Debate about gender discrimination in public and private offices is far from been over as it remains topical. Women occupy important positions in the society and socio-economic realm especially the informal sector. Little number of highly skilled women competes with men for jobs in order to ensure regular income and other to achieve different home survival strategies, or to meet their obligations in women-headed households. Consequently, this study investigates the level of satisfaction of carrier women in terms of the job and its income. Using survey method, the study seeks to know the degree of gender discrimination in terms of income, nature of job, sex, sexual abuse and how these are affecting women’s job satisfaction. The found that whether pay inequality exist or not it does not affect women’s level of job satisfaction. It also found that 45 percent of them have been exposed to a form of sexual harassment.

Key words: Job Satisfaction, income, women, Sexual harassment

INTRODUCTION

The index benchmarks for national gender gap focus on Economic, Political, Educational attainment and Health-based criteria. This research focuses on the economic aspect that involves economic participation and opportunity for women. Despite global efforts to curbing gender discrimination against women at the work place, there is still an enormous gender gap yet to close (Blau and Kahn (2007), Hertz et al (2008)). Gender discrimination in employment involves unfair treatment received because of gender while in employment or in the process of getting a job. This discrimination is often against women and it exist in various forms including discrimination in earnings, promotions, nature of job, benefits, sexual harassment and pregnancy discrimination. Several reasons account for these various forms. The traditional and religious view of women’s role as homemakers caring for the elderly, childbearing, child rearing and housekeeping is one reason for gender discrimination at work. As homemakers, women are pushed into working in specific economic sectors (the so called “women sectors” include teaching, nursing and cleaning) and being small-scale entrepreneurs. This is usually to allow for flexibility between labour force participation and fulfilling responsibilities at home. Hence, gender differences along this dimension contribute to differences in the nature of job performed which continues to exist (Fortin 2005). Another important reason for workplace gender discrimination is the level of education and experience of women compared to men. Women in some cases have lower level of education than
their men counterpart although this is more prevalent among the older workers than the younger workers hence the tendency for discrimination in earnings. This is complemented by higher number of years of work experience for men as compared to women. Hence, level of education and work experience accounts for gender discrimination in earnings. The Focus of this research is on gender gap inequality. Why focus on gender gap inequality in the first place?

There are enormous benefit to closing the gender-gap on women, families, organizations and the nation at large. Evidence from around the world shows that women benefit when economically empowered. At the least, they are free from violence and poverty. Other benefits include financial independence, improved health care, freedom and happiness, which all culminate into a higher standard of living. Delisle (2008) found that improving women’s resources is critical for equity and for the health of children. Also in Gill et al (2007), women with gainful employment and other economic opportunities are found to have positive effect on reducing maternal mortality and increasing maternal health service utilization. Furthermore, it has been observed that families benefit when women are economically empowered and when women have more influence over economic decisions their families allocate more income to food, health, education, children’s clothing and children’s nutrition (FAO, 2011). Benefits of women empowerment also extends into economic growth and development. In fact, it is only with improving gender equality can nations truly achieved sustainable economic growth and development. Women empowerment has the likelihood of immediate benefits accruing to the families as they are found to be healthier, better fed, with rise in their income, savings and investment. Another dimension to this is that the most important determinant of a country’s competitiveness is its human talent, that is, the skills, education and productivity of its workforce (WEF). Hence the larger the workforce the more competitive the economy will be and the larger it will grow. Therefore bringing in more women productively and efficiently can only make the workforce larger (Klasen and Lamanna (2009), Kabeer and Natali (2013); Berik et al (2009)).

In the light of this, the study investigates the relationship between women income and job satisfaction, which is found to be weak and statistically insignificant. Furthermore, a factor of job satisfaction that influences the nature of job women are involved in is also investigated. It is found that factors including job flexibility, cordial relation with co-workers and adequate supervision at work all influence the nature of job female workers venture in, which is not found in just one economic sector. Finally, it is found that female sexual harassment exists in the work place and it only influences their job satisfaction in very little extent.

In what follows the next section reviews the research on income, nature of job and sexual harassment of the female worker as against job satisfaction. Section 3 goes on to describe the data and discusses methodology. In section 4, the analysis is presented and the results are explained. The conclusion and suggestion for future research is presented in section 5.

FEMALE INCOME AND WOMEN JOB SATISFACTION

So many researches have explored the pay gap between men and women in the labour force. Wage inequality implies men and women with similar qualifications, doing the same jobs with women earning far less than their male peers do.
Wage Inequality in Nigeria and Beyond

In order to understand the world trend in gender wage inequality as well as country specific trend especially that of Nigeria, we make use of data from the World Economic Forum website (www.weforum.org). This uses the gender gap index to examine the gap between men and women in four fundamental categories: economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, and political empowerment. The Economic participation and opportunity category relates to the sub-topic and thus captures the remuneration gap. The remuneration gap is captured through a hard data indicator (ratio of estimated female-to-male earned income) and a variable calculated through the World Economic Forum’s Executive Opinion Survey (wage equality for similar work).

Figure 2.1 gives a global trend in wage inequality, which shows the rate between 2006 and 2016 hovering around 0.6 to 0.66 just a little above average with an equality benchmark of 1 indicating gender parity in pay. As the graph depicts, the global average rate adjusted for population has remained relatively stable over the last 10 years. However, it shows that lots of effort needs to be put into achieving global gender wage parity.

Source: Authors compilation from WEF Global Gender Reports 2006 -2016

Down to the country specific data, in order to compare Nigeria’s gender wage inequality with the rest of the world, we picked the countries within the first-ten position in gender wage gap including Nigeria as at 2006 and then show how they have fared in 10 years. Table 2.1 and figure 2.2 shows that as at 2006 Nigeria ranked ninth position out of 115 countries and as at 2016 has 25th position out of 144 countries. It seems difficult to compare the position in 2006 with that of 2016 as the number of countries included in the survey increased over the years and thus brings us to focusing on the values. While Nigeria started with 0.81 in 2006, it fell gradually to 0.75 in 2016 except for the sudden rise in 2008 to 0.88. Thus, it can be concluded that Nigeria fares well with an index almost close to 1. The only negative comment here is that Nigeria gender gap did not improve positively over the last 10 years. This trend is also seen from a first look at Figure 2 for the countries listed.
Table 2.1

