NIGERIA EDUCATION SECTOR DIAGNOSIS

A CONDENSED VERSION

A Framework for Re-engineering the Education Sector

EDUCATION SECTOR ANALYSIS UNIT
FEDERAL MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

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THE EDUCATION SECTOR ANALYSIS (ESA) PROJECT

The Education Sector Analysis (ESA), a collaborative project of the Federal Ministry of Education and several development partners, was an empirical analysis of the problems and constraints on the education sector with a view to generating solutions and to articulating a strategic plan to serve as a road map to drive the sector reform process. The project entailed a critical assessment of the past and current reform measures, and the sector's general performance, thereby identifying the problems, defining them, assessing their magnitude, the needs, priorities and the system's capacity to institutionally manage them scientifically and politically. The sector analysis project centred on 43 studies that span the whole spectrum of the education system – pre-primary to tertiary including adult and non-formal education as well as science, technical and vocational education.

The ESA process evolved through several consultations with stakeholders, reviews of landmark developments in the education sector in Nigeria and collaboratively undertook studies, the results of which would be utilized to design medium and long term development plans and a Nigerian Education Sector Reform Strategy.

Objectives of ESA

The four major objectives of ESA as collaboratively conceived by the major technical partners and indigenous core stakeholders are to:

- Diagnose the education system in order to identify the challenges faced by the country to improve education provision, as well as the priority areas to be addressed for the reform of the education system;
- Develop strategic plans to assist in the formulation of medium and long-term national policy and strategy orientations;
- Prepare the national education action plan, incorporating the range of options available at national level as well as state and local government levels;
- Improve institutional capacity for policy formulation and implementation, planning and monitoring of federal, state and local government institutions, including parastatals organisations.

Administration and Structure of the ESA Process

The ESA Unit in the Planning Research and Statistics Department of the Federal Ministry of Education coordinates the ESA process. A National Coordinator who oversees the research and administrative team heads the ESA Unit. There is also a Technical committee made up of indigenous experts and a Steering Committee oversees the work of the Unit. UNESCO as a technical partner supports technical missions consisting of international experts on occasional visits to assess the process at various stages of implementation. UNESCO also retained an indigenous Research Fellow on secondment to the ESA Unit. Six Lead Consultants coordinate groups of related diagnostic activities.

The Nigerian ESA adopted the participatory approach. Evolving the participatory process was painstaking and time consuming. This synthesis Reports sums up the findings on the 43 Studies undertaken in the ESA process. The findings on all the reports are grouped into the following major sections: Early Childhood Care and Education; Primary Education, Secondary Education, Teacher Education, Demand and Supply; Higher Education, Non-formal Education and Special Education. Selected issues identified as crosscutting are presented in a separate section. Each section presents the findings of the study and concludes with selected key issues and challenges.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The successful completion of the diagnosis phase of the ESA process culminating in the production of this synthesis report is a product of commitment, enthusiasm, drive and a desire to make a difference in the system. Beginning with the political backing of Mr. President, Chief Olusegun Obasanjo, whose discussions with the Director General of UNESCO initiated the sector analysis project, tremendous support was given to the project by the Former Honourable Minister of Education Professor A. B. Borisade that ensured the completion of the diagnosis stage. The Honourable Minister of Education Professor Fabian Osuji, has continued to provide the requisite support that the ESA project requires for its completion.

We acknowledge the consistent support that UNESCO has provided, together with the generous financial contribution of the Government of Japan, to the ESA process as the major technical partner. The contributions of UNICEF, the World Bank, the USAID, DFID, JICA and other development partners are hereby acknowledged and appreciated. The support of these agencies provided the life line that the ESA process badly needed at some stage.

The ESA project has benefited from the contributions of the various persons who have been involved with the process at different intervals. The contributions in this regard of the former Coordinator Mr. Tunji Olaopa and the former Technical Adviser Professor Peter Okebukola whose leadership helped to shape the process are hereby acknowledged. The present Technical Adviser Dr. A. M. Fagbulu has continued to avail the ESA Unit the benefits of his expertise. We acknowledge the contributions of the Director, Planning, Research and Statistics who has continued to show interest in the work of the ESA Unit and provides regular guidance in the conduct of its activities.

This synthesis report is a pool of the research reports of various study consultants. We acknowledge the painstaking efforts that these consultants have put into their reports and we wish to thank them for the marvellous work that they have done. The 36 States and FCT through their SMOEs and PEBs participated enthusiastically in the work of the ESA Unit at various training programmes and data collection process. We acknowledge their commitment to collectively addressing the nation's data needs.

We wish to express our respects for the team who put together this report under the guidance of the Chief Editor Professor Pai Obanya. Numerous other persons including the writers, the secretarial staff and the IT persons have contributed to the production of this report. We acknowledge the tireless efforts of these persons and thank them for their commitment. We acknowledge the staff of the ESA Unit who have continued to respond doggedly to the challenge of responding to the demands made on them in the carrying out this national assignment.

Dr G. A. E. Makoju (Mrs.)
Coordinator, Education Sector Analysis
October 2004

EXECUTIVE HIGHLIGHTS

This Report is in three parts:

- Section A: Context and Background
- Section B: Sub-sector Specific Analyses and;
- Section C: Over-arching Education Sector Challenges.

Section A outlines the geo-political and socio-economic fundamentals that characterize the Federal Republic of Nigeria. It also describes the Nation's educational system and discuses the factors that have influenced its evolution over the years.

Section B, relying mainly on the findings of ESA studies, highlights the major features, policy initiatives and challenges facing the various sub-sectors of Education in Nigeria {non-formal education, early childhood care and education, primary, secondary, technical/vocational and higher education, as well as teacher education and the associated issues of teacher demand and supply.

Section C is concerned with issues that cut across all the conventional sub-sectors of Education. Financing of Education is given due prominence. Then come selected social challenges, like poverty, community involvement, and areas of crises in Society, HIV/AIDS, and the menace it poses to educational development, also receive due attention. The report ends with a highlight on Special Needs Education, an issue requiring very special attention, especially in the context of the EFA imperative.

The goal of the Report is to highlight the major issues and challenges of the Educational sector that should provide a ROAD MAP for national policy dialogues and concerted action for the purposeful development of the sector, within the overall context of NEEDS and the on-going reform agenda of Government. These ISSUES AND CHALLENGES are as follows

EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE and EDUCATION

1. Accurate statistics on the number of children aged zero to six in every locality.
2. Adequate pre-natal care for women
3. A systematic programme of parent and community sensitisation to the psycho-social needs of children,
4. Comprehensive care and education strategies that fully integrate health, nutrition, socialisation, physical development, and intellectual stimulation of pre-school children,
5. Ensuring community ownership of such programmes, to ensure their sustainability.
6. Expanding Access to ECCE & Pre-Primary Education.
7. Infusion of Indigenous Practices of Child Stimulation in ECCE Programmes
8. Institutionalisation of ECCE Centres in Public Primary Schools
9. Provision of Adequate Instructional Materials by Local Fabricators
10. Training & Re-training of Teachers

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

1. The need for enhanced recognition of the non-formal route and a clearer articulation of these in the National Policy on Education.
2. The need for the national policy to make provision for various extension services (agriculture, family planning, health, and national orientation) to be fully integrated into life skills education programmes.
3. Full integration of non-formal education into UBE.
4. Improved Data and Knowledge Base on non-formal education
5. Improved regulatory control and harmonization*:* There is a need to introduce some quality assurance mechanisms for enhanced service delivery in the non-formal sector. There must be a means of introducing some regulatory framework for harmonizing the activities of providing agencies and the regulating standards even if these have to be worked out by the non-formal players themselves.
6. *Building Appropriate Bridges and Ladders:* Mechanisms to be created for the mainstreaming and building of appropriate linkages with the formal sector. Practitioners in non-formal education have time and again encountered difficulties in determining the levels at which a child or youth who has been in the non-formal sector can get back into the mainstream.
7. Drawing on the Strengths of the Non-formal Route to Enhance the Relevance of Curricula and Practices in the Formal Sector*:* Non-formal education programmes are seen to be learner-centred/driven, democratic in orientation, tapping from and building on learners' experiences, relevant and immediately applicable to the needs of learners. These are areas from which formal curricular design can borrow much.

PRIMARY EDUCATION

1. Insufficiency data/information for timely policy provisions, to address issues at appropriate times
2. Inadequate funding and lack of appropriate financing framework that would ensure UBE goal attainment nationwide.
3. Low teacher quality, despite the policy provision of national minimum teaching qualification requirement of Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) for teachers at the primary education level.
4. Low learning achievements at the primary, as depicted by MLA and other related results at national and state levels.
5. Disparities in educational development among states, LGAs, and between rural and urban areas and by gender and socio-economic groups.
6. Inadequate and dilapidated school structures that require rehabilitation to ensure improved access and retention for the large population to be covered.
7. Absence of a gender-in-Education policy, despite the global focus on the issue.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

1. *Access:* While much has been done lately to enhance accessibility of secondary schools to most learners, much still needs be done, in several states. Ideally, a learner should not have to walk more than 2 or 3 kilometres to get to school.
2. *From the gender perspective*, the imbalance needs be addressed such that girls are stimulated to attend and remain in school for the duration of the course. Although the focus is usually on how to woo more girls to go to school and keep them there; attention need to be paid to places where boys too are no longer interested in secondary education.
3. *T*he need to *diversify opportunities* for students to take account of various talents and cater for several needs. The practice of catering for just academic interests and talents should change. This calls for a wholesale review of the curriculum to conform to 21st century demands.
4. In virtually all the test results examined, students in the private schools excelled those in the public schools. This indicates that there are certain factors that make the private schools tick. The challenge should be to adequately equip all schools with all the facilities needed to make education meaningful.
5. Similarly, that students in urban schools excelled those in rural settings should counsel that rural schools, which are mostly public, should be consciously beefed up to stimulate attendance and promote performance.
6. Finally, community participation and involvement should be stimulated. The present stance by most states that repel participation even by the local PTAs should be reviewed.

TEACHER EDUCATION: DEMAND AND SUPPLY

1. *The need to develop a teacher profile to guide curricula for teacher education.* The many years of attempting to upgrade the minimum qualification for teaching in Nigerian schools have not yielded the desired results. This study indicates many ways of addressing this issue.
2. *Improved methodology for determining teacher demand:* Though there are forums for obtaining and exchanging information on the needs of states, the fact that individual states tailor their needs to what they perceive as in their immediate and best interests do not allow for a logical process of planning. Constitutional provisions could be examined that would encourage all states and stakeholders to give relevant information to the relevant agency to carry out the exercise of determining teacher needs years ahead.
3. *Improved teacher support system and supervision:* Most respondents identified the failure of management to provide adequate support systems and supervision to drive the whole school system. In particular, better and more effective ways have to be found to raise quality assurance measures.

4. *Continued Professional Development of Practicing Teachers:* Opportunities abound for teachers for upward professional mobility. However, stricter supervision would seem to be needed in this direction.

5. *Teachers' full involvement in Educational Development:* Any school system that does not involve the teacher and the stakeholders is under utilizing its resources and truncating its potentials.

TECHNICAL/VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

1. While the *National Policy on Education* intends is to make many students to be technologically literate the two areas of concern here are that

   (a) After the Junior Secondary School, most students have nothing more to do with technical education; and

   (b) At virtually all levels, vocational/technical education is not adequately backed up with enough human and material resources. These must be properly addressed.

2. On ACCESS, the very small proportion of students in the technical colleges, polytechnics and technical colleges of education should be squarely addressed.

3. *Some special measures would need to be taken to promote female participation in technical and vocational education*

4. There is a need to enhance the place of ICT on the JSS curriculum so that every student would be IT competent for life.

5. The low status of vocational/technical education should be addressed through appropriate policy incentives

6. The issue of very little private sector involvement in vocational/technical education should be addressed.

7. Technical and vocational education is severely under funded.

HIGHER EDUCATION

1. Systematically planned expansion, to match growth in higher education with the evolution of national resources and management capacity.

2. Management of student flow, to match in-take with the absorptive capacity of higher institutions.

3. Improved Funding, with particular attention to widening the bases of funding and with some emphasis on improving the internal capacity of institutions to generate and (more particularly) manage funds and non-financial resources

4. Curriculum Renewal: The need for a closer look at existing curricular options, the pattern of organization of programmes (including enhanced curriculum integration and emphasis on core generic skills), teaching and learning methods, etc, to ensure greater coherence with the rapidly changing demands of the knowledge economy.

5. Evolving a development-oriented operational culture, at both the national and the institutional level, to link programmes, teaching, research, and service activities in higher education very closely with national aspirations.
6. The need for a holistic approach to students' psychological problems (with emphasis and the full scale integration of guidance and counseling into institutional level operations), as a means of addressing growing anti-social behaviours, like Cultism
7. *Bridging The Gender Gap In Access, Opportunity,* Efforts needed to bridge the gender gap that exists in enrolment of women in institutions of higher learning, with particular emphasis on enhancing female participation in scientific and technical disciplines.
8. Building an IT Culture in higher institutions, by reinforcing the existing initiatives of NUC, NBTE, NCCE, etc.
9. The need to reinforce the quality assurance initiatives of NUC, NBTE, NCCE, etc, by developing capacity at the institutional level for quality assurance:
10. VERY CRUCIAL QUESTIONS
    a. Should Nigeria still maintain a tripartite model of higher education?
    b. Are the Polytechnics and Colleges of Education still relevant IN THEIR PRESENT FORM?
    c. How relevant is the concept of 'middle level manpower' in an era of knowledge and creativity-driven societies?
    d. Is the present disaffection of students for polytechnics and colleges of education not a call for fundamental reforms?

FINANCING OF EDUCATION

1. The Data Problem: Though the Federal Government, State Government and Local Government Areas produce data on executed budgets annually, these are not collated into comprehensive Government accounts presenting global sectoral breakdowns of expenditure. A mechanism must be developed whereby data are generated and made available on all aspects of the financing of education in the country.

2. Dwindling facilities: Several studies in recent years have shown that facilities in schools are in a deplorable condition. It is imperative that steps are taken urgently to beef up the maintenance of all such facilities at all the levels of education. This would stem the tide not only of the infrastructural decay in the institutions, but also of the general decline in morale for learning.

3. Competing demands on government*:* It has become apparent that there is a limit to which the total revenue generated by Government can go because of the competing demands on Government from all sectors of the economy. It is, therefore, imperative that financing of education should become the 'responsibility of all'.

CROSS CUTTING CHALLENGES

1. Community participation and partnership in educational development is generally growing but the bulk of the partnership appears largely limited to efforts of Parents-.
2. The types of support that groups in the communities provide are largely in the area of provision/repair of physical facilities.
3. Ensuring transparency and accountability has also been a challenge, especially with donor-assisted projects. .
4. On Special Education, the need to pursue the following goals of EFA:
    a. By 2015 all children particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, should have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality.
    b. By 2005, gender disparities in primary and secondary education should be eliminated while gender equality in education will be realized by 2015.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ADB	African Development Bank
ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
ASUU	Academic Staff Union of Universities
AU	African Union
CBN	Central Bank of Nigeria
CBO	Community Based Organization
DFID	Department for International Development
ECCDC	Early Child Care Development Centres
ECCE	Early Child Care and Education
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EFA	Education for All
ESA	Education Sector Analysis
ETF	Education Tax Fund
FCT	Federal Capital Territory
FGC	Federal Government College
FGN	Federal Government of Nigeria
GAR	Gross Admission Rate
GCE O' Level	General Certificate of Education -- Ordinary Level
GCE	General Certificate of Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate (Ratio)
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HND	Higher National Diploma
IEP	Individualized Education Plan
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
IT	Information Technology
JAMB	Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board
JCCE	Joint Consultative Committee on Education
JICA	Japanese International Cooperation Agency
JSC	Junior Secondary Certificate
JSS	Junior Secondary School
LGEA	Local Government Education Authority
M. Ed	Master of Education
MAS	Minimum Academic Standards
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MINEDAF	Conference of African Ministers of Education
MLA	Monitoring of Learning Achievements
NABTEB	National Business and Technical Education Board
NALV	Nigerian Arabic Language Village
NAPTAN	National Parent Teacher Association of Nigeria
NBEM	National Board for Educational Measurement (Now National Examinations Council (NECO)
NBTE	National Board for Technical Education
NCCE	National Commission for Colleges of Education
NCE	National Council on Education
NCE	Nigeria Certificate in Education
NCNE	National Commission for Nomadic Education

NCWS	National Council on Women Societies
ND	National Diploma (synonymous with OND)
NDE	National Directorate of Employment
NECO	National Examinations Council
NEEDS	National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
NEPAD	New Partnership for African Development
NERDC	Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council
NFE	Non Formal Education
NFLV	Nigerian French Language Board
NGOs	Non Governmental Organisations
NHEP	National Higher Education Pedagogy Centre
NIEPA	National Institute for Education Planning and Administration
NINLAN	National Institute for Nigerian Languages
NLN	National Library of Nigeria
NMC	National Mathematical Centre
NMEC	National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education
NNCAE	Nigerian National Commission on Adult Education
NOAS	National Open Apprenticeship Scheme
NOUN	National Open University of Nigeria
NPC	National Population Commission
NPE	National Policy on Education
NTI	National Teachers Institute
NUC	National Universities Commission
OND	Ordinary National Diploma
PCE	Polytechnics and Colleges of Education
PSC	Primary School Certificate
PTA	Parent Teacher Associations
PTR	Pupil/Teacher Ratio
SAME	State Agencies for Mass Education
SAPA	Situation and Policy Analysis on Basic Education in Nigeria
SD	Standard Deviation
SEEDS	State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy
SPEB	State Primary Education Board
SS	Senior Secondary
SSC	Senior Secondary Certificate
STVE	Science Technical and Vocational Education
SUBEB	State Universal Basic Education Board
TC	Teachers Certificate
TRC	Teachers Registration Council
UBEC	Universal Basic Education Commission
UME	University Matriculation Examination
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

UPE	Universal Primary Education
US$	United States of America, Dollar
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VIHEP	Virtual Institute of Higher Education Pedagogy
WAEC	West African Examinations Council

SECTION A
CONTEXT AND BACKGROUND

CHAPTER ONE

NIGERIA AND ITS EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

THE NATION'S DIVERSITY AND COMPLEXITY

1. Nigeria is a multi-national nation of great complexity, and this is also its most distinctive feature. It is home to over 350 distinct languages and nationalities. Although the nationalities are often distinguishable by geographical location, languages, and specific cultural traits and patterns of life, there are overlaps in a good number of socio-cultural traits, and the country's cultural diversity has in fact become a major source of its strength and unity. Owing to increased social interaction and modernization, a good number of ethnic-specific practices have become the shared patrimony of all Nigerians.

2. Religion has had a considerable influence on many aspects of the indigenous cultures, including approaches to education. Islam was introduced to the northern part as early as the eleventh century AD and it gradually spread to other parts of the country, while Christianity came around 1842, through Christian missionary activities in the areas bordering the Atlantic Ocean in the southern tip of the country. Islam and Christianity have grown to become the two major religions of the country, while African traditional forms of religion also have their strong adherents.

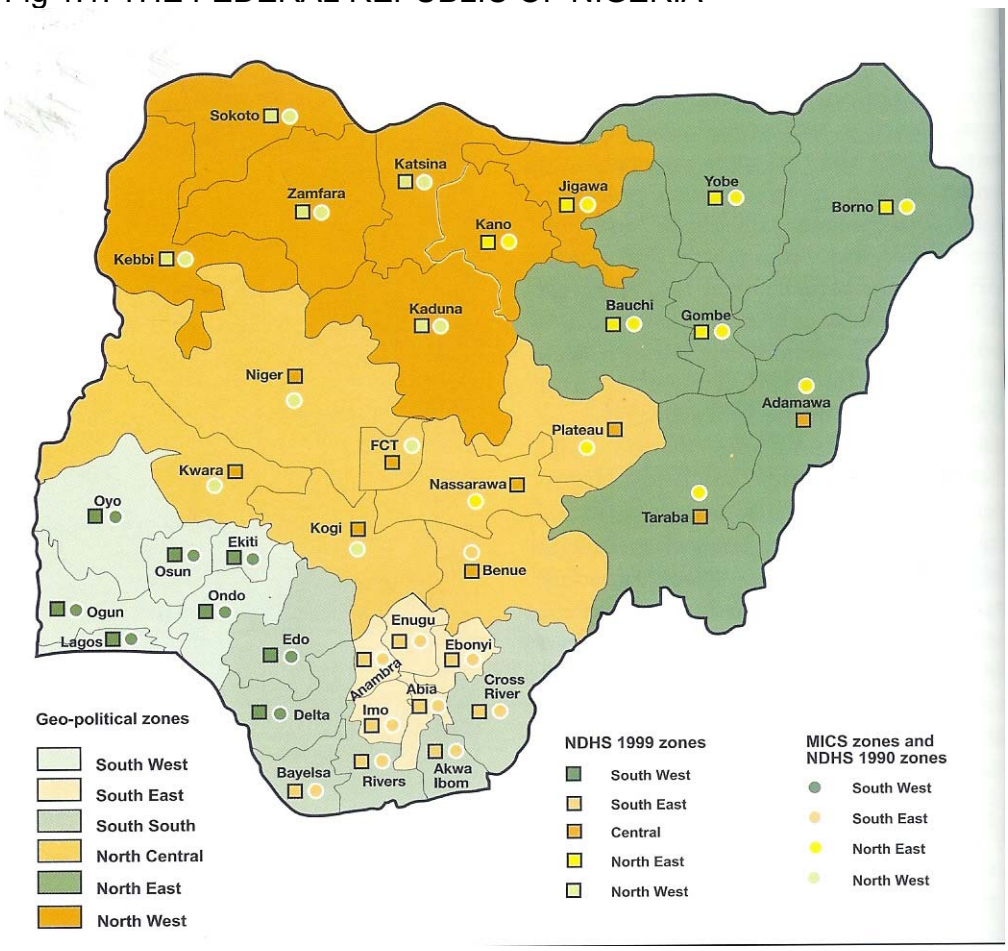
POLITICAL EVOLUTION

3. Prior to the era of British colonization, the geographical space now known as Nigeria was home to independent contiguous nationalities, each of which had its distinctive political systems and machineries. The groups interacted with one another through trade and commerce, as well as diplomacy. Contiguous groups also occasionally engaged in wars and territorial conquests.

4. The British, through a combination of wars, treaties, trade agreements, and territorial mergers occupied most of the country (divided into the Protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria) by the beginning of the twentieth century. For ease of control the two protectorates were amalgamated in 1914 and became known as *The Colony and Protectorate of Nigeria*.

5. Constitutional changes were to follow in periodic successions in the decades following the amalgamation. In 1939, the country was divided into three regions: North, East and West. By 1946, the nationalist struggle had led to a constitutional review (the Richard's Constitution), which established Houses of Assembly in the three regions. The McPherson's Constitution of 1952 established Nigeria as a Federation of three regions, with a federal territory of Lagos (the national capital). Nationalist pressures paid off towards the end of that decade with the granting of self-government to the Eastern and Western regions in 1957, to the Northern region in 1959, and finally political independence on 1 October 1960.

Fig 1.1: THE FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA



6. The high hopes raised by political independence are yet to be realized, owing to the political instability that set in with the first military coup d'état of January 1966, a bloody civil war that lasted from 1967 to 1970, and successive military coups d'état (with only a four-year interregnum of civil rule: 1979-1983) that characterized the first three decades of national sovereignty. In fact, between independence in 1960 and 1999, when Nigeria rejoined the comity of democratic nations, the military had ruled the nation for thirty years.

7. From three Regions at Independence in 1960, and later four with the creation of the Mid West Region in 1963, Nigeria progressively let go the regional structure to have twelve States in 1967, nineteen in 1976, twenty-one in 1987, thirty in 1991, and finally to thirty-six States (and a Federal Capital Territory) by 1996. Each State is divided into a number of local governments, of which there are 774 in the entire Federation of Nigeria.

8. The restoration of democratic rule on 29 May, 1999, and the commencement of the Fourth Republic signalled Nigeria's march towards an enduring and sustainable democracy. The post-1999 period has been characterized by a series of far-reaching socio-economic reforms and a systematic approach to restoring order in the polity by the strengthening of democratic institutions.

Education, as a major engine of socio-economic development has been a key sector in the on-going reform agenda.

ECONOMY

9. During the period predating independence, agriculture accounted for more than 60% of GDP and at independence in 1960 it was more than 65% of GDP and 70% of exports. The discovery of petroleum in commercial quantities in 1956, and the commencement of crude oil export in 1958, reversed the agricultural fortunes and potentials of the nation which largely had more than 80% of its population engaged in agriculture both for subsistence and export of cash crops such as cocoa, palm produce, cotton farming groundnut, hides and skins and rubber as well as minerals like tin, coal, cohabite, lead and zinc were exported to the industrialised countries. Through an import substitution industrialization strategy (1960 – 70), a good number of local industrial establishments were protected and allowed to grow.

10 The ever-rising profile of petroleum in subsequent years had a "blindfolding" effect on Agriculture and on industrial production. There was a radical change in the economic landscape of the country to the extent that, by 1982, agriculture contributed only 17% of GDP, while oil accounted for 40% of GDP, 75% of total government revenue and 95% of the Nation's foreign exchange earnings. Oil still plays a major role in Nigeria's economy. Available records, from the Central Bank Annual Report of 2001, show that the oil sector still constitutes 76.5% of the country's total revenue.

TABLE 1.1: KEY SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS

Human Development Indices (HDI)	NIGERIA	Sub-Saharan Africa	Least Developed Countries	Developing Countries
Life Expectancy at Birth	51.6	46.3	50.6	64.6
Adult Literacy Rate	66.8	63.2	52.5	76.7
Combined Gross Enrolment (primary/secondary/tertiary)	45.0	44.0	43.0	60.0
GDP per capita (ppp. US$)	860	1,790	1,307	4,054
Education Index	0.59	0.56	0.49	0.71
Life Expectancy Index	0.44	0.35	0.43	0.66
GDP Index	0.36	0.48	0.42	0.62
HDI Value	0.466	0.465	0.446	0.663

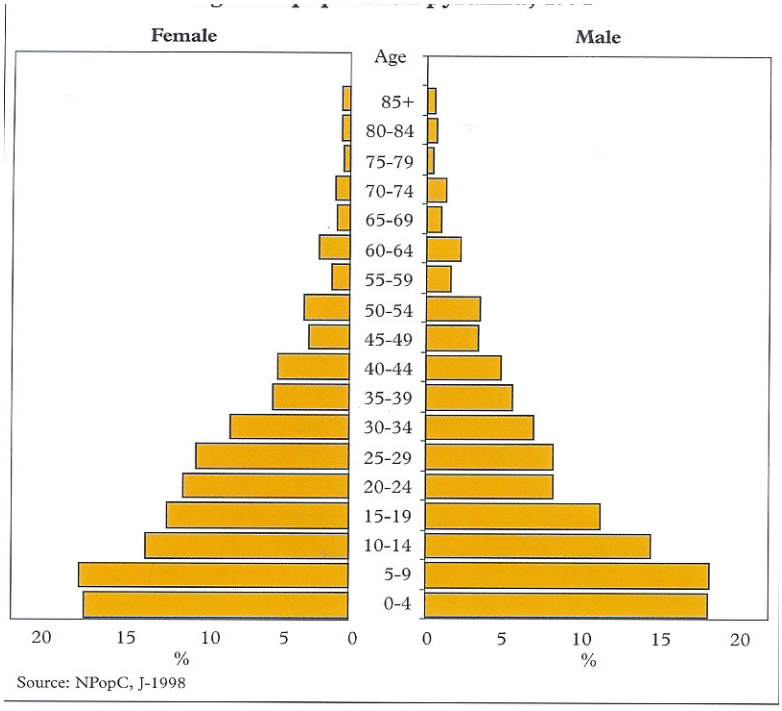
Source: UNDP Human Development Report, 2004

DEMOGRAPHY

11. The 1991 official population census records Nigerian's population as 88,992,220. Of this figure, children below 18 years of age make up approximately 51%. A "median variant" population projection for the year 2000 puts Nigerian children at about 59 million, of which just over 20 million were under five years old (NPC/UNICEF, 2001). The large proportion of children in the population poses a formidable challenge to government in the provision of basic facilities. Maternal and infant mortality rates remain high, at 10.0 and 75.1 per 1000 live births, respectively, while the crude birth and death rates stand at 49 .0 and 41.0 per 1000 persons respectively (CBN, 2001).

12. With an estimated growth rate of 2.83% per annum, and a total of about 120 million in 2003, the population is projected to be 139 million by 2010. This high growth rate is due to a high fertility rate, put at 5.9 in the 1991 census. However, a gradual and long-time decline in fertility rates has been observed, attributable to increased education, urbanisation and a decline in infant and child mortality. For instance, women with secondary education have a total fertility rate of 4.9, compared with 5.6 for women with primary education only and 6.1 for women without formal education. In the same vein, highest urban fertility rates are found in the far northern states of Nigeria. Here the average woman has two more children than a woman in the south or the middle belt of the country (NPC/UNICEF, 2001).

Fig 1.2: NIGERIA'S POPULATION PROFILE



13. The age distribution in the 1991 population census further shows the proportion of person's aged 60 and above as a mere 3.3%, while those under 15 years of age constitute about 45% of the population. There is a high child dependency ratio of 1.1, which imposes considerable strains on the economy, at both family and national levels.

GOVERNMENT'S REFORM AGENDA

14. For the survival of democracy, and to enable the populace enjoy the fruit of the long and tortuous craving for a free society, Government embarked on economic reforms, aimed at bringing the economy back on track. The rate of inflation was brought down to 11% from 14.0% in 2002 while the three tiers of government have embarked on poverty reduction programmes. To reduce over-dependence on oil, government is taking steps to promote liquefied natural gas bitumen, and a variety of solid minerals, as well as the diversification of agricultural production.

15. The pursuit of economic reforms has been systematized in the form of NEEDS (National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy), formally launched in March 2004, with the immediate goal of redefining the role of government in the economy that should henceforth focus on

- Creating an enabling environment for the private sector,
- Improving the delivery of basic social services,
- Promoting investment in the people and
- Laying the foundation for future improvement in human capital, with the ultimate aim of poverty reduction, employment generation and wealth creation.

At the State level, Governments are expected to launch the State Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (SEEDS) reflecting the different peculiarities in the states.

BOX 1.1: THE NEED FOR NEEDS

NEEDS is about the Nigerian people. Their welfare, health, employment, education, political power, physical security, and empowerment are of paramount importance in realizing this vision of the future. To reduce poverty and inequality, the plan proposes acting on several fronts:

- Offering farmers improved irrigation, machinery, and crop varieties will help boost agricultural productivity and tackle poverty head on, since half of Nigeria's poor people work in agriculture. Supporting small and medium-size enterprises will help create jobs. Together with the state economic empowerment and development strategies (SEEDS), NEEDS seek to implement an integrated rural development programme to stem the flow of migration from rural to urban areas.
- Half of Nigeria's people are children, the bridge to a prosperous future. NEEDS recognizes the importance of children by making the improvement of the education system a top priority.
- HIV/AIDS is a major social and health problem. It also threatens the country's productivity and economy. The plan is to improve the system of health care delivery, with emphasis on HIV/AIDS and other preventable diseases, such as malaria, tuberculosis, and reproductive health-related illnesses.
- NEEDS calls for replacing the pension scheme, which is in crisis, with a contributory scheme. It proposes special programmes targeting people who have the weakest political voice and who are most vulnerable to the ravages of poverty. Laws and programmes will be implemented to empower women, children, the disabled, and the elderly.

NEEDS emphasizes the critical importance of improving infrastructure. More-and more reliable-electricity and a new and better-maintained network of roads will encourage businesses to expand.

NEEDS gives special support to agriculture, industry, small and medium-scale enterprises, and

oil and gas. Under the plan, the government will seek long-term capital for investment. Trade policy, so critical to Nigeria's stake in the regional economy, will be modified to unburden business of the red tape and complex procedures that hinder it from flourishing. NEEDS envisages forging stronger links between educational institutions and industry to stimulate rapid industrial growth and efficient exploitation of resources.

STRUCTURE AND MANAGEMENT OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Structure of the Education System

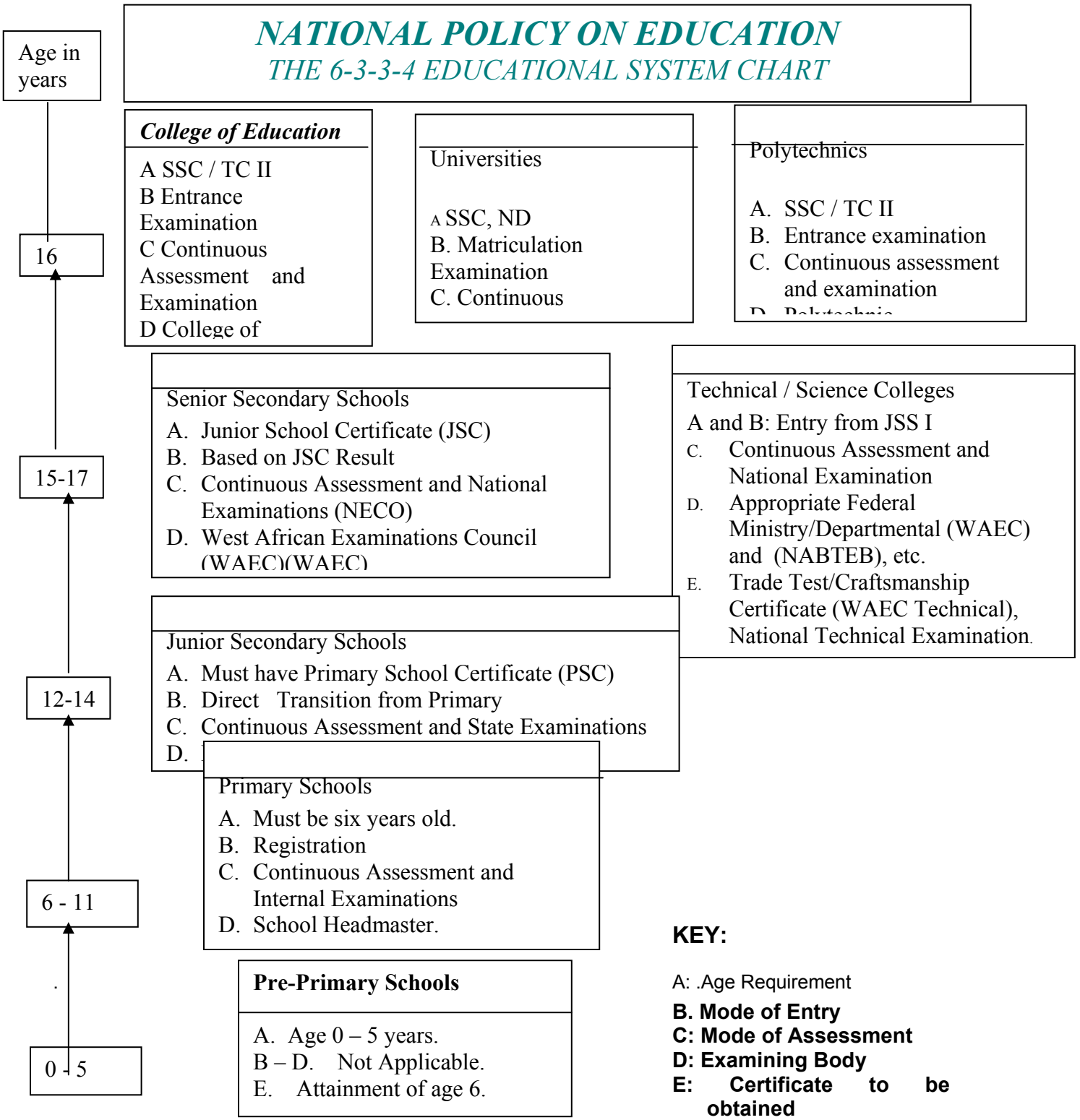
16. According to the constitutional provisions, the main responsibilities of the Federal government in basic education are in the realm of policy formulation, co-ordination and monitoring. Direct control by the Federal government is preponderantly at the tertiary level. Only a handful of institutions at the secondary level (the Unity Schools and technical colleges) enjoy federal direct control. The bulk of secondary schools in the country are under the purview of state governments, which are also directly responsible for a considerable proportion of the nation's tertiary institutions. Local governments have statutory managerial responsibility for primary education, with the federal and state governments exercising appropriate oversight functions.

17. The National Policy on Education stipulates a 6-3-3-4 structure offering six years of primary, three years of junior secondary, three years of senior secondary and four years of higher education. The hierarchical structure of the educational system has as its base, Early childhood education in which government's role has been limited to setting standards, providing curriculum guidelines and training teachers with the private sector providing educational service. Primary and junior secondary education constitutes basic education that is free and compulsory. A special nomadic education programme for the children of migrant herding and fishing communities is also encompassed in the basic education package.

18. The senior secondary level includes both an academic curriculum provided in general secondary schools and other curricula provided in technical colleges and vocational centres. Adult and non-formal education caters for the needs of a good number of young people who do not reach the senior secondary level, while Islamic education forms an important traditional part of the formal and informal delivery of education in Nigeria with varying degrees of integration with formal education on a state- to- state basis.

19. One other stratum in the structure is technology and science education. Technology education is composed of pre-vocational education at the primary and junior secondary levels, vocational training in technical colleges and vocational training centres, technical education in polytechnics and monotechnics and some professional education in universities. The tertiary level of education comprises of 55 universities, 51 Polytechnics and 68 Colleges of Education charged with responsibilities for the production of different categories of high calibre manpower required for national development. The structure of the formal educational system is summarized in figure three

FIG 1.3: STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM



Management of the System

20. Education is placed on the concurrent legislative list in the 1999 constitution that provides the legal framework for educational management in Nigeria. This implies that both Federal and State governments have legislative jurisdiction and corresponding functional responsibilities with respect to education. By this arrangement, although a few functions are exclusively assigned to the Federal or State government, most of the functions and responsibilities are in fact shared by the three tiers of government.

21. statutorily, the Federal Ministry of Education (FME) is at the apex of the regulation and management of education in the country and to discharge this mandate, the ministry is structured into eight departments and three statutory units. The state ministries of education have similar structures to those of the FME with minor variations determined by peculiarities of each state. Although the FME has overall responsibility for formulating, harmonizing and coordinating policies and monitoring quality in service delivery in the education sector, the ministry is advised in the discharge of these responsibilities by the National Council on Education (NCE), the highest policy formulation body on educational matters which is composed of the Federal Minister of Education and the State Commissioners for Education.

22. The NCE operates through the instrumentality of the Joint Consultative Committee on Education (JCCE), composed of professional officers of the Federal and State Ministries of Education. The consultative reference committees of the JCCE provide a veritable feedback mechanism for federal policies. The NCE provides a forum for consensus building on policy articulation that are to be implemented at the appropriate levels of government with some leeway for local peculiarities in policy implementation.

23. Legislative committees (such as the Education Committees of the Senate and the House of Representatives) are constitutionally saddled with oversight functions in the education sector. Similar oversight functions are performed by the Education Committees of the various state Houses of Assembly and their equivalents at the local government level.

24. For the purposes of providing university, technological, professional and other post-primary education, the federal and state governments are at liberty to legislate, establish and manage institutions in this category. Local governments on the other hand, have a statutory responsibility to provide and maintain primary education subject to necessary assistance from the states. The role of the federal government with regard to the primary and secondary sub-sectors, as articulated in the constitution, is restricted to the determination of national policy, setting of standards (including curriculum) and the monitoring of performance. In practice however, the Federal government has over the years directly influenced the financing and management of primary education through the setting up of special institutions at Federal and state levels.

Parastatals, Boards and Commissions

25. The Federal Ministry of Education interfaces with its twenty-one parastatals for the purpose of supervision, through its operations and service departments. These parastatals are grouped into four major groups based on their functions namely the supervisory and regulatory parastatals – NUC, NBTE, NCCE, UBE, NMEC, NCNE; those for research, development and training - NERDC, NMC, NLN, NTI, NIEPA; those for measurement, evaluation and examinations – WAEC, JAMB, NECO, NABTEB, and those for language training and development- NFLV, NINLAN, NALV.

26. At the tertiary level, three national commissions monitor both federal and state institutions. These are the National Universities Commission (NUC) for universities, the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) for polytechnics, the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) for the Colleges of Education. Other important national agencies include NERDC for educational research; NIEPA for the improvement of educational planning and administration, and NTI charged with responsibilities for upgrading of teachers through in-service training, and for teachers' professional development through conferences, workshops and seminars.

27. At the state level, educational parastatals such as State Universal Basic Education Boards (SUBEB), State Mass Education Agencies, State post-primary education board, teaching service commission, school management board, State governing councils of tertiary institutions and scholarship boards are in place with responsibility for teachers' recruitment and deployment, remuneration, welfare, discipline and disbursement of funds. Some of them also ensure the regulation and supervision of state level educational activities.
Local Government Education Authorities (LGEAs) are directly in charge of education at the local government level.

Partnership with Civil Society

28. In keeping with the avowed principle of popular participation in development the involvement and management of Education in Nigeria has substantial input from civil society. Parents Teachers' Associations (PTAs) are known to play very critical roles in augmenting government efforts in the areas of improvement of classrooms, hostels and other physical facilities in educational institutions at all levels. The National Parents Teacher Association of Nigeria (NPTAN) and professional associations such as Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU), the Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT) other interest groups such as the National Council of Women Societies (NCWS), NGOs and Community-Based Organizations have become more active players in the education enterprise playing more active roles in the areas of provision of educational support services, capacity building, advocacy, legislative lobbying and other such interventions aimed at leading to overall improvements in the education sector.

Quality Assurance

29. At all levels of education, government (through the instrumentality of the appropriate statutory supervisory agencies} assures the quality of academic provisions. At the tertiary level for instance, NUC, NBTE and NCCE respectively set up Minimum Academic Standards (MAS) for all academic programmes and courses run in the universities, polytechnics and colleges of education in Nigeria.

These MAS documents stipulate minimum floor space for lecture, laboratory/studio/workshop facilities per student; minimum laboratory space, library space and holdings; minimum staff-student ratios for effective teaching and learning in any given discipline. The curriculums as well as the minimum entry and graduation requirements for each academic discipline are also enunciated in the minimum academic standards documents. The MAS documents provide the benchmarks against which the academic programmes of these institutions are evaluated for purposes of accreditation.

30. The inspectorate service of the FME is responsible for quality assurance at the secondary level, where a national agency equivalent to those at the tertiary level does not exist. Administrative audit-- including an evaluation of the quality and efficiency of institutional governance-- is carried out periodically, usually every five years when visitation panels are sent to the various tertiary institutions.

31. In keeping with global trends, systematic monitoring of learning achievement has now become part of educational practice in Nigeria. The first Monitoring of Learning Achievement (MLA) exercise in Nigeria was conducted in 1996, with the aim of monitoring students' learning achievement of fourth grade pupils. Results of the MLA showed low achievement in the three key areas of literacy, numeracy and life-skills. A similar study of primary five pupils in Mathematics and English in 2001 also showed a low level of achievement in English (40%) and Mathematics (34%), indicating very low internal efficiency a situation reflective of poor quality of the resources (including the teachers and teaching) provided in primary schools. The initial plan to conduct MLA periodically has not materialised.

FACTORS THAT HAVE INFLUENCED EDUCATION OVER THE YEARS

Historical Factors

32. Every community in Nigeria had its traditional patterns of education that ensured socialization and inter-generational transmission of cultural heritage. With the coming of Islam, parts of the country assimilated Islamic education into the indigenous system. The islamised sections of the country in fact developed highly sophisticated and organized literary civilizations.

33. “Western” education began as an offshoot of Christian missionary efforts, and therefore was slow in penetrating into the areas of strong Islamic influence, while areas with strong Christian influence readily embraced the new form of Education. This historical incident has had the effect of polarizing the country in educational terms, giving rise to the well-documented and well-orchestrated phenomenon of educational imbalance. The phenomenon has remained an intractable challenge to educational development in the country.

Economic Factors

34. The fluctuations that the Nigerian economy has suffered over the years have also largely affected the country’s educational development. During the years of the oil boom, centralization was introduced into the country’s education policies and very ambitious expansion programmes were embarked upon by government with the objective of increasing access to all levels of education. The apparent wealth of the era (an annual GDP of 6.2 %), although mostly (90%) accounted for by oil, impacted positively on the education system with government virtually intervening in all aspects of education delivery and thus visibly increasing inputs into the system

35. With the end of the oil boom in the 1970s, government income diminished, at the same time as the incidence of poverty at the household level in both urban and rural areas increased. This in its turn has impacted negatively on access to basic service, and particularly on Education. Increased household poverty in turn, led to low and declining school enrolment. Parents were unable to bear the direct and indirect costs of sending their children and wards to school. The Structural Adjustment programme (SAP) which emphasized macro economic stability with little thought for the social dimensions of adjustment, introduced economic gains that made very little dent on the population of persons below the absolute poverty line (of less than $1 a day) the number of which increased from 12% to 14% between 1985 and 1992. The pool of out-of-school children and youth increased at this time, and more children were used to fetch needed extra cash for the family.

Sociological Factors

36. The factors referred to as sociological deal with the rising social demand for education leading to more private participation in education delivery. As government investment in education dwindled and infrastructure became more dilapidated, greater patronage was recorded among private providers of education. The situation was the same across all levels of education. An additional dimension was the unemployment situation that indirectly increased the demand for higher education. Although empirical sources do not exist to establish this link, it does appear that graduates quickly enrolled for higher degrees since the alternative was unemployment and idleness.

