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GLOBALISATION OF NIGERIAN ECONOMY: CONSTRAINTS AND COMPETITION CHALLENGES FACING WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT IN THE INDUSTRIAL SECTOR

R. O. S. Dauda and T. Adenike Egunjobi

Abstract
This paper examined the constraints and competition challenges facing women employment in the industrial sector. In the light of the changing global environment, when various structural adjustments measures, including devaluation, privatisation, new initiative in trade policy, industrial policy, liberalisation and globalisation are applied to the Nigerian economy, it is seen to lack the necessary measures for improving industrial efficiency, productivity and international competitiveness. Findings indicated that the macroeconomic environment of structural adjustment has had negative impacts on the input, output, income, savings, and investment of micro-enterprises owned by rural women and has restricted new entrants into enterprise ownership. Restricted access to economic resources and appropriate technology were identified as the major obstacles to the survival of women-owned enterprises. The paper outlines required policies to make Nigerian firms resilient to face global challenges thrown open due to the new liberalisation policy framework. Suggestions to enhance women participation in the industrial sector are proffered.

1.0 Introduction
In recent years the growing trend of globalisation phenomenon is an inevitable force that cannot be ignored. The term globalisation, its meaning and implications for the developing world has become an important issue for discussion at domestic, regional and international fora. This arises from the unequal distribution of benefits arising so far from the increasing economic integration among nations and the fear expressed, especially by most developing countries, about the negative impact of globalisation on their economies. This is heightened by empirical research which shows mixed, uncertain, or inconclusive link between globalisation and economic growth, inequality and poverty (Uwatt, 2003; Khor, 2001; Eborieme and Iyoko, 2008).
More than ever, concerns have grown about the negative aspects of globalisation and questions are being raised as to whether women workers at the grassroots level and their poor households actually share in its benefits. A strand of the debate on globalisation holds that it promotes inequality between and within countries and that this rising inequality is often expressed in declining wages, employment instability, etc. for certain parts of the world (Okoye and Okoye, 2004; Williamson, 1997). In terms of gender dimensions, it has been observed that free trade agreements lead to an increasing feminisation of poverty and an exacerbation of existing inequalities between men and women (Adedokun et al. 2003). They produce workplaces where women earn less than men for the same work where workers work in harsh and often degrading conditions without union rights. They promote unpaid and unrecognised work in the home and community domestic violence and sexual trafficking of women. More often than not, women are having a tough time coping with the reality of economic globalisation (Carr and Chen, 2004; World Bank, 2007; 2011).

The Federal government has introduced several macroeconomic measures, within the past decades in order to place the economy on the path of sustainable growth and create employment opportunities for both men and women, particularly in the industrial sector with a view to improving the standard of living of the population in the light of the changing global environment.

This study is thus initiated to shed more light on the constraints and competition challenges facing women’s employment in Nigeria’s industrial sector in the context of globalisation and in the process of examining changes in the policy environment between 1986 and 2010. To this end, the rest of the paper is organised as follows: Section two provides exposition on the literature review and theoretical considerations. Section three presents an overview of industrial response to reform packages embedded in the development policies and strategies during the study period as well as provide hindsight into women’s employment patterns in the industrial sector. Section four specifies the constraints and competition challenges facing the Nigerian industries and women employment in the industrial sector in the face of globalisation and economic liberalisation. Section five concludes the paper.

2.0 Literature Review and Theoretical Considerations
The concept globalisation has diverse usage. In fact, it is considered as a buzzword with a multitude of meanings and interpretations. Hence, the precise definition of globalisation has been a theoretical and policy problem. However, in its present usage, globalisation refers to the increasing tendency towards integration of countries into the world economy as well as contacts among enterprises, institutions and peoples across national boundaries. Globalisation is multifaceted, having political,
cultural, social, environmental and economic dimensions. However, as aptly pointed out by Khor (2001), the economic aspect is perceived to be at the heart of the globalisation process and has tended to receive greater attention, especially in view of its rapid pace since the past five decades and has remained a power force shaping world economies. In the context of this study, the focus is on economic globalisation. Generally, economic globalisation can be defined as the integration of the domestic economies with the world economy and the inevitable consequential increase in the economic interdependence of the countries through trade, financial and investment flows, free factor movements and exchange of technology and information.

