

## NAVIGATING THE SEAS: WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

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**ABSTRACT.** The article describes the expansion in the numbers of women students at universities in Nigeria since the 1940s, pointing out regional differences and the ways in which development strategies to promote science and technology in education have put a brake on the enrollment of women. It also explores the limited openings for women academics in higher education in Nigeria, and the initiatives women have undertaken to promote professional development.

### PARCOURIR LES MERS : LES FEMMES EN ENSEIGNEMENT SUPÉRIEUR AU NIGÉRIA

**RÉSUMÉ.** L'article décrit l'augmentation du nombre d'étudiantes dans les universités du Nigéria depuis les années 1940 et fait ressortir les disparités régionales ainsi que la manière dont les stratégies de développement qui visaient à promouvoir la science et la technologie en éducation ont freiné l'inscription des femmes. Il explore aussi le nombre limité de débouchés pour les femmes universitaires en enseignement supérieur au Nigéria, et fait état des initiatives prises par les femmes pour promouvoir le perfectionnement professionnel.

Universities are viewed in many African countries as critical institutions for national development, providing a corps of educated elite to serve the community and nation. In Nigeria, university education was provided from 1948 with the establishment of the University College of Ibadan as a college of the University of London, around the same time that Legon University in the then Gold Coast, (now Ghana), and Makerere in Uganda were founded. The University College of Ibadan started off with 104 students, 3 of who were female. One, Olufunmilayo Nzegwu later described them as "three hopeful young girls" who had "high expectations of making a new Nigeria of highly qualified people and of high ideals" (Nzekwu, 1980, p. 31). The graduates of the universities in the British colonies were typically male, western in orientation and nurtured to "make possible a politics of independence that could relate well with the concerns of the Europeans" (Manya, 2000).

Between 1948 and 1974, six universities were set up in Nigeria. However, in the 1970s there was a dramatic expansion in higher education and by 1979, there were 39. Expansion has continued, but at a slower rate. In 2002 there were 59, universities: 52 government owned and 7 private. Between 1975 and 1996, student enrolment grew from 26,000 to 236,261 (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1997). But, as will be shown, this significant growth in enrolments has shown larger increases in male student numbers than female.

This paper focuses on the experiences and engagements of women as student, staff and managers in higher education in Nigeria. It is based partly on an analysis of the documents of selected universities and on a small-scale study involving interviews with women in university management positions at three universities in the south and discussions and correspondence with women who are members of a number of networks of women academics.

Since 1948, when the three young girls entered the University College of Ibadan, there has been a significant increase in the number of women having access to higher education.. The overall picture for the country indicates large number of women admitted to higher education in 2000. They comprise 40% of all admissions, but there is considerable variation across the zones of the country. Thus there are many fewer admissions of women and men from the northern zones, compared to the southern zones, but in the northern zones women comprise just over a quarter of admissions, compared to just under half in the south east zone and around a third in the other southern zones. (See Tables at end)

In much writing on the expansion of higher education in Nigeria the emphasis tends to be on numbers. Rarely is the focus on introspection into the roles and perceptions of women who have entered higher education regarding the impact and the significance of the positions they are occupying. Structural and cultural barriers have been discussed (Alele-Williams, 1992), but the nature of the experience remains to be documented. There is also a need to examine the factors which may account for women's entry into higher education and the policies which are in place within institutions which can be appropriated to serve the ends of women's advancement and ensure the sustainability of the trend for increasing numbers of admissions.