37. The rising demand for higher education in turn led to the establishment of satellite campuses that were the direct response from the universities to public demand for higher education. Other modernizing trends such as the introduction of various remedial programmes in higher institutions including teacher training colleges, integration of western and Islamiyya schools, and increased private participation in education provision at all levels, depict a trend of increased civil society demand for education.

Political Factors

38. Centralization of educational administration in the country began with the government take over of schools between 1970 and 1985. Although differently applied across states, the 1976 introduction of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) by the federal government ended the differential education programmes in the regions. Technical and Teacher's Colleges were equally taken over by government in the 1970s while in 1975 the Federal Military Government decided to take over all the universities in Nigeria. The subsequent ban on establishment of private universities by state governments, voluntary agencies or private persons was lifted by the democratic dispensation and the 1979 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

39. As a result of this development, about 12 state universities were opened between 1980 and 1999 mostly in the south. Between 1977 and 1999 however, private universities were banned and un-banned twice (1977, 1984) (1979, 1999) respectively by military and civilian governments. These interventions also exposed the gaps created over the years between the north and the south. The Ashby report diagnosis of the needs of Nigeria in higher education for instance revealed that only 9% of primary school age children in the North were enrolled in school as compared with over 80% of children of similar age in the south (east and west). It was also revealed that only 4000 students were enrolled in secondary school in the north as against 40,000 in the south. This imbalance called for some political engineering to remedy.

Geographical Factors

40. With a population of over 88 million, a surface area of 923,764 sq km and languages (about 350), Nigeria is indeed a vast country. This reality introduces complexities to the delivery of social services and infrastructure. People still essentially tied to the land think in terms of ethnic groupings and primordial loyalties thus leading to strong demands for evenness of spread in establishment and locations of educational services. This law of even spread was applied to the establishment of the first set of Federal secondary schools, higher education institutions, and has continued to inform the establishment of education facilities.

International Influences

41. The case for improved access to education has benefited from international attention and concerns over the years. The Jomtien 1990 Declaration and Framework for Action (1990) and the Dakar EFA Declaration of April 2000 have influenced the orientation of Nigeria's UBE (Universal Basic Education) programme, as well as the on-going EFA planning exercise.

42. Other international conferences held during the 1990 decade: the Ouagadougou pan-African conference on girls' education (1993), the world conferences on higher education (1998), and technical/vocational education (1999) have all had their impacts on educational development in the country, and have particularly enabled Nigeria to network with other nations. The same can be said of Nigeria's involvement in the work of ADEA (Association for the Development of Education in Africa), and its participation in successive MINEDAF conferences of UNESCO.

Challenges of Federalism and Education

43. Nigeria is a federation of 36 States and a Federal Capital Territory (FCT). Each State is made up of a number of Local Government Areas (LGAs), decided by its population and other considerations. By 2005, there are 774 constitutionally recognized LGAs, each governed by a Local Government. The constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria defines for each of the three tiers o government, Federal, State and Local Government, a set of functions and services; it is expected to perform with respect to governance. But the constitution also identified a number of services it describes as concurrent as opposed to exclusive list for federal and state governments. Education is one of those services on the concurrent list.

By this, it is meant that both the federal and state governments can provide education services. The constitution also provides that her authorities can "*participate"* in the delivery of education services at the discretion of the states.

"The thinking behind the 1999 constitution was that in the concurrent functional areas, the federal government only provides policy direction, determine norms and standard and monitor achievement, it will leave implementation in the hands of the states. Furthermore, it (that Federal government) will let each state determine the nature and extent of the involvement of the Local Government

authorities in the delivery of services" in the concurrent list (Orbach, 2004). It was also understood from historical antecedents that the federal government would concentrate on the provision of the tertiary/higher education which unit cost is higher; the state government was to provide mainly secondary education and the local government, primary and pre-primary education.

In practice however, both federal and state government have worked against the spirit of the 1999 constitutional provisions. Federal and state governments, and to some extent Local governments have established and managed all levels of education – pre-primary, primary, secondary, tertiary and even non-formal education centres within the same state. With every level, of government, backed by its own laws and policies, often promulgated with little or no regards to other levels doing essentially the same thing, if means certain roles and functions, such as school monitoring and inspection are over done while others, such as staff development and training as well as curriculum development are neglected.

In summary, federation in Nigeria has enabled roles and functions for the delivery of education to be excessively fragmented, reducing the level of interest and responsibility in some essential functions and paying little attention to others.

The political instability in governance and the fluctuations in economic fortunes have introduced instability in the way education ahs been managed. The incision of military administration with its command structure introduced National Primary Education commission to manage and fund primary education, effectively taking over the responsibility of other tiers o government. In a Supreme Court ruling in 2002, following inception of the democratic form of government since independence, the roles of federal and states governments had to be redefined. This notwithstanding, the critical factor of social services delivery is availability fo funds, Funds for all three tiers of government are sourced largely from a pooled account, called the Federation Account which is sourced mainly from federal taxes (especially oil and gas) and duties in importation, Revenue from the Federation Account provide about 90 percent of federal government revenue and over 80 percent of state and Local Government revenue. Once the praxis is streamlined, clarity and stability is brought into the sector, a sector-wide approach to planning and management of educational services would appear ripe.

The amount of money accruing to each level of government for its delivery of social services, including education has changed and has been contentions over the years. Similarly, expenditure on education by each of the three tiers of government has depended on the vagaries of accruing revenue.

There is no reliable information on the total annual expenditure on education by each tier of government in the last 40 years. The dearth of reliable recorders of expenditure, especially at the state level and the multiplicity of accounting system across 36 states would make nonsense of any effort at collecting, collating and analyzing financial records. A World Bank status report using estimates reveal fiscal imbalances vertically among the tiers of government and horizontally

among pre-primary, primary, secondary, tertiary and non-formal education. For instance Table (3.13 WE SE) shows the relative estimated contributions (percent) of local, state and federal governments to education in seven selected states in 1998. Similarly, table 3.14 WB SE shows the overall distribution fo allocations across educational levels. On the whole a conservative estimate of 10:7:8 ratio for primary to secondary to tertiary education funding formula appears to apply. This ratio is inequitable when you consider it against the target populations on the number of beneficiaries.

Towards Education for Nation Building

44. A clear perception of the factors that have determined the fate of Nigeria's education progress over the years is a necessary first step in understanding the conditions under which specific education policies and programmes have worked, or have not worked. It is also a foundation for initiating the social dynamics that could enhance meaningful educational reform. This is why the national education sector analysis, which is the subject of this report, has been a systematic social assessment and participatory process.

TABLE 1.3: SCOPE AND OBJECTIVES OF UBE

Scope	Objectives
Programmes/Initiatives for early childhood care and social mobilisation; Education programmes for the acquisition of functional literacy, numeracy and life-skills; especially for adults (persons aged 15 and above); Out-of-school, non-formal programmes for updating the knowledge and skills of persons who left school before acquiring the basics needed for life-long learning; Special programmes for nomadic populations; Non-formal skills and apprenticeship training for adolescents and youth who have not had the benefit of formal education; The formal school system from the beginning of primary education to the end of junior secondary school.	Developing in the entire citizenry a strong consciousness for education and a strong commitment to its vigorous promotion; The provision of free, compulsory and universal basic education for every Nigerian child of school going age; Reducing drastically the incidence of drop-out from the formal school system (through improved relevance, quality and efficiency); Catering for the learning needs of young persons who, for one reason or another, have had to interrupt their schooling through appropriate forms of complementary approaches to the provision and promotion of basic education; Ensuring the acquisition of the appropriate levels of literacy, numeracy, manipulative, communicative and life skills as well as the ethical, moral and civic values needed for laying a solid foundation for lifelong learning.

CHAPTER TWO
EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE and EDUCATION

INSTITUTIONAL AND NORMATIVE FRAMEWORK

1. The National Policy on Education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2004, Section 2, pages 11-12) defines early childcare education as the education given in an educational institution to children aged three to five plus prior to entering the primary school. It includes the crèche, the nursery and the kindergarten

Policy Thrust

2. The Federal Government's policy thrust for Pre-School Education, as stated in the National Policy of Education (1998 edition, section 2, P 11), indicates that government's responsibility for Pre-primary education shall be to:

- Promote the training of qualified caregivers;
- Contribute to the development of suitable curriculum and
- Supervise and controlling the quality of such institutions.

3. While the overall purpose of the pre-primary education is spelt out as follows;

- Effect a smooth transition from home to the school,
- Prepare the child for the primary level of education,
- Provide adequate care and supervision for the children while their parents are at work,
- Inculcate social norms,
- Inculcate in the child the spirit of enquiry and creativity through the exploration of nature, the environment, art, music and playing with toys etc;
- Develop a sense of co-operation and team-spirit;
- Learn good habits, especially good health; and
- Teach the rudiments of numbers, letters, colours etc, through play.

Country Strategy

4. Although pre-primary education began as a private sector proprietorship, it has gradually become part and parcel of government enterprise as governments, especially state and local, establish pre-primary schools and crèches as part of the formal school system. Furthermore, there is a growing recognition of the need to integrate Qur'anic education with the formal school system.

5. Furthermore, in the Country Report on EFA 2001, Nigeria has set, the following targets to be achieved by 2015

- by 2010, 30% of the National Budget to be spent on early childhood care and development programme;
- by 2015, 70% of the children enrolling in primary school would have participated in at least one year of early childhood care and development programme;
- by 2015, enrolment in early childhood programme to increase to 70%.

6. Current practice has expanded the concept of pre-primary education to that of early childhood care and education. Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) is defined as a move to include the development of the child from conception up to and including the age of six when he/she enrols in a formal school set up. Essentially, therefore, ECCE is conceptualized to ensure the survival, growth and socialization of the child. ECCE therefore emphasizes concerns about the mother's health during pregnancy, the child's health, nutritional status, and mental, emotional and physical development. This is the basis of the **EFA Goal No. 1**, *which is expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.*

7. ECCE has been brought to the fore by the UBE bill which has become law. The first goal of the UBE program which targets ECCE is 'to develop in the entire citizenry a strong consciousness for education and a strong commitment to its vigorous promotion.

8. In addition to promoting the ownership and construction of pre-primary schools as part of the regular school system, the UBE Commission has embarked on massive capacity building of caregivers as well as promote the development of linkages and partnerships among agencies all across the nation.

9. Whereas government policy on ECCE hitherto has focussed on the 3-5 year age bracket, the new policy recognises the need for early intervention in early childhood care promotion. Thus, the 0-2 year category is now recognised on inseparable segment of the ECCE. It is however easy to differentiate between services as provided for the two groups. This has led to the categorisation of formal and non-formal provision in ECCE. The formal are those setups that are variously referred to as nursery, kindergarten etc. The non-formal ECCE refers to the less formal day care centres and homes where women or young school leavers are entrusted with the care of babies and children until their parents return from their workplaces or market.

Traditional Practices

10. The practice of caring for children in Nigeria has always been a collective effort whereby the responsibility of training and upbringing of a child is not only that of the immediate or extended family but also involves neighbours and indeed all adults.. Thus traditional early childhood care practices exist in various informal forms in both rural and urban societies in Nigeria. The aim is to produce individuals with behaviour-patterns, abilities and skills necessary for effective citizenship in the community. The objectives of such communal child-rearing practices are to develop the child's latent physical skills, character, and intellectual skills and inculcate respect for elders and those in position of authority. Other objectives include a need to develop in the child a sense of belonging and to participate actively in family and community affairs and to understand, appreciate and promote the cultural heritage of the community at large.

11. In the early 1980s, these traditional type cares emerged into non-formal day care centres where children are clustered in groups (usually according to their street or mothers' market stalls) and an elderly person oversees their affairs while their mothers are in the markets or farms. These centres are currently thriving in many large cities in the Southern States.

12. The ESA studies on pre-primary education, indigenous practices of child stimulation and the report on **jale osimi** and **ota-akara** brands of **ECCE** which are examples of such emerging crèche, are presented in this section to sum up the diagnosis report on early childhood care and education. The ESA report on Indigenous Practices of Child Stimulation reveals numerous variations in child stimulation methods which have educational goals and is therefore used also to substantiate some of the findings.

ACCESS AND EQUITY ISSUES

13. Spread and Location of Centres

The universal character of the UBE implies that it is intended to be all-inclusive. No segment of the society is left out. Indeed, special attention is given to special groups including young children, in order to lay a solid foundation for life-long learning right from childhood.

14. The 2003 National School Census as shown in table 2.1 points to a growing awareness for ECCE. A total of 1,402,260 children (669,714 of them females) were reported to have enrolled in 55,786 pre-primary schools across this country with Oyo and Lagos States having the largest enrolments. Conversely, Bayelsa and River States had the least enrolment. In all but Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Ebonyi, Imo, Osun and Oyo States, girls are disadvantaged. Even at this early stage, gender gap is most pronounced in Sokoto State.

TABLE 2.1 ENROLMENT IN FORMAL PRE-PRIMARY SCHOOLS BY STATES

State	No. of Schools	KG1		KG2		NS1		NS2		TOTALS		
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
ABIA	860	937	937	1,757	1,474	11,596	11,359	10,481	10,395	24,771	24,165	48,936
ADAMAWA	1,600	800	611	1,184	1,059	4,694	4,118	3,641	3,238	10,319	9,026	19,345
AKWA IBOM	1,302	2,279	2,672	1,881	1,995	9,957	10,084	6,701	7,190	20,818	21,941	45,759
ANAMBRA	1,188	2,498	2,518	4,334	4,221	16,020	14,607	14,538	13,994	37,390	35,640	73,030
BAUCHI	2,001	665	693	509	543	5,230	4,447	3,560	3,273	9,964	8,956	18,920
BAYELSA	519	216	219	284	278	533	628	453	571	1,486	1,696	3,182
BENUE	2,529	1,567	1,673	1,066	994	6,202	5,757	4,917	4,575	13,752	12,999	26,751
BORNO	1,321	765	288	804	656	3,399	2,791	2,658	2,290	7,626	6,025	13,651
CROSS RIVER	939	5,475	5,400	3,584	3,472	18,424	18,210	17,647	18,205	45,130	45,287	90,417
DELTA	1,398	8,456	8,133	8,417	7,882	6,607	6,466	3,907	3,924	27,387	26,405	53,792
EBONYI	834	380	422	808	910	2,334	2,301	1,833	1,948	5,355	5,581	10,936
EDO	1,624	9,401	9,020	8,819	8,335	7,366	7,055	4,297	4,172	29,883	28,613	58,496
EKITI	853	2,110	2,020	1,640	1,575	3,445	3,050	2,495	2,294	9,690	8,939	18,629
ENUGU	1,110	1,376	1,460	1,409	1,404	7,545	7,313	7,073	6,906	17,403	17,083	34,486
GOMBE	1,111	627	540	785	534	4,050	3,427	3,990	3,088	9,452	7,589	17,041
UNI	1,423	1,831	1,914	2,742	2,722	14,320	14,352	13,289	13,444	32,182	32,432	64,614
JIGAWA	1,592	1,404	935	984	736	3,713	2,873	2,468	1,924	8,569	6,468	15,037
KADUNA	3,256	2,562	2,112	2,553	2,201	18,709	16,983	13,594	12,178	37,418	33,474	70,892
KANO	3,015	715	536	500	400	5,302	4,771	2,869	2,295	9,386	8,002	17,388
KATSINA	1,979	521	441	753	631	2,568	2,096	2,487	1,941	6,329	5,109	11,438
KEBBI	1,334	775	731	485	427	3,690	2,864	1,862	1,476	6,812	5,498	12,310
KOGI	1,823	1,082	1,035	683	558	4,189	3,943	3,833	3,694	9,787	9,230	19,017
KWARA	1,176	1,494	1,370	1,463	1,222	3,188	2,786	3,177	2,729	9,322	8,107	17,420
LAGOS	1,796	11,452	11,095	10,654	10,485	17,862	17,425	17,555	17,305	57,523	56,310	113,833
NASARAWA	1,181	1,362	1,246	1,168	1,097	4,170	3,907	2,555	2,287	9,255	8,537	17,792
NIGER	2,576	2,656	2,247	3,089	2,390	12,661	10,264	9,093	7,653	27,499	22,554	50,053
OGUN	1,702	6,592	6,278	6,173	5,611	9,066	8,664	9,630	9,139	31,461	29,692	61,153
ONDO	1,506	7,909	8,271	4,352	4,245	9,139	9,011	9,550	9,122	30,950	30,649	61,599
OSUN	1,338	1,573	1,633	1,470	1,520	2,172	1,986	7,089	7,228	12,304	12,367	24,671
OYO	2,189	8,056	7,968	7,659	7,549	27,752	28,343	39,076	39,581	82,543	83,441	165,984
PLATEAU	1,723	1,620	1,408	2,446	2,259	4,109	3,988	4,145	3,956	12,320	11,611	23,931

RIVERS	1,023	267	239	463	458	498	489	465	433	1,693	1,619	3,312
SOKOTO	2,196	1,214	909	581	459	26,007	11,301	22,088	9,078	49,890	21,747	71,637
TARABA	1,399	1,434	1,280	1,157	873	3,486	5,854	2,892	2,611	8,969	7,618	16,587
YOBE	916	391	281	501	418	1,801	1,484	1,467	1,370	4,160	3,553	7,713
ZAMFARA	953	414	266	243	183	2,251	1,464	1,456	1,032	4,364	2,945	7,309
FCT-ABUJA	498	1,334	1,250	1,905	1,763	3,356	3,208	2,789	2,585	9,384	8,806	18,190
TOTAL	55,783	94,210	90,210	89,305	836,839	287,411	256,669	261,620	239,124	732,546	669,714	1,402,260

Source: 2003 National School Census FME/UBE

KEY:

KG = Kindergarten
NS =
Nursery

15. Altogether, a total of eight hundred and eighty four ECC/Pre-primary/Nursery schools were surveyed covering all the 36 states and Abuja. Out of this Bauchi State (NE) had the highest number (68) 7.6% in the selected sample. This is followed by Edo(SS)-61)6.8%;Sokoto(56) 6.3and; Anambra (50) 5.6%; Kaduna(48) 5.4%; Katsina (46) 5.2%;Nassarawa (45) 5.0%;Imo (44) 5.0%;Enugu (39)4.4%,Niger and Borno (31)3.5% respectively. States with the least number of ECC/Pre-primary schools include Benue (2), Kano(4) FCT (NC)50 Yobe (6)0.7; and Taraba (NE)(8) 0.9%.Data from Zamfara State was missing from the output.

16. The study reveals that most of the preschools are located in the urban areas (64.3%) when compared to those in the rural areas (35.7%. This result is supported by earlier findings (SAPA, 1993;Agusiobo, 1999)

17. For the non-formal centres (Jeliosimi and ota-akara) the data on spread and location are presented in Table 2. The distribution of ECCE non-formal centres indicates that they exist largely in southern and middle belt states. The realty is that in the northern states, a prevalence of Qur'anic schools serve virtually the same purpose. Chapter twelve is devoted entirely to Qur'anic and Islamiya education.

Table 1: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Sampled ECC Non – Formal Education Centers `Jeliosimi, Ota Akara, Ibviosukumehu Organizers According to States in Nigeria

STATE	Frequency	Percent
ABIA	5	5.1
ANAMBRA	13	13.1
BENUE	4	4.0
CROSSRIVER	2	2.0
DELTA	4	4.0
EBONYI	2	2.0
EDO	20	20.2
EKITI	3	3.0
ENUGU	5	5.1
IMO	8	8.1
KADUNA	5	5.1
KOGI	13	13.1
KWARA	7	7.1
ONDO	3	3.0
OYO	5	5.1
Total	99	100.0

Total national figures not available.

18. Table 2 shows the states where collection of data on these organizers was undertaken, the frequencies and percentage distributions of the centres. Altogether 15 states out of 36 states and Abuja sampled recorded collection of data on Jeli-osimi , Ota-kara and Ibviosukumehu organizers.

19. There were more of these non-formal centres in the urban areas (79.8%) than in the rural areas (20.2%) This means in effect that parents in the urban areas are probably workers who work in offices and have to leave their children under the care of a responsible individual for care and safety.

Table2-Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Sampled Formal Pre-school Centres

Situation	Frequency	Percentage
School Premises	625	74.4
Church premises	84	10.0
Mosque premises	2	0.2
Office premises	8	1.0
Under Tree	1	0.1
Community building	19	2.3
Open space	4	0.5
Private Residential	97	11.5
Total	840	100.0

20. As shown by the results in Table 2 majority of the sampled preschools are located within school premises (74.4%) followed by those located in private residential accommodation (11.5%),church premises (10%),church premises (10%)and other locations are open spaces(0.5%) mosques (0.2%)and under trees(0.1%.)

21. It appears that most of ECC/Pre-primary schools are located within the school premises private residential homes and church premises. This indicates that Pre-primary/primary school linkages are already on course. Promoting such linkages will enable Government ensure more access, quality and cost effectiveness. This augurs well for expansion of ECCE which is relevant to Goal 1 of EFA and UBE.

Distance

22. For the distance between home and ECCE/Pre-School the results of the study showed that the most frequent distance between home and school is 0-1km, 53.7% followed by 1km + to -2km. (24.9%).Children would probably attend school if the distance between home and school is not more than between 0 to 2km**.**The ECC/Pre-primary are easily accessible in terms of distance. Thus it is recommended that the distance between home and centre/school should not exceed 1-2 km for easy access.

Special Needs Children

23. About 29% of sampled centres had children with special needs. In most of the schools (71.3%) there were no special needs children while those that have special needs recorded 28.7% of the sample. The special needs children were mainly Speech Impaired (39.9%), physically challenged (32.3%), mentally challenged (11.7%), sight impaired (11.6%) and hearing impaired (4.9 %.)These categories of special needs children need to be helped by providing facilities for special needs such as special equipment and materials to facilitate their learning for example hearing aid. However, the finding at the centres was that there were no special provisions for these children . Also the use of referral services to speech therapists, special educators and psychologists would be of great help to special needs children

Enrolment

24. From 1999 to 2003 there were increases in the number of children 0- >6 years enrolled in day care centers/pre-primary and nursery schools from 44,745 to 84,340, in all the 36 states and FCT, Abuja. That is about 47% increase over a five year period. Thus from 1999 -2003 there was gender disparity in favour of males except in 2000 when there was parity during the period.

25. Noteworthy is the fact that it appears that most children start from Nursery 1 than from Day Care with more concentration of children mostly male children in Nursery 1 than in Nursery 2. In Nursery 3, the number of enrolments decreases indicating either that the children have dropped out probably due to lack of funds to continue schooling. As revealed by some studies (SAPA, 1993; Agusiobo, 1999) that there are more private pre-schools than public and these charge high fees which is exorbitant and therefore may exclude the poor who while still struggling to have enough funds to feed the family would most probably not have enough to pay high school fees which is a characteristic of the privately owned nursery schools –exclusively for the rich. This trend is observed in enrolments by level and age from 1999-2003 periods. One would then ask –Where do these children go to?– Child labour, street begging or trading etc could be likely reasons for dropping out of school at an early age in order to get money to feed or bring income into the family. Oloko, (1986; 1992 ;) have indicated that young children participate in child begging, street trading/hawking**.**

26. Child labour is one of the faces of poverty. Children as young as three years old are involved in Child labour according to World Bank Study of Nigerian Children in 1996. Poverty is the most impelling reason why children work. Children commonly contribute around 20-25 percent of the family income, the minimum percentage required to purchase nutritional food .Thus high fees do create a barrier for the poor to have access to pre-schools/nursey education. Another possible reason could be lack of centres to send children 0-3,3-5years therefore the need to provide more ECC centres in the rural to serve children -as a preparatory ground to nursery and primary school.

QUALITY AND EFFICIENCY ISSUES

Curriculum and Learning

27. The results of the analysis from the questionnaires administered revealed that different curricular were in use in these centres as follow: NERDC (52.3%) and State Curriculum (37.8%) are the most used in ECC/Preschools. These curricular although already printed, were not however widely available.

Language of instruction

28. In terms of language of instruction the findings revealed that English language is most widely used (71.2%) for instruction by ECC/Pre-primary teachers, followed by language of immediate environment (26.6%) and pidgin English is least used. This finding is supported by previous studies (SAPA, 1993; Etuk, 2000). It is well known that most parents would like their children to speak English language as soon as they start ECC/Pre-primary schools. However, the National Policy on Education (1998) prescribed the language of the immediate environment or mother tongue at this level and this should be adhered to. This finding is supported (SAPA, 1993; Etuk, 2000**)**

Subjects Taught

29. The report shows a wide range of subjects taught at pre-primary schools; English language being the subject taught mostly 13.5%, followed by Mathematics and nursery rhymes 12.7%respectively. Local language and computer are the subjects least taught. The results on English language and local language are further confirmed by the findings in this study .This finding has also been supported by previous studies – (SAPA,1993 Agusiobo, 1999)

Methods of Teaching

30. The findings also revealed that stories/fables are the most used (53.4%) indigenous stimulation technique than others –like games and role play (23.3%; 23.2%) respectively. This is supported by previous studies (FGN/FMYD/NERDC/UNICEF 1995; 2000**)**

31. The major indigenous practices of child stimulation strategies among the different ethnic groups in the country include moonlight plays; age grade initiation; rope skipping; *ayo* games; riddles and jokes; *kedu onye ga abu oyimu* (Igbo); *akpam kolo kpam kolo* (Igbo); *asabe be be asabe-ruwa* (Hausa). These techniques have been used to improve learning skills and have helped children understand societal values and norms such as good manners, self-control, hard work, honesty and humility. Based on the findings of the study one of the major challenges facing Nigeria is the formulation of a policy framework for inclusion of indigenous practices of child simulation in the school curriculum.

Status and Availability of Resource Items in ECC/Preschools

32. The status of resource Items at ECC/ Preschools are revealed by the results in Table 13. In the variety of resources listed a few items –chalk, chalkboard/slate, duster, books, playground, wall drawings paper, coloring/crayon games, letters ,numbers, flash cards ,charts/ posters were found available but inadequate in most of the cases. About 72% of all the resource items were not available. Earlier studies are supportive (SAPA 1993; Agusiobo1998) .This is critical for instance items such as toys /dolls are important for children's` motor and intellectual development. Some of these resources could be improvised by caregiver /teacher if given appropriate training. Moreover, Government should look into the development of prototypes which can be replicated and manufactured in country, on a large scale for distribution to ECC/Pre-primary education centres. Government actually need to intervene urgently as there are actually no resources for children to interact or engage with, thus learning for them at this early stage which should form the foundation to other learning experiences becomes problematic.

Health –Common Ailments

33. The health of children is an important issue because if children are not healthy they can not go to school. The results in Table 6 show the common ailments among children in pre-primary schools.

Table: 3- Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Common Ailments among Children in Preschools

Common Ailments	Frequency	Percentage
Malaria	697	26.6
Cough	547	20.8
Measles	252	9.6
Mumps	106	4.0
Acute Respiratory infection (ARI)	36	1.4
Typhoid Fever	68	2.6
Yellow Fever	65	2.5
Diarrhoea	170	6.5
Cerebo-spinal Meningitis	20	0.8
Cholera	64	2.4
Skin Diseases	168	6.4
Worm infestation	125	4.8
Allergic Conditions	26	1.0
Convulsion	77	2.9
Conjunctivitis e.g. Apollo	137	5.2
Chicken- pox	53	2.0
Broncho- pneumonia	14	0.5
Total	2625	100.0

34. Malaria rated as most frequent 26.6% by the respondents, was the 26.6% commonest ailments among children in pre-schools as shown in Table 3. This result has been supported by various reports(Ministry of Health,(SAPA1993; FGN/UNCEF 2001)Malaria has the highest mortality among the Under 5 children. This is followed by cough (20.8%), Measles (9.6%), Diarrhoea (6.5%) Skin diseases (6.4%) etc the least being Broncho-pneumonia (0.5%) and Cerebrospinal meningitis (0.8%.) More attention needs to be given in preventing these ailments. The recently introduced Insecticide Treated Nets (ITN) by the Ministry of Health should be made available and affordable and introduced to parents for the care of their children. Also parents need to learn about the use of appropriate vaccination schedules for measles and the like. In addition more enlightenment programs should be organized for parents and caregivers to sensitize them about preventive measures against these common ailments for example preparation of Oral Dehydration Therapy Solution against Diarrhoea, vaccine preventable diseases etc.

Table: 4- Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Pre-school Meal Provision

Meals	Frequency	Percentage
Midday meals	195	36.6
Snacks	201	37.7
Milk	30	5.6
Other Drinks	107	20.1
Total	533	100.0

35. As regards pre-school meal provision Snacks (37.7%) and midday meals (36, 6%) are the major meals provided to children at pre-schools as revealed by the findings in Table 4. Other drinks recorded (20.1%) and milk being the least (5.6%.) .Milk should actually be provided as a major school meal to children as it provides calcium necessary for proper physical growth of children and building of bones School meal programmes should give priority attention to provision of milk. The findings also revealed **Sick** Bay (2 7.7%); health attendant (24.7%) and dispensary (23.25%) as the most available health facilities found in preschools.

Table: 5- Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Available Health Facilities and Personnel at /pre-primary centre

Health Facilities /personnel	Frequency	Percentage
Sick Bay	212	27.7
Dispensary	177	23.2
Health Attendant	189	24.7
Trained Nurse	48	6.3
Visiting Nurse	84	11.0
Visiting Doctor	54	7.1
Total	764	100.0

36. In addition, a visiting nurse recorded 11.0% availability as shown in Table 5. These health facilities and personnel are important quality standards to be recommended for ECC / pre-schools. The source of water supply at the ECCE /pre -primary schools is critical.

Table: 6- Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Sources of Water Supply to Pre-schools

Sources of Water Supply	Frequency	Percentage
Pipe Borne	338	40.5
Bore Hole	175	21.0
Spring Water	20	2.4
Rain Water	44	5.3
Well	145	17.4
Stream	31	3.7
None	81	9.7
Total	834	100.0

37. Well (17.4%), rain water (5.3%), and in 9.7% of cases there is no source of water supply. This means that in some schools there is no water at all and this has health implication s for example epidemics of cholera, diarrhoea; proper sanitation and cleanliness. The under fives (U-5) for example would be at risk in such situations with no water, filthiness and unhygienic situations can lead to a high prevalence of mortality

38. Universal access to safe drinking water and unsanitary means of waste disposal among others are signs of poverty .High incidence of diarrhoeal diseases are usually due to unsanitary environmental conditions and unsafe water supply

Facilities Available

Table: 7- Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Toilet Facilities Available in Pre-schools

Toilet Facilities	Frequency	Percentage
Water System	283	33.5
VIP	47	5.6
Ordinary Pit/heap	436	51.8
Bush Toilet		6.3
None	76	9.0
Total	841	100.0

39 Terms of toilet facilities the results in Table 7 show that the pit toilet is mostly available(51.8%) ;followed by water system(33.5%), the least available is the VIP and Bush toilet and in (9.0%) of pre-schools there were none at all. This finding is supported by Shindi and Mallum, 1990 study.

40. Pit/heap toilet is not the best type of toilet facility and should be discouraged. In addition a situation where there are no toilets in pre-schools is worrisome as the implication is that in some pre- schools children /teachers have no place at all to defecate and that means excreta (solid waste) and urine are improperly disposed anywhere in the school environment. Of course this can cause diseases and different kinds of illnesses in children such as measles, Diarrhoea, cholera, as in Table 3– (Common Ailments at the Centre).

41. Information on Disposal Facilities shows Dust bin disposed by Public Agency attracted the highest percentage (39.8%) of disposal facilities at pre-schools. This is good training for cleanliness because children will have places for dropping dirt or waste materials rather than dropping them anywhere in the environment.

Table: 8 Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Disposal Facilities at Preschools

Disposal Facility	Frequency	Percentage
Dust bin disposed by Public Agency	322	39.8
Incinerator	107	12.8
Compost Pit	219	26.3
Bush	176	21.1
Total	834	100

42.. This is followed by compost pit (26.3%) and bush while incinerator was the lowest (12.8%) Disposal facilities are a necessity at Pre-school for hygiene reasons. Wastes should be properly disposed by Public Agency.

43. The findings revealed that among the building materials for Pre-schools cement block (86.3%) is the mostly used. This finding has been supported

(Agusiobo, 2000) Cement blocks are good building materials for pre-schools and should be further encouraged.

44. For roofing, zinc /aluminum asbestos is the most used (93%)
In respect to fencing, the findings revealed that 39.5% of respondents indicated that their schools are fully fenced while34.8% indicated that their schools are not fenced. Only 13.8% indicated that their schools are partially fenced.

45. The findings also revealed that spaces for play were found to be moderate in most cases (39.7%) and small (11.4%) and this appears fair enough. However, larger spaces would be preferred in most cases because children need lots of spaces to play and exercise their muscles as this helps in the proper growth and physical development of the child especially for the gross and motor development. Large spaces for play are hereby recommended for pre-schools.

MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE

Types /Ownership of ECC/Preschools

46. For type of school, altogether there were 860 pre- primary schools from which responses were obtained. There were more private (57.6%) than public schools (42.4%).These results are also supported by earlier findings (SAPA, 1993; Agusiobo, 2000)

47. As regards the type of model the formal day care model 71.2% is the most favored model, followed by home based19.5% and the least is the nomadic model 0.4%.It is probable that most of the preschools are located within established primary schools. More access should be provided for ECC/ pre-primary education and especially for the nomadic group which are marginalized.

48. Most of the Jeliosimis are private (78.7%) and others are public (21.3%) .This is similar to the findings in the formal pre-primary centres earlier discussed in terms of ownership findings revealed that most of them are owned by Religious Organizations (46.7%) followed by individuals (29.3%) and community (24%) This affirms Government policy prescription for pre-primary education that private efforts should be encouraged to set up centres .

49. Not surprisingly the results revealed that most of the non-formal centres were not registered constituting 51.2% which is slightly more than those registered 48.8 % This has implications for documentation of centers and practitioners and the necessary checks on operation of centers can be undertaken from time to time by inspectors of education.

School Records

50. The records available at pre-schools are shown in the results in Table 9. The most available record at the pre-school is the Attendance register (29.46%) followed by Admission register (27.89%), Log book (20.45%), Health record (10.3%) Financial record.(8.85%)

Table: - 9 Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Records available at Preschools

Records	Frequency	Percentage
Log Book	522	20.45
Admission register	712	27.89
Attendance Register	752	29.46
Health record	263	10.30
Immunization record	55	2.15
Financial record	226	8.85
Growth Chart	18	0.70
Attainment of Developmental Milestone	4	0.15
Total	2552	100.0

Immunization record (2.15%) the least available being the record of Attainment of Developmental Milestone followed by Growth Chart. All these records are however necessary documents that should be available in all pre-schools.

51. The requirements for Admission according to the findings revealed that birth certificate recorded (46.7 % as the highest requirement for admission at ECC /pre-school , followed by ability to verbalize basic needs 41.4% and the least is the Immunization record.(11.9%,).

52. All the documents above constitute essential parts of admission requirements at ECC/ preschools. Equal importance should also be accorded to immunization record as immunization is very crucial for child survival growth and development .These requirements should be part of standards in ECC centres and pre-primary education centres.

MAJOR ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

53. Major challenges have to be tackled if the country would meet its international commitments. For instance, there is a dearth of statistics on enrolment in pre-primary education, duration of schooling in pre-primary education, pre-primary enrolment in private institutions and gender disparity. Yet these are the indicators used to assess a country's progress towards attaining the EFA Goal on comprehensive early childhood education and care.

Expanding Access to ECCE & Pre-Primary Education

54. There is an urgent need for government to broaden access to ECCE by making budgetary allocation for this sub-sector. Governments have for long neglected this level of education leaving it to private initiatives. The consequence of this is that ECCE becomes available only to those children whose parents can afford the services. The performance of primary 4 children on the learning achievement tests show an established fact that children who enter primary school with ECCE experience are better prepared than those who do not and actually do better at school. Government would therefore be preparing for a more successful UBE programme if more pupils have ECCE experience through the broadening of access especially the children from poor homes and children with special needs and in rural communities.

Infusion of Indigenous Practices of Child Stimulation in ECCE Programmes

55. The ESA study on indigenous practices of child stimulation showed that parents, teachers, and community members are aware of various indigenous child stimulation strategies. Government must capitalise on this to develop a comprehensive programme along the EFA Goal Number 1 and as a matter of urgency formulate a policy for inclusion of indigenous practises of child stimulation into the school curriculum

Institutionalisation of ECCE Centres in Public Primary Schools

56. Some State Governments (Oyo, Kano, Bauchi, Lagos, Ekiti) have already institutionalised the ECCE concept in their public primary schools through their respective State Primary Education Boards (SPEBs). The Federal Government should give official recognition to the pre-school years through policy declaration and encourage states that have not done so to integrate ECCE programme into the regular school system. This would involve systematically building ECCE into the national programme. Such a policy should specifically recognise the important role the local governments, civil societies and NGOs have to play in the implementation of the programme.

Provision of Adequate Instructional Materials by Local Fabricators

57 The dearth of learning and instructional materials is another key challenge in this sub-sector. Government could support research and training and subsequently fabrication of instructional materials for the teaching and learning process by assisting local fabricators and manufacturers to produce many of the instructional materials. This would not only provide jobs for the people but it would ensure high level of local contents in materials used in our schools.

Training & Re-training of Teachers

58. Government must also provide specialist training on continual basis for ECCE teachers through the Universities and the Colleges of Education. Such training should focus more on the methodology and skills required for teaching at this level.

CHAPTER THREE

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

INSTITUTIONAL AND NORMATIVE FRAMEWORK

An Extensive Terrain

1. The National Policy on Education (2004) describes as adult and non-formal, all functional education programmes given to youths and adults outside the formal system. The aims as specified in the policy are to provide functional literacy and continuing education for adults and youths who have never attended school or did not complete their primary education and the target groups specified in the policy include nomads, migrant fishermen and indeed all hard to reach groups.

2. Non-Formal Education (NFE) is therefore concerned with all forms of education provided outside the formal school system, whatever its purposes, targets and providers and so includes training and skills acquisition in different trades and vocations in the informal sector. Non-formal education is characterized by an openness of entry (irrespective of levels of former formal education), offered with a concrete content, life related and constantly changes to meet new needs and deal with real issues. Non-formal education addresses needs and capacity gaps that are required for immediate application in day-to-day life and is indeed a continuous process into which learners can drift in and out, the success of which is validated by the learner's experience.

3. The linkage between NFE and lifelong learning was part of the major preoccupation for African delegates in Dakar 1997 during a meeting to prepare the African position for presentation at the 1998 Hamburg conference on Adult Learning. African representatives took to the Hamburg Conference a demand for *an integrated self-training system in adult education that would lead to sustainable human development …and contribute to establishing knowledge, skills and attitudes …and above all, how to learn to anticipate.* The participants called for *an integrated system of adult and continuing education that will require the development and promotion of integrated adult and continuing education systems within the framework of life-long learning.* In other words, everyone should have the opportunity to participate in planned learning at any stage in life when their individual needs required and their desires to learn something is aroused. The different phases of life create learning needs to which adults and young people constantly respond through participation in non-formal education programmes.

4. Non-formal education is intersectoral and this is seen in the fact that non-formal education agencies are increasingly expected to collaborate with other sectors to reach their clientele. Indeed, in some parts of the world, a general secretariat for adult education pursues non-formal education activities in

cooperation with institutions in other sectors e.g. the Ministries of Tourism and Culture, Agriculture, Labour and Productivity, Health, and the Environment and with other States and parastatal organizations concerned with youths, foreign affairs, trade and industries, insurance, small businesses, radio and television, the police, local government and cultural organizations.

5. Non-formal education offers to many adults that initial education which they were unable to obtain in childhood and provides opportunities for learning that could not be provided through the schools. Adult and non-formal education agencies in Third World countries therefore have wide goals and programmes, relate to and draw upon the resources of different government and international agencies and seek to work with larger sections of the population by persuading them to learn specific skills especially that of literacy.

The Traditional Apprenticeship System

6. Traditional models of informal apprenticeship remain vibrant methods of training for young artisans in different skills and vocations. These forms of training go on among traders, auto-mechanics, carpenters, battery chargers, basket weavers, tailors, hairdressers and so on. The child apprenticed to these trades remains in training until his/her master certifies that the needed competency has been acquired. Dominant across the country, the young trainee in this scenario is closely attached to the master who teaches him/her not only the technical skills needed for the trade but marketing and 16.other business skills. Usually more common among boys, the apprentice is bonded to the master for an agreed period of time during which he lives with the master and sometimes gets food allowance to eat in the market (for the trader apprentice). The training is an experiential process dominated by observation and sustained interaction. After the course of training, 'freedom' is celebrated. In another model, the freed trainee can join the master's business as a 'journeyman' assisting the later and receiving some income (based on an agreed percentage) from the jobs he does until he has saved up enough official money of his own. A review of available literature on the scheme conducted under the purview of the Education Sector Analysis (ESA) project however reported a dearth of research on this system of training (ESA, 2003) with a strong recommendation that such studies must be carried out to enable policy makers tap the potentials of this training model for national development.

Global Perspectives

7. Global trends in non-formal education have consistently expanded the scope in both targets and clientele. As early as Jomtien (1990) an expanded vision of non-formal education had been propounded for member nations especially in the developing countries and a target for total eradication of illiteracy set for the year 2000. Jomtien provided for non-formal education experts the impetus they required to diversify provision and expand access.

8. The Amman and Dakar reviews (1996 and 2000) depicted low performances and a general indication that the targets had to be shifted to an assumed more

realistic date of 2015. The six Dakar Goals provide a framework for measuring landmarks in educational attainment:

- Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children;
- Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality;
- Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills;
- Achieving a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015 especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults;
- Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality;
- Improving all aspects of the quality of education, and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all: especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

9. Goal 3 (*meeting the learning needs of all young people and adults*) and 4 (*achieving a 50% improvement in the levels of adult literacy)* are particularly challenging to non-formal education as only the diverse delivery structures of non-formal education can ensure that these goals are attained. Additionally, meeting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of achieving universal primary education (Goal 2) and promoting gender equality and empowering women (Goal 3) are also reliant on non-formal delivery modes for their attainment.

10. The growing importance of adult and non-formal education in developing countries is attributed to its vision as a valuable tool for social and economic development. In this case, priorities are defined from top as in agricultural extension; literacy and fundamental education, family planning, health, school-leaving certificates etc. Thus viewed as a tool for government, adult education as practiced in Third World countries serves as a focus for inters agency cooperation. Greater collaboration is therefore advocated between adult and non-formal educators and other government agencies that are oftentimes better resourced. The intersectoral nature of non-formal education entails that it be delivered in collaboration with other sectors such as agricultural extension, health, national orientation etc. The Hamburg Declaration had decried this lack of coordination by observing that

> *Other well known forms of adult education such as are yet to find their way into holistic national programmes …include open universities, extra-mural studies … most literacy programmes have been undertaken through mass campaigns, with a tendency towards a loss of momentum after the campaign*

period…coordination and partnership amongst providers of adult and non-formal education have not been as strong as they should be….

11. Due largely to the activities of the Nigerian National Council on Adult Education (NNCAE) which was formed by professional adult educators in 1971 to foster the development of adult education, a spate of activities followed to actualize the stipulated goals in the National Policy. For instance, Adult Education sections were established in the Federal Ministry of Education in 1974 and the needs of Adult Education were included in the National Development plans as a result of demands and input from the NNCAE. Perhaps, one of the greatest accomplishments of the Council is its recommendation of a ten-year mass literacy campaign between 1982 and 1992. Although not successful, this campaign served as a learning process.

12**.** Five of the 43 studies conducted in the Education Sector Analysis project provide empirical information on the current operational scenario for non-formal education in Nigeria. The studies are:

- Situation Analysis of Adult and Non-formal Education
- Situation Analysis of Open Apprenticeship System in Nigeria
- Integration of Extension Services with Adult Education for Poverty Eradication
- Situation Analysis of Introductory Technology and other Prevocational Subjects
- Situation Analysis of Enterprise Education in Nigeria

Key findings of these studies provide a picture of the current status of non-formal education in the country and are presented below under the appropriate headings.

Different Modalities and Situation Analysis

13. Results from the ESA studies show that Government has continued to be dominant in the provision of literacy and extension services. 56.2% of the centres sampled are owned by the various state governments, 15.7% by local government, and 10.0% by sole proprietors, 5.6% non-governmental organizations, 3.4% by donor agencies, 2.2% by communities and 1.1% by religious organizations. On ownership of adult education service however, providers as gathered from information in the study on extension service show that state and local governments provided the bulk (64%) of adult education services, a clear demonstration of these tiers being the more directly close to the grass -roots.

14. This is worrisome as the each-one-teach-one approach to literacy and non-formal education implies that civil society groups must be proactive in the delivery of literacy. The clear absence of NGO-run centres therefore needs further exploration. **The study on Open Apprenticeship Scheme in Nigeria** found however, that sole proprietorship accounted for 69.5% of all the centres followed by Federal State and Local Government that collectively accounted for 9.2%.

15. This is clearly the attraction of the training methodologies adopted by the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) which when established by a Decree in 1987 was charged with the responsibility of providing apprenticeship programmes for youths and adults in the informal sector. Through the methods of out-sourcing to community based artisans and master craftsmen, the NDE trains hundreds of school leavers each year in certain trades including carpentry, hairdressing, barbing, tailoring, shoe repairs, auto-mechanic and so on. These are however, dominated by the scattered type of informal skills training that result in increase in population concentration and urbanization.

Location of Services

16. As shown in the ESA studies, adult education and extension services are concentrated in urban areas. The study on extension services provision shows that 51 (65.40%) were completed by urban-based adult education providers, compared to 16 (20.50%) that were rural showing that availability of extension services was skewed in favor of urban areas (88%). As was the case for adult education programmes also, this observation shows the advantage urban areas have over rural in terms of social amenities. Also, a high number constituting 85.4% of the apprentices reside in urban areas where the services are provided. This trend is in consonance with the tendency to concentrate social services in urban centres to the detriment of rural communities where majority of the people live.