Many features of globalisation have inspired growth and prosperity and expanded opportunities for millions of people all over the world. At the same time, it has been attended with adverse effects, especially on the weaker economies. It has improved opportunities for some countries but weakened prospects for others, and exacerbated disparities among the growth prospects of nations. Perceptions of globalisation depend a great deal on the ability of people to take advantage of the opportunities offered and ward off the threats and difficulties (Eborieme and Iyoko, 2008). Typically, it is most positive for people with adequate education and access to financial resources and to countries that apply appropriate policy measure (Ojo, 2003).

Evidence abound in the literature as to how globalisation offers unprecedented opportunities for growth just as it portends some costs which can be challenging to poor countries that do not have the structural and policy foundations in place to take advantage of more open trade, investment and financial flows offered by it (see, ECA, 2000; Igudia, 2003; Ojo, 2003; NES, 2003; 2008). As regards the impact of globalisation on gender, and women employment work patterns, there is now a large literature with contributions from several authors across the world. Most of these studies cover a wide range of controversial issues with inconclusive results. For instance, some studies conclude that globalisation, on one hand, have reduced gender imbalances due to increases in female participation rates and associated expanding freedom resulting from women’s paid work. On the other hand, the recent literature tends to show that discrimination against women continues regardless.

Drawing from over 1,200 articles and books collected for the World Commission on the Social Dimension of the economic globalisation process, Gunter and Hoeven (2004) observed that there had been some progress in women’s social status based on the increased female participation rate, especially in manufacturing and export processing zones. However, they noted that some of the more recent studies especially Chambers (2000), have argued that despite the increase in female
participation rates, women remained economically disempowered. In fact, one of the reasons for the increase in female participation is that women accept lower wages. Furthermore, it has been argued that many female workers have little control over how their salary is spent and that the key responsibility for unpaid household and family work remains with women, sometimes even in households where women provide the main or only income. Some studies have also found that, in some instances, men’s violence and hostility towards women has increased because of women’s changed social status.

Black and Brainerd (2002) concluded that “increased competition through trade did contribute to the relative improvement in female wages in concentrated relative to competitive industries, suggesting that, at least in this sense, trade may benefit women by reducing firms’ ability to discriminate”. On the other hand, Balakrishnan (2002) concluded that the international fragmentation of production has led to the flexibilisation of work and that women often accept unstable and vulnerable work in order to combine their family responsibilities with paid work. Similarly, Moghadam (2001) cast a gender perspective on workers and on women’s activism. She concluded that globalisation has had dire economic effects on women; however, the process has created a new constituency of working and organised women, which may herald a potent anti-systemic movement. In the same vein, Bielenstein (2002) concluded that globalisation caused particular hardship for female workers in many Asian countries, which was aggravated by the economic crisis over recent years.

Miller and Vivian (2002) argued that the emphasis on trade liberalisation and economic restructuring will affect many countries that have a large female workforce in labour-intensive industries; that increased competitiveness must come in large part from technological upgrading and growing labour productivity; and that the challenge is to make the transition to high-wage, high-productivity employment without substituting male workers and more socially privileged workers for the existing female workforce (drawn from lower-income households).

Studies that have identified the major constraints and challenges facing women in the labour market and as entrepreneurs in the industrial sector include identification of existing opportunities, gender inequality, lower assess and levels of capitalisation and debt financing than their male counterparts (Jamali, 2009), human capital constraints and socio cultural values (Reddi, 1991). Reddi (1991) and Rathore and Ghebra, (1991) discovered that women in Gao often feel frustrated because of having to juggle their time and energy between work/business and domestic affairs especially as they must compete with the men. Punitha et al (1999) conducted interview on 120 women entrepreneurs between June to July 1999, also, Nayya et al (2007) making
use of a sample of 100 women entrepreneurs of Himachal Pradesh and Singh (2012) researched into the issues and challenges of 10 recognised female entrepreneurs, all in India identified financial constraints as well as marketing products, work place facility, poor location, transport facility, finance, scarcity of raw materials, limited mobility, low literacy level and risk bearing ability, ignorance about schemes, agency and institutions, family ties and health problems as major hindrances and challenges.

In conclusion, there have been widespread belief that men and women are affected differently by trade policies and performance, owing to their different locations and command over resources within the economy; and as Cagatay (2000) and others have argued that gender-based inequalities impact differently on trade policy outcomes, depending on the type of economy and sectors, with the result that trade liberalisation policies may not yield expected results; and that gender analysis is essential to the formulation of trade policies that enhance rather than hinder gender quality and human development.