The university is still unfamiliar terrain to many female students and staff, especially in certain disciplines like Science and Technology and in management. Examining both figures and policies in Nigeria, Pereira (2002, p. 1) notes the "although university systems tend to be spoken of in gender neutral terms, the effects of their workings are far from gender neutral." The first female staff was employed in the year of Nigeria's independence, 1960, in the Department of History (Interview, Awe, 2002). The percentages of female academic staff recruited in Nigerian universities in 1996 /97 were:

Social Sciences, 9.2% (150 out of 1631); Sciences, 12.8%, Arts, 14.7% and Education, 22.2%. (Data generated by NUC, 2001 cited in Pereira, 2002)

Student enrolment by faculty showed the same preponderance of males in science and technology. According to 1996 data generated by the National Universities Commission (NUC), the regulatory body for universities in Nigeria, 31.7% of Science students were women, compared to 37.6% in the Social Sciences and 44.6% in Arts, (Pereira, 2002). The gender differentials reflect the situation at secondary school level, in which more males are enrolled. The pyramidal nature of the Nigerian educational system with a broad base at primary level, narrowing at secondary and tertiary levels underscores the limitation in access to higher education. Okebukola (1998) notes that while women are encouraged to take advantage of higher educational opportunities, no deliberate attempt is made to lower admission standards in their favour.

The statistics of applications and admissions into Nigerian universities by state of origin and by sex in 2000/2001 (See Table 2a-f) reveals interesting variations across geographical zones. In all the six zones, there is a wide difference between the number of applications and actual number of admissions, ranging from the 6.5% of South West zone to the 15.2% of both the North East and South East zones. However, actual figures present a more revealing picture, since for example, the 6.5% of admission in the South West (Table 2e) is 10,108 candidates, while the 13.8% for the North East is only 2243 (Table 2b). The highest figures of female enrolment are from the South East, 11,436 (48.4%) where in 2 states, Anambra and Imo, female enrollment exceeds that of males (Table 1). The situation in that zone of high male drop out rate in secondary schools has led to interventions by the governments and UNICEF in a campaign to reverse the trend. The lowest female admission figures are from the North East (533), where Jigawa State has as low as 29 female candidates for the session. Tables 1a-f show that the highest admissions figures for females are from the southern part of the country, 11,436 from the South East, 5644 from the South South and 3599 from the South West. The low figures of 668 from the North East, 787 from the North West and 2015 from the North Central underscore Okebukola's advocacy of the use of incentives such as bursaries and scholarships for women, public enlightenment programs to remove cultural impediments to women's education, employment of more women into administrative and academic positions and enhancement programs by organisations such as the Forum of African Women Educationists (FAWE). (1998)

The poor condition of universities in Nigeria have made gender issues appear less urgent than funding or governance. There was a military coup in 1965 and military rule for almost thirty years thereafter. This had a profound effect on university education. The culture of the universities took

on the rigid structure of military command. There was an erosion of university autonomy, and a diminution of the humanistic sociocultural values on which universities thrive. (Obanya, 2002). The period of military rule was also marked by unplanned proliferation of university education in Nigeria. Changing government policies and a deliberate policy of widening access to higher education led to a dramatic increase in the number of students, but drastically reduced funding universities, resulting in poor governance. The period of economic recession in the 1980s and 1990s accompanied by hyperinflation affected universities severely, since the federal government had been their main funder. In spite of the change over to a civilian government in May 1999, underfunding still continues. For example, the total budgetary allocation for Social Services, under which education is subsumed in the national budget, decreased from 12.6% in 1999 to 12.2% in 2000 and 7.5% in 2001. Only 9.9%, totaling 82.6 billion Naira, was allocated to education out of a total national budget of 834.5 billion Naira. (Obanya, 2002) This contrasts with the figures for other African countries like Zimbabwe which spent 17.6% of its national budget on education, and South Africa, which spent 24% over the same period. In these straitened circumstances attention tends to focus on competing claims for funding for attracting and retaining high quality staff, acquisition of books for the library, equipping the laboratory and increasing staff remuneration rather than issues of gender equality.

Since 1999 there have been laudable initiatives to improve the quality of teaching, learning and research in institutions of higher learning. For example, the recently inaugurated National Universities Systems Improvement Project (NUSIP) and the National Virtual (Digital) Library Project funded by the Federal Ministry of Education and international agencies are designed to bring about radical changes to the system and facilitate enhanced access to national and international information resources. The National Universities Commission has also begun to play a role in evaluating university programs through its program accreditation project. But in these reforms gender is not foregrounded.