17 The ESA study on Open Apprenticeship shows occupational opportunities available in the informal sector under this scheme and reports a host of training and employment opportunities that are open to apprentices. These trades range from traditional ones such as weaving, leather works, tin/canning, sculpturing, pottery, to the modern class ones such as auto-mobile mechanics, fashion design, electrical/electronic works, smiting, welding, vulcanizing, tie and die, cookery/domestic science, knitting and so on.

18 On what the apprentices were actually engaged in doing, the study found that 33.7% were learning specific trades as apprentices while 38.8% were into petty trading. 13.6% claimed to be engaged in farming while 9% were bus conductors.

ACCESS AND COVERAGE ISSUES

National Literacy Profile

19 Two major sources provide reliable data concerning the literacy profile of Nigeria. These are the National Population Commission (NPC) Analytical Report (1998) and the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) (1999). The NPC found a literacy level of 57% among Nigerians and showed that 85% of the illiterate population was less than 35 years of age. Literacy rates according to urban and rural settings are 89.9 urban and 62.1 rural (97.7% urban male; 79.3% urban female; 74.6 rural male; 52.1 rural female).

20 The MICS data (1999) gives a verdict of "no progress" in reducing either male or female illiteracy and reported deterioration instead from the initial 57% to 49%. For women, the rate declined from 44% to 41% (FGN/UNICEF, 2001). The MICS data shows an adult literacy rate of 55% and 60% for the South West and South East respectively (74% in both zones for males) while the North West and North East record values of 21-22 per cent for females and 40-42 per cent for males. (FGN/UNICEF: 2001).

Current Literacy Rate

21 Nationally, Nigeria's literacy rate of 49% is far below the average of 57% for Sub-Saharan Africa. Some other national examples are Cameroon 79%, and Ghana 68% with female literacy being lower in Nigeria than in all the countries mentioned. This is a challenge to adult and non-formal education and needs to be addressed for any meaningful claims to development. The ESA data does not provide Current figures to counteract this profile.

Number of Centres and Learners Enrolled

22 Illustrative data from ESA studies concerning the delivery structures of literacy and non-formal education show a total of 18,009 centres in 1999, 16,908 in 2000, 18,401 in 2001, 17,246 in 2002 and 17,372 in 2003. These figures depict a decline of 8.1% between 1999 and 2003. The number of learners enrolled in these centres actually also declined from a high of 520,014 in 1999 to 453,486 in 2003 in the sampled states.

Current Basic and Post Literacy Enrolment, 2001 - 2004

YEAR	CLASSES	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
2001	26,676	237,583	307,750	635,333
2002	24,094	400,566	376,933	777,499
2003	23,670	417,773	337,665	755,438
2004	23,355	424,503	365,198	789,701
TOTAL	**97,795**	**1,570,425**	**1,387,546**	**2,957,971**

23 The declining number of centres and the subsequent decrease in learner enrolment in the years covered in the study (1999 – 2003) are also cause for concern. This can perhaps be traced to ownership of centres as part of the

variable accounting for declining enrolment as the data shows that most of the centres are owned by Government (state and local). This reality can perhaps be understood in view of the notorious under-resourcing of adult education programmes as a general practice, and the observed insignificant role of civil society groups in literacy and non-formal education provision. It is cause for concern however that so close to the Millennium targets, enrollment and participation in literacy and non-formal education programmes is dropping.

24 Meanwhile the studies under review show that target beneficiaries of the adult education centres sampled are in the following category: women 34.65%, Illiterate men 26.8%, traders 21.2%, apprentices 10.1% and motor-park workers 7.5%. These people cover wide variety of distance to attend classes; 51.7% cover less than I kilometer, 26.45 cover between 1 and 2 kilo meters, 12.6% cover over 2 kilometer and 6.9% said they didn't know how many kilometers they cover to attend the literacy classes.

Age of Learners

25 The profile of school dropouts shows that the problem will not abate in the near future. Information from these studies show the profile of the average pupils who drop out of school and into apprenticeship schemes and are reported in the Study of Open Apprenticeship Scheme. The trainees who responded to the ESA questionnaire on Open Apprenticeship Schemes show an age range of 10-30 with the 21-30 age group constituting 75% while the 16-20 constituted 31.9%. Twenty-six respondents (6.0%) fell into the 10-16 age groups. The fact that the highest and the lowest age ranges among the respondents are 21-30 (39.9%) and merely 6.0% of 10-16 may not lead to inferences that respondents are mostly adults. An explanatory issue may be that many apprenticeship practices are operated at the informal level and therefore may not have been adequately captured in the data collection exercise for this study.

Gender Perspectives

26 A curious finding in the studies being reported in this section is the apparent contradiction between male and female patronage of vocational courses in open apprenticeship, science technical and vocational education (STVE) and the programmes offered by Government under the National Open Apprenticeship Scheme (NOAS) of NDE. Whereas the study on Open Apprenticeship Scheme found hardly any gender disparity in participation in the figures of 1999/2002 in the sampled centres, both the STVE and NDE figures for the same year reported a gender disparity in favour of boys. Table 4 below shows the spread of participation by gender in open apprenticeship.

Table 3.1: Distribution of Apprentices by Sex in Sampled Open Apprenticeship Centres

Year	Male	Female
1999	70	66
2000	50	50
2001	34	34
2002	30	30

Source: ESA Study on Open Apprenticeship Scheme

27 For STVE, comparative male female enrolment was as low as 3.45% in 1998/99 for state owned schools and as high as 4471% in federal-owned schools in 2000/2001. Meanwhile the percentage enrolment of females in state-owned schools was as low as 1.55% in 2002/2003. What is accountable for this apparent equal preference for vocational training through the non-formal rather than the formal routes? Also why are more males than females patronizing the federal government funded NOAS? It does appear that more males than females patronize the Federal Government funded NOAS implying that females have problems getting enrolled into formal public programmes. Another set of data is perhaps required to provide a better understanding of this phenomenon. An interesting aspect of the STVE data however is that drop out trends is higher among males than females.

Educational Background of Apprentices

28 The educational background of the learners interviewed in this study were in categories of never-attended any school (illiterate), primary school drop out, secondary school drop out, primary school completers, secondary school completers, and holders of Diploma or OND Certificates each of which categories was fairly represented. Primary six certificate holders constituted 50.3%, Junior Secondary School attempted (24.0%), and Senior Secondary School leavers (40.6%) while the Diploma group constituted 10%. The educational status of the respondents, which shows that majority of them, was primary school leavers are significant. In view of the low learning achievement being recorded among this category, it is not wrong to infer that most of these so-called primary school leavers are still barely able to read and write.

Reasons for not attending school

29 The respondents' reasons for not attending school include poverty, desire to work and earn a living and guardians' decisions. On their willingness to go back to school, an overwhelming 83.3 % are willing to go back to school while 16.2% preferred to continue with their employment and apprenticeship.

30 It is heartening to note that such an overwhelmingly high number among these out of school children (83.3%) would like to go back to school. The fact however remains that this dream is difficult to realize (61.7% claim that they cannot go back to school owing to financial constraints). Other sources must therefore be explored for extending literacy education to this target group.

Home Background of Apprentices

31 On the home background of respondents, more than 70% of the fathers of the respondents were either farmers (49.9%) or low cadre civil servants (24.2%). These categories of workers are the ones who generally possess low levels of education and its implication include lower income. About 10% of the fathers were teachers. On mothers' occupation, the study showed that 269 of the mothers were self-employed while 95 were either employed by Government or by private establishments.

32 The parental background of respondents is very informative. It shows a trend where people employed at the lower rungs of occupation are the ones whose children are most likely to drop out of school and get into the informal sector. It does appear from this analysis that the informal sector continues to be dominated in this recycling process by people in the lower income group. This has implications for public perception of skills acquisition programmes and the clientele for these programmes that is perhaps for this and other reasons, understandably low. Yet these skills are highly subscribed to and are widely available to all who desire to acquire them and set up their own businesses. The fact that these skills constitute part of the 25 programmes operational in Science, Technical and Vocational Colleges in the country and are not very popularly patronized raises concerns that ESA should address. Why do people prefer to learn these trades in the informal sector with little education than go to the formal with better education? A lot of explanatory variables can be accountable for this but this will entail the uses of another set of data in another exercise.

Changing Scope of Non-formal Education

33 Information in the ESA reports show developments that have expanded both the scope and target population of adult and non-formal education introducing challenges to which policy must of necessity respond. Regional trends for instance have emerged which call on states to respond to their own realities. Adult and non-formal education programmes have therefore had to plan for the boys' drop-out syndrome in the South East, low girl-child participation in education in the North and Integration of elements of basic education into Quranic schools also in the North. These regional disparities are however; becoming less clear-cut as the numbers of boys are getting less in classrooms around the country and poverty is popularly touted as the major reason for this trend. The ESA Study of Open Apprenticeship Scheme in Nigeria for instance found that among the out of school children interviewed 61.7% indicated financial constraints as the major reason for not actualizing their willingness to go back to school. The challenge of equipping these young people with literacy as well as marketable skills is a major one for adult and non-formal education.

More Children as Non-formal Education Clientele

34 Other emerging issues provide a further justification for non-formal education. At the national level, the low learning achievement being recorded across the country among school children is fast expanding the task of providers and beneficiaries of adult education. Whereas it was easy in the past to assume that length of schooling correlated with literacy attainment, learning achievement

test results indicate that it is no longer possible to do so as competencies have dropped drastically (MLA, 1996; 2003). With this increase in the number of 'schooled' illiterates as it were, non-formal education has to cater not only for the education of youths and adults but that of children as well.

35 The drop out trends in various formal education programmes also fuel the number of children and young persons who add to the clientele for non-formal education. Table 1 speaks volumes on the number of children who stop their education at primary school level where it has already been established that very limited literacy skills have been acquired during those 6 years. Out of a total of 2.3 million children who left primary in 1999 for instance, a mere 806,811 went to JSS1 in 2000. Where are the rest? The same trend is obvious in 2000 and 2001 for the JSS cohorts of 2001 and 2002.

Table 3.2: Numbers of 1999 Primary VI Pupils vs. 2000 JSS 1 Students

Total Primary VI Pupils for 1999 - 2002				Total JSS 1 Students for 2000 to 2003			
Years	Male	Female	**Total**	Years	Male	Female	**Total**
1999	1,340,425	1,051,354	**2,391,779**	2000	448,016	358,795	**806,811**
2000	1,387609	1,096,061	**2,483,061**	2001	525,760	413,143	**938903**
2001	1,331,113	1,054,730	**2,385,843**	2002	530,827	411,057	**941,984**

Source: Federal Ministry of Education Baseline 2001.

State data as depicted in Table 3.3 show the exact percentages of children who transit from primary to Junior Secondary Schools. The reality is even more worrisome with some states recording as low as 2.43%.

Table 332: Numbers of 1999 Primary School Final Class Pupils vis-à-vis Numbers of 2000 JSS 1Students in the Various States and Abuja FCT

States	No of Primary VI Pupils in 1999	No of JSS I Students in 2000	% Of Pupils Transiting
Abia	102,275	16,374	16.01%
Adamawa	58,661	5,815	9.91%
Akwa Ibom	76,000	21,727	28.59%
Anambra	49,461	32,063	64.82%
Bauchi	82,756	13,785	16.66%
Bayelsa	32,708	6,269	19.17%
Benue	67,152	9,637	14.35%
Borno	81,008	6,629	8.18%
C/River	50,200	15,323	30.52%
Delta	86,537	40,536	46.84%
Ebonyi	42,283	2,513	5.94%
Edo	101,373	45,321	44.71%
Ekiti	43,840	6,127	13.97%

Enugu	42,647	23,463	55.02%
Gombe	56,766	17,650	31.09%
Imo	82,554	13,916	16.86%
Jigawa	72,927	4,656	6.38%
Kaduna	57,544	17,955	31.20%
Kano	159,741	32,286	6.31%
Katsina	74,589	13,398	17.96%
Kebbi	25,738	19,540	75.92%
Kogi	65,934	17,501	27.38%
Kwara	42,670	14,533	34.06%
Lagos	93,801	93,433	99.61%
Nasarawa	38,792	16,383	42.07%
Niger	40,432	19,296	47.72%
Ogun	59,947	41,906	69.91%
Ondo	66,757	30,295	45.38%
Osun	63,477	38,719	60.10%
Oyo	112,800	67,841	60.14%
Plateau	53,701	28,620	53.30%
Rivers	50,853	28,769	56.57%
Sokoto	52,822	11,647	22.04%
Taraba	52,004	5,728	2.43%
Yobe	78,735	9,461	12.02%
Zamfara	30,619	6,860	22.40%
FCT Abuja	20,675	10,936	52.89%
Total	2,391,779	806,811	33.73%

Source: Federal Ministry of Education, Baseline 2001

P**rogrammes Offered in Non-formal Education Centres**

36. In order to meet the needs of this varied categories of clientele, adult and non-formal education programmes generally on offer are: Basic Literacy; Post Literacy; Women Education; Functional Literacy; Nomadic Education; Continuing Education; Arabic Integrated Education; Literacy for the Blind; Workers' Education; Vocational Education; Literacy for the Disabled; and Prison Education. These programmes are offered in the various states under the supervision of the State Agencies for Mass Education and have literacy and numeracy at the core with life skills as a bonus package for the more informed non-formal education projects. Thus the functional element as specified in the National Policy appears subsumed under the heavy literacy and numeracy tint. The functional subjects include Home Economics, Book Keeping, and Hygiene/Health Education etc.

37. Evidence from ESA studies depicts the content of the programmes offered at literacy centres around the country. Among the centres sampled 58.4% offered basic literacy programmes, 13.55% offered continuing education

programmes while 6.7% offered post literacy programmes. The ESA data does not supply the providers' understanding of the categories of programmes on offer but the subjects taught show that very little life skills components are built into these literacy classes as shown in subjects taught around these centres. As obtained in the study 22.5% of the providers taught mathematic/arithmetic in their centres, 19.3% English, 14.9% reading, 13.3% social studies, 12.7% writing, 7.9% integrated science, 4.1% religious knowledge, 2.8% home economics and only 1.9% local languages. The National Commission or Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education which is the regulatory agency for non-formal education, has however corrected the misconception on the relative use of local languages. It has asserted that all basic literacy programmes are taught in local languages i.e. the mother tongues.

38 Evidently, literacy was conspicuously absent in a long list of what extension workers on one hand and adult education providers on the other deemed appropriate for inclusion in adult education programmes with information dissemination topping the list on both sides. It does appear therefore that in delivery modalities and coverage, a lot more grounds can be gained if the two services – of extension and adult education - are integrated. 5.57 percent of the 78 adult education providers and 16 percent of the 50 extension services providers that completed the survey questionnaires endorsed the position that the sustainability of extension requires collaborative effort.

39 In adult education relevance of programmes on offer is an important issue. The content of the programmes on offer must be such that can continue to appeal to the interest of learners. Adult and non-formal education programmes remain relevant if functional elements are integrated into them. In consequence, NMEC has adopted a Participatory Rural Appraisal/Regenerated Fueinean Litracy through Empowering Community (PRA/REFLECT) technique. This approach harnesses and employs the interest of learners and locally available capacities development of their community. The PRA/REFLECT technique is presumably community-designed, community-implemented and community-sustained.

40. The study therefore sought information on the perceptions of the appropriateness of integration of adult education and extension services. The study on integration of extension services provides an analysis of the extension services which adult education and extension services providers deemed appropriate for integration in adult education programs. The first five, selected by adult education providers, were dissemination of information (41%), capacity building (21.8%), citizenship education (6.14%), income generation (17.0%), social mobilization and technology transfer (24.2%). Similar ranking of the opinions of extension services providers were dissemination of information (44.3%), capacity building and technology transfer (31.7% and 27.8% respectively), counseling (25.9%), income generation (19.1%), and social mobilization (23.1%).

41. In a separate rating, a reasonable proportion of adult education providers rated capacity building (10.9%), citizenship education (6.14%) income generation (5.75%), social mobilization and technology transfer (5.1%) as integral components of adult education. Similarly, extension providers deemed social mobilization and technology transfer (8%), counseling and medical care (7.75%), and income generation (6.67%) appropriate services for integration in adult education programs.

Quality And Efficiency

42. Findings of the ESA studies also provide information on the quality and effectiveness mechanisms that are used to assure quality in non-formal education. The findings on number and ratio of instructors to learners, curriculum and supervision modalities and type/state of facilities at the centres are particularly helpful for making these deductions and inferences.

Instructors

43. The quality of learning that goes on in non-formal education is to a large extent determined by the total number of instructors involved in teaching in these centers. Over the five year period the number of instructors were 18,067 in 1999, 17649, in 2000, 18,504 in 2001, 18,929, in 2002 and 17,332 in 2003 similar to figures recorded in the number of learning centers. As in number of centres and learners, there is also a decline here. The ratio of instructor to learner ranged from 1:27 to 1:29 for 1999, 2001, 2002 and 2003. In 2000, however, an all-high ratio of 1:40 was recorded.

Curriculum

44. These instructors are not regularly trained and their understanding of the curriculum is not too specific although the figures depicting responses on this item are positive. The study showed a high awareness level (86.7%) of the existence of the curriculum on non-formal education among instructors with only 6.7% not being aware. Slightly over 40% of these instructors regarded the curriculum as adequate for the level of the learners while 26.0% and 22.1% opined that it was clear on objectives and easy to follow. While 7.8% regarded the curriculum as relevant, 2.6% and 1% think it is vague and irrelevant respectively. In the Open Apprenticeship Scheme, duration of training is normally the first full measure of quality in training. The study found training duration to be between 1-4 years depending on the trade or skill. The longest duration are for welding, carpentry, bricklaying, plumbing and electrical works.

45. In the open apprenticeship schemes, syllabuses are also major issues as 33.5% of the trainers use self-developed syllabuses while 35.8% use no syllabuses at all. This is a serious issue for standards setting. A mere 20.6% of the respondents claim to use Labour Trade Tests in their assessment. This also has serious implications for standards.

Facilities

46. The issue of facilities has to be considered in the light of ownership of these centers. Ownership by state far exceeds that by local government and the centers are mostly located in primary school buildings. The total number of centers visited were 219 and 30.1% had classrooms, 19.2% had toilets, 16.4% had table and chairs, 12.3% had electricity, 9.6% had fans, 6.8% had typewriters, 2.3% had library, 1.8% had staff room, 0.5% had video recorders and none of centers had any television sets.

Table 3.4: Facilities at the centres sampled in the study

Facilities	**Number of centres where available**	**Percentage**
Fan	21	9.6
Toilet	42	19.2
Classroom	66	30.1
Electricity	27	12.3
Typewriter	15	6.8
Table/chairs	36	16.4
Storage room	2	0.9
Staff room	4	1.8
Library	5	2.3
Television	-	0.0
Video recorders	1	0.5
Total	219	100.0

MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE

Supervision

47. Literacy centres are supervised by officials from the adult education units of Local Governments (45% of the centres) officials of State Agencies for Mass Education (37.7% of the centres), NGOs, development partners and others. On actual number of supervision visits, 48.6% of the instructors claim that their centres have only been supervised once a year while 20.8% indicated twice as the number of times they'd been inspected for the year. 30.6% indicated that their centres have never been supervised. Attendance and supervision are required to conform strictly to attendance requirements and trainers insist on the participation of all learners in practical demonstrations.

Table 3.5: Reasons for Low Quality Products by Nigerian Tradesmen and Women.

Major reasons	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	17	7.8	7.8	7.8
Low Quality Training	64	29.4	29.4	37.2
Attempts to maximize profit	46	21.1	21.1	58.3
Not specified minimum standards for apprentices	46	21.1	21.1	79.4
No adherence to minimum standards	14	6.4	6.4	85.5
Nigerian public wants cheap products	31	14.2	14.2	100
Total	218	100	100	

MAIN ISSUES AND AREAS OF CONCERN

48 The research findings summed up in this report throw up issues that have a lot of implication for policy and point to a general direction in which non-formal education should go for greater impact. Presented as the main issues and selected areas for concern, this section will discuss policy directions, the need for improved database, regulatory control and harmonization, and evolving guidelines for quality control and harmonization.

Policy Directions

49 The findings of the ESA studies highlight the need for enhanced recognition of the non-formal route and a clearer articulation of these in the National Policy on Education. The policy as currently defined does not recognize the attraction of the non-formal sector for a greater percentage of young people than adults as anticipated. Two issues are worth commenting upon here namely: the narrow interpretation of non-formal education in the Policy and the underestimated percentage of the number of children who are expected to get into Open Apprenticeship.

50 The National Policy on Education interprets non-formal education merely as literacy and so concentrates on modalities for getting adults and other segments of the population literate. The current national policy for instance has no guidelines for provision of various extension services (agriculture, family planning, health, and natural orientation) resulting in inefficient use and deficiency of adult education programs in teaching life skills, such as can be acquired through various extension programmes. The content of adult and non-formal education programmes presented in the studies show an obvious gap in the life skills of adult learners, especially skills that are useful for poverty eradication. The current situations in which adult empowerment programs, such as adult education, agricultural extension, family planning, primary health care, and national orientation, are implemented in isolation not only results in duplication of efforts, but fail to utilize the synergy that is the natural outcome of collaboration.

Improved Data and Knowledge Base

51. A lot of information gaps are apparent in non-formal education. The processes and procedures of non-formal education are yet to be adequately documented as a lot of initiatives that go on in homes, communities and among informal economic operators go un-noticed and undocumented thus leading to a loss in the knowledge base that can otherwise be built up in this area. It is necessary for instance to explore the reasons behind parents and children preferring to learn the same trades that are offered in Science, Technical and Vocational schools in the informal sector rather than in the school system. The same is apparent in prevocational subjects where the subjects offerings of those at the junior secondary level still does not keep the children in schools long enough to acquire the skills before they leave. It is important to study the delivery modes and other apparent attractions in the non-formal route that make it a preferred route.

Regulatory Control and Harmonisation

52. The free entry and free exit feature of non-formal education and training programmes also constitute major weaknesses for control and quality assurance. The findings of the studies reveal that providers abound in non-formal education and training and so quality is often eroded. There is a need to introduce some quality assurance mechanisms for enhanced service delivery in the non-formal sector. There must be a means of introducing some regulatory framework for harmonizing the activities of providing agencies and the regulating standards even if these have to be worked out by the non-formal players themselves. For instance, experts in various trades can be clustered and encouraged as well as technically supported to work out the minimum standards required for their type of service, skill or product.

Building Appropriate Bridges and Ladders

53. Mainstreaming and building appropriate linkages with the formal sector has always been a thorny issue in non-formal education. Practitioners in non-formal education have time and again encountered difficulties in determining the levels at which a child or youth who has been in the non-formal sector can get back into the mainstream. For instance, what does three years of non-formal education in a literacy centre with classes held three times a week, written syllabus covered to take care of primary six and classes running 2 hours each day equate to in a formal school? In practice, there have been cases of non-formal education candidates getting into the junior secondary and taking the GCE O' Levels from that point. A pass at that level takes them straight into the University through the Joint Admission and Matriculation Examinations. This is however, often dependent on the skills of the non-formal coordinator organization or agency and of course the ability of the candidate. There is need to spell out the various avenues for mainstreaming that can be explored by the candidates.

54 The current focus on formal education as the only measure of knowledge reduces into insignificance the competency skills that youths and adult operators in the non-formal sector have acquired for survival and increased income. Thus, the average trader who has not acquired any formal school experience (but runs a million Naira establishment), is regarded as ignorant, negating all the knowledge base he has built up and is busy passing on to younger traders and apprentices in an apparently more attractive mode than the formal schools can ever do. It is perhaps time to face the real issues by developing a competency grid that can enable traders, apprentices and other non-formal education players to get assessed according to what they know in order to get into the level of formal education that is appropriate for them.

55. There is indeed a need to build bridges and ladders between non-formal and formal routes with a view to granting appropriate levels of recognition to non-formal qualifications effecting transfers between the formal and the non-formal.

Drawing on the Wealth and Strengths of the Non-formal Route to Enhance the Relevance of Curricular and Practices in the Formal Sector

56. Perhaps owing to the voluntary nature of non-formal education, certain features have been incorporated in the process to make the learner reluctant to work away as is so often the case in the formal sector. In other words, non-formal education is delivered in such a manner as to continue to appeal to the interest of the learner in other to retain them in the learning experience. Non-formal education programmes are therefore seen to be learner-centred/driven, democratic in orientation, tapping from and building on learners' experiences, relevant and immediately applicable to the needs of learners. The pace of change and the barrage of information and learning experiences that children face have collectively led to a more empowered generation of children who are no longer passive learners, demand respect and recognition from their teachers and within this global village age, may even (and probably often do) know more than their teachers! The methods and techniques for dealing with these children

need to change to ones that recognize their individuality and are empowering. The formal school system therefore needs to borrow these qualities of relevance, and the use of empowering techniques to transform education delivery in the school. This is already going on in some experimental projects around the country. Drawing up the modalities for democratizing the school environment is a major learning opportunity for formal education operators.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRIMARY EDUCATION

INSTITUTIONAL AND NORMATIVE FRAMEWORK

Introduction

1. The *National Policy on Education* defines Primary Education as the "education given in institutions for children aged 6 to 11 plus" for a duration of six years. This definition is also in consonance with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), definition which stated that, "Primary Education (ISCED Level 1), sometimes referred to as elementary education, refer to the education programmes that are normally designed on a unit or project basis to give pupils a sound basic education in reading, writing and mathematics along with an elementary understanding of other sources such as, history, geography, natural science, social science, art and music" (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2002) which serve to develop pupil's ability to obtain and use information about the immediate environment and the nation.

2. The goals of primary education as stated in the National Policy on Education [NPE, Section 3(16] is to:

i. inculcate permanent literacy and numeracy, and the ability to communicate effectively;
ii. lay a sound basis for scientific and reflective thinking;
iii. give citizenship education as a basis for effective participation in and contribution to the life of the society;
iv. mould the character and develop sound attitude and morals in the child;
v. develop in the child the ability to adapt to his/her changing environment;
vi. give the child opportunities for developing manipulative skills that will enable him to function effectively in the society within the limits of his/her capacity;
vii. provide the child with basic tools for further educational advancement including preparation for trades and crafts of the locality.

3. The Universal Basic Education (UBE) Act, which came into effect in May 2004 also seeks to reinforce the national primary education goals and set targets for attaining universal primary education within the global EFA context by year 2015. The Act provided for compulsory, free universal basic education for all children of primary and junior secondary school age in Nigeria (UBE Act, May 2004).

Management and control of primary education

4. The development of the primary education sub-sector has evolved over the years from a home based single room school strictly managed by Christian missionaries who brought western education to Nigeria in the 19th century with the main priorities of evangelism and conversion to Christianity (ESA, Historical, 2003 pg 36) and remained exclusively in the hands of missionaries for 40 years from 1842-1882. The colonial government intervened only in 1872 through grant in aid to ensure proper management and also enable government to have some measure of control in the education sector. Thereafter, government set the criteria for schools to qualify for the grants and also promulgated the first Education Ordinance in 1882. Other ordinances, acts and decrees got enacted over the years to ensure effective planning, administration and management of education.

5. The dual ownership and control of schools (public/private) lasted till 1970 when at the end of the civil war the then East Central State government promulgated an edict and compulsorily took over all schools in the state. Some other states in southern Nigeria did the same at various times until the Federal Military Government enacted the "Schools Take Over Validation Decree" No. 41 of 1977 which reinforced the powers of state governments to take over all schools to ensure effective implementation of the national programme on Universal Primary Education (UPE) that was launched in 1976. The decree also prohibited the courts from hearing litigations that challenged the takeover of schools by state government. However, between the late 1970s and 1985 permission was granted to private proprietors to establish schools alongside public schools to ease the financial burden on governments. This development has continued till now with private proprietors establishing and managing fee paying primary schools alongside public schools.

CURRENT STATE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

Structure of Primary Education

6. Education at this level is provided mainly by the local governments with substantial private efforts mainly at the urban areas for children officially aged 6-11 years and lasts for 6 years. Primary Education administration and management even though on the concurrent legislative list, is the responsibility of state governments under the supervision of State Primary Education Boards, although much of its management is devolved to local governments. The federal government is charged with oversight and quality assurance functions. The curriculum is designed to ensure acquisition of general training and basic education.

7. With the declaration of the UBE in 1999, the 6 year primary education would be phrased out, a 9 year basic education programme will take its place. The first set of candidates for this programme was admitted into class one in year 2000. At present, the primary education curriculum derives from the 6-3-3-4 system of education currently in practice with focus on acquisition of knowledge and skills relevant for functional living. Accordingly, the National Policy on Education (NPE, 2004, p.14) provided that:

"Curriculum for primary education shall include;

1. *Languages:*
   a. *Language of the environment*
   b. *English*
   c. *French*
2. *Mathematics*
3. *Science*
4. *Physical and health Education*
5. *Religious Knowledge*
6. *Agriculture/Home Economics*
7. *Social Studies and Citizenship Education*
8. *Cultural and Creative Arts (Drawing, Handicraft, Music and Cultural Activities).*

The curricular provisions have recently been updated in order to address emerging challenges. Accordingly, new subject areas were developed some have been introduced while some have been recommended for approval and policy directive at the 2004 JCCE plenary and the 2004 NCE meeting for introduction. The new subjects target topical/global issues such as Drug Abuse Education, Environmental Education, Population and Family Life education, Sexuality Education, National Values etc which would subsequently be infused into the existing subjects in the primary education Curriculum.

ACCESS AND EQUITY ISSUES

Access related issues

8. Provision of access to functional quality education is a constitutional right of all Nigerian citizens and one of the national education policy objective is to ensure the provision of universal access to primary education for all children of school going age which has been the prime target of educational endeavours in Nigeria since the mid 1970s when the Universal Primary Education (UPE) scheme was launched in 1976.

Gross admission rates (GAR) for the period 1998 to 2003

Table: 3.1: Gross Admission Rate in primary education (National), 1998 to 2002,

YEARS	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE
1998	87	98	75
1999	93	105	81
2000	111	123	98
2001	113	126	100
2002	116	128	103

Source: FME, Handbook on Basic Education in Nigeria, 2003

9. Table 3.1 indicates that, on an average, at national level, the gross admission rate consistently increased over the 5 years period and for both males and females. However, it was observed that the rates for the females remained lower than those for males while the rates for males remained consistently the highest for the five year period indicating that the gender gap in favour of males remained.

Gross enrolment rates, 1998 to 2003

Table 3.2 GER in primary education (national) from 1998 to 2003

YEARS	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE
1998	76	85	66
1999	92	98	85
2000	95	105	85
2001	93	103	82

Source: FME, Handbook on Basic Education in Nigeria, 2003

10. Table 3.2 indicates that on an average and at national level, the overall GER increased from 76% in 1998 to 92% and 95% in 1999 and year 2000. However, the GER dropped by 2 percentage points in year 2001 to 93%. The same trend was observed for both male and female categories but with female being at a disadvantage in the four year period. The female GER was 66% in 1998 which increased to 85% in 1999 and thereafter stagnated at the same rate of 85% and then dropping to 82% in 2001.

Table 3.3: Primary School Enrolment by Class and gender (National), 2003

Class	Total Enrolment	Boys	Girls
Primary One	5,505,886	3,063,436	2,442,450 (44.36%)
Primary Two	4,960,968	2,797,272	2,163,696 (43.61%)
Primary Three	4,369,498	2,466,359	1,903,139 (43.56%)
Primary Four	3,746,721	2`103`585	1,643,136 (43.86%)
Primary Five	3,313,227	1,853,333	1,459,894 (44.06%)
Primary Six	2,876,788	1,607,310	1,269,478 (44.13%)
TOTAL	24,773,088	13,328,075	10,881,793(43.93%)

Source: FME/UBE, Abuja, 2003 National School Census

11. Table 3.3 and the illustration in Fig. 1 below indicate that the pattern of enrolment in primary education aggregated at national level for year 2003 tends to consistently decrease on progressing from Class one to a more senior class till Class 6 and with a consistently lower enrolment for girls than that of boys. The total enrolment in Class one was about 5.51 million with 44.36% girls which decreased to 4.96 million in Class two with 43.61% girls, then to 4.37 million in Class 3 with 43.56% girls, to 3.75 million with 43.86% girls in Class four, to 3.31 million with 44.06% girls in Class five to a lowest enrolment of 2.88 million with 43.93% girls.

Fig. 1

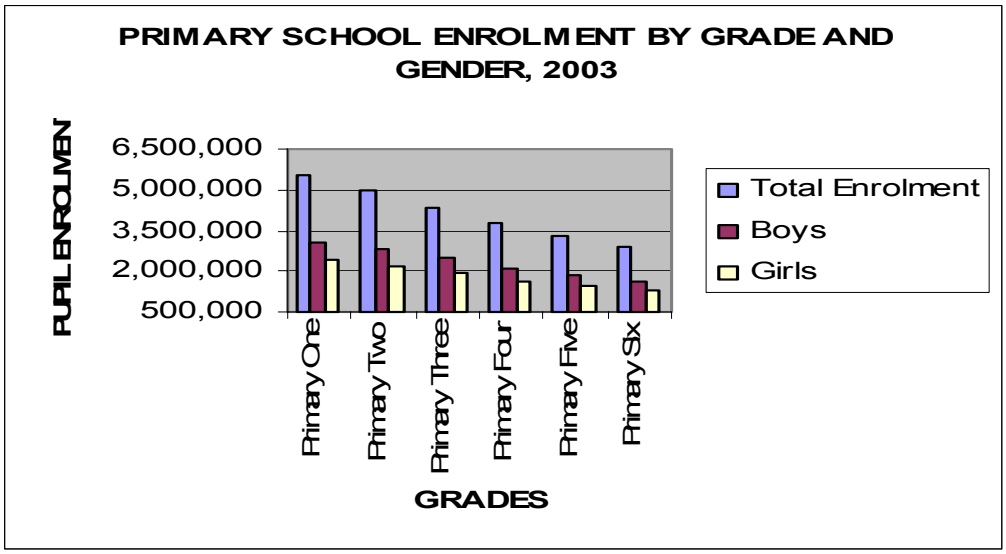


Table 3.4: Enrolments in Primary Education (sample survey, national), 1998-2003

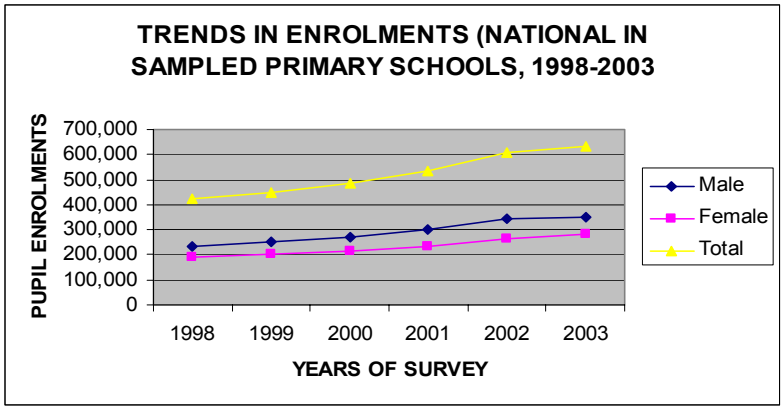
SN	Year	No. of schools	Male	Female	Total	% Female
1	1998	708	235,012	188,795	423,807	44.55
2	1999	717	249,840	200,953	450,793	44.58
3	2000	732	270,545	216,102	486,647	44.41
4	2001	755	299,062	235,990	535,052	44.11
5	2002	775	341,595	263,883	605,478	43.60
6	2003	815	352,243	281,029	633,272	44.38

Source: ESA Primary Education database

12. Trends in enrolments observed from sample surveys undertaken in the past six years, 1998 to 2003 in Table 3.4 indicate that, on an average, enrolment consistently increased over the years from a total of 423,807 pupils in 1998 to 633,272 pupils in year 2003. The same trends were observed in enrolments for both males and female but the percentage of female participation in total enrolments was consistently lower than that of males, stagnating at abut 44%. Female enrolment relative to that of males was lowest in year 2002 when it was 43.60 %.

An illustration of the trends in enrolment is presented hereunder as Fig. 2

Fig. 2



The findings of the study on the analysis of primary education are presented as follows.

BACKGROUND ON SAMPLED SCHOOLS

Location

13. A total of 970 primary schools spread in rural and urban areas were sampled in the study. The spread of schools is presented in Table 1. As in the secondary data, the sample of urban and rural schools was based on the principle of probability equal to size.

Table 3.5: Frequency and Percentage of Schools sampled by location

Location	Number	Percentage
Urban	441	44.5
Rural	529	53.4
Total	970	

14. The distribution of sampled schools by urban and rural locations shows a higher proportion of rural primary schools unlike the near equal distribution of secondary schools observed in both locations in the Secondary Education report. This can be understood in terms of the fact that primary schools are more readily available everywhere although the adequacy of spread is another issue which would be addressed in the School Mapping exercise.

School Type (Private/Public)

Table 3.6 presents the proportion of private/public schools.

Type of School	Number	Percentage
Public	841	84.04
Private	113	11.4
Islamiya	17	1.7
Nomadic	9	0.9
Total	980	

15. Table 3.6 shows the spread of primary schools by type. As indicated in the table, public schools dominate the sample (84.04%) followed by private (11.4%). Islamiya and Nomadic schools also appeared in the sample constituting 1.7% and 0.9% respectively. The spread of centres to include these categories is not surprising as the provision of basic education at the primary level has remained an all-comers' affair with attempts made to reach all target groups through appropriate channels.

Ownership of Schools

16. Provision of primary education is constitutionally vested on State and Local Governments as well as other stakeholders who are interested in establishing primary schools. The varied providers shown in Table 3.7 indicate the level of participation of different groups as can be established in the sample.

Table 3.7: Frequency and Percentage of Primary Schools by Ownership

Ownership	Frequency	Percentage
State/LGA	811	83.7
Private Individual/NGO	75	7.6
Community	33	3.3
Total	919	

17. The dominance of State and LGA providers (83.7%) depict what obtains in the primary education sub-sector. A lot more private participation is however being recorded in primary education as the number of private individual and community owned schools increase. With greater calls for community participation in education provision, the re-emergence of community owned schools is perhaps a pointer to a future trend.

Day/Boarding Primary Schools

18. The schools sampled fell into mostly day schools. This is understandable as most primary schools are day only. The very few numbers that are boarding are probably private schools. These are exceptional. The proportion of day and boarding primary schools in the sample is presented in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Proportion of Boarding/Day Schools Sampled

Category	Frequency	Percentages
Day Only	923	93.2
Boarding Only	15	1.5
Boarding and Day	7	0.7
Total	945	

The fact that most primary schools are day only is realistic as most parents feel that the pupils are still at too early an age to be sent off to boarding houses.

Linkages

19. Government role in pre-primary education is to specify standards and ensure quality. Thus pre-primary school education is dominated by private providers. As studies draw links between pre-primary education and successful performance at primary and secondary levels, some interest is going into the pre-primary segment of education. As the first of the Dakar Goals however, pre-primary education is generating a lot more attention than it ever did especially in realization of the fact that adequate stimulation at that level prepares the child for education at other levels thus ensuring that the Millennium targets are met. Some State governments have taken the initiative of introducing pre-primary arms in primary schools using the facilities and structures that already exist for primary schools.

20. A further dimension is that as private providers get more involved in education provision, their participation extends to all levels and so it is often the case to find in one school compound, all levels of pre-primary through to

secondary levels. Table 5 shows the proportion of primary schools with pre-primary and other linkages.

Table 3.9: Proportion of Primary Schools with Pre-primary and Other Linkages

Linkages	Frequency	Percentage
Pre-primary only	15	1.5
Pre-primary and Primary only	403	40.7
Primary Only	511	51.6
Pre-primary, Primary and Junior Secondary	11	1.1
Pre-primary, Primary, Junior and Senior Secondary	13	1.3
Total	953*	

***Note:** *Row totals for all samples in the various indicators have varied according to the number of respondents to a particular item in the questionnaire*.

21. As indicated in the Table 5 although a predominant number of schools (51.6) are primary only, yet a significant proportion of the sampled schools (40.7) had pre-primary linkages. Less significant are the samples of schools that had junior and Senior Secondary linkages as well. Although the numbers appear insignificant in the survey, yet they depict an emerging trend of one provider offering all services up to senior secondary level. This trend has implications for quality as there is a tendency for schools to recycle their own products within and never having to subject these to external assessment until junior secondary 3 and then again at senior secondary 3. The ESA Report on Examination Malpractice shows what is likely to be the trump card of these private providers is to ensure that their candidates pass these two external examinations that are the only two validates of the learning experiences that they have provided for their pupils from pre-primary to senior secondary. There are certainly quality control issues here.

Distance of Home from School

22. Access is influenced by many factors which include distance of home from school. Head teachers were asked the longest distances their pupils travelled to get to school. Their responses are presented in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10: Responses of Head teachers on the Distance traveled by Children to School.

Distance	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 1 km	353	42.07
1 – 2 km	275	32.78
3 – 4 km	99	11.8
More than 4 km	80	9.4
Don't know	32	3.81

23. As shown in Table 3.10, majority of the children (42.07) travel less than 1 km to school while the next highest number 932.78%) do 1-2 km. Others have to travel between 3-4 km to get to school. The child who does not have to travel far to get to school is better able to have more contact time with teachers because

s/he arrives early and ready to work. On the other hand, a long distance from school makes it impossible for the child to get to school on time and when s/he does, is tired even before getting to school. Often classes are missed especially the early periods which almost always are English Language and Mathematics classes. It is pleasing to note that majority of the children have to travel for less than 1 km. However the number that have to travel longer including the 'don't know' group must be redressed through measures that can be put in place to make the journey to and from school less difficult and safer.

Equity related issues

24. The Nigerian national philosophy upon which the countries sovereignty and development is based is founded on the principles of freedom, equality and justice. Accordingly, educational development in Nigeria is also based upon these principles as reported in the National Policy on Education (NPE, 2004 pages 6-10).

In section 1 (4) (c), the 2004 NPE states as follows::

> *"every Nigerian child shall have a right to equal educational opportunities irrespective of any real or imagined disabilities, each according to his or her ability".*

25. This provision was reinforced in sub-section 5 (c) by the undertaking to provide

> *"equal access to educational opportunities for all citizens of the country at primary, secondary and tertiary levels both inside and outside the formal school system",*

in order to correct the educational imbalances observed in different parts of the country. On the issue of girl child education which seem to be an area of concern particularly in the Northern states, the policy stipulates that:

> *"special efforts shall be made by all appropriate agencies to encourage parents to send their daughters to school"* while *"everything possible would be done to discourage the incidence of dropping out at the primary education level".*

26. In-spite of the policy provisions, there are wide variations in access to primary education between states, within states by gender and urban/rural locations as observed from the ESA survey.

Rather than the one-shot 2003 sampled data on relative female participation, the gender ratio in the primary education sub-sector for the last five years is provided in table 3.11.

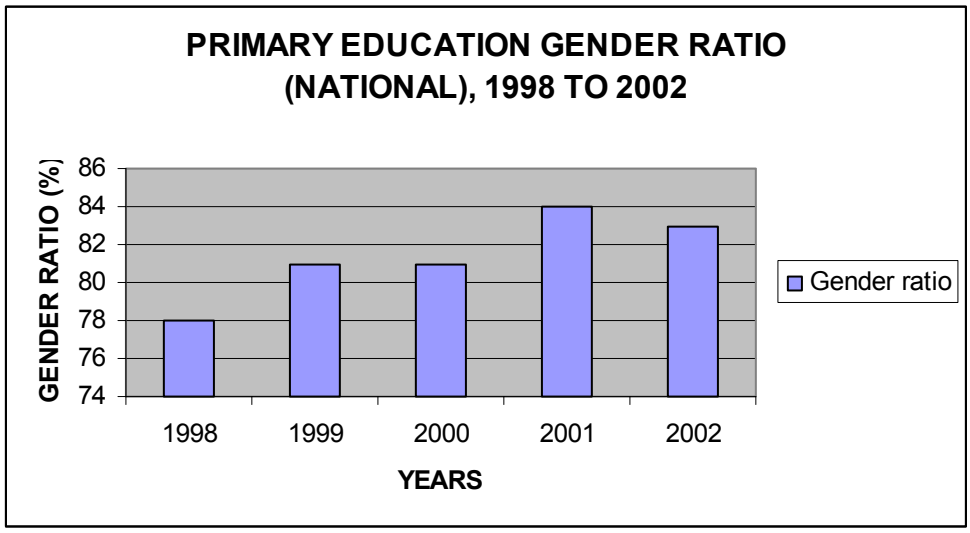
Table 3.11 Primary Education Gender Ratio (National), 1998 to 2002

Year	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Gender ratio	78%	81%	81%	84%	83

Source: FME, Handbook on Basic Education in Nigeria, 2003

27. Table 3.11 on trends in primary education Gender Ratio (GR) in the five year period between 1998 and year 2002, the gender ratio fluctuated between 78 and 84 percent depicting gender inequality in favour of males. In 1998, the GR was 78% which slightly improved to 81% in 1999 and stagnated at the same value in 2000, increased to 84% in 2001 and the marginally dropped to 83% in 2002. The trend is still lower than the ratio of 95%??? that is considered as gender parity value by the EFA Global Monitoring team. Fig. illustrates the trend.