3.0 Nigeria’s Industrial Performance in the Context of Globalisation, 1986 to Date

3.1 Strategies for Industrial Openness
As the acceleration of globalisation create a new economic environment, the Nigerian government since 1986, has reorganised its industrial support system in line with international standard. As such economic openness has been adopted with regard to industrial production, trade and finance. A variety of measures were taken in these directions. These include; privatisation & commercialisation, devaluation & convertibility of Naira, reduction in custom tariffs, open door policy towards foreign direct investments, foreign technology, institutional support measure, etc. Excessive importance and interference of the government in economic activities started to be questioned.

The process of industrial openness culminated the more towards privatisation and commercialisation of public enterprises to promote industrial efficiency. Privatisation is presumed to be the key in dismantling, reversing monopolies, reversing the nation’s vicious circle of under development, corruption, debt burden and promoting corporate governance efficiency and better management of public enterprises.

In the wake of these developments, there has been a considerable pressure of the government to facilitate the creation of suitable environment for the free flow of direct foreign investment. To take on this challenge policy, measures were adopted to enhance the promotion of inflow of foreign investment and technology acquisition.
Foreign investors are now free to establish and solely own companies in the country and can also remit their profit 100% back home. The procedures for investment in the non-oil sectors of the economy have been streamlined. In order to facilitate the inflow of foreign direct investment promotion, council has been mandated to negotiate with large internationally known firms and to expedite clearance required.

As a measure of encouraging capital inflows, the exchange market was deregulated to enhance access of firms to foreign exchange. To improve the nation’s investment climate, the country has improved its infrastructural facilities. Moreover, the entire infrastructural sector, especially, telecommunication and every sector is being thrown open to private sector including foreign capital.

Another important measure by the Nigerian government to enhance industrial performance is devaluation of the Naira. At the macroeconomic level, devaluation and full convertibility of the Naira on trade account were embarked upon to bring it nearer to acceptable parity and make Nigerian products cheaper in export market and enhance greater profitability of Nigerian manufactured export.

Another salient feature of the measures for industrial openness is the complete overhauling of industrial rested policies. The government has overhauled industrial related policies to enhance efficiency and investment. These industry – related changes include: granting of special tax incentives and tax holidays to enable local industries build up enough funds for expansion purposes and to encourage firms to invest in economically disadvantaged areas; reduction of corporate income tax rate; partial abolition of import license scheme, adoption of numerous export promotion schemes, simplication of industrial licensing except for a short list of industries related to strategic security and environmental reason.

Other aspects of industrial openness that have greatly influenced industrial competitiveness is the special attention for growth of exports in the agricultural and allied sectors where export promotion incentives were put in place. These include, rendering assistance on export costing and pricing, liberalised export license and the establishment of an Export Credit Guarantee and Insurance Scheme designed to assist Nigerian companies to compete effectively in the international market. A compensatory scheme was also put in place to enable exporters of locally manufactured goods to claim subsidies from the export adjustment scheme fund. Similarly, an export expansion fund was introduced to provide cash inducements for exporters.
The government also provides institutional support to the industrial sector through the following institutions: the Industrial Development Coordinating Committee (IDCC); the Industrial Data Bank; the Raw Materials Research and Development Council (RMRDC); the Project Development Agency (PRODA); the Federal Institute of Industrial Research, Oshodi (FIIRO); the Export Processing Zone (EPZ), Calabar; Nigerian Investment Promotion Council (NIPC).

The recently launched Small and Medium Industries Equity Investment Scheme (SMEIC) operated by Nigerian Banks was charged with the task of solving the problems of industrial underdevelopment and small financing of the sector. However, despite the increased government support of the informal sector over the years, the sector still remains weak.

