

HISTORICAL PATTERNS, CUSTOMS, AND TRADITIONS RESTRICTING WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN AFRICA SINCE 1975

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Abstract

The subject of women's participation in education at all levels and in higher education in particular, has remained at the forefront of the agenda of individuals, communities, governments and international organizations for decades. This paper seeks to explore the historical dimension of the discourse as a way of further promoting the dialogue on Africa's path to educational progress. Specific issues addressed in this paper are centred on the extent to which the African historical and cultural norms and traditions militate against women's participation in university education. The study is based on a review of extensive historical, sociological and empirical studies on women's educational participation and attainment in Africa. It relies on secondary information gathered through bibliographic searches of the African states, education-related books, journals, dissertations and documents by governments and international agencies. Recommendations on the best strategies for long lasting solutions in redressing gender imbalance in university education in Africa were given in the paper.

Introduction

Higher education more than other levels of education is central to the acquisition and production of knowledge that shapes the contemporary world. There are several categories of higher education in Africa. They include: university institutions, advanced colleges of education, polytechnics and technical colleges. For the purpose of this study, higher education refers to universities. African universities remain the national storehouses of trained, informed, inquiring and critical intellects for leadership (Combe, 1991). Indeed, African universities have produced graduates, with the requisite human relations, critical thinking and technical skills who had participated in national and international decision-making and problem solving (World Bank 1997). Since higher education continues to play a vital role in the new knowledge based on globalizing economy, women participation in higher education is beyond the question of the fundamental right to education at all levels. It is indeed necessary to ensure that women who constitute more than half of Africa's human resources have equal access to higher education. The acquisition of knowledge to navigate the complexities of the African nations is a necessity for everyone regardless of gender.

Literature affirms that Africa's educational system is pyramidal, with a broad base at the primary level moving to a narrow apex at the tertiary level. The gender gap in Sub-Saharan Africa increases in severity, with each higher level of education. Most of the African countries have made some significant progress in bridging the gender gap at primary and secondary levels, but the gender gap at university education remains big. Since the international women's year of 1975 and the United Nations decade for women 1975-85, most of the African States have made some commitment at regional and international level to redressing gender gap in education. Indeed, most of the African States are party to various international human rights instruments which commit States to either morally or legally prohibit discrimination and as well, call for concrete actions that will bridge historical gender imbalance. At the international level, most of the African States were signatories to the Declaration of the World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, 1990), the International Congress on Education for Human Rights and Democracy (Montreal, 1993) the E-9 Summit (Delhi, 1993), World Conference on Human Rights (Vienna 1993), World Summit on Social Development (Copenhagen, 1995), Fourth World Conference on women (Beijing 1995), World Conference on Higher Education, (Paris, 1998) and Education for All (EFA) Forum (Dakar, 2000). However, the impact of such commitments on gender inequality in the field of education is yet to stand the test of time in the African States. Apart from the international commitments, African States have made several declarations at regional levels such as the Pan-African Conference on the Education of girls (Ouagadougou, 1993), African Conference on the Empowerment of women through functional literacy and the education of Girl-child (Kampala, 1996), OAU Conference of African Ministers of Education (Harare, 1999). These various regional declarations were translated into constitutional commitments as well as policy guidelines by the concerned African States. Unfortunately, the implementations of the constitutional commitments and policy guidelines have not yielded much significant success at solving gender equality in the field of higher education. For example FAWE and

ASSU (1998) claim that African universities over the years have produced mainly male managers as more than 90% of staff of African universities, 80% of teachers and 75% of students were men. UNPD (2000) asserts that female have a gross gender ratio of 0.22 at the tertiary level of African education. These no doubt, accentuate the marginalization and under-utilization of women in national development in the various African states. Perhaps, the reasons for the low pace in the attainment of gender equality in higher education could be due to the influence of the African socio-cultural norms and values as well as the western school tradition itself.

Statement of Problem

In the last two decades, individual scholars, communities, governments and international organizations have shown much concern about women participation in higher education. This paper seeks to explore the historical dimension of the discourse as a way of further promoting the dialogue on African's path to educational progress. The problem of this study therefore was that of addressing the following questions.

- (1) What is the state of gender in university education in Africa?
- (2) What accounts for the restriction in women's participation in university education in Africa?
- (3) Are the factors at work predominantly those related to the African historical and cultural norms, or is the western school tradition itself responsible for this restriction?
- (4) What are the short and long term practical strategies for enhancing women participation in higher education in Africa?

