academic staff in the university though they were not included in the main study. The reliability was determined through test-re-test method. The researcher administered the same questionnaires to the female academic staff over an interval of two weeks. Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) was used. The r - values of SCS, was 0.85. This showed that the instrument was reliable.

Female Academic Staff Work Value Scale

This questionnaire was structured to seek information on female academic staff work – value. The questionnaire was titled Work-value .It was adapted from Lobo (2010) staffing Managerial Work Value Scale with modifications and corrections to suite purpose of the present study by the researcher with the assistance of her supervisor and experts in the field of research methodology and measurement and evaluation. All the items were restructured to suit the purpose of the present study. It comprised of 1 section of 21 items drawn on a

modified four-point Likert scale of Not at all true, Hardly true, true and Exactly true. It will be scored with the weights of 1,2,3,4 respectively. A pilot study was also carried out on female academic staff at the Polytechnic Ibadan. This was to ascertain the reliability of the instrument. The reliability was determined through test-re-test method. The researcher administered the same questionnaires to the female academic staff over an interval of two weeks. Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) was used. The r- values of WVS, was 0.71. This shows that the instrument was reliable.

Female Academic Staff Job Commitment Scale

Questionnaire on Female Academic Staff Job Commitment was adapted from Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) and drawn on the four- point Likert scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD), it contained 15 items. The validity of this instrument was determined through the modifications and corrections suggested by the researcher's supervisor and other experts in the field of research methodology and measurement and evaluation. This was to determine both the face and the contents validity of the instruments. Further, a pilot study was carried out on female academic staff of the Polytechnic Ibadan. This was to ascertain the reliability of the instrument. The reliability was determined through test-re-test method. The researcher administered the same questionnaires to the female academic staff over an interval of two weeks. Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) was used. The r- value of the instrument was 0.64.

In-depth Interview (IDI)

The qualitative method of In-depth Interview (IDI) was used as supplementary to the survey method in order to ensure that some information that may not be captured by the survey technique is captured through mutual interaction of the researcher with the respondents. Moreso, that all of the respondents were female academic staff from universities, questionnaire alone may not serve the purpose of getting adequate pieces of

information from them. A total of 18 IDI sessions (2 female academic staff per university) were conducted. The In- depth Interview sessions were conducted with the aid of discussion guide and tape recorder to store responses apart from note taking.

Table 3.2.: Schedule of IDI Sessions Conducted for the Study

Institution	Location of IDI	No of Sessions	Date	No. Per Session
University of Ibadan	Ibadan, Oyo State	2	March 1, 2012	1
University of Lagos	Akoka, Lagos State	2	March 29, 2012	1
Obafemi Awolowo University	Ile-Ife, Osun State	2	April 5, 2012	1
Lagos State University	OOjo, Lagos State	2	April 26, 2012	1
Olabisi Onabanjo University	Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State	2	May 3, 2012	1
Ekiti State University	Ekiti State	2	May 15, 2012	1
Backcock University	Ilesan, Ogun State	2	May 28, 2012	1
Covenant University	Otta, Ogun State	2	June 5, 2012	1
Bowen University	Iwo, Osun State	2	June 15, 2012	1

IDI Sub-Themes:

- (i) Psycho -Social factors and job commitment
- (ii) Social factors (marital status, age, educational attainment, mentoring, networking and work experience) and job commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment)
- (iii) Psychological factors (self-efficacy, self- esteem, self-concept and work value) and job commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment)
- (iv) The level of job commitment and job performance.

Procedure for Data Collection

Letter of introduction was collected from the department to the respective universities, for administration of the questionnaires to the female academic staff. In all 1300 questionnaires were sent to the various universities to be used for the study, 1,125 were returned. The distribution and collection of the instrument was done within three months after which it was sent to the analyst for analysis.

The researcher employed the services of some research assistants. They were selected undergraduate students from the universities being studied. They were personally trained in data collection strategies.

Method of Data Analysis

Data collected were analysed using the descriptive statistics of simple percentage, frequency counts for the demographic information on the respondents; while the multiple regression was used for objective (i); Pearson Product-Moment Correlation for objectives (ii), (iii) and (iv) and t-test for objective (v). On the other hand the qualitative data collected through the IDI were content analysed

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This chapter deals with the analysis of data collected and discussion of the findings based on the hypotheses formulated and research questions raised for the study.

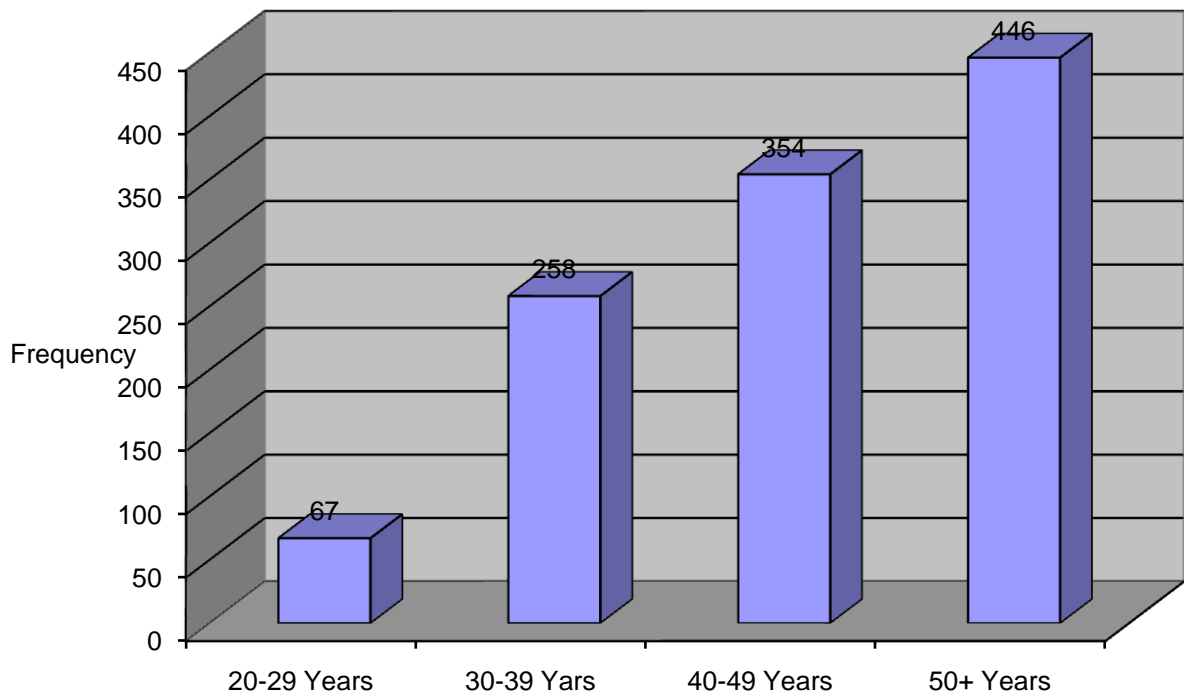


Fig.4.1. Distribution of Respondents by Age

Analysis of demographic characteristics of the respondents

Figure 4.1 reveals that the age ranges of the respondent fall within 20 years to 50 years and above. From the graph it is clear that the highest respondents of 446 fell into 50 years and above age group, accounting for 39.7 % of the respondents. This was followed by 354 of 40-49 years of age group which account for 31.5% of the respondents. The next group reveals that 258 of the sampled population are aged between 30 and 39 years, which accounted for

22.9% of the respondents. The least age group is 20-29 years which account for 5.9% of the total respondents. This is unconnected with the fact that several factors are responsible for the late entry of women into academics.

Studies on women academicians have focused on factors affecting the appointment of young female academic staff. Among the factors are patriarchal and non-conducive organisational culture, management practice and other sexual discriminatory practices that would influence appointment, performance and evaluation of women who wish to join academics. Affirming this, Bagilhole (1993), reports that universities are “homo-social” institutions being established and run by men, the rules pertaining to appointment are male-driven and are evaluated according to male standards.

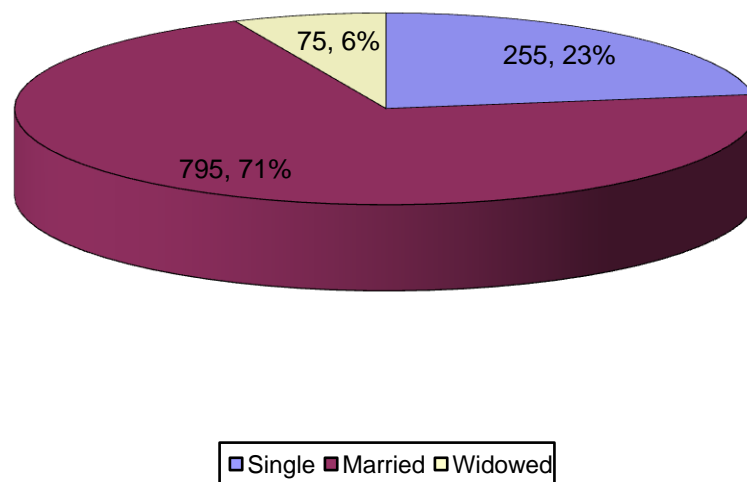


Fig. 4.2. Distribution of the Respondents by Marital Status

Figure 4.2 reveals that married respondents constitute as high as 71% of the sampled population, while 23 % are single. The least prominent is the widow which constitutes only 6% of the sampled population. The high number of married respondents might not be

unconnected with the cultural values attached to being married in Nigeria. Ezzeden & Ritch (2009) report that postponing marriage or remain childless could affect career women. They may have a hard time finding eligible partners to begin with because of their professional ambitions which are not generally appealing to men. Winslow (2010) asserts that spouse support is very important in facilitating a woman's career advancement.