**Industrial Response to Reform Packages**

Having highlighted the new impetus to the industrial sector in the light of the changing global economy, an attempt is now made to assess the performance of the industrial sector during 1986-2010. A good response of industrial sector can be visualised since the inception of reform package with regard to its production scenario. Figure 1 shows the trend in respect of the indices of electricity production, manufacturing, mining, and overall industrial production between 1986 and 2001. The index of industrial production is a combination of the indices of electricity, mining and manufacturing sectors. Tables 1 and 2 show the indices of mining, manufacturing and electricity production in Nigeria between 1986 and 2010. It becomes evident that the industrial performance was mixed during the period under review. It is observed that from among the different sectors of industry, the manufacturing sector which is an important sector in Nigerian industrial production indicated a negative rate of growth during 1985 – 1986 due to a severe recession. There was an improvement in respect of the output of manufacturing industries between 1988 and 1992 with an annual average growth rate of 9.2 percent. This however, declined drastically afterward by annual growth rate of 14.4 percent between 1993 and 1995. However, the manufacturing sub-sector recorded a modest improvement as the index of manufacturing production by 2.9 percent in 2001 compared with an increase of 0.4 percent in 2000.
In general, the expansion in manufacturing production was traced largely to improved supply of inputs, especially the restoration of normal supply of petroleum products, a moderate improvement in electric power supply, the introduction of comprehensive inspection of imports at the ports, which forced importers of finished goods to pay appropriate duties, thereby increasing, slightly the competitiveness of local manufactures and renewed investors confidence in the economy.

Table 1: Index and Annual Growth Rates of Industrial Production (1986-2001) (1985=100)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Manufacturing</th>
<th>Mining</th>
<th>Electricity Consumption</th>
<th>Total for Sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>96.1 (-3.9)</td>
<td>97.8 (-2.2)</td>
<td>120.8 (20.8)</td>
<td>103.5 (3.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>128.4 (33.6)</td>
<td>88.4 (-9.6)</td>
<td>118.8 (-1.7)</td>
<td>122.1 (17.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>135.2 (5.3)</td>
<td>95.3 (7.8)</td>
<td>125.1 (5.3)</td>
<td>108.8 (-10.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>154.3 (14.1)</td>
<td>109.2 (14.6)</td>
<td>165.2 (32.1)</td>
<td>125.0 (14.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>162.9 (5.6)</td>
<td>115.1 (5.4)</td>
<td>124.8 (-24.5)</td>
<td>130.6 (4.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>178.1 (9.3)</td>
<td>120.1 (4.3)</td>
<td>125.3 (0.4)</td>
<td>138.8 (6.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>199.1 (11.8)</td>
<td>124.5 (3.7)</td>
<td>133.1 (6.2)</td>
<td>148.5 (6.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>145.5 (-26.9)</td>
<td>120.9 (-2.9)</td>
<td>142.2 (6.8)</td>
<td>129.4 (-12.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>144.2 (-0.9)</td>
<td>121.1 (0.2)</td>
<td>152.7 (7.4)</td>
<td>129.2 (-0.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>136.3 (-5.5)</td>
<td>124.4 (2.7)</td>
<td>150.2 (-1.6)</td>
<td>128.7 (-0.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>138.0 (1.2)</td>
<td>129.0 (3.7)</td>
<td>147.1 (-2.1)</td>
<td>132.3 (2.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>138.5 (0.4)</td>
<td>141.5 (9.7)</td>
<td>143.7 (-2.3)</td>
<td>140.5 (6.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>133.1 (-3.9)</td>
<td>134.1 (-5.2)</td>
<td>138.5 (-3.6)</td>
<td>133.9 (-4.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>137.7 (3.5)</td>
<td>125.5 (-6.4)</td>
<td>139.4 (0.6)</td>
<td>129.1 (-3.6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the mining sub-sector, the aggregate index of production rose by 7.81 percent in 1988 in contrast to a decline of 9.61 percent recorded in the preceding year. The upward trend in mining was sustained between 1989 and 1992 with an annual average growth rate of 7 percent. In 2001, the aggregate index of mining production rose by 0.4 percent, compared with an increase of 14.9 percent in 2000.

The aggregate electricity generation grew by 20.8 percent in 1986 but declined to 1.7 percent in 1987. There was a marginal increase in the early nineties with an average growth rate of 5.2 percent between 1991 and 1994. This was followed by a decline in production with an average annual growth of 2.4 percent between 1995 and 1998. The index of electricity production rose slightly with an average annual growth of 1.4 percent between 1999 and 2001. The causative factors for the observed trend were traced to seasonal factors, rehabilitation of some generating equipment and the recent push by civilian administration to revamp the energy sector in order to encourage the growth and effective performance of Nigerian industries.

