



# EDUCATION AND REGENERATION OF TRADITIONAL VALUES IN NIGERIA

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## CHAPTER NINE

# ENGENDERING HUMAN RESOURCE IN ACADEMIA: A STUDY OF UNILAG

Fatai A. Badru

### Abstract

*The chapter contends that capacity building is paramount in the sustenance of academic excellence. Machine, money, materials and other resources are necessary but not sufficient condition. The energizer, blender and the builder of these vital resources is a committed and motivated Human Capital. An empirical and literature search suggests some patterns of gender inequity and asymmetric culture in the higher educational settings. The chapter explores how gender variable influences the spread and representation of both junior and senior academic positions. The objective of the researcher is to map and tease out the pattern of the skewness, explore areas for further elaboration in order to achieve gender equity in a university setting. The chapter interrogates the factors responsible for this asymmetry. It explains the skewness and points to ways of achieving gender equity, enhancing opportunities for capacity building and achieving cultural and intellectual recognition that are based on gender equity, yet avoiding gender tokenism.*

## INTRODUCTION

The term human resource is variously defined in *Industrial Sociology, Human Relations Studies, Political Economy and Economics* where it was traditionally called labour, one of the three factors of production. Modern analysis emphasizes that human beings are not predictable commodity or resources with definitions totally controlled by contract but are creative social beings that make contributions beyond labour, society and to civilization.

The broad term human capital has evolved to represent the original meaning of the term "human resources". Harbinson (1973:3 cited in Adebisi, 2002: 244) asserts that human resources constitute the ultimate basis for the wealth of nations. Capital and natural resources are passive factors of production; human beings are the active agents who accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organizations, and carry forward national development. These human beings are trained in the universities which are the citadel of highest learning and institution for production and reproduction of knowledge and hence, the need for gender equity within it is imperative.

It is indubitable that capacity building is paramount in the sustenance of academic excellence. Machine, money, materials and other resources are necessary but not sufficient condition. The energizer, blender and the builder of these vital resources is a committed and motivated Human Capital. An empirical and literature search suggest some patterns of gender inequality and asymmetric culture in the higher educational settings. What are the factors responsible for this asymmetry? How can we explain the skewness and achieve gender equity in the university setting? How do we build opportunities for capacity building and achieve cultural and intellectual recognition that are based on gender equity, devoid of gender favouritism, gender discrimination and peeled from the pedestrian sentiment of gender tokenism? This is the challenge of this chapter. How is gender represented in both junior and senior academic positions? The objective of this chapter is to map and tease out the pattern of the skewness, explore areas for further elaboration in order to achieve gender equity in the university setting. An empirical observation of academic staff positions in different faculties of the University of Lagos (UNILAG) is depicted subsequently. Nine faculties in UNILAG: Arts, Business Administration, Education, Engineering, Environmental Science, Law, Science, Social Sciences and Pharmacy were explored for the primary data. Statistical Digest and Quarterly Magazine of the University: "Unilag Sun" were examined for the secondary data apart from extant literature.

## Objectives of the Chapter:

The main objectives of this chapter are:-

- To explore the formal rules and informal constraints that impact on appointment, promotion and motivation of men and women in academic positions in the University set up using UNILAG as a case study.
- To interrogate the societal and institutional norms that shape the effective performance of the human capital in the University
- To examine gender disparity in the pattern of academic position in the study location
- To proffer ways of ameliorating the observed disparity.

Following the above objectives, we deduce the following questions which will help us bring out the gender disparity in academic positions in UNILAG. Is there a gender evenness or disparity in academic positions in UNILAG? Is this pattern unique to this University? What is the pattern of the distribution? What is the gender distribution of the recent professorial appointment in UNILAG? How is enrolment into the higher degree programmes influenced by gender? What are the constraints/barriers that impact gender placement of human resource in the academic unit of the University? How can we ensure gender equity and equal opportunities for the human resources in academia? Is it even desirable? The answers to these puzzles are found in subsequent sections of the paper, which is structured into six sections. Aside the introduction, the second demystifies some salient concepts; the third provides the theoretic perspectives; the fourth section gives a brief literature review while the fifth section highlights and discusses the findings of the paper. The last section summarises, concludes and provides engendering strategies for gender equity.