| Year | Zambia | Tanzania | Benin | Georgia | Thailand | Tunisia | Malaysia | Singapore | Nigeria | Indonesia |
|------|--------|----------|-------|---------|----------|---------|----------|-----------|---------|-----------|
| 2006 | 0.86<sup>1st</sup> | 0.85<sup>2nd</sup> | 0.82<sup>3rd</sup> | 0.84<sup>4th</sup> | 0.81<sup>5th</sup> | 0.81<sup>6th</sup> | 0.81<sup>7th</sup> | 0.81<sup>8th</sup> | 0.81<sup>9th</sup> | 0.79<sup>10th</sup> |
| 2007 | 0.76 | 0.72 | 0.75 | 0.77 | 0.81 | 0.84 | 0.8 | 0.82 | 0.82 | 0.84 |
| 2008 | 0.75 | 0.76 | 0.68 | 0.82 | 0.77 | 0.83 | 0.75 | 0.78 | 0.88 | 0.74 |
| 2009 | 0.76 | 0.72 | 0.73 | 0.82 | 0.76 | 0.78 | 0.73 | 0.79 | 0.81 | 0.72 |
| 2010 | 0.76 | 0.68 | 0.75 | 0.78 | 0.79 | 0.79 | 0.76 | 0.80 | 0.78 | 0.7 |
| 2011 | 0.76 | 0.68 | 0.77 | 0.76 | 0.77 | 0.77 | 0.81 | 0.81 | 0.77 | 0.67 |
| 2012 | 0.75 | 0.71 | 0.75 | 0.77 | 0.74 | ---** | 0.82 | 0.81 | 0.73 | 0.67 |
| 2013 | 0.76 | 0.68 | 0.7 | 0.76 | 0.76 | ---** | 0.81 | 0.80 | 0.74 | 0.7 |
| 2014 | 0.79 | 0.65 | ---* | 0.72 | 0.81 | 0.71 | 0.81 | 0.79 | 0.76 | 0.69 |
| 2015 | 0.82 | 0.65 | 0.76 | 0.74 | 0.77 | 0.65 | 0.81 | 0.82 | 0.73 | 0.65 |
| 2016 | ---* | 0.65<sup>62th</sup> | 0.73<sup>30th</sup> | 0.72<sup>44th</sup> | 0.77<sup>16th</sup> | 0.65<sup>71st</sup> | 0.79<sup>10th</sup> | 0.81<sup>4th</sup> | 0.75<sup>25th</sup> | 0.68<sup>3</sup> |

Source: Author’s compilation from WEF Global Gender Reports 2006-2016

* missing values due to lack of updated data

** missing values due to social unrest in the country

Empirical Studies on Wage Inequality and Women Job Satisfaction

Having established the existence of wage inequality, we analyse studies showing the relationship in wage inequality and women job satisfaction. First, do women really care about the amount of salaries they receive and does it influence their job satisfaction? Kara and Murrmann (2011) using Chi-square analysis finds that women in lodging industry in Turkey possess job satisfaction relative to their income level. Women with lower income have lower job satisfaction while women with higher income have higher job satisfaction. This study is further buttress in Shaheen (2014) also using Chi-square analysis finds that income among other factors plays an important role in female medical officers’ job satisfaction.

The focus here is to establish if female workers do care about the salaries they receive and thus if any inequality in wages exists has ability to influence their job satisfaction. Such that if the
amount of salaries received influences their job satisfaction, only then will any perceived gender wage gap will influence their job satisfaction. Basically because women are perceived as home makers who have responsibilities at home to care for the young and elderly, as well as taking care of the home. A correct blend of work and home responsibilities for most women is usually difficult to achieve. Hence, women do prefer jobs that create this balance irrespective of any inequality in pay achieved. Several studies find that women derive higher job satisfaction from jobs that allows time flexibility (Bender et al (2005), Lopez Boo et al (2009), Vlosky and Aguilar (2009)). For instance, in Bender et al (2005) using chi-square analysis on US data explained the overall job satisfaction of the female worker and find that women have higher job satisfaction than the male counterpart when the job allows for more flexibility. That flexibility in the work place accounts for the most important factor that contributes to women job satisfaction hence the reason why women prefer self-employment or take careers that allow for flexibility. Though, studies have shown that work-schedule flexibility accounts for severe wage losses for women and one reason for the wage gap experienced (Anderson et al (2003), Gangl and Ziefle (2009), Kuhhirt and Ludwig (2012)).

It is necessary to reiterate that wage inequality here is focused on men and women with same qualifications and job status earning different wages with that of the men having higher tendencies than the women do. Such inequality is proven to exist all around the world including Nigeria as shown from Table 1 and Figure1 above, with several studies complementing this result. In the survey conducted for seven countries in Brainerd (2000), she finds a persistent increase in wage inequality against women in the seven eastern European countries. Blunch (2010) also examines the existence of gender wage gap in the Eastern Europe and central Asia countries. Using data from the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the presence of a substantively large gender-earnings gap was observed. Gannon et al (2007) conducted study for six European countries namely UK, Ireland, Italy, Denmark, Spain and Belgium. Using 1995 European Structure of Earning survey, they find that gender wage differentials exist for workers employed in different sectors and that it is quite large in Ireland, Italy and UK while a moderate gap is found for the other countries. This depicts a fact that gender wage gap is prevalent in almost all countries irrespective of their level of development. For the Latin American Countries, Atal et al (2009) conducted a survey of wage inequality for 18 countries. Using a method of matching comparison, they find the existence of wage inequality in these countries with estimate of up to 27% gender wage differential. In African setting, Nordman et al (2011) examine the existence and intensity of gender earnings gap in seven West African countries. Using household survey data, they observe wide gender earnings gap widened by employment in the informal sector.

While it is established that gender wage inequality exist in our societies, several studies have proposed varying methods with regards closing the gap. Methods include increasing education parity for men and women across all levels, reducing the informal sector in the economy, regulating the private sector as employers have favouritism towards men (Kabubo-Mariara, 2003). Furthermore, Bargaining for equality in pay by working women and thus their refusal to accept low wages plays a significant role in closing the gender wage gap (Hunt, 2002). Achieving this will depend a lot on the labour force size in comparison with the number of jobs available. In a country with high unemployment rate, employees play almost no role in wage determination and the female worker bargaining power can be the least available. In addition, increasing the proportion of women holding positions at or near the top of organizational hierarchies plays a significant role towards gender wage parity (Cohen and Huffman, 2007). Since they have access to organizational resources and power that can be used to favour other female workers and thus reduce any gender-based biases. Although, this is not without its own limits as some women do have favouritism towards male employees (Correll and Bernard, 2005) and as organizations have
constitutions and law that binds them, the impact of female managers on other female workers may be limited. On a final note, attempts to closing the gender wage gap, there is need for legislations that bind employers against gender discriminatory practices. Unfortunately, the legislative tools available are usually underutilized due to lack of awareness. Mandatory wage disclosure laws among others are proposed as solutions to gender wage disparity (Edwards 2005, O’Neill 2010, and Kulow 2013). The focus is on laws that make employees especially women aware of unjustified wage disparity. Only with these laws will gender wage parity be achievable as employers are compelled to act in fairness. But then, to what extent does gender wage inequality influence women job satisfaction and thus their willingness to quit.