The State of Gender in University Education in Africa

African universities have been characterized by three major phases of Development. The first generation universities were those founded by the colonial administration. They include the Fourah Bay College in Free Town Sierra-Lone, the University College Ibadan in Nigeria, Dares Salaam University in Tanzania and Makerere University in Uganda. These early universities were affiliated to the European universities before they eventually obtained their charter. The second generation universities were those founded during the post-independence reconstruction era during which several African universities achieved their own charters. The third phase are the more recently globalized universities characterized by the increased state investment, the rise of private ownership of universities as well as distance learning and Open university system. It is worthy to note that over the years, expansion has been a key word in the development of university education in Africa.

Another major remarkable historical influence of university education in Africa is that some African states have experienced major political upheaval such as civil war and militarism that affected the development of university education e.g. Nigeria, Ghana, Uganda, Sierra-Leone. Others have had socialist governments ostensibly sympathetic to issues of inclusion in education e.g. Tanzania. However, the general political trend in Africa is towards democratization accompanied by the emerging sense of rights and entitlement. Another striking observation in most of the African universities is the under representation of women both as students as well as in academic and management posts.

Nigeria

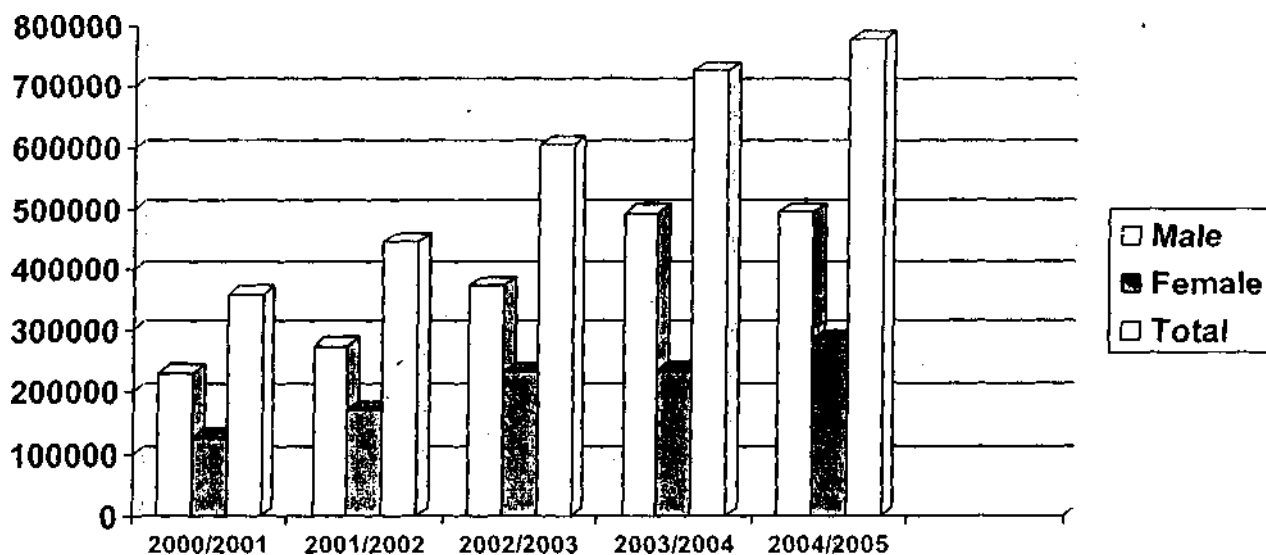
In Nigeria, the first university was established in 1948. Now, the country houses 89 universities; 36 owned by the federal government, 32 by states and 31 by private organizations. Private institutions are mostly religious and one is military. Over a thirty-year period 1975-2005, students enrolment had grown from 26,000 to 236, 261. (Federal Ministry of Education Statistics of Education 2007). Women were under represented in enrolment and management of universities in Nigeria as could be observed in the tables and figures 1-2 below:

Table 1: Enrolment of undergraduates by sex in all Nigerian universities 2000-2004/2005

Year	Male	Female	Total	Female percentage
2000/2001	231633	127125	358758	35.4
2001/2002	274131	170818	444949	38.4
2002/2003	373778	232326	606104	38.3
2003/2004	492874	234534	727408	32.2
2004/2005	494822	285179	780001	36.7
Total	1,867,238	1,049,982	2,917,220	36.0

Source: Federal Ministry of Education Statistics of Education 2007.