Fig. 3



Efficiency

28. With the 9 year compulsory basic education of the UBE scheme, it is expected that transition rate to secondary schools will be 100% since the basic education circle terminates at the junior secondary level. Transition is to be automatic and only the teachers' continuous assessment records endorsed of course by the head teacher are required to show completion of the primary level. Although, entry into the Federal Government owned Colleges is competitive and often eludes most parents, yet it is one of the options available to the child at junior secondary. Other options are the numerous private schools that are available on affordability basis. State schools are generally easier to get into. This scenario means that though the child is guaranteed smooth entrance into junior secondary, the realization of this aspiration depends on the choice of school. Of course, this and other transition points are periods when children easily drop out of school as well. Over 50% of the head teachers sampled say that above 80% of their pupils gain admission into secondary school. The rest responded that 60 – 79% of their pupils gain admissions (26.9%) while for 4.5%

of the head teachers, less than 59% of their pupils gain admissions. In absolute numbers, a large proportion of children drop-out at the end of primary education.. Although it is difficult and in fact not valid to make conclusive judgments on the basis of a sample survey, yet the fact that over 7 million school age children are outside the school system is problematic.

Primary School Repeaters: 1998 to 2003

Table 3.12 Repeaters in Primary Education (sample survey, national), 1998-2003

SN	Year	Total	Male	Female
1	1998	18,344	9,968	8,376
2	1999	36,078	19,520	16,558
3	2000	18,644	9,915	8,729
4	2001	20,240	10,905	9,335
5	2002	19,494	10,473	9,021
6	2003	18,584	9,908	8,676

Source: ESA Primary Education database

29. Table 3.12 indicates that, a total of 18,344 pupils representing 4.33% of total enrolment repeated a class in 1998 with female repeaters marginally higher (4.44%) than males (4.24%) and this continued in subsequent years till year 2002. The percentage of repeaters was the least in 2003

Table 3.13 Percentage repeaters by gender (Survey) national, 1998 to 2003

Year	Total	Male	Female
1998	4.33	4.24	4.44
1999	8.00	7.81	8.24
2000	3.83	3.66	4.04
2001	3.78	3.65	3.96
2002	3.22	3.07	3.42
2003	2.93	2.81	3.09

Source: ESA Database

30. Table 3.13 indicates that in the 6 years of survey, on an average, the total repeaters were below 5% of total enrolments in sampled schools and for both males and females except in 1999 when about 8% of enrolled pupils repeated a class. After 1999, the trend indicates a decrease in subsequent years with the least percentage of repeaters in 2003.

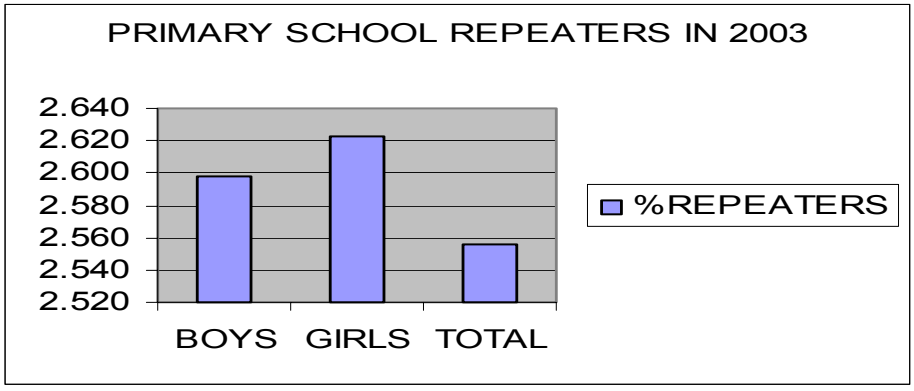
Table 3.14 Primary School Repeaters (National) by grade and gender, 2003

Total Enrolment	Repeaters Total	Enrolment Total	Male Repeaters	Female Repeaters
Primary One	180,258 (3.27%)	5,505,886	97,755	82,503
Primary Two	131,057 (2.64%)	4,960,998	71,818	59,239
Primary Three	108,670 (2.49%)	4,369,498	59,798	48,888
Primary Four	89,238 (2.38%)	3,746,721	48,860	40,378
Primary Five	76,754 (2.32%)	3,313,227	42,374	34,330
Primary Six	47,227 (1.64%)	2,876,788	27,233	19,994
TOTAL	633,204 (2.56%)	24,773,088	347,838	285,366

Source: FME/UBE, Abuja, 2003 NSC

31. Table 3.14 indicates that, out of a total national enrolment of about 24.77 million pupils in primary education in year 2003, on an average, a total of 633,204 (2.56%) pupils were repeaters, and in absolute terms, there were more (347,838) males than female (285,366) repeaters. When the data was disaggregated by Class and gender, Class one has the highest number 180,258 (3.27%) of total repeaters than all the other five more senior Classes (2-6) where the number consistently got reduced till Class six, with the least number of 47,227 (1.64%) repeaters. However, if repeaters are disaggregated by gender and relative to the proportion in total enrolment, on an average, there were consistently higher percentages of female repeaters than males in primary education in year 2003 as shown in Fig 2 below.

Fig. 4



Completion rates

Table 3.15 Primary six completion rates (National), 1998 to 2001

	1998	1999	2000	2001
Male	68.40	73.90	76.80	83.50
Female	60.90	71.70	76.60	82.80
Total	65.10	72.90	76.70	83.40

Source: FME, Handbook on Basic Education in Nigeria, 2003

32. Table 3.15 above indicates that, on an average only 65.10% of pupils admitted into primary class one in 1993 completed primary six in 1998. Similarly, 72.90 % of intakes in 1994; 76.70% of class one intakes in 1995 and 83.40% of intakes in 1996 completed primary six education in 1999, 2000 and 2001 respectively. The trend depicts increase in completion rates in the four years, 1998 to 2001. The trend was the same for both males and females with comparatively less females than males.

33. Transition rates to secondary education at national level and by state and gender from school census data and ESA survey and by state and gender.

With the take-off of the UBE programme in year 2000 and the enactment of the UBE Act in 2004, transition to junior secondary school would be automatic as from year 2006. However, transition from primary to junior secondary as at now is through selection exam which is contrary to the policy provision in NPE Section 4 (20 a) which states that secondary education shall:

" provide all primary school leavers with the opportunity for education of a higher level, irrespective of sex, social status, religious or ethnic background"

Available national statistics indicates that not all pupils that complete primary school transit to junior secondary.

Special Needs Children

34. To what extent are special needs children provided for in the primary schools? The trend towards integration rather than segregation of these children into special schools makes it necessary to know how many of these children are being integrated and how the schools are coping with these. About 39.59% of the head teachers interviewed had special needs in their schools while 66.41% did not have a single one of these children. Those who had special needs children included the categories of hearing impairment (79 or 8.0%); speech impairment (92 or 9.3%); visual impairment (36 or 3.6%); physical disability (154 or 15.5%); mental disability (34 or 3.4%) and social behaviours deviance (56 or 5.6%).

35. A total of 530 respondents (89.83%) claim that no provisions are made for these children while merely 60 (10.7%) say the children are provided for in their schools. This is clearly a problem as these children require specialized skills and equipment to handle.

36. Among the schools where the children are provided for, materials and equipment available for their use include: tape recorders (32 or 3.2%); hearing aids (32 or 3.2%); audiometer (16 or 1.6%) white cane (5 or 0.5%); Braille (13 or 1.3%); wheel chairs (38 or 3.8%); crutches (11 or 1.1%); ramps (3 or 0.3%); and resource room (36 or 3.6%). The teachers who took care of these children are presented in Table 6.

Table 3.16: Special Education Teachers Available in Sampled Primary Schools

Teacher Qualification	Frequency	Percentages
NCE Special	291	29.4
B.Ed Special Education	12	1.2
M.Ed Special Education	103	10.3
Diploma in Special Education	45	4.5
Guidance Counsellors for Special Needs	43	4.3
Pupils' Psychologist	17	1.7
None of the above	237	23.7

37. As show in Table 3.16, most of the schools who host special need children (23.7%) do not have a single special teacher of any orientation to take charge of the children. Two hundred and ninety one (29.4%) had NCE Special teachers and 103 (10.3%) had M.Ed Special Education teachers. The scenario painted in this Table is clearly disturbing. It is clear that the needs of these children are not being met in any way. A related ESA study on Special Education reveals that even in the so-called special schools the case is no better as most of the facilities required to work with these children are not available. The end of decade goal is explicit on inclusiveness in meeting the targets. If the concerns of special needs children still receive peripheral attention then a significant chunk of Nigerian children are being left out of the Education for All drive.

QUALITY AND EFFICIENCY ISSUES

HEAD TEACHER AND TEACHERS' CHARACTERISTICS

Head Teachers

38. The capacity of head teachers to transform primary schools into inspiring learning environments and the competences that they exhibit in administering the teaching staff and non-teaching staff as well as their pupils was also a focus of ESA study. In the following section, the profile of head teachers including their qualification, years of experience, training and leadership/managerial skills are presented. A total of 928 head teachers constituting 644 (65.1%) males and 284 (28.7%) females were sampled.

Table 3.17: Distribution of Sample of Head Teachers by Qualification

Qualification	Frequency	Percentages
WASC/NECO/GCE O/L	2	0.2
TC III	15	1.5
TC II	74	7.5
ACE/Diploma	29	2.9
OND	26	2.6
NCE	496	50.1
HND/Advanced Diploma	33	3.3
BSc/BA	73	7.4
B.Ed/BA/BSc + PGDE	178	18.0
MSc/MA	5	0.5
M.Ed/MSc/MA + PGDE	17	1.7
PhD with teaching qualification	1	0.1
PhD without teaching qualification	1	0.1

39. Table 3.17 shows that a significant percentage of head teachers (50.1) meet the NCE minimum qualification for teaching in schools. This group is distantly followed by the BEd/BA/BSc graduates with Post Graduate Diplomas in Education (PGDE) who constitute 18.0%. The spread of qualification as presented in the Table however shows too that a note worthy percentage of the head teachers do not meet the minimum NCE requirement. This raises questions concerning the kind of expertise required of head teachers that would enable them perform their jobs effectively. Even with the highest academic qualification of PhD, a teacher is still expected to show professionalism as only the NCE, T III and II as well as the PGDE qualifications can equip them with. The situation painted in this Table raises the issue of procedures for appointment of head teachers which at the moment appears not to be streamlined to tally with any special qualification or skills. There does not appear to be any specified

qualification that head teachers must have before being appointed as most rose through the ranks and by virtue of experience on the job.

Teaching Experience of Head Teachers

40. One would expect however that what the head teachers lack in qualifications, they would make up for in experience first as a teacher in primary schools and then as a head teacher. The study report in this regard shows that 510 (51.5%) of the head teachers have taught for over 20 years followed by 16.2% (160) who have taught for 16-20 years. A total of 121 and 100 of these head teachers constituting 12.2% and 10.1% have taught for 11-15 and 6-10 years while 51 (5.2%) have taught for less than 5 years. Although very insignificant, it is curious that a teacher of less than 5 years would have become a head teacher. This could maybe be the case in new schools or in rural communities where expertise might be difficult to procure. The spread of responses show however that a significant proportion of the head teachers have acquired experiences that stand them in good stead to run their schools.

Length of Experience as Head Teachers

41. Three hundred and sixty six of the sampled head teachers constituting 37% have been head teachers for less than 6 years. A total of 264 (26.7%) have been head teachers for 7-10 years while 150 (15.2); 76 (7.7%); and 72 (7.3%) have headed schools for 11-15, 16-20 and 20 years and above. The pattern of responses shows that most of the head teachers sampled have been stable on the job.

Courses Attended

42. As specifies earlier, there is no specified qualification or skill that a teacher has to have attained before being appointed a head teacher. The sample of responses shows that perhaps experience appears to be the singular important factor for appointment as a head teacher. On the basis of the leadership and management skills required to function on the job, it is expected appointed head teachers would be given appropriate orientation on assumption of duty as head teachers. The study sought information on this and found the responses presented in Table 4.2.

Table 3.18: Proportion of Head Teachers and the Courses Attended Since Appointment as Head Teachers

Type of Course Attended	Frequency	Percentage
Induction Course for Head Teachers	268	27.1
Workshop/Seminar	411	41.1
Training in School Management and Administration	140	14.1
Training in Record Keeping	31	3.1
Training in School Development and Planning	16	1.6
Meeting of School Cluster	30	3.0

43. As shown in Table 3.18, only 27.1% of the head teachers received courses since assuming office as head teachers. Meanwhile a comparatively

significant percentage (41.1%) has attended some workshop/seminar perhaps relevant to their job. A mere 140 (14.1%) have been trained in school management and administration which is a very crucial skill required as head teachers. That even a lesser number among the teachers who had received training in school development and planning (1.6%) and meeting of school cluster (3.0%) show that training gaps abound among the managers of our primary schools. It is imperative that capacity building at this level must become an issue of paramount concern.

44. Meanwhile, 585 head teachers (59.2%) enjoy opportunities for improving their supervisory and managerial skills through courses/workshops and conferences. Other got the opportunity every 2 years (9.6); every three years (6.0%); never (13.3%). It is worrisome that as much as 13.3% of the head teachers have never attended any training or seminars.

The study revealed for instance that 589 head teachers constituting 59.1 per cent engage in School Development Planning while 211 (12.8%) do target setting in their schools. A total of 161 and 181 also did student target setting and in-house teacher training activities. These are additional reasons why the head teacher should be empowered to be more resourceful in staff management and planning of school activities.

Training Needs Identified by Head Teachers

45. In line with the principle that the worker can contribute to identifying his/her own training needs and therefore help in identifying required competences, the head teachers were asked to select among options what type of training they would require to perform better at their jobs. A total of 488 representing 49.3% identified training in school management as what they most needed to improve their skills. This number was followed by 333 (33.3%) who needed to attend workshops/seminars (probably on a regular basis) to improve their performance. Training on Computer Application and Training on Child Education were identified as needed by 61 (6.4%) and 48 (4.7%) of the head teachers respectively. This significant proportion of head teachers who requested training in School Level Management indicates an incisive diagnosis of the real training needs that they required on their jobs. This confirms the fact that on appointment, a head teacher must be adequately oriented on the new demands of the job and be assured of retraining and re-orientation opportunities as new demands are made on the job. The need to institutionalize this practice cannot really be over-emphasised especially in view of the fact that there are calls for greater devolvement of powers to the school level and more democratization of the school environment. The head teacher must be adequately trained to respond to the new demands that would be made on that position as more community and civil society groups get involved in decisions concerning how schools in their neighbourhood and communities ought to be run.

Teacher Development

46. Professional development of teachers has been a knotty issue in education as there appears to be very few opportunities for teachers to upgrade their skills on the job. A related study under the Education Sector Analysis project found that only…% of teachers have been exposed to any professional development opportunity as in seminars/workshops in formal groups or in clusters. In this study, head teachers were asked to pick from among a selection of training which the teachers under them have been privileged to attend. The spread of responses is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 3.19: Head Teachers' Responses on Proportion of Teachers and the Trainings Attended

Type of Training	Frequency	Percentage
Training on Classroom Management	461	46.6
Training on Making Teaching Aids with Local Materials	289	29.2
Training in Record Keeping	360	36.4
Training in Teaching of Mathematics	343	36.4
Training in Teaching of English	277	28.0
Training in the Teaching of Local Languages	100	10.0
Training on Computer Application	41	4.1
Training on Management of Pupils	128	12.8
Meeting of School Clusters	26	2.6
Training on Detecting Pupils with Eye Problems	9	0.9

47. The proportion of responses presented in Table 3.19 show a fair spread of training received by the teachers. It is for instance gratifying to observe that 46.6% of the teachers in the sampled schools have been trained in classroom management. One would however expect a lot more than mere 29.2% to have received training in making teaching aids with local materials as this skill is very critical to teacher's success at that level. The fact that trainings have also been organized in the core subjects of English Language and Mathematics for 28.0% and 34.7% of the teachers are at least pointers to the proper identification of training needs as good performance by pupils in these areas often enhances performance in other areas.

48. The need to create adequate opportunities for professional development of teachers is indeed critical. A related ESA study on Teacher Education, Demand and Supply analysed the adequacy of the initial trainings that teachers received and the relationship of that to their jobs. The study found that whereas the teacher is expected to teach all subjects to a class in the primary schools, yet their training prepares them as specialists in certain courses and subject areas. The head teacher respondents in this study confirm the fact that their teachers teach all subjects in the class (549 of 55.5%). Two team and specialist teachers are also available in some of the schools (183 or 16.5% and 118 or 11.9%). The training opportunities that teachers have were not cheering news either. The fact that as revealed in that study, only an insignificant 1…% of primary school

sampled primary school teachers specialized in primary education studies makes a very cogent case for creating opportunities for innovative training programmes for teachers in specific skills and competencies.

49. As for application of these training opportunities, 924 (93.45) and 586 (59.2%) of the head teachers stated that the trainings they have attended have been most useful in School and Classroom Management respectively. A total of 19.6% (194) and 111 (11.5%) found the training good morale boosters while 97 and 178 respondents stated that the trainings enhanced their communication skills and improved their relationship with students and parents respectively.

Teacher availability and Qualification

50. Availability of qualified Teachers in adequate numbers is one of the major determinants of quality of an education system particularly so, because "no education system may rise above the quality of its teachers" (NPE, 2004), section 8 (70) (a). The norm in the Nigerian education system stipulates the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) as the minimum teaching qualification requirement for teachers at the primary education level. However, due to unfavourable conditions of service and change in societal attitude towards teaching as a profession over the years, teachers with lower qualifications than the minimum requirement still teach in primary schools nationwide particularly in the northern parts.

Table 3.20: Percentage of Primary School Teachers with Min Qualification of NCE, (National)

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Male	18.3	17.4	18.0	18.3	19.2
Female	26.2	27.3	28.1	28.3	31.6
Total	44.5	44.8	46.1	46.6	50.8

Source: FME, Handbook on Basic Education in Nigeria, 2003

51. Table 3.20 indicates that less than half of the Teachers had the minimum teaching qualification requirements between 1998 and 2001. Only 44.5 % of teachers met the national requirement for teaching in 1998, 44.8% in 1999, 46.1% in 2000, 46.6% in 2001. By year 2002, on an average, about half (50.8%) of all teachers in Public Primary schools in Nigeria had the minimum requirement to teach at that level of education.

Teaching Experience of Teachers

52. A sample survey on teaching experience of teachers from the 2003 ESA data indicates that teaching experience of teachers in primary education sub-sector varied from less than 2 years to more than 21 years as shown in table below.

Table 3.21: Teaching Experience of primary school teachers

Years	Percent
Less than 2 years	14.6
2 – 6 years	22.0
7-10 years	16.8
11-16 years	14.2
17 – 20 years	14.8
21 years and above	15.0
Total	100.0

Source: FME, ESA Draft Report on Situation Analysis of Primary Education, 2004, pp 19

53. Table 3.21 above indicates that on the average, 44% of primary education teachers have taught for over 10 years out of which 15% have taught for over 20 years. The remaining 56.0% of teachers have teaching experiences that range between less than 2 years (14.6%) and 7-10 years (16.8%) with 22.0% of teachers with less than 2 years teaching experience. The findings also indicate that all things being equal, about 85% of the teachers may still be in the system for the next 15 years or more.

Teacher Specialisation

54. Table 3.22 presents the teacher specialization profile of the primary schools sampled.

Table 3.22: Teacher Specialisation in Sampled Primary Schools

Specialisation	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Mathematics	277	28
English Language	292	29.5
PHE	221	21.3
Social Studies	244	24.6
French Language	69	6.9
Arabic Language	103	10.3
Computer Education	52	5.2
Guidance & Counseling	41	4.1
Agriculture	65	6.5

55. Table 3.22 shows the available teachers in the specialist areas. The low availability of teachers for Agriculture and Guidance & Counseling depict a trend even in specialization in training and orientation.

Teacher Transfers
Table 3.23 shows the frequency of transfers among teachers in the sampled schools.

Table 3.23: Frequency of Teacher Transfers in Sampled Schools

Frequency of Transfers	Frequency	Percentages
Often	111	11.2
Frequently	119	12.0
Very Occasionally	511	51.6
Never	81	8.1

56. As indicated in Table 3.23 and upheld by the related study on Teacher Education, Demand and Supply, transfers do not appear problematic among teachers as the average teacher often stays on average of … years in one posting. The fact that a high number of 511 (51.6%) regard transfers as occasional issues confirm these findings. Whereas frequent transfers are not good for teachers to build stable careers and relationship with their pupils, a teacher who stays too long in one school loses the opportunity of enriching his/her world view and on-the-job experience.

Incentives and Rewards
57. Head teachers applied various incentives and reward systems to keep their teachers motivated. Among the incentives is confirmation of appointment which a total of 450 head teachers (45.5%) ticked as a major source of motivation. Other incentives include paid annual leave (344 or 34.6%); transport allowance (370 or 37.3%); annual leave allowance (377 or 38.0%); meal subsidy (244 or 24.6%) and rent allowance (394 or 39.7%). Other forms of incentives include yearly/seasonal bonuses special duty allowance, rural posting allowance gratuity and payment of overtime allowance. Payment of pension allowance was also part of the incentives that the head teachers applied. These are some rights and privileges that other workers enjoyed as and when due. Among these incentives are factors that can be used to make the teacher more comfortable and therefore able to perform in their jobs. The ESA Monitoring of Learning Achievement exercise identified low status of the job as part of the factors that demoralize teachers the most. Perhaps if these incentives are adequate motivators as the head teachers claim in the spread of these responses, then teachers they can build the teacher's esteem can be enhanced by the fact that they are entitled to some of these incentives that other workers receive as a matter of course. These head teachers must have the support of the Local Authorities to get these accomplished. Such practices must be encouraged as contrary to the situation whereby most teachers do not even know what their actual salaries ought to be and their allowances are hardly paid.

58. The ESA Situation Report on Primary Education indicated Teachers' selection of 5 de-motivators from a list of 25 factors; the responses are presented in Table 8.

Table 3.24: Five de-motivating factors to teaching as a profession from Teachers perspective

Response	Percent
No regards for teachers	67.5%
Poor condition of service	55%
Poor salaries	44.2%
No promotion prospects	44.1%
No teaching facilities/materials	40.9%

Source: FME, ESA Draft Report on Situation Analysis of Primary Education, 2004, pp 35

The response of teachers to a question on the five most important factors that discourage taking of teaching as a profession from a listing of 25 factors in the ESA survey questionnaire for Teachers is as shown on table above. The most discouraging factor as indicated by the majority (67.5%) of the teachers was the "No regards for teachers" attitude of the society, followed by "poor conditions of service" (55%). Less than half (44.2%) of the teachers indicated "poor salaries" as an important factor even though it ranked 3rd in the rating being just higher than "no promotion prospects" (44.1%) by only a difference of 0.1 percentage point. The least discouraging factor was lack of teaching facilities indicated by 40.9% of teachers.

Availability and adequacy of textbooks and other teaching/learning materials

59. Inadequacy and non availability of textbooks and other teaching/learning materials in most schools particularly in the rural and urban poor areas have been a common phenomenon in primary schools.

Language of Instruction

60. In primaries 1-3, the language of instruction was English in 437 (44.1%) of the samples, Pidgin in 20 (2.0%); Local Language in 357 (36.0%) and language of the community in 189 (19.1% of the cases. The National Policy on Education specifies that children at this level be taught in the language of their immediate environment. The thinking is that the children are more familiar with this language and beginning school on such familiar terrain will make the home to school transition less traumatic. The fact that in a majority of the cases, the children were taught in English Language however shows a trend in society whereby English Language is spoken in most homes even if not in a standard and intelligible form. Also the fact that some of the languages of the local community of the school may not yet have written forms raises problems that support the argument against the use of the local language at the beginning stages. Information gathered from field visits organized by the ESA Unit under the auspices of the DFID sponsored task force on School Level Management found that in a state where this language policy operated completely, the performance of primaries 4 and 6 pupils on the Monitoring of Learning Achievement exercise was exceptionally higher than all the other states.

61. In current practice, the thrust of inspection and supervision, as aspects of quality assurance, promotes teacher development in a supportive process, not a fault finding one. Inspectors are expected to work collaboratively with the teachers and head teachers and empower them with constructive ideas on how they can improve their work. The head teachers were required to describe their experience with inspectors. Four hundred and eighty three (48.8%) found the interaction with inspectors enlightening. The experience was rewarding for 271 (27.4%) of the head teachers and fault finding for 56 (5.7%). For 9 head teachers constituting 0.9% the inspectors were antagonistic. No matter how insignificant the number, the interaction between inspectors and the inspected must not be antagonistic.

62. In line with the policy provisions that "the medium of instruction in the primary school shall be language of the environment for the first three years during which English shall be taught as a subject" (NPE, 2004, Section 4 (19)(e) and (f), English and Mathematics textbooks have been translated into the 3 main languages, Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba to facilitate policy implementation.

Curriculum

63. In an effort to ensure that quality of educational provision is maintained nationwide, Nigeria operates a system of centralised curriculum which is then adopted in the states to suit local peculiarities.

The NERDC is statutorily entrusted with the function of translating the education goals and aspirations into a workable curriculum that is flexible enough to satisfy the diverse aspirations of citizens. Table 6 shows the perception of teachers on the appropriateness of the curriculum in adequately providing for the needs of stakeholders pupils inclusive.

Table 3.25: Perception of teachers on the adequacy of curriculum provisions, 2003

Options	Percentage
The curriculum is based upon the needs of the pupils	38.1
The curriculum is based upon the needs of the community	19.3
The curriculum is structured and sequential	22
Course offering cover the fundamental content areas	24.9
Instructional needs	9.5
Instructions provide for pupils with special needs.	6.7
Concepts covered are very simple	2.1

Source: ESA survey database, 2003

64. On teacher perception of the adequacy or otherwise of primary education curriculum provisions in addressing pupil and community needs, responses in Table 3.25 indicates that 38.1% of teachers sample reported that the curriculum takes into account the needs of the pupils while only 19.3% reported that the curricular content has taken cognisance of the needs of the society. 22.0% of the teachers reported that the curriculum is structured and sequential while 24.9%

indicated that course offerings does cover the fundamental content areas provided for in the national curriculum. However, only 2.1% of sampled teacher indicated that the concepts covered are simple. While 9.5% of sampled teachers indicated that the curriculum adequately addressed instructional needs at the primary education level, only 6.7% indicated that there is adequate provision for instructional needs of pupils with special needs.

Classroom situation

65. The national norm for class size in Primary education in Nigeria is 40 which also is the norm for Pupil/Teacher Ratio (PTR) as Pupils at this level of education don't have any choice in subject selection. The table below indicate the average PTR at national level from 1998 to 2003.

Table 3.26: Pupil/Teacher Ratio (National), 1998 to 2003

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
PTR	38	36	43	40	39	*

Source: FME, Handbook on Basic Education in Nigeria, 2003 * data not available yet

66. Table 3.26 indicates that the PTR has been within the national norm range with very slight variation from 1998 to 2003. In 1998, there were on the average 38 Pupils to a Teacher in Public Primary schools which reduced to 36 in 1999 then increased to 43 in year 2000. Thereafter, the PTR reduced to 40 in 2001 and 39 in 2002.

Shifts

67. Seven hundred and seven (77.7%) of the sampled primary schools ran regular morning classes. While 203 (20.3%) ran afternoon shifts only. Seventeen (1.7%) ran morning and afternoon shifts. Shifts are introduced when schools are unable to cope with the number of children needing access. These measures also have implications for quality and the utilization of facilities as well as teacher issues.

Major Sources of Water

68. Majority of the schools (216) had wells. This number represents 21.8 per cent of the schools. One hundred and seventy eight (18.00%) had bore holes, while 187 (18.9%) fetched water from streams. Bore hole were the source of water in 108 (10.9%) of the schools while water came from harvested rain in 5.7 per cent of the schools. It is worrisome that water was not available in 168 (16.9%) of the schools.

Sources of Electricity

69. NEPA was available in 234 (23.6%) of the schools. In 219 (22.1%) of the schools, lanterns was used. Thirty one school (3.1%) used rural electrification while 20 (2.0%) used generators.

Types of Toilets

70. Types of toilets available include water system, VIP pit toilets, ordinary pit, bush and no toilets at all. Majority of the schools had ordinary pits (386 or 39.0%) while water system was available in 118 or 11.9 per cent of the schools. VIP pit were available in 122 (12.3%) schools while in 181 (18.3) schools, the bush method prevailed. Eighty six schools had no toilets at all.

71. Two hundred and seventy four schools (27.7%) had boys only toilets; 264 (26.7%) had girls only while in 262 (26.5%) of the schools, boys and girls shared toilets. Sharing of toilet facilities by boys and girls have been fingered severally as a factor in the perceived parents reluctance to send their girls to schools. The parents are convinced that it is not safe for boys and girls to share toilets and there are many points in that. There are however toilets for staff members in 138 (14.0%) of the sampled schools.

Waste Disposal

72. Facilities available for waste disposal in the school were bush (355 or 35.9%); Composite pit (255 or 25.7%) and dust bins (249 or 25.9%).

Sports Facilities

73. The sampled schools had playing/athletic field (40.1%); football pitch (53.6%); and no facilities at all (11.3%). There were table tennis (5.8%); lawn tennis courts (0.7%); squash field (1.4%); hand ball pitch (5.1%); hockey pitch (2.6%); volleyball pitch (5.6%). There was Tackwando (0.5%) while 109 schools (11.3%) had none of the sports facilities mentioned here. Sports are excellent extra-curricular activities which can be applied to better use than is on in the school system currently. Sports are good ways on imbuing discipline and character training. Studies support the fact that children who participate in sports also do well academically and turn out to become good leaders. Sports must be encouraged as viable extra-curricular activities.

74. The schools which had no sports facilities ensured that their pupils are exposed to sports activities by organizing joint inter school sports with neighbouring schools using common facilities (16.2%); using facilities in nearest school (12.0%); and using resources provided by the state (0.4%). Forty five schools (4.5%) had no arrangements in place whatsoever. It is assumed that these schools do not expose their pupils to any sporting activities. In such schools, the emphasis remains on academics as the only ways to accomplish and the only worthwhile activities in schools. This is clearly not a good reasoning and should be remedied as a matter of urgency.

75. However, 23.7 per cent of the schools who had no arrangements in place would be willing to explore using centrally provided facilities while 10.0 per cent would not.

Results from the ESA MLA study in Primary Class IV and VI

76. The performance of pupils in an examination is another determinant of the efficiency of the education system at that level. Accordingly, the ESA study included an assessment of learning achievement of pupils within the school system to generate baseline data in core subject areas: English Language (Literacy), Mathematics (Numeracy) and general knowledge; health and personal hygiene; primary science and agriculture (Life Skills) to serve as the framework for monitoring effectiveness of policy measures (FME, ESA, MLA, 2004 pp 5). The MLA results show an overall performance of 35.05% in Literacy, 33.74 in Numeracy and 43.81% on Life Skills by primary 4 pupils. Primary 6 pupils scored a national average of 41.5% in Literacy, 35.73% in Numeracy and 25.42% in Life Skills. This performance although low is an improvement on the performance of pupils in the 1996 MLA.

MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE

Supervision

77. The head teachers were asked how frequently they were supervised at school. Three hundred and thirty two (33.5%) were supervised monthly. Quarterly/termly supervision was the experience of 283 (28.6%) while 168 (17.0%) were supervised weekly. Thirty nine (3.9%) of the head teachers were supervised annually; 9 (0.9%) biennially; 5 (0.5%) once in four years; and 3 (.3%) once in 4 years. The related ESA study on Quality Assurance revealed that inspection and supervision of schools have not been as effective and informed as they can be. The Federal Inspectorate Services (FIS) is poised to reposition itself for a more dynamic inspectorate function properly devolved to all tiers. The fact that some schools have not been inspected in over ten years was revealed as realities that must be redressed for improved quality. The spread of responses on supervision painted in the current data is fair. One can only gauge that the Local Education Authorities are as close to their schools as they should be. However the fact that some schools have only been inspected once in four years is not desirable.

Financing of primary education

78. Comprehensive data on Public expenditure on primary education was not available but by policy provision, education at this level is tuition free but parents make contribution to schooling at this level through PTA and other forms of levies as indicated by ESA survey.

Table 3.27: Expenditure by level of education (N million), 1998

Level of Education	Expenditure in 1998 (N million)	Percent
Primary	22,745	35.64
Secondary	18,506	29.00
Tertiary	10,467	35.36
University	12,103	
Total	67,751	100

Courtesy: Hinchliffe, 2002, World Bank

79. Table 3.27 indicates that on an average and in absolute terms, public expenditure on education in 1998 was highest for Primary education with N22,745 million (35.64%) followed by Higher Education with a total of N22,500 million (35.36) and secondary education had the least with N18,506 (29.00%).

Parents Teachers' Associations

80. Six hundred and sixty two schools (66.9%) had functional PTAs while 125 (12.6%) did not have. PTAs are necessary avenues for strengthening school community relations. They contribute to infrastructure development of the school, and also offers parents an opportunity to participate in the school management system.

81. In the schools where PTAs were available, they contributed their time to school administration in different ways. They raised funds in 428 (43.3%) of the cases and provided and maintained furniture in 222 (22.4%) of the schools where they exist. Other activities that the PTA embarked upon include: pupils' discipline (16.2%0; school administration (14.01%); equipment/materials (7.7%); infrastructure (7.0%); and educating and caring for pupils (6.8%). The PTA also helped in the production of teaching/learning material (5.8%); and organizing open day (6.4%). In some other schools, the PTA did nothing (5.0%).

School/Community Relations

82. School/community relations were cordial in 74.4 per cent of the sampled schools, and indifferent in 6.8 per cent of the cases. The relationship is decidedly hostile in 2.3 per cent of the cases seen.

83. In 360 schools (36.3%), the community helped in fund raising. The community also helped in students' discipline (16.2%); provision/maintenance of furniture (12.2%); school administration (10.3%); keeping the surroundings clean (12.1%); infrastructure (7.8%); educating/caring for pupils (9.1%); provision of teachers (3.2%); and production of teaching/learning materials (3.9%). In other instances, the community helped organizing open days (4.1%) and even accompanies pupils and teachers on excursion (1.3%).

Community organizations that provide support to the schools include community development associations (27.7%); philanthropists (10.4%); religious organizations (9.1%); NGOs (6.4%); Bilateral/Multilateral International organizations (3.1%); and the private sector (1.9%). In 282 (29.6%), the community did nothing to assist the schools.

The support of these organizations come as financial (25.7%); equipment (12.3%); personnel (6.0%); training (3.6%); books (11.2%) ; and infrastructure (10.0%).

MAJOR ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

Access and participation

84. There is no age specific data to determine the actual coverage of official school aged (6-11years) children. The national average GAR 113% indicates capacity of the primary education sub-sector to provide access to official aged children. However, the average national GER of 93% in 2001 indicates that participation is comparatively low even with the presence of pupils of all ages both below and above the official age bracket and female participation was only 82%. Provision of Universal Primary Education is still far from being attained and if this trend continues unattended to, the attainment of UPE under any programme could prove elusive more so that, disparities exist between state, localities and by gender. Even with the level of data aggregation at national level, female participation has been below 50% at all times.

Quality related issues

85. The curriculum seems to be adequate as reported but implementation may be constrained by the quality of teachers in the system. Only 50.8% teachers had the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) which is the minimum qualification required to teach at this level.

The performance at the MLA study carried out by ESA in 2003 indicated a low level of achievement on an average at national level. The facilities are inadequate and most require rehabilitation.

Equity issues

86. Females have consistently been disadvantaged in all the studies. The Gender Ratio is still 83% just 2 percentage point increase from the value 81% in 1999. Poor sanitary facilities, inadequate provision of toilets (66, 969 toilets in 49,326 schools in 2001), about a toilet per school on the average nationally does not guarantee privacy of females and this could lead to non attendance and eventual dropout.

Absence of gender policy in education despite the global focus on gender mainstreaming in all activities is a cause for concern even though policy provision on Girls and Women education do exist in the NPE).

Efficiency

87. Repetition is a non issue at this level since on an average less than 5% repeat class as observed in 2003. However, completion rates are low on an average: about 83% total and for both males and females.

Management and community involvement

88. The enactment of the UBE Act in May 2004 has clearly redefined the management at this level and community participation should be encouraged beyond mere attendance at school functions to decision making status in line with emerging trends in decentralisation and participative management.

Funding

89. Funding is a critical issue as only adequate funding could guarantee adequate provision of both material and human resources that are necessary for effective operation of the primary education sub-sector. With the provision of the 2% Federal revenue for UBE financing, there is the need to plan strategically to ensure goal attainment within target timeframe and by state and if feasible by local peculiarities as well.

90. There is the need to have a sustainable financing framework in place to ensure that primary education remains a priority as the foundation to all other educational developments as inadequate funding and lack of funds could also stifle UBE goal attainment in the long run.

91. The demographic pressure due to the high population growth at an annual average growth rate of 2.83% with young age structure needs to be taken into consideration in providing funds for primary education. A situation where almost an equal amount of funds is given to primary and higher education should be looked into, more so that primary education is statutorily universal and free.

92. Children under 15 years of age constitute about 45% of the population. There is a high child dependency ratio of 1.1, which imposes considerable strains on the economy, at both family and national levels.

Data problem

93. Getting comprehensive, relevant and timely data/information for timely effective planning is still a problem. The need to develop a system of indicators for measuring goal attainment should be nationally determined and this should guide the collection of appropriate data for monitoring of policy effectiveness along the routine school census data. Until the challenges are adequately addressed the attainment of UPE would be a mirage and both the UBE and global Education for All (EFA) goals may not be attained thereby perpetuating underdevelopment.

94. Facing these challenges will require the commitments of all stakeholders with governments at all levels as the driving force in building consensus on the importance and role of education in human development and competitive advantage in the knowledge based information technology driven global society. Obanya reported that, the emergent Nigerian society of the 21st Century would require a critical mass of citizens who have the skills necessary for the vigorous pursuit of its development goals (Obanya, 2004, pg 3). Being the foundation upon which the rest of the education system is built, failure to address the challenges in primary education would ultimately affect the successful attainment of goals at subsequent levels thereby constraining the sought after sustainable human development which is a key requisite for any form of national development.

CHAPTER FIVE
SECONDARY EDUCATION

INSTITUTIONAL AND NORMATIVE FRAMEWORK

Introduction

1. Secondary education follows immediately after primary education and is also referred to, as post primary education. The 2 tier, 3,3 system consisting 3years of junior and senior secondary schooling respectively, was introduced in 1982 following the introduction of the 6-3-3-4 education system of education. Prior to this, secondary education was for a duration of 5 years followed in most cases by a 2year higher school certificate which also existed then.

2. In Nigeria, as elsewhere in the world, secondary education is 'the second stage traditionally found in formal education, beginning about age 11 to 13 and ending usually at age 15 to 18.'[1] It is thus the education for the adolescent years, i.e. from about age 12 to 18 years of age. The *National Policy on Education* [1999] defines secondary education similarly, stating that it 'is the education children receive after primary education and before the tertiary stage.' Institutions that provide secondary education feature under four main nomenclatures: Secondary School, College, Grammar school, and High School.

3. The *National Policy on Education* also spells out the broad goals of secondary education as being 'to prepare the individual for (a) useful living within the society, and (b) higher education.' In order to achieve this goal, the document further states that secondary education shall:

a. Provide all primary school leavers with the opportunity for education of a higher level, irrespective of sex, social status, religious or ethnic background;

b. Offer diversified curriculum to cater for the differences in talents, opportunities, and future roles;

c. Provide trained manpower in the applied science, technology and commerce at sub-professional grades;

d. Develop and promote Nigerian languages, art and culture in the context of world's cultural heritage;

e. Inspire its students with a desire for self-improvement and achievement of excellence;

f. Foster national unity with an emphasis on the common ties that unite us in our diversity;

g. Raise a generation of people who can think for themselves, respect the views and feelings of others, and respect the dignity of labour;

[1] From Encyclopaedia Britannica [2003] Deluxe CD edition.

h. Provide technical knowledge and vocational skills necessary for agricultural, industrial, commercial and economic development.

4. During the colonial era and up till 1976, secondary education was in just one phase of six years, though some schools did the course in just five. However, with the 1976 introduction of the 6-3-3-4 system, the six-year secondary education was split into two, constituting the junior and secondary levels. Thus, most students at the junior secondary level are aged between 12 and 15 years. With the introduction of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme, covering the first nine years of formal schooling, i.e. the six years of primary school and the three years of junior secondary school, the sharp distinction between primary and secondary education has become less marked. Thus, the Britannica's statement that 'the dichotomy between elementary education and secondary education has gradually become less marked, not only in curricula but also in organization'[2] is quite applicable.

5. Secondary education came into what is now Nigeria in the mid 19th century largely through the effort of the Christian missions. The government for a very long time did not complement the efforts of the Christian missions. It was only in 1909 that the colonial government established its first institution, the King's College, Lagos. However, the colonial government contributed to, and influenced, the development of secondary education, by promulgating a number of edicts and bylaws regulating the management of schools.

6. Throughout the colonial period that ended in 1960, secondary education was available to only a few as the figures for the numbers of secondary schools in the years before independence would show: 161 in 1955; 275 in 1956; 297 in 1957; 303 in 1958; 305 in 1959; and 311 in 1960. Immediately after independence, the various regional governments addressed this issue by establishing more schools. Thus, some two decades after independence, the figures of secondary schools in the country had risen to 1928 [in 1977/78], 2,249 in 1978/79, 2,778 in 1979/80, 5,191 in 1980/81, 5,401 in 1981/82, and 5740 in 1982/83. [Osokoya, 1989] The sharp rise in the figures from 1979 to 1980 should be noted.

Management and Ownership

7. The first secondary schools were private institutions, owned by the missionaries. The establishment of King's College in 1909 marked the beginning of the dichotomy between public and private institutions. As conceived and administered, King's College, and the similar ones that followed, constituted a model for the private schools. The public schools had the best facilities, such as libraries, science laboratories, and sports equipment. They were better staffed, qualitatively as well as quantitatively: since in most cases only university graduates were recruited while private schools often took on Grade II and I teachers, holders of Advanced Level Certificates, and often School Certificate leavers with good results. Because of the rather elitist posture of such government schools, candidates faced a stiff competition to secure an admission, which only a few ever secured. The regional governments soon followed the

[2] Ibid.

federal government by establishing a few 'Government Schools', usually in the regional capitals. The schools, like those of the Federal Governments, were a model to others. As before, admission into such schools was stiffly contested.

8. Apart from the original mission secondary schools, another set of private schools soon emerged: those set up by the communities, by local churches or mosques and later those set up by private individuals. With the two systems of secondary schools running side by side, the *public – private dichotomy in education* had been entrenched in the system with the public schools clearly having better and more facilities. That was the situation until after independence when the various state governments took over the private secondary schools in the 1960s and 1970s. However, the exercise did not raise standards largely because of inadequate facilities. This has accounted for the establishment of many private schools in the last two decades in many states. Thus, the public – private dichotomy is very sharp. Within each state, the government still maintains some control through edicts to check possible excesses by the private school owners.

9. Standards vary considerably across the schools. The federal government secondary schools, including the newly established ones in the states, usually tagged unity schools, are still the models. They tend to be well funded, provided with facilities for learning, and well staffed. So, when studies are conducted to focus on standards and performances in the various categories of schools, researchers usually do not classify such federal government colleges [FGCs] with public schools. They are treated as in a class of their own. On the other hand are the various types of private schools, many of them founded by individuals or firms, e.g. the oil mining companies. Within the whole gamut of these private schools, standards vary considerably.

10 Prior to the declaration of the UPE, access to secondary schools was highly restricted and competitive. Pupils who passed prescribed entrance and consequent interview examinations were placed in the relatively few available secondary schools. Following the declaration of the UPE however, and the upsurge in enrolment in the primary schools, several state governments commenced on the expansion of access to secondary schools preparatory to receiving products of the UPE. In most cases as became evident, such arrangements were still not enough to absorb the teaming population of primary school completers. However, in 1979, and following the institution of the first civilian government (after an intervening period of military rule (1966 – 1979), several state governments in redeeming pledges made during electioning campaigns, commenced the establishment of a large number of secondary schools particularly in the south-west and a few other states. Subsequently, entrance into secondary schools became less stringent while almost every child that completed primary schooling was offered a place in a secondary school. The upsurge in enrolment at this level, except for the construction in some cases of new classrooms blocks and employment of new teachers, was not however, followed by adequate and proper planning. This oversight is by and large one of the major contributory factors to the still enduring deterioration in quality and efficiency of secondary education delivery.

11. Prior, to the launching of the UBE in 1999, secondary education was not considered an aspect of basic education as evidenced in the definition of basic education within the Jomtien Declaration on Education For All (1990) and the subsequent Dakar goals on EFA which restrict basic education to pre-primary, adult/non-formal and primary education. For this reason, secondary education did not attract much attention from development partners who in the spirit of the Jomtien declaration concentrated their resources in the development of primary education, considered the bedrock of education. The limited view further reduced and apparently diverted attention from the prevailing inadequacies and consequently increasing challenges of secondary education provision.

12. It is however imperative to note that, the situation is gradually receiving attention, as the country is currently engaged in preparation for the absorption in 2007 of primary VI equivalence of the UBE programme into the Junior Secondary 1 equivalence of the nine year compulsory schooling. The junior secondary tier of the 3-3 system would then become an aspect of the 9- year basic education while secondary education would assumable be for a three year duration. Towards ensuring adequacy of secondary education provision the World Bank as part of this preparatory commissioned a situation analysis of secondary education in 6 states of the Federation to facilitate an informed analysis of the problems stunting the growth and development of the sector

13. The present nationwide Situation Analysis of Secondary Education which is conceived under the Nigerian Education Sector Analysis (ESA) project aims at achieving similar objectives. The analysis actually commenced before the World Bank Studies which have since then been concluded. The primary purpose of the present analysis is undertaken to identify the major constraints on secondary education in Nigeria with a view to generating a framework for addressing the repositioning of secondary education within the context of global sector reform.

