ISSN: 2068 - 3537, E – ISSN (online) 2069 - 9476, ISSN – L = 2068 - 3537

Year XXIII, No. 2, 2017, pp. 175-192

Gender and Labour Force Participation in Nigeria

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Abstract

This paper examines existing data on the status of women and men in the area of work and labour force participation and underlines the disparities as a constituent of current life in Nigeria. Removing the obstacles and inequalities that women face regarding employment is a step towards realizing their potential in the economy and enhancing their contribution to economic and social development. Obtainable statistics have been reviewed for the ten year period between 2007 and 2016. Since the National Population Commission puts the number of women and men at about equal in the Nigerian population, therefore, one would normally have been perfectly safe to presuppose equivalent involvement in the labour force. However, National Bureau of Statistics (2017) in its Labour Force Participation Rate entirely opposes this hypothesis. For the ten year period reviewed in this paper, the average labour force participation rate (LFPR) was 64.3 percent for women and 74.2 percent for men. In 2016, the national labor force participation rate of women and men in the ages 15-64 years was 74.7 percent. The proportion of men was 82.6 percent while women accounted for 78.4 percent. Collectively, women do as much work as men if not more but the natures of work plus the circumstances under which they work and their access to prospect for varies from development men. **Keywords**: Gender: Labour Force: Participation; Nigeria.

Introduction

The Beijing Platform for action which constitutes the superlative international guideline for advancing the position of women recognized several vital areas of apprehension that obliged women empowerment in order to attain complete parity of the sexes. The areas of worry comprise education, poverty, health, armed conflict, gender-based violence, economic and labour force participation, power and decision making inequity. These tactical apprehensions were connected with monitoring markers which emphasized the necessity for information on women and men. In addition, as a component of institutional system of women development, the platform particularly obliges governments to produce and broadcast sex-disaggregated data and information for planning and assessment. This paper presents and examines existing data on the status of women and men in the area of work and labour force participation. It also underlines the disparities in the status of women and men in labour force participation as a constituent of current life in Nigeria; it contrasts the statistics on women with that of men in the area of work and labour force participation. To bump up results on the disparities in the status of women and men, statistics from secondary and primary sources were categorized, collected, processed and evaluated. It is expected that policy makers and executors, development partners and civil societies will utilize the results of the research in developing a conducive social and economic atmosphere that will not only guarantee equal treatment of all women and men but extensively

perk up the status of women in Nigeria. Women represent approximately 50% of Nigerian's population and consequently half of the work force. Women collectively work as much as or even more than men, but the natures of work in addition to the circumstances under which women work plus their right of entry to prospects of development varies from men.

As opposed to men, women are frequently deprived right of entry to employment prospects and stipulations of work; besides, owing to family duties several women relinquish or limit employment. A stride in the direction of grasping women's potential in the country and improving their input to economic and social development is the elimination of impediments and discriminations that countenance concerning employment. The Beijing Declaration establishes national commitment to the absolute rights of women and girls and their empowerment and identical involvement in all areas of life incorporating the economic sphere. The Beijing Platform for Action (BPA) recognizes women's position in the economy as a vital sphere of concern and points awareness to the necessity of encouraging and smoothing the progress of women's identical access to employment and resources over and above the synchronization of work and family duties for women and men. Besides, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) aim of achieving productive employment and decent work for everyone. While a little improvement has been made in the direction of these objectives, the benefits are irregular. This paper scrutinizes the drift over the last 10 years and depicts the present condition of women and men in the labour force, employment and unemployment.

Research Problem

The removal of obstacles and inequalities that women face with respect to employment is a step towards realizing women's potential in the economy and enhancing their contribution to economic and social development. Governments of countries like Nigeria that partook in the 1995 Beijing Declaration approved at the fourth World Conference on Women, expressed their responsibilities "to advance the objectives of equality, growth and peace for all women across the world for the benefit of humankind". This study evaluates whether the goals in the area of employment and labour force participation are being attained by examining statistical analysis on the status of women and men in work and labour force participation in Nigeria. It underscores the present

position of women and men and the transformations detected in due course. Obtainable statistics have been reviewed for the ten year period between 2007 and 2016.