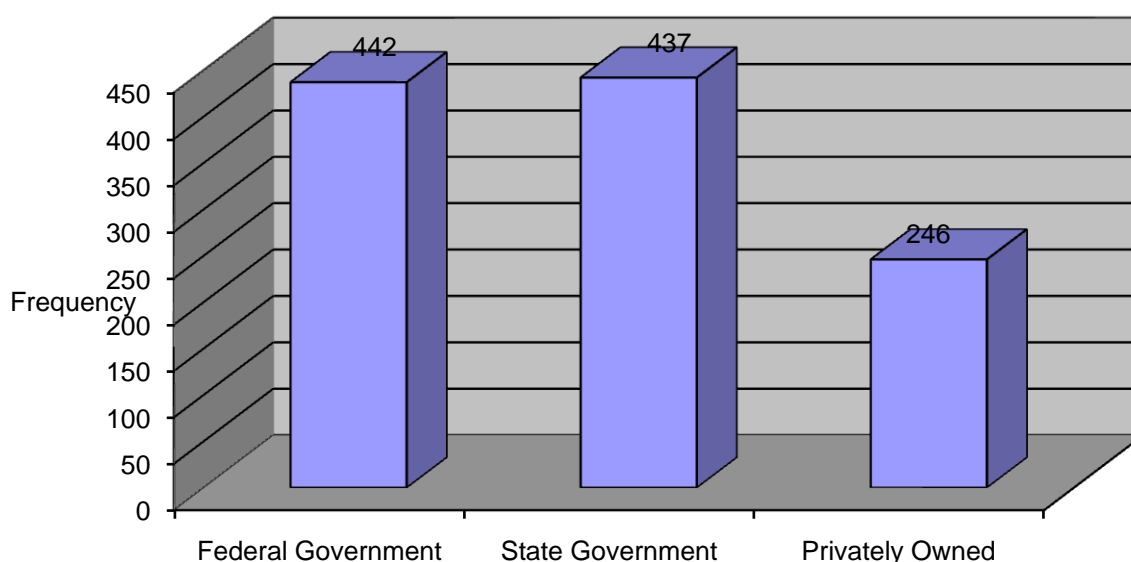


Fig. 4.3. Distribution of the Respondents by Ownership of Institution

Figure 4.3 shows that the federal institutions had the highest number of respondents which is 442, accounting for 39.9%. This is closely followed by state institutions with 437 respondents accounted for 38.9% while privately owned institutions had 246 respondents which accounted for 21.9%. It is evident from the above figure that most of the respondents are from government owned institutions. The observed distribution of participating female academic staff respondents by institutions showed that those in government owned institutions had the highest number of respondents. This could be as a result that government owned universities is usually boosted by many factors, such as guaranteed tenure of

employment, structured disengagement procedure, regular pay in terms of salary, academic freedom and even guaranteed training and development programmes all leading to better job security, whereas most of these factors are almost non-existent in privately owned universities.

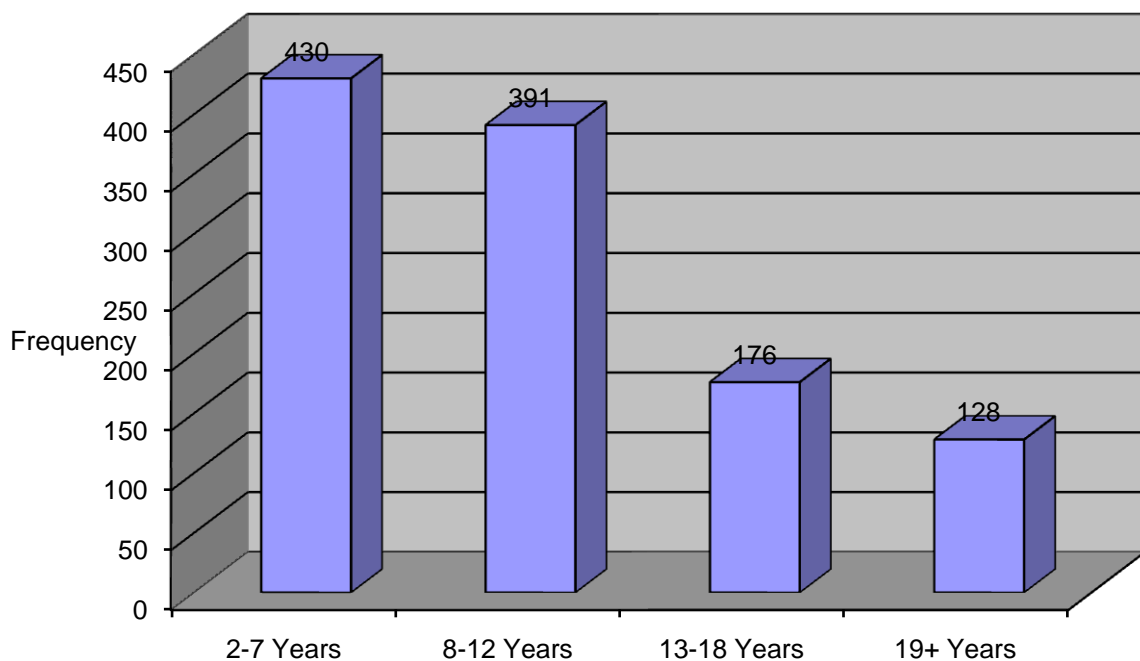


Fig. 4.4. Distribution of the Respondents by Length of Service

Figure 4.4. indicates that the respondents with 430 had the highest length of service which fell within 2-7 years accounting for 38.22%. This is followed by 391 with length of service between 8-12 years accounting for 34.75%. Next is 176 respondents with length of service between 13-18 years accounting for 15.65% while 128 respondents with length of service, 19 years and above accounted for 11.65 %. The reason for this could be as a result of the fact that women in recent times are routinely achieving higher educational qualifications which

assisted in ensuring inroads into professional careers which have severely shaken if not broken the “glass ceiling” in many occupations that were male dominated

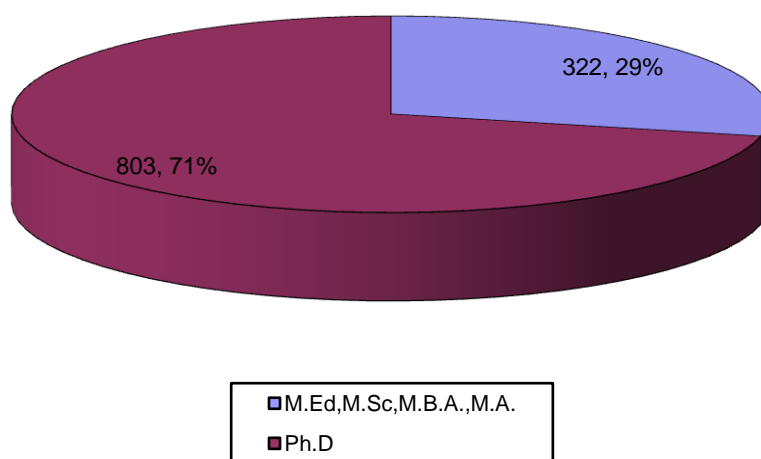


Fig. 4.5. Distribution of the Respondents by Educational Attainment

From figure 4.5, it is evident that the category of female academic staff recording the highest number of respondents is the group with Ph.D., with 803 respondents which accounted for 71%. The second group with 322 respondents is the group with M.Ed., M.Sc., M.BA, M.A. which accounted for 23%. It is clear from the chart that majority of the respondents were Ph.D. holders. This is not unconnected with the fact that part of the requirements for permanent appointment into academic cadre in Nigeria university is Ph.D. Also, more female educated academic staff occupied high status positions and are more involved in decision making in the organisation.

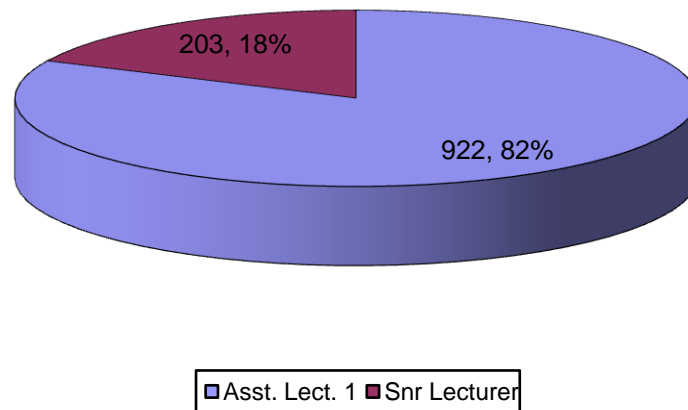


Fig.4.6 Distribution of the Respondents by Rank

From figure 4.6, it is observed that 922 of the respondents belong to junior academic staff (assistant lecturer to lecturer 1) making 82% of the respondents. Meanwhile 203 respondents accounted for senior academic staff (senior lecturer and above) which is 18%. It is observed that a high proportion of women are found in junior research positions this is because they are promoted less often than men and continue to be occupy less senior posts. Women in academics experience greater isolation, higher levels of stress, a lower sense of self-efficacy and self- confidence and more difficulty in establishing relationships with colleagues, a feeling of being an outsider in a predominantly masculine environment. In general, the proportion of women promoted from assistant lecturer to senior lecturer and above tends to be less than the proportion of women lecturers available for promotion (Hansard Society Commission 1990).

Psycho- Social Factors and Female Academics' Job Commitment in Universities

This is achieved and explained below based on objective (i) and Research Question (i) using the multiple regression analysis. The research question is as stated: To what extent do psycho-social factors predict job commitment among female academic staff in universities in South Western, Nigeria

Table 4.1a: Joint Effects of Psycho- Social Factors on Female Academics' Job Commitment

Model	Sum of square	Df	Mean	F	Sig
Regression	2439.457	7	406.576	90.137	0.000
Residual	5042.886	1118	4.511		
Total	7482.343	1125			

R=.571,

R²=.326,

Adj R²= .322

Table 4.1b: Relative Contributions of each of the Independent Variables (Psycho- social Factors) to Female Academics' Job Commitment

Model	Unstandardised Coefficient		Standardised Coefficient	T	Sig
	P	Std. Error			
(Constant)	81.431	1.315		53.461	0.000
Psycho Factor	0.534	0.49	0.467	11.714	0.000
Social Factor	0.410	0.064	0.210	4.748	0.000

Interpretations and Discussion:

It was shown in Table 4.1a, that the joint effect of independent variables (marital status, age, educational attainment, work experience, female mentoring and female networking) on commitment was significant (F(6,118) 90 137; R=.571,R²=.326, Adj. R=0.322;P <.05).

About 32% of the variation in commitment was jointly accounted for by the independent variables.

Hypothesis is rejected.