14. According to the ESSR (2003) achievement in this sector since 1999 include:

- a slight increase in access into junior secondary school
- the rehabilitation of few schools
- Computer and laboratory equipment for 98 Federal Government Unity Schools and Technical Colleges.

15. The primary goals of Secondary education according to the National Policy of Education (2004), are twofold: to (i) prepare learners for useful living within the society and (ii) for participation in higher education. Deriving from these goals are the specific objectives of Secondary education which are classifiable into cognitive and attitudinal directed objectives. With regard to cognitive objectives secondary education is expected to:

i. Provide all primary school leavers with opportunity for higher level education;
ii. Provide a diversified curriculum to cater for individual differences;

iii. Supply trained manpower at subprofessional levels in applied science, technology and commerce;
iv. Promote the development of Nigerian language and culture.
v. Provide technical knowledge and vocational competence in agriculture, industrial commercial and economic development. For the inculcation and promotion of desirable attitudes secondary education is expected to:

Foster national unity and inspire the desire for acquisition for knowledge and excellence.

vi. Provide the development of critical thinking and respect of the dignity of labour and appreciation of national values and goals.

THE CURRICULUM

Junior Secondary Education.

16. The curriculum for junior secondary education covers the first three years of secondary education and is both pre-vocational and academic consisting of basic subjects that are expected to prepare learners for senior secondary education and empower them with some prevocational skill. Students at junior secondary level are expected to offer a minimum of 10 and maximum of 13 subjects selected from three groups of 'A' core, 'B' pre vocational and 'C' Non-prevocational electives. While all the 8 specified core subjects are compulsory, students are required to offer at least pre-vocational and non prevocational elective Core subjects-Group A.

The 2004 Policy prescribes that transition from junior to senior secondary school shall be on the bases of streaming the ratio of 60% to senior secondary school with academic biased curriculum, 20% to technical vocational schools, 10% to vocational training centres while the outstanding 10% are to enrol in open apprenticeship schemes. This prescription is however not enforced as most completers of junior secondary school generally transit to senior secondary. Consequently the technical vocational colleges which should provide the middle level manpower remain largely unsubscribed as most parents would prefer their wards to join the bandwagon into the most prestigious academic senior secondary stream. In 2002 however the Federal Ministry of education upgraded technical vocational colleges to Science technical Colleges as a strategy to increase participation within the sub-sector. This strategy appears to be producing the desired effect as enrolment in Science technical schools is increasing gradually. In addition the 2004 revised policy has made it possible for pupils to transit directly to Science technical Schools the duration of which has been increased from three to six years as formally obtained in only academic biased secondary schools.

Subjects Prescribed for JS Level

17. At JSS level a student is expected to offer a minimum of 10 and a maximum of 13 subjects. All subject in Group A are compulsory while at least one subject is offered from each of Groups B and C.

Group A Compulsory Core Subjects

1. English language
2. French
3. Mathematics
4. Language of immediate enrolment ie L1
5. Major Nigerian language other than that in 4-L2
6. Integrated Science
7. Social Studies and Citizenship Education, and
8. Introductory Technology.

Group B. Prevocational electives teaching of normal subjects in this group is with emphasis on practical.

1. Agriculture
2. Business Studies
3. Home Economics
4. Local Crafts
5. Computer Education

Group C: Non-prevocational electives

1. Religious knowledge
2. Physical and health Education
3. Fine \Art
4. Music
5. Arabic.

18. On demonstration of commitment to increasing participation in science technical education, the Federal Government has increased the number of its science technical schools from ----- in 2001 to ----- In new science technical schools were established in 2000 alone.

Senior Secondary Education

The 1998 policy stipulates a comprehensive curriculum for senior secondary education with a view to broaden students' knowledge and outlook.

19. As with the subjects at the junior secondary level, subjects at this level are also grouped into three with the core group of seven subjects in Group A. Students are expected to offer a minimum of one or maximum of two subjects from the two other groups of vocational electives the and non-vocational electives B and C. The number of subjects a student may offer in the final year is a minimum of 8 or maximum of 9. The subjects' distribution is as follows:

Group A. Core: 1) English Language 2) French Language 3) Mathematics 4) A major Nigerian language *5)* One of Biology, Chemistry, Physics (*Integrated Sc. Replaced by Health Sc. On 2003 policy)* *6)* One of Literature-in-English, History, Geography or (*Social Studies replaced by Religious Studies 2003)* 7) A vocational subject **Group B. Vocational Electives** 1) Agriculture 2) Applied Electricity 3) Auto-Mechanics 4) Book-keeping and Accounting 5) Building Construction 6) Commerce 7) Computer Education 8) Electronics 9) Clothing and Textiles 10) Food and Nutrition 11) Home Management 12) Metal Work 13) Technical Drawing 14) Woodwork 15) Shorthand 16) Typewriting 17) Fine Art 18) Music	**Group C. Non-Vocational Electives** 1) Biology 2) Chemistry 3) Physics 4) Further Mathematics 5) Integrated Science** *(removed in 2003 policy and replaced with French)* 6) Health Education 7) Physical Education 8) Literature-in-English 9) History 10) Geography *11)* Social Studies*** *(removed in 2003 policy)* 12) Bible Knowledge 13) Islamic Studies 14) Arabic 15) Government 16) Economics 17) Any Nigeria language that has orthography and literature etc. French is included as a Non Vocational

20. Although the 1998 Policy limited the number of subject offerings for senior school certificate examination to a minimum of 8 and maximum of 9, the revised 2003 policy (unpublished) reduces the subjects offerings by one i.e. a minimum of 7 or maximum of 8 subjects. Subsequently the number of core subjects has been reduced from 7 to 6 with the removal of French as a core subject at Senior Secondary level. The reduction of total number of subject offered for the senior certificate examination must have been informed by the need to reduce the burden of students as a means of improving performance in senior secondary school terminal examination.

Certification

21. As with the 1998 policy, the 2003 policy (unpublished) stipulates that certification at the end of junior secondary schooling would be based both on continuous assessment scores and on performance on examinations conducted by Federal or State examination board.

However, certification at the end of senior secondary schooling would derive only from aggregation of continuous assessment scores and scores on national examinations only. For uniform national standards, the policy stipulates the use of public examination bodies for requisite assessments.

22. For the preservation of national culture, the national policy specifies that measures would be instituted purposefully in this regard. It further stipulates the encouragement of state visits, promotion of co curricular activities and formation of youth clubs and society as instruments for character building.

ACCESS AND EQUITY ISSUES

Access, Participation and Internal Efficiency

23. The findings on the analysis of Senior Secondary Education in Nigeria are presented in this and subsequent chapters. The presentation in most instances is by aggregation of data on entire national sample. However where necessary, the data is disaggregated to address issues on the basis of state, location or type of school.

Background on Sampled Schools

Location

24. The urban and rural schools sampled were selected on the basis of probability is equal to size. The proportion of the sampled schools in urban and rural locations is shown on Table 3.1.

Table 5.1 Frequency and Percentage of Schools sampled by location.

Location	Frequency	Percentage
Urban	430	51.81
Rural	408	48.69
Total	838	100

25. The distribution of sampled schools by urban and rural locations shows an almost equitable distribution, and good coverage. The slightly higher proportion of urban schools in the sample is not unexpected since demand is higher in the more densely populated urban centres.

School Type (Private/Public)

26. Private secondary schools have a more recent history than private primary schools and are beginning to attract more investors. The growth in popularity of private schools derives from the loss of confidence by parents in public schools due to the pervasive decline in quality of performance and obvious depreciation in existing facilities. Various state governments have quite recently handed back acquired private schools to the original proprietors further increasing the proportion of private proprietorship of secondary schools. Table 3.2 indicates the proportion of public and private schools sampled.

Table 5.2 Frequency and Percentage of Sampled Schools by Type

Type of School	Frequency	Percentage
Public	700	83.14
Private	142	16.86
Total	842	100

27. Although the proportion of sampled private schools is 16.86 percent, the level of private participation is higher in some states than in others. In general a larger proportion of private secondary schools are found in urban centres than in rural areas.

Ownership of Schools

28. Although the responsibility for the ownership of secondary Education is constitutionally vested on State governments, a variety of proprietorship of secondary schools exists as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 5.3 Frequency and Percentage of Secondary Schools by Ownership.

Ownership	Frequency	Percentage
Federal Government	83	9.5
State Government	603	68.8
Community	53	6.1
Private Organisaion	41	
Sole Proprietor	76	8.7
06		
07		

Linkage with Other levels

29. For a long time following the institutions of the Secondary Education system, junior and senior schools were managed under the administration of one school head or principal. However, with the growth in enrolment at primary level following attempts in the 70s', to expand access into primary and secondary schools, the enrolments in many secondary schools increased in some cases by up to 2000 – 3000 students. Subsequently, some State governments separated junior from senior secondary schools in an attempt to ensure more effective administration and as a means of creating more positions for advancement as principals or heads of schools. With the declaration of the 9 year free and compulsory, Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme, the question of appropriateness of location of the junior secondary school component which constitute the last 3 years of the 9 year scheme has repeatedly been raised. Meanwhile, the number of States separating junior from senior secondary schools is in the increase. However, most (72.5 percent) secondary schools still have junior and secondary schools together in one building/compound.

30. Table 5.4 indicates the proportion of separate junior secondary schools sampled as against those that are linked with senior secondary schools.

Table 5.4 Proportion of Separate Junior, Senior and Linked Secondary Schools Sampled.

Proportion	Frequency	Percentage
JSS	48	5.5
SSS	34	3.9
JSS and SSS	754	86.0

31. There is an emerging trend whereby a single school complex owned by a single private proprietor within the same location would consist pre-primary, primary, junior and senior secondary schools. This could start simply with an enterprisingly successful pre-primary school venture which gradually expands to include primary, junior and eventually Senior Secondary School subsectors. In most cases however, though still within the same location, the primary and secondary sections are administered separately. It is worth investigating the advantage of this emerging private investor preferred arrangement in education delivery over the traditional arrangement completely separating primary from secondary schools for its likely cost benefit. The proportion of linked sampled schools is indicated on table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Frequency and percentage of Schools Linkage with different levels of education delivery.

Proportion of Secondary schools linked with preprimary and primary schools.

Level Linked	Frequency	Percentage
Pre-primary, Primary and Junior Secondary	10	0.1
Pre-primary, Primary, Junior and Senior Secondary	83	9.5
Primary and Junior Secondary	21	2.4
Primary, Junior and Senior Secondary	47	5.4
,Junior and Senior Secondary	636	72.5

32. Some state governments had within the past few years embarked on separating junior and senior secondary levels in preparation for compliance with provision of the nine year basic education which presupposes continuity after the initial 6years of education. The proportion of non-disaggregated and disaggregated secondary schools is show on table 5.6

Table 5.6 Proportion of composite and disaggregated Secondary Schools

Type of Secondary School	Proportion	Percentage
Junior Secondary	48	5.5
Senior Secondary	34	3.9
Junior and Senior Secondary	754	86.0

Day/Boarding Schools

33. The samples comprised both day and boarding schools. For example, all the sampled Federal Government Secondary Colleges run both boarding and day options since as Unity Schools they cater for pupils from States far and near. In the same vein, some State governments provide boarding facilities as incentives particularly for girls to encourage them to attend, while a few private schools provide for both boarding and day students. The proportion of boarding and or non-boarding schools sampled are shown in Table 5.7

Table 5.7 Proportion of Boarding/Day Schools sampled.

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Day Only	542	61.8
Boarding Only	131	14.9
Day and Boarding	164	18.7

34. Table 5.7 indicates that most secondary schools are non boarding and that a sizeable proportion of schools (14.9 percent) are purely boarding.

Single Sex Only /Mixed Schools

35. The sampled secondary schools were further differentiated on the basis of gender catered for i.e. boys/girls only or mixed. Most of the girls only schools are the Federal Government Girls' Colleges which are statutorily provided at least, one in each state. Other girls only or boys' only schools include schools owned by religious organizations or those established by State governments as incentives to encourage parents to send their daughters to secondary school. Table …5.8 indicates the distribution of sampled Schools by Gender.

Table 5.8 Proportion and Frequency o Distribution of Sampled Schools by Gender enrolled (Single Sex/Mixed)

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Boys Only	137	15.6
Girls Only	118	13,.5
Mixed Sex	579	66.0

36. Table 5.8 shows a higher proportion of boys only schools i.e 15.6 percent and 13.5 percents respectively for boys and girls. This could partially account for the preponderance of boys in the enrolment figures obtained from the sampled schools.

Participation and Internal efficiency at Junior Secondary Level

37. The analysis in this section presents the statistics and indictors on intake, enrolment and factors of internal efficiency at Junior Secondary School Level separately from the analysis on access and participation at Senior Secondary schools.

38. However, due to the impracticability of completely desegregating aspects of joint facilities and related issues on JS and SS classes in majority of sampled schools (86.0 percent) where JS and SS classes share the same physical and administrative structure, subsequent chapters represent the collective situation for JSS and SS levels.

To facilitate appreciation of the national picture, the following analysis presents the trend from national census data 1999 – 2003 on Junior Secondary Education which is then followed by presentation f data/statistics on the present survey.

Class Size

39. The recommended students' population in a single classroom is a maximum of 40. i.e. Teacher : Student ratio, 1:40. Overpopulated classrooms are considered to be unconducive for both teachers and students alike as the burden on teachers with regard the implementation of continuous assessment practice marking and the ability to give individualized attention to students needing extra help may be affected while students also receive reduced contact and attention from teachers. Under populated classrooms on the other hand, are not considered cost effective and may be occasioned by low internal efficiency or perceived low equality of output and outcome.

40. Table 5.9 indicates the number of the sample schools average class size and the number of students in the least and most populated classrooms by State observed from the sample survey.

Table 5.9 Class size and Number of Students in the least and most populated classrooms by State.

STATE	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	AVERAGE NO OF STUDENTS IN CLASSROOM	NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN LEAST POPULATED CLASS	NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN MOST POPULATED CLASS
ABIA	14	46	7	175
ADAMAWA	17	61	18	217
AKWA IBOM	13	48	23	100
ANAMBRA	8	63	11	101
BAUCHI	12	84	20	250
BAYELSA	13	47	15	200
BENUE	26	46	19	111
BORNO	18	55	8	300
CROSS RIVER	18	47	5	188
DELTA	23	56	7	120
EBONYI	20	59	15	284
EDO	10	36	11	77
EKITI	22	35	10	228
ENUGU	12	100	20	112
FCT	10	66	18	130
GOMBE	18	79	31	281
IMO	19	39	9	143
JIGAWA	17	64	23	150
KADUNA	16	63	18	150
KANO	13	61	29	120
KATSINA	12	68	20	145
KEBBI	10	50	24	110
KOGI	24	52	14	200
KWARA	12	45	18	150
LAGOS	18	54	17	150
NASARAWA	24	54	8	160
NIGER	20	52	20	240
OGUN	9	60	10	125
ONDO	21	39	12	150
OSUN	11	44	4	120
OYO	14	73	13	180

PLATEAU	8	48	16	150
RIVERS	7	69	40	230
SOKOTO	17	74	8	300
TARABA	18	46	10	114
YOBE	14	63	2	150
ZAMFARA	9	98	30	300
FEDERAL	29	64	12	105
NATIONAL	596	58	16	171

41. The average national class size is 58, the most populated classes have an average of 171 students while the least populated have an average number of 16 students. Cross River, Yobe, Ebonyi, Sokoto and Osun states had both extremely low populated classrooms on one hand, and extremely high populated classroom rooms on the other. This could be attributed to the observable differences in population of rural and urban schools with the low populated classrooms in rural areas.

Access and participation in Junior Secondary Schools Population of 12 years.

Table 5.10 Population of 12 year old by gender 1999 – 2002.

GENDER	1999	%	2000	%	2001	%	2002	%	2003	%
Male			1,456,710		1,516,019		1,579,062			
Female			1,415,336		1,469,520		1,516,671			
MF			2,872,042		2,985,546		3,095,729			

Source FME, Handbook of Information on Basic Education in Nigeria 2003

4.2 The distribution of 12 year olds in the population appears equitable

Junior Secondary School intake (JSS1) by Gender 1999 – 2003

Table 5.11 National Junior Secondary Schools Intake (JSS1) by Gender 1998 – 2003.

GENDER	1999	%	2000	%	2001	%	2002	%	2003	%
Male	439526	55.90	501096	55.84	599389	56.54	697937	57.00		
Female	346697	44.10	396223	44.16	460795	43.46	526542	43.00		
MF	786223	100	897319	100	1060184	100	1224479	100		

Source FME, Handbook of Information on Basic Education in Nigeria 2003

43. Although in spite of the equity in the distribution of boys and girls in the population, significantly more boys than girls have accesses to junior secondary education. Achieving equity in access to junior secondary education is therefore a challenge for policy makers.

Table 5.12 Junior Secondary School Gross Intake Ratio by Gender (GIR)

GENDER	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Male		55.90	55.84	56.54	57.00	
Female		44.10	44.16	43.46	43.00	
MF		100	100	100	100	

Source FME, Handbook of Information on Basic Education in Nigeria 2003

44. Table 5.12 indicates a consistent percentage increase in national enrolment for both boys and girls 1998 – 2003

The gross intake rate reflecting disparity in favour of boys is a consequence of the fact that access to junior secondary schools is in favour of boys.

Table 5.13 Junior Secondary School Enrolment by Gender 1998 - 2002

GENDER	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Male		1274006	1419033	1626261	1986460	
Female		1011986	1118121	1278844	1488440	
MF		2285992	2537154	2905105	3474900	

Source FME, Handbook of Information on Basic Education in Nigeria 2003

Table 5.14 Projected Population of Children Aged 12 – 14 years Old 1998 – 2003 by Gender

GENDER	2000	%	2001	%	2002	%	2003	%
Male	4,206,203		4,364,600		4,536,905			
Female	4,092,659		4,236,853		4,365,723			
MF	**6,298,861**		6,601,451		8,902,627			

Source FME, Handbook of Information on Basic Education in Nigeria 2003

45. The distribution of boys and girls in the 12 – 14 years old range is as shown in table 5.14 quite equitable.

Table 5.15 Junior Secondary School Gross National Enrolment 1998 – 2003 by Gender

GENDER	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
MF		100	100	100	100	
Male		55.73	55.93	55.98	57.17	
Female		44.27	44.07	44.02	42.83	

Source FME, Handbook of Information on Basic Education in Nigeria 2003

The aggregation of national Gross enrolment figure does not actually reflect the prevailing difference in access and participation by State for which there are significant variations. For a more detailed analysis of enrolment, the national enrolment at junior secondary level (2003) is disaggregated by State as shown Table 5.16.

Table 5.16 National Enrolment by Class, Gender and Percentage Females in Junior Secondary Schools 2003

STATE	*No of Schools*	JS1				JS 2				JS3			
		MF	M	F	F%	MF	M	F	F%	MF	M	F	F%
ABIA	276	29,600	13,459	16,141	54.53	27,855	12,681	15,174	54.47	24,436	10,958	13,478	55.16
ADAMAWA	137	26,599	16,759	9,840	36.99	25,882	16,034	9,848	38.05	20,436	12,687	7,749	37.92
AKWA IBOM	292	41,421	19,623	21,798	52.63	36,165	16,867	19,298	53.36	34,296	16,401	17,895	52.18
ANAMBRA	198	15,754	7,379	8,375	53.16	14,645	6,800	8,009	54.69	14,361	6,496	7,981	55.57
BAUCHI	102	23,756	15,887	7,869	33.12	20,848	14,630	6,218	29.83	17,869	11,681	6,188	34.63
BAYELSA	142	8,440	4,622	3,818	45.18	8,105	4,350	3,755	43.33	7,958	4,392	3,566	44.81
BENUE	331	39,257	22,927	16,330	41.59	38,043	22,425	15,618	41.05	37,199	22,393	14,809	39.81
BORNO	106	18,119	11,990	6,129	33.93	17,290	11,397	5,893	34.08	16,415	10,872	5,543	37.77
CROSS RIVER	242	22,423	11,569	10,854	48.41	21,972	11,503	10,469	47.65	22,786	12,063	10,723	47.05
DELTA	493	42,329	22,228	20,101	47.49	43,163	23,140	20,023	46.39	43,402	23,172	20,230	46.61
EBONYI	164	37,821	17,994	19,827	52.42	38,001	18,607	19,394	51.04	34,164	17,184	16,980	49.70
EDO	651	47,472	24,443	23,029	48.51	46,772	23,773	22,999	49.17	46,909	24,335	22,574	48.12
EKITI	123	11,490	6,022	5,468	47.59	11,413	5,991	5,422	47.51	10,737	5,593	5,144	47.91
ENUGU	230	29,390	13,155	16,235	55.24	31,673	13,660	18,013	56.87	33,191	14,675	18,516	54.59
FCT	59	13,918	7,337	6,581	48.28	14,020	7,391	6,629	47.28	11,274	5,694	5,580	49.49
GOMBE	96	50,622	29,526	21,096	41.67	49,050	29,111	19,939	40.65	45,492	26,797	18,695	41.09
IMO	366	30,757	14,672	16,085	57.29	31,805	15,030	16,775	5274	33,225	15,490	17,735	53.38
JIGAWA	135	23,084	18,990	4,094	17.74	18,429	14,859	3,570	19.37	13,275	10,330	2,945	22.18
KADUNA	332	55,574	33,397	22,177	39.91	51,362	31,324	20,038	39.01	46,283	28,173	18,110	39.13
KANO	303	49,244	33,317	16,441	33.39	41,762	29,366	12,709	30.43	34,280	25,530	11,033	32.18
KATSINA	152	25,564	20,067	5,497	21.50	24,547	19,797	4,750	19.35	21,899	16,493	5,406	24.67
KEBBI	73	30,167	24,715	6,993	23.81	29,933	23,346	6,587	22.01	24,229	19,175	5,630	23.24
KOGI	227	26,600	14,742	12,223	45.95	27,463	15,169	12,504	45.52	26,899	14,544	12,567	46.72
KWARA	209	21,245	11,890	9,355	44.03	21,578	11,933	9,645	44.69	18,907	10,681	8,283	43.81
LAGOS	650	112,698	55,990	56,708	50.32	122,355	61,128	61,227	50.04	112,310	55,973	56,373	50.19
NASARAWA	232	26,726	17,072	9,834	36.79	26,425	16,236	10,312	39.02	24,612	16,221	8,391	35.09
NIGER	163	27,668	19,535	8,133	29.39	27,510	19,734	7,776	28.27	19,836	14,119	5,717	29.49

OGUN	353	59,689	30,730	28,959	48.52	56,101	29,468	26,633	52.53	47,776	24,774	23,002	48.15
ONDO	284	34,222	17,621	16,601	48.51	32,431	16,733	15,698	48.40	28,554	14,860	13,694	47.56
OSUN	239	23,734	12,575	11,159	47.01	20,635	10,955	9,680	46.91	23,643	12,536	11,107	46.98
OYO	448	79,438	40,987	38,451	48.40	79,028	40,878	38,150	48.27	68,656	35,436	33,220	48.39
PLATEAU	393	39,745	23,192	16,553	41.65	36,484	21,074	15,410	42.24	34,033	19,690	14,343	42.14
RIVERS	216	33,151	16,452	16,699	50.37	39,225	17,840	21,385	54.52	38,908	17,553	21,355	54.89
SOKOTO	75	17,938	13,568	4,370	24.36	15,068	11,251	3,817	25.33	14,805	11,619	3,186	21.52
TARABA	64	10,004	6,587	3,417	34.16	9,993	6,655	3,338	33.40	8,632	5,818	2,814	32.59
YOBE	43	19,973	13,591	6,382	31.95	16,392	10,886	5,506	33.59	15,010	10,069	4,941	32.92
ZAMFARA	49	15,480	13,327	2,914	18.82	13,366	12,109	2,064	15.44	11,471	9,951	2,120	18.48
NATIONAL	8,648	1,221,112`	69,937	526,542	43.12	1186789	674,131	514,275	43.33	108816 8	614,392	447,623	41.14

Source: School Census FME/UBE (2003)

Junior Secondary School intake (JSS1) by Gender 1999 – 2003

Table 5.17: Intake into Sample Junior Secondary Schools (JSS1) by Gender in Sampled Schools 1998 – 2003. (ESA)

GENDER	1998	%	1999	%	2000	%	2001	%	2002	%	2003	%
Male	45246	54.91	59268	59.46	60357	55.96	71652	58.73	71487	58.19	70842	57.67
Female	37153	45.09	40404	40.54	47499	44.04	50350	41.27	51358	41.81	52007	42.33
MF	82399		99672	100	107856	100	122002	100	122845	100	122849	100

Table 5.18: Total Enrolment by Gender in Sampled Junior Secondary Schools 1998 - 2003

GEMDER	1998	%	1999	%	2000	%	2001	%	2002	%	2003	%
Male	135780	56.46	159084	57.91	165415	55.88	187164	56.87	201585	57.34	208968	57.73
Female	104729	43.54	115625	42.09	130584	44.12	141920	43.13	149951	42.66	153010	42.27
MF	240509	100	274709	100	295999	100	329084	100	351536	100	361978	100

Table 5.19: Enrolment by Gender in Sampled Junior Secondary Schools by Class and Gender 1998 - 2003

	1998		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
CLASS	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
JS1	82,399	45.09	99,672	40.53	107,856	44.03	122,002	41.27	122,845	41.81	122849	42.33
JS2	82,465	42.81	93,444	42.53	99,204	43.34	108,707	43.18	123,401	42.06	122876	42.63
JS3	75,645	42.66	81,593	43.50	88,939	45.07	98,375	45.37	105,290	44.35	116253	41.82
TOTAL JS1 - JS3												

46. Statistics on enrolment by state and gender in table 5.16 shows some measure of parity with very slight differences in the proportion of males and females. Ekiti, lagos, Ogun, Osun, Oyo, Edo, Delta, Cross River states and the FCT are approaching parity in the enrolment

47. Fifteen out of the 19 Northern States have female participation rate below the national average of 41.14 percent. Amongst the Northern States; Zamfara, Katsina, Sokoto, Kebbi, Jigawa and Niger have female participation rate below 30 percent indicating that there is a clear disparity in enrolment (JS1 – JSIII) in favour of boys. Amongst all of the South Eastern States, Abia, Anambra, Imo Ebonyi, and Enugu as well as Rivers and Akwa Ibom, in the South-South, disparity in enrolment in junior secondary clases is in favour of girls. This confirms the existence of the phenomenon of boys' dropout largely in the South Eastern Sates, a factor that has been attributed to opportunity costs.

Senior Secondary School

48. In the following analysis of access and participation, existing data on national school census is presented to provide a picture of trends in enrolment based on the entire population of senior secondary students. This is subsequently followed with the presentation of findings on the present sample survey.

Table 5.20 National Senior Secondary School Intake into (SS1) by Gender 1998 – 2003

GENDER	1998	%	1999	%	2000	%	2001	%	2002	%
Male	46,579	62.75	356704	53.99	398424	54.86	456679	55.74	558398	55.91
Female	27,652	37.25	304006	46.01	327813	45.14	362603	44.26	440287	44.09
MF	74231	100	660710	100	726237	100	819282	100	998685	100

Source FME/UBE School Census (2003)

49. As with the Junior Secondary Schools there is as shown on table 5.21 observed disparity in intake into senior secondary schools in favour of boys

Table 5.21 Senior Secondary School Intake Rate by Gender 1999 – 2003

GENDER	1998	%	1999	%	2000	%	2001	%	2002	%
Male	46,579	62.75	42,404	58.08	45,516	56.42	50,055	57.19	55,547	56.56
Female	27,652	37.25	30,608	41.92	35,155	43.58	37,468	42.81	42,660	43.44
MF	74231		73,012		80,671		87,523		98,207	

Table 5.22 National Enrolment by Gender in Senior Secondary Schools 1998 - 2003

GEMDER	1998	%	1999	%	2000	%	2001	%	2002	%	2003	%
Male	118815	59.35	119697	57.56	128782	56.17	139048	57.05	150366	56.58	152898	57.23
Female	81383	40.65	88245	42.44	100490	43.83	104687	42.95	115393	43.42	114272	42.77
MF	200198		207942		229272		243735		265759		267170	

50. Table 5.22 confirms that consistently more boys than girls have enrolled in senior secondary schools (1998 – 2003). However there was consistent increase in enrolment for both boys and girls up to 2001. In 2002, the proportion of girls' enrolment increased relative to boys in 2003.

51. The sample drawn for the ESA study reiterates the same trend as in the observed national statistics, confirming that consistently more males than females are enrolled nationwide in senior secondary schools nationwide.

Population of 15 year olds

Table 5.23 indicates the population of 15 year olds 1998 – 2002.

Table 5.23 Population of 15 years old by Gender 1998 - 2002

GENDER	2000	%	2001	%	2002	%
Male	1,299,075	50.60	1,344,916	50.66	1,390,557	50.89
Female	1,268,149	49.40	1,309,704	49.34	1,341,686	49.11
MF	2,567,223	100	2,654,620	100	2,732,243	100

Source FME, Handbook of Information on Basic Education in Nigeria 2003

Intake and Participation in sampled schools

Table 5.24 Enrolment by Class and Gender in Sampled Senior Secondary Schools 1998 - 2003

CLASS	1998		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
SS1	74,228	37.27	73,012	41.92	80,671	43.58	87,523	42.78	98,207	43.44	100,701	42.68
SS2	65,732	40.54	70,601	42.33	75,537	44.38	81,992	42.91	87,282	44.19	88,579	42.52
SS3	60,238	44.96	64,329	43.14	73,064	56.46	74,220	43.17	80,270	42.56	77,890	43.18
TOTAL SS1 – SS3												

SOURCE: FME/UBE 2003 SCHOOL CENSUS

52. Table 5.24 indicates a steady increase in total enrolment in Senior Secondary schools 1999 – 2003. It confirms as would be expected from intake by gender that more boys than girls are enrolled at senior secondary level 2003. Enrolment by class in sampled junior secondary indicates a consistent increase in enrolment over the period 1998 – 2003 and that within each year more students are enrolled in SS1 than in SS2 for which enrolment is also consistently higher than for SS3 for the same year.

53. The trend in total intake into SS1, shows consistently more males than females for the period 1998 – 2002, indicating gender disparity in favour of boys. Since there is only very little difference (about 50.8; and 49.20 for 2002) in the population of boys and girls in the 15 years age group, the difference in percentage of total intake by gender is attributable to difference in access which is to the disadvantage of females.

Gross Intake Rate (GIR)

Table 5.25 indicates the Senior Secondary School Gross Intake Rate by Gender 1999 – 2002.

Table 5.25: Senior Secondary School Gross Intake Rate (GIR) by Gender 1998–2002.

GENDER	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Male		53.99	54.86	55.74	55.91
Female		46.01	45.14	44.26	44.09
MF		100	100	100	100

Source FME, Handbook of Information on Basic Education in Nigeria 2003

54. Table 5.25 shows the generally low access into Senior Secondary School for both boys and girls although the gross intake rate for boys is consistently higher than the gross intake rate for girls. However the trend 1999 – 2000 indicates gradual but consistent increase in the gross intake rates for both boys and girls, 23.8% to 28.8%. In spite of this, the bulk of 15 year olds do not have access to secondary education even though a certain proportion of 15 year olds have also enrolled in technical vocational schools. However, the total population of students enrolled in technical, vocational institutions is also generally low, further underscoring the need to mobilize access into senior secondary school. This is sine qua-non to the development of high level manpower to drive the country's development agenda.

Enrolment

55. Table 5.26 indicates the national enrolment by gender in secondary schools 1998 – 2002 while table 3.27 shows the gross enrolment rate for the same period.

Table 5.26: Senior Secondary School Enrolment by Gender (national) 1998 – 2002

GENDER	1998	%	1999	%	2000	%	2001	%	2002	%
Male			1005848	54.66	1113641	54.97	1259857	55.63	1483804	56.06
Female			834349	45.34	912378	45.03	1004872	44.37	1163011	43.94
MF			1840197	100	2026019		2264729		2646815	100

Source FME, Handbook of Information on Basic Education in Nigeria 2003

56. As with intake, consistently more males than females are enrolled in Senior Secondary Schools between 1998 - 2002. However, enrolment increased gradually but consistently for both sexes during this period.

57. In Table 5.26 the trend in total enrolment by gender from the data generated from sampled schools in the present survey is presented.

Population of 15 – 17 year olds by Gender

Table 5.27 indicates the population of 15 - 17 years olds by Gender 2000 – 2002.

Table 5.27: Population of 15 - 17 years old by Gender 2000 - 2002

GENDER	2000	2001	2002
Male	3,753,776	3,885,211	4,018,323
Female	3,671,262	3,792,173	3,878,186
MF	7,425,036	7,677,381	7,896,509

Table 5.28: Senior Secondary Schools Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) by Gender 1998– 2002

GENDER	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Male		54.66	54.97	55.63	56.06
Female		45.34	45.03	44.37	43.94
MF		100	100	100	100

Source FME, Handbook of Information on Basic Education in Nigeria 2003

58. The gross enrolment ratio reflects the generally low participation by boys and girls in Senior Secondary Education. However the gross enrolment rate for both boys and girls increased gradually but consistently for this period

The increase must not only be sustained but accelerated towards meeting developmental objectives that depend on the caliber of potential manpower. This can only be achieved and sustained through an informed subsector strategy plan as in the case of Tanzania.

Table 5.29 National Enrolment by State, Class, Gender and Percentage Female in Senior Secondary Schools by State 2003

STATE	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	SSI				SS2				SS3			
		MF	M	F	F%	MF	M	F	F%	MF	M	F	F%
ABIA	276	21,394	9,442	11,952	55.87	20,674	8,864	11,990	57.56	17,976	8,404	9,572	53.25
ADAMAWA	137	20,102	12,626	7,476	37.19	17,901	11,295	6,606	36.90	13,557	8,753	4,804	35.44
AKWA IBOM	292	30,633	14,704	15,929	51.99	26,918	12,942	13,976	51.92	19,612	14,403	15,216	77.89
ANAMBRA	198	13,754	6,021	7,754	56.38	11,294	4,782	6,523	57.76	7,797	3,508	4,289	55.01
BAUCHI	102	14,685	9,863	4,822	32.84	12863	8,650	4211	32.78	10440	6934	3506	33.58
BAYELSA	142	6975	4027	2948	42.78	5433	3184	2249	42.78	10823	6162	4661	43.07
BENUE	331	32902	20198	12704	38.61	29073	18299	10774	37.06	26835	16340	9495	35.38
BORNO	106	14875	9609	5266	55.57	13968	9187	4781	34.23	12733	8525	4208	33.05
CROSS RIVER	242	19148	10315	8833	46.13	16424	8846	7578	46.14	21876	11173	10703	48.93
DELTA	493	38867	20131	18736	48.21	34284	17757	16527	48.21	29852	15663	14189	47.53
EBONYI	164	32041	16367	15674	48.92	22455	11295	11160	49.69	15583	8191	7392	47.44
EDO	651	43158	22208	20950	48.54	38121	20391	17760	46.59	45140	24756	20384	45.16
EKITI	123	11459	5829	5630	49.13	11966	6134	5832	48.74	10245	5340	4906	47.89
ENUGU	230	25632	10844	15788	61.59	23066	9308	13758	59365	72100	10458	14215	19.72
FCT	59	10560	5381	5179	4904	9029	4564	4465	49.45	6540	3212	3328	50.89
GOMBE	96	22901	14892	8209	35.85	19601	11960	7641	38.98	16460	10064	6396	38.86
IMO	366	32015	14866	17149	53.67	29699	13348	16351	55.06	36257	16517	19740	54.44
JIGAWA	135	8185	6523	2041	24.94	6796	5224	1572	27.12	5439	4311	1128	20.74
KADUNA	332	36255	22097	14158	39.05	32273	19384	12889	3994	27955	16871	11084	36.65
KANO	303	28602	21074	8614	30.12	26004	19214	7499	28.84	22671	16406	6733	29.69
KATSINA	152	17434	12748	4686	26.88	14034	10979	3055	21.77	11491	8684	2807	24.43
KEBBI	73	7432	5913	1749	23.53	5821	4999	944	16.22	5480	4359	1365	24.91
KOGI	227	23040	13266	10338	44.87	21322	12225	9277	43.51	19575	11172	8592	43.89
KWARA	209	19428	11129	8299	42.72	17606	10236	7370	41.86	19404	10938	8626	44.45
LAGOS	650	129655	65751	63904	49.29	113499	57730	55769	49.14	85540	42690	42850	50.09
NASARAWA	232	17297	10935	6362	36.78	15119	9945	5173	34.22	14362	9706	4713	32.82

NIGER	163	20683	15349	5334	25.79	20368	15184	5184	25.45	14722	10871	3848	26.14
OGUN	353	49049	25932	23324	47.55	41725	22585	19140	45.87	35285	18514	16771	47.53
ONDO	284	31219	16729	14490	46.41	28419	15380	13111	46.13	18730	10243	8487	45.31
OSUN	239	27948	15097	12851	45.98	23104	12541	10563	45.72	22219	11940	10279	46.26
OYO	448	77615	42141	35474	45.71	67092	35583	31509	46.96	46794	25113	21681	46.33
PLATEAU	393	25686	14763	10923	42.53	21137	12516	8621	40.79	18281	10711	7570	41.41
RIVERS	216	39468	18029	21440	54.32	40574	19328	21476	52.93	33932	16674	17310	51.01
SOKOTO	75	11685	8945	2740	44.87	10285	7875	2410	23.43	7604	5814	1790	23.54
TARABA	64	6647	4492	2155	32.42	5757	3968	1789	31.08	4441	3015	1426	32.11
YOBE	43	15768	11256	4512	28.61	13533	10071	3462	25.58	13039	10364	2675	20.52
ZAMFARA	49	10469	9116	1894	18.09	8430	7103	1627	19.30	6765	5997	1353	20.0
NATIONAL	8,648	995657	558398	440287	44.22	875739	492667	384624	43.92	769136	432739	338100	43.96

Source: FME/ UBE School Census (2003)

59. Table 5.29 gives the trend across the senior classes, that is the total enrolment by gender per class in the sampled schools which is subsequently considered against the total national enrolment by gender observed from national school census data as presented in Table 5.30.

Table 5.30: Total enrolment by Gender

GENDER	1998	%	1999	%	2000	%	2001	%	2002	%	2003	%
Male	118,756	60.50	129609	59.48	138615	58.40	150169	58.66	167147	59.71	181852	62.02
Female	7749	39.50	87183	40.22	98723	41.60	105823	41.34	112780	40.29	111348	37.98
MF	196205	100	216792	100	237338	100	255990	100	279922	100	293200	100

60. Table 5.30 confirms as with the national enrolment that the proportion of boys enrolled in senior secondary schools l(1998 – 2003) was consistently higher than the proportion of girls enrolled i.e. 56.06:43.94 national (2002) compared with 59.71:40.29 (sample). Although there was gradual but consistent increase in total enrolment for boys and girls respectively 1998 – 2002, the percentage increase in enrolment for boys was higher than that for girls. In 2003, however although the proportion of total enrolment for boys continued to rise, there was a decrease in total enrolment for girls in the sampled schools compared with the previous year (2002). This further underscores the need to redress the problem of access and participation of girls.

QUALITY AND EFFICIENCY ISSUES

Curriculum and Curriculum Delivery

61. The quality of the Curriculum with regard to scope and coverage, conceptual demand, relevancy, recency etc as well as the effectiveness of curriculum delivery are important valuable in determining the learning output and outcome. The analysis in this context was undertaken from data generated from principals, teachers and students on various critical issues on curriculum and curriculum delivery.

Availability

62. The availability of curriculum, syllabuses, schemes of work and teacher guides as indicated by Principal is shown on table 5.1.

Table 5.31 Availability of Curriculum and Related Facilities

Curricular	Available and Adequate		Available but not Adequate		Not Available	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Curriculum Modules	237	27.0	384	43.9	108	12.3
Syllabuses	426	48.6	262	29.8	33	3.8
Schemes of Work	520	59.5	162	18.5	29	3.3
Teachers Guides/Textbooks	217	24.8	384	43.9	108	12.3

Though it is generally assured that Curriculum guideline, Syllabuses and Teachers guides, are necessarily available in schools, the reality is that of complete lack and inadequacy as indicated in table 5.31, a situation which needs to be urgently addressed.

Curricular Content

63. The analysis of curricular content was undertaken on the basis of questionnaire administered on 868 randomly selected secondary school teachers in the sampled school to evaluate the existing school curriculum. Table 5.32.shows the responses by various teachers on aspects of curriculum relevance.

Table 5.32. Frequency and Percentage of teachers' responses on Curriculum relevance

Curricular Aspect	Very True	True	Total Very and True	Not true
Objectives reflect the ability and needs of learners	253 (20.8%)	678 (55.8%)	76.6%	187 (15.4%)
Objectives reflect cultural relevance and societal needs	174 (14.3%)	566 (46.6%)	60.9%	31.7%

64. Table 5.32 indicates that the majority of sampled secondary school teachers consider (76.6 percent) the existing curriculum as reflecting the ability and needs of learners while fewer, although still in the majority (60.9 percent) thought that the curriculum reflects cultural relevance and societal needs. The proportion of teachers who expressed a contrary opinion with regard to adequacy of the curriculum in reflecting cultural relevance and societal needs (31.7%) is significant to warrant review of the curricular content in terms of cultural/societal relevance. Table 5.3 indicates responses on other characteristics/aspects of the curriculum.

Table 5.33: Frequency and Percentage of Responses on other Aspects of the Curriculum

Curricular Aspect	Very True	True	Total Very and True	Not true
Curriculum does not equip learners with sustainable skills	163 (13.4%)	218 (17.9%)	31.3%	338 (27.8%)
Curricular content is comprehensive and realistic	119 (13.9%)	664 (54.7%)	68.6%	299 (24.6%)
Adequate time for each school subject	197 (16.2%)	557 (45.8%)	62.0%	373 (30.7%)
Suggested implementation Strategies Appropriate and Useful	242 (19.9%)	628 (51.7%)	71.6%	206 (17.0%)

65. The majority of Teachers are generally in agreement over the quality and effectiveness of existing curriculum on various issues evaluated and consider the time allocation for the dissemination of specific subjects as adequate. However in view of the magnitude of the proportion of teachers who hold contrary opinion, a curriculum review should take into cognizance various perceived aspects that need to be improved to effectiveness. In our regard, there is need to carry out analysis of observation of classroom interactions.

Curriculum delivery/Methodology

66. The methodology adopted by teachers in lesson delivery is predicated on the subject and the topic in question. The appropriateness of a topic however depends on teachers proficiency. Whereas at one extreme, most topics in Science, technology and vocational subjects are best imparted through practical and active students involvement, at the other extreme are topics in English/Literature such as comprehension and poetry, which are best imbibed through reading, recitation, repetition etc. The various methods applied by the sampled teachers are categorizable into three main categories: however, the classes are not entirely mutually exclusive.

Textbooks and Library

67. Textbooks enhance the quality of teaching and provide the basis from which teachers derive facts to substantiate the concepts taught. In the absence of textbooks teaching would be based largely on teacher's residual knowledge which could be limited and lack up-to-dateness. Only 386 (34.6 percent) of the 1,115 teachers sampled on an Analysis of quality assurance in schools had all the recommended textbooks for the subjects taught. Majority of the teachers (60.9 percent) did not have. However, more than 50 percent of the teachers (59.20 percent) were consulted in making recommendations for textbooks to be selected, a practice which should be adopted by every school. Inspite of the non-involvement of a significant proportion of teachers in the selection of textbooks, most teachers (87.2 percent) agreed that the recommended textbooks for their subjects are quite appropriate. Textbook pupil ratio ranged from 1:1 to as high as 1:50 in almost all subjects both core and elective. Inspite of the inadequacy of textbooks, only 25.0 percent of the sampled schools had libraries, but only 62.4 percent of teachers reported having access to the school libraries. Most of the teachers (63.3 percent) who had access to library also reported that the books available in existing libraries were not adequate for both students and staff need.

68. Apart from textbooks and Library, other facilities and materials are also important to promoting effective teaching and learning. Table 5.34 indicates the availability and adequacy of some of these facilities.
Table 5.34 indicates the various methods adopted by proportions of teachers in lesson delivery.

Table 5.34 Proportion of Teachers indicating various partially interactive method adopted in lesson delivery

TEACHING METHOD	VERY OFTEN		OFTEN		OCCASIONALLY		RARELY		NEVER	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Dramatization/Story telling	62	12.2	14	27.6	87	17.1	40	7.8	51	10.0
Songs	34	6.7	55	10.8	91	17.8	86	16.9	109	21.4
Project Method/Assignment	24	4.7	74	14.5	99	19.4	108	21.2	24	4.7
Role Playing	9	1.8	80	15.7	29	5.7	110	21.6	51	10.0

69. The appropriateness of methodologies that are partially interactive as with other methods also depends on the demands of specific topics and present preferable options to methods that are exclusively non-interactive when a teacher needs to make a choice. The methods used by teachers that were subsequently classified as non-interactive are indicated on Table 5.35.

Table 5.35. Proportion of Teachers who indicated various Non-Interactive methods adopted in Lesson delivery

TEACHING METHOD	VERY OFTEN		OFTEN		OCCASIONALLY		RARELY		NEVER	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Repetition/Role Leasing	100	19.6	84	16.5	72	17.1	67	13.1	73	14.3
Lecture Method	10	2.0	37	7.3	103	20.2	42	8.2	109	21.4
Reading	5	1.0	40	7.8	86	16.9	20	3.9	19	3.7
Recitation	16	3.1	36	7.1	22	4.3	57	11.2	23	4.5

70. Although methods such as the lecture method allow for active involvement of learners, and may be appropriate for particular topics, teachers should try to facilitate understanding by using such teaching aids as maps, diagrams and other visual aids. Lecture and related methods should advisably be employed when the teacher is not conversant with other alternative.