Several studies have researched into identifying the link between gender pay inequality and women job satisfaction (Oladejo et al (2012), Okpara (2004), Green et al (2016), Mumford (2014), Mueller and Kim (2008), Davidson (2014)). It is quite difficult to conclude if there is a causal relationship, and if out all there is one, it is difficult to ascertain positivity or negativity. Green et al (2016) used UK data consisting of approximately 10,000 individuals with responses for the period 1999-2008 and a US dataset from 2009-2012. Using a 7-value likert scale with 5 job satisfaction questions and Ordered Probit and OLS estimates, they find that over the period under study, women job satisfaction gradually declined and by 2012, it had vanished. This implies that in the past women did not care about wage differentials (among other job characteristics) between men and women; hence despite this wage gap they had high job satisfaction. However, in recent times, female workers care about the wages they receive hence according to Green et al (2016), this differentials really matter to them and as such influence their job satisfaction negatively. Mumford and Smith (2014) report a similar result using Britain data.

Buchanan (2005) on the other hand observed a contrary report using a random sample of 359 employees at a predominantly female organization using descriptive statistics alongside multiple regression analysis. For the multiple regression analysis, job satisfaction is regressed on relevant explanatory control variables including pay. He finds that women report similar levels of job satisfaction as compared to men, despite inequality in the pay structure. One reason observed for continuous high job satisfaction is that women are unable to perceive the gender inequality or are acquiescent to its existence. Mueller and Kim (2008) observe a similar result using data collected from 30 countries, that high women job satisfaction continues to exist despite gender wage differentials and thus termed it a global phenomenon. In Davidson (2014) where a similar result is also observed, it is noted that because women tend to select female referents that have lower pay than them, then feelings of a lower job satisfaction is not observed despite gender pay inequality. From the literature, there seems to be very little research conducted in the case of Nigeria with regards women job satisfaction despite pay inequality. Okpara (2004) who conducted a somewhat similar study in Nigeria focused only on job satisfaction for female bank managers. In his study with a sample size of 340 useable responses, he finds that female bank managers are less satisfied with their pay while being satisfied with other aspects of their work. One conclusion that can be deduced is that for female managers in the banking sector, one significant motivation for work is the pay hence any perceived gender pay inequality can have impact on their job satisfaction. Generally, these studies have demonstrated that there is some association between gender wage gap and women job satisfaction. Thus, this research investigates the relationship for female workers generally in Nigeria in order to get a definite relationship.

2.2 Occupational Segregation and Women Job Satisfaction

Occupational segregation is the distribution of workers, across and within occupations based on demographic characteristics such as gender, race or ethnicity. The focus of this study is on gender
and the studies reviewed are tailored as such. In this case, occupational segregation exists when workers are overrepresented in certain occupations and underrepresented in others based on gender discrimination. According to Anker et al (2003), occupational segregation against women is one of the most pernicious aspects of inequality in the labor market, since it brings about lower pay and worse working conditions for the female workers.

**Occupational Segregation in Nigeria**

Occupational segregation exists in two forms. It has both vertical and horizontal dimensions with focus on within and across occupation respectively. Significant differences between the aggregate number of males as compared to the females that exist from one occupation to the other, such that one group is overly represented refers to horizontal occupational segregation. While the vertical occupational segregation exists when one group (usually male) dominates the top of an occupational ladder. That is, men dominate the highest status job within a particular occupation or organization. However, to what degree does occupational segregation exists in our societies.

![Fig 2.3: Distribution of Employed Persons by Economic Activity and Sex](image)

Source: NBS National Manpower Stock and Employment Generation Survey.

Figure 2.3, shows the typical case of Horizontal occupational segregation in Nigeria. It relates data for year 2010 where the percentage of female labour force stood at 42.57% and a total labour force of 49,706,564 (The World Bank, 2016). The proportion of women in the various economic sectors varies significantly. Only in the wholesale and retail trade are women concentrated, a significant proportion of them can also be seen in Education and manufacturing. This depicts the typical case of women being concentrated in education as well as in trade.

In the case of vertical occupational segregation, more men with very few women are concentrated in the highest status jobs. Table 2.3 and Figure 2.4 depict the situation in Nigeria with regards high-ranking government administrators in the states for the period 2010-2015. The worst case is the governorship position where no woman attained the position for the entire period. This implies that 100% position is taken over by the male gender. The fairest position from the Table is the position of Director General, where women had about 17% in 2011; even with this position it is quite bad as men occupied 83% of the position.
With regards employment, available data is that of State civil service employment as shown in Table 2.4 and Figure 2.5 below. The Table shows that female employment at any of the cadre did not surpass 35% for the period studied. Given that in Nigeria, the government is highest employer of female workers as compared to private employers, then it shows the extent of female marginalization in employment.

**Table 2.4: Percentage of Women in State Employment by Cadre and Year**

| Grades    | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 |
|-----------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 01-06     | 24.5 | 30.6 | 28.5 | 27.6 | 21.2 |
| 07-10     | 31.5 | 30.6 | 34.7 | 35.3 | 24.7 |
| 12-14     | 30.8 | 33.6 | 34.4 | 34.6 | 36.4 |
| 15-17     | 24.6 | 24.8 | 26   | 27.5 | 27.9 |
| Special Grade | 33.7 | 29.4 | 37.3 | 26.5 | 28.5 |

Source: Extracted from NBS Statistical Report on Men and Women 2015
Empirical Evidence on Gender Job Segregation and Women Job Satisfaction

Several studies have attempted to explain the reasons for the existence of gender job segregation, and why it persists. A well-known reason is the fact that women have a caring nature thus efficient in caring for others including men, children and the elderly. This is the reason why they exist in large numbers in occupations such as Nursing, Social work, Teaching, and Midwifing. This, however, is a learned gender based difference (Anker, 2003). The skill is easily learnt and also based on the roles for which the girl child is subjected to prior to entering the labour market; it makes women more efficient in taking up such jobs. A major challenge associated is that the function is undervalued and as such, financial reward is often very small if at all there is anything. Much of the unpaid care work is performed by women and commonly left out of policy agendas due to a common misperception that, unlike standard market work measures it is too difficult to measure (Ferrant et al 2014). Reasons for such undervaluation include that it requires low skills, seen as a form of affection and not work and that it belongs to the women gender that do not necessarily require much income from work (Esplen, 2009). Once these women work is undervalued, their time, their effort and other resources used in providing care can violate their right to health and undermine their quality of life and well-being (Esplen, 2009).

Another well-known reason is the perception of women having less physical (muscular) strength that automatically disqualifies them for occupations requiring lots of physical strength. Such occupations include heavy lifting, mining, well drilling, sporting activating, and building construction. This affects women employment into such economic sectors and if eventually employed it can limit their promotion. For instance, a female fire fighter might miss advancement opportunities because she appears weaker than her male colleagues (Finn, 2017). Unfortunately, the employer is only making assumptions based strictly on gender without giving the female worker opportunity to test her complete strength and endurance (Finn, 2017). There is considerable overlap in the physical strength of individual women and men, which means that many women are physically capable of doing this work. A typical example is women participation in sports. Women participation in sport has a long history marked by division and discrimination.
but also one filled with major accomplishments by female athletes and important advances for
gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls (UN, 2007). Women have won several
trophies in sports and to the extent that women are taking up top management positions including
coaches and sports journalist. Sports involved in include football, weightlifting swimming, long
tennis, volleyball and basketball, which they are perceived too weak to handle. Due to this
discrimination, women find it difficult to enter some economic sector such as construction, mining
etc. which unfortunately for the women pay high wages. The main challenge, sometimes, is in not
giving them an opportunity to try. Quoting Anker 2003, the point in investigating and reducing
occupational segregation by sex is not to influence individual decisions on career choice but to
promote improvement of the quality of work life in general and wider the sphere of free truly
individual choices.