Fig 1: Graph showing the Enrolment of undergraduates by sex in all Nigerian universities 2000-



From the Table 1 and Figure 1 above, women's total enrolment during the period was between 32.2 and 38.4%.

Table 2: Number of academic staff by year and gender 2000-2005

Year	Male	Female	Total	Female Percentage
2000/2001	15289	3578	18867	19.0
2001/2002	15067	3359	18426	18.2
2002/2003	17936	4110	22046	18.6
2003/2004	19739	4132	23871	17.3
2004/2005	22858	4624	23535	16.8

Source: Federal Ministry of Education Statistics of Education 2007

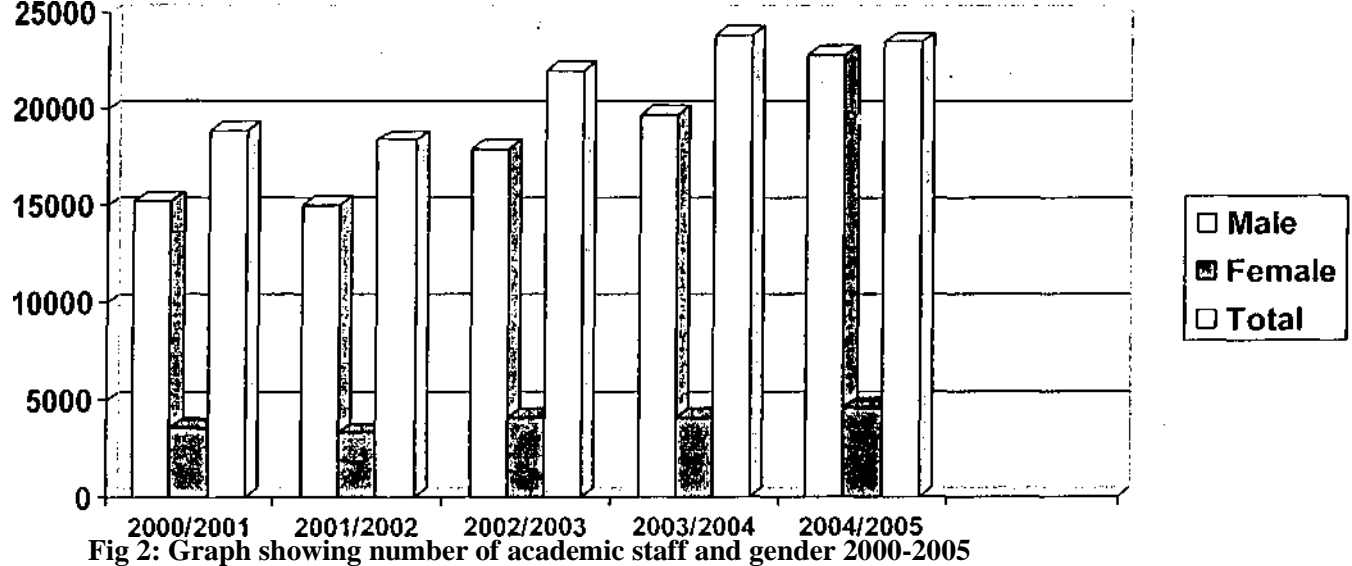


Fig 2: Graph showing number of academic staff and gender 2000-2005

From the Table 2 and Figure 2 above, the total percentage of women academic staff was between 16.8% and 19.0%.

Sierra- Leone

Sierra-Leone houses the first higher institution in West Africa. The Christian Institute founded at the beginning of the nineteenth century by the Church Missionary Society of Britain became Fourah Bay College and was affiliated with Durham University in the United Kingdom to prepare students for degrees in 1876 (Lumumba, 2006). The special interest in the case of Sierra- Leone, particularly Fourah Bay College which has been referred to as “The Athens of West Africa” (Particka, 2003) stems from its longer existence which does not provide any advantage in terms of more favourable opportunities for women’s total enrolment as well as participation as staff members was as low as 19% as could be seen in tables 3 and 4.