## Conceptual Issues: Gender, Sex and Engender

Gender, by definition, refers to culturally constructed notions of maleness and femaleness as distinctively opposed to biologically defined male and female sex. Sex refers to the biological differences between male and female while gender is a broad analytic concept, which highlights women's roles and responsibilities in relation to those of men (Okeke, 1999:28; 2004:1). This chapter considers the relationship between gender and academic staffing, explores the variation if any between the male and female academic staff especially at the professorial level.

Gender also refers to the roles that men and women play and the relations that arise out of these roles, which are socially constructed, not biologically determined. The term "gender" refers to those characteristics of women and men that are socially and culturally determined - that is, the different behaviour, roles, expectations, and responsibilities all women and men learn within the context of their own societies. Due to the fact that societies are

different and because every society, develops and changes in its practices and norms over the course of time, gender roles and relations are not fixed and universal. They differ in different places and in every society they change over time.

- Gender roles and relations are held in place by ideology (underlying beliefs about the way society should be). For example, males and females are expected to have different characteristics. Boys are often expected to be 'tough' and discouraged from crying, while girls are expected to be 'soft', that is, more emotional. As adults, men are thought to be rational and intellectual while women are thought to be irrational and emotional.
- Gender is relational; that is, gender roles and characteristics do not exist in isolation, but are defined in relation to one another and through the relationships between men and women.
- Gender roles and relations are unequal and hierarchical.
- Gender relations are institutional because they form a social system, which is supported by values, rules, routine activities, and division of resources in all forms of social organisation, including families/ households, communities, markets, states (and specific organisations such as University settings).

Whilst gender roles and responsibilities are different in different societies, gender roles and relations are rarely equally balanced. Women and men generally do not have equal access to resources such as money, information, power and influence. In almost all societies, what is perceived to be masculine is more highly valued and has a higher status than what is perceived to be feminine. Masculine attributes, roles and behaviour are usually given greater social and economic rewards. Gender is thus one of the principal sources of power and inequality in most societies. For instance, in many societies, the most powerful figures in the major institutions are usually men; such as Heads of State, Vice Chancellors, Deans of Faculties, Heads of Department. The assertive behaviour required in leadership is often associated with men. Domestic work (or 'women's work') is given a lower value than work performed outside the home. 'Housewives' are not directly paid for their work which is not seen as economically 'productive' and domestic labour outside the home, such as a cleaner's job, is poorly paid.

Engendering human resource, therefore, implies recruitment, training, motivating and rewarding both males and females in a work organisation, be it academic or otherwise. It also denotes giving equal opportunities for the human capital be it male or female to thrive at the optimum and rectifying the observed gender disparity in the organisation by mainstreaming gender in the human resource policy of the organisation.

The chapter examines gender differentials and inequities in the staffing

of the academic position in a University setting. It considers enrolment of students into the tertiary institutions and observes that more females are enrolled in the humanities while more males seek and got admitted into science and engineering-related courses. The socialisation process, prejudice and attitude of the parents, society and other socialisation agents such as teachers and peers largely colour and influence subsequent engagement, retention and staffing of academic positions in the tertiary institution. This may partly explain the picture that is depicted in the university at the later stage.

Besides, research on gender matters in educational setting indicates domineering experiences of males over females. More males are in the top hierarchy, provide the definition of the situation, wield enormous power, are socialised within patriarchal norms, perpetuate and transmit such skewed cultural norms.

### **Theoretical Issues**

There are many explanations for under-representation of women in academia. One of the prominent explanations is the overt or covert gender discriminatory attitude in organisations. Many studies have highlighted how teachers' attitudes tend to undermine girls' self-confidence. Stanworth (1981) coined the phrase the 'faceless bunch' to describe the inability of many teachers to see through girls' more passive approach and recognize them as individuals, rather than as a conformist 'whole' group. Ultimately, this has led to a situation whereby boys are more likely to over estimate their abilities than are girls. Girls are far more likely to underestimate their performance in a given task than boys and they interpret failure in different ways. Boys will accord their failings to lack of effort, whilst girls tend to attribute failure to lack of ability (Jones and Jones, 1989). Several studies have shown how teachers' interactions with female students are similar to those associated with males: that is, they receive a disproportionately large amount of teachers attention which is generally negative (Fuller, 1980; Stone, 1985; Wright, 1987; cited in Skelton, 1997:315). As Skelton, (1997:315) notes, 'gender variables may operate quite differently in the multi-racial classrooms from an all-white classroom'. However, whether teachers' behaviours make girls feel 'invisible' or put them in a position of constantly challenging negative expectations, the result is the same in that negative attitudes of teachers serve to curtail girls' educational opportunities (Mirza, 1995).