Nigeria is a signatory to the Convention of Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against women and has established some projects for the implementation of the articles of the Convention, but has not enacted the domestic laws for the enforcement of the articles. Even though the 1999 Nigerian Constitution makes provision for equality of women, "the problem is with how far in practice, the constitution guarantees rights, protects the interest of women having regard to the religious, traditional and cultural norms that govern (the) society" (Nasir, 2001, p. 160). The CEDAW Committee for Reporting Obligations noted at their 1998 session that, in Nigeria, there is still a paucity of gender disaggregated statistics which would

make comparison of women's progress in several sectors of national life easier. (Sani, 2001). An examination of the various Nigerian University Acts, which govern the establishment of each university shows that, in general, they contain a clause prohibiting exclusion on account of "ethnic grouping, sex, place of birth or of family origin or religious or political persuasion from studentship, employment or membership of any body established by the Act" (University of Uyo Draft Act, 2000, p.18; University of Benin Amendment Act, 2000, p.18, University of Jos Draft Act, 2000 Section 1:3 a).

As part of this very partial implementation of CEDAW there are no reserved places for women with regard to admission to higher education or employment. Higher education admission requirements, focus not only academic achievement, but also take account of catchment areas. Priorities are given to applicants from educationally disadvantaged areas and select by discipline. There is a discipline quota of 60:40 of Science to Arts. As more women take arts subjects at high school, this policy acts as a brake on their access to higher education. The dilemma for policy makers in Nigeria is how to integrate a national policy of promoting science and technology in national development with what is perceived as a less compelling imperative of advancing women's interests.

University staff are more likely to be male, a phenomenon which can be explained by the pattern of access to higher education within the country. Table 5 shows the gender distribution of staff at the University of Ibadan, the oldest of the universities, in 2001. Nearly 80% of academic staff and 70% of senior administrators are male, 88.1% of professors, 78% of senior lecturers and 75% of junior lecturers are male.

From the 1990s, women have become slightly more visible in middle and top management in higher education in Nigeria as some have attained positions as Rectors, Directors of Institutes, Deans, Registrars and University Bursars (Odejide, 2001) Tables 3 and 4 list the numbers in senior posts and the means of gaining those posts. It is evident that women very rarely gain access to senior posts through election. Some are appointed to leadership roles on the basis of a transparent appointments process. In interviews with some in these posts it emerged that where the criteria were academic and professional qualifications, proven skills and competence on the job, they felt they had a fair chance of succeeding. But, as Tables 3 and 4 show, the majority of women who have senior posts have gained these through nomination. This indicates women in senior leadership may be linked to powerful groups working through the senior woman they nominate. During the period of military rule Vice Chancellors were nominated by the military heads of state. Two women Vice Chancellors nominated in this way subsequently encountered problems with their university communities.

Adadevoh (2001) argues that it is necessary for women to gain better qualification and experience suitable for leadership. The problem is "By whose definition?" There continues the problem of deciding what constitutes acceptable criteria for advancement. What weighting for example is attached to: competence in teaching, service to the department and university committees, type of research and outlets for research? The politics of research and publication differs from institution to institution, and in Nigeria, it is also tied to the age of the university (whether first, second and third generation university), ownership (whether federal, state or private) and the type of university, whether conventional or specialized. An example of the new thinking about the weighting of research in relation to teaching for promotion purposes is the proposal in one Nigerian university's vision document to allocate up to 30% weighting to teaching competence (University of Ibadan, 2001). Such decisions are being made in the context of changing ideas about the relevance of tertiary education to national and community goals, globalization and the flow of knowledge between the North and the South. But they also have implications for considering affirmative action policies for women with regard to gaining access to positions of power and decision making in higher education.