Table 3: Student enrolment at the University of Sierra-Leone 1999-2000

Institution	Male	Female	Total	Female Percentage
Fourah Bay College	1269	299	1568	19
Njala University College	722	98	820	12
College of Medicine and Allied Sciences	127	42	169	25
Institute of Public Administration and Management	322	124	446	28
Total	2440	563	3,003	19

Source: UNESCO Forum Secretariat June, 2006

Table 4: Staff members at University of Sierra-Leone by Institution and gender I (1990/2000)

Institution/College	Male	Female	Total	Female Percentage
Fourah Bay College.	578	135	713	19
Njala University College.	436	96	532	18
College of Medicine and Allied Health Services.	121	40	161	25
Institute of Education.	30	8	38	21
Total	1165	279	1434	19.5

Source: UNESCO Forum Secretariat June, 2006

Ghana

The situation is not different in Ghana. Table 5 shows that the students' total female percentage by faculties in the University of Cape Coast, Ghana 1999/2000 session was 25%

Table 5: Students' Distribution by Faculties and Gender in the University of Cape Coast, Ghana 1999/2000 session

Faculty	Male	Female	Total	Female percentage
Arts	360	243	603	40%
Agriculture	555	80	635	13%
Education	2,876	1,028	3,904	26%
Social Sciences	1,784	624	2408	26%
Science	580	116	696	17%
Total	6155	2,091	8,246	25%

Source: University of Cape Coast (2000) 'Basic Statistics' Cape Coast: University Planning Unit.

Tanzania

Females constitute 54% of population in Tanzania (Nave, 2004). However, the total enrolment of women to higher education between 1979 and 2001 was 20.4%.

Kenya

The statistics of students' enrolment by gender and degree programme in public universities in Kenya (1990-1995) show gender inequality in favour of men. The total number of women was 24.4% (UNESCO, 2006)

The Former French African Colonies

The former French colonies have generally even wider gaps. The Sahelian countries, which are also at the same time, former French counties, register the lowest enrolment rates from primary to higher education level (UNESCO, 2006). Despite her proclaimed generously universalistic assimilation policy, the French colonial administration designed for the colonies an education system that was racially unequal and highly elitist and selective (Assie, 1982). The total women enrolment at the University of Ouagadougou between 1995 and 2001 was 26.1% (UNESCO 2006).

At the Abdou Moumouni University in Niger (another former French West African territory), the female enrolment remains below 17% between 1994 and 1997 (FAWE, 2001).

Reasons for the Low Participation of Women in Higher Education in Africa

Existing literature on women education in Africa has identified several factors restricting women's participation in higher education. We have singled out four factors for our discussion in this paper. Firstly is the European imperialist policy in colonial Africa in which the philosophy of inequality in education which was prevalent in Europe in the 19th century was naturally transferred to their African colonies. Secondly, is the African socio-cultural norms, values and practices which perpetuates the subordinate position of women in the pre-colonial as well as the colonial era and are still prominent after political independence because the African States failed to carry out a social transformation that will dismantle power hierarchies, based on gender relations. The third factor is the influence of western school tradition itself. The argument here is that educational stereotyping does reinforce existing oppressive gender relations and perpetuates women subordinate status in the African society. African school environment is female unfriendly and this contributes significantly to African educational underdevelopment which in turn limits the various nation's ability to fully utilize all factors of production, particularly the human capital resources. The last factor is the increased level of poverty in Africa resulting from the economic crisis of the 1980s and the drastic negative impact of the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) and Stabilization Policies adopted by the African states to solve the economic crisis.

Europeans Imperialist Policies in Colonial Africa

There are strong evidences to prove that University education in Africa right from inception favoured the male population. In its historical analysis of gender inequality in the African higher education, UNESCO

(2006) claimed that the historical roots of the entrenchment of gender inequality in contemporary higher education in Africa was the European imperialist policy. To her, the colonial imperial powers in Africa who laid the foundations of higher education did not put into consideration the philosophy of gender inequality in their admission policy. Apart from that, the British, French and Belgians, who were major colonial powers in Africa failed to give Africans equal access to university education as were given to the Europeans. It should also be noted that the Europeans in general at the early period of colonization had not adopted any philosophy of gender-equality in their countries (UNESCO 2006).

Sharing this view point, Me Cann (1977), Hurt (1979), Puris (2000) and Osokoya (2005) noted the severity of gender inequality in education prevalent in Europe in the 19th century. In the same vein, Assie-Lumumba (2006) emphasized that some social values inherited from colonial imperialists persisted in Africa even when major changes had taken place in Europe. To him, the combination of such values together with the African socio-cultural norms contributed immensely to the persistent gender imbalance in higher education in Africa. Steady (2002) in her contributions eloquently attributed the historical foundations of the marginalization of the African women in the institutions of higher learning to the colonial imperialist legacy. She argues that the international financial institutions that act like contemporary proxies of the past colonial systems today are perpetuating imperial policies.