### **Feminist perspectives and education**

Attempting to identify which of the feminist perspectives have had the most impact on education is an endeavor likely to generate fierce debate (Weiner, 1994). However, it is possible to identify the perspectives which are most

frequently referred to in discussions on gender and education: that is, black feminism, liberal feminism, radical feminism, socialist feminism and, more recently, post-structuralist feminism (Acker, 1994). Rather than rehash these perspectives which are fully discussed by Acker (1994), my intention here is to provide an overview of the two approaches developed to tackle gender discrimination at a practical level. Reference will be made to feminist perspectives where it is appropriate to show how the issues raised by the various feminisms have informed the 'girl-friendly' (equal opportunities) and 'girl-centered' (anti-sexist) approaches.

Skelton, (1997:316) contends that "there has been considerable and understandable criticism in recent years from black feminists of the fact that the majority of studies on gender and education have failed to address 'race' issues". Recent researches and discussions have attempted to redress this imbalance (for example, Reay, 1991; Khanum, 1995). However, the two approaches developed to tackle gender inequalities in the classroom largely side-step the issues of 'race' and concentrate on gender.

Both 'equal opportunities' and 'anti-sexist' approaches share a common view that education and schooling is geared towards white, middle-class males but they differ as to how best to tackle the situation. Within an 'equal opportunities' perspective, girls' education is regarded as a 'problem' as they 'underachieve' (or did) in certain areas of school system. The language of 'equal opportunity' is the language of liberal feminists. For liberal feminists the solution to gender discrimination is where a situation exists in which girls and women are provided with the types of skill and educational qualification that will empower them to enter areas of employment traditionally dominated by men. Put crudely, a desire for equal numbers of female and male plumbers, pilots and academics. A liberal feminist approach has been heavily criticized by black, socialist and radical feminists for its neglect of structural inequalities (such as economic and social power) and its apparent wish to see women competing with, and acting like men. On the positive side, liberal feminist idea and values have been the basis for all central political and legal reforms achieved in the last hundred years, so its achievements could not be trivialised (Skelton, 1997:316).

A 'girl-friendly' (equal opportunities) stance focuses on ensuring girls have access to school resources and educational benefits, whereas a 'girl-centered' (anti-sexist) approach is concerned with girls' treatment in and the outcome of their schooling. The intention here is to place girls at the center of the classroom in order to challenge the dominance of male experience (Weiner, 1986). Within an 'equal opportunities' frame work girls are defined as 'the problem', whilst the anti-sexist position regards male power and privilege as 'the problem'. In their chapter in *Gender and the politics of schooling*, Gaby Weiner and Madelein Arnot (1987) have produced a table demonstrating the practical application of these ideas in schools. For

example, an 'equal opportunities'/'girl-friendly' strategy would be persuading girls into science and technology, whilst the corresponding anti-sexist/'girl-centered' approach would entail recognizing the importance of girl-centered study, focusing on girl-and-woman-centered science and technology. Anti-sexist strategies have primarily emerged in response to the issues identified by radical feminist research into schooling.

Radical feminist research into girls' (and women's) teachers educational experiences has highlighted two major concerns; the male monopolisation of culture and knowledge, and the sexual politics of everyday life. It has been shown how boys dominate teachers' time and attention, how they dominate the classroom in terms of space and securing resources and how their interests dominate the curriculum (Skelton, 1997:317).

The situation for women in the developing world presents additional problems in terms of their gaining access to the sphere of paid employment. Two key problems are identified by Momsen (1991).

- Domestic responsibilities: For women in urban areas who are entering the work force, changes in household composition mean that they are often facing heavier domestic responsibilities than before. This arises through smaller family size, less help from relatives and increased cost and decreased availability of domestic help and increased educational opportunities for children, so that the burden of domestic work falls on one particular woman in the family.
- Sexual Harassment: This may be a greater problem in the Third World than in developed countries as a result of traditional societal norms about women's family roles and seeing women who move outside these roles as "loose" women. Men at work, when unaccustomed to meeting women in that situation may revert to gender-based sexual expectations and treat women at work as sexually available.