The Labour Force

A country's labour force or the economically active population includes all individuals of any sex who provide, or are accessible to provide, the supply of labour for the production of goods and services, within an indicated time reference period. The System of National Accounts (SNA) delineates the production of goods and rendering of services to incorporate every production leaning to the market, several kinds of non-market productions (embracing production and developing of key products for personal utilization), personal construction and other manufacture of fixed assets for personal utilization. It eliminates voluntary and unpaid activities, like unpaid household activities and volunteer neighbourhood services. Two valuable determinants of the economically active population are the "typically active population", which is determined with regard to a long time frame like one year; and the "presently active population", which is determined with regard to a short time frame like a week or a day. The labour force which is also referred to as the presently active population constitutes the most employed determinant of the economically active commonly population. It includes every citizen beyond a specified minimum age who were either employed or unemployed within the particular indicated time. The data on economic attributes offered in this paper denote individuals 15-64 years of age. While the employed consist of all individuals over a particular age that either worked for compensation or income or added to a family trade with no reward all through the indicated period; the unemployed consist of all individuals over a particular age who were not employed within a particular period. Individuals not in the labour force refer to everyone not designated as either employed or unemployed within the indicated period, in addition to those beneath the age denoted for determining the financially active population. Individuals may be inactive arising from various rationales ranging from engagement in domestic responsibilities; attendance in educational institutions; retirement or old age to additional rationales like illness, disability, medical conditions etc.

Very old dissimilarities in the gender allocation of economic and monetary resources have situated women at a disadvantage compared to men in their capacity to engage in, contribute to and profit from wider procedures of development. Profoundly established disparity perseveres due to unfair customs and practices, regardless of considerable development on numerous facets of women's economic empowerment in the course of, inter alia, enhancements in educational achievement and portion of paid work. Moreover, the tempo of transformation has been sluggish and irregular especially across regions in the country. Women are persistently missing from important decision-making roundtables determining the allotment of economic and financial resources and prospects, which additionally continues gender inequity. The present financial and economic predicament is already ominous to the progress made in the direction of the realization of globally established development goals, together with the Millennium Development Goals. The way in which a country reacts to the recession can have unbalanced effects on women and girls, possibly reversing gains made, particularly through cuts in public spending on health and education and augmented threat of cutbacks in allotments to gender egalitarianism and women's empowerment. The global community has made strong, inclusive dedications to gender egalitarianism and women's rights in access to and power over financial and monetary resources in United Nations Intergovernmental contexts. Human rights treaties, systems and mechanisms have also tackled the subjects of women's access to and control over resources. Governments however boast the principal accountability for executing these obligations.

Gender and Employment Policy in Nigeria

Yahaya and Akinyele (2012) observe that ever since Nigeria got her independence in 1960, succeeding governments have constantly followed an employment policy which seeks full employment. The prime aim of the policy is to motivate financial growth and development, elevate living standards, fulfil human resource obligations and conquer unemployment and underemployment. With regard to human resource management, the policy is intended to make it possible for citizens to make liberated employment choices. It also offers utmost chances for workers to employ their skills and endowments in a job for which they are suitable, notwithstanding gender, religion, ethnicity or social derivation. Robert (2014) affirms that, after almost six decades of Nigeria's independence as a nation-state, and various incidents with quota system and federal character, there is totally no uncertainty about