Manya (2000), observes that African universities were initially founded to nurture an African male elite due to the patriarchal structure of the Africans. Olujuwon (2002) corroborates this view when he claims that the purpose of Yaba Higher College which was the first higher education in Nigeria was to produce assistants who would relieve colonial administrators of menial tasks.

Africa's Socio-Cultural values and norms

The prevalent socio-cultural values and norms in Africa possibly reinforced inequality in education in Africa in favour of men. In this section, the following five factors are treated: Africa patriarchal structure, preference for boys education, low parental expectation for girls, girls low self esteem and personal household factors.

Africa patriarchal structure

Before colonization, Africans traditionally have a patriarchal structure characterized by gender inequality between males and females. Patriarchy is defined as “a set of social relations with a material base that enables men to dominate women (Okojie, 2001). It is a system of stratification and differentiation on the basis of sex which provides material advantages to males while simultaneously placing severe constraints on the roles and activities of females (Koenig and Foo, 1985). Patriarchy also conditions the spatial segregation of male and female, the male space consisting of the public domain while the female space consists largely of the household and its immediate environment. Thus, in patriarchal structure, women's activities are largely confined to the household. In this wise, African women are expected to get married early enough and care for their families as formal education is not regarded as a prerequisite for being a wife and mother. Patriarchy is dominant in Africa even after political independence.

Preference for Boys' Education

The patriarchal attitude in Africa is attributable to parents' preference for boys education. Sons are expected to become future household heads. They are traditionally to inherit property and ensure continuity of the family. Sons are therefore greatly encouraged to further their education so as to earn good incomes that will enable them care for their families and aged parents. Daughters on the other hand, are temporary, for they get married and move to their husbands' homes. Investment in female education is therefore seen by many Africans as unnecessary because it will benefit the husbands' families.

Low Parental Expectation for Girls

Closely related to the above is the low parental expectation for girls. In Africa, many parents especially the illiterate parents have low academic expectations for their daughters. Some believe that higher education is for boys only because to them, boys seem to be more brilliant and could perform better than girls, furthermore, the perceptions of adult roles for women, their marital and maternal obligations to their families make some illiterate African's believe that girls do not require much formal education as female roles do not require going to school. This could possibly explain why parents are usually less eager to encourage their daughters who show less interest in school.

Girls' Low Self Esteem

The internalization of cultural attitudes which regard women as the inferior sex. affects girls' beliefs in themselves and their behaviour. The FA WE (2002) survey research reported that many African girls see themselves as future wives and mothers only and do not see the need to have career aspirations.

Personal Household Factors

The existing sexual division of labour which assigns women the domestic responsibilities is another constraint for girls' education. FAWE (2002) survey also reported that some African husbands have refused to allow their wives to participate in educational programmes because of domestic responsibilities and lateness in returning from the programmes. The research also indicated that child care and domestic responsibilities at times tie women down and prevented them from joining adult literacy programmes. The implication of this is that once young girls drop out from school, only a small proportion are able to take advantage of remedial programmes after marriage.

The Influence of School Factors

School factors examined in this context are: school/college learning environment, quality and relevance of curriculum, low transition rates, brain drain syndrome, unfavorable attitude of teachers, insufficient female role models, inadequate mentorship for women in university establishment, lack of self-confidence of girls and sexual harassment.

School/College Learning Environment

Literature affirms that educational stereotyping reinforces existing oppressive gender relations in Africa's higher institutions and perpetuates women subordinate status in our society. Meena (1996) submits that education plays a very vital role in the social life of people in the Tanzania society as it allocates gender specific packages that reinforce the oppressive gender relations. In another submission Meena (2002) claims that when the University of Dares Salaam in Tanzania opened an Engineering faculty, there were no toilet facilities for female students, because it was assumed that the faculty was naturally for male students. This oversight did not end up (here as it was followed by very hostile treatments of females who dared to cross the boundary of an otherwise male dominated discipline. No wonder, it was reported that some few females had to suffer "academic sanction" when they excelled in the institution.