There are several implications associated with gender occupational segregation both on individual
and macro level. Quality of work suffers as it restricts labour market options for individuals,
affects the valuation and therefore remuneration from work and eventually increases pay
differentials. Also training and promotion opportunities are often unequally offered to men and
women thus reducing women’s opportunity for lifelong learning as women are viewed by their
employers sometimes as bad investment. On the macro level, sex segregation has a negative
impact on the efficiency and flexibility of the labour market as a whole. It restraints mobility
between male and female occupations and contributes thus to unemployment as well as short and
long-term skill gaps. For instance, study by Newman et al (2011) found that gender inequality in
the nursing profession is affecting the rate at which men enter into HIV/AIDS caregiving thus
causing health workforce shortages. One important implication is the impact on job satisfaction,
and thus, given the topic of this research work, a special focus is on the impact on women job
satisfaction, which leads to the review of a number of papers in this regard.

Bender et al (2005) studied the relationship between women job satisfaction and gender
composition of the workplace using US data. They employed multiple regression analysis with
explanatory variables including gender, education, tenure, age, union status, marital status,
establishment size, various job characteristics, as well as industrial and regional dummies. They
find strong evidence of a partial correlation between job satisfaction of females and the female
share of the workplace. The US data allow them to demonstrate that men and women values job
flexibility differently and hence the reason why women report higher job satisfaction. Using UK
data with multivariate analysis, Sloane et al (2005) finds a similar conclusion. They find that
women have higher job satisfaction in women dominated job than the women who work in men
dominated industry and that the more women dominate in the economic sector the higher the
women job satisfaction. Hence a degree of gender segregation is optimal for both men and women
and any attempt to enforce an equal distribution of men and women across occupations. They
suggest that government should concentrate on preventing employers from discriminating against
a minority of women who may prefer to obtain jobs in male dominated areas. Dockery and
Buchler (2015) using data from Australia rather split the women folk into two in order to arrive at
their conclusion. Group of mothers, wives, and older women on the one hand and group of
unmarried, younger, childless women on the other hand. They find that women from the first
group are more likely to have caring responsibilities and be doing more unpaid work are
especially more likely to prefer the type of work done in those occupations that are more highly
feminized. On the other hand, women from the second group are found not significantly more
satisfied with the type of work in feminized occupations relative to that done in other occupations.
In Janssen and Backes-Geller (2016) using 30,000 observations from Germany constructed a
multivariate analysis with job satisfaction as the dependent variable. They find that women tend to
report significantly higher satisfaction values in stereotypically female jobs with work climate and
work content but a lower job satisfaction with the income. The reverse is observed in stereotypically male jobs. In Nigeria, Aremu (2006) finds no significant impact on job satisfaction of women in the police force using 120 randomly selected of women in the police force. Mabekoje (2009) also arrived at a similar using a survey of 338 teachers from Ijebu North Education Zone, Ogun State Nigeria. Specifically, he finds that no gender differences exist in all nine dimensions of job satisfaction. Overall, these studies have demonstrated that there is some association between gender and job satisfaction. Consequently, this research adds to the literature by investigating the nature of job on women job satisfaction.

2.3 Sexual Harassment against Women and Women Job Satisfaction

Sexual Harassment at work is unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature that explicitly or implicitly affects an individual’s employment, unreasonably interferes with an individual’s work performance or creates an intimidating hostile or offensive work environment (US EEO). It affects both men and women and stems from seemingly mild transgressions and annoyances to actual sexual abuse or sexual assault. Examples of behaviours that are likely to constitute unlawful sexual harassment include physical contact, staring or leering, indecent exposure, comments or jokes of a sexual nature, sexual propositions, displaying offensive materials, sending sexually explicit texts and asking intrusive questions about a person’s private life or physical appearances. It is important to note that sexual harassment has nothing to do with mutual attraction or friendship. Sexual harassment definition do not prohibit the usual social interaction which sometimes is of a sexual nature among people who work together people can get acquainted, joke together, or ask for a date as long as that is welcomed by the parties involved (Noah, 2010). Once, behaviour or a contact of a sexual nature is approved by both parties involved, then it is not harassment.

Sexual harassment exists because of power imbalance, that is, from the superior to the subordinate. Hence, because men usually hold positions of authority, it is most common for them to harass women although the opposite also sometimes happens (Yusuf, 2010). Often times, sexual harassment goes unreported which is quite worrisome as it makes perpetrators unflinching in the offence. In Australia for instance only one out of five victims of sexual harassment made a formal report. According to Giumffre and Williams (1994), reasons for low report cases include: that sexual harassment is not seen as an actionable offence; lack of evidence prevents victims from reporting as they may not be believed; victims feel if reported, their claims may be taken unserious; supposed victims finds it difficult in differentiating between harassment or joking on the job. This phenomenon exists in virtually everywhere in our workplaces.

In Spain, the Women Institute shows that in 2006 almost 10% of female workers have suffered some form of sexual harassment at work in the last year. It also brings to light the fact that the most common profile of a sexual harasser in the workplace is that of a married man with children. In addition, the majority of harassers are middle managers and colleagues of victims (59%), followed by senior executives (20%) and customers of the company (14%). The study also reveals that victims rarely report incidents of harassment and only 8% of harassed women consider that their employer takes suitable action to avoid such conduct. In Australia 2012, just over one in five (21%) people has been sexually harassed since the age of 15. Out of which 68% of these people were harassed in the workplace. This implies that majority of sexual harassments that occur emanates in the workplace. One in 4 women (25%) and one in six men (16%) aged 15 years and older have experienced sexual harassment in the workplace in the past five years, based on their own legal and behavioural definitions of sexual harassment. Harassers are most likely to be a co-worker (52%) of the person harassed followed by their boss or employer (11%) and their
supervisor or manager (11%). Nearly four out of five (79%) harassers were men while women over the age of 30 made up 13% of all harassers and women over 40 accounted for only 7% of all harassers. In Nigeria, very limited data is available with regards sexual harassment at the work place.