major achievements in the prospects that have become obtainable to women in terms of employment. Nevertheless, discrimination persists in addition to the glass ceiling that hinders women from having really equivalent chances in the Nigeria labour force. Gender inequity subsists even at the institutional level in the labour force and in economics. Furthermore women in Nigeria have practically no official authority in the national and state civil service. While, the federal government formed the Ministry of Women Affairs about two decades ago, there exists no reservation that the government moulds and restricts women's position in the civil services. Gender still constitutes a fundamental issue in comprehending the procedure for making appointments especially to senior public management posts. Although the government encourages and utilizes women organization a bit, Nigerian women are still making efforts to break the glass ceiling compelled on them in the service. Really educated women in Nigeria persistently countenance copious inconsistencies between what they require to service and what is achievable under existing administrative laws, religions, and customary social structures in the nation. Regardless of endeavours introduced at diverse levels, constitutional and otherwise, to deal with the marginalization and discrimination against women, the stautus quo ente still seems to be sustained to a large degree. Women have however made considerable progress politically, economically, educationally and socially over the past decades and the conventional impediments to development are persistently collapsing. Women are penetrating the labour unparalleled force in numbers notwithstanding their rising presence and their joining previously male professions, they seldom work flanking men or execute identical tasks and roles.

Adepoju (2014) posits that the methodically poorer position of women in the labour force in Nigeria identify the obligation of treating gender as a power of its own shaky development concerns in the nation. While women represent about half of the Nigerian population, there are still a disproportionately low number of them in the labour force. Nigeria has a well-built patriarchal structure that sustains the sexual division of labour in the family and also openly limits women's ease of use of paid employment and circuitously stipulates the condition of employment for those who join the labour force. The men are inclined to occasionally exploit the patriarchal environment of link between men and women in the society added to supplementary cultural causes to

corroborate the supremacy of men and to make the women in the society to admit their situation of suppression as divine fate. Robert (2014) indicates that women in the paid labour force are distinguished by restricted and apprehensive employment prospects and discernible inferior remunerations, poor employment conditions, unsteady hours and detrimental employment agreements. Women are principally employed in low income occupations or enormously small level schemes that shove them into isolated employment and monotonous manual production.

The National Manpower Board Studies (2014) details that in the formal sector, women are typically employed as operatives, machinists in the manufacturing organisations, even as their equals in the service establishments are employed as nurses, cooks, secretaries, receptionists and other jobs considered as appropriate for women. The numbers of female engineers, pilots, lawyers and business managers are quite insignificant compared to the numbers of men involved in these jobs or professions. Additionally, Okojie (2014) avers that in the past, women were employed mostly in low paying jobs, were often paid less than others doing the same jobs and had very limited opportunities for training and advancement, but women are moving into the elite pipeline very slowly, for not all competent career minded women are interested in business. There are other career areas with better opportunities and less discrimination.

Ikpe (2013) notes that in various African countries, such as Nigeria, Ghana, etc. differential handling for women comprises reduced access to fundamental wellbeing, security and nutrition or health care resources, while in other countries, it is commonly linked to educational prospects. Ikpe adds that in many of these countries, women earn only three-fourths of what men earn, in addition, they have reduced access to land, credit and employment prospects. Nigerian women are still exposed to limiting access to education, employment, economic resources, abusive labour and trafficking. Also Ojoko (2012) observes that available data demonstrates that globally, women in business recurrently have restricted access to professional and managerial jobs. As women in diverse countries countenance a variety of tests, those in the same countries may as well incident characteristic impediments in joining the paid labour force. This implies that both inside and across nations, women are not the least bit a monolithic collection.

Besides Olomu (2014) suggests, that national cultures vary with respect to perceptions of women's real or possible contributions to the paid labour force. Cultural divergences could moreover explain the obstacles that women countenance in becoming supervisors. Besides cultural labels concerning women could occupy a significant position in forming the educational, legal and organizational prospects presented to women. It is improbable that women in diverse countries countenance identical ambitions, expectations or visions. Although the obtainable data exhibits that the position of women remains lower than that of men, it is in addition apparent that more women are progressively joining the paid labour force and persist in making improvements in progressing to top management spots. Subsisting literature on the state of workers in Nigerian organisations like Thomas (2013) and Oloko (2015) designate a prejudice against women in most organisations particularly regarding the level of tasks and the independence allocated to them. Ikpe (2013) affirms that the majority of employers choose to employ men more willingly than women particularly in jobs that necessitate either typical intelligence or those technical in nature, and when women are engaged, the degree of support they receive from associates is habitually low. While the notion of women in the labour force is really not novel to the Nigerian society, the highlight has entailed women's capability to handle household responsibilities. Customarily, women have been apt to be home keepers and mothers and where they worked, it was not anticipated that such employment would be outside the home. However, collective and cultural demands have accustomed females to assume behavioural moulds in line with the societal anticipations. The cultural system in Nigeria considers that while men must be dominant and forceful, women are supposed to demonstrate submissive and reliant features. Nevertheless the world is quickly transforming and an outstanding change is in the region of women emancipation, which entails the coming out of women from the isolation of their homes to business activities outside the home. Females are now required to deal with the consequences of role divergence particularly when they opt for male leaning professions and jobs where the ease of access and continuance is more difficult for women compared to men.