In her submission on gender sensitivity, UNESCO (1998) claims that success at school is measured in terms of masculine behaviour and attributes such as competitiveness, independence of thought, and active participation. Girls, who are trained from birth to be modest, docile and obedient, may find it difficult to behave in ways that conform with the masculine norms and values of the school. Not only is the school responsible for the cognitive development of pupils, it also takes care of their social development, as the norms and values of the wider society are incorporated into the culture of the school. Girls are prepared for their adult social and family roles and are even expected to behave in feminine ways when relating to peers and staff members within the school environment,

FAWE (2002) asserts that subjects and knowledge in the Schools contribute in a number of ways to the continuation of sex inequalities in society. Certain subjects in the school including mathematics, the sciences, building and mental work are usually perceived as masculine while others such as typing and home economics are perceived as feminine. The highly valued skills and knowledge from which girls are sometimes excluded in the school are those which are highly rewarded in adult life. Women without such skills and knowledge would not be able to compete with men and would thus have less access to highly skilled jobs. This could possibly explain why most women remain outside the decision and policy making processes and are unable to influence matters that would benefit girls and women.

In another contribution FAWE (1998) asserts that most teaching learning materials in the school usually depict women in stereotyped feminine characteristics and behaviours while men are portrayed in more favourable masculine behaviours.

Quality and Relevance

Another school factor relate to quality and relevance in higher institutions. Meena (2002) submits that most African countries do agree that the quality of education has been deteriorating while internal inefficiencies exist. Related to the issue of quality is the aspect of relevancy. Scholars observe that tertiary education in Africa does not seem to be offering knowledge and skills which are directed to the solution of the African poverty and technological backwardness (Meena, 2002, Okojie, 2002).

Low transition rates

Educational reports and findings have established that transition rates are low for female (FAWE 1998, 2002). There had been no agreed strategies on how to improve transition rates at this level.

Brain drain syndrome

Related to the quality of education in Africa is the brain drain syndrome. Some African universities have lost most of their highly qualified teaching personnel to some foreign universities because of poor financing and inadequate teaching resources in Africa. The problem of brain drain has affected tremendously the quality of university education in Africa as several students have little learning to show for their years in higher institutions in the recent times.

Unfavourable Attitude of Teachers

Teachers are members of the wider society in which the school is located and have been socialized into the dominant gender stereotype culture. In the school system teachers tend to reinforce sex-role stereotype when they use sexist language and some learning aids. Some teachers would not worry when girls talk less or contribute less to classroom discussion because they believe that girls are expected to be quiet. Others at times reward girls and boys differently for their performance in certain subjects.

The research on female under schooling in Africa, carried out by the African Academy of Sciences Research Programme (2002) reports that the attitude of majority of male teachers to female pupils is not encouraging while some female teachers are also very hostile to female students. In the study conducted in Kenya it was found that teachers' expectations were very biased against girls for several teachers have limited perceptions of female students' academic abilities and potentials. Such teachers' attitudes added to parent's limited expectations for daughters do not motivate girls or encourage them to realize their potentials.

Insufficient female role models

There were few female role models for females who continued their education to tertiary levels in Africa. A study by the African Academy of Sciences Research programme in Uganda, found that role models for females who went to university were professional males admired for hard work, ambition, courage, professionalism, popularity and commitment to their work. The underrepresentation of women at the tertiary level of education limits the number of women qualified to teach in tertiary institution.

Inadequate Mentorship for Women in University Establishment

Mentorship has been highlighted by Bryne (1991) as an effective means of upward mobility within the employment sector, it is a process in which an experienced, often older person takes an inexperienced and usually younger person under their wing to encourage them, sharpen the awareness of their own potential and create avenues for them to reach some set goal. In the university, mentorship operates differently for students and for staff. For staff, mentorship within the higher education helps ensure that, from the experience of the mentor, the protegee gains access to fertile areas for research grants, avenues for publications and recommendations for inclusion on committees.

Lack of self-confidence of girls

FAWE (1998) noted that most African girls allow themselves to be overwhelmed by all the negative filtering influences that they see and hear around them. They internalize these external impacts, and simply allow their self-confidence to be eroded.

Sexual harassment

There had been several reports of girls who suffered sexual harassment from their colleagues and sometimes from their teachers in some African university campuses. This is a serious problem in African universities where no official policy for protection of women exists. Such sexual harassment contributes to discouraging some female students, particularly new students.

Increased Level of Poverty in the African States

Bridging gender gap in education will have to require additional resources in terms of expanding the facility, improving the quality through the training and retraining of teachers, as well as re-writing text-books and audio-visual materials in teaching. The increased level of poverty in African states is a big hindrance.