The following inferences may be derived from the above analysis. The low growth profile of the industrial sector during the study period is a severe setback to the Nigerian economy. It has been clearly demonstrated that industrial and development policies have not been defined in order to promote structures for production. This is disheartening in view of the fact that maintenance of the growth rate in the industrial development is one of the most crucial global challenges thrown open due to the new liberalised policy framework. Nigeria’s lack of competitiveness manifests itself most glaringly in the manufacturing sector. After more than a decade since the country
embarked on the policies of liberalisation and new industrial policy initiatives, the performance of the manufacturing sub-sector in the 1990s and 2000s has progressively worsened. As shown in Table 3, the capacity utilisation had reduced from 75.4 percent in the 1975 – 1979 period to as low as about 30 percent in the late 1990s. At the beginning of the 21st century, the sector accounted for only 6.0 percent of GDP and has progressively declined to an all-time low of 2.4% in 2008, though it took a progressive turn in 2010 when it accounted for 6.6% of the GDP. However, this sector has been providing very little employment.

Table 3: Size and Growth of Nigeria’s Manufacturing Sub-Sector, 1975-2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Share of GDP (%)</th>
<th>Capacity Utilisation (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1975-79</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>75.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-84</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>59.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-89</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>40.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-94</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>38.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995-99</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>42.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>54.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>56.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>55.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>54.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>53.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>53.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>53.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>58.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>55.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Derived from Various CBN Statistical Bulletins

Manufacturing value added has risen steadily from 2.6 percent of GDP in (1958 to over 10.0 percent in the 1970s. Then, from the mid-1970s, partly as a result of persistent economic crisis and shortage of foreign exchange resources to pay for imported raw materials and machinery and partly as a result of deregulation and removal or drastic reduction of tariff and non-tariff barriers, there was a dramatic fall in demand for home – produced goods in favour of imported manufacturers. To a large extent, however, it is obvious that integrating Nigerian economy into the process of globalisation would yield significant dividends and will enable its industries to tap into global financial and technological flows. However, a number of
key industrial challenges lie ahead. In the opinion of the author, the following seven important challenges to be faced by the industry in rapidly changing global economic environment are discussed in the next section.

3.3 Trends in Women Employment Patterns in the Industrial Sector

This section analyses the extent to which liberalisation and globalisation are redefining employment structures and women participation in the Nigeria’s industrial sector within the context of globalisation in historical perspectives.

Essentially, the growth and structural changes of any economy determines the potential for employment in general, especially that of the women. The reality of the uneven and unequal nature of the present globalisation process underscores the undesirable pattern of women’s work and social well-being. Besides, there have been a set of forces unleashed by liberalisation and globalisation efforts that generate limited employment opportunities for women. Globally, women represent 49.6 per cent of the total world population but only 40.8 per cent of the total work force in the informal sector. (World Bank, 2011). Also, the UNDP (2005) supports the assertion of greater inequality in the labour market, it noted that women labour force participation rose by just 4 per cent in 20 years that is from 36 per cent in 1980 to 40 per cent in 2000, also all the regions of the world recorded greater unemployment rates among women than men with women wages falling below the average.