Results and Discussion

The population of Nigeria has been rising progressively at a typical rate of 3.3 percent per annum since the Population and Housing

Census (PHC) held in 2006. According to the National Population Commission (2017) in 2016, Nigeria's population was projected at 183 million people, consisting of 90,989,254 females and 92,387,474 males. The total number of older people, that is, those who have reached the age of 60 years increased slightly from 6,987,147 in 2007 to 6,987,232 in 2016. Within the period under review, the sex ratio was 102 men per 100 women.

Since the National Population Commission puts the number of women and men at about equal in the Nigerian population, therefore, one would normally have been perfectly safe to presuppose equivalent involvement in the labour force. However, National Bureau of Statistics (2017) in its Labour Force Participation Rate entirely opposes this hypothesis. For the ten year period reviewed in this paper, the average labour force participation rate (LFPR) was 64.3 percent for women and 74.2 percent for men. In 2016, the national labor force participation rate of women and men in the ages 15-64 years was 74.7 percent. The proportion of men was 82.6 percent while women accounted for 78.4 percent. Like in 2013, men comprised the mass of employment in Federal and State MDAs.

The labour force participation rate in Nigeria by state and sex is presented in Table no. 1. There seemed to be some degree of fairness upheld between women and men in few states and women dominated the labour force in a few states. The comparative denial of women in contrast to men differs across states and geopolitical zones in Nigeria, but this reality does not reduce the significance of offering women senior public management position in Nigeria. With a policy aimed at impartially reaching the citizenry with successful recommendation and action for sustainable management of the country's public supplies, the apprehension of women not being adequately represented especially in senior public management positions must be tackled. The Beijing Platform for Action emphasized among others, apprehensions pertaining to women's representation in the labour force especially in the civil service. However, inadequate information to the degree of access and developments has often created difficulties for tackling gender discrepancies in the Action's tactical regions of anxiety.

Table no. 1. Labour force participation rate by state and sex

STATE	% MALE	% FEMALE
ABIA	80	78
ADAMAWA	40	42
AKWA- IBOM	73	70
ANAMBRA	76	72
BAUCHI	48	47
BAYELSA	79	81
BENUE	80	85
BORNO	59	58
CROSS RIVER	72	68
DELTA	70	68
EBONYI	74	80
EDO	67	69
EKITI	80	83
ENUGU	80	81
GOMBE	44	43
IMO	67	70
JIGAWA	81	37
KADUNA	78	59
KANO	76	51
KATSINA	83	58
KEBBI	83	62
KOGI	67	70
KWARA	70	80
LAGOS	70	76
NASARAWA	70	50
NIGER	53	33
OGUN	74	78
ONDO	69	77
OSUN	71	70
OYO	78	76
PLATEAU	44	40
RIVERS	78	78
SOKOTO	88	35
TARABA	53	51
YOBE	82	81
ZAMFARA	78	72
FCT	45	48

Table no. 2 demonstrates that typically for the period 2007-2016, 72.3 percent of senior positions in State Civil Service were occupied by men, compared to 27.7 percent occupied by women. A parallel model was sustained at the junior level and across cadres. During the period under review, the fraction of men employed was almost always higher than the number of women. Regardless of the reality that the mass of women employed in Nigeria's civil service occupy junior positions most of them are hindered by the issues ranging from deficiency in reasonable childcare, soaring tempo of spousal desertion, a progressively higher cost of living and gender typecasting.