Table 4.1b reveals that the joint independent variables (Psychological and social factors) on female academic staff commitment in universities in South Western, Nigeria was significant ($F=90.137$; $R=57$ $R^2 = .326$, $Adj\ r^2 = .322$; $p < 0.05$). Table 4.1b shows the relative contributions of each independent variable on the dependent variable. Social factors ($\beta = 0.534$, $P < 0.05$). this shows that the two independent variables are significant.

The above tables show that the joint effect of the independent variables and the relative contribution of each of the dependent variables are significant. This is consistent with some earlier researches which establish significant relationship between psycho-social characteristics and job commitment. For instance, the present study is in agreement with some earlier studies such as those of Lok & Crawford, (2001); Certin, (2006); Rosser, (2004); Watts, (2008); Suda, (2002); Simmons, (2005); Weidmer, (2006); White, (2003); Bendra and Haywood, (2006); Glazer, Daniel and Short, (2004) that report positive correlation between psycho-social variables and job commitment. Though the researcher has not been able to find studies that examined the ten selected psycho-social variables together, a number of researchers found that psycho-social factors such as age, marital-status, educational attainment and work experience significantly predict job commitment (Lok & Crawford, 2001; Oshagbemi, 2003; Hegedom, 2000; Pobert, 2005; Simmons, 2005; White, 2003; Wiedmer, 2006; Ward & Wolf-Wandel, 2004; Salami, 2008). From studies it has been established that age is positively related to job commitment (Granleese & Sayer, 2006; Baker, 2008; Duncan & Loretto, 2004; Chang, 2001). This was corroborated by some researchers in their report that older employees are more committed than younger ones (Lok & Crawford, 2001; Sendergaard, 2005; Duncan & Loretto, 2004). This is because older workers possess more seniority and work experience, which enable them move into more rewarding, attractive and satisfying jobs. Barry and Sawyer (2008) also establish that young workers are not as committed as old workers because they place significantly more importance on intrinsic rewards like interesting and challenging job compared to older workers who are more concerned with extrinsic rewards such as pay and fringe benefits. Hence, young workers are more dissatisfied and less committed than old workers simply because they demand more than their jobs can provide. Duncan

and Loretto, (2004) submit that as employees become older, they accumulate valued resources in the employment system and thus, less inclined to change in organisations. The reported positive relationship between age and job commitment might be due to the fact that older employees have more rewarding jobs, participate in more decision making which gives them enough time to evaluate their relationship with the organisation. Hu (1999) in contrast to previous studies reports a negative relationship between age and job commitment.

The result of the present study that marital status positively predicts job commitment is consistent with previous studies (Certin, 2006; Hegedom, 2000; Bowen, Radhakrishna & Keyser, 1994; Probert, 2005; O' Lauglin & Bischott, 2005). An explanation for this might be that married workers have more family responsibilities and need more stability and security in their jobs, therefore, they are likely to be more committed than their unmarried counterparts.

Most of the married academic women used as sample in this study agreed that family responsibilities do not affect commitment to their job. In fact, this inference was distinctly demonstrated by a married academic staff, when responding to questions on work-family conflict. She said:

Not at all, my children are in the boarding school so I am not thinking of caring for them. I visit them on visiting days. With a very good house help taking care of the home-front, I am able to concentrate on research and attend conferences. If I'm going to be away for a long time, my mother moves in to take charge (Lecturer II)

When asked if she prefers to leave work for family, she said:

"I can't leave my job. How will I cope economically, my husband alone cannot do everything.

Another respondent during the IDI submits that:

When my children were growing up, they attended boarding schools. Now that they are in tertiary institutions, they are able to take care of themselves. My husband is very understanding, he actually encourages me

to attain the professorial position. I am always free to travel and attend conferences, workshops and seminars. My commitment at work is not disturbed at all (professor)

When concluding her position, she states that:

Though, the assumption is still that women are responsible for childcare and the domestic side of things. I only try to reconcile the roles and manage my time properly. I thank God He's been so good to me.

The above information supports the assertion that married academic staff are committed to their job. This may be because they have developed some coping strategies to make them move on; this could suggest that the women might have developed thick skin against any obstacle to their job commitment and family responsibilities, to the extent that they no longer consider it a serious and insurmountable problem. Yet, other studies have shown that marriage can have a negative impact on job commitment (Aisenberg & Harrington, 1988).

Another psycho-social variable that predicts job commitment is educational attainment. In support of the above finding, research reveals positive relationship between educational attainment and job commitment (Watts, 2008; Olubor, 2006; Suda, 2002; Simmons, 2005). Liptak (2008) submits that an individual's educational attainment level has a direct impact on her employability, job prospects, income, overall life, career satisfaction and commitment. Highly educated employees have high task commitment (Watt, 2008). Education for women has not been easy in any region of the world (Olubor, 2006). Supporting the above, studies have reveal that university education system in Nigeria is bedevilled with gender inequality in term of enrolment of students and recruitment of staff (Olubor, 2006; Okebukola, 2002). Okebukola (2002) reveals that women are under-represented in the academic arena and the few who are there do not hold positions of responsibility. This affects their bargaining power and limit their opportunity to influence decisions or other initiatives that might influence their commitment to their academic career. Consequently, this affects their job because female academics were less involved, respected and valued as researchers and are likely to be taken

less seriously than men. The above finding lend credence to the work of Simmons (2005) that more educated staff members tended to report high levels of commitment, regardless of their perceptions of organisational culture and job satisfaction. This positive relationship between education and commitment might be due to the fact that staff members who had more education occupied high status positions and were more involved in decision making in the organisation. Research shows that more participation in decision-making is strongly associated with higher levels of job satisfaction and job commitment (Bender & Heyhood, 2006). In support of this, Ward and Wolf-Wandel (2004) and Hult, Callister & Sullivan, (2005) report that staff members who are highly educated occupy high status positions, have the opportunity to be involved in decision making, report high job satisfaction and great commitment. However, contrary to the above finding, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) report that more educated employees show low level of commitment, most likely because they have high expectations or more alternatives for job opportunities. Also, most researchers support the notion that work experience significantly predicts job commitment.

Another psycho-social variable that significantly predicts job commitment is work experience. Supporting the present study, White, (2003); Young, (2003); Gilbert, (2008) and Dugger (2001) agree that work experience is positively related to job commitment. Studies have shown that academic women experience greater isolation, high levels of stress, a low sense of self-efficacy and self-confidence and more difficulty in establishing relationship with colleagues, a feeling of being an outsider in masculine culture, all these affect their commitment to their job. Research has consistently demonstrated that having a mentor and engaging in formal and informal networking predicts job commitment (Bishop, Scott & Burroughs 2000; Lankau & Scandura, 2002 Wallace). Payne and Huffmen (2005) and Mullen (2005) posit that having effective mentoring display increased job commitment, promotion opportunities, positive organisational socialisation and reduced turnover intention. Studies in the area of academia demonstrate that mentoring and networking relationships provide

numerous benefits (Scandura & William, 2001; Peluchette & Jeanquart, 2000; Husu, 2004 and Ledwith & Manfredi, 2000). Academia who are involved in mentoring and networking relationship are more committed and more satisfied with their job (Rees, 2001; Dickerson Taylor & 2000). Most of the respondents agreed that mentoring and networking are useful tools in climbing the academic ladder. These positive results are possible due to the support, guidance and feedback regarding their personal development and career direction received through mentoring and networking relationship.

The result also affirms the work of other researchers who found self-concept, self-esteem and self-efficacy positively related to job commitment (Bandura, 1994, 1997; Husu, 2004; Bandura & Jordan, 1991; Higgins, 2001; Sadri & Roberson, 1993). In the work context, self-concept, self-esteem and self-efficacy refer to judgment employees make concerning their ability to do what is required, to successfully perform their job.

Further, through studies (Bandura, 1994; Leary, Baumeister, 2000; Pajares, 2007; Yeunh & Martins, 2003; Field, 2009) it has been established that a strong sense of self-concept, self-esteem and self-efficacy enhance human accomplishment in many ways. People with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be surmounted rather than as a threat to be avoided (Pajares, 2007). They approach threatening situation with assurance that they can exercise control over them, such an outlook produces personal accomplishment which in turn increase individual's commitment to their job (Leary & Beumaster, 2000). Studies have consistently demonstrated that work value significantly predict job commitment. This was replicated in the work of Brown and Associate, (2002); Schwartz, Sagiv and Bohnke, (2000); Cohen, (2007); Chang, (2003); Fischer and Smith, (2006); Cheung, (2006); Furnham, Petrides, Tsaosis, Pappas and Garrod, (2005). According to Brown and Associate (2002), work values are what individuals hold as a "desired end state" of their participation at work. It is an enduring belief and standard which judge the worth of what is done through work experience and express one's working behaviours and

the pursuit for work goals whenever the individual is engaging in her own job (Glazer, Daniel & Short, 2007) Thus, work values assist in defining career paths and goals (Cohen, 2007). Fields (2000) and Brown (2000) posit that the work values of individuals affect their work desire or goal, as well as their effort and work commitment. Guest (2002) and Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, (2006) report that work value and job characteristics are influential determinants of job commitment. In a study conducted by Gilbert, (2008), values such as responsibility and achievement tended to facilitate and predict job commitment. Cohen (2007) submits that the higher the work values rise, the more job commitment and job involvement improves.

Lydon (1996) advances an explanation as to why values should be related to commitment. Bishop, Scott and Burroughs (2000) posit that individuals feel especially committed to goals, projects and life tasks that express their core values, as well as their beliefs and identities. Lydon explains this relationship by arguing that values define who an individual is in an important way. They serve as a bridge from the self to life experiences by informing us about the meaning life experiences have for individuals. Meaning may fulfil epistemic concerns about life experiences, but meaning then seeks expression in a motivational process of commitment that energises an individual to pursue a goal in the face of adversity. Thus, individuals are most committed to goals that affirm who they are.

. Component of Psychological Factors and Female Academics' Job Commitment in Universities

This is achieved and explained below based on objective (ii) and Hypothesis two using Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The hypothesis is as stated: there is no significant relationship between psychological factors and job commitment in Universities in South Western Nigeria.