It is estimated that about 42% of the population in Sub-Saharan Africa is living on less than one United State dollar per day (Meena, 2002). Data from the UNDP Human Development Report (2000) indicated that from 1990-1998, out of 43 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, only one had a GNP growth rate of 4%, three had between 3-4%, twenty had between 0-3% and nineteen had a negative growth rate. The economic crisis that started in the 1980s had an impact on both ends of the education systems in terms of reduced financial resources allocated to education and fewer employment opportunities for university graduates as the governments which had been the main employers were unable to create new jobs. The solutions to the economic crisis that were proposed to the African governments by international institutions, especially the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) put even more drastic negative impact on both ends

through the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs), and Stabilization Policies (SP). The policies brought by these have had immediate and long-term impact and thus, hindered any effort to eradicate gender inequality.

In relation to this is the performance of the economy as reflected by labour market conditions which influences children's and in particular girls' education. Parents expect that after investing in their children's education, the children should be able to find employment and help take care of them in their old age as well as assist with the care of their siblings. Unfortunately, high levels of unemployment in most African countries have become sources of disillusion for parents and children alike. Thus, many parents especially the uneducated and less educated parents feel that it is a waste of money investing in children's education particularly girls higher education.

Strategies for Enhancing Women Participation in Higher Education

To encourage women to participate in higher education in Africa will have to entail multiple strategies and multiple actors. In this presentation, the strategies will be discussed under the responsibilities of governments, to be followed by the role of African Universities, the international community and the African women themselves in that order.

What African Governments Should Do

- African Governments should recognize that women in higher education can make constructive input into the development of their countries. Therefore, they have a responsibility of ensuring that their commitment at international, regional and national levels are translated into policies and programmes;
- that the strategies for implementing such policies and programmes are clearly defined;
- that resources are mobilized for the implantation of the policies and guidelines;
- that in countries where the legal and regulatory environment is still a barrier, measures should be taken to reform laws and institute progressive laws that will facilitate the implementation of equality principles;
- that they should make deliberate efforts to ensure that every girl-child obtains a certain level of scientific and technological literacy to be able to make a meaningful contribution to national development as an adult.

Roles of the African Universities

The African universities, both public and private have a big responsibility in redefining their roles with gender sensitivity by:

- ensuring that they employ more qualified women and that the conditions of service are attractive enough to make women stay;
- providing training opportunities for women and ensuring the provision of social facilities such as creches and day care centres for children of staff;
- making university environment friendly in terms of security and addressing women specific needs;
- providing special grants to women for research and attendance at international and national conferences;
- setting up funds to provide preferential bursaries for female students particularly those who enroll in the sciences.
- putting resources into the training of teachers, especially women teachers;
- putting in place and maintaining infrastructure such as recreation rooms and toilet facilities for girls so as to promote their interest in their studies;
- re-visiting university programmes and introducing new courses on gender studies;
- revising gender-biased regulations such as instituting control measures and punishment for sexual harassment;
- discouraging sexist language on campuses;
- re-organizing the way knowledge has been produced, disseminated and controlled in order to enable women and girls to be part of the critical mass that produces and consumes knowledge;
- ensuring that the learning environment does not repel both female students and female faculty and that they do not contribute to the undermining of the self esteem of females;
- putting in place remedial courses for female students who do not make the required grades set for entry requirements. This will ensure that the girls catch up academically.

What Funding Agencies and Institutions Should Do

The international community and particularly multi-lateral and bilateral agencies as well as Transnational Companies need to support African States and African women in particular in the struggle to increase access to higher education by supporting programmes geared towards:

- helping to create public awareness of women's capabilities in the search for solution meant to promote equality in the education of all children;
- advocating recruitment of women teachers and lecturers especially in science and mathematics;
- supporting the creation and maintenance of centres for documentation and dissemination of information on women;
- ensuring that the institutions they support implement gender sensitive programmes in their establishments;
- supporting women lecturers on overseas conferences as well as research grants.

What African Women Should Do

African women must:

- avail themselves of opportunities for training and not shy away from responsibility;
- be prepared to sacrifice time and energy on the job and take extra work, if need be;
- organize themselves into association that are respected and listened to;
- women and particularly those who have had an opportunity for higher education, should not let governments rest, until true equality is achieved;
- women who are already in employment in higher education must strive to be mentors and role models for other women who join the establishment, especially younger ones;

Recommendations and Conclusion

Africans need to transform cultural values and attitudes and particularly those which assign women a subordinate position in the society in order to effect sustainable transformation in the total education process. Therefore, African governments should engage in constructive cultural campaigns to deconstruct the gender biases in our educational process. There is also a need for a holistic approach to bring about curriculum and pedagogic changes in the African education. Our educational process has to be totally reviewed in terms of content, textbooks, teaching methods and all audio visual materials.