Historically, it has been difficult to speak of gender equality in the labour force. In Nigeria, women workers have had to compete with men for a limited number of unskilled jobs often under unfavourable conditions and confronted with social prejudices. An investigation of the occupational profile of working women in Nigeria showed that the majority of them are either self-employed or engaged in the informal sector of the economy. In 2008, the Federal office of statistics reported that 5 per cent of female labour force worked in the industries, 20 per cent in services, 23 per cent in sales and 6 percent in professional, technical administration and managerial positions. The picture is not different globally, according to World Bank (2011), women perform 66 per cent of the total world’s work and produce 50 per cent of the world’s total produce but earn only 10 per cent of the income generated and own just 1 per cent of the property. Available statistics shows that women participation in the informal sector has significantly increased since the early 1970’s. Women constitute 29.8 percent of those employed in the informal sector in the 1970s. This increased to 30.0 percent in the 1980s. By 1998, it stood at 52.3 percent (CBN/FOS/NISER, 2001). The 2010 National Manpower Stock and Employment Generation Survey revealed that 47.3 percent of those employed in the informal sector are women (NBS, 2010).
A significant feature in the employment pattern of women in the informal sector is their concentration in the wholesale and retail trade activities. This phenomenon is evident in the more recent statistics in Table 1 which shows the distribution of employed persons by economic activities and sex. Human, health and social works sub-sectors constituted the least employment for women (0.78 percent). Women are more numerous in wholesale and retail trade activities (17.42 percent) while men dominate the agriculture, forestry and fishing enterprises (21.14 percent). Large numbers of women are also in the agricultural and manufacturing enterprises - about 9.43 percent and 6.67 percent respectively. In the manufacturing enterprises, women are more numerous in the production of food products, beverages, textiles and wearing apparel (NBS, 2010).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing</td>
<td>21.14</td>
<td>9.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>6.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building and Construction</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and Retail Trade; Repair of Motor Vehicles and Motor Cycles</td>
<td>7.51</td>
<td>17.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative and Support Services</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human, Health and Social Work</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Rural women have remained one of the major concerns for development experts in the changing dynamics of the world environment. Adedokun et al. (2003), ascertaining the effect of economic liberalisation policies on rural women engaged in micro-enterprises in the informal sector observed that the textile enterprise operators have particularly responded and taken advantage of the liberalisation efforts by improving and modernising designs, targeting urban buyers. Despite these positive developments, many women are unable to take advantage of the increased financial benefits. While there are fewer male enterprise owners, they often occupy the most lucrative levels, acting as exporters, and bulk buyers of cotton yarns and dyes and finished products.

4.0 Constraints and Competition Challenges Facing Women Employment in the Nigerian Industrial Sector within the Context of Globalisation

There are many constraints which prevent Nigerian women from gainful employment in the industrial sector and linking with global markets. Some of these constraints are discussed below:
Poverty and Illiteracy: Due to their poverty and illiteracy, many women have entered into an unintentional technology transfer in the textile manufacturing industry. Over time, many women working in tie and dye and cloth weaving have revealed or sold their “trade secrets” to buyers, who in turn have experimented and perfected the process and entered the business as producers. It is evident that as globalisation evolves, it is resulting in the destruction of earning opportunities for informal workers and the prospects of female workers in these sub sectors look precarious because of the entry of foreign firms using more advanced technologies.

Unfavourable Macroeconomic Environment: The Nigerian environment is highly volatile and characterised by policy inconsistencies which often times makes women vulnerable to the major forces of economic globalisation.

Lack of a supportive policy and regulatory environment for informal micro-enterprises is another factor hindering Nigerian women form linking with the global markets. Several studies in Nigeria assessing the effects of economic liberalisation policies on women participation in the informal industrial sector indicate that the macroeconomic environment of structural adjustment has had negative impacts on the input, output, income, savings, and investment of micro-enterprises owned by rural women and has restricted new entrants into enterprise ownership; access to economic resources and appropriate technology remain major obstacles to the survival of women-owned enterprises. Women’s micro-enterprise performance has worsened under structural adjustment, the research findings reveal women’s increased contribution to household budgets and responsibilities; access to domestic and international markets has not necessarily been improved for men and women but women have met with more constraints than men; informal sector linkages with the formal sector are weak, vaguely defined, and inadequate for women. Rural women’s enterprises are forced to rely on informal financing mechanisms, which are often inadequate for expansion plans (Oladunni, 2003; Adedokun et al., 2000; Ijere, 1991).

Decline in Wages, Bargaining Power and Work Security: Although, there are no available statistics on the number of women retrenched in the past two decades. There is the general belief that majority of the female workforce in the industrial sector has never had secure long-term employment and the troubling features of recent economic change for women in the modern sector include not only loss of employment but also a decline in wages, bargaining power and work security. These trends have cast serious doubt on the hopes of encouraging women empowerment and attaining gender equality. Research studies have consistently shown that the benefits associated with globalisation have not trickle-down to poor women. In 2011, an estimated 61.2 percent of Nigerians live on less than one dollar a day (NBS,
Women constitute majority of the poor. Today, women still constitute a greater proportion of the illiterate population of Nigeria. They have lesser access to education and lack the training and means to enable them boom and are more likely to drop out of school if parental fortunes dip.