Momsen contends that many barriers to women's participation in the urban sector is linked with the fact that modern industry is partially separated from the home and involves a standard fixed pattern of working hours that are usually longer than in the non-industrialised world. The progress of women was seen then to be ordered by a combination of economic, social and cultural factors giving rise to specific under-representation of women in public sphere (Badru, 2005: 13-17).

In another vein, some constraints to female academics have been highlighted. In the light of the situation in the universities, the phenomenon has been tagged the "glass ceiling" or "glass wall" to denote an impenetrable barrier which is invisible and which prevents upward and in the case of the glass wall, also lateral movement of female academics. Solomon (1990) explains these terms as the phenomena experienced by women and minorities as they attempt to climb upwards in the academic rank or move

sideways to line positions. One argument put forward against the glass ceiling theory is that women have not been in the pipeline long enough to reach top management levels. This, however, does not do justice to the complexities of the issue, for studies of men's and women's progress up the organisational career ladder shows blockages for women at certain stages of their lives (Fashoyin, et al, 1985; Ogunleye, 1999). What are these causal factors which influence women's chances at entry and subsequent stages of their careers?

Some of these are socio-economic and socio-cultural: sex role stereotyping and early socialization. Historical devaluation of women's work means that traditional women's occupations tend to be symbolized by less pay, power and prestige. Sex- role identity and gender- related behaviour feature prominently in discussions relative to women's motivation to succeed in the work force. Powell (1988) argues that early socialization from parents, school, the media and peer groups contributes to the development of a sex- role identity which tends to affect occupational aspirations and expectations. Aspiration will be constrained both by a need to restrict career hopes to sex- appropriate activities and by the strength of occupational segregation in a given sector. Expectations are viewed in highly sex- typed terms for females.

The complex interplay of sex role socialisation and individual behaviour in terms of work decisions is still the subject of much discussion amongst researchers. Freedman and Philips (1988) in a review of the literature on gender-related differences in work values and motivation patterns are of the view that study results are equivocal at best and fail to deal adequately with potential unfolding variables such as age, organisational level and education, among other things, which they feel could provide highly plausible alternative explanation for any observed sex differences. Despite a lack of agreement as to the causal relationships between sex role socialization and male/female differences in work behaviours, the bulk of research evidence suggests that sex role identity has some impact on male/female behaviours in relation to occupational aspirations and expectations.

### **Literature Review**

University of Lagos, (UNILAG) established by the Act of Parliament in 1962, is one of the first five generation Universities in Nigeria. The other four are the University of Ibadan, founded as a College of University of London in 1948; University of Nigeria, Nsukka established in 1960; Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria founded in 1962 and Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, 1962. UNILAG is currently one of the 75 Universities in Nigeria: 26 Federal, 23 State and 23 Private including the National Defence Academy and the National Open University.

Onakala and Onah (1998:15) assert that University education has always

been tilted in favour of men. There is the preponderance of males in almost all the disciplines and ranks. The researchers buttressed their position by the fact that in 1988/89 session, there were 1526 male professors and 65 female professors while in 1991/92, there were 1707 male professors and 71 female professors in all Nigerian universities. They inferred that the percentage of female professors out of the total number of professors in Nigerian universities then was less than 4 percent. The new generation universities may have altered this picture but data from the Nigerian University Commission suggest an interesting picture. Between 1988/89 – 1991/92 sessions, female academic staff constituted a mere 13.81% – 12.6% out of 9186-9523 academic staff respectively in selected nine faculties (see Table I for details). In effect there was a decline in the proportion of females among the total staff.

Some factors have been indicted for the disparity in the academic staff distribution. These include the fact that most females were faced with uneducated parents, poor career guidance, early marriage and some married with children, others married without children; some unmarried with children, others unmarried without children. The latter group is likely to be least stressed with academic career mobility. Other women are encumbered beyond child bearing with prejudice and preference for boys' education by patriarchal family system. Thus, there is still palpable gender disparity in academic positions especially at the professorial level within and outside Nigeria.