Table 5.36 Proportion of teachers indicating various Interactive methods applied in Lesson delivery

TEACHING METHOD	VERY OFTEN		OFTEN		OCCASIONALLY		RARELY		NEVER	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Demonstration/use of teaching aids/real objects	153	30.0	167	32.7	46	9.0	38	7.5	8	1.6
Questions and answer method	106	20.8	184	36.1	30	5.9	32	6.3	0	0.0
Practical	38	7.5	135	26.5	94	18.4	43	8.4	48	9.4
Play	45	8.8	70	13.7	95	18.6	69	13.5	75	14.7
Individual instruction	129	25.3	74	14.5	77	15.1	52	10.2	11	2.2
Discussion/explanation	98	19.2	149	29.2	61	12.0	18	3.5	12	2.4
Discovery Methods/Excursion	11	2.2	35	6.9	89	17.5	153	30.0	41	8.0
Group Method	6	1.2	32	6.3	166	32.5	41	8.0	65	12.7

71. Interactive methods are generally preferable for all types of lesson delivery, as they allow for active students involvement and are therefore preferable where a teacher has an option. Table 5.36 indicates the various partially interactive methods adapted by proportions of teachers.

Distance to School

72. The distance students have to travel to get to school particularly when this is not made out of choice, affects attendance and timeliness in getting to school. This is not uncommon in rural localities where there is severe dearth of transport facilitates and students are required to trek to and from school daily. The proportion of students who have to travel varying distances to get to school daily is indicated on 5.37.

Table 5.37: Proportion of Principals indicating varying Distances students have to travel to get to school.

Distance to School	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 1 km	127	14.5
1 – 2 km	142	16.2
3 – 4 km	174	19.8
More than 4 km	229	26.1
Don't Know	37	4.2

Table 5.38: Proportion of students who have to travel Varying Length of time to get to school

Length of Time	Frequency	Percent
Less than 10 minutes	2314	30.3
Between 10 – 20 minutes	1806	23.6
Between 20 – 30 minutes	1450	19.6
Between 30 – 60 minutes	680	8.9
Over 1 hour	562	7.3

73. Although most of the students (over 80 percent) travel less than 30 minutes to get to school, those who have to travel over one hour to get to school either by virtue of distance or volume of traffic are also more likely to arrive at school late. This could affect the quantum of their participation in lessons scheduled for first and second periods which are generally one of the core subjects including Mathematics and English Language.

74. Apart from distance, various other factors constrain students' attendance and participation. Data from a student's questionnaire administered in a related study on 7,647 junior and senior secondary school students showed that 55.7 percent males and 44.3 percent females, on the regularity of attendance 82.8 percent of students claimed they attended school regularly while 8.7 percent were not generally regular to school. The major constrains on attendance was ill health 23.34 percent followed by financial problems (13.6%), Parents ill health (10.44 percent) and household chores. Some 3.3 percent have to look after younger siblings while others were engaged on the farm (2.7 percent), Market days/trading (2.3 percent) or on ceremonial days (1.3 percent). Others attributed irregular attendance to inclement weather (2.5 percent) or to difficult terrain (1.1 percent). Interestingly, the lack of transportation was not implicated in irregular attendance.

Capacity Utilization

75. Capacity utilization as a measure of efficiency depends on a number of factors. These include the population of school aged children in the school catchment communities, drop-out rate, perception of quality of curriculum delivery by possible clientele in the face of competing schools as well as on the usability or conduciveness of available infrastructural facilities. Table 3.33. indicates the proportion of used and unused classrooms in the sampled schools by State.

Table 5.40: Proportion of Used and Unused Classrooms in Sampled Schools by State.

STATE	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS	TOTAL CLASSROOMS	NO IN USE	NO NOT IN USE	PROPORTION NOT IN USE
ABIA	**16**	**276**	**214**	**62**	**0.22**
ADAMAWA	**21**	**345**	**312**	**33**	**0.10**
AKWA IBOM	14	**192**	**177**	**15**	**0.08**
ANAMBRA	**10**	**139**	**114**	**25**	**0.18**
BAUCHI	**12**	**303**	**202**	**101**	**0.33**
BAYELSA	**15**	**158**	**107**	**49**	**0.31**
BENUE	**28**	**391**	**371**	**20**	**0.05**
BORNO	**21**	**539**	**357**	**182**	**0.34**
CROSS RIVER	**22**	**262**	**231**	**31**	**0.12**
DELTA	**28**	**1,716**	**368**	**1,348**	**0.79**
EBONYI	**24**	**420**	**361**	**59**	**0.14**
EDO	**13**	**148**	**100**	**48**	**0.32**
EKITI	**25**	**1,162**	**385**	**777**	**0.67**
ENUGU	**13**	**214**	**202**	**12**	**0.06**
FCT	**12**	**315**	**287**	**28**	**0.09**
GOMBE	**23**	**391**	**343**	**48**	**0.12**
IMO	**24**	**550**	**306**	**244**	**0.44**
JIGAWA	**18**	**276**	**238**	**38**	**0.14**
KADUNA	**17**	**301**	**279**	**22**	**0.7**
KANO	**13**	**370**	**344**	**26**	**0.07**
KATSINA	**14**	**271**	**240**	**31**	**0.11**
KEBBI	**14**	**322**	**300**	**22**	**0.07**
KOGI	**25**	**356**	**335**	**21**	**0.06**
KWARA	**22**	**134**	**116**	**18**	**0.13**
LAGOS	**15**	**912**	**333**	**579**	**0.63**
NASARAWA	**28**	**282**	**242**	**40**	**0.14**
NIGER	**24**	**420**	**366**	**54**	**0.13**
OGUN	**11**	**246**	**201**	**45**	**0.18**
ONDO	**23**	**391**	**328**	**33**	**0.03**
OSUN	**14**	**164**	**133**	**31**	**0.19**
OYO	**19**	**1,074**	**289**	**785**	**0.73**
PLATEAU	**11**	**324**	**296**	**28**	**0.09**
RIVERS	**10**	**142**	**101**	**41**	**0.29**
SOKOTO	**19**	**345**	**306**	**39**	**0.11**
TARABA	**19**	**403**	**257**	**146**	**0.36**
YOBE	**15**	**338**	**306**	**32**	**0.09**
ZAMFARA	**12**	**186**	**172**	**14**	**0.08**
FEDERAL	**35**	**1,041**	**969**	**72**	**0.07**
NATIONAL	**699**	**15,817**	**10,618**	**5,199**	

76. States with extreme low capacity utilization are Delta, Ekiti, Oyo and Lagos. In most instances where underutilization was further investigated situation was found large in rural schools with very low enrolment.

77. Table 5.41 indicate the various reasons for underutilization of capacity in the proportion of schools where this was the case.

Table 5.41 Reasons for Underutilization of School Capacity

Reasons for Underutilization	Frequency	Percentage
School lacks facilities	490	55.8
Parents not interested in Children education	262	29.9
Drop in Catchments Population	161	18.20
School too far from Catchments Areas	72	8.20
Difficult Terrain	62	7.10
High Drop-out Rate	60	6.8

78. Table 5.41 shows that the major reason for underutilization of school capacity is the lack of facilities in schools. The reality is that given a choice parents would prefer to send their children to schools that are generally more conducive and student friendly. Where a parent can afford it, the preference is for private schools which are rapidly springing up in many highly urbanized states. Since under utilization of capacity is indicative of wastage it is necessary to identify the pervasiveness of this phenomenon with a view to reducing the number of schools by merger as this would reduce administrative costs.

Internal Efficiency

79. Internal efficiency includes factors related to students flow in a system such as magnitude of repeaters, dropout, promotion, and completion. Table 3.31 indicates data generated from the sampled schools on these variables.

(i) Repeaters

The magnitude of repeaters within a system is a measure of effectiveness of pupils' efficiency at the education system

Table 5.42 Trend in Number of Repeaters by Gender in Sampled Junior Secondary School Schools 1988 – 2003

	1998		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
CLASS	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
JS1	4,829	39.12	5,166	38.02	5,900	41.19	6,396	41.10	6,869	44.18	4,326	38.79
JS2	5,661	41.65	5,732	40.33	6,855	42.47	8,176	4326	8,140	43.59	5,331	40.48
JS3	3,532	36.95	4,160	33.39	4,118	38.61	4,603	36.87	4,888	37.79	3,674	33.99
TOTAL JS1 - JS3	14,022		15,058		16,873		19,175		19,897		13,331	

Table 5.43: Trend in Number of Repeaters by Gender in Sampled Senior Secondary School Schools 1988 – 2003

	1998		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
CLASS	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
SS1	3,44	4.02	4,406	39.69	4,874	41.63	6,259	41.68	7,214	37.65	5,257	39.87
SS2	3,98	38.64	4,152	39.38	4,910	39.12	5,770	39.53	6,353	39.89	4,467	39.11
SS3	1,61	30.25	2,128	34.45	7,278	31.92	3,227	37.56	4,305	35.49	3,009	37.72
TOTAL SS1 - SS3	8,803		10,686		48,132		15,256		17,228		12,733	

80. Table 5.43 indicates that the number of repeaters is lowest in SS3 class and there were consistently more male than female repeaters in sampled schools between 1998 to 2003. According, to prevailing policy, principals are not officially allowed to re-admit students into SS3 classes which is contrary to the observation on table 5.43. Since the reality is that students actually repeat SS3 class, it is necessary to carry out an analysis of unit cost of secondary education.

(ii) Dropouts

81. The magnitude of dropouts within a system is a measure of internal efficiency. A high drop out rate portrays low internal efficiency. The trend in number of student drop outs from the sample school (2000 to 2003) is represented on Table 5.43 and Table 5.44..

Table 5.43: Trend in Number of Students who Dropped out of the Sampled Junior Secondary Schools 1998 - 2003

	1998		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
CLASS	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
JS1	1,461	39.07	1,589	38.22	1,932	39.98	1,669	37.30	1,654	32.88	1,095	39.88
JS2	1,278	34.18	1,373	33.03	1,708	35.35	1,621	36.23	1,974	39.24	647	23.56
JS3	1,006	26.91	1,195	28.75	1,192	24.67	1,184	26.46	1,408	27.99	1,004	36.56
TOTAL JS1 - JS3	3,739		4,157		4,832		4,474		5,031		2746	

82. Except of the dramatic reduction in year 2003, there was a generally missing number o dropout between 1998 and 2003. In all the years under study, female dropout ws highest among new entrants (JS1 and SSI) and lowest with final year groups JS3 and SS3, except for 2002, when SS2 female dropout exceeded their SS1 counterparts.

Table 5.44: Trend in Number of Student who dropped out of the Sampled Senior Secondary Schools 1998 – 2003

CLASS	1998		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
SS1	1,562	45.54	1,359	38.59	1,303	37.78	1,569	39.11	1,607	33.97	1,216	42.85
SS2	1,219	35.54	1,284	36.46	1,296	37.58	1,485	37.01	2,007	42.42	919	32.38
SS3	649	18.92	879	24.95	850	24.64	958	23.88	1,037	21.91	703	24.77
TOTAL SS1 - SS3	3,430		3,522		3,449		4,012		4,731		2,838	
No of Schools												

(III) Transferred Out

83. While dropout relates to students leaving an education system before completion, monitoring transfer in or out relates to movements within the system and ensures that students who transfer are not counted as drop-out.

Table 5.45: Proportion of Junior Secondary Schools who Transferred Out in the Sample Schools 1998 – 2003.

CLASS	1998		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
JS1	1,195	39.49	1,483	38.84	1,927	35.39	1,707	37.96	1,864	42.01	1,524	37.93
JS2	1,975	40.56	2,035	44.67	2,158	45.18	2,513	46.99	2,525	48.28	2,136	44.48
JS3	1,376	38.81	1,649	44.63	1,812	43.82	2,116	47.16	2,167	47.85	1,790	45.64
TOTAL JS1 - JS3	4,546		5,167		5,897		6,336		6,556		5,450	

84. Unlike in tables 5.43 and 5.44, transfers are least in JS1 at the JS Level and in SS3 at the SS level, when secondary school students are preparing for their final certificate examinations. Transfer out of females at any level was almost in the 90 percent bracket the same probability as transfer of boys.

Table 5.46 Proportion of Senior Secondary Schools who Transferred Out in the Sample Schools 1998 – 2003.

CLASS	1998		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
SS1	1,705	40.59	1,709	39.61	2,284	45.01	2,110	44.74	2,151	43.33	1,961	40.34
SS2	1,370	38.54	1,453	40.19	1,607	43.31	1,666	43.46	2,128	45.07	1,866	47.75
SS3	823	47.87	1,013	49.06	1,192	50.76	1,448	55.52	1,548	53.62	1,627	53.72
TOTAL SS1 - SS3	3,898		4,175		5,083		5,224		5,827		5,454	

(IV) Transferred In.

Table 5.47: Trend in Number of Students who Transferred into Sampled Junior Secondary Schools 1998 - 2003

CLASS	1998		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
JS1	4,779	41.55	6,208	43.53	5,936	41.88	6,423	35.20	5,156	32.62	6,196	37.70
JS2	3,783	32.89	4,764	43.41	4,997	35.25	5,919	32.44	6,276	39.71	6,071	36.94
JS3	2,940	25.56	3,288	23.06	3,242	22.87	5,903	32.35	4,374	27.67	4,168	25.36
TOTAL JS1 - JS3	11,502		14,260		14,175		18,245		15,806		16,435	

Table 5.48: Trend in Number of Students who transferred into Sampled Senior Secondary Schools 1998 – 2003

CLASS	1998		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
SS1	3,218	45.30	3,913	49.19	3,962	47.42	4,303	44.49	5,267	48.18	4,974	47.03
SS2	2,441	34.36	2,569	32.29	2,765	33.09	3,100	32.05	3,511	32.11	3,267	30.89
SS3	1,445	20.34	1,473	18.52	1,628	19.49	2,269	23.46	2,155	19.71	2,336	22.08
TOTAL SS1 - SS3	7,104		7,955		8,355		9,672		10,933		10,577	

85. In absolute values, there are more transfers-in than transfers-out (Tales 5.47 and 5.48). This observation may have resulted from the apparent paucity of a record keeping culture. The phenomenon of transfers in and out in SS3, attest to the neglect by head teachers if the requirement for a reliable record of continuous assessment as basis for final examination scores and certification. Given the sample size, the number of students who go on transfer in the final years (JS3 and SS3) is large and should attract attention of policy makers.

(V) Completers

Table 5.49: Proportion of Completers in the Sampled Junior Secondary Schools 1998 – 2003.

CLASS	1998		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
JS1	59,297	41.44	60822	42.96	67808	42.69	75725	43.28	78361	44.89	69727	42.52
JS2	54,473	43.24	60259	42.94	65524	43.09	73164	42.92	79084	43.89	70207	42.27
JS3	53,683	42.84	55617	43.85	61242	44.44	66323	46.11	74351	44.63	69271	43.86
TOTAL JS1 - JS3	167,453		176698		194574		215212		231796		209205	

86. The number of completers from class to class, Tables 5.49 and 5.50 meaningful if compared to intake in each of the corresponding classes (table ….). The number of female completers seem equitable (at over 90%) having regards to the fact that males account for at least 50 percent of the enrolment every year.

Table 5.50: Trend in Number of Completers in Sampled Senior Secondary Schools 1998 -2003

CLASS	1998		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
SS1	45521	41.34	47119	41.39	51102	44.25	57590	43.09	61708	44.46	60107	43.78
SS2	41463	42.24	47364	41.12	49659	44.13	55714	41.95	56498	45.15	52464	44.36
SS3	39278	40.20	43144	43.40	49776	42.69	50507	42.29	56799	43.84	50618	44.19
TOTAL SS1 - SS3	126262		137627		150537		163811		175005		163189	

Principals (School Heads)

87. Most of the Secondary School Principals sampled were males (68.1 percent) compared with 24.5 percent females. This indicates a lack of equity in the appointment of Principals. The distribution of sampled Principals by highest qualification is indicated on Table 5.51.

Table 5.51: Distribution of Sampled School Principals by Highest Qualification

Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
ACE Diploma	10	1.1
OND	4	0.5
NCE	28	3.2
HND/Advanced Diploma	36	4.1
BSc/BA	396	45.2
B.Ed/BA/BSc=PGDE	185	21.1
MSc/MA	151	17.2
B.Ed/MSc/MA+PGDE	12	1.4
Phd	5	0.6
PHD+PGDE	1	.1

88. There is no specified policy for or laid down minimum standards for appointment of principals of secondary school. Although the length of experience is most times a prerequisite, there is no specific definition on qualification. It is not surprising those teachers with less than the NCE minimum qualifications (about 1.6 percent) and considered unqualified for teaching in primary schools are appointed as secondary school principals. As many as 1.6 percent of the sampled Principals had either ACE Diploma (1.1 percent) or OND (0.5 percent) as minimum qualification, while 3.2 percent had the NCE. Similarly the highest proportion of principals (45.3 percent), were graduates without teaching qualification while 4.1 percent had the HND/Advanced Diploma also without teaching qualification. Principals with required teaching qualification including B.Ed/BA/BSc+PGDE comprised 21.1 percent; while those with

M.Ed/MSc/MA+PGDE consisted 1.4 percent of sampled principals. Others were MSc/MA (17.1 percent), PhD (0.6 percent) and PhD+PGDE (only 0.1 percent). Most of the Principals (31.6 percent) had less than 6 years experience as Principals followed by 26.0 percent who had 7 – 10 years experience. Principals with over ten years experience were in the minority, 11 – 15 years (16.8 percent), 16 – 20 years (5.1 percent) and with over 20 years (7.2 percent). As with the case of Principals, unqualified teachers with just the WAEC/NECO/GCE O/L or with TC II/II, teach in secondary schools. The lack of national policy or guideline for the appointment of Principal encourages the appointment of unqualified school heads for secondary schools.

Teachers

89. Apart from data obtained on Teachers from the Principal questionnaire, the bulk of analysis of teachers and teacher related issues was based on data from questionnaires administered directly on Secondary Schools Teachers. A total of 510 Junior and Senior Secondary Schools Teachers randomly selected from amongst the sampled schools completed the questionnaire. In the presentation of data, percentages are derived from the proportion of respondents who provided information on specific issues. The teachers comprised more males (51.7 percent) than females (48.3 percent) with 69.2 percent from public and with 921.2 percent from private schools.

90. Table 5.52 indicates the distribution of total teachers in sampled schools as obtained from the questionnaire by qualification and gender.

Table 5.52 2003 Secondary School Teachers Nationwide by Qualification and Gender

Qualification	MALE		FEMALE		Total	Percentage
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage		
Graduate W/TQ	47,047	61.21	29,819	38.79	76,866	
Graduate	19,646	72.24	7,550	27.76	27,196	
NCE	32,693	54.88	26,878	45.12	59,571	
Grade 1	1,493	76.60	456	23.40	1,949	
Grade 2	724	67.98	341	32.02	1,065	
HSC	1,286	81.75	287	18.25	1,573	
WASCE	924	81.99	203	18.01	1,127	
Special	389	69.22	173	30.78	562	
Others	3,924	73.14	1,441	25.86	5,365	
Total						

Source FME/UBE National schools Census 2003

Table 5.53 Sampled Teachers by Qualification and Gender

Qualification	M+F	MALE	FEMALE	Percentage by Qualification
TC III/TC II/WASC/NECO/GCE O/L	101	79	22	0.41
ACE	38	29	9	0.16
Diploma in Arabic	191	170	21	0.78
OND	673	496	177	0.71
NCE	834	4406	3942	33.63
HND	1935	1416	519	7.79
B.Ed	413	2523	1614	16.66
BA/ BSc (WTQ)	513	3121	2013	20.68
BA/BSc (WOTQ)	2879	2082	797	11.60
M.Ed	742	466	276	2.99
MA /MSc (WOTQ)	201	144	57	0.81
MA/MSc (WO)	103	74	29	0.42
PhD	342	126	216	1.38
Total	24824	15132	9692	

91. Table 5.53 confirms that although, the bulk of secondary school teachers are graduates with first or higher degrees (54.64 percent), about 12.83 percent of the teachers have no teaching qualification. Also confirmed is that ACE (0.16 percent) and TC II teachers 10.41 percent were still teaching in secondary schools. To identify the location of the unqualified teachers, the data on teachers was further desegregated by gender and type of school. The proportion of unqualified teachers (over 10.9%) is bound to affect negatively on the quality of learning delivery and needs to be addressed.

Age Ranges and Length of Teaching Experience

92. The highest proportion of teachers belonged to the 36-40 years age group (29.8 percent) followed by those between 31 – 35 years (24.7 percent) and 40 – 45 years age range (18.4 percent). Others (8.8 percent) were between 46 – 50 years old and while 7.3 percent were within the age range 26 – 30 years. The youngest group of teachers, (4.9 percent), under 25 years old were in the minority. Most had taught for 12 – 16 years followed by 2-6 years (20.4 percent). Others had been teaching for 7 – 11 years (17.5 percent) 17 – 20 years (10.2 percent. The group of teachers with over 21 years experience (7.8 percent) were more than those with less than two years in employment (1.2). On the length of stay in the same school, most (41.6 percent) had been in the same school for 2.5 years and another 24.5 percent for less than 2 years and 14.7 percent for 6-10 years. The proportion of teachers who had been in the same school for over 11 – 15 years (10.4 percent) and 16 – 20 years 2.2 percent were in the minority. Indeed, more of the teachers had stayed for over 21 years in other schools.

93. Since there is no policy regulating the length of stay of teachers in a single school, it is possible for a young teacher to take up appointment in a particular school and stay in the same school up to the time he/she retires on the ground of attainment of retirement age. Such a teacher does not benefit from experience in any other school. Both the advantages and disadvantage of spending ones career life span in a single school should be taken into cognizance for the development of a policy on length of stay in a school.

Professional Development

94. Regular opportunity for professional development of teachers ensures that teachers are kept up-to-date and adequately empowered to offer quality delivery. The vast majority of the sampled principals (72.6 percent) had attended workshops/seminars. This is an improvement over the observation in 1992 (SAPA) where most Primary School Head teachers had never attended seminars or workshops. About 35 percent had in addition been exposed to the induction course for principal while many more (55.1 percent) had been trained on School Management and Administration. Up to 31.0 percent had been trained on School Record Keeping, and 25.4 percent on School Development and Planning. Only a relative few (only 14.6 percent) had participated in cluster meeting. Although the situation with regard to Principals and Head-teacher professional development is gradually improving there is need to ensure regular professional development for all Principals. Indeed, Principals themselves should seek such opportunity to improve their skills while incentives should be given to head teachers who display such initiatives. Of the training received a majority of principals indicated that it was on classroom Management (71.3 percent) followed by training in interpersonal relationships and communication skills.

95. In contrasts with principals, a significant proportion of secondary school teachers sampled (31.4 percent) had never been exposed to any type of workshop or training since their appointment. Amongst those who had attended workshop, (15.7 percent) reported that, this opportunity was as far back as over 4 years ago, or 3 – 4 years ago. For teachers whose training were quite recent, 16.3 percent were trained 1-2 years ago, 6.7 percent, 6 – 11 months ago and 8.8 percent, less than 6 months ago (at the time of data collection). This trend which is reflecting declining opportunities for training needs to be redressed since regular exposure to professional development activities is sine-qua-non for improving the quality of teaching.

96. Most of the training workshops attended by the sampled teachers, were organized by the State (19.4 percent) and Federal (16.9 percent) Ministries of Education followed by in-house, school based workshops (8.4 percent). An appreciable proportion (4.3 percent) had benefited from workshops organized by development partners (UNICEF, UNESCO, World Bank etc) as well. Only relatively few workshops had been organized for teacher (2.5 percent) by State Teaching Service Commission while few teachers have benefited from NGOs organized workshops. As recommended for Principals, the provision of regular and sustained opportunity for teacher development for improved quality of

pedagogy is advocated. The variety of trainings and the proportion of teachers who benefited from the trainings are indicated on Table 4.4.

Table 5.54: Variety of Training Workshops and Proportion of Teachers who benefited.

Type of Training	Frequency	Proportion
Teaching methodology for specific subjects	136	26.70
Methodology, Lesson Plan Scheme of Work	88	17.26
Continuous Assessment Practices/Records	71	13.92
Record Keeping	53	10.40
Classroom Management	48	9.41
Use and Making of Teaching Aids	47	9.22
Teaching of Vocational Skills	42	8.24
Other teaching Related Activities	5	0.98
Use of Mother Tongue in Teaching	3	0.60

97. Training opportunities needs to be extended to all practising teachers for improved effectiveness as the proportion of teachers benefiting is considerably low for each type of training

Teacher Motivation

98. Apart from qualification and subsequent opportunities for continued professional development, other factors related to the level of teacher motivation are in-service training opportunities, regular payment of salaries and fringe benefits, factors that bother on teacher esteem affect the level of teacher commitment and therefore teacher effectiveness. Only 9 percent of sampled teachers were undergoing in-service training at the time of data collection. This proportion is relatively low as it is obvious from Table 5.54, that over 40 percent of the sampled teachers were either under-qualified or had no teaching qualifications. These groups of practicing teachers need to be identified and encouraged to upgrade themselves on the job.

99. As with civil servants a teacher would remain on the same salary grade level until promoted. The length of time a teacher should officially remain on the same salary grade level varies with particular grade levels. For teachers below salary grade level 7, promotion is every 2 years; for grade levels 7 – 14, it is every 3 years and thereafter it is every 4 years. Table 5.54 Indicates the proportion of sampled teachers that have remained on the same salary grade level for varying lengths of time.

Table 5.55: Proportion of Sampled Teachers who have remained on the Same Salary Grade Level for varying length of time

Length of Time	Frequency	Percentage
3 years or less	210	41.2
4 – 6 years	161	31.6
7 – 9 years	30	5.9
10 years or More	49	9.6

100. Table 5.55 indicates that an appreciable proportion of teachers have remained on the same salary grade level and have therefore not been promoted for 7 – 9 years (5.9 percent) or for over 10 years (9.6 percent). The lack of regular promotion for teachers is demotivating and needs to be addressed as this would impact negatively on teacher morale and effectiveness. It is therefore not surprising that an appreciable proportion (43. percent) of teachers yearn for alternative employment as indicated on table 5.56.

Table 5.56: Proportion of Teachers who would opt for alternative Employment

Alternative Employment	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	220	43.1
No	215	42.2
Not Sure	75	14.2

101. The proportion of teachers opting for alternative employment in other fields other than teaching for various reasons is shown on Table 5..6.

Table 5.57: Reasons Why Teachers Opt for Alternative Employment

Reason	Frequency	Percentage
No job satisfaction	161	31.57
Teaching Profession is not respected/low status of teachers	124	24.31
Teaching does not pay well	95	18.63
Teaching is too demanding	60	11.73
To gain experience in other fields	10	1.9
Frequent transfer of teachers	0	0.0

102. Interestingly, none of the teachers is bothered by frequent transfer essentially because of prevailing low transfer rate in the teaching profession in Nigeria. The loss of serving teachers to other sectors of the economy need to be further investigated as this has a ramification of negative implications for the teacher availability particularly in situations where alternative employment become easily available. Various other reasons considered as demotivating to teachers are indicated on Table 5.58 derived by requiring teachers to identify five out of 19 factors that are considered to de-motivating to teachers.

Table 5.58 Proportion of teachers who considered various factors as de-motivating

Factors	Frequency	Percentage
Low regard for teachers	375	73.53
Irregular payment of teachers salaries	342	67.06
Poor conditions of service	339	66.47
No promotion prospects	226	44.31
No teaching facilities/materials	166	32.55
Lack of incentives/loans	155	30.39
No in-service training/workshop	147	28.82
Lack of accommodation	108	21.18
High pupil/teacher ratio/inadequate supply	84	16.47
Poor supervision and organization	69	13.53
Transportation problems	65	12.75
Negative/non-challant attitude of parents	56	10,98
Pupils do not further their education beyond secondary level	45	8.82
Constant transfer	34	6.67
School in remotes areas	17	3.33
Teaching is too demanding	13	2.55
Poor attendance in classrooms/low enrolment of students	4	0.78

103. Apparently, teachers do not consider teaching to be too demanding as this ranked 16th amongst factors that discourage are de-motivating to teachers. Teachers are obviously also not bothered by poor pupil attendance nor by under populated classes (0.78 percent). Factors that however, rank high in de-motivating teachers are challenges that need to be addressed by policy makers.

104. When required to select five out of 22 factors that could make teaching profession more attractive, the most frequently subscribed, was the payment of allowances and fringe benefits (63.53 percent) followed by regular promotion (56.47 percent) and prompt payment of salaries (46.86 percent). Issues on professionalism, promotion of in-service-training, and provision of instructional facilities and materials ranked 4th and 6th respectively while increasing teachers salaries (28.24 percent) ranked 5th.

104. The on-going action on a special salary scale for teachers which has already been articulated by the Teachers' Registration Council, indicates governments' awareness on the need for an upward review of teachers earnings. Substantiating the fact that teachers' salaries cannot sustain their needs is the acknowledgement by sampled teachers that, teachers engage in a variety of jobs outside teaching to supplement their earnings. Table 5.59 indicates the proportion of teachers who identified various income generating activities teachers engage in.

Table 5.59: Proportion of sampled teachers who identified various income generating activities teachers engage in

Supplementary Income Generating Activities	Proportion of Teachers	Percentage
Organizing Extra Lessons	288	56.47
Farming	249	48.82
External examining (marking, invigilating etc)	196	38.43
National assignments (e.g. census, election etc)	147	28.82
Trading	144	28.24
Weaving	65	12.24
Dress making/tying/dying	44	8.63
Contracting/supplies	38	7.45
Catering	22	4.31
Fishing	14	2.75
Vehicle hiring	12	2.35
Hair dressing	12	2.35
Sports	6	1.18

Cost and Financing

106. The cost to parents on Secondary Education was computed from data generated from a parallel ESA Study (ESA Cost and Financing of Education 2003), requiring parents to indicate the amount expended on various cost components of secondary education for which parents are responsible. The components were classified under school fees, learning materials, clothing material and miscellaneous item. Table 5.60 indicates the Unit Cost Characteristics to parents for Junior and Senior Secondary Education.

Table 5.60 Estimated Unit Cost of Junior and Secondary Education in Nigeria

Expenditure	JSS		SSS	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Tuition Fees	1,108.60	5.90	3,500.55	8.9
Learning Material	4,981.00	26.10	5,601.63	14.2
Clothing Material	7,514.02	39.40	6,582.27	16.7
Miscellaneous items	5,446.62	28.60	23,735.04	60.2
Total	19,050.22	100	39,419	100

The cost to parent of supporting children through public or private junior secondary schools by sector and type of school are indicated in table 5.61.

Table 5.61: Unit Cost to Parents for Junior Secondary Education by Sector and Type of School

Type of School	Unit Cost ₦	Sector	Unit Cost ₦
Private	52,000.00	Urban	56,000.00
Public	9,000.00	Rural	15,000.00

The Estimated Unit cost by Sector and Type of School reported by Balami (2004) is shown on Table 5.62.

Table 5.62: Unit Cost to Parent for Senior Education by Sector and Type of School

Type of School	Unit Cost ₦	Sector	Unit Cost ₦
Private	85,000.00	Urban	84,000.00
Public	20,000.00	Rural	15,000.00

Source: Balami, 2004

Instructional and Learning Facilities

107. The availability of requisite instructional and learning facilities is important to ensuring the effectiveness of pedagogical process.

The availability and adequacy of some basic teaching learning materials are indicated in Table 5.63.

Table 5.63 Adequacy and Availability of Instructional Facilities

Facility	Available and Adequacy		Available but Inadequate		Not Available	
	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Chalk	441	(50.3%)	231	(26.4%)	38	(4.4%)
Charts	184	(21.0%)	367	(41.9%)	116	(13.20%)
Maps	131	(14.9%)	388	(44.3%)	139	(15.8%)
Graphs	112	(12.8%)	265	(30.2%)	251	(28.6%)
Visual Aids	63	(7.2%)	168	(19.2)	361	(41.@%)
Computers	76	(12.3%)	158	(25.6%)	382	(62.0%)

108. While it is generally assumed that a most mundane teaching facility like chalk would necessary be available in every school, at least prior to and until the institution of E-Learning (Electronic), 26.4 percent of sampled schools complained of inadequacy of chalk while another large proportion (4.4 percent) did not have any chalk. Indeed the reality in some schools is that teachers personally purchase chalk, particularly coloured chalk, for classroom use. The same inadequacies and lacks are observed for most other facilities. While it was not surprising that computers were available and adequate in less than 15 percent of schools, it is however, envisaged that if the present level of government's commitment to computer education is sustained, the incorporation

into the cardinal education programmes to be addressed by the NEEDS programme will address the problem of availability of computers in Schools. Table 5.64 represents the availability of various writing materials in the sampled schools.

Table 5.64: Frequency of Availability and Adequacy of Writing Materials in Sampled Schools

Writing Materials	Available and Adequate		Available Not Adequate		Not Available	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Students' Note Books	213	24.1	191	21.8	171	19.5
Pens(Biro)	293	33.2	200	17.0	149	17.0
Pencil	275	31.3	214	24.4	124	17.5
Ruler	256	29.2	224	25.6	154	17.5
Math Set	200	22.8	258	29.4	167	19.0
Crayon	170	19.4	195	22.2	231	28.7
Eraser	202	23.1	223	25.4	200	22.8
Sharpener	185	21.1	226	25.8	200	22.8

109. The lack of various writing materials would affect students' participation and learning acquisition. Since most of the materials are generally provided by parents at this level of schooling, parents should be oriented on the importance of ensuring that their wards are provided with adequate writing materials at all times. Table 5.65 indicates the availability and adequacy of Science practical materials/equipment in the sampled schools.

Table 5.65 Frequency of Availability and Adequacy of Science Practical Equipment/Materials in Sampled Schools.

Practical Materials	Available and Adequate		Available Not Adequate		Not Available	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Chemical and Equipment	120	13.7	358	40.8	123	14.1
Integrated Science	126	14.3	309	35.3	176	20.1
Introductory Technology	111	12.6	311	35.4	178	20.3
Agricultural Sciences	131	14.9	359	41.0	137	15.7
Chemistry Equipment Materials	133	15.2	370	42.2	101	11.5
Physics Equipment	143	16.3	356	41.6	97	11.3
Biology Equipment Materials	135	15.4	388	44.2	92	10.5

110. The availability of requisite materials ensures opportunity for students to interact with practical materials and equipment and ensure that the concepts acquired are more enduring and easy to recall. The relative low proportion of schools, where the materials and equipment for science teaching were available and adequate (less than 20 percent) indicates that the bulk of students in Nigerian secondary schools is not opportuned to learn science properly and therefore may not acquire the desirable practical science skills.

111. This is confirmed by the observation that the mean percent score by JS2 students in integrated science in a national assessment of students' learning achievement (ESA MLA, 2003) was as low as 34.74 percent. Indeed when desegregated by State, the mean percent score by students in the State with the least mean percent score, was as low as 23.82 percent. There is therefore the need to ensure the availability of Science Materials in Secondary Schools.

112. Experiments shown proved that the more than number sensory organs that are involved in learning the more likely learning will be consolidated in memory. Practical lessons are therefore intended not only to provide stimulating learning experiences but to enhance permanent learning. Writing materials represented on table 5.64 are generally those purchased by parents at this level of schooling. The lack of writing material is bound to affect the effectiveness of students learning. Parents need to be sensitized on the importance of ensuring that their children/wards are provided with requisite writing materials at all time.

The availability and adequacy of laboratory for Science Practical are indicated on table 5.66.

Table 5.66: Availability of Science Laboratories in the Sampled Schools.

Science Laboratories	Available and Adequate		Available Not Adequate		Not Available	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Integrated Science Laboratory	77	8.8	171	19.5	317	36.2
Chemistry Laboratory	133	13.2	278	31.7	170	19.3
Introductory Technology Laboratory	83	9.5	183	20.9	298	34.0
Agricultural Laboratory	77	8.8	164	18.7	329	37.6
Physics laboratory	124	14.1	227	25.9	227	25.9
Biology Laboratory	120	13.6	233	26.5	211	20.3

The fact that Laboratories are only available and adequate in less than 15 percent of schools needs to be addressed.

Use of Local Materials in Making Teaching Aids

113. Teaching aids when appropriately applied, generally promote improved concepts acquisition. Where ready made aids are not easily available teachers who are more resourceful optimize the use of local materials. As many as 68.6 percent of sampled teachers claimed to use local materials as teaching aids or in making teaching aids with paper. The most widely applied were newspaper/cardboard (33.3 percent), leaves (flowers/grass/stem (32.33 percent) and sand/clay/mud/limestone (21.37 percent). Others were stones (20.78 percent), match sticks/sticks (16.28 percent), and Tin/Cans (15.29 percent). Not so popular were seeds (6.47 percent), Cloth (6.08 percent) and fruits (2.75 percent). The fact that a proportion of teachers no matter how few deem it fit to use certain local materials as teaching aids is indicative of their appropriateness. The practice should therefore be encouraged to be more widely applied through sensitization and training. Indeed only 3.73 percent of teachers indicated that they had received training on the making of teaching aids.

Students Perception of Principal and Teacher Effectiveness

114. The effectiveness of Monitoring of Curriculum delivery was also evaluated from the students' perspective by requiring students to respond to items including the regularity of supervision of teachers by Principals and Heads of department. The majority reported that lesson supervision is undertaken daily. Others were weekly (20.9 percent) and monthly (6.0percent). However some students (about 3.5 percent) claimed that such supervision did not exist in their schools.

115. That majority of students perceived their Principals as effective is reiterated by the observation that as many as 87.0 percent of the students considered their Principals to be in full control of their schools. Similarly 82.4 opined that the Principal effectively communicate with teachers as well as with students (79.4 percent) and that the principals were engaged in promoting effective teaching/learning (75.8 percent).

116. The majority of students were also pleased with teachers of core subjects including English Language, Mathematics and integrated Science, but not so pleased with Business Studies teachers. On teachers attendance, the proportion of students who were pleased with their teachers ranged from 87.1 percent for English Language teachers; 83.3 for teachers of Mathematics and 81.6 percent for Integrated Science teachers. Only 49.1 percent of students however, endorsed the class attendance behaviour of teachers of Social Studies.

117. The proportion of students endorsing teacher punctuality behaviour was almost the same; for the three core subjects. About 79.9 percent of students were pleased with punctuality behaviour for English Language teachers, 79.8 percent for Mathematics, 78.9 percent for teachers of Integrated Science and 78.8 percent for Social Studies teachers. Although, a majority of students considered social studies teachers as punctual, only 49.1 percent of students were pleased with the regularity of their class attendance.

118. On relationship with students and dedication to duty, teachers of English Language also led the rating by 81.9 percent followed by 80.4 percent of students rating of mathematics teachers respectively. Although English Language teachers were again closely followed by teachers of Mathematics (80.2 percent and 78.9 percent, teachers of Integrated Science were endorsed by 78.5 percent and 78.2 percent of students on relationship with students and dedication to duty. Social Studies teachers again followed with 78.4 percent and 75.8 percent of students endorsing the nature of their relationship with students and dedication to duty respectively.

119. Teachers of Business Studies were on a class of their own. Although perceived to be relatively effective on class attendance, only 68.3 percent of students agreed that they were punctual to classes; 66.3 percent endorsed the nature of their interpersonal relation with students while less than half of the students (only 42.7 percent) considered them to be dedicated to duty. Further investigations through interviews and focus group discussions, revealed that teachers of Business Studies tended to portray themselves as disinterested, encouraged by the fact that their subjects are not compulsory. They also tended to be more often bugged down with other non academic functions relating to school accounting, school 'tuck' shop and related others. It is also alleged that Business Studies teachers are more likely to be distracted by their own personnel business ventures. This situation calls for intervention by policy makers as business studies is one of the subjects that has potential to promote entrepreneurialship and should therefore be made more attractive.

Subjects Taught in Schools and Teacher Shortfall.

120. The adoption of the 3,3, Secondary Education system was largely informed by the appeal of a broad based curriculum encompassing a wide range of subjects, that cater for a broad range of interests in terms of career choice. Although every secondary school is expected to provide the same opportunity by offering every subject specified in the curriculum for junior or senior secondary schools, many schools do not offer some of these subjects either because of lack of teachers or the lack of facilities and or teachers for these subjects. Even where most of the subjects are taught, almost all the schools indicated the inadequacy of teachers in a number of subjects taught. The shortfall on teacher requirements for various subjects in sampled schools is indicated on table 5.67. It is however important to note that principals in schools where specific subjects were not taught and where the facilities for teaching a subject were not available may not have indicated the teacher requirement for these specific subjects. However, it is possible to estimate by projection the teacher requirement nationally for each subject given, that the number of sampled schools using JSS as yardstick for common subjects and number of Senior Secondary Schools for subjects taught only at this level are 778 for JSS and 620 for SS respectively and that the total number of secondary schools in Nigeria was 6844 according to the National School Census of 2002.

Subject taught in Sampled Junior and Senior Schools and Number of Teachers required

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Table 5.67: Senior Secondary Schools Subjects and Teacher shortfall in 623 sampled schools.

Subject	No of Teachers Required	Projected National
English Language	1,864	163,977
Mathematics	1,926	169,431
French	493	43,369
Language of Environment	589	51,815
Other Nigerian Language	693	60,964
Integrated Science	1,103	97031
Social Studies/Citizenship Education	1,064	93601
Introductory Technology	961	84540
Agricultural Science	1,339	117,792
Business Studies	911	80,141
Home Economics	742	65,274
Local Crafts	195	17,154
Computer Education	464	40,818
Islamic/Christian Religious Studies	1,263	111,107
Physical and Health Education	971	85,419
Fine Art	608	37,116
Music	231	20,321
Arabic	336	20,761
Biology	1,041	114,915
Chemistry	886	97,804
Physics	850	93,830
Literature in English	858	94,714
History	580	64,025
Geography	940	103,765
Economics	974	107,519
Government	869	95,928
Further Mathematics	402	44,376
Applied Electricity	115	12,695
Auto Mechanics	62	68,441
Book-Keeping and Account	355	39,188
Commerce	528	58,285
Electronics	60	6,623
Clothing and Textile	88	9,714
Food and Nutrition	244	26,935
Home Management-	232	25,610
Metal Work	81	8,941
Technical Drawing	223	24,677
Wood Work	105	11,591
Short Hand	99	10,928
Typewriting	170	18,766
Total		

121. It is obvious from Table 5.67 that teacher inadequacy extends to all subjects offered at JS and SS levels. However, where teacher demand appears to be low for some subjects such as in Computer Education (464 only) and local crafts (195 only) chances are that such subjects are not offered at all as the requisite facilities for teaching these subjects are not available. Obviously therefore teacher demand for these specific subjects could be higher than indicated or projected.

122. The issue of teacher shortfalls must be addressed for all schools to ensure equity and reduction of load on few available teachers and in order to give students the opportunity for exposure to all subjects.

123. It is however equally necessary to note that technical and vocational subjects are also taught substantially in strictly Technical and Vocational School.

124. It is however imperative to note that the questionnaire for science students could not be administered in some secondary schools as these schools offered only arts/humanities or social science subjects. This was because; facilities for science teaching were not available in which case the principals may necessarily not report shortfalls. This should also be the same for computer education for which only 464 teachers were required despite the fact that less than 40 percent of sampled schools had functional computers as already observed (Table 5.63).

Table 5.68: Subjects in which a proportion of non specialist Teachers was deployed

Subject	Frequency	Percentage
Fine Art	38	75
English	10	2.0
Economics	9	1.8
Agricultural Science	7	1.4
Integrated Science	3	0.6
Computer Education	3	0.6
French	2.	0.4
Geography	2	0.4
Government	2	0.4
Nigerian Languages	1	0.2
Arabic	1	0.2
History	1	0.2
Applied Electricity	1	0.2
Food and Nutrition	1	0.2

125. From Table 5.68. The incident of deployment of non-specialist teacher is relatively low with Fine Art (7.5 percent), English Language (2.0 percent) and Agricultural Science being the most affected, The major reasons why teachers sometimes deployed is over employment taking more than the requisite number of teachers to one school and subsequent over deployment of teachers of a particular subject to a particular school. While the other is occasioned by the shortfall in teacher supply for a specific subject in which case other subject

teachers are required to teach subjects for which teachers are either insufficient or completely lacking within the system. While the former can be rectified through harmonization of teacher supply and demand, the later can only be corrected through deliberate intensive training for teachers of subject in which there is a dearth of teachers. When required to indicate whether or not they taught the subject in which they specialized, most of the teachers who responded 363 (87.86 percent) indicated that they did. However 49 (12.14 percent) of the teachers said they did not. For effective and enhanced efficiency, it is necessary to ensure that subject specialist with the right knowledge of the subject matter, are appropriately deployed to teach subjects for which they are trained as this would otherwise constrain the learners who must contend with such a disadvantage.

126. For efficient utilization of teacher capacity, teachers should as far as possible be deployed to schools on the basis of established needs, while teacher supply i.e training should be informed by the school systems requirement. This should be a responsibility of the Teachers Registration Council and National Commission for Colleges of Education in consultation with teacher education institutions and managers of Secondary Schools.

Duration of Lesson

129. The recommended duration of a single lesson by the Federal Inspectors at the secondary school level is 40 – 45 minutes. Table 5.69 presents the frequencies of various lesson durations in sampled schools.