In interviews, participants currently holding senior jobs attributed this promotion to their academic and professional education, and "staying power" on the job. They also commented on their willingness to rise through the ranks, when men tended to move to greener pastures. Some saw society's perception of women as being more circumspect and honest as a factor in their career advancement, while others noted how with the expansion of Nigeria's economy in the 1970s men had moved from posts in higher education to the private sector leaving spaces that women were able to fill.

In the view of respondents the major constraints to women's advancement to leadership positions in higher education were 'cultural' and linked to women's interpersonal relationships. Many mentioned 'men's superiority complex', and social pressures on women not to move into the public sphere. Other common perceptions were of a widespread preference for male leadership, and general apathy among women with regard to taking on leadership. Nigeria's long history of militarisation inextricably linked leadership with authoritarianism, a quality that is not defined as feminine. In addition the volatile nature of staff and student activism in Nigerian higher education institutions often involves physical and psychological violence. This makes it easy for a community to designate university management as a terrain best suited to males. Other "disabilities" that emerged related to a woman's ethnicity, unmarried status or radical politics. Ethnicity, religious affiliation, and ideological orientation might be important determinants of opportunities to engage in decision making and succeed in leadership posts. These are not unambiguously beneficial for the women who occupy them

Mbanefoh's study (1995) mentions the loneliness of women who find themselves in management positions in Nigeria. This study corroborates this. Participants in leadership position mentioned how often they had to have recourse to coping strategies, such as accessing family support, ignoring male prejudices, utilizing good time management, and "proving oneself" often by working long hours or acquiring additional training. None thought of challenging the status quo or initiating systemic change. This was in spite of the fact that they could read the power relations within the system fairly accurately. Moreover, since these women acquired their posts through what they regarded as merit, they were wary of supporting affirmative action for women. While a few respondents commented on the old boy networks in facilitating men's success, they did not take due cognizance of how the organizational structure has been largely defined by men and often alienated women or that there were processes that could challenge the influence of these informal networks

Women's groups have played an ambiguous role in projects to support women students and staff in higher education in Nigeria. In the 1970s conservative women's groups like the National Council of Women's Societies and the socialist feminist group, Women in Nigeria (WIN) helped galvanize feminist scholarship and facilitated the establishment of Women's networks such as the Association of African Women for Research and Development (AAWORD). Since the 1980s and the 1990s, there has been a noticeable increase in the number of women's groups which focus on women in higher education. Some of these groups are discipline based like Girls and science and Technology (GASAT), while others are multidisciplinary like the Network for Gender Sensitive Education, the National Association of Women Academics (NAWACS), the Network for Women's Studies in Nigeria (NWSN), the Women's Research and Documentation Centre (WORDOC) and the Ahmadu Bello Women's Study Group (ABWSG). Generally the women's groups that focus on higher education, aim to prioritize confronting the gender inequities in their workplace and discipline. They act as support groups for women associated with higher education.

However an examination of the work of four of such groups shows that they tend to adopt programs which focus on inclusion, into the institution rather than transformation. Their membership includes teachers, researchers and to a lesser extent, activists in universities and research institutes. They typically work to facilitate women's careers and encourage younger women to join them. A number assist women through mentorships in coping with professional and personal roles. The activities cover members' welfare, social policy, education, communication/ information, publication and advocacy. Some collaborate with other women's groups outside the university. But in spite of the increased number of academic and professional women's

groups, there seems to be little enthusiasm among the majority of women working and studying within universities to join them. Often women staff and students comment on their lack of power to change the situation, and the implication of women's associations in internal university politics. A view is commonly expressed that these groups diminish the potential for making changes from within.