These situations disallow women in the labour force especially public services the vital proficiencies, education, training and resources to get more rewarding and secured employment. Education constitutes a firm foundation fundamental to human development.

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Junior Female	32306	33789	34107	34409	35100	37566	48436	48866	49436	49873
Junior Male	75345	76298	76934	77094	79323	77881	69530	87188	89353	90213
Senior Female	56753	58231	61634	62762	64434	72344	67738	74423	63877	64112
Senior Male	103645	107721	108236	108844	113577	157973	112302	147379	130122	131108

Table no. 2. Civil servants by type, year and sex

Education ensures the development of vital skills and proficiencies that improve quality of life, thus conveying extensive variety of gains to both, individuals and societies. Nevertheless, spending on the education of girls and women, especially, which logically supports the age-long acknowledgment of education as a basic right with extensive effects on human development and social advancement, sequentially, generates remarkably elevated social and economic profits. The significance of education for the development of women was emphasized in the Beijing Platform for Action, which once more recognizes it as one of the twelve decisive spots of unease and additionally established it as essential for gender equality and women empowerment. Studies like Isah (2005) and Fapohunda (2013) indicate that while women did sixty percent of the global work, they get onetenth of its wages. Women possess below one percent of the land, have restricted access to education and economic resources and boast less than men in resolutions influencing their future. These studies indicate that women represent 50% of the global population, and have greatly been thrown in as regards societal development. Again, Mba (2011) affirms that women endure diverse types of discrimination, inequity, segregation and gender concerns. Moreover, they are not bestowed outstanding thoughtfulness in recruitment, selection, training and promotion implementation in the public service.

Also, delegate bureaucracy is not gender sensitive; instead excessive partiality is accorded to federal character in public service recruitment, training and promotion. While the Beijing Conference in China established that 30% of the elective positions in all countries

should be reserved for women, this has not been implemented in Nigeria. Okonkwo (2014) noted that a look at senior public servants, government appointments and elective positions indicates that women are significantly discriminated. Globally, the subject of gender thus becomes a vital scholarly and political subject against the background of both, actual and supposed prejudice experienced by women. As earlier noted, about half of Nigeria's population is women with right to vote and hold public offices. Yet, women are persistently inadequately represented at all government levels. At the national Assembly in 2015, 94.3 percent of seats were taken up by men as opposed to a mere 5.7 percent taken up by women. Worst still, women look as if they are invisible in the power equation at the state and local government levels. Women were similarly inadequately represented amid high-level government administrators boasting authority for decision making.

Table no. 3 indicates greater number of male employees in the labour force across all cadres and for every one of the ten years under evaluation 2007-2016. Amid the numbers of employees in state employment in 2016, women represents above 50% of the labour force. ILO (2014) reports that while on the whole growth rates in the African continent have risen from 1.9% in 2010 to 3.7% in 2013, economic growth is still below average, and growth patterns are dissimilar across the continent. Also, Physical Quality Life Index (PQLI) attainments have been delayed in the African continent. Nigeria and most African countries are in the low-status end of PQLI tables. In addition to low human and social development there is a gender-bias in access of crucial human resources to education, training and health. For instance, Adeleke (2013) indicates that female literacy for Nigeria lingered at 45.4% and involvement rates in 2014 for women employees was about 42.0%. Nevertheless, since employment in the formal sector is restricted women employees are poorly represented in public and para-state organisations. Moreover, with limited employment prospects in the formal labour market, women employees are found in agricultural and self-employment activities because these are the most general kinds of employment accessible to women. Glick and Sahn (2011) observe that analyzing the formal labour market is decisive for spotlighting on the state of women's work in Nigeria, given that it offers the framework for reinforcing the principal foundation of job growth in the country, which is anticipated to be the informal sector. Since the principal source of job creation is envisaged to be in the informal sector, there is a vital

requirement to scrutinize the peculiarities of women's position in the formal labour market.