Otulayo (2000) noted that sexual harassment prevail more to job seekers hence rendering the victims helpless and frustrated. The Nigerian Bureau of Statistics Survey 2010, identified sexual harassment as a challenge in the cause of finding job on the national level accounted for 0.7% among other factors preventing the job seeker from getting job. 22.4% goes to no money to facilitate process while poor labour market information accounts for 10.5%. Ogunmosunle (2012) noted that sexual harassment occurred in the working environment resulting from the inferior job positions and job roles occupied by women. He noted that women tend to crave to improve their position since sex discrimination forces women into low paying inferior jobs while sexual harassment keeps them there. On the national scale, there is very little or no data on women sexual harassment at the workplace. However, a study by Yusuf (2010) has tried to uncover perceived experience of sexual harassment among female employers in a Nigerian work setting. He randomly surveyed 110 female employees of the Lagos State Civil Commission, Alausa Ikeja. Using categorical analysis, report shows that all respondents have received one form of sexual harassment or the other which include sex-related gesture (16.4%), intimidation (14.5%), enticement (18.3%), sexual advance (41.8%) and Rape (0%). He noted that the most prominent source of harassment is the immediate boss (34.3%) then workmates (27.3%) and subordinates (11.8%) while others take 16.4%. The study shows a connection between job cadre and experience of sexual harassment, which demonstrates that female employees at the lower cadre are often the target of sexual harassment by their superiors. In a similar study by Idris et al (2016) find that women at the lower cadre are most harassed and it affects their performance in the organization. It shows that the effects of sexual harassment include low employee morale, psychological threat, loss of organizational and employee goodwill but the major effect is low employee productivity. They also observe high level of absenteeism from harassed worker. In the light of this, this research observe the relationship between women sexual harassment at work and their job satisfaction to add up to the literature.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

This study employs the following research methodology to investigate the relation between female income, the nature of their jobs and sexual harassment at work on the job satisfaction of female employees in Nigeria. The study conducts a survey in order to acquire first hand result on job satisfaction of female workers with regard to their income, occupation, and sexual harassment at work. The survey was administered within October-December 2016 using partly mail questionnaire and partly ‘pencil and paper’ questionnaire methods. The population of this study comprises of randomly selected female workers of all cadres. The statistical method adopted for data analysis is simple percentage distribution, cross-tabulation, and correlation analysis. Table 3.1 describes the sample statistics.

| Characteristics | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------------|-----------|------------|
| Age             |           |            |
| 21 years - 30 years | 14       | 32.6       |
| 31 years - 40 years | 13       | 30.2       |
| 41 years - 50 years | 9        | 20.9       |
| 51 years - 60 years | 7        | 16.3       |
Table 3.1 shows the description of the sample with about 60% of the sample below 40 years, married and own a postgraduate degree. It shows that a relatively high percentage of working women are in their youthful age, married with high educational qualification. However, majority of respondents are employed in the educational sector as suggested from the descriptive Table above. This is followed by the health sector having 11.6%; the least of all is the construction sector with only about 5%.

The focus of this research is to examine impact of income, nature of job and sexual harassment on women job satisfaction. In order to compare the level of individuals income with the level of their job satisfaction 3 critical questions were asked. First, respondents are asked about their income level, specifically, they were asked “In what category does their monthly income belong?” It is a close ended question, hence 4 options were provided, that is, ‘Less than ₦100,000’, ‘₦100,000 to < ₦300,000’, ₦300,000 to < ₦600,000’ and ‘₦600,000 and above’. The intention behind these options is to classify female workers into low-income earners, low-middle income earners, high-middle income earners and then high-income earners. This will help to ascertain in which category the larger percentage of female workers fall. The second question focuses on employees level of job satisfaction with their income, specifically, they were asked, “How satisfied are you with your salary on this job?” with four options ranging from ‘Very Satisfied’ to ‘Not at all Satisfied’. The third question focuses on how workers compare their salary with others at work, hence, they were asked, ‘I think my salary is set fairly in relation to other employees at work” with four options ranging from ‘Strongly Agree’ to ‘Strongly Disagree’.
With regards the second variable of interest, that is, the nature of job and then its impact on women job satisfaction, 2 critical questions were asked. First, respondents were asked to choose the economic sector in which their occupation falls with options including Health, Education, Legal, Banking/Finance, Agriculture and Construction. This majorly will help identify how wide spread women work in all these sectors. This is to be compared to the second question that asks respondents ‘to what extent does your job provide good possibility to combine job and private life?’ Four options are also provided here ranging from ‘A great extent’ to ‘Not at all’.

Finally, in order to ascertain the degree of sexual harassment women are exposed to at work, they answered to the question, To what extent are you faced with any form of sexual harassment from your work place? Also, four options were provided, ranging from ‘A great Extent to ‘Not at all’. Their responses are compared with responses from the question ‘How likely are you going to make a genuine effort to for another job within the next 1 year?’

In order to analyse these relationships, this study apply cross tabulation and correlation coefficient analysis. In the case of Correlation Coefficient, it applies the Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient given the variables of interest are ordinal in nature. The Spearman correlation coefficient measures the extent to which two rank variables relate with each other. It assesses monotonic relationship between two variables. Spearman's coefficient is most appropriate for ordinal variables. The formula is defined by dividing the covariance of the two ranked variables by the product of their standard deviations. That is,

\[
rs = \rho_{rg_Xrg_Y} = \frac{cov(r g_X, r g_Y)}{\sigma_{rg_X} \sigma_{rg_Y}}
\]

Where:
- \(cov(r g_X, r g_Y)\) represent the covariance of the rank variables
- \(\sigma_{rg_X} \sigma_{rg_Y}\) are the standard deviations of the rank variables

The value of the correlation coefficient can only exist within the range ±1 with both extremes included. Where a value of 1 and -1 implies perfect positive and perfect negative relation respectively between the two variables. The closer the correlation coefficient is to 1 or -1 then the stronger is the relationship between the two variables of interest.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The result is analysed in three sections following the pattern of literature review above.

4.1 Income and Job Satisfaction

Table 4.1 Correlation Results between Job Satisfaction and Income Related Variables

|                  | Monthly Income & Job Satisfaction | Satisfaction with Income & Job Satisfaction | Perceived Fairness in Income & Job Satisfaction |
|------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|
| Spearman Rho     | -.067                             | .267                                        | .126                                          |
| P-value          | .669                              | .084                                        | .421                                          |
| Sample Size (N)  | 43                                | 43                                          | 43                                            |

All correlation coefficient displayed in Table 4.1 are not significant at 5% nor at 1% given the p-values displayed. The second column intends to show the relationship between monthly income
and job satisfaction with spearman rank correlation. The correlation coefficient is \(-0.067\), which signifies very weak negative relation between female employees’ income with their job satisfaction. Furthermore, in order to confirm if any relations do exist, satisfaction with income is interacted with job satisfaction.

The results as shown in column three gives a weak positive relation between the two variables. It implies that employees are satisfied with their level of income and are also satisfied with the job as a whole. Given that the degree of correlation is weak then the relation cannot be said to exist for all. The correlation coefficient is only significant at 10%. Hence at this point, it can be said that some relationship exist between female employees satisfaction with their income and their satisfaction in the job. The last relation depicted in column 4 of Table 4.1 shows how job satisfaction interacts with perceived fairness in income. The correlation coefficient shows low positive relation which is however not significant given the p-value of .421. This means that increases or decreases in perceived fairness in income does not necessarily relate to increases or decreases in job satisfaction of female employees. Hence, whether the female workers perceive that pay inequality in the organization exist or not it does not relate to the level of their job satisfaction.