One avenue that has been explored relates to the establishment of courses in women's studies. No Nigerian university currently runs a full degree in Women's Studies; rather, courses on women's issues are taught as part of the undergraduate programs in certain disciplines like Sociology, Literature, Education, and Psychology. (Mama, 1996) One university, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile Ife runs a graduate program on Gender and Policy Studies. The Network for Women's Studies in Nigeria, founded in 1996, recognized its pivotal role in shaping the Women's Studies' curriculum by embarking on a preparation of a national curriculum for Gender Studies in Nigeria at its inaugural meeting. It recommended that the core curriculum for Women's Studies needs to address the attitudes, knowledge and skills to be acquired by students as well as provide guidelines on methods of learning and teaching and methods of assessment. (Odejide & Isiugo-Abanihe, 1999). Since the NUC previously prescribed a Minimum Academic Standards Guide for all universities in the nation, the NWSN considered it strategic to have a professional group drawn from scholars from all over the country contribute to the content and structure of the curriculum and thus hasten the process of its legitimization by the accreditation body. This strategy would also facilitate the running of nation wide workshops on feminist approaches to teaching and learning, since it had been observed that the earlier African initiatives in incorporating gender issues into different disciplines had encountered the ambivalence of initiators of the programs towards the issue of patriarchy and women's subordination. (Odejide, 1999a; Odejide, 1999b)

Currently, in Nigeria, most universities are engaged in curriculum review as part of the National Universities Commission's requirement for accreditation of programs and ranking of universities according to performance. This opportunity offered by periods of university curriculum reviews for introducing new courses is very useful as is corroborated by Denzer's experience with Women's Studies. in Ibadan, Nigeria, where she was able to inject elements of Women's Studies into her undergraduate History courses (Denzer, 1999) with significant results in students' choice of topics for their final year essays.

### *Conclusion*

The opportunities for improving women's presence in higher education institutions in Nigeria will emerge from a combination of factors internal



and external to the universities themselves and to the country. The major factor is the impact of globalization on higher education, as new sites of learning emerge through open and distance learning and new opportunities for participation develop for women who have dropped out of school. The preponderance of females in existing part time and sandwich programs for continuing teacher-training education is a positive sign in this direction. Such programs need to begin to engage with gender differences in their course offerings, content and pedagogies and not only concentrate on enhanced access for women. Gender needs to be an explicit concern in policies of expansion and inclusion.

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TABLE 1. Admissions to higher education by zone and gender, 2000

Region	Female	Male	Total
North Central Zone	1993	4815	6808
North East Zone	533	1504	2037
North West Zone	944	2673	3617
South East Zone	11436	12183	23619
South West Zone	3599	6508	10108
South South Zone	5664	8787	14451
<b>Total</b>	<b>24169</b>	<b>36460</b>	<b>60629</b>

Source: Derived from Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board 2002

TABLE 2a. Applications and admissions statistics (UME/DE) by State of origin and sex 2000/2001 Session North Central Zone

APPLICATIONS ADMISSIONS							
State	Male	Female	Total	Male	Femal	Total	% Of Applications
Benue	6490 (64.9%)	3509 (35.1%)	9999	1318 (70.7%)	545 (29.3%)	1863	18.6
katsina	1584 (76.1%)	498 (23.9%)	2082	754 (75.4%)	81 (24.6%)	329	15.8
Kogi	11214 (63.3%)	5965 (26.7%)	17179	1498 (68.3%)	695 (31.7%)	2193	12.3
Plateau	2787 (65.9%)	1441 (34.1%)	4228	376 (69.9%)	162 (30.1%)	538	12.7
Kaduna	4416 (66.9%)	2185 (33.1%)	6601	633 (73.5%)	234 (27%)	867	13.1
Niger	2328 (70%)	999 (30%)	3327	447 (72.1%)	173 (27.9%)	620	18.6
Nasarawa	1995 (71.8%)	785 (28.2%)	2780	295 (74.1%)	103 (25.9%)	398	14.3
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>30814 (66.7%)</b>	<b>15382 (32.3%)</b>	<b>46196</b>	<b>4815 (78.7%)</b>	<b>1993 (29.3%)</b>	<b>6808</b>	<b>14.7</b>

Source: Derived from Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board 2002  
 UME: University Matriculation Examinations  
 DE: Direct Entry i.e. Advanced Level, National Certificate of Education, National Diploma