Exclusion from Factor Markets: Many Nigerian women are excluded from factor markets. These include lack of access to land, credit, training, technology, infrastructure, organisational capacity to set up formidable businesses. Most Nigerian women are excluded from factor markets. Those in the informal sector are often denied access to facilities that are essential for economic survival and further integration into the global market. The changing structure of the world commodity market, which is reflected in slow growth of world trade in primary commodities and higher growth for manufactured goods and services demands that the process of growing the economy should entail equal participation of both men and women in the production process.

Self-Imposed Customs and Religious Practices: Furthermore, there are also self-imposed customs and religious practices which often generate unequal access to services and resources and thus, hinder the contribution of women to growth process. This also engenders wage discrimination in the labour market. Vicious cycles of cultural designation of roles make Nigerian women workers engage in the labour markets in the low status, low wage categories. Most take up jobs which reflect traditional female household tasks such as processing and serving food and production of textiles and clothing in the public and private sectors.

Inability to Combine Domestic and Labour Market Activities: Most Nigerian women find it difficult to combine domestic and labour market activities. Like in other developing countries, Nigerian women are confronted by a trade-off between reproduction and work. The duality of reproductive and productive roles has not been beneficial to women in a globalised system. With the trade-off between reproduction and production, most Nigerian women engaged in traditional unpaid labour within the household and in situations where women take up paid work outside the home, they do so to augment personal and family income. This phenomenon hinders women from contributing positively to the growth process which is a necessary condition that must be fulfilled for beneficial global economic integration.

5. Recommendations and Conclusion
This paper examined the constraints and competition challenges facing women employment in the industrial sector, in the light of the changing global environment. When various structural adjustments measures, including devaluation, privatisation,
new initiative in trade policy, industrial policy, liberalisation and globalisation are
applied to the Nigerian economy, it is seem to lack the necessary measures for
improving industrial efficiency, productivity and international competitiveness.
Findings indicated that the macroeconomic environment of structural adjustment has
had negative impacts on the input, output, income, savings, and investment of micro-
enterprises owned by rural women and has restricted new entrants into enterprise
ownership. Access to economic resources and appropriate technology were identified
as the major obstacles to the survival of women-owned enterprises. The paper
outlined required policies to make Nigerian firms resilient to face global challenges
thrown open due to the new liberalisation policy framework. Suggestions to enhance
women participation in the industrial sector are proffered. It was discovered that the
reality of the uneven and unequal nature of the present globalisation process
underscores the undesirable pattern of women’s work in the industrial sector in
Nigeria. Besides, there have been a set of forces unleashed by liberalisation and
globalisation efforts that generate limited employment opportunities for women.
Under the recent privatisation and liberalisation efforts occasioned by globalisation,
Nigerian women have continued to be marginalised. Women workers have had to
compete with men for a limited number of unskilled jobs often under unfavourable
conditions and confronted with social prejudices.

For the Nigerian state to promote dynamic integration of women into the
development process with a view to stimulating more productive employment of
women in Nigeria’s industrial sector under globalisation, the following suggestions
are proffered:

i. Appropriate incentives and intense development of economic and social
infrastructures and services should be targeted mainly at enhancing self-
employed female entrepreneurs trying to compete in the global market. There
should be government commitment, strong-will to offer financial services,
business development services and incentive package to promote access to
and competitiveness in global markets. Also, women should constitute Self-
Help Groups.

ii. Women entrepreneurs trying to compete with foreign companies for factor
inputs in the informal enterprises should be protected through supportive
trade and price policies that take into account the activities and needs of
small and medium scale business enterprises.

iii. Women workers in both the informal and formal sectors should be
encouraged to upgrade skills through effective and sustained investment in
human capital.

iv. Collective bargaining arrangements for all women workers in both formal
and informal employment should be put in place in order to protect them
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from restructuring in response to crises which can lead to retrenchment. These arrangements should cover social protection measures to effectively protect women against ‘shocks’ occasioned by economic recession.

v. There should be commitment to eradicate biases against female workers in the policy, regulatory and institutional environment.

vi. Gender perspective and legislation should be incorporated when macro-economic policies are to be designed and implemented.

In conclusion, there is an urgent need to advance the position of women and to encourage and strengthen their capabilities and skills in order to harness the benefits of globalisation especially as women entrepreneurs because according to the 2005 UNDP report, poverty has a woman face and the developmental costs of ignoring or denying women assess to economic potentials has their consequences on the country in terms of poverty, declining terms of trade, unfavourable balance of payment and the burden of external debt.

References