4.2 Nature of Job and Women Job Satisfaction

In this section, the focus is to establish if the nature of job women perform has influence on the degree of their job satisfaction. In order to achieve this, a cross-tabulation of nature of job with several job satisfaction variables is done and the results are depicted in Table 4.2. There are four job satisfaction variables including the degree of Comfortability with other employees, extent of supervision received on the job, extent at which job combines with private life and then the overall job satisfaction. These four variables are motivated from the literature review where female workers are known to choose occupation based on three main factors. First, the extent to which such occupation allows them the flexibility to combine work with care for the home. Some female workers are reported to consider this as the most important factor that determines the nature of job they do. Second, the degree of Comfortability with other employees is used as a measure of job satisfaction. Reason for this is not far-fetched, as studies have shown that female workers sometimes do prefer occupations where there is understanding, peace and love with coworkers despite low wages, to occupations where complex relationships exist with their colleagues. Finally, degree of supervision is known to influence workers job satisfaction. The four variables are measures of job satisfaction that influences the sector of the economy female workers are mostly found.

| Nature of Job | Degree of Comfortability With Other Employees |
|---------------|----------------------------------------------|
|               | Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| Health        | 4(80%)         | 1(20%)| 0        | 0                 |
| Education     | 17(68%)        | 8(32%)| 0        | 0                 |
| Legal         | 1(33.3%)       | 2(66.7%)| 0   | 0                 |
| Banking and Finance | 2(25%)       | 2(25%)| 0        | 4(50%)            |
| Agriculture   | 1(12.5%)       | 2(25%)| 1(12.5%)| 4(50%)            |
| Construction  | 0              | 2(50%)| 0        | 2(50%)            |

TABLE 4.2 Cross Tabulation of Nature of Job with Several Job Satisfaction Variables
I Get Required Supervision Needed For My Job

| Sector          | Needed Supervision Needed (40%) | Needed Supervision Needed (80%) | Has (20%) | No |
|-----------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------|----|
| Health          | 2                               | 2                               | 1         | 0  |
| Education       | 3                               | 20                              | 2         | 0  |
| Legal           | 0                               | 2                               | 1         | 0  |
| Banking and     | 1                               | 3                               | 0         | 0  |
| Finance         |                                 |                                 |           |    |
| Agriculture     | 1                               | 3                               | 0         | 0  |
| Construction    | 1                               | 3                               | 0         | 0  |

Extent At Which Job Combine With Private Life

| Sector          | Combine Well (40%) | Does (60%) | No |
|-----------------|--------------------|------------|----|
| Health          | 0                  | 2          | 3  |
| Education       | 7                  | 15         | 3  |
| Legal           | 0                  | 3          | 0  |
| Banking and     | 2                  | 1          | 0  |
| Finance         |                    |            |    |
| Agriculture     | 0                  | 3          | 1  |
| Construction    | 1                  | 3          | 0  |

I Love My Job (Overall Job Satisfaction)

| Sector          | Love (100%) | Love (48%) | Slightly Dissatisfied (4%) | No |
|-----------------|-------------|------------|---------------------------|----|
| Health          | 4           | 0          | 0                         | 0  |
| Education       | 12          | 12         | 1                         | 0  |
| Legal           | 1           | 2          | 0                         | 0  |
| Banking and     | 1           | 2          | 1                         | 0  |
| Finance         |             |            |                           |    |
| Agriculture     | 1           | 3          | 0                         | 0  |
| Construction    | 1           | 2          | 0                         | 0  |

In this section data is analysed based on sector by sector in order to identify how these factors influence employee job satisfaction within the sector and thus their willingness to remain within. Although as the literature suggests more female workers are found in the educational sector but this is not absolutely because of job flexibility as only 88% of respondent agree and strongly agree that their private life combines well with their occupation yet 96% of the respondents are satisfied either moderately or greatly with their job. A similar result is observed in the health sector where more than 60% of respondents disagree that job combines well with their private life yet all respondents agree they love their job greatly.

In the banking sector, respondents challenge is with the degree of Comfortability with other employee such that only 50% are satisfied while remaining 50% are strongly dissatisfied. While with other satisfaction variables, they are either very satisfied or satisfied such that there is no dissatisfaction at all. The 25% of respondents who disagree about loving their job can only be ascribed to degree of Comfortability with other employees. In the legal sector, all respondents love their job at least to the average degree and they all feel comfortable with all other measure of satisfaction except getting the required supervision for the job where about 30% of respondents disagreed.

Overall, these results indicate that female employees are satisfied with work in all virtually all sectors of the economy. Though as research suggest more female workers are found in the educational sector. All factors combines well to enable the employee derive maximum satisfaction from their job that is all factors matter and no one factor dominates the other. And finally all these factors are present in all categories of job.
4.3 Sexual Harassment at Work and Women Job Satisfaction

In this section, data is analysed to show the extent to which female sexual harassment exist in the work places, the extent to which it influences workers job satisfaction, hence the need to take proactive steps by employers of labour, and to confirm from our analysis if female sexual harassment is experienced more by low income earning employees. Results are shown in tables 4.3, 4.4 and 4.5.

Table 4.3 Sample Characteristics on Extent of Sexual Harassment at Work

| Extent of Sexual Harassment | Frequency | Percentage |
|----------------------------|-----------|------------|
| A Great Extent             | 2         | 4.7%       |
| Moderate Extent            | 6         | 14%        |
| Low Extent                 | 12        | 27.9%      |
| Not at All                 | 23        | 53.5%      |
| Total                      | 43        | 100.0      |

Table 4.3 shows that almost half (precisely 46.6%) respondents have been faced with one form of sexual harassment or the other at work with 5% of them at great extent. It confirms the prevalent rate of female sexual harassment at work hence the need for all employers of labour to take proactive steps to protect their female employees. However, what extent does this existence of sexual harassment at work influences their overall satisfaction? Table 4.4 details this out. It shows that 50% of respondents faced with a great extent of sexual harassment at work do strongly love their job while the remaining 50% disagree to loving their job. Also 83% of respondents faced with a moderate extent of sexual harassment agree that they love their job (50% of which agree strongly), the remaining 17% disagree slightly to loving their job. Furthermore 100% of respondents faced with low extent of sexual harassment agree to love their job of which 41.7% agree to love the job very strongly. Thus, this analysis has been able to show that while sexual harassment of female employee exists at work place, there is an average effect it has on the job satisfaction of the employees especially those being harassed greatly.