TABLE 2b. Applications and admissions statistics (UME/DE) by State of origin and sex 2000/2001 Session North East Zone

APPLICATIONS ADMISSIONS							
State	Male	Female	Total	Male	Femal	Total	% Of Applications
Borno	2841 (68.7%)	1295 (31.3%)	4136	368 (64.3%)	204 (35.7%)	572	13.8
Gombe	1310 (72%)	509 (28%)	1819	279 (76%)	88 (24%)	367	20.1
Jigawa	1283 (63.3%)	215 (26.7%)	1498	187 (68.3%)	29 (31.7%)	216	14.4
Taraba	1725 (76.1%)	542 (23.4%)	2267	205 (78.2%)	57 (21.8%)	262	11.5
Yobe	1416 (81.1%)	331 (18.9%)	1747	114 (65.9%)	59 (34.1%)	173	9.9
Bauchi	1511 (78.2%)	420 (21.8%)	1931	351 (76.6%)	96 (23.4%)	447	23.1
TOTAL	10086 (75.3%)	3312 (24.7%)	1398	1504 (73.8%)	533 (26.2%)	2037	15.2

TABLE 2c. Applications and admissions statistics (UME/DE) by State of origin and sex 2000/2001 Session North West Zone

APPLICATIONS ADMISSIONS							
State	Male	Female	Total	Male	Femal	Total	% Of Applications
Adamawa	2929 (68.1%)	1369 (31.9%)	4298	358 (68.6%)	164 (31.4%)	522	12.1
Sokoto	1394 (83.6%)	274 (16.4%)	1668	345 (79.9%)	87 (20.1%)	432	25.9
Zamfara	1331 (85.3%)	229 (14.7%)	1560	258 (84%)	49 (16%)	307	19.7
Kebbi	1094 (75.8%)	350 (24.2%)	1444	264 (79.8%)	67 (20.2%)	331	23
Kwara	10724 (64.1%)	6014 (35.9%)	16738	842 (71.4%)	337 (28.6%)	1179	7
Kano	4514 (73.2%)	1655 (26.8%)	6169	606 (71.6%)	240 (28.4%)	846	14
TOTAL	21986 (69%)	9891 (31%)	31877	2673 (73.9%)	944 (26.1%)	3617	11.3

TABLE 2d. Applications and admissions statistics (UME/DE) by State of origin and sex 2000/2001 Session South East Zone

APPLICATIONS ADMISSIONS							
State	Male	Female	Total	Male	Femal	Total	% Of Applications
Abia	13663 (52%)	12869 (48%)	26325	2293 (54.1%)	1944 (45.9%)	4237	16.1
Anambra	19452 (43.4%)	25401 (56.6%)	44853	3224 (47.2%)	3612 (52.8%)	6836	15.2
Ebonyi	3975 (66.2%)	2031 (33.8%)	6006	706 (69.5%)	310 (30.5%)	1016	17.0
Enugu	11167 (51.1%)	10667 (48.9%)	21834	1878 (56.6%)	1441 (43.4%)	3319	15.2
Imo	28043 (50%)	28548 (50%)	56591	4082 (50%)	4129 (50%)	8211	14.5
TOTAL	76300 (49%)	79516 (51%)	155609	12183 (51.6%)	11436 (48.4%)	23619	15.2

TABLE 2e. Applications and admissions statistics (UME/DE) by State of origin and sex 2000/2001 Session South West Zone