Table 4.2: Correlation matrix showing the relationship between the selected Psychological Variables (Self-Efficacy, Self-Esteem, Self-Concept and Work Values) and job commitment among female academic staff in universities

	Job Commitment	Self- Efficacy	Self-Esteem	Self-Concept	Work Values
Job Commitment	1				
Self-Efficacy	.334**	1			
Self-Esteem	.577**	.648**	1		
Self-Concept	.517**	.263**	.425**	1	
Work Values	.468**	.672**	.704**	.345**	1
Mean	47.3733	32.3876	32.7138	38.6649	56.6080
S.D	5.5787	5.8970	5.114	4.5211	9.4301

Interpretations and discussions:

It is shown in the table above that all the four psychological variables are significant with .344**, .577**, .517** and .468** coefficient values respectively.

Correlation matrix was used to show the relationship between job commitment among female academic staff in Universities in South Western Nigeria and selected psychological variables (self –efficacy, self-esteem, self-concept, and work values). From the above table, it was shown that psychological variables were significantly related to job commitment. Self-esteem had the highest coefficient value with .577**, followed by Self- concept .517**, next is work value with .468** and Self-efficacy with .344**.

The finding of the study reveals that self-esteem as one of the psychological variables has significant influence on the job commitment of female academic staff in Universities in South Western Nigeria. The finding of the study is in agreement with the works of Lee (2003) and Ragin, Cotton and Miller (2003) who support self-esteem as a factor predicting

job commitment. In their studies they posit that employees with self-esteem are more committed and can perform their duties independently without supervision or much stress. They further report that employees with self-esteem derive efficiency from their ability to organise and execute the behaviour needed to successfully complete what is expected of them.

Self-esteem is a significant predictor of organisational commitment which explains why organisations demand and look for employees with skills, capabilities and working experience (Hsu & Kuo, 2003). If employees have good skills and capabilities relevant to their assigned work, it may spawn confidence of performing work more efficiently than their counterparts with low self confidence. Consequently, such employees are more likely to be promoted which in turn may enhance their commitment to their organisation. Yeung & Martins (2003) in their research reveal that employee with a positive belief about herself becomes confident about her assigned work. Showing good performance and having satisfaction that the organisation is realising the importance of the individual and her work may lead to higher level of commitment to the organisation. This explains why Givens (2008) suggests that leaders should put in effort to increase employees' self-efficacy for the enhancement of their organisational commitment. Self-consistency theory, (Korman, 1970; Pierce, Gardener, Cumming & Dunham.,1989) argue that individuals are motivated to maintain a positive self-perception. By applying this theory, employees with high organisational-based self-esteem who consider themselves as valued by their organisations will engage themselves in behaviours which the organisations value so as to maintain their self-esteem. Organisational commitment is one way in which they can maintain behaviour that is consistent with their self-esteem.

Studies have shown a positive relationship between organisational-based self-esteem and organisational commitment (Pierce & Gardner, 2004; Gardner & Pierce, 1998; Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, & Dunham 1989). Hui and Lee (2000) further suggest organisational-

based self-esteem upholds commitment even during uncertainty. An explanation to this finding might be that self-esteem is built upon the notion that it is shaped by work and organisation experience. Self-esteem is closely related to work value.

Next to self-esteem is self –concept. The finding is in support that self-concept significantly predicts job commitment. This lends credence to the work of Doherty, (2011); Yahaya and Ramli (2009); Cooper and Thatcher (2010) that self-concept significantly predict job commitment. Huang, Law, and Wong (2001), posit that self-concept has positive effects on organisational commitment. Sung and Oh (2011), contend that self-concept helps to build self-esteem, makes one have confidence, feel valued and care about oneself in organisations. These in turn will reinforce individual’s belief utilisation of her talents effectively, and makes her more committed to the organisation. Pierce and Gardner, 2004, ``state that individuals form a self-concept around work because evidence show that self-concept relates to life and workplace success. Heywood (2006), establishes that self-concept of employees affect their commitment, satisfaction and achievements. Individuals with positive self-concept will be able to contribute to increasing organisational effectiveness, health, productivity. Studies (Adetoro, 2011; Copper &Thatcher, 2010 and Modupe, 2010) have established that employers with positive attitudes towards themselves are in much better position to build positive and realistic self-concept in their employees. Also, employees’ beliefs play an important role for effective and productive employers. For employees to be committed there is the need for positive and realistic attitude about themselves and their abilities.

Work value is another variable that predicts job commitment, it is equally important and this study corroborates some earlier studies like Fischer (2004); Schwartz, (2005, 2006) and Gelede, Dabson and Gilbert (2006) that established a strong correlation between work value and job commitment. Several researchers have considered values in general, and work values specifically, as important factors in predicting organisational commitment. Gahan and Abeysekera (2009) and Wasti, (2003) in their studies report that commitment is strengthened

through investment of time and in the work role, particularly when there is reciprocal value perceived in one's efforts. This means that there is a reciprocal relationship between commitment and behaviour such that by acting on behalf of and according to one's values, an individual strengthens her commitment, which in turn makes her future behaviour more predictable.

Further, from studies, it has been revealed that values are related to commitment. Bierema and Landau, (2004) observe that people feel especially commitment to goals, projects, and life tasks that express their core values, as well as their beliefs and identities. Kinman & Jones (2008) and Fischer and Smith (2006), posit that core values define who we are in an important way. They serve as a bridge from the self to life experiences by informing individuals about the meaning that life experiences have for them. Meaning may fulfil epistemic concerns about life experiences, it seeks expression in a motivational process of commitment that energises the person to pursue a goal in the face of adversity. Thus, individuals that are most committed to goals that give meaning to their lives.

A great number of the respondent also agreed that as an academic staff, they have the opportunity to teach others what they know. This position is in line with the submission of Glazer, Daniel and Short (2004) that value such as responsibility and achievement tended to facilitate and predict organisational commitment.

Many of the respondents used for this study agreed that as lecturers, they enjoy academic freedom, which gives them the opportunity to do things the way they want and also use their great potentials. This corroborates the findings of Hirschi (2010) that "stability and freedom from anxiety considerations" of employees was the strongest influencing factor on "retention commitment". The present study therefore may be connected with the fact that value signifies desired goals, scaled according to importance, which guide a person's life, behaviour directed towards goals, and criteria for choosing those goals, .value can influence

the attention given to, the perception of, and the interpretation of various situations; these, in turn, can affect attitudes, such as commitment (Berings, DeFruyt and Bouwen, 2004). The present study therefore, support that values could directly affect organisational commitment and that having positive work values will result in increased organisational commitment.

The finding of the present study also reveals that among the psychological variables self-efficacy has significant influence on job commitment of female academic staff in universities in South-western Nigeria. The importance of self-efficacy as a predictor of job commitment cannot be underestimated. Self-efficacy is the personal disposition of the job holder. It is the belief in one's capabilities in executing a course of action and it affects a person's choice of behaviour, motivation, perseverance and facilitative thought patterns (Bandura, 1977, 1986 & 1997). Researchers that supported the relationship between self-efficacy and job commitment stated that, people who hold strong self-efficacy beliefs tend to - be more satisfied with their job and demonstrate more commitment (Lord & Brown, 2004) and have low absenteeism (Hough, 2003). Feelings of self-efficacy have been shown to have a significant effect on the level of commitment, motivation and amount of extended effort an individual demonstrate (Pajares, 2007). This finding is in line with the works of Scherbaum, Sear, (2003); Lucas and Cooper, (2005): Luthans and Yousef (2003) who, in their different works alluded that high level of self –efficacy are associated with an increased level of goal setting which leads to a firmer commitment in achieving goals that have been set and greater resolve to persevere in the face of obstacles. Yahaya and Ramli (2009) note that self – efficacy ‘’..... encapsulates the way faculty members see themselves as teachers, researchers and academic citizens as well as their beliefs about whether they can successfully complete tasks in each of these areas’’. According to Bandura's (1998) theoretical analysis, perceived self-efficacy is people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. A strong self-efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways; as reported earlier

(Pajares, 2007), people with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be measured rather than as a threat to be avoided. They approach difficult situations with the assurance that they can exercise control over them. Such an efficacious outlook produces personal accomplishment, and increase commitment. This was supported by a great number of the respondents who agreed that they can solve most problems in their career if they invest the necessary effort. It cannot be disputed that self-efficacy has been a much more consistent predictor of behavioural and behaviour change than has any of the other closely related expectancy variables for example, self-concept (Sinha, Talwar & Rajpal, 2002). Hough (2003) concludes after a research that ability is related to performance but regardless of ability level, workers with high self-efficacy tackled more problems correctly and dwelt more on the ones they missed. In the same vein, Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman & Combs (2006) affirm that workers with high self-efficacy engaged in more effective self-regulatory strategies at each level of ability.

The findings that self-efficacy is a potent predictor of job commitment could be attributed to the fact that a strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways including ability to cope with difficult situation (Pajares 2007). Pajares and Schunk (2001) posit that self-efficacy regulates the way in which an individual perceives her competence which in turns affects her level of commitment. The finding of the present study corroborates the assertion of Sears (2003), that the higher the level of an individual perceived self- efficacy, the wider the range of career opportunities the individual's is prepared to pursue and the greater the individual's commitment and record of success. In contrast, people who doubt their capabilities shy away from difficult tasks which they view as personal threats. They have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. When faced with difficult tasks, they dwell on their personal deficiencies, on the obstacles they will encounter, rather than concentrate on how to perform successfully. They slacken their efforts and give up quickly in the face of difficulties. Several

studies (Luthan & Yousef, 2007; Lord & Brown; 2006; Givens, 2008) have also established that academic staff with a strong sense of efficacy tend to exhibit greater levels of planning, organisation and commitment, they persist when things do not go smoothly and are more resilient in the face of setbacks. This was corroborated by most of the respondents who agreed that they can always manage to solve difficulty problems in their career if they try hard.

Akinlabi (2005); Asforth and Humphrey (1995) and Washington and Watson (2000) on the above finding, made a different submission. They posit that workers effectiveness and commitment on the job is not a function of self-efficacy, rather leadership style, experience and situational favourableness.

The above finding is not unconnected with fact that every individual behaves in accordance with her self-image. Her behaviour reflects how she views herself and normally behaves in a way consistent with what she thinks she is and what she wants to be. This is not unconnected with the fact that psychological variable is one of the major considerations in predicting job commitment.

Components of Social Factors and Female Academics' Job Commitment in Universities in South-western Nigeria

This is achieved and explained below based on objective (ii) and Hypothesis one using Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The hypothesis is as stated: There is no significant relationship between social factors and job commitment of female academic staff in universities in South Western, Nigeria.