Table 4.4 Cross Tabulation of Extent of Sexual Harassment with Overall Job Satisfaction

| Extent of Sexual Harassment | I Love My Job (Overall Job Satisfaction) |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------------------|
|                            | Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
| A Great Extent              | 1(50%)         | 0     | 1(50%)   | 0                 |
| Moderate Extent             | 3(50%)         | 2(33.3%) | 1(16.7%) | 0                 |
| Low Extent                  | 5(41.7%)       | 7(58.3%) | 0       | 0                 |
| Not at All                  | 10(45.5%)      | 12(52.2%) | 0       | 1(4.3%)           |

Table 4.5 shows that, out of the total respondent that earned <₦100,000, about 45% of them have been exposed to a form of sexual harassment. For the income bracket ₦100,000 to <₦300,000 also about 43.75% of them have been exposed to sexual harassment. In the higher income brackets of ₦300,000 to <₦600,000 about 66.7% of them have been exposed and finally for the income bracket ₦600,000 and above, 50% of the respondents have been harassed at work before. Proportionally, it shows that the percentage of sexually harassed respondents is higher in the last two high-income groups than the first two low-income groups. Thus, proportion wise it is difficult to conclude that low-income earners are more harassed. However, it is clear that women
employees are concentrated in the low-income group hence quite easy to conclude that they are more harassed using absolute figures.

Table 4.5 Cross Tabulation of Extent of Sexual Harassment with Monthly Income

| Extent of Sexual Harassment | Monthly Income |
|-----------------------------|----------------|
|                             | <₦100,000 | ₦100,000 - ₦300,000 | <₦300,000 | ₦600,000 | ₦600,000 |
| A Great Extent              | 1(2.3%)   | 1(2.3%)            | 0         | 0        | 0        |
| Moderate Extent             | 3(7%)     | 2(4.7%)            | 0         | 1(2.3%)  | 0        |
| Low Extent                  | 6(14%)    | 4(9.3%)            | 2(4.7%)   | 0        | 0        |
| Not at All                  | 12(27.9%) | 9(20.9%)           | 1(2.3%)   | 1(2.3%)  | 0        |

CONCLUSION

This paper investigates the relationship between female income, nature of job and sexual harassment. While the literature suggests that some women do care about their income and thus influences their level of satisfaction, others find that women majorly focus on the level of flexibility for work life balance with whatever job they decide to venture which thus influences the nature of job they choose. In the third section, the literature tells us that sexual harassment of the female worker is well in existence and it occurs majorly for the low wage women worker and it tends to influence their work productivity. This relationship between the study’s variables were analysed by conducting an empirical study. The data for the study was collected by using the questionnaire method of data collection and SPSS analysis is utilized. Correlation analysis and cross tabulation analysis were the methodology applied. Correlation coefficient between income and job satisfaction gives very weak negative relation that is not statistically significant. Other variables relating to income, satisfaction with income and perceived fairness in income also shows weak relationship with job satisfaction hence this study finds that no significant relationship can be concluded to exist between income and job satisfaction of women. In the second section, with regards to nature of job and female job satisfaction, it was observed that female workers have job satisfaction in virtually all the sectors of the economy they participate. Also, it is found that while factors such as flexibility of work and life balance, cordial relations with co-workers, and receiving adequate supervision all play important role in the female worker job satisfaction, no one factor is overrated in any economic sector. In terms of sexual harassment of the female worker is very much in existence and it effect is partially felt on their job satisfaction.

NOTE ON CONTRIBUTOR

Ganiyat Adejoke Adesina-Uthman is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Economics and the Dean, Faculty of Social Sciences at National Open University of Nigeria. Her research interest includes financial economics, feminist economics, poverty and inequality, income and happiness, corruption and sustainable development. She is well published locally and internationally in books, journals and capital market review.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The author is grateful to her research assistant Ramat Ayinde for her supports in data gathering through online questionnaire and pen and paper interviews to the respondents as well as for extraction and collation of the data for analysis.
REFERENCES

1. Anderson D. J., Binder M, and Krause, K. (2003). The Motherhood Wage Penalty Revisited: Experienced, Heterogeneity, Work Effort and Work-Schedule Flexibility. Industrial and Labor Relations Review, Vol. 56(2), pp.273-294.

2. Annan, K. (2004). Keynote Address to the Annual Gala Event of the International Women’s Health Coalition, New York.

3. Anker, R., Melkas, H. and Korten, A. (2003). Gender-based Occupational Segregation in the 1990s. International Labour Organization, Working Paper 16.

4. Aremu, O. A. (2006). Impact of Some Demographic Variables on Job Satisfaction of Women Police in Ibadan. Gender and Behaviour, Vol. 4(1), Pp. 736-53.

5. Atal, J. P., Nopo H. & Winder N. (2009). New Century, Old Disparities Gender and Ethnic Wage Gaps in Latin America. Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), Working Paper Series 109.

6. Bender, K. A., Donohue S. M., & Heywood, J. S. (2005). Job Satisfaction and Gender Segregation. Oxford Economic Papers 57, Pp 479-496. doi.10.1093/oep/gpi015.

7. Berik, G., Rodgers, Y. M. & Seguino, S. (2009). Feminist Economics of Inequality, Development and Growth. Feminist Economics, Vol 15(3), Pp. 1-33. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13545700903093524

8. Blau F. D. and Kahn L. M. (2007). The Gender Pay Gap: Have Women Gone as Far as They Can? In Academy of Management Perspectives, Vol. 21, Pp 7-23.

9. Blunch, N. (2010). The Gender Earnings Gap Revisited: A Comparative Study for Serbia and Five Countries in Eastern Europe and Central Asia. Paper Commissioned by the World Bank’s Poverty Reduction and Economic Management Unit, Europe and Central Asia Region Department.

10. Brainerd, E. (2000). Women in Transition: Changes in Gender Wage Differentials in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union. Industrial and Labor Relations Review, Vol. 54(1), Pp138-162.

11. Buchanan, T. (2005). The Paradox of the Contented Female Worker in a Traditionally Female Industry. Sociological Spectrum 25, Pp 677-713. doi:10.1080/02732170500256682.

12. Cohen, P. N., & Huffman, M. L. (2007). Working for the Woman? Female Managers and the Gender Wage Gap. American Sociological Review, Vol. 72, Pp 681-704.

13. Correll, S. J. & Benard, S. (2005). Getting a Job: Is There a Motherhood Penalty? A Presentation at the Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Association, San Francisco.

14. Davidson, H. K. (2014). The Paradox of the Contented Female Worker: Why Are Women Satisfied With Lower Pay? Employee and Responsibility and Rights Journal, Vol. 26, Issue 3, Pp 195-216.
15. Delisle, H. F. (2008). The Double Burden of Malnutrition in Matters and the Intergenerational Impact. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, Vol. 1136. Pp 172-184.

16. Dockery, A. M., & Buchler, S. (2015). Occupational Segregation And Women’s Job Satisfaction. Bankwest Curtin Economic Centre, Working Paper Series 10

17. Edwards, M. (2005). The Law and Social Norms of Pay Secrecy. Berkeley Journal of Employment and Labor Law, Vol. 41.

18. Esplin, E. (2009). Gender and Care: Overview Report. BRIDGE Development Gender.

19. Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (2010). The State of Food and Agriculture 2010 – 2011. Women in Agriculture: Closing the gender gap for development. Rome

20. Ferrant, G., Pesando, L. M., & Nowacka, K. (2014). Unpaid Care Work: The Missing Link in the Analysis of Gender Gaps in Labour Outcomes. OECD Development Centre.