APPLICATIONS ADMISSIONS							
State	Male	Female	Total	Male	Femal	Total	% Of Applications
Ekiti	10409 (63%)	6104 (37%)	16513	677 (67%)	334 (33%)	1011	6.1
Lagos	15789 (58%)	11455 (42%)	27244	1165 (58.8%)	815 (41.2%)	1980	7.3
Ondo	15315 (63.3%)	8879 (36.7%)	24194	1299 (64.5%)	714 (35.5%)	2013	8.3
Oyo	15545 (67.8%)	8399 (32.2%)	22944	869 (69.5%)	381 (30.5%)	1250	5.4
Ogun	21855 (57.1%)	16393 (42.9%)	38248	1506 (62.1%)	921 (37.9%)	2427	6.3
Osun	17549 (64.1%)	9840 (35.9%)	27389	993 (69.6%)	434 (30.4%)	1427	5.2
TOTAL	96462 (61.2%)	61070 (39%)	156532	6509 (64.3%)	3599 (35.6%)	10108	6.5

TABLE 2f. Applications and admissions statistics (UME/DE) by State of origin and sex 2000/2001 Session South South Zone

APPLICATIONS ADMISSIONS							
State	Male	Female	Total	Male	Femal	Total	% Of Applications
Akwa	11498	9479	20977	1356	903	2259	10.8
Ibom	(54.8%)	(45.2%)		(69%)	(40%)		
Bayelsa	4678	3006	7684	623	351	974	12.7
	(60.9%)	(39.1%)		(64%)	(36%)		
Cross	5150	3323	8473	876	495	1371	16.2
Rivers	(60.8%)	(39.2%)		(63.9%)	(36.1%)		
Delta	25699	19394	45093	2480	1697	4177	9.3
	(57%)	(43%)		(59.4%)	(40.6%)		
Rivers	13103	9882	22985	1747	1216	2963	12.9
	(57%)	(43%)		(59%)	(41%)		
Edo	23246	16818	40064	1705	1002	2707	6.8
	(58%)	(42%)		(63%)	(37%)		
TOTAL	83374	61902	145276	8787	5664	14451	9.9

TABLE 3. Women in management in higher education in Nigeria 1989-1999

Post	Number	Location	Mode of Selection
Vice chancellor	3	Benin, Lagos STATE, Abuja	Nominated
Deputy Vice chancellor	1	IFE (OAU)	Nominated
Registrar	2	OAU, FUTO	Appointed
Bursar	2	OAU, UNILAG	Appointed
Rector (poly)	3	Ibadan, Ilorin, Yaba	Appointed
Librarian	3	Ibadan, OSU, OAU	Appointed
cmac/ Dir. of Clinical Services	1	LUTH	Appointed
TOTAL	15		

OAU: Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile Ife  
 FUTA: Federal University of Agriculture, Akure  
 UNILAG: University of Lagos  
 LUTH: Lagos University Teaching HosPTAL

TABLE 4. Women in management in higher education current figures

Post	Number	Location	Mode of Selection
Vice chancellor	1	Abuja	Nominated
Deputy Vice chancellor	2	Calabar, Abuja	Appointed
Registrar	7	Ibadan, OAU, Benin, Nsukka, Port Harcourt, Uyo, Umudike	Appointed
Librarian	4	Uyo, Jos, Enugu, UNAAB	Appointed
Bursar	4	OAU, LASU, FUTO, Uyo	Appointed
Deputy Bursar	1	OAU	Appointed
Chief Medical Director	1	National Eye Hosp. Kaduna	Appointed
CMAC/ Dir. of Clinical Services	1	Ibadan	Elected
Director of Admin. Teaching Hospital	4	Ibadan, Ilorin, Calabar, National Orthopedic Hosp.	Appointed
Dean of Students	1	UNILAG	Appointed
TOTAL 26			

TABLE 5. Staff strength University of Ibadan

Category	Number	Male	Female
Academic Staff	1332	78.7%	21.3%
Other Senior Staff	1713	70.4%	29.6%
Junior	2970	78.5%	21.5%
Total	5835	75.4%	21.5%
Academic Staff by Category			
Professors/Readers	23.7%	88.1%	11.9%
Senior Lecturers	25.2%	78.2%	21.8%
Lecturer 1 & below	51.1%	74.5%	25.5%
TOTAL 100% 78.7% 21.3%			

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