Table 4.3: Correlation matrix showing the relationship between the Social Variables (Marital Status, Age, Educational Attainment, Work Experience, Mentoring and Networking) and the Job Commitment among Female Academic Staff in Universities

	Job Commitment	M.S.	Age	Education	Work Exp.	Mentoring	Networking
Job Commitment	1						
M.S.	-.038	1					
Age	.019	.477**	1				
Education	.089**	.260**	.502**	1			
Work Exp.	.029	.216**	-.045	.354**	1		
Mentoring	.348**	-.086**	.159**	-.138**	.037	1	
Networking	.521**	-.153**		-.135**	-.204**	.641**	1
Mean	47.3733	1.84	3.05	1.71	2.00	39.6596	36.6231
S.D.	5.5787	.52	.93	.45	1.00	4.8114	4.7584

Interpretations and Discussion:

It is indicated in Table 4.3 that there is significant correlation between job commitment and educational attainment, mentoring, and networking among female academic staff in universities in South Western Nigeria but none between job commitment and marital status, age and work experience.

This study supports some earlier studies on the relationship between social factors and female academic staff job commitment such as Gilbert, (2008), Oakely, (2000), Creamer, (2006), Probert, (2005), Husu, (2004), Baker, (2008), Mullen, (2005), Watts, (2008), Olubor, (2006), reported positive correlation between social factors and job

commitment, Langan and Morton, (2009), Thomas and Annette, (2002), Chughtai and Zafar, (2006), did not support the present finding.

Out of the social variables used in the study as predictors of job commitment among female academic staff in universities in South Western Nigeria, networking had the highest score, that is, networking predicts job commitment most. The finding of the present study corroborates the assertion of Hearn (2004) Husu, (2001) Torer (1991) and Ledwith & Manfredi, (2000) that network is significantly related to job commitment. They report that networks are important for increasing commitment and career advancement. The findings also lend credence to the work of Metcalf (2006), Mets (2004) and Olsson and Walker (2004) in their studies report that commitment and networking is an important enabler to career development. Pai and Vaidya (2009) posit that women who had made it to top management had access to networks. According to finding; women need to set up their networks and participate in men's networks (Husu, 2004). It has been revealed from findings that male academic staff seems to be more committed than female academic staff because of their involvement in networking. Unlike the male academic staff who are able to use unofficial networks to learn from colleagues, women in equal need of such support are more likely to miss out on information sharing and informal mutual help from within their institutions since they are in the minority in most departments. Likewise, Altman, Simpson, Baruch and Burke (2005) posit that the absence of a supportive network among women academics whether official or unofficial fragments their efforts which in turn affect their commitment to their job.

Findings reveal that network as a predictor of job commitment encourages women to help each other in their respective jobs and is a source of information and advice for them (Lanehan & Walsh, 2009). To this end, one may argue that networks provide women with the context where they can learn by observing role models and being mentored.

Rees (2001) posits that women need to set up their networks and also participate in men's networks. Taylor (2000) reveals that women found networking challenging and thus they lack the important tool of networking which invariably affects their commitment to their job. Husu (2003) states that women were excluded from the networks through which they could make themselves known and learn about promotion processes. Studies conducted in Tanzania showed that women who do not network remain vulnerable and liable to being rendered invisible and never remembered when promotions were being discussed (Adler and Izraeli (1994).

The present finding lend additional support to the work of Ibarra, (1993) and Ledwith and Manfredi, (2000) that networks either formal or informal are factors that are associated with female academic career progression and organisational commitment. Women who enter a traditionally male dominant workplace such as academia are often marginalised which in turn affect their commitment to their job. Many of the respondents agreed that networking help them to overcome the barriers to top academic positions. Women academics who reach the top are very visible and have to balance the conflicting status of being “academic”, “administrator” and “female”. While the university is a male dominated area, men are seen as being the core of the organisation, whereas the women are seen as being part of that big organisation (Gordon & Whelan-Berry 2005 and Hayes, Allison & Armstrong, 2004). A study of women deans by Glazer and Raymo (1999) find that women without informal networks of support are not as committed as those involved in networking, this is because they find themselves blocked as they get close to the top of the administrative hierarchy where promotions are likely to be based on trust than on performance and they become frustrated and most often resign to fate. Women are often “ignored” and “excluded” from informal networks and from having access to relevant information or decision-making networks which can boost ones commitment within the organisation. In addition, men tend to resist involvement in cross-sex development relationships (e.g. mentoring) (Clawson and

Kram, 1984). As a result, lack of informal networks makes it very difficult for women to learn to manage and participate in organisational life which has significantly affected their commitment to their job.

Mooney and Ryan (2008) established that there are two types of networking that predict employees' commitment to their job. These are internal and external networking. Internal networking refers to networking within an organisation. According to Mooney and Ryan (2008), internal networking is deemed to be a characteristic or behaviour thought to be important to progress in an organisation; if you struggle to network internally, you may be seen as unable to represent the organization effectively on an external basis. External networking is the ability to network with others outside the organisation. The ability to network and be committed is perceived as a business skill that is important for building relations with clients, and as a method by which one's visibility to senior management is demonstrated, this way career progression and commitment is enhanced (Taylor, 2007). According to Husu (2004), a network of friends, colleagues, and clients can be valuable means to career advancement because it can prove beneficial in getting things done.

Building a network of mutual friends who can be called upon to assist in career matters can help an employee to find the best career opportunities and be in a better financial situation. For many employees, their work group is a source of social interaction where they can also share their frustrations and feelings of satisfaction. Peer network is one interpersonal determinant which involves supportive relationship at work and it supports advancement (Nikandrou, Panyotopoulou & Apospori, 2006).

It is not surprising that there is significant correlation between job commitment and networking. This may be because university is seen as male dominated area. Women without informal networks of support may not find it making it to the top easy because lack of informal network makes it difficult for women to learn to manage and participate in organisational life.

On the importance of networking as female academic staff, IDI were able to complement major findings through the following responses by female academic staff:

Yes I believe in networking, it is important. Networking has really helped in enhancing my academic career through the development and use of contacts for information, advice and moral support, this has really helped my career progression and advancement. (Senior lecturer).

Another IDI respondent states that;

To have a sense of belonging in academics you must be involved in both formal and informal networking. (Associate Professor).

Supporting the above information, another respondent said:

Yes, I am aware of the importance of networking in academics. I am able to overcome most of the barriers in academic through networking. The absence of a supportive network among women academics whether official or unofficial fragments our efforts and contributions and also affect our career progression. (Lecturer1)

Most of the respondents express the viewpoint that women are in most cases excluded from networking which affect them from having access to information that can help in their academic progression. Women lack the benefits of colleague relationship and collaboration, which include intellectual stimulation and encouragement. This affects their advancement most especially in area of publication and research grants.

Next is mentoring. The present study indicates that mentoring is next to networking in order of social factors that predict job commitment among female academic staff in universities in South-western Nigeria. This finding shows that mentoring is significantly related to job commitment. Studies have established that having a mentor assists women in career advancement and commitment (Burke, 1984; Grogan & Brunner, 2005; Weiss, 1981; Young, MacKenize, & Sherif, 1982). They also agree that supportive mentors transmit empathy and lessen female protégé's stress level especially if she does not have other women

or junior faculty colleagues in the department. Mentoring is especially valuable for the transmission of a positive attitude like organisational commitment because mentors provide invaluable information about the mission and philosophies of the organisation, help employees cope with career stress and give proper orientation towards the workplace (DeVaney & Chen 2003; Payne, 2006). It has been revealed from findings that mentored individuals have higher levels of mobility on the job, recognition, promotion and compensation (Scandura & Williams, 2001). The present finding supports the findings of Godshalk & Sosik, (2003) and Mullen (2005) that employees with positive mentoring experiences typically feel higher levels of career satisfaction and organisational commitment. Studied have established that the low levels of turnover that occur with mentored individuals are due, in part, to their high levels of organisational commitment occasioned by mentoring relationship (Ramey,1993; Higgins,2001; Tallerico,2000). The present finding corroborated the position of Oakley (2000) that mentoring relationships are powerful tool for socialising new employees, for increasing organisational commitment and reducing unwanted turnover. The finding also reveals that women who are mentored have improved self- confidence as well as enhanced professional skills which increased their commitment to their job (Higgins, 2001). Additionally, mentoring has proven vital in assisting new female and minority faculty members to feel comfortable with the academic environment. This corroborates the position of Ramey (1993) that in academia, mentorship relationships have been helpful to both mentor and protégé who collaborated on research.

Further, mentoring has been identified as a key factor for women in becoming administrators. This was supported by Russell and Horne, (2009) that women with mentors were more committed and more determined to climb the career ladder and aimed at becoming professors, directors, deans and even vice-chancellors. According to Toddell, Madill, Shaw, and Brown (2008) female academia may feel marginalised and may not discuss important information with male colleagues on promotion and academic work because of the patriarchal

system of academia which makes females feel less included professionally. They therefore, feel isolated or excluded from sources of information that can help them to be committed to and development of their career. These women may lack adequate mentors who can assist them in understanding the expectations and requirements of an academic appointment, especially those related to scholarship.

Majority of the respondents identified mentoring as a key strategy used to break through the ‘‘glass ceiling’’. They agreed that for women to have a sense of belonging in academics, they should have a mentor for proper guidance and counseling who should inspire them to have a strong desire to remain a member of their institution. Researches show that women are more likely than men to report that mentors are unwilling to mentor them, that they have less access to mentors, and hesitant to initiate the relationship for fear that their efforts may be misconstrued as being sexual by either the mentor or others in the organisation. In spite of these reported barriers, women are as likely as men to have mentors, suggesting that women often overcome these barriers in order to develop these important relationships. This indicates that women recognise the importance of mentoring in career development and commitment and are willing to overcome barriers to gaining this critical developmental relationship.