Table 5.69 Proportion of sampled schools with Varied Lesson Durations

Lesson Duration	Frequency	Percentage
30 minutes	11	1.3
35 minutes	49	5.6
40 minutes	578	74.8
45 minutes	62	7.1
50 minutes	2	0.2

In the majority of the sampled schools lesson duration was in accordance with stipulated minimum standard 40 minutes (74.8 percent) or 45minutes (7.1 percent). However, lesson durations of less than 40 minutes were observed in 6.8 percent of schools. Schools that do not maintain the recommended duration for a single period lesson should be sensitized on this requirement and made to conform, particularly where existing lesson duration is less than 40 minutes.

Infrastructural Facilities, Utilities and their Facilities.

129. The availability and adequacy of infrastructural facilities are contributory to determining the conduciveness of schools. Majority of the sampled schools were

purpose built. However, a good number operated within conventional houses, flats, Churches, Mosques or in multipurpose centres. The most un-conducive were the ones that operate in open space. Majority of the schools, about 75 percent were built with cement blocks, burnt bricks or stone, 7.4 percent with asbestos, 8.3 percent were mud structures plastered with cement, 6.7 percent were made of wood while the rest were bamboo or grass/mat structures. Most (87.0 percent) of the schools were suitably roofed with zinc or asbestos sheets while relatively few, less than 1.0 percent, had thatched straw roofs. Schools that are making do with shift structures should be reconstructed to make them more learner-friendly and conducive.

Condition of Infrastructural Facilities

130. The condition of infrastructural facilities would determine their usability and conduciveness. The conditions of various infrastructural facilities are indicated in Tables 5.70 and 5.71.

131. Apart from ensuring the availability of facilities for effective curriculum delivery and learning, and degree of friendliness of schools, the state of existing facilities is an important factor in determining the general conduciveness of Schools. It was observed that even where facilities are available such facilities may be entirely rundown and unusable due to lack of regular maintenance and none replacement of obsolete equipment.

UTILITY

Electricity/Power Source/Water/Toilet/Refuse Disposal Facilities

132. Only about half of the sampled schools had access to power from the national grid while a few (6.0 percent) received power from rural electricity. About 6 percent had generators while a significant proportion (20.6 percent) had no electricity supply and depended on Kerosene Lantern.

Table 5.70: Proportion of schools having access to Variety of basic utilities

Electricity			Water			Toilet			Refuse Disposal		
	Freq.	**%**		**Freq.**	**%**		**Freq.**	**%**		**Freq.**	**%**
NEPA*	**397**	**45.3**	**Pipe Borne**	**180**	**20.5**	**Flush**	**260**	**29.16**	**Garbage Bins**	**381**	**43.5**
Rural Electricity	48	5.5	Bore Hole	191	21.8	VIP Pit	168	18.11	Incinerator	-	-
Lantern	181	20.6	Harvested/Rain	52	5.9	Ordinary Pit	428	48.3	Public Agency Collected	121	1.4
Generator		**6.0**	Well	164	18.7	Bush	146	16.6	Compost Pit	280	32
			Stream	93	10.7	None	26	3.0	Bush	288	32.9
			None	53	6.0						

*** NEPA =Supply from National Grid**

133. Table 5.70 indicates the availability of basic utilities in the sampled schools. A number of schools are without any form of toilet facilities (19.6 percent), Potable Water supplies (16.0 percent), or visible waste disposal facilities (32.9 percent). Even where streams are the only source of water the nearest may be up t0 2 kilometers away.

134. In about 14 percent of schools boys and girls use the same toilets while only 56.1 percent of samples schools have separate toilets for staff members only. Table 5.70 suggests that a high proportion of students have to contend with very unfriendly learning conditions. Sometimes even when toilets are available, schools which have separate toilets for boys and girls is less than 50 percent (49.4 percent boys only and 47.5 percent girls only). In the absence of electricity, the students are not only deprived of acquiring hands on experience on some practical experiments, but also all form of ICT based experiences including computer appreciation, E-mail/Internet access. The apparent disparity in favour of others who have access to all these more desirable and advanced forms of utilities needs urgently to be redressed for equity. Indeed the students placed at a disadvantage in most students are those in rural locations, who also have to contend with travelling long distances to school.

135. The availability and adequacy of other conduciveness enhancing facilities in the sampled schools are indicated on table 6.4.

Table 5.71: Frequency of Availability and Adequacy of Various Facilities

Facility	Available and Adequate	Available not Adequate	Not Available	Functional	Not Function
Telephone	62 (7.1)	110 (12.5)	423 (54.9)	92 (10.5)	73 (8.3)*
Radio	49 (5.6)	114 (13.0)	419 (47.8)	83 (9.5)	83 (9.5)
Fax Machine	24 (2.7)	47 (5.4)	498 (56.7)	44 (5.0)	53 (6.0)
Video Player	42 (4.8)	63 (7.1)	474 (54.2)	60 (6.8)	59 (6.7)
Video Recorder	31 (3.5)	49 (5.6)	498 (56.5)	50 (5.7)	55 (6.3)
Television	44 (5.0)	83 (9.5)	443 (50.5)	79 (9.2)	61 (7.0)
School Bus	92 (10.5)	114 (13.0)	392 (44.7)	90 (10.3)	112 (12.8)
Ambulance	22 (2.5)	23 (2.7)	516 (58.9)	20 (2.3)	67 (7.7)
Motor Bike	21 (2.4)	36 (4.1)	528 (60.2)	22 (2.5)	68 (7.7)
Bicycle	22 (2.6)	35 (4.0)	522 (59.5)	25 (2.8)	64 (7.3)

Note that most of this class of facilitates are found largely in Federal Government and Private School

MANAGEMENT AND GOVERNANCE

Inspection, Supervision, Teacher Professional Development and School-Based Management.

136. As a contemporary terminology in education, quality assurance as conceived by the manufacturing sector and subsequently applied to the education sector, derives from a number of monitoring and evaluation activities, inspection, supervision, school based-management and other teacher professional development related activities.

School Inspection and Supervision

137 Inspection and Supervision are complementary processes in quality assurance and relate to the monitoring of instructional practices and performance of a school. While inspection refers to evaluation by external agents, and is carried out by Federal as well as State Inspectors. Supervision is undertaken by School functionaries such as the Principal, Vice Principals or Heads of Departments or other State designated personnel.

138. The majority of Principals described their experiences with inspectors/supervisors as rewarding and enlightening. Most of the sampled teachers (74.5 percent) reported that visits by inspectors and supervisors have improved teachers pedagogical proficiency. Others (12.7 percent) claimed that such visits were really not beneficial; that inspection and supervisory activities do not make useful impacts in schools; are wasteful and could be reduced by ensuring orientation and training for inspectors and supervisors. Table 6.6 indicates various instructional practices in which improvement have been observed following inspection and supervisory visits.

139. The regularity with which schools were inspected/supervised as reported by principals ranged from weekly (3.6 percent) to monthly (16.4 percent) and quarterly/termly (57.7 percent) which was the pattern in most schools. Others were, annually 10.7 percent, once every 4 years (1.6 percent) or once in more than 4 years (1.6 percent). There were however a few schools (0.7 percent) that had never been inspected or supervised. There is need to identify schools in similar situations including others who had not been inspected in five or more years and to institute appropriate measures towards inspecting them. These claims were re-affirmed by 1.6 percent of 1115 teachers sampled on a related study on quality assurance. Table 7.1 indicates the proportion of teachers whose classes were last visited by inspectors as opposed to supervisors within a variety of intervening time intervals.

Table 5.72: Interval within which a Proportion of Teachers had been inspected

Time Interval	Frequency	Percentage
1 – 2 years ago	795	71.3
3 – 4 years ago	81	7.3
More than 5 years ago	61	5.4
Never	18	1.4

140. The fact that up to 70 percent of sampled schools were inspected as recently as between 1 – 2 years prior to the data collection is an indication that inspectors are beginning to live up to their calling. These services should be extend to others that had either never been inspected or were last inspected more than 5 years ago.

Proportion of Teachers who reported that feedback from Inspection/Supervision have affected various instructional practices.

Table 5.73: Instructional Practices that have benefited from Inspectors

Instructional Practices	Frequency	Percentage
New ideas adopted and Implemented	190	37.3
Improved Lesson Planning and Preparation	169	33.14
Improved Record Keeping	135	26.5
Improved Continuous Assessment Practices	112	22.0
Feedback on proficiency in Pedagogy	93	18.2
Facilitating Conveying School Problem to relevant authority	89	17.10
Enchanted Evaluation of textbooks equipment and other facilities	86	16.9
Enchanted Students' Counseling and Guidance	61	12.0
Improved Teacher Motivation	53	10.0

141. The attestation to improvements occasioned by inspection and supervisory visits may not be high in any one area. However, shows that if properly harnessed inspection and supervision have the potential to impact positively on instructional outcome. The potential for Inspection and Supervision promote improved quality and efficiency, reiterates the need to ensure that every schools is regularly inspected and/supervised.

142. Organized in-school training on a variety of themes has been addressed as put of their professional development of teachers, which can enhance quality assurance.

Table 5.74: Frequency and Percentage of Sampled Schools that Organized a Variety of In-School Training for Teachers.

Training Theme	Frequency	Percentage
Continuous Assessment Practice	365	41.6
Record Keeping	364	41.4
Classroom Management	302	34.4
Teaching of Mathematics	217	24.7
Teaching of English	196	22.4
Making teaching Aids with Local Materials	165	18.5
Students Management	145	16.6
Cluster Meeting	98	11.1
Other Languages Teaching	89	10.0
Computer Application	75	8.6
Special Subject Teaching	16	1.8

143. Table 5.74 indicates for which sampled schools have organized in-service training as part of continuous capacity development for teachers. The challenge for policy makers and administrators is to encourage the spread of such best practices in school management to enhance quality assurance. Indeed 8.4 percent of the sampled teachers reported attendance at school organized workshops. Various professional development activities teachers have participated in include workshops and are indicated on table 5.75.

Table 5.75: Proportion of Sampled Teachers who have benefited from various professional development Activities

Type of Exposure	Proportion	Percent
Workshop	126	24.71
School Subject Meeting	83	16.28
Seminar	74	14.51
Induction Course	51	10.0
Teacher Vacation Programme	47	9.22
Cluster Zonal Meeting	0	0

144. The proportion of teachers who have had opportunity for exposure to various capacity building activities has been less than 25 percent (9.22 – 24.71 percent). For each training theme, the highest attendance at workshops and seminars by only planners at various levels of government and for inspectors and supervisors for monitoring the performance at school or subsystems level.

Statutory Records kept by the School

145. The proportion of sampled Principals who keep various statutory and other school records is indicated in Table 5.76.

Table 5.76: Proportion of Schools that keep various statutory and other schools records (n=834)

Statutory or Other Record	Frequency	Percentage
Admission Register	727	82.89
School Log Book	716	81.64
Daily/Scheme Work	709	80.62
Continuous Assessment	698	79.59
Teacher Attendance Register	697	79.48
Class Attendance Register	690	78.68
Financial Records/Account Book	644	73.43
Minutes of Staff Meetings	550	62.7
Behaviour/Punishment Book	519	59.18
Health Record	309	35.23
Records of Clubs and Society Meeting	235	26.80
Visitors Book	209	23.83
Minutes of Management/Board Meetings	111	12.9

146. Despite the requirement that statutory records should be kept by all schools, Table 5.76 indicates that although some of the records are available in the majority of schools, there is no single record that is available in all the sampled schools. Further investigations revealed that although a record like class attendance register may be entered as not available. Teachers have resorted to improvising exercise books so as to enter students attendance.

147. The extent to which experiences provided by a school are able to promote quality of output depend to a large extent on principals management competence and style. In contemporary management practice, vision and mission statements are essential requirements for articulation of focused goals and objectives as guides for an organizations operation. Depending on the size of a school, principals in Nigerian Secondary schools may have between one to four Vice Principals. The Vice Principal academic takes charge of academic issues including time-tabling, lesson planning, examinations etc while the Vice Principal Administration is in charge of teachers and students welfare. The Vice Principals are assisted by heads of departments for groups of related subjects. In some schools, there is a Vice Principal (special duties). Next in line are teachers with management responsibilities, such as heads of acade4mic departments, house mistresses, duty masters, year-group masters, class masters, etc, followed by students' school prefects and finally specific class monitors. The use of behaviours guidelines including code of conduct for teachers and students and management tools such as school development plans, annual activity calendars and target as well as keeping various school records make for more effective administration. Table 5.77 indicates the proportion of principals that apply various tools/strategies in school management.

Table 7.77 Strategies/Tools used by proportion of Sampled Principals in School Management.

Management Tool	Frequency	Percentage
School Target Setting	464	52.9
School Development Planning	446	50.5
School Motto or Mission Statement	416	47.4
Code of Conduct for Students (Rules and Regulations)	408	46.6
Year activity calendar	374	42.6
Code of Conduct for teachers	352	40.1
School Strategic Plan	252	26.5
In-house teacher development activities	157	17.9
School Vision Statement	127	14.2
Students Target Setting	118	3.5

148. Educational managers have asserted that Schools can improve the quality of their delivery if Principals apply each single one of these strategies/tools in the administering high schools. Principals who do not use any of the tools in Table 5.77 should be oriented on their usefulness and empowered to apply them. The various forms of in-house training organized by schools are shown in Table 5.77.

149. There are statutory records required to be kept by every school which apart from contributing to enhancing the effectiveness of school management at school level are also useful for planning and other policy decision making processes.

150. Requested to identity measures that would promote productivity in schools, the majority of principals (75.0 percent) recommended greater financial commitment by government through disbursement of running costs. Others (57.5 percent) also recommended the involvement of Parents Teachers Associations as effective means of improving school efficiency, while 38 percent recommended the constitution of school Governing Boards.

151. Asked to indicate factors that have the most constraining effect on school administration, over 80 percent of sampled principals complained of inadequate funding and students' indiscipline (32.2 percent). The issue of indiscipline amongst students was also considered by the majority of sampled primary school teachers in another study (ESA Primary Education, 2003), as the most critical contributory factor to students' underperformance. Other factors implicated as constraining school administration were officialdom/bureaucracy (29.2 percent), societal pressure (15.7 percent) and the lack of cooperation from parents (12.3 percent) and teachers (12.3 percent). To improve the effectiveness of school based management, each factor constituting, constraining school administration that is considered problematic by principals need to be redressed. where record keeping facilities are made available to very schools, inspectors and supervisor should endeavour to ensure proper recording keeping.

152. Incentives that are available which can impact positively on school management as well as enhance teacher effectiveness and the proportion of schools where teachers were accorded such benefits are indicated in table 5.78.

Table 5.78: Proportions of Schools where various Incentives are available to teachers

Proportion of Schools	Frequency	Percentage
Confirmation of Appointment	529	60.3
Rent Allowance	489	55.7
Transport Allowance	455	51.7
Annual Leave Allowance	440	49.0
Paid Annual Leave	426	48.5
Meal Subsidy	340	38.8
Gratuity	199	22.8
Pension	161	18.4
Science/Mathematics Teachers Allowance	159	18.2
Special Duty Allowance	66	7.6
Seasonal bonus	49	5.5
Overtime Allowance	34	3.7

153. The inclusion of such statutory incentives including confirmation of appointment, paid annual leave, gratuity and pension was to determine whether various incentives are paid as well as accorded teachers in private schools as well. Principals in public schools who failed to acknowledge the existence of such incentives as pensions, gratuity and paid annual leave and related others are most likely those in State where government have not been regular in fulfilling these obligations and the fact that serving teacher do not benefit form pensions and gratuity until retirement. The payment of rural allowances to teachers who accept posting to rural communities is available only to a relatively few schools (only 3.7 percent) compared with the proportion of rural schools sampled (46.5 percent). Rural allowance should be extended to all teachers in remote rural communities while, state governments and private proprietors should ensure equity in payment of allowances due to teachers. Indeed, the Teachers Registration Council should streamline salaries and allowances of teachers in public and private schools as this will safeguard the interest of teachers, who are often exploited by private proprietors on the pretext of an increasing number of qualified unemployed teachers. This had been empirically confirmed through interviews with teachers in private rural schools during various school census validation exercises. Teachers in these schools alleged that their total monthly take home pay was ₦1,500 (about 10.2 dollars), placing them on poverty income category. This issue needs to be addressed by relevant regulatory agencies in education.

Evaluation

154. Evaluation accords a means of monitoring the effectiveness of curriculum delivery and is achieved through regular learner assessments to obtain feedback on what they have been taught. Apart from the more regular type of evaluation targeting individual students, in contemporary practice systemic evaluation or monitoring learning achievement focus on assessing how much a particular cohort or representative sample of pupils at a particular level of schooling, have learned with reference to curricular expectations. Analysis of both types of evaluation procedures i.e the routine teacher evaluation (continuous assessment) and system evaluation were undertaken in the present under the two heading ***Continuous Assessment Practice*** **and** ***Assessment of Learning Achievement.***

Continuous Assessment Practice

155. The National Policy on Education recommends the use of Continuous Assessment in the evaluation of pupils at schools level. The proficiency in interpretation utilization and application of various components of continuous assessment however, differs amongst schools. In some cases, continuous assessment is misconstrued as continuous testing in which case teachers apply only written tests in aggregating scores for students' terminal or annual report. Table 7.8 indicates the proportion of sampled teachers that applied a variety of continuous assessment procedures.

Table 5.79 Proportion of Sampled Teachers that Applied various Continuous Assessment Procedures

Procedure	Frequency	Percent
Class Work/Assignments	450	88.24
Home Work	393	77.06
Class Tests	373	73.13
Quiz	202	39.61
Individual Project	87	17.06
Group Work/Assignment	81	15.88
Group Project	74	14.51

156. The most widely applied continuous assessment procedures were class assignments, home work and class tests. Less than 20 percent of teachers used other procedures including individual projects, group assignments and group projects which are more challenging to learners: requiring learners to be more innovative, enquiry oriented and sometimes demands application of e-learning skills. The limited application of a variety of continuous assessment procedure is not unexpected, since only 13.92 percent of the sampled teachers had undergone training on continuous assessment practice as already observed. To ensure proper application of continuous assessment, all practicing teachers must be duly orientated. On application of proper procedure, knowledge of potentials for application of continuous assessment scores would further enrich its benefits to learners. In this regard on ly 58.24 percent were informed by the usefulness of

class tests as a means of diagnosising students learning problems with a view to providing appropriate remedial measures.

Co-curricular Activities

157. For all round development, the National Policy on Education recognizes the importance of Co-curricular activities, in promoting character building and promoting the acquisition of desirable behaviours amongst students. Schools are expected to provide a wide range of co-curricular activities including, clubs and societies to meet the diverse students' interests and encourage participation by every student.

158. The proportion of teachers who indicated the availability of various clubs and societies in sampled schools and the proportion of 9750 sampled students who belonged to various clubs and societies are indicated on Table 5.80.

Table 5.80: Proportion of Teachers who indicated availability and Proportion of sampled Students who belonged to various Clubs and Societies

Club/Society	Teachers		Students	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Religious Societies	-	-	2837	29.1
Debating Society	276	54.12	2246	23.1
Drama/Literary Society	326	63.73	1667	17.1
JETs Club	220	43.41	1163	12.0
Red Cross Society	172		446	
n=	994			

159. From the proportion of teachers indicating the availability of various Clubs and Societies in their schools, it is evident that not all secondary schools have inaugurated active/functional clubs and societies as required by the national policy. Indeed even in schools where some of the clubs and societies exist, the proportion of subscribing students is very low as shown in table 7.8. The most popular are the religious based clubs; this may be due to the prevailing polarity of religious activities in the country. However, in spite of the apparent popularity only about 30 percent of students belonged to the religious clubs. The next more subscribed societies/clubs are debating (23.1 percent) drama (17.1 percent) and JETs Clubs (12.0 percent). A 12.0 percent participation in JETs Club is low against the background that JETS Club receives a lot of support and encouragement from government and private sector organizations. Principals and teachers need to orient students on the potential benefits of Clubs/Societies and mobilize their participation. Not withstanding, 78.7 percent of sampled students confirmed that teachers do belong to and participate in activities of various clubs and societies while only 12.7 percent claimed that teachers do not participate. Every teacher owes it an obligation to support activities of clubs and societies at least in their subject areas.

STUDENTS HEALTH AND OTHER WELFARE ISSUES

Availability of Health personnel

160. The availability of health personnel is essential to sustaining prompt attention to students' health needs especially as health facilities are not generally easily accessible to the common man. In rural schools where hospitals and health centres may be completely lacking, it is necessary to ensure the availability of basic first aid facilities. The majority of sampled schools had no school based health personnel. The most frequently available health personnel, were health attendants (17.1 percent) who were available in only 17.1 percent of schools. Others were a trained nurse (12.1 percent), visiting nurse (5.3 percent) and visiting Doctor only 4.2 percent).

161. Access to basic health facilities or personnel such as health attendant or visiting nurse within a school or resource centre is necessary to improving the conduciveness of schools. Only 17.4 percent of the primary Schools went for borrowing equipment or tools. In view of the pervasive lack in most secondary schools it is advocated that institutional capacity of resource centres where they are available, be expanded to include health and related facilities and human resource to provide guidance and counseling and other social welfare services. These would in addition promote the psychological general well being of the students and improve disposition to learn.

Physical and Health Education

162. At JSS level students at JSS level are required to offer physical and health education (PHE) until the selection of subjects in JSS 3, while students at the Senior Secondary level are not by policy compelled to offer PHE. On how students in SS classes are encouraged to participate in physical exercise including sports and games, the majority of principal provided opportunity for them to participate in inter-house sports and athletics competitions, while about 56 percent of the schools designated compulsory games period. About 7.3 percent of schools (38 in number) which is exactly the proportion of schools that had no access to sports/games facilities (4.3 percent) made no arrangements whatsoever to involve SS students in any form of physical exercise. Table 7.10 indicates the proportion of schools that have various sports/games facilities.

Table 5.81: Proportion of Schools indicating availability of various games/sports facilities

Facility	Frequency	Percentage
Playing field/Athletic Field	589	67.1
Table Tennis	319	36.4
Handball Pitch	309	35.3
Volleyball Pitch	290	33.1
Football Pitch	286	32.4
Basket Ball Pitch	226	25.7
Lawn Tennis Court	12.5	14.2
Tackwendo	92	10.4
Hockey Pitch	67	7.7
None	38	0.0

Number of Schools =

163. It is necessary to point out that schools that provide facilities for athletics, football, hockey and related others, do not necessarily have separate fields for exercise, but as would be expected use the same field as may be necessitated. In the same vein, volleyball, lawn tennis and basketball could be played on the same pitch as suitable. Table 5.82 indicates arrangements made by schools to ensure that that the students are opportuned to take part in various sports/games where basic facilities were not available.

Table 5.82: Arrangements by Proportions of Sampled Schools that had no games facilities to expose students to various sports/Games

Arrangement	Frequency	Percentage
Use facilities in nearest school	97	11.8
Organize joint interschool sport with neighbouring schools using common facilities	95	10.8
States provide resource games/athletic centre	22	2.5
No arrangement	38	0.4

164. Playing/athletics fields which were the most widely available facilities were found in only 67.1 percent of schools. While less than 28 percent of schools bothered to utilize facilities outside their schools. The centralization of facilities in resource centres or the sharing of facilities by designated schools were specific facilities are not available should be made obligatory. This could be achieved by designating existing facilities to clusters of schools.

165. The majority of principals (73.52 percent) who do not have various facilities expressed willingness to take advantage of centralized arrangements when put in place. The rest (26.47 percent) were not so positively disposed to any such centralized arrangement.

Sexual Harassment in Schools

166. An empirical analysis of the policy and status of basic education in Nigeria (FGN/UNICEF SAPA 1992), had identified pregnancy as one of the contributory factors to girls dropping out of primary schools. Since then however, the problem continues to exist. Although the present campaign on HIV/AIDS prevention could have a direct positive effect in reducing teenage pregnancy and at the same time generate an empirical framework to addressing the menace, Principals were required to respond to related items on the issues. Although the majority of principals alleged that sexual harassment did not exist in their schools, an appreciable proportion III (12.7 percent) reported that students had been sexually harassed. The nature of harassment in schools where harassments have been reported is indicated on Table 5.83.

Table 5.83: Proportions of Schools indicating Nature of Sexual Harassment in Schools

Nature of Harassment	Frequency (n=111)	Percentage
Male students harassing female students	67	7.6
Male outside school harassing female students	60	6.84
Male teachers harassing female students	35	31.53

167. Although not so pervasive, the various forms of sexual harassment should necessarily be addressed to protect the girl-child, reduce the incidence of teenage pregnancies and arrest the incidence of dropping out by pregnant students.

168. Table 5.84 indicates the regularity in which female students' dropped out of school because of pregnancy in schools that have recorded such cases.

Table 5.84: Regularities with which Pregnancy Occasioned Dropping Out of School in Sampled Secondary Schools.

Regularity	Frequency	Percentage
Frequent	25	2.9
Occasionally	205	23.4
Rarely	179	20.4
Never	243	27.7
No response	225	25.60
Total	877	100

169. The number of principals who provided data under frequent to rarely indicate that pregnancies are more prevalent to sexual harassment. The chances of students getting pregnant do not bear a direct relationship with observed cases of sexual harassment. Some of the schools where students had gotten pregnant 145 (16.5 percent) have allowed affected female pupils (young

mothers) to return to school after delivery while as many as 3445 (39.3 percent) do not make such allowances. On the probability of continuing education for female students who had fallen prey of teenage pregnancy, only 18.4 percent of communities in which girl-mothers exist have non-formal education facilities for continuing their education while the greater proportion (44.0 percent) do not. Towards EFA goal achievement there is need to make provision for continuing education for girls who fall prey to teenage pregnancy and to counsel them on the usefulness of going back to school

Other Ailments Occasioning Absenteeism and Death

170. The identification of various ailments that contribute to promoting staff/students' absenteeism or death is important to instituting appropriate measures to addressing specific ailments. These ailments could constrain participation and enhance wastage if left unattended. The proportion of primary and secondary schools where various ailments contribute to teacher and students absenteeism are indicated in table 5.85.

Table 5.85 Proportion of Primary and Secondary Schools where various Ailments promote Staff/Students Absenteeism

AILMENT	STAFF		Students		Teacher	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Malaria	805	81.6	795	81.0	471	48.0
Diarrhea	164	16.7	171	17.4	114	11.6
Typhoid	419	47.4	146	14.9	101	10.3
Hepatitis B	176	3.2	23	2.3	91	3.0
HIV/AIDS	9	0.9	8	0.8	73	7.4
Hypertension	100	13.4	NA	NA	NA	NA
Diabetes	37	4.4	NA	NA	NA	NA
T.B.	15	2.2	8	0.8	50	4.8
Asthma	29	3.7	20	2.0	57	5.8
Heart Failure	18	1.8	NA	NA	NA	NA

171. It is obvious that the most common ailments that constrain attendance of staff including teachers as well as students to school are malaria, typhoid fever and diarrhoea. While malaria is already receiving governments' heightened attention, provision of improved health and sanitation facilities to schools and communities could further enhance the health status of teachers and pupils and increase time on task/participation. Not only do these ailments affect attendance some of them, according to the principals, have actually caused the death of staff/teacher and students Table 5.86.

Table 5.86: Number of Teachers and Students who have died from various Ailments as shown in Records in Sampled Primary and Secondary Schools

AILMENT	Teachers				Students			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Accident	106	10.8	31	3.2	122	12.4	45	4.6
Malaria	29	3.0	6	0.6	44	4.5	25	2.5
Typhoid	26	2.6	21	2.1	30	3.1	19	1.9
Witchcraft	12	1.2	14	1.4	38	3.9	24	2.4
Diarrhea	11	1.1	7	0.7	11	1.1	13	1.3
Heart Failure	7	0.7	5	0.5	7	0.7	12	1.2
T.B.	6	0.6	2	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.1
Hepatitis B	6	0.6	7	0.7	3	0.3	2	0.2
HIV/AIDS	4	0.4	3	0.3	2	02	1	0.1
Asthma	3	0.3	1	0.1	1	01	0	0.0

172. For both teachers and students death from accidents largely vehicular accidents was the most frequent reiterating the need for intensification of on-going campaign by the Federal Road Safety Corps on road safety. Malaria and typhoid are the major ailments that promote death of teachers and students. Combating malaria can be achieved through intensification of the Roll-Back Malaria programme, while typhoid can be eradicated through provision of portable water to schools and their immediate communities. Indeed the various diseases/ailments implicated in promoting death of teachers and students need to be addressed through development of appropriate linkage with health service providers.

KEY ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

173. At this stage, based on the findings thus far, it is possible to arrive at specific conclusions and make a few recommendations. The order in which these are presented does not necessarily indicate their order of importance.

174. 0f particular importance is the issue of access, from the perspectives of both gender and geography. While it should be acknowledged that much has been done lately to enhance accessibility of secondary schools to most learners, much still needs be done, especially in states where schools are not enough. Ideally, a learner should not have to walk more than 2 or 3 kilometres before getting to the nearest school.

175 Clearly, from the gender perspective, the imbalance needs be addressed such that girls are stimulated to attend and remain in school for the duration of the course. The situation in which many girls drop out of school needs be corrected. In making this observation, the focus is usually on how to woo more girls to go to school and keep them there; but there are several places where boys too are no longer interested in secondary education. Means should be

found to stimulate them to remain in school and equip them with what they would need to face the challenges of the future.

176 Equally necessary is the need to diversify opportunities for students to take account of their various talents and cater for several needs. The practice of catering for just academic interests and talents should change.

177. This calls for a wholesale review of the curriculum to conform to the 21st century demands. If the USA in the 1960s could face the challenge of the new space age through a total review of the curriculum, so must Nigeria re-examine areas of the curriculum that should prepare the country for the demands of the future.

178. In virtually all the test results examined, students in the private schools excelled those in the public schools. This should counsel that there are certain factors that make the private schools successful. The challenge should be to adequately equip all schools with all the facilities needed to make education meaningful. Besides, adequate number of teachers should be provided in all schools and they should be so encouraged to perform to the best of their abilities.

179. Similarly, that students in urban schools excelled those in rural settings. This result suggests that rural schools, which are mostly public, should be consciously beefed up to stimulate attendance and promote performance there.

180. Finally, community participation and involvement should be stimulated. There was a time when communities engaged in a healthy competition in providing schools and facilities for learning. The present stance by most states that repel participation even by the local PTAs should be reviewed.

CHAPTER SIX
TEACHER EDUCATION: DEMAND AND SUPPLY

INSTITUTIONAL AND NORMATIVE FRAMEWORK

Historical antecedents

1. The first training institution for personnel to ***teach*** in Nigeria is acknowledged to be that set up by the Church Missionary Society in Abeokuta in 1855. The Presbyterians in Calabar (1892), the Baptist in Ogbomoso (1897), and the Wesleyans in Ibadan (1905), followed by providing training facilities in response to their needs for catechists and teachers. The missionaries determined these needs and were in full control of the supply side. There was thus an ideal situation to achieve a perfect balance between demand and supply. Later, the need for administrative clerks and interpreters that expanded the demand side was added to the supply line and was easy to cope with, with minor changes to the curriculum because the administrators and missionaries worked closely together at that point in time. Later still, expansion at the secondary education level bridged the gaps created for specialized skills required outside of that provided by ***teachers.***

2. The 1955 Universal Primary Education (UPE) program of the Western Region; the 1957 program of the Eastern Region and the free UPE program of the Lagos Town Council of the same year, all had the serious implication of turning out a mass of literate youths with no foreseeable employment to go to. One of the solutions that were actually proffered was for more schooling at the end of the primary cycle, which translated into training more teachers at the higher level before the floodgates of these graduates were opened 6 years later. The establishment of Secondary Modern Schools and all sorts of vocational and skill-oriented institutions at this period confirms the consideration given to the issue of employment for these children. The Federal Government's belated participation in offering free primary education to all Nigerian children in 1976 completed the circle of expansion at this level with the consequence that more and better teachers were needed to realize the objectives of these grand schemes.

3. The Elliot Commission of 1943 culminated in the eventual establishment of the first University College in Nigeria in January 1948. In 1946-47 an Inter-University Council delegation had recommended the establishment of colleges of higher education as regional colleges. The activities of this body eventually gave birth to the Nigerian Colleges of Arts, Science and Technology in Zaria (1952), Ibadan (1954), and Enugu (1955). These institutions were to provide skilled personnel to fill the various positions that were to be created as the result of trends in the political thinking of the Home Office.

4. According to the National Policy on Education (2004 edition), the goals of teacher education shall be to:

i. produce highly motivated, conscientious and efficient classroom teachers for all levels of our educational system;

ii. encourage further the spirit of enquiry and creativity in teachers;

iii. help teachers to fit into the social life of the community and the society at large and enhance their commitment to national goals;

iv. provide teachers with the intellectual and professional background adequate for their assignment and make them adaptable to changing situations; and

v. enhance teachers commitment to the teaching profession.

ACCESS AND EQUITY ISSUES

Physical access

5. Access refers to the spatial factors of distance, topology and the location of schools. Although this type of access has greater relevance when examining the access to school of primary school-age children, it could when taken in conjunction with other dimensions of access, facilitate or inhibit enrolment into teacher education institutions. Teachers are required mainly where there are children enrolled for learning.

6 There are currently 68 Colleges of Education for training primary school teachers spread throughout the country with some states hosting two or more colleges established either by the Federal and State governments or by private organizations. Only two recently created states of Bayelsa and Ebonyi have no Colleges of Education located within their boundaries. As has been reported above, in addition to Colleges of Education, University Faculties of Education and the Schools of Education of some Polytechnics have the mandate and facilities to train teachers particularly for secondary schools. With this broad spread of teacher training institutions therefore, it cannot be said that there are limited opportunities for those desirous of training as teachers as a result of distant location of such institutions.

Table 6.1; Distribution of Higher Education by Proprietorship

Ownership	Universities	Polytechnics	Monotechnics	Colleges of Education	TOTAL
Federal	26	17	11	20	74
State	19	28	9	41	97
Private	8	2	2	6	18
TOTAL	53	47	22	68	189

7. Although about 70% of the institutions offering teacher education are located in the urban area, there is equitable access for all who effectively demand teacher education. This is because their geographical spread is such that no one would travel beyond 100 kilometers in most states of Nigeria without getting to a tertiary institution where teachers are trained. In addition to the availability of teacher training institutions around the country, there is the National Teachers' Institute (NTI) whose mandate is also to offer various pre-degree programmes of teacher education by distance learning throughout the country.

Table 6.2 shows the locationing distribution of a sample of teacher education institutions in Nigeria

Table 6.2: Sampled Teacher Training Institutions (other than Colleges of Education) by Location

Location	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency	Cumulative %	Remarks
Invalid Urban Rural	2 27 9	5.3 71.1 23.7	5.3 76.3 100	Over 70% of teachers Institutions are located in urban centers.
Total	38	100.0		

Social access

8 In the context of this study social access has to do with the effect of social class on the ability to benefit from teacher education. Again responses indicate that there is no trace of class or social discrimination in considerations relating to admission to teacher education. What ESA studies have confirmed is that what has inhibited access to teacher education courses over the years can be traced in part to the poor status of teachers and the low perception of society of the profession (A2). This factor will be discussed further when psychological access is examined.

Table 6.3: Percentages Index on Teacher Welfare

S/No	Item	Teachers Union				Educational Parastatals			
		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Adequate provision of teacher welfare		8.3	25.0	66.7			66.7	33.3
2	Teacher highly rated in the society		25.0	58.3	16.7			33.3	66.7
3	Teacher are involved with planning and execution of programmes and activities	25.0	66.7	8.3			66.7	33.3	
4	Working environment is conducive			33.3	66.7			66.7	33.3
5	No housing loan for teachers	58.3	41.7			33.3	66.7		

Gender-related access

9. Circumstances that prevent any of the two sexes from benefiting from educational provision is described as gender-related factor. Statistics of enrolment in teacher training institutions show that teaching, especially at the basic education level, is indeed, the occupation of the feminine gender, especially in the southern parts of the country. However, female participation in the northern states is yet to exceed an average of 35% of the pool of teachers in the area. Table 1 illustrates this adequately.

10. With regard to **access by gender**, evidence at Table 1 shows that female participation in teacher education ranged from 63% to 94% in the Southern States and from 44% to about 17% in the northern States (NCCE, 2002). A similar trend, though with lower peaks is observed in the polytechnics with the highest female participation rate of 77.3% in Anambra State and a corresponding 0.0% in Bauchi State. Among the Faculties of Education of the Universities, the female participation rate in admission to courses in Education ranged between 52.01% in 1998/99 and 54.96% in 2000/2001.

Table 6.4: Student Enrolment in some Colleges of Education by State, Year, and Gender

S/N	STATE	1999/2000 MF	1999/2000 F	1999/2000 FPR	2000/2001 MF	2000/2001 F	2000/2001 FPR
1	Abia	1382	1109	82.25	1198	852	71.12
2	Anambra	4511	3951	87.59	5319	4977	93.57
3	Edo	2991	2084	69.68	3431	2222	64.76
4	Ekiti	3250	2171	66.80	3352	2610	77.86
5	Ogun	4551	2793	61.37	5886	3730	63.37
6	Adamawa	3875	1481	38.22	5211	1792	34.39
7	Jigawa	2061	477	23.14	1989	881	44.29
8	Katisina	2782	510	18.33	3062	526	16.85
9	Kebbi	1807	337	18.65	1999	470	23.52
10	Yobe	1420	250	17.61	2266	417	18.40

Source: NCCE Statistical Digest on Colleges of Education, Vol.6, April 2002

Psychological access

11. This factor refers to individual traits and dispositions which influence peoples' ability to benefit maximally from educational provisions and opportunities. In some parts of the country, education has been conceived as something beneficial that ultimately confers social and economic privileges on those who pursue it. In spite of this understanding, access to teacher education has not been taken advantage of for other reasons even where the worth of education has been understood and internalized.

Psychological factors that inhibit access to education have manifested themselves in some parts of the country where there prevails a wrong perception that western education that makes boys and girls to mix freely is inimical to the upright/moral growth of the girl child. Partly for this reason, a College of Education (Technical) has since 1990 been located at Gusau exclusively for women. Even under this condition, this special provision to promote the access of women to teacher education has not been successful. Student enrolment in the institution is still far below capacity as shown by the fact that in the 2000/2001 session it enrolled a total of 795 students while a similar institution located at Umunze in Anambra state that was established in the same year as the all female College in Gusau, enrolled 1766 which included 1594 females.

12. In the Polytechnics and Colleges of Education (PCE) selection examination of the year 2001/2002, only 14,338 females out of the total applicants or 7.15% opted for teaching out of which only 8,963 were found admissible to education courses. The conclusion is thus inevitable that access has not been a problem to anyone willing to train as a teacher in Nigeria. In fact,

to expand access for under-qualified applicants, there is a one-year Pre-NCE program to provide remedial courses for those not able to enter directly.

13. Entry qualifications have been gradually raised with a view to making them equal those of major professions partly as a means to erase the unfortunate image of teacher trainees being ***second best*** or ***dregs*** of academic institutions***.*** The minimum entry requirements since 2002 now stand at five subjects passed at national terminal examinations with credit in three of these at one sitting, or four credits at two sittings. Two of these credits must be of relevance to the course being undertaken by the trainee. These and other entry conditions parallel requirements for entry into most courses in Nigerian universities.

Content of Programmes

14. The contents of teacher training institutions have continued to be adapted to the changing needs of the society. With the current emphasis on universal primary education, teachers are being prepared specially in Primary Education Studies and more credits are being demanded for certification in that study. The curriculum has been enlarged to provide computer education courses as a core subject and others that deal with environmental and HIV/AIDS issues. The concerns of the times that threaten the stability of the society and degrade the standard of living like drug abuse, breakdown of family values, cultism, sexual harassment and endemic corruption are all topics that feature in the preparation of teachers.

15. Other ESA studies have drawn attention to the need to broaden the information base of teachers. Also, efforts are being made to address deficiencies observed in the skills needed to effectively involve the learners in the series of experiences that will make 'subjects' like Mathematics, English, and Science meaningful and related to life.

Length of courses

16. The grade of teachers and the lengths of their training have changed over the years. Formerly, the Teachers' Grade II Certificate that was obtained after 4 to 5 years post-primary training was popular but currently, only 26% of the teacher producer centers would wish to train that level of teachers now. The National Policy has prescribed the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) obtained after 3 years of post-secondary training as the basic minimum qualification for teaching. The Colleges of Education (92.9%) overwhelmingly support the 3-year NCE teacher education, as do 50% of other teacher training institutions.

17. What is in practice is that entrants who wish to take a first degree in education spend a minimum of four academic sessions post-secondary to graduate. This period is inclusive of about three months of teaching practice. For students who enter colleges of education or the polytechnic to obtain the Nigeria Certificate in Education (a professional teaching diploma), the duration is three years, which also includes three months of supervised teaching practice. NCE holders are expected to spend an additional minimum period of three years in a

University to earn a Bachelor of Education degree. In some vocational/technical areas, three months of active service in an industrial work situation is a requirement for graduation. Students of foreign or Nigerian languages undergo three months of acculturation at appropriate locations.

18. The length of training for prospective graduate teachers has been criticized as inadequate and recommendations have been made to extend it to five years so that one full year would be devoted to gaining experience as a full time teacher in the real world in which schools exist (IMSU, 2004). Reacting to the question of the duration of training that assures quality graduate output of teachers, 42.9% of the universities support a 5-year training period for student teachers in universities. Only 14.2% express support for the existing 4-year duration. The polytechnics and colleges of education were generally agreed that the duration of the NCE program should remain at three years. There is however a call for an internship period of service before NCE certificate holders qualify for registration with the Teachers Registration Council (TRC)

Quality and Profile of Teacher Trainers

19. In the three academic sessions of 1999/2000 to 2001/2002, the academic staff of six teacher education institutions grew in number from 1737 to 2059, an increase of about 19%. Unfortunately the female component of the teachers of education did not increase at a corresponding proportion. By 1999, the female gender participation among the academic staff of teacher education institutions was 25.2%. By 2001/2002, (that is after three years) it had only gained an insignificant 0.3%.

20. Female staff proportions in various are Home Economics (100%), Yoruba language (53.8%), Primary Education Studies (52.9%), French (47.4%), English (36.6%), Hausa (29.4%) and Business Studies (29.3%). The subjects with the poorest representation of women teachers are Technical Education (3.4%), Physical and Health Education (6.3%), Mathematics (8.2%) and Agricultural Education (12.9%). Igbo as a Nigerian language has only one male staff to teach it in the ESA diagnostic study.

21. The situation analysis indicates the persistence of low-level women participation in Technical Education. Ehiemere (2000) attributed this to role conflicts between the work place and the home based on religious beliefs and the cultural dependency of women on their husbands. Adigun (2001), in addition, blames limited female role models in the area of technology for low participation of women in technical education. An insignificant 3.4% female representation in the academic staff of Technical Education Departments seems too low to make desired impact on female students to want to enroll in Science, Technology and Mathematics at the secondary school level which is the feeder of Colleges of Education and other teachers' institutions.

22. It is important to note that not all the teacher educators were professionally qualified for their job. In 1999/2000, some 32% of the academic staff did not possess relevant pedagogy to serve as teacher trainers. About 62%

of these unqualified teacher educators were first-degree holders while 34.5% possessed Master's degree. It is noteworthy that 94% of the Professors that teach in the system were not professionally qualified to do so. The situation is not in keeping with the provision of the National Policy on Education (FGN 1977, 1981, 1998 and 2004) which provides that all teachers from pre-primary to university should be professionally qualified. There appears to be a sort of reluctance on the part of university lecturers in particular to undergo professional training in Education. The marginal percentage difference in the number of unqualified teacher educators between 1999/2000 (32%) and 2001/2002 (30.8%) is 1.2%.

23. The proportion of female staff members of teacher education institutions stood at 22% in 1999/2000 with a slight increase to 24.3% by 2001/2002. This low proportion of female academic staff is due to low-level female participation in certain subject areas like Technical Education, Agricultural Education, Mathematics and the various core sciences. There is no evidence of gender discrimination in the appointment of academic staff of tertiary institutions since the appointments are based on merit. It is pertinent to note that the female participation rate in admissions into Faculties of Education that stood in 1998/99 at 52.01% increased to 54.96% in 2000/2001 (UNC, 2003). For admissions into the Colleges of Education, the female participation rate in some southern states by 2000/2001 exceeded 75.0% while it remained as low as 20.0% in some northern states (NCCE, 2002).

Achievement of National Objectives

24. The various categories of teacher training institutions were asked to identify those objectives of the National Policy on teacher education that they regularly achieved. The response shows that 76.3% of the institutions claim to achieve the objective of ***producing highly motivated classroom teachers***. Different categories of teacher do not seem to contribute equally to the attainment of this objective however. For instance while 92.9% of the output of Colleges of Education could be said to be ***highly motivated classroom teachers,*** only 57 representing 1% of the output from universities and 75.0% from polytechnics and monotechnics could be classified as meeting that objective of teacher education as stated in the national policy.

TEACHER DEMAND AND SUPPLY

Defining the Teacher

25 Of the teachers sampled, 56.5% teach all the subjects on the timetable to a single class. This practice should be viewed against the result of the study in which 23 of the 281 NCE holders representing 8.2% teaching in Primary Schools majored in English Language; 22 or 7.8% in French language; 10 or 3.6% in Mathematics and a negligible 3 or 1.1% in primary science. The preparation of the teachers and the use to which their training is put are diametrically opposed. Obviously a new type of teacher is either required or a review of the use of teachers has to be undertaken.