According to Onokala and Onah (1998) the percentage of female students in higher education in Nigeria is 39.9%. While access of females to University education has increased from a ratio of 1 to 40 in the 1950's to 1 to 4 in 2001; there is still wide disparity in traditionally male-dominated disciplines such as engineering. There are more female than male students in education, the humanities and less in the social sciences. This trend and pattern is not peculiar to Nigerian Universities. For instance, in Finland, though women became eligible as university teachers in 1916; by 1993, only one woman had reached the status of a university rector. In France, there were only three women rectors (out of 32) and only three women have become University Presidents (Vice Chancellors) from 1985-1993. The situation is worse in the United Kingdom, Netherlands, Spain and Switzerland with women being under-represented with regards to high level academic positions (Gendreau-Massaloux and Faver-Bonnet, 1993 cited in Onakala and Onah, 1998). In the UK, there were no women Vice-Chancellors in any of the 44 universities. In Nigeria, only two females have climbed to the Vice-chancellors' post: Prof. Grace Alele-Williams, University of Benin and Prof Jadesola Akande, Lagos State University, Ojo. In Africa as at 1998, about four other females have reached the pinnacle of their careers. These are Dr. Brenda Couley, Vice

Chancellor, University of Natal, South Africa; Dr. Ramphele Mamphela, Vice Chancellor, University of Cape Town, South Africa; Dr. Dorothy L. Njeuma, Vice Chancellor of the University of Buea, Cameroon and Professor Lydia Makhubu, Vice Chancellor, University of Swaziland (Onokala and Onah, 1998).

Policy thrusts and scholarship for engendering human resource in academia in the Commonwealth have varied in many respects. The impetuses have also differed depending on the location of study. According to Kwesiga, Lihamba and Morley (2004:1), it has been driven by post-militarism democratisation programmes in Nigeria; by post-apartheid reconstruction in South Africa; by socialist aspirations in Tanzania; by post-independence progressive policies in Sri-Lanka and generally by Millennium Development Goals of Gender-empowerment measure (GEM) and gender-related development index (GDI). While governments make policy commitments to equal opportunities, in tertiary institutions, these do not always translate into changes in organisational practices. According to Ogunleye (1999:163) available data at all levels of Nigerian educational system indicate that fewer girls than boys are enrolled at schools. Olumuyiwa, 1998 (cited in Ogunleye, 1999: 165) traced the trend to the year 1863 when female enrolment was only about 20% in primary schools. St. Mary's Covent and CMS Girls Schools were founded in 1873 to remedy this gender disparity. The introduction of free Universal Primary Education scheme in 1976 also assisted the drive towards gender parity. At the secondary school level, female enrolment rose from about 7.2% in 1975/76 session to 46% in 1994 academic session. At the University of Lagos, students' enrolment statistics from 1962 to 1998/99 academic session depicted about 39% of females in admission of the total enrolment (Ogunleye, 1999:167). Table 2 below shows the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB) admission statistics of undergraduates by faculty/gender (1995-1998). There are seven selected faculties.

From Table 2, it can be discerned that in all courses of enrolment, more males are enrolled compared to females. This may have implication for those who would be eligible for enrolment for post-graduate degree and subsequent appointment in the university.

Table 3 shows the post-graduate enrolment by Faculty/Gender/Regular Programmes for three sessions spanning 2000 to 2003. From the table, Faculty of Education seems to enjoy the best favours from the female students in all the three sessions under review. This could be due to the fact that most females find support from the socialisation experience they have had that teaching is female-friendly. It is only in 2002/2003 session that we have more females than males being admitted into Faculty of Law. The picture attests to the proposition that more females tend to do humanities-related courses as opposed to engineering and technology-based disciplines.

One of the questions posed in this paper is to explore the recent professorial appointment in the University of Lagos. From Table 4, it can be discerned that only one (five percent) out of the twenty recent professorial appointments is a female. She is Professor Fagenro-Beyioku, Adetayo Foluso. She is a 57 years old woman with research interest in Malariology in the Department of Medical Microbiology. Her appointment took effect from October 1, 2003. She earned her B.Sc (Hons) degree in Biology (Georgetown), 1971; M.Sc Microbiology (Chicago) in 1975 and had her Ph.D in 1988 from UNILAG. She started as a Research Fellow 1 in the University in 1980 and rose to the post of Associate Professor in 1998. She is married with three children.

### **FINDING:**

The Academic Staff Statistics taken from the University of Lagos as at 20 April 2005 is found in Table 5 and this gives the gender distribution and disparity of academic staff from nine faculties from the institution.

In Table 5, the male / female proportion is skewed in favour of male academics with 22% being female. This is accentuated at the highest cadre (professorship) where 88% are male academics and 12% females. In the Faculty of Engineering, with 94% of the teaching staff members being males, the situation can be described as male-dominated. Three of the departments in the faculty are outrightly without female academics. None of the female academics in this faculty is above the rank of Senior Lecturer. Also worthy of note is that in the Faculty of Business Administration, only 11 female academics are not below the rank of Lecturer I. In the Faculty of Education, female academics make up 44% of the academic staff and this is highest amongst the faculties.