In revisiting the curriculum, the possibility of incorporating the teaching of human rights and social justice should be explored so that they are reflected in all the teaching at all levels. In this respect, women's rights should be part of the human rights study. Therefore, issues of rape, and sexual assaults should be built into the curriculum as part of the human rights study. Improvement of the quality of education should also be a primary concern of the government. Schools should have textbooks, laboratory equipment and qualified teachers who are well motivated.

To ensure equality of opportunities and equality in access to quality education, governments should encourage the establishment of co-educational facilities. In this respect, government and parents should learn to accept that girls need education on sex and sexuality and not protection against sex and sexuality as it is being practiced.

In addition, education is a human right and should be shouldered primarily by the state taking into consideration the ability of most of parents to carry the major share of educational costs. Therefore, education should continue to be considered as a public good and a human right aspect, with the state shouldering a large part of the cost involved. Even in the market economies, in the developed world, governments have continued to subsidize education at all levels. Therefore, there is need for the governments to give more serious thought in the financing of our educational process. Educational foundations, trusts and various, mechanisms should also be creatively encouraged to expand sources of government revenue in support of higher education in Africa.

Finally but not the least, women as victims of oppression have no alternative but to spearhead the struggle for their own liberation. It is in this context that women educationalists should focus their research interests in the engendering of the educational process in its totality.

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TIME MANAGEMENT: HOW EXECUTIVES CAN ACCOMPLISH MORE AT LESS TIME

Dr. Frederick O. Eze

Abstract

The executive who can accomplish most of his/her assigned activities on a given time is a productive executive. Such executives are however not commonly found for 'time management' or more appropriately, the management of one's activities within the available time is both a science and art that the productive executive cultivates over a long period. Time is inelastic, perishable and ticking away. The productive executive maximizes tasks accomplishment during time. The article argues that time management is a mis-application of terminology for time cannot be managed but one can manage what he/she does within the time available. The time-tested principles of time management were discussed including useful tips on how executives could accomplish more with their time. The article contains a specimen Time-Log which executives may find very useful in scheduling their everyday activities to enable them monitor actual time use. Other

techniques for task prioritization were also discussed.

Introduction

Among all the resources required by the executive for the realization of organizational objectives, time is the most scarce. Time is totally inelastic, extremely perishable, as it can neither be stored nor recovered. Yesterday is gone and can never come back. Therefore, time is always never enough and is irreplaceable when lost. With this in mind, executives must always make the most use of any available time for maximum productivity (Ducker, 1967). Within the 20th century, great advances in science and technology have touched on and improved almost everything that is vital for human productivity and well-being on earth except time. No amount of scientific innovation will be able to extend the length of a day beyond twenty-four hours except perhaps, to accomplish much more within one day (Wenig and Matthew: 1983).

It is therefore, a surprise that many executives spend their precious time in many ways that do not contribute directly to the realization of desired organizational objectives. The problem however, is that such executives do not even realize that they are wasting this scarce resource in innumerable unprofitable activities that do not add value to the organization. Weber (1958) considered the wasting of time as the deadliest sin since the span of human life is finite and short within which one should make meaningful contribution to society. The irony of the situation is that most executives constantly complain about lack of time to accomplish their duties while they, at the same time, inadvertently waste their little available time in activities that make little or no contributions to the objectives of their organizations. In fact Hicks and Gullet (1981) believe that:-

...most managers do not know how they spend their time. When asked to estimate the percentage of time they devote to various activities, they generally provide (vague) answers that fail to match up with objective surveys of their actual time use.

An example of the “Time-waste syndrome” (Odo:2003) in Nigerian organizations occurs in several ways:

- i. African/Nigerian time malady where, meetings/events/ appointments usually start between one to two hours behind schedule.
- ii. Unacceptable situation where one works in one location while he lives in another location, 100kms away. He/she arrives for work on Monday at 1.00pm and leaves for home on Wednesday.
- iii. A thirty minute break stretches to two hours or may even mean dismissal for the day.
- iv. Going to the bank, market, motor car/motorcycle repairs at 10.00am and never to return for the day.
- v. Conversation/idle talk with friends under trees/sheds during working hours.
- vi. With the arrival of the GSM, we now have endless telephone conversations interrupting the flow of work.