The importance, benefits and usefulness of having a mentor in academics was clearly explained by two of the female lecturers interviewed during the IDI. When responding during the interview on mentoring, one of the respondents states:

I have a mentor as a female lecturer. She is older than I and more experienced. Initially I did not know how to go about it, later she drew me closer to her. Thank God for my mentor, it was through my relating with her that I got to know what I needed for my promotion. She was willing to share with me, material that would be useful. I could always count on her. Most times my mentor goes out of her way to help do through scrutiny of my publications, her criticism and direction, no doubt contributed immensely to the quality of my publications and research work. (Lecturer 11)

Another respondent submits:

Yes I believe in mentoring. It is very important, but there are few women professors and as a woman one needs to be careful because people often term this to be something else (Senior Lecturer)

In her conclusion, she agrees with the above assertion by responding that:

My mentor gives me all the necessary support and tips. When I was having difficulty with my promotion she counsel and guide me on how to go about it. She is always willing and ready to help me. In fact, I don't know what I could have done without her. I'm sure if I continue with her, my promotion will be rapid.

The findings of Watts (2008) Liptak (2008) Suda (2002) and Olubor (2006), is corroborated by the present finding that educational attainment is significantly related to job commitment of female academic staff in universities in South-western Nigeria. Likewise Watts, (2008) posits that highly educated employees have a high task commitment. Educational attainment is the key to career opportunity. A person's education level directly impacts that person's employability, job prospects, income, overall life, career satisfaction and commitment (Liptak, 2008). Education is widely accepted as an important factor in enabling individuals to participate fully in social and cultural, as well as economic life. Through higher education, women are able to raise their labour market status and achieve certain degree of economic independence, thereby enhancing their overall quality of life (Watts, 2008). Education for women has not been easy in any region of the world (Olubor, 2006). The access is so narrow that it seems almost impassable. This unfortunate practice ensured that females remained many paces behind their male counterparts in terms of education and all the opportunities that go with it. In line with this submission, earlier studies have shown that university education system in Nigeria is bedevilled with gender inequality in terms of enrolment of students and recruitment of staff (Olubor, 2006; Garuba, 2006; Okebukola, 2002). This reflected in the appointment of academic staff which skewed favourably towards men, which invariably affects the number of women in top positions. It

has been revealed (Okebukola, 2002) that women are under-represented in the academic arena and the few who are there do not hold positions of responsibility, this tend to give women less bargaining power and limited opportunity to influence decisions or other initiatives that might influence their commitment to their academic career. Williams (2003) observes that academia is shaped by educational credentials. Women, on average, are less likely to have doctorates and those who have it in the system are under-represented as full professors (National Centre for Education Statistics, 2009). Consequently, this affects commitment to their job because female academics are less involved, respected, and valued as researchers and are likely to be taken less seriously than men. Wasburn (2007) reveals that the positions attained by academic women in the universities which affect commitment to their job are influenced by a number of factors. Of greatest importance among these are the existence of a pool of formally qualified women to serve as mentors and role models, the socio-cultural and psychological barriers preventing women from pursuing academic careers and assuming managerial roles and the attitudes in the higher education system, especially of the academic community towards women's access to such positions in higher education institutions

The present finding did not agree with the finding of Steers (1977) and Mathieu and Zajac's (1990), they found that level of education is negatively related to organisational commitment. The rationale for this prediction is that people with low levels of education generally have more difficulty changing jobs and therefore show greater commitment to their organisations. According to Wiedmer (2006), this inverse relationship may result from the fact that more highly educated employees have higher expectations that the organisation may be unable to satisfy and meet their needs. Similarly, Certin, (2006) suggests that this negative correlation arises because it might be perceived that rewards do not adequately reflect the level of education, knowledge and skills

The findings of the present study also reveal that marital status, age, and work experience do not have any significant relationship with job commitment. This supports assertion of Baker, (2008), Cetin, (2006), Hagedorn, (2000)), that marital status and age were not significant predictors of job commitment. A number of previous researchers have reported mixed findings on the relationship between age, marital status and work experience (Mason & Goulden, 2004; Harris, 2009; Young & Holley 2005; Baker, 2008 and Brown, 2003.). Salami (2008) Wiedmer, (2006) and Dodd-McCue & Wright (1998) did not support the above findings, rather they revealed that socio-demographic factors (age, marital status, and work experience) of workers significantly correlated with organisational commitment. They posit that older, married and more experienced workers had higher levels of organisational commitment than the younger, single, and less experienced workers. This means that the younger, single and less experienced worker may still be deciding what they want to do for a career. Deciding on a choice of work in life for a given period of time may prevent organisational commitment.

Through various expositions as highlighted above, it has been made manifestly clear that there is lack of consistent research explanation of why socio demographic characteristics such as age, marital status, and work experience should be related to commitment. Price and Mueller (1981) point out that it is unclear how age influences commitment. The frequently reported positive relationship between age and commitment might be due to the fact that older employees have more rewarding jobs, participate in more decision making, and are better integrated into the workplace. Therefore, it is not age per se that increases commitment, but rather the better quality of jobs and the work experience, which are positively correlated with age (Mathieu & Zajac 1990; Price & Mueller 1981).

Level of Job Performance and Job Commitment of Female Academics in Universities

This is achieved and explained below based on objective (iv) and Hypothesis three using Pearson Product Moment correlation. The hypothesis is as stated: There is no relationship between the level of job commitment and job performance of female academics in universities in South Western Nigeria.

Table 4.4: Relationship between Job Performance and Level of Job Commitment of Female Academics in universities

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev	N	R	P	Remark
Job commitment	47.3733	5.5787	1125	.991**	.000	Sig.
Job performance	50.2453	6.1902				

**Sig. at .01 level

Interpretations and Discussion:

It is shown in the Table 4.4 that there is significant relationship between job performance and job commitment ($r=.991^{**}$, $N = 1125$, $P < 0.5$).

Hence, job commitment had influence job performance in the study.

Null hypothesis is rejected.

The findings of the present study show there is significant relationship between job performance and job commitment. This assertion corroborate Luthans, & Yousef (2007), they reported that employees who are committed are more likely to perform well than the employees who are not. This assertion was supportes Aamodt (2004), that organisational commitment and job satisfaction can lead to improvement in performance because lack of these attitudes are more related to desire to quit, miss work and reduce effort which can lead to decrease in job performance. This finding suggests that employees who are committed to their organisations are more likely not only to remain with the organisation but are also likely to exert more effort on behalf of the organisation and work towards its success and therefore will be better performers than the uncommitted employees. This implies that job performance would foster organisational commitment among employees and committed employees in turn

would put in extra effort on behalf of their organisation, which consequently would lead to high levels of performance.

The findings of past research have been inconclusive James (2000); Mohr and Puck, (2007); Neck (2000) and James, (2000) note that the correlation between commitment and job performance is relatively low but positive. Whilst, Moshavi & James (2002); Yousef, (2000) and Lee and Mowday (1989), report a negligible relationship established between commitment and job performance. Tepper, (2003) and Meyer and Allen's (1996) observe a positive relationship between affective commitment and job performance and a negative relationship between continuance commitment and job performance. Puig and Marti (2007) observe that, there is no relationship between organisational commitment and job performance.

Differences on the Basis of Rank and Ownership of Universities and Job Commitment of Female Academic Staff in Universities

This is achieved and explained below based on objective (v) and Hypothesis four using Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The hypothesis is as stated: There is no difference in job commitment of female academics on the basis of rank and ownership of university

Table 4.5.a: Rank and Job Commitment of Female Academic Staff in Universities

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Crit-t	Cal-t.	DF	P
Junior academic staff	922	46.8926	5.8081				
Senior Lecturers and above	203	49.5567	5.3852	1.96	6.263	1123	.000

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ level

Interpretations and Discussion:

Table 4.5a provides information on female academic staff job commitment on basis of rank. Junior academic staff (Assistant Female Lecturers to Lecturers 1) had a mean of 46.8926 and senior academic staff (Senior Lecturers and above) had a mean of 49.5567. By implication those in the senior rank are more committed than those in junior academic cadre. The table therefore, showed that there was significant difference in the female academic staff

job commitment on basis of rank (Crit-t = 1.96, Cal.t = 6.263, df = 1123, P < .05 level of significance).

The null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

The finding reveals that female academic staff in senior ranks in universities are more committed than those in the junior ranks. This finding supports the works of Poskitt, (1999); Hakim (2000); Schuster and Finkelstein, (2006) and Cress and Hart (2009) who agree that workers in senior ranks are more committed than those in the junior ranks. Jones and Gittins (2009), assert that the clustering of women in the low ranks which affect commitment to their job is the result of universities' conservative traditional cultures and systems. He refers to it as overt and covert "glass-ceiling" that impedes academic women's career path. Women are mainly represented in the low and middle level academic positions and their participation relative to men decreases at successive levels which invariably affect commitment to their job because of lack of female role models and mentors (Ogbogu, 2009). Kan (2007) attributes the disadvantageous position of women in the universities to the organisational structure which, according to him, shapes and defines the behaviour of woman. This trend has implications on the commitment, performance and academic development of women in academia.

Notable researchers on women in academics have identified various obstacles inhibiting their career development, advancement and commitment (Currie, Thiele, Harris, 2002; Manson & Golden, 2004). Studies by Doherty and Manfredi, (2006) Davies & Thomas (2002) and Probert (2005) report that women in academics experience greater isolation, higher level of stress, a lower sense of self-efficacy and self-confidence and more difficulty in establishing relationships with colleagues, a feeling of being an outsider in masculine culture especially for female academics in the junior ranks. This trend has implications on the commitment, performance and academic development of female in academia. A number of

scholars (Curtis, 2005; Harris, 2000; Poole, 2005; Mason & Golden 2002) argue that the scheduling of work and structure of workplaces are built around a model of an ideal worker who is relatively unencumbered by responsibilities outside of paid labour, best represented by a man with a wife at home to manage family responsibilities. Cress and Hart (2009) and Williams (2000) also affirm that academia is built on a male worker norm because women are reported looked down upon as less qualified or committed to academics because they have families. This finding corroborate the positions of Sweet and Meon, (2002) Nakhaie, (2007); Creamer, (2006) and Probert, (2005) according to them some women in academics had opted to putting their career on hold because of domestics and family responsibilities while other women resigned to fate that is, never achieving senior positions. This accounted for some of the reasons why women in low ranks are not as committed as those in the senior ranks. Women have less time to devote to their careers when their domestic responsibilities include spouses and children. It has often been shown that women do much more household chores than men. In support of this White (2003), affirmss that women who lag behind when bearing and caring for young children do not usually pick up and close the gap when children grow up and are less dependent .