Table no. 3. Staff in state employment by cadre, year and sex

	Technical Oper Workers es		ativ Clerical/ Secretarial		Executive s		Admin/ Managerial		Directors		Commissio ner			
	% M	% F	% M	% F	% M	% F	% M	% F	% M	% F	% M	% F	% M	% F
2007	73	27	65	35	51	49	45	43	48	47	56	34	78	36
2008	72	28	64	36	52	48	45	44	48	48	57	35	78	36
2009	74	26	64	36	54	46	46	48	50	48	57	37	79	37
2010	72	28	62	38	56	44	45	55	52	48	58	36	82	31
2011	72	28	63	37	55	45	47	52	58	52	62	38	80	33
2012	71	29	62	38	56	44	50	46	54	56	60	38	79	38
2013	71	29	61	39	55	45	46	50	53	54	71	39	78	39
2014	70	30	63	37	55	45	48	52	58	55	78	38	79	39
2015	72	28	62	38	54	46	49	54	58	56	78	38	80	40
2016	72	28	62	38	55	45	48	53	60	57	78	39	80	39

Table no. 4. Employment in federal MDA staff by grade level, year and sex

Grade	01-	06	07-10		12-14		15-17		Special	Grade
Year	% M	% F	% M	% F	% M	% F	% M	% F	% M	% F
2007	72.6	27.4	65.7	34.4	66.7	33.2	72.6	27.4	64.8	35.2
2008	74.5	25.5	67.3	32.7	67.7	32.3	75.6	24.4	68.4	31.6
2009	71.3	28.7	63.7	36.3	67.4	32.6	71.4	28.6	74.6	25.4
2010	72.6	24.4	73.1	26.9	61.5	38.5	70.4	29.6	69.5	30.5
2011	75.5	24.5	68.5	31.5	69.2	30.8	75.4	24.6	66.3	33.7
2012	69.4	30.6	67.4	32.6	66.4	33.6	75.2	24.8	70.6	29.4
2013	71.5	28.5	65.3	34.7	65.6	34.4	74.0	26.0	62.7	37.3
2014	72.4	27.6	64.7	35.3	65.4	34.6	72.5	27.5	73.5	26.5
2015	78.8	21.2	75.3	24.7	63.6	36.4	72.1	27.9	71.5	28.5
2016	76.6	23.4	74.6	25.4	62.5	37.5	70.3	29.7	70.6	29.4

Table no. 4 displays the percentage distribution of federal MDA workers by grade level, year and sex from 2007 to 2016. The presented statistics designate that employment by both grade level and cadre is tilted in favour of men. The fraction of women on grade levels 01-17 in

addition to special grade varies between 21.2% and 38.5% in the ten year period reviewed. Specifically for grade level 15-17 the proportion was as low as 24.4% in 2008 and as high as 29.7% in 2016. To realize gender parity and women empowerment and for unbiased and sustainable fiscal growth and development, women's equivalent access to and power over monetary and pecuniary resources is significant. Gender parity in the distribution of economic and financial resources has affirmative multiplier outcomes for several important development targets, incorporating poverty reduction and children wellbeing. Micro level competencies outcomes through augmented household output, and macro competencies outcomes through affirmative synergies between pointers of gender parity and economic growth. Development motivations for improving women's access to economic and pecuniary resources comprise women's role as "safety net of last resort" in economic recessions.

Employment in Nigeria and its Repercussions for Women Employees

Labour market prospects are complexly attached to human capital bequests of workers, access to human capital being a gendered process. Cohen and House (2013) observe that gender discrimination, which is typically founded on "non-economic" principle of social and cultural values, has negative repercussions on advancing demographic effects of low female participation. Consequently, gender-biases in socio-economic procedures must be insistently distinguished: the overflow results of prejudiced behaviour harmfully imposes on women employees, and also has a lasting effect on economic development. Centring on the definite subject of human capital endowments, improved instruction is imperative for developing girls' access to education, because it constitutes a fundamental stride in the effort to remove the gender gap in economic prospects and income. For instance, in Northern Nigeria girls still make up just 32.0% of total primary school enrolments, and the gender gap in enrolments rises stridently at higher levels. When girls have restricted access to education, it is obvious that their economic prospects also become limited.