A longitudinal study is necessary in order to see if the proportion of Associate Professors and Professors will rise to what is obtained in intermediate rungs (Senior Lecturers and Lecturer I).

- On the whole, men dominate academic positions. The general societal expectation that woman should marry early and have children reduces the number of women who go on to acquire a second degree, which is the basic entry requirement into academics.

### **Patterns**

The largest category is the group of Senior Lecturers, followed by the group of Lecturers II. The categories of Lecturer 1, Professor, Assistant Lecturer and Associate Professor follow these two in that order.

The table shows an obvious imbalance in favour of male academics. The 78% to 22% male/female proportions is easily noticeable. This is accentuated at the highest cadre of the hierarchy (professorial position), where 88% are males and 12% are females.

If the male/female proportions of the Senior Lecturers and Lecturers I (74%: 26% and 72%: 28% respectively) are preserved as the present holders of these positions move upwards the highest rung of the ladder, the skewness may, however, not be acute for long.

Greater attention is drawn to the data for the College of Pharmacy where females outnumber males. In this College, just 41% of the academics are males while 59% are females. This calls for probing into the male/female appointment into this college.

A longitudinal study is also necessary in order to see if the proportion of those who are female Associate Professors will rise to what is obtainable in the intermediate rungs below the first two (Senior Lecturers and Lecturers I).

On the whole, men dominate academic positions at UINLAG. This situation could partly be explained by the expectation that women should marry early, and have children. Moreover, the proportion of women who go on to acquire a second degree, which is the basic requirement for recruitment into work as an academician is very low and hence, the disparity.

Many research studies have confirmed that students especially the females develop negative attitude to science learning. This may after all be due to the fact that the society is unable to satisfy their aspirations or goals. Sometimes, the educational system does not provide the career incentives and opportunities for them to appropriate the role of scientists. This has often led to variations in goals among pupils, teachers, parents and employers of labour especially industries. The danger inherent in this trend is that we might have been succeeding in producing science students and graduates without those attributes that we claim science education can provide such as honesty, patience, respect for evidence, etc. Today, it is quite evident that many science teachers are not capable of making their students appreciate the value of life as many of the students are always in a "hurry" whichever career they choose. It is high time we start to assess students aspirations and the extent to which the science we teach could make them attain goals and ambitions in life.

### **Conclusion and Recommendations**

The chapter was concerned about the observed gender disparity in academia. It enquired into this in an empirical manner, drawing data from within and outside Nigeria. The data showed that in spite of the overt equal opportunities for male and female academics, there are covert female specific factors that partially explain disproportional pattern of women in academia and the male preponderance in the university settings. These constraints must be transcended to give more opportunities and conducive environment to both male and female gender on merit. This is targeted at

enhancing the effectiveness and efficiency of the human capital in the setting. The pursuit of knowledge should be ideally and freely and equally available to all citizens irrespective of age, sex, religion and race.

Socialization patterns: societal pressure on female such as early marriage, withdrawal of girls from schools, etc may hamper upward career mobility of women and hence, should be discouraged. Gender-stereotyping of occupation. This includes belief that certain occupations are reserved for males hence, female students tend to take the least line of resistance by going to disciplines seen as feminine: liberal arts, nursing and shy away from engineering or science related courses which is not a healthy development and should be redressed. Perception of Science courses as difficult. Near Absence/Inadequate female role model: role model of same sex may be very important in socialisation of female academic and should be encouraged. Female teachers represent one set of interest and abilities as distinct from males. This sex-role expectations are also important in modeling for female students.

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### Appendices: Tables and Figures

Table 1: Academic Staff in Nigerian Universities by Disciplines and Gender from 1988/89 to 1991/92