Studies have established that having a mentor assists women in career advancement and commitment (Russrl, 2009; Green & Puetzer, 2002; Darwin & Palmer, 2009; Etkowitz, Uzzi & Kemelgor, 2000). They report that mentoring relationship lead towards a higher satisfaction, trust, self-efficacy, achievement of career goals and encourage individuals for higher commitment to organisational development. Women in academia have continued to face barriers in acquiring nurturing mentorship which subsequently appears to have the number of women who achieve prominence in their field. The reluctance of academic men to serve as mentors or role models because of the few number of female in academics, affect the career development and commitment of female academics in the junior rank (Hult, Callister & Sullivan, 2005). There are various individual and organisational factors that inhibit the

prospering of mentoring relationships for women. For instance, women's career patterns often include late career entry, more interruptions related to family or catering roles and few advancement opportunities all of which are factors that impair the forming of a mentorship (Noe, 1988). Ramey (1993) asserts that women with mentors are more determined to climb the career ladder and aimed at becoming professors and even deans of faculties.

Findings reveal that exclusion from networking affects female academics' commitment and career progression. Networking in academics involves informal power groups whose members are in a better position to make (implicit) decisions about academic rank, status and position of an academic. Academic women are often excluded from academic networks this often puts them at a disadvantage (Kaufman 1978; O'Leary & Mitchell 1990; Toren 1991; Vazquez-Cupeiro & Elston, 2006).

Findings also shows that genderised stereotypes and discrimination against women in academia are barriers to women in academics' career development and commitment (Thomas, Bierema, & Landau 2004; Oakley, 2000). The university has been perceived as traditionally elitist and patriarchal in its workplace culture, structure and value. Husu (2001) asserts that clustering of women in low ranks is the result of universities conservative traditional cultures and systems. He refers to it as overt and covert "glass-ceiling" that impedes academic women's career paths. The "glass-ceiling" manifests in the form of male managerial style and informal organisational cultures which he refers to as the "old boys club". Kraus (2002) supports this view by arguing that workplace culture and specifically the reward structure, shape preferences for work and account for the gender gap in academia.

Further, Winslow, (2010) affirms that universities reproduce gender differences via their internal structure and everyday practices. He further attributes the disadvantageous position of women in the universities to the organisational structure which, according to him, shapes and defines the behaviour of woman. Since the problem rests in the structure, the remedy is a fundamental change to eliminate inappropriate discrimination in the institutional

policies and practices. On the average, women stay longer in each rank than their male colleagues which affect their commitment to their job. As a result, they often do not make it to the top, to the rank of full professor before the obligatory retirement age (Harris, 2009).

Institutional Ownership and Job Commitment of Female Academic Staff in Universities

Table 4.5.b: Difference in Institutional Ownership and Job Commitment of Female Academic in Universities

Source	Sum of square	DF	Mean square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model (Explained)	1531.832	2	765.916	75.691	.000
Institutional Ownership (Main Effect)	1531.832	2	765.916	25.691	.000
Error (Residual)	33449.368	1122	29.812		
Corrected Total	34981.200	1124			

Table 4.5.c: Table showing the mean scores of the analysis

Treatment	Mean	S.D	N
Federal Government	48.4226	5.2222	381
State Government	48.1429	5.4354	308
Privately Owned	45.9128	5.6765	436
Total	47.3733	5.5787	1125

Interpretations and Discussion:

Table 7 4.5.b, shows that there is significant difference in Female Academic Staff Job Commitment based on Institutional Ownership ($F(2,1122) = 25.691, P < .05$).

Null hypothesis is rejected.

However, in order to determine which university in terms of ownership has the most committed female academic staff, a post-hoc analysis was carried out as shown in Table 4.5,c it is shown that respondents from the federal government universities are most committed with the highest mean score of 48.4226, followed by state governments owned universities with a mean score of 48.1492 and privately owned universities have a mean score of 45.9128.

This shows that female academic staff in federal universities are most committed followed by state universities and privately owned institutions.

Finding from this study corroborates the earlier findings by Adekola (2012), Johnson and Johnson (2000), Osagie (2009) that staff of government owned universities are more committed to their job than staff of privately owned universities. This is because they enjoy regular pay, academic freedom, guaranteed tenure of employment in term of job security, structured disengagement procedure, guaranteed training and development programmes all leading to better job security. The academic freedom, a hallmark of the employment condition in government owned Universities are almost non-existent in Private Universities thereby eroding a fundamental aspect of job satisfaction for academic staff in particular. Adekola (2012) also reports that there is no doubt, the heavy work schedule, under-funding and continued pressure of low enrolment which constantly threatens the operational budgets of private universities in Nigeria are contributory factors to reasons why staff employed in such institutions may never feel committed as their jobs are constantly on the line whenever the universities do not enroll enough students to guarantee even their salaries which in most cases are much lower than what is being paid in government owned universities. As a result commitment seems to be higher among staff of government owned universities as job security is higher in them. Private owned universities are not able to provide the kind of incentives and job security provided by government owned universities to their employees, as a result their staff feel insecure about their job status and are constantly having a mind of changing the job when they have opportunity, which usually affects commitment to their job.

Reasons for the above may not be unconnected with fact that federal and state universities seem to provide high level of perceived job security and there is a well-defined system as regards appointment, retrenchment and retirement of staff from the institution.

This is unconnected with the fact that employment in government owned agencies are more secured as most government owned agencies operated more on the basis of the

philosophy of “social development” instead of “profit making”. Work pressure and the constant demand for staff to deliver on targets are therefore usually less which gives such employees more freedom and better job security as the fear of being sacked for not meeting particular targets that are vital to organisational expectations of profit is far less. The drive to deliver on targets or “get fired” syndrome is very high in the Private sector employment including even the private universities.

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the summary of the findings of this study. Conclusions are made based on the summary and recommendations were equally suggested. Limitations to the study and suggestions for future researches are made.

Summary

The study attempted to provide a better understanding of some psycho-social factors predicting job commitment among female academic staff in universities in South Western Nigeria. From the analyses, the following summaries were made:

The first chapter of the study focused on a general introduction. It covers background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives, significance and scope of the study. Some terminologies that may appear ambiguous were carefully defined under operational definitions of terms so as to aid understanding of the study. Also research questions were raised to elicit response from respondents.

The second chapter of the study focused on literature review and theoretical framework. This chapter contained comprehensive review of past but related literature on the issues and concepts relevant to the study. Theoretical framework provided the theoretical backing for the study and also assisted the researcher in developing models for the study. The two theories reviewed were Meyer and Allen's theory of organisational commitment and Feminist theory. The chapter ended with formulated of hypothesis.

Chapter three of the study dwelt on research methodology. It comprises research design, the study population, sample and sampling technique, research instruments, validity and reliability of instrument, procedure for data administration and collection, conduct of in-depth interview schedule as well as procedure for data analysis.

The fourth chapter of the study provided the result of the findings and discussions. The data collected were analysed and presented through the use of statistical methods and simple percentages. The use of the multiple regression univariate, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and 't- test were utilised to test the research questions raised in the study.

Finally, the fifth chapter presented the summary, conclusion, and recommendations. Also, the limitations of the study and suggestions for further studies are contained in this chapter.

The findings of this study revealed that:

Seven out of ten variables (educational attainment, mentoring, networking, self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-concept and work value) had significant prediction on job commitment among female academic staff in universities in South Western Nigeria; while three variables (age, marital status and work experience) had no significant prediction. Also, the major findings from this study revealed among other things that:

- Psychological variables were significantly related to job commitment. Self-esteem had the highest coefficient value with .577**, followed by self- concept which is .517** next is work value with .468** and self-efficacy with .344**.
- There was significant correlation between social variables and job commitment. education, mentoring, and networking among female academic staff in universities in South Western Nigeria but there was none between job commitment and marital status, age and work experience.
- There was significant relationship between job performance and job commitment ($r=.991^{**}$, $N = 1125$, $P < 0.5$).
- It was established that there was significant difference in Female Academic Staff Job commitment on basis of rank (Crit-t = 1.96, Cal.t = 6.263, df = 1123, $P < .05$ level of

significance). The finding revealed that female academic staff in senior ranks in universities in South Western Nigeria were more committed than those in the junior ranks.

- There was significant difference in female academic staff Job commitment based on institutional ownership ($F(2,1122) = 25.691, P < .05$). It was shown that respondents from federal government universities were most committed with the highest mean score of 48.4226 followed by state governments owned universities with a mean score of 48.1492 and privately owned universities have a mean score of 45.9128.

Conclusion

All the ten psycho-social variables (mentoring, networking, self-efficacy, self-esteem, self-concept, work value age, marital status, educational attainment, and work experience) predicted job commitment of female academic staff in universities in South Western Nigeria both directly and indirectly. Also, some variables were more important than others in determining job commitment of female academic staff in South Western universities in Nigeria. For instance, self-esteem is the most important factor. It did not only make the highest prediction on female academic staff job commitment, but also, the highest total effect. This is not unconnected with the fact that self-esteem indicates the extent to which individual believes she is competent, capable, significant, and worthy as an organisational member (Gardner & Pierce 2001).

Recommendations

- Female academics should be involved in networking in order to support and provide necessary information that will assist in the advancement of their academic career.
- Attribution biases and tokenism should be avoided as it may affect the recruitment and promotion of female academics.

- Re-evaluating promotion procedures and activities by adopting a more women- friendly concept of what constitutes a career.
- Greater recognition should be given to women's family and domestic responsibilities. They experience conflict between expectations of academic culture and personal responsibilities as insensitivity to family issues and workplace inflexibility may be great impediments to women in academia.
- Universities should consider the creation of "research incubators" to assist female academics to become productive researchers and publishers of their researches. The incubators should not only focus on the very young but also researchers returning to academic career after childbearing.
- Universities should create academic leadership development programmes, specifically to encourage female academics to strive towards higher levels of academia. Training and development programmes should encapsulate important values and expectations of employees within universities. Such programmes may target all employees considering promotion and managerial positions within universities. These should include academic management options, for example becoming programme coordinators, directors of units/ institutions within the university system, heads of departments and deans of faculties.
- Even at the departmental level, departments can improve the likelihood of appointing, retaining and eventually promoting more women by implementing a strategy that changes the culture, climate, day to day practices and expectations to reduce subtle forms of discrimination.