21. Finn, L. (2017). Female Discrimination in the Workplace. Retrieved from: http://oureverydaylife.com/female-discrimination-workplace-2736.html

22. Gangle, M. & Ziefele, A. (2009). Motherhood, Labor Force Behavior, and Women’s Cancers: An Empirical Assessment of the Wage Penalty for Motherhood in Britain, Germany and the United States. Demography, Vol. 46(2), Pp 341-369.

23. Gannon, B., Plasma, R., Rycx, F., & Tojerow, I. (2007). Inter-Industry Wage Differentials and the Gender Wage Gap: Evidence from European Countries. The Economic and Social Review, Vol 38(1), Pp 135-155

24. Green, C., Heywood, J., Kler, P., and Leeves, G. (2016). Paradox Lost: Disappearing Female Job Satisfaction. Lancaster University Management School Economic Working Paper Series 2.

25. Gill, K., Pande, R., & Malhotra, A. (2007). Women Deliver for Development. Background Paper for the Women Deliver Conference.

26. Giuffre, P. A., & Williams, C. L. (1994). Boundary Lines: Labeling and Sexual Harassment in Restaurant. Gender and Society, 8, Pp 48-50

27. Hunt J. (1997). The Transition in East Germany: When is a Ten Point Fall in the Gender Wage Gap Bad News? Journal of Labor Economics, Vol. 20(1), Pp 148-169.

28. Hertz, T., Campos A. P., Zezza A., Winters, P., Quinones, E. J. and Davis, B. (2008) Wage Inequality in International Perspective: Effects of Location, Sector, and Gender. ESA Working Paper 8/08. Rome, Italy: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Agricultural and Development Economics Division (ESA).

29. Idris H., Adaja, J., Audu, S., & Aye, G. A. (2016). Analysis of the Causes and Effects of Sexual Harassment on the Performance of Female Employees in Some Selected Organizations
in Kogi State, Nigeria. International Journal of Democratic and Development Studies, Vol. 2(2), Pp. 31-39.

30. Janssen, S. & Backes-Geller, U. (2016). Occupational Stereotypes and Gender-Specific Job Satisfaction. Industrial Relations, Vol 55(1), Pp. 71-91.

31. Kara D., & Murrmann S. K. (2011). The Effects of Wage Differences on Employee Job Satisfaction in the Lodging Industry. Retrieved from http://scholarworks.umass.edu/gradconf_hospitality/2011/Poster/96/

32. Kabeer N. and Natali L. (2013). Gender Equality and Economic Growth: Is there a Win-Win? Institute of Development Studies Working Paper No. 417

33. Kabubo-Mariara, J. (2003). Wage Determination and the Gender Wage Gap in Kenya: Any Evidence of Gender Discrimination? African Economic Research Consortium, Research Paper 132.

34. Klasen S. and Lamanna, F. (2009). The Impact of Gender Inequality in Education and Employment on Economic Growth: New Evidence for a Panel of Countries. Feminist Economics 15(3), Pp. 91-132.

35. Kuhhirt M. and Ludwig, V. (2012). Domestic Work and the Wage Penalty for Motherhood in West Germany. Journal of Marriage and Family, Vol. 74(1), Pp186–200.

36. Kulow, M. D. (2013). Beyond the Paycheck Fairness Act: Mandatory Wage Disclosure Laws – A Necessary Tool for Closing the Residual Gender Wage Gap. Harvard Journal on Legislation, Vol. 50, Pp 385-435.

37. Mabekoje, S. O. (2009). Gender Differences in Job Satisfaction among Secondary School Teachers. African Journal of Research in Personnel and Counselling Psychology, Vol. 1(1), Pp. 99-108.

38. Mueller, W. C. & Kim, S. (2008). The contented female worker: Still a paradox? In Karen A. Hegtvedt, Jody Clay-Warner (ed.) Justice (Advances in Group Processes, Volume 25) Emerald Group Publishing Limited, pp.117 – 149.

39. Mumford, K. and Smith, P. N. (2014). Peer Salaries and Gender Differences in Job Satisfaction in the Workplace. The Manchester School, Vol. 83, Issue 3, Pp 307-313.

40. National Bureau of Statistics (2016). Statistical Report on Men and Women in Nigeria 2015.

41. Newman, C. J., Fogarty, L., Makoae, L. N., & Reavely, E. (2011). Occupational Segregation, Gender Essentialism and Male Primacy as Major Barriers to Equity in HIV/AIDS Caregiving: Findings From Lesotho. International Journal for Equity in Health Vol. 10(24)

42. Nordman, C. J., Robilliard, A., & Roubaud F. (2011). Gender and Ethnic Earnings Gaps in Seven West African Cities. Labour Economics, Vol. 18(1), Pp 132-145. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.labeco.2011.09.003.

43. O’Neill, B. P. (2010). Pay Confidentiality: A Remaining Obstacle to Equal Pay After Ledbetter. Setton Hall Law Review, Vol. 40, Pp 1217-1256.
44. Ogunmosunle, S. (2012) Odds Against Domestic Violence Laws. The Independent. Retrieved at: http://independentnig.com/odds-against-domestic-violence-laws/

45. Okpara, J. (2004). The Impact of Salary Differential on Managerial Job Satisfaction: A Study of the Gender Gap and Its Implications for Management Education and Practice in a Developing Economy. The Journal of Business in Developing Nations, Vol. 8, Pp 65-92.

46. Oladejo, K. S., Ojo O. S., & Adeoye D. O. (2012). Gender Gap and Its Implication on Management Practice: A Lesson From Nigeria Banking Sector. Kuwait Chapter of Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review, Vol. 1(10), Pp 69-78.

47. Otulayo, L. (2000). Violence Against Women in Africa: The case of Nigeria. In: T Odumosu (Ed.): Social Problems and Social Work in Nigeria. LASU: Centre for Planning Studies, Pp. 68-76.

48. Shaheen, S. (2014). Job Satisfaction Among Male and Female Employees in Public Sector Organization. European Journal of Business and Management, Vol. 6(4), Pp 115-120.

49. Sloane, P. J., Grazier, S., and Jones, R. J. (2005). Preferences, Gender Segregation and Affirmative Action. Institute for the Study of Labour Discussion Paper No. 1881.

50. United Nations, Division for the Advancement of Women, Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2007). Women Gender Equality and Sports. Women 2000 and Beyond.

51. Vlosky R. & Aguilar F. (2009). A Model of Employee Satisfaction Gender Differences in Cooperative Extension. Journal of Extension, Vol 47, No. 2.

52. World Bank (2016). World Development Indicators 2016. Washington, DC. © World Bank. https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/23969 License: CC BY 3.0 IGO

53. World Economic Forum (2006-2016). The Global Gender Gap, Geneva Switzerland. Retrieveable from www.weforum.org.