However perking up access to education does not automatically eliminate gender-based discrimination in the labour market. "Discriminatory socialisation" at diverse stages also affects the alternatives available to women and their access to educational and

vocational training. The alternatives available are determined by women's capability to fulfil domestic and social responsibilities whilst working and this robustly influences their resolution to go into the labour force. Consequently, human capital investment necessitates appreciation of the gendered aspects to educational and vocational training. Strategies aimed at eliminating the gender gap in the labour market must copiously identify the diverse stages at which discrimination against women occur, and progress towards executing suitable plans at diverse stages of human capital outlays. Definite concerns that need to be dealt with at every level include the reasons for fewer girls in primary schools; added reduction to the low rate at higher education levels and the continuation of occupational segregation in the labour market. These all constitute indispensable factors that feature in the value of women's work prospects and their security in the labour market. Evidently gender discrimination at the level of human capital investment is revealed in the labour market through occupational segregation. This outcome though not peculiar to Nigeria, is more severe here owing to the comparatively elevated altitudes of open unemployment and massive underemployment. In the public sector which is renowned for appropriate working conditions, fringe benefits, and salary levels for men and women workers, education is significant to employment. Consequently, in the public sector there is a propensity for equivalent representation of men and women employees in professional or managerial professions.

Olojede (2007) affirms that in Nigeria, the public sector employs 57.0% men and 43.0% women with a larger share of women in private sector employment. Oloko (2015) reports that women employees in wage employment are mostly in teaching, nursing and secretarial work, and while these professions are comparatively skilled tasks, pay increments and career mobility within it is restricted. Fapohunda (2012) adds that the segregation is even additionally severe in private sector unskilled and skilled service, where women workers are practically absent. Badmus, Isiaka Alani (2015) confirms that in Nigeria, women are predominant in agricultural, wholesale and retail trade sectors, where they are generally in the group of self-employed (36.4%) and unpaid family workers (46.2%). The high demonstration of women employees in restricted ranks of the public sector, but their practical nonexistence in the middle and low-level professions is compliant with gender-based occupational segregation trends in the country. Most of

the women with high education have access to safe and stable employment; those with little or no education are consigned to the informal sector. Education is hence vital in deciding what section of the labour market women employees are capable of getting access. Irrespective of differences in exact cultural and political dynamics, women employees in the country are placed at a disadvantage. The susceptible position of women employees is somewhat connected to poor economic growth and human development, although cultural and social values also underline economic uncertainties countenanced by women. The principal thing to be remembered is that economic growth is fundamentally reliant on the welfare of women. Developing the position of women is thus, not merely regarding social justice and human rights, but in addition has repercussions for economic growth. Following structural adjustment and cutback in public sector employment, how can incongruous movements in socio-economic procedures that affect the quality of women's work be resolved? While special spotlight on economic markers gets short-term results it is narrow-minded in the long run and these concerns evidently must be identified if the value of women's work will be shielded by policymakers.

Conclusion

For the ten year period reviewed in this paper, the labour force participation rate (LFPR) was 64.3 percent for women and 74.2 percent for men. The position of women as illustrated in this paper has for long constituted a source of serious anxiety in many cultures and in various parts of the globe, being developed beyond the level of considerate apprehension to the period of violent feminism. Gender concerns have remained at the vanguard of international meetings. The campaign for the emancipation and total freedom of women all over the world has also drawn the attention of various researchers. The worldwide notice that women suppression has drawn led the United Nation Declaration of Human Rights 1948 to affirm obligation to the aspiration of equal rights for men and women. The United Nations General Assembly in implementing the global plan for her second development decades affirmed that one of its aspirations was to guarantee the complete assimilation of women in total development effort.

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