Contributions to Knowledge

The essence of carrying out any research work is to extend the frontier of knowledge. This study was carried out with this same objective, especially in finding out factors that

predict the job commitment of female academics in universities. It has contributed to the extension of the frontier of knowledge in the following ways:

- The study has shown the predictive power of the selected factors in the determination of the job commitment of female academic staff in universities.
- It has specifically underscored the importance of self-esteem as one of the major determinants of job commitment of female academic staff in universities. It therefore serves as a pointer that individual self-esteem is an important variable in determining job commitment especially of the female academic staff in the universities.
- This study has shown that women are still under represented at all level of academics, they are concentrated in less senior positions, women suffer from dual responsibilities at work and at home . The researcher is of the opinion that authorities concerned should re-evaluate promotion procedure and activities and adopt a more women friendly concept of what constitutes a career,
- Also, the study has shown that female academics can improve their job commitment when they have positive self-concept about themselves.

Finally, the study has produced a new model, considered tenable in explaining interactions between the Psycho-social variables and female academic staff job commitment in universities in Nigeria.

Limitations to the Study

Certain factors served as limitations to this study. For instance, extraneous variables such as work organisational environment, availability of facilities, job satisfaction, job performance, organisational leadership and others that could influence the findings of the study were outside the scope of this study.

Suggestions for Further Research Studies

The limitations in this study are pointers to the fact that there is the need for further research studies. The scope of the work could be widened to incorporate such characteristics as socio-cultural cum economic background, and previous work experience. Also, the effects of job satisfaction as well as job performance on female academic staff job commitments can be researched. Further, female academic staff's attitudes towards their job could be explored as this may predict their commitment.

UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

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Appendix I

**DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN, IBADAN
PSYCHO-SOCIAL VARIABLES PREDICTING FEMALE ACADEMIC STAFF'S
JOB COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE**

Dear Respondent,

All the attached questionnaires are basically meant to elicit information on female academic staffs' socio-psychological variables that predict their job commitment in Universities. They are primarily for research purpose. All your responses will therefore, be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Your maximum cooperation is hereby solicited.

Thank you..

PART ONE

FEMALE ACADEMIC STAFF'S SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

Instruction: Kindly indicate your response by putting a tick (✓) appropriately.

Please, Note: MLM (Most Like Me) =4, LM (Like Me) =3, LLM (Least Like Me) =2, LM (Not Like Me) =1

SA (Strongly Agree) =4, A (Agree) =3, D (Disagree) =4, SD (Strongly Disagree) =1

Age:	Marital Status:	Ownership of Institution
20-29 <input type="checkbox"/>	Single <input type="checkbox"/>	Federal Government <input type="checkbox"/>
30-39 <input type="checkbox"/>	Married <input type="checkbox"/>	State Government <input type="checkbox"/>
40-49 <input type="checkbox"/>	Divorced <input type="checkbox"/>	Private owned <input type="checkbox"/>
50+s <input type="checkbox"/>		

Length of Service: 2-7 8-12 12-18 19 and above

Educational Attainment: M.Ed., M.Sc., M.BA, M.A. Ph.D.

Rank: Asst.Lect.- Lect 1 Snr. Lect. and above

PART TWO

JOB COMMITMENT SCALE

Instruction: Kindly read through the following statements and rate accordingly. You are to tick (✓) your response.

S/N	Statements	SA	A	D	SD
1	I am fully committed to academics as a career choice				
2	Working as an academic is important to me.				
3	I would not feel guilty if I leave my institution now.				
4	If I had not already put so much effort into the institution I might consider working elsewhere.				
5	I will remain at this job even if I am offered another position with a higher salary.				
6	My career as an academic staff is a central interest in my life.				
7	I would not leave this job even if I was offered a job for the same salary but with less stress.				
8	I do always display extra efforts on behalf of my work organisation.				
9	I have strong loyalty and attachment to the organisation.				
10	There is always a strong desire for me to remain a member of my work organisation				
11	I do feel a strong sense of belonging in this line of career.				
12	I am committed to working at this job even though it can be quite stressful at times.				
13	I am constantly trying to improve the skills I need for success in my career choice.				
14	I feel would not be irresponsible if I do not keep up with developments in my line of career.				
15	I am very willing to identify with the goals and values of the organisation.				

PART THREE

Section A: SELF- CONCEPT SCALE

Instruction: Kindly read through the following statement and rate accordingly. You are to tick (√) your response.

S/N	Statements	MLM	LM	LLM	NLM
1	I am confident of what other people think about my work.				
2	I usually feel nervous because I fear I might not perform as expected.				
3	I am confident of what people say about my loyalty and attachment to the organisation.				
4	Advice and assistance from colleagues enhance my personal belief in my ability to become a successful lecturer.				
5	My institution was conducive to my overall social adjustment.				
6	I am not shy in seeking assistance from my colleagues.				
7	My decision to become an academic staff was self-derived.				
8	I derive confidence from identifying with the goals and values of my institution.				
9	I am willing to display extra efforts on behalf of the organisation.				
10	As an academic staff, when giving less than desirable feedback about my work, I view such feedback as biased and doubtful about my job.				
11	I am confident to be identified with the goals and values of the organisation.				
12	I often have a desire to be a member my institution.				

Section B: SELF-EFFICACY SCALE

Instruction: Kindly read through the following statements and rate accordingly. You are to tick (√) your responses.

S/N	Statements	1= NOT all true	2= Hardly true	3= moderately true	4= Exactly true
1	I can always manage to solve difficult problems in my career if I try hard enough.				
2	I can always find the means and ways to get what I want even if someone opposes me in my career.				
3	I have a strong desire to belong to my institution to accomplish my professional goal.				
4	I can remain a strong member of the organisation whatever the situation.				
5	I can always display extra efforts on behalf of the organisation.				
6	I can solve most problems in my career if I invest the necessary effort.				
7	I can rely on my coping abilities to remain calm when facing difficulties in my profession.				
8	When I am confronted with problem in my profession, I can find several solutions.				
9	I can be identified with the goals and values of the organisation.				
10	I can improve my loyalty and attachment to the organisation.				

Section C: SELF-ESTEEM SCALE (SES)

Instruction: Kindly read through the following statements and rate accordingly. You are to tick (√) your responses.

S/N	Statements	SA	A	D	SD
1	I feel that in my career I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.				
2	I feel that I have a number of good qualities in my career.				

3	All in all, in my job activities I am willing to display extra effort on behalf of my institution.				
4	I am able to achieve as most other people in my career.				
5	I feel I have much to be proud of in my career.				
6	I certainly feel identified with the goals and values of the organisation				
7	On the whole, I have strong desire to remain a member of the organisation.				
8	I wish I could have more respect for myself in my career.				
9	I feel highly loyal and attached to my organisation.				
10	I have strong desire to belong to the organisation.				

PART FOUR - SOCIAL FACTORS SCALE

Instruction: Kindly read through the following statements and rate accordingly. You are to tick (✓) your responses.

S/N	Statements	SA	A	D	SD
1	Networking helps women not to lag behind academically.				
2	Women overcome the barriers to top academic positions through networking.				
3	Networking helps in elevating women to top academic positions.				
4	Women have access to information networks and are not excluded from informal relationship with male colleagues				
5	Networking is an important communication strategy in academics				
6	Women are aware of the importance of networking in displaying extra effort on behalf of the institution.				

7	Mentoring is an effective tool in academics..				
8	Everyone who makes it in life has a mentor				
9	For women to have a sense of belonging in academics they should have a mentor for proper guidance and counselling.				
10	Mentors act as role models and help mentee juggle and balance professional and personal life.				
11	My ability to perform may be attributed to mentor who enhance my academic experience				
12	Mentoring is very important in facilitating career successes of protégés				
13	I identify with the goals and values of the organisation based on my mentor's advice.				

SECTION C
MARITAL STATUS

14	I have little time for my job as a married academic staff				
15	Marital Status of female academics affect the quality of research she produces				
16	Single female academic staff devote more time to her job than married female academic staff				
17	Family support encourage me to develop a strong desire to remain a member of my institution				
18	I can perform better despite my numerous social engagements				
19	My job as an academia suffer due to the time I usually devote for my family				
20	I always display extra effort on behalf of my institution with the support of my spouse				

SECTION D
AGE

21	I am more committed to my job as an elderly female academic staff				
22	My age does not affect the level of my job commitment				
24	Younger female academia in term of age are more committed than older female academia				

25	younger academic staff in term of age are able to copy with difficulties in academics than older academic staff				
26	Older academic staff do not depend on others to carry out their work activities				
SECTION E RANK					
27	Senior female academic staff are more committed to their job				
28	I believe that the level of job commitment is a reflection of the rank				
29	The higher you rise on the job the more committed you are				
30	Senior female academic staff always display extra effort on behalf of their institution				
31	My rank determines my loyalty and attachment to my organsation				
32	My ability to perform as female academia is determined by my rank				
SECTION E WORK EXPERIENCE					
33	The number of years have spent on my job has nothing to do with my work experience				
34	The more experience I gain the higher my level of job commitment				
35	Based on my experience, my university promotion policies are fair to women, this enhance my desire to remain a member of the university				
36	Experience in research and publications develop my desire to belong to my university				
37	I am strong enough to overcome the stress involve in academics based on my experience as a female academics				
38	My experience as a female academic staff taught me to display extra efforts on behalf of my university.				
39	The more experience I gain the higher my job commitment				

SECTION H: WORK VALUE SCALE (WVS)

Instruction: Kindly read through the following statements and rate accordingly. You are to tick (√) your responses.

SN		1=Not all true	2=Hardly true	3=Moderately true	4=Exactly true
1	I am well paid in prestigious position.				
2	I do not depend on others to carry out my work activities				
3	As an academic staff I have the opportunity to teach others what I know				
4	I get along well with my colleagues				
5	I feel a strong desire to remain a member of my institution				
6	I feel a sense of fulfillment in my job				
7	I attach strong loyalty and value to my work				
8	I have adequate freedom and independence in my job				
9	Experience in research and publications develop my desire to belong to the work organisation.				
10	I solve the problems of others				
11	As a lecturer I have the opportunity to do things the way I want to do them				
12	My job gives me the opportunity to use my great potentials				
13	I can display extra effort on behalf of my institution				
14	I get along well with my colleagues				
15	As academic staff, people respect me.				

16	In my institution, there are adequate facilities for me to carry out my job				
17	I have good opportunity for salary increases				
18	As a lecturer I am willing to identify with the goals and values of my institution.				

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