Year	1988/1989		1989/1990		1990/1991		1991/1992	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Discipline								
Admin	377	31	333	38	368	36	432	38
Arts	1464	240	1457	240	1570	242	1521	215
Education	1274	321	1194	302	1189	293	883	225
Eng./Tech	936	27	961	28	1064	14	1070	32
Law	292	46	303	60	318	58	327	54
Pharmacy	162	42	151	44	199	23	187	24
Sciences	2038	283	2059	323	2350	329	2455	335
Soc. Sciences	964	89	1085	112	1044	89	1040	92
Others	410	190	497	152	1002	154	530	143
<b>Total</b>	<b>7917</b>	<b>1269</b>	<b>8040</b>	<b>1299</b>	<b>9104</b>	<b>1238</b>	<b>8365</b>	<b>1158</b>
Grand Total	<b>9186</b>		<b>9339</b>		<b>10,342</b>		<b>9523</b>	
% of Total	<b>86.19</b>	<b>13.81</b>	<b>86.09</b>	<b>13.91</b>	<b>88.03</b>	<b>11.97</b>	<b>8784</b>	<b>12.16</b>

Source: Reconstructed from Statistical Digest on Nigerian Universities (1988-1992) NUC ABUJA, 1993

Table 2: JAMB Admission Statistics of Undergraduates by Faculty /Gender 1995-1998

Faculty/ Gender	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
<i>Bus Adm</i>	4890	3995	3757	3375	6428	5231
Arts	3364	4032	2739	3658	3121	4777
Education	3841	3903	2042	2234	2621	2840
Eng./Tech	9099	1485	7168	1065	10245	1541
Law	1749	1694	1600	1655	1897	2053
Science	7599	4254	5750	3904	8028	4836
Soc. Sciences	8069	4933	5750	3904	9508	6221
<b>Total</b>	<b>38611</b>	<b>24296</b>	<b>28806</b>	<b>15891</b>	<b>41848</b>	<b>27499</b>
Grand Total	<b>62907</b>		<b>44697</b>		<b>69347</b>	
% of the Total	61.38	38.62	64.45	35.55	60.35	39.65

Source: Ogunleye (1999:39)

**Table 3: Post-graduate Enrolment by Faculty/Gender/  
Regular Programmes in UNILAG 2000-2003 Sessions**

<b>Faculty/Session</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>% of Female</b>
<b>Arts</b>				
2000/2001	98	68	166	40.96
2001/2002	116	87	203	42.86
2002/2003	169	85	254	33.46
<b>Bus Adm</b>				
2000/2001	387	223	610	36.56
2001/2002	648	314	962	32.64
2002/2003	183	143	326	43.87
<b>Education</b>				
2000/2001	95	161	256	62.89
2001/2002	241	354	595	59.50
2002/2003	96	241	337	71.51
<b>Engineering</b>				
2000/2001	204	26	230	11.30
2001/2002	290	35	325	10.77
2002/2003	74	21	95	22.11
<b>Env.Science</b>				
2000/2001	74	06	80	7.5
2001/2002	61	12	73	16.44
2002/2003	120	19	139	13.67
<b>Law</b>				
2000/2001	150	145	295	49.15
2001/2002	211	198	409	48.41
2002/2003	167	174	341	51.03
<b>Science</b>				
2000/2001	104	30	134	22.39
2001/2002	227	74	301	24.59
2002/2003	423	174	597	29.15
<b>Soc.Sciences</b>				
2000/2001	333	172	505	34.06
2001/2002	406	189	595	31.76
2002/2003	500	407	907	44.87

**Source:** Reconstructed from Statistical Digest 2000-2003 Academic Planning Unit, UNILAG P.15

Table 4. Twenty (20) New Appointments (Professors) in UNILAG

S/N	Names of Professors	Faculty	Gender
01	Achumba, I.C	Bus Adm	M
02	Akande, O.M	Education	M
03	Baiyelo, T.D	Education	M
04	Banjoko, S.A	Bus Adm	M
05	Ekanem, E.F	Medicine	M
<b>06</b>	<b>Fagbenro-Beyioku, A.F</b>	<b>Medicine</b>	<b>F</b>
07	Fajana, I.O	Bus Adm	M
08	Fakinlede, O.A	Science	M
09	Falade, F.A	Engineering	M
10	Igwe, J.M	Environment	M
11	Ogundipe, O.T	Science	M
12	Okanlawon, A. O	Medicine	M
13	Okedele. O.S	Environment	M
14	Omidiji, O	Science	M
15	Omilabu, S.A	Medicine	M
16	Omolehinwa, E. O	Bus Adm	M
17	Oni, J. O	Bus Adm	M
18	Oyewo, E.O	Law	M
19	Sadiq, O.M	Engineering	M
20	Salau, M.A.A	Engineering	M

Source: *Unilag News-A Quarterly News Magazine, July -Sept, 2005, pp 10-28.*