26. A total of 549 primary school teachers in 26 states of the federation were sampled. Of these 43% was teaching in urban schools while 53% were located in rural areas. It was not possible to locate the status of the remaining 4%. Of the 549 teachers, 55% were male. About 60% of the teachers were under 35 years of age. This is important in planning for retraining especially when cost implications are being considered. The fact that many of these teachers will still be in service in the next 25 years if they are retained till the retiring age of 60, gives much needed flexibility to planners of the education system. In the sample, 64% have the NCE certificate that is the basic minimum for entry into the teaching profession at the primary school level. About 12.4% of those in the sample hold qualifications higher than the minimum demanded by regulations. If like others with the NCE certificate, these teachers have specialized in a single subject, they would be more useful at higher institutions where their specializations could be put to better use.

27. The Teachers Grade II certificate is still accepted as a valid teaching qualification until the end of 2006 (JCCE, 2004). On the basis of that decision, 75.4% of the teachers sampled would be classified as qualified to teach at the primary school level.

28. Only a few of the teachers (about 2.5%) sampled accepted responsibility for the poor performance of their pupils. They blamed the poor performance of learners on things like pupils' inability to respond positively to teaching probably due to poor communication skills, irregularity in attendance, and poor participation. Thirty-six point six percent (36.6%) of the teachers sampled attributed the poor performance of pupils to the practice of automatic promotion from class to class. To improve the situation, 41% of teachers suggested the provision of adequate infrastructural facilities, while another 20% suggested improved teaching methodology. This was in fact an indictment by teachers of teachers for not making the pupils active participants during lessons.

29. A total of 5,816 pupils from 36 states of the federation and the Federal Capital Territory completed the questionnaire for the ESA study. About 49% of the respondents were drawn from urban schools while 51% were from rural schools. The distribution of the schools by ownership showed that 70%, belonged to states and 15% to private bodies

30. Only 12.5% of the pupils responded that their teachers used varied techniques in delivering their lessons; 4.1% acknowledged that their teachers were regular to classes and 2% adjudged their teachers as always punctual to classes. A more consistent assessment emerged when the pupils were segregated according to subject areas that are core to all studies. Table **6.5** shows the students' assessment of their teachers.

Table 6.5: Students' Assessment of their Teachers' Variable Attributes in Percentages

SUBJECTS	Percentage Rating	Attendance	Punctuality	Relationship with Student	Dedication to Duty
ENGLISH	Good Poor	87.3 11.1	79.9 11.1	82.0 9.1	80.5 10.4
MATHS	Good Poor	83.3 8.6	79.8 9.7	80.3 9.7	79.0 10.1
INT. SCIENCE	Good Poor	81.7 8.8	78.6 9.8	78.5 9.7	78.3 9.3
SOCIAL STUDIES	Good Poor	49.1 4.7	78.8 8.5	78.5 8.1	75.9 8.7
BUSINESS STUDIES	Good Poor	73.2 8.5	68.2 9.8	66.4 8.2	42.7 6.6

31. Table 6.5 also shows that all classes, except Social Studies, were well attended. The teachers of English, Mathematics, Integrated Science and Social Studies were scored over 78% for punctuality. They also seem to have established a high rapport with their students who scored them above 78% for their relationship. If the assessment of the students is reliable as to the commendation of the teachers, then the English teachers would come first for their dedication to duty, followed by Mathematics teachers. The teachers of Business Studies were scored lowest (42.7%) This group of teachers were scored lowest also in punctuality to classes (86.2%) and in their relationship with students (66.4).

Supply Considerations - Quantity

32. The situation analysis shows that student enrolment into Education courses in the sample of seven universities was 9,469 in 1999. This figure decreased to 6,180 in 2000 and increased sharply to 10,458 in 2001. This staggering increase of 69.22% in one year cannot be dissociated from demand for teachers consequent on the requirement of the UBE program that received a new lease of life from the new administration that came into power in 1999.

33. In the case of Polytechnics, there was a total enrolment of 18,608 in 8 Polytechnics by 1998. The figure reduced to 15,043 by 2000 and decreased further to 11,524 by 2002. This represents a 38% decrease on the 1998 enrolment. This has to be interpreted, not in isolation but in terms of the totality of teacher trainees enrolled for these years as supported by data from other sources and institutions for training teachers.

34. The 15 Colleges of Education in the sample recorded a total enrolment of 14,438 for the year 1998. The enrolment reduced to 11,656 by 2000. The enrolment increased to 14,272 by 2001 but dipped to 11,373 by 2002. However, data on total student enrolment supplied to the NCCE and reproduced under **Table 6.6** below suggest an increasing trend in enrolment into Colleges of Education. The estimated rates of increase are 18.39% in 1999/2000 and 70.04% in the 2001/2002 intakes. The heightened advocacy for increased teacher production for implementing the UBE program may account for the increase.

TABLE 6.6: *Total Students Environment in Colleges of Education by Level, Year and Gender*

LEVEL	1999/2000			2000/2001			2001/2002		
	MF	**F**	**FPR**	**MF**	**F**	FPR	**MF**	**F**	**FPR**
100 Level	38530	19067	**49.5**	45614	23901	52.4	77562	41642	**53.7**
200 Level	28253	15831	**55.8**	33165	17917	54.0	53370	28041	**52.5**
300 Level	29253	16131	**55.1**	38680	21527	65.7	42624	21077	**49.4**
TOTAL	**96154**	**51029**	**53.1**	**117459**	**63345**	53.9	**173556**	**90760**	**52.3**

Supply Considerations - Subject Diversity

35. The National Policy on Education provides for a teacher-pupil ratio of 1:40 in primary and secondary schools in Nigeria. To ensure adequate supply of teachers to meet the prescribed target, an admission ratio into the universities and polytechnics of 30:70 as between the Arts and the Sciences was prescribed.

In the Colleges of Education, the admission ratio of 40:6 grossly distorts the intention of Policy.

36. The analysis of the situation in seven universities covered by the ESA study shows that in 1999/2000, a total of 2,898 students with 64.2% female participation graduated from the Faculties of Education. Of these, only 178 specialized in Education. While 153 of them majored in Arts and languages (that is 86%) with 29.4% female participation, only 25 representing 14% were in the sciences. Incidentally, 60% of those who majored in the sciences were females, more than 50% of which number studied Home Economics.

37 By the 2000/2001 session, the seven universities surveyed turned out a total of 17,870 graduates in several fields of specialization of which Education contributed only 9.8%. Among the 1749 that graduated in Education, only 181 had specialized teaching subjects of who three were for Mathematics, two for Biology, and one For Chemistry. No graduate opted for Integrated Science or French. The female participation, which was 59.9%, is a slight decline from the rate of the preceding session.

38. By 2001/2002, the graduate output from the Education Faculties had increased to 2,720 with 53.1% female participation. There was an increase in the number that elected to train as subject teachers. A total of 305 trained in different subjects with Arts and language accounting for 69.8% of which 67.9% were females. Thus, the approximate Science to Arts ratio in the graduate output of approximately **30:70** is a direct reversal of a policy that is skewed in favour of Home Economics Education that by classification is a science.

39. Table 6.7 below shows graduate output from 13 Colleges of Education for the years 1999/2000 and 2001/2002. There is evidence of quantitative increase in the output of trained teachers particularly in the sciences and vocational subjects. The increase in graduate output in Technology Education is 67.8% while that for Computer Studies rose by 560.2%. The Science to Arts ratio by 1999/2000 was 19:81 but become 27**:**74 by 2001/2002. In effect, the planned ratio of 60**:**40 in favor of the sciences is still far from being attained. When we add the graduate output in the Technology areas to those that are science-based, the ratio of Science to Arts students becomes 31: 69 for both 1999/2000 and 2001/2002.

Table 6.7: Graduate Output from Colleges of Education by Subjects, Year and Gender

1999/2000 Graduate Output				2001/2002 Graduate Output				
Subjects	**MF**	**F**	**FPR**	**Subjects**	**MF**	**F**	**FPR**	**% Increase**
Mathematics	226	61	27	Mathematics	838	297	35.4	370.8
Integrated Science	192	71	40	Integrated Science	723	338	46.7	276.6
Computer	103	55	53.4	Computer	680	637	93.6	560.2
Phy. &Health Educ.	146	107	12.3	Phy. &Health Educ.	564	84	14.9	286.3
Total Sciences	**667**	**294**	**44.1**	**Total Sciences**	**2805**	**1356**	**44.8**	**520.5**
Technical Education	382	41	10.7	Technical Education	641	41	10.7	67.8
Business Education	961	490	51	Business Education	2214	1617	73	130.4
Agriculture	451	106	23.5	Agriculture	832	251	31.2	84.5
Fine& Applied Art	25	0	0	Fine& Applied Art	153	61	40	512

Home Economics	182	168	92.3	Home Economics	364	364	100	116.7
Total Voc. & Tech.	**2001**	**805**	**40.2**	**Total Voc. & Tech.**	**4204**	**2334**	**55.5**	**49.9**
English Language	492	181	36.8	English Language	1236	445	36	151.2
Social Studies	685	257	37.5	Social Studies	2505	1204	48.1	265.7
Hausa Language	603	248	41.	Hausa Language	2150	592	27.5	256.5
Geography	878	343	39.1	Geography	1494	502	33.6	70.2
History	144	42	29.2	History	410	80	19.5	184.7
Total Arts	**2802**	**1071**	**38.2**	**Total Arts**	**7795**	**2823**	**36.2**	**178.2**
PES	452	218	48.2	PES	1262	408	32.3	179.2
GRAND TOTAL	**5922**	**2388**	**40.3**	**GRAND TOTAL**	**16066**	**6921**	**43.1**	**171.3**

40. Technical Education and Physical and Health Education were programmes in which males generally dominate Similarly, the graduate output of the Monotechnics displays conspicuous gender stereotyping. In the three years covered by the survey, the female participation rate was 100% for Child Health, Anatomy and Physiology, Fundamentals of Midwifery, Normal Midwifery, Community Midwifery, Family Planning, Pharmacology, Pediatric and indeed, all subjects related to Nursing Education.

Supply Considerations – Geographic Spread

41. At the time the Universal Basic Education programme was launched in September 1999, it was estimated that there was a shortfall of 300,000 in teacher requirement for the scheme. Since then uncoordinated efforts have been stepped up to increase teacher recruitment through expansion of enrolments into the Colleges of Education. Data from the Baseline study on Colleges of Education conducted in mid-2003 by the NCCE show an increase in total enrolments into teacher education from 111,326 in 2000/2001 to 197,139 in 2002/2003. This represents 77% increase in qualified teacher supply for basic education if the graduates of these institutions are gainfully employed as teachers.

42 The analysis of similar data obtained from a sample of teacher education institutions segregated according to states by the current ESA survey shows that the supply of teachers is not evenly distributed geographically. We hereunder use a comparison of the supply of teachers in four core subjects to primary schools in three states chosen from three differing geographical areas of Nigeria to illustrate the disparities. The subjects are English, Mathematics, Integrated Science and Social Studies. The three states are Borno in the Northeast, Kogi in the North Central and Edo in the South-South.

43. Table 6.8 below shows that Borno State had the largest total graduate output of 1704 among the three states in core subject areas that in one way or the other affect the future development of the states. It is followed by Kogi State with a total of 401 NCE graduates while Edo State comes last with 196. This is not an unexpected outcome since Borno State has three State-owned Colleges of Education and one other NCE–awarding institution. The investment in three Colleges of Education that are very costly to run is a testimony to the urgency that is attached to the production of teachers for schools in the state. To meet its

learner needs Kogi State hosts two Colleges of Education, only one of which is state owned.

44. What the three states have in common with one another and other states in the country is the comparatively low supply of Mathematics and Integrated Science teachers. In the states under consideration above, Social Studies accounted for the greatest percentage of the graduate output followed by English Language. Expressed as a ratio of the Science to Arts mix, Borno has 12:88, Kogi 30:70 while Edo has 24:76. Put in a simplified form this means that for every teacher of science turned out, these states have 7, 2, and 3 Arts teachers respectively. This is contrary to the intention of policy.

Table 6.8: *Graduate Output in Three States by Subjects and Gender (1999/2000*)

SUBJECTS	BORNO			KOGI			EDO		
	MF	**F**	**%F**	**MF**	**F**	**%F**	**MF**	**F**	**%F**
English	704	285	40.5	91	50	54.9	66	62	93.9
Mathematics	133	22	16.5	77	13	16.9	19	9	47.4
Integrated Science	66	38	57.6	43	19	44.2	28	12	42.9
Social Studies	801	329	40.8	190	99	52.1	83	54	65.1
Total	**1704**	**674**	**39.5**	**401**	**181**	**45.1**	**196**	**137**	**69.9**

Supply Considerations – Gender Issues

45. From the above table, it is shown that gender participation in Integrated Science in Borno State is 57.6% whereas it is only 16.5% in Mathematics. In Edo and Kogi states, the women have fared better in English Language with the participation rates of 93.9% and 54.9% respectively. The same could be said about Social Studies with the female participation rates of 65.1% and 52.1% respectively in Edo and Kogi. One cannot however, generalize that the situation of teacher supply to these states is typical of the rest of Nigeria in view of earlier statements (Table 6.8).

Supply Considerations – Cost Issues

46. One of the avenues provided for those who teach to become qualified teachers or upgrade their professional skills is through various in-service and/or part-time courses. These courses are run mainly as extensions of the services of existing institutions and are not normally provided for in the mainline budgets of these institutions. A first condition for these courses to meet is that they will generate funds to be self-sustaining.

47. The goings-on in the management of these special service providers have been seen as one of the main obstacles to effective teacher education in Nigeria. A survey of the NCE sandwich courses quoted in report reveals *that exorbitant fees, high cost of materials for practical work, high cost of transportation, the wide scope of the course, and lack of facilities for practical work were the main problems* confronting the trainees(FME, 2003). The survey also found that the cost to the teacher trainee varied proportionately to the distance that has to be covered for teaching practice to a significant extent (NCCE, 1997).

Aarons (2003) ***documented the costs incurred by teacher in their education and training.*** They were put as follows:

1.	Colleges of Education Federal NCE full time course	N15,450 to N 91,000
2.	State NCE colleges full time	N27, 490 to N117, 000
3.	Part-time courses Imo State, Cross River	N27, 830 to N 61,700

The basic fee for these part-time courses is N12, 000 per annum. The additional "hidden costs" are for levies, handouts, stationery, examination fees, tutorials, practice teaching sites, and others.

Demand for Teachers – Why?

48. As has been hinted almost on every page of this chapter, it is not like teacher training institutions are bursting at the seams. If anything, the story is one of under-utilization of places that would seem a supply issue. Available statistics however point to the facts that:

- Nationwide, sizes of classes in many urban areas need to be reduced drastically and more teachers placed in charge of the reformatted and smaller classes
- Pockets of poorly served communities exist where untrained persons predominate as teachers.
- The qualifications (TC II) of some of those classified as teachers in schools have already been marked down as not being acceptable after 2006, so they are as good as being out of a job unless they can acquire the prescribed qualification before the deadline given.

49. These and other factors point to why there are needs for teachers, and these are:

a. The outcome of any exercise at re-sizing those classes that are presently overcrowded. Since this exercise will follow clearly laid down rules it will be computable from available statistics

b. Increases due to normal population growth. These are computable because growth rates follow strict mathematical laws for every society.

c. The phasing out of unacceptable qualifications creates vacancies and the process is predictable and computable if the right set of data is available.

d. The UBE program will increase attendance considerably to the extent that it can appeal to and win the sympathy of parents, communities, and the children themselves. Here only theoretical or hypothetical assumptions can be made since the response of all concerned cannot be precisely quantified as in the other cases above. The success of the UBE enterprise can almost be judged entirely by the increase of demand for teachers emanating from it.

Against the above sources of ***increase*** however must be placed those of ***decrease*** that are classified as attrition and discussed below. This wastage factor is very low relative to the increases anticipated from the four sources listed above.

If the reforms that are needed in the education system are carried out then quite a number of positions already exist for teachers who have the right qualifications to fill.

Demand for Teachers – Where?

50. In Year 2002 the average pupil-teacher ratio for Nigeria stands at 39.33.This however masks a lot of variations and distortions from state to state. At the Primary school level six states had a ratio between 21 and 30. In the same year 20 states had between 41 and 70 pupils per teacher. For secondary schools only four states had a ratio of between 41 and 60 pupils per teacher.

A better indicator as to which type of teachers is in demand is clearly illustrated by Table 6.9 below giving the percentage of Primary School teachers with the basic NCE qualification required in schools as from 2006. Only 50.8% of teachers were ready by 2002] Judging by the 491,751 primary school teachers in this population the reality is that about 241,940 of them must complete the appropriate training courses by 2006 to remain in the profession.

Table 6.9

PERCENTAGE OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS WITH NEW MINIMUM REQUIRED QUALIFICATION NCE (NATIONAL)												
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
MF	6.2	9.0	12.8	17.0	29.3	35.7	41.5	44.5	44.8	46.1	46.6	50.8
M	3.8	4.6	6.1	7.8	12.4	14.5	16.3	18.3	17.4	18.0	18.3	19.2
F	2.4	4.4	6.7	9.2	16.9	21.2	25.1	26.2	27.3	28.1	28.3	31.6

Attrition Rate Among Teachers

51. During the three academic sessions 1999/2000 to 2001/2002, a total of 193 academic staff members of sample teacher training institutions, among them 42 females, were lost to the teacher education system for several reasons. Death was responsible for the highest proportion of loss, claiming 35.2% of the total. For female staff members there was a loss of 23.5%. Retirement accounted for 20.2% of the loss that included 8 females, representing 4.1%. Of the 20.2% that relocated to other institutions including education, 30.8% were females (12 of 39). All those that left teaching as a career were males. Similarly, 85.7% (42 of 48) of those who left the system for unspecified reasons were males. **Table 6.10** below refers.

Table 6.10 *Teachers Loss in Colleges of Education by Causes, Year and Gender*

	DEATH		Career Change		Relocation		Retirement		Other Cause		Total	
YEAR	**MF**	**F**	**MF**	**F**	**MF**	**F**	**MF**	**F**	**MF**	**F**	**MF**	**F**
1999/2000	32	6	2	0	16	4	14	2	27	2	91	14
2000/2001	14	5	1	0	14	5	14	2	10	3	53	15
2001/2002	22	5	2	0	9	3	11	4	5	1	49	13
TOTAL	**68**	**16**	**5**	**0**	**39**	**12**	**39**	**8**	**42**	**6**	**193**	**42**
%	**35.2**	**8.3**	**2.6**	**0**	**20.2**	**6.2**	**20.2**	**4.1**	**21.8**	**3.1**	**100**	**21.8**

The overall picture is one of a steady though not alarming decrease in the number of teachers being lost to the profession annually especially if one discounts death that cannot be controlled. It is however desirable to examine further the cause of death among teachers to find out how related it is directly to the job.

SUSTENANCE OF THE SYSTEM

Dissatisfaction with Conditions of Service

52. Almost all studies of the teaching profession in Nigeria turn up with the same conclusions that the Nigerian child is not enamored to the profession and that the usual reasons are those of poor remuneration and the low perception of others about teacher. The latest ESA study is no exception. It characterizes teachers' conditions of service as one of irregular payment of salaries, lack of a scale of salary, poor conditions of schools facilities, unfriendly school environment, no chair for pupils or teachers, no chalk, no table, no running cost and poor in-service development etc.

53. In order to put these into proper focus, the issues of teacher welfare, motivation, registration and professionalization were made the focus of the study. Bakan (1995) and Makoju (1998) had attempted to evaluate the level of job satisfaction and motivation among teachers. The latter had used 230 teachers for the study. The trio of low regard for teachers, poor conditions of service, and lack of incentives topped the list. The contributions of head-teachers repeated poor motivation, non-payment of allowances and lack of teaching facilities. While programs exist for teachers to conveniently upgrade themselves at costs that have been alluded to above as being stiff, little is being done in the view of the researchers for professional development of teachers through school-based or in-service workshops, seminars and workshops as reported by the subjects.

The issue of Professionalization

54. The failure to professionalism teaching that many teachers see as one of the factors discouraging recruitment into the service is being reconsidered in view of the establishment of the Teachers Registration Council charged with the responsibility to just do that. No real evidence is adduced for this expectation other than the fact that the decree setting up the body says so. All other allusions to that council merely repeat the hope expressed in the decree setting it up.

Other Reasons for Discontent

55. The response from many teachers claim that the non-payment of salaries, frequent teacher transfer, transportation problems, and over-crowded classrooms were among the factors that strongly de-motivate them. Respondents from both the teachers' union and parastatals were agreed that teachers condition of service was poor, 66% of the respondents were clear on this. Again, lack of seriousness on the part of students as well as inadequate supervision and management were among factors militating against teachers' morale. All respondents from educational parastatals (100%) agreed to this along with 58% of teachers' union respondents. They, on the other hand, agreed that pupil's regular class attendance positively motivated teachers.

56. It is also claimed that teachers located in remote areas were usually de-motivated because of lack of incentives attached to them. This was upheld by 66% of the education parastatals respondents. This same percentage number of respondents indicated that teaching was quite demanding and should not be taken for granted (66%). Negative/indifferent attitudes of parents contributed strongly to the negative demoralization, of teachers (100% education respondents) while 66% equally supported adequacy of teaching facilities as a sure way of motivating teachers,

Trade Unionism

57. The respondents were further asked to give the reasons for supporting the presence of trade union in the education sector. Incidentally, 82% of them replied that it was to protect members' interests. 11.8% said that it was to take care of members' professional integrity. Only one (5.9%) respondent later in the questionnaire said that it was to enhance security of job. The question was reframed for those who answered No to give reasons for their response. They indicated that it promoted conflict between professional bodies and government (88%). When asked what to do in order to reduce conflict between government and trade unions in education, 71 % of the respondents suggested honesty in dealing with union related matters as a way forward, while the use of dialogue between government and unions were suggested by the remaining 29% of the respondents. When regrouped and asked about the place of improved funding, 94% agreed that it was part of the issues that could reduce conflict between government and trade unions.

58. Should government then institute greater regulations on trade union activities? Only 53% said ‘no’, while 35% said ‘yes’ and 12% were undecided. Further reasons were sought from those who answered ‘No’. They replied (29%) that it was to put a check on the excesses of unions, 5.9% said it was to reduce strike actions, while another 5.92% said it was to reduce the negative effect on service receivers. Obvious 58.8% of them remained neutral or undecided.

59. It is the view of 77% of those surveyed that what enhances the power/influence of trade unions in education was solidarity among union members. Roughly 18% said it was good leadership while 6% indicated that it was the legal status of the unions. On what government can do to reduce the influence of trade unions in education, 77% of the respondents suggested the improvement in the welfare of teachers, 12% suggested quick resolution of conflicts while 6% suggested the regulation of trade union activities as a way out. Other groups of respondents responding at 12% suggested that government should be fair and just to all concerned especially in the areas of prompt payment of salaries and allowances.

60. When suggested that unions should not exist in educational institutions, 70% strongly disagreed. It was felt that trade unions should exist in educational institutions and should not only concern themselves with professional developments. This was stated by 65% of the respondents.

61. From Table 6.11 below both teachers' unions and parastatals respondents agreed that strikes and lockouts have negative effects on the quality of education. However, they failed to agree on whether or not strikes and lockouts should be banned. This is because 42% of the teachers' union respondents either strongly disagree or disagreed. On the other hand, 33% of the parastatals respondents strongly agreed, agreed or disagreed. Both sides of the respondents agreed that dialogue is the best way to solving union-related problems by 67%. In the same vein, unions and stakeholders agreed (67%) that it is good to work within specific time frames when dialoging to resolve conflicts.

62. When asked in what areas teachers’ trade unionism had negatively impacted on education in Nigeria, 82% of both respondents indicated that strikes of unions disrupted school calendar. This was followed by 12% of the respondents who replied that union strikes had negative effects on students’ performance and induced brain drain. When regrouped, 66% further stated that union strikes provided the environment for students to engage in other extra curricula and irrelevant activities.

TABLE 6.11

S/N	ITEM	TEACHERS UNION				EDUCATIONAL PARASTATALS			
		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Strikes and lock-outs by unions have negative effects on the quality of education	25.0%	66.7	8.3%	-	66.7	33.3%	-	-
2	Strikes and lock-outs should be banned in education institutions	8.3	8.3	41.7	41.7	33.3	33.3	33.3	-
3	Dialogue is the best way to solving union – related problems in education institution	50.0	41.7	8.3%	-	66.7%	-	-	33.3%
4	Unions and dialoging to resolve conflicts	25.0	66.7	8.3%	-	25.0			

THE ISSUES AND THE CHALLENGES

The studies reviewed point to the following areas of need

- ***The need to develop a teacher profile to guide curricula for teacher education.***

63 The many years of attempting to upgrade the minimum qualification for teaching in Nigerian schools have yielded very little of value and have been very disappointing in so far as many states have found it impossible to meet the set target. The write-up in Section 3 on ***quality and profile of teacher trainers*** provides some answers as to what is lacking as far as the gender mix and subject offerings are concerned. In particular, the case to review the curriculum is justifiably made because the old basic requirements and the management of instructions are bound to change for the new types of teachers.

- ***Improved methodology for determining teacher demand.***

64 There is a total lack of coordination in determining the types and number of teachers required for teaching in Nigerian schools. Though there are forums for obtaining and exchanging information on the needs of states, the fact that individual states tailor their needs to what they perceive as in their immediate and best interests do not allow for a logical process of planning. Furthermore, as long as the constitutional position is that states have control over who teaches in their territory, states will not be slow to cut corners and employ unqualified persons as teachers. Constitutional provisions could be examined that would encourage all

states and stakeholders to give relevant information to the relevant agency to carry out the exercise of determining teacher needs years ahead.

- ***Improved teacher support system and supervision.***

65 Under **other reasons for discontent**, respondents rightly identified the failure of management to provide adequate support systems and supervision to drive the whole school system. In particular, in considering quality assurance measures, almost all were agreed that better and more effective ways have to be found.

- ***Continued Professional Development of Practicing Teachers.***

66 There is adequate evidence that opportunities abound for teachers for upward professional mobility. The public debate relating to these courses is the doubtful quality of the outcome of the courses. There cannot be too many avenues for professional growth. More paths and stricter supervision would seem the things to focus on for now.

Teachers' full involvement in Educational Development.

67 The child is the reason for which there are schools. The teacher is ultimately the instrument for realizing the objectives of schooling. Any school system that does not involve the teacher and as many stakeholders as are relevant fully in developing educational work, be it curriculum, management, assessment, or sports is under utilizing its resources and truncating its potentials. It is from activities like these that training for leadership and leaders emerge.

CHAPTER SEVEN
TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

INSTITUTIONAL AND NORMATIVE FRAMEWORK

The Concept

1. Vocational education is that type of education that has 'a specific relation to working life.'[3] The same source adds that 'Vocational education is closely related to, but not identical with, the concept of training (or vocational training), which tends to focus on learning specific skills that are required in particular workplaces. Vocational education is, therefore, clearly distinguishable from academic education.'[4] The National Policy on Education [1998] in Section 29 states that 'Vocational Education is that form of education which is obtainable at the technical colleges. This is equivalent to the senior secondary education but designed to prepare individuals to acquire practical skills, basic and scientific knowledge and attitude required as craftsmen and technicians at sub-professional level.'[5] The 2003 edition of the document attempted a more comprehensive definition as 'those aspects of the education process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge relating to occupation in various sectors of economic and social life.'

2. Technical and vocational education is understood to be:
   a. An integral part of general education,
   b. A means of preparing for occupational fields and for effective participation in the world of work.
   c. An aspect of lifelong learning and preparation for responsible citizenship.
   d. An instrument for promoting environmentally sound, sustainable development
   e. A method of alleviating poverty.

3. The National Policy on Education (2004 edition) spells out the broad goals of vocational/technical education as being meant to:

   a. Provide trained manpower in the applied sciences, technology and business particularly at craft, advanced craft and technical levels;
   b. Provide the technical knowledge and vocational skills necessary for agricultural, commercial and economic development;
   c. Give training and impart the necessary skills to individual who shall be self-reliant economically.

[3] Microsoft Encarta Premium Suite [2004] CD edition.
[4] Ibid.
[5] Federal Republic of Nigeria, *National Policy on Education.* [1999]

SCOPE OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN NIGERIA.

4. Vocational and technical education is available at broadly two levels: the secondary and tertiary. At the secondary level, all junior secondary schools are expected to offer pre-vocational courses some of which are then carried forward to the senior secondary level. The commonest of such courses is Agricultural Science, although some schools now offer commercial courses like Typewriting, Shorthand, and Bookkeeping. Computer science is available in a few schools, especially in the urban locations.

5. At the tertiary level, vocational and technical education is available in technical schools, schools of agriculture, technical colleges, colleges of education [technical], polytechnics and universities. These are institutions available in virtually every state of the federation. The federal government owns some, while the state governments own others. Privately owned technical institutions are the exception.

Box 7.1: Subjects recognized by National Policy for Vocational Education.
Section 35 of the *National Policy on Education states that* 'the range of courses in the technical colleges shall be as wide as possible and include but not limited to' the following:

i. Agricultural implements and equipment mechanics' work.
ii. Automobile engineering practice: auto body repair and spray painting,
iii. Automobile engineering practice: auto electrical work.
iv. Automobile engineering practice: auto body mechanics work.
v. Automobile engineering practice: auto bodybuilding.
vi. Auto engineering practice: part-merchandising.
vii. Air-conditioning and refrigeration: mechanics' work.
viii. Mechanical engineering craft practice.
ix. Welding and fabrication engineering craft practice.
x. Foundry craft practice.
xi. Instrument mechanics' work.
xii. Electrical installation and maintenance work.
xiii. Radio, television and electrical work.
xiv. Block laying, bricklaying and concrete work.
xv. Painting and decorating.
xvi. Plumbing and pipefitting.
xvii. Machine woodworking.
xviii. Carpentry and joinery.
xix. Furniture making.
xx. Upholstery.
xxi. Catering craft practice.
xxii. Garment making [ladies/men dresses]
xxiii. Textile trades.
xxiv. Dyeing and bleaching.
xxv. Printing craft practice.
xxvi. Cosmetology
xxvii. Leather goods manufacture including shoe making and repair.
xxviii. Stenography
xxix. Typewriting.
xxx. Data processing.
xxxi. Store keeping.
xxxii. Bookkeeping.

Source: National Policy on Education [1998]

6. Courses in the junior secondary schools, both academic and vocational, lead to the award of Junior Secondary School Certificate. At the senior secondary level, courses [both academic and vocational] lead to the award of the Senior Secondary School Certificate awarded by various examining bodies such as the West African Examinations Council, the National Examinations Commission, and even the London University that awards the GCE. At the tertiary level, there are several types of awards. Thus, the Colleges of Education [Technical] award the Nigerian Certificate in Education, which is a teaching qualification; the Technical Colleges and Polytechnics award the National Diploma or the Higher National Diploma. At the university level, various faculties of engineering or technology award the B. Sc. in various technical disciplines, while the two universities of agriculture award the B.Sc. degree in agriculture. The following table summarises the various types of technology education available and types of institutions offering them.

Table 7.1: Types of Technology Education and Institutions.

Types of technology Education	**Principal Manpower Role**	**Principal Delivery Institution**	**Academic awards**
1. Pre-vocational education or general vocational education.	Semi-skilled manpower for specific job training in apprenticeship or further formal education.	Secondary schools	WAEC/NECO certificates in combination with other non-vocational subjects
2. Vocational (job specific) education.	Craftsmen and master craftsmen (low-level manpower)	Technical colleges and vocational centres	NABTEB certificates: NTC/NBC and ANTC/ANBC.
3. Technical education.	Technicians/technologists (middle-level manpower)	Polytechnics/ monotechnics	ND, HND, Post-HND
4. Professional education.	Professionals (high-level manpower)	Universities	Degrees: Bachelors, masters, doctorates.

Sources: Education Sector Analysis Report, [2003]

7. In this section, ESA reports on the two levels, i.e. (a) introductory technology and prevocational education at the secondary school level, and (b) technical and vocational education in the technical colleges, polytechnics, and universities, are reflected. Much of this report is based on the Education Sector Analysis project conducted in 2003 by the Federal Ministry of Education.

Pre-Vocational Education in Junior Secondary Schools.

8. Under Secondary School education, the *National Policy on Education* recognizes six prevocational subjects. One of them, Introductory Technology, is a compulsory subject, classified under Group A. The five others, from which students should choose at least one, are electives, classified in Group B, thus:

Group B: Pre-vocational electives	1. Agriculture 2. Business Studies 3. Home Economics 4. Local Crafts 5. Computer Education

9. The Introductory Technology comprises the following several components:

a. Technical Drawing
b. Woodwork,
c. Metalwork,
d. Auto-mechanics,
e. Applied electricity,
f. Basic electronics,
g. Building construction,
h. Food storage and preservation.

ACCESS AND EQUITY

10. As stated in 1999 Nigerian Constitution (Section 18) Government is committed to the promotion of science and technology, and given the *National Policy on Education* [2003] declaration that 'a greater proportion of education expenditure shall continue to be devoted to TVE [i.e. technical and vocational education] at the federal and state levels', it should be expected that enrolment in technical colleges would be high, and should at least meet the expectations expressed in the *National Policy on Education* [1998] that 20% of students transiting from the Junior Secondary School would enter technical colleges. However, this expectation does not seem to have been met, since only 90,038 were enrolled in the 2000/2001 academic year in the nation's 117 technical colleges, as against 7,351,000 in the over seven thousand secondary schools. Thus, only 1.2% of the total for the secondary level were in technical colleges.[6]

11. At the tertiary level, the trend tends to be maintained, with most entrants being for university academic courses. The following table demonstrates the issue.

[6] Details available from the Federal Ministry of Education meeting of National Council of Education held in Yenagoa in November 2003.

Table 7.2: JAMB Admissions for 2001

INSTITUTION TYPE	Admission		TOTAL	% Of overall total
	Males	Females		
Universities	57993 [60.9%]	37206 [39.1%]	95199 [100%]	74.30%
Polytechnics	15444 [64.5%]	8508 [35.5%]	23952 [100%]	18.71%
Colleges of Education.	3542 [39.7%]	5421 [60.3%]	8963 [100%]	6.99%
TOTAL	76979	51135	128114	100%

Source: WAEC and JAMB 2001 Reports.

12. The figures demonstrate clearly that there are far more students enrolled for purely academic courses than there are for vocational and technical ones. Thus, while 74.3% of all tertiary students are enrolled in universities, only 18.71% are in the polytechnics. The chart in Figure 6.1 demonstrates this clearly.

13. At the polytechnics level, there are more students, but again these are not as many as there are at the university level. For the 2001 academic year, there were a total of 186,080 students, i.e. both fresh and stale students, as against only the fresh students shown in the table above. These are clearly fewer than the number of degree students in the five first generation universities [i.e. the universities in Ibadan, Zaria, Nsukka, Lagos and Ile Ife.] Indeed, most of the individual polytechnics have fewer than the numbers of students in most university faculties. The following table shows the distribution of students in the 38 polytechnics across the country for 2001.

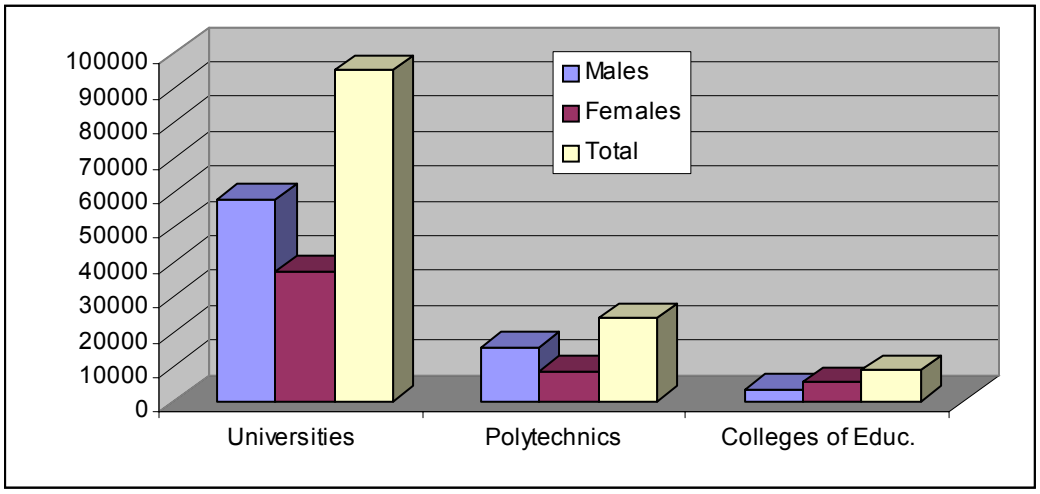

Fig. 7.1: Admissions into Tertiary Institutions for the Year 2001.

14. When admission figures are further considered on the basis of gender, it is clear that females are far more seriously under-represented. The entries in the table before the last demonstrates clearly that females are far more under-represented in polytechnics than in the universities, and that it is only in the

colleges of education that they outnumber the males. When the focus is only on technical and technology related courses, the following table shows that the trend is virtually the same.

Table7.3: Numbers of Students Enrolled in the Nigerian Polytechnics in 2001.

Polytechnics	**Pre-National Diploma**	**National Diploma**	**Higher National Diploma**	**TOTAL**
1. Yaba	62	2620	2724	5406
2. Kaduna	2253	3123	2925	8301
3. Auchi	1739	6594	1590	9923
4. Enugu	0	6322	6606	12928
5. Calabar	1011	3046	1710	5767
6. Mubi	799	825	326	1950
7. Maiduguri	1440	2520	668	4628
8. Birnin Kebbi	532	2108	1046	3686
9. Ugbokolo	900	1495	545	2849
10. Ado-Ekiti	0	3833	3459	7292
11. Idah	1703	1826	818	4347
12. Kano	1736	1944	1185	14865
13. Abeokuta	218	2179	1545	3942
14. Barkin Ladi	1191	1336	516	3043
15. Nekede-Owerri	1253	4330	1360	6943
16. Bauchi	955	1013	1106	3074
17. Ilaro	0	3699	2212	5911
18. Owo	1509	8533	1346	11388
19. Oko	0	1233	2712	3945
20. Unwana-Afikpo	609	1118	580	2307
21. Kuara Namoda	750	723	240	1713
22. Nassarawa	1009	1832	679	3520
23. Bori – Port Harcourt	1771	4404	1754	7929
24. Zaria	627	1951	709	3287
25. Iree	5959	9590	2393	17942
26. Esa-Oke	6786	7202	3768	17756
27. Ikot-Osurua	639	2419	192	3250
28. Ede	503	5580	2579	8662
29. Yola	36	15	0	51
30. Emene-Enugu	311	1390	270	1971
31. Aba	639	1423	343	2405
32. Kazaure	146	40	0	186
33. Talata Mafara	156	448	137	741
34. Lokoja	0	1851	442	2293
35. Zungeru	0	166	0	166
36. Wukari	218	574	0	792
37. Damaturu	0	541	64	605
38. Ikeja	40	191	85	316
TOTAL	**37500**	**100037**	**48543**	**186,080**

Table 7.4: Gender Disparity in Technology and Science Education.

Academic Year	Type of Institution	Male/Female Participation		
		Male	Female	Total
2000/2001	Technical Colleges	73,239 (81%)	16,799 (19%)	90,038
2000/2001	Polytechnics	111,468 (60%)	74,612 (40%)	186,080
1999/2000	Universities (Science and Technology enrolment)	147,836 (73%)	53,989 (27%)	301,825

15. This actually does not show the full picture as the ratios vary across the different types of courses. In the 2003 ESA survey, it was discovered that 'the disparity in enrolment between male and female is more pronounced in the technical course which involve workshop practices such as Mechanical Engineering, Plumbing, Fabrication/Welding which have zero female enrolment from 1999/2000 to 2002/2003 session.' The figures for the female enrolment were more in humanities and business courses such as Fine Art, Music, Bookkeeping and Accounting, Typewriting and Shorthand, Computer Studies and Commerce.

16. There would thus be a need to correct the two anomalies: (a) the low admission figures for technology related courses, perhaps through the establishment of more technical colleges and an expansion of the polytechnics; (b) the gross under-representation of females in technical colleges, polytechnics and universities of technology.

Vocational Subjects Offered

Courses Accredited

17. In order to ensure efficiency, the National Board for Technical Education carries out accreditation exercises in the technical colleges and polytechnics from time to time to ensure the maintenance of standards. The results of numbers and percentages of courses accredited do give an indication of the types of courses available as well as of the level of efficiency in the system. In the latest [2004] exercise conducted in technical colleges, less than 50% of the courses were accredited. The details are shown in table 7.5.

Table 7.5: Summary of Programmes Accredited in Technical Colleges.

S.N.	PROGRAMMES	NUMBER OF PROGRAMMES	NO. GRANTED ACCREDITATION	% GRANTED ACCREDITED
1.	Agricultural Mechanics	15	4	27%
2.	Block-laying and Concreting	63	39	62
3.	Carpentry and Joinery	50	24	48
4.	Electrical installations	89	45	51
5.	Fabrication and welding	51	14	27
6.	Furniture Craft	29	15	52
7.	Mechanical Engineering Craft	45	23	51
8.	Motor Vehicle Mechanic	69	26	38
9.	Painting and Decorating	24	6	25
10.	Plumbing and Pipe Fitting	24	5	21
11.	Ratio and Television	37	17	46
12.	Refrigeration and A/C	20	7	35
13.	Business Studies	43	22	51
14.	Catering Craft Practice	20	8	40
15.	Foundry Craft	3	2	67
16.	Ceramics	1	1	100
17.	Garment Making	7	1	14
18.	Graphic Arts	4	0	0
19.	Auto Electric Works	1	1	100
20.	Leather Trades	2	0	0
21.	Vehicle Body Building	7	2	29
22.	Instrument Mechanics	2	0	0
23.	Printing Craft	5	0	0
24.	Textile Trades	2	0	0
25.	Machine Wood Working	1	1	100

Source: NBTE [2004] Accreditation Report for Technical Colleges in Nigeria.

18. Of the Technology courses enrolled for at the secondary school level most were for Introductory Technology. This is not unexpected as Introductory Technology is the only Technical course that is compulsory. The survey study by ESA [2003] shows that in fact, many students were enrolled for just this one subject, although most students were enrolled for more than two. The following table summarises the findings.

Table 7.6: Selection of Prevocational Subjects by Junior Secondary School Students

Factors	Variants	N	Frequency	%
Subjects selected	One only	380	45	11.8%
	Two only		62	16.3
	More than 2		273	71.3
How selection was made	Personal interest	373	60	16.1
	On the basis of ability		32	8.6
	On the basis of gender		16	4.3
	Interest and ability		265	71.0

QUALITY AND EFFICIENCY

19. In order to have an assessment of the level of quality in the system, estimates of the numbers of teachers, as well as reactions of students to questions raised will be used in this section. In the ESA study in this respect, attention was focused on teachers' qualifications, the curriculum, and the equipment available.

Teacher Qualifications

20. One of the criteria for the assessment of the quality of instruction is the qualification of teachers. In a study conducted as part of the ESA project, the issue of teachers' qualifications was addressed. The following table shows the qualifications of teachers in the various technical colleges across the country.

Table 7.7: Teacher Qualifications.

Qualifications	Males	Females	Total	Female Ratio
B. Ed.	664	524	1188	44.1%
B. Sc.	418	118	536	22.0%
B.Sc + Educ.	439	279	718	38.9%
HND + Educ.	281	88	286	30.8%
M.Sc/M.Ed.	106	63	169	37.3%
NCE Tech.	668	444	1112	39.9%
ND/OND+ Educ	167	82	249	32.9%
TOTAL	2716	1589	4305	36.9%

1. The findings here show that the quality of teaching is satisfactory, since 16.7% have B. Sc. plus professional qualifications in education, while 22.5% and 6.5% have NCE and HND plus professional qualification in education respectively. 76.7% of the teachers in the sampled schools are professionally qualified.

The Curriculum

23. The next table provides information on the adequacy and scope of the curriculum for prevocational subjects in school. The respondents accepted the adequacy of all the factors of curriculum coverage, depth, relevance and functionally as well as the responsiveness of the curriculum to preparing students for further training in Technology. The overall assessment by the respondents of a mean of 4.08 is a very positive answer to the question of whether the curriculum is adequate for the objectives of Introductory Technology and other Prevocational subjects in terms of coverage, depth and relevance. This result suggests that the curriculum content in prevocational subjects is acceptable.

Table 7.8: Curriculum of Prevocational Subject:

Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean
The coverage of the curriculum is adequate	145	120	43	13	3.92
The depth of the curriculum is adequate	120	159	26	10	3.97
The curriculum is relevant to the needs of the society.	179	141	14	6	4.28
The curriculum is capable of preparing students for further training in Technology	202	129	9	3	4.28
The curriculum is functional enough	103	161	32	16	3.83
TOTAL	749	710	124	48	4.08

Equipment

24. As part of the study, a checklist was completed to give information on tools and equipment for the subjects and the activities that the students engage in. The next table shows a fair supply of equipment for the teaching and learning of Introductory Technology and other prevocational subjects in schools. In all, 9 sets of equipment were in poor state of supply, 21 in fair state of supply, while only 5 enjoyed the status of good state of supply. As can be seen from the table, items of equipment for Introductory Technology and Local Crafts dominated the state of poor supply. Those for Local Crafts were in a state of fair supply as much is not required for this subject.

For this table, the following should serve as the key:
NE = Number expected NIS = Number in stock
NF = Number functioning NIHQ = Number in high quality
NNA = Number not available

Table 7.9: Equipment Available for Prevocational Subjects in Schools.

Item Description	N.E.	NIS	NF	NIHQ	NNA	NNA Ratio
Layout tools	2824	789	404	295	1187	42%
Sawing and bench tools	1977	797	463	207	841	42.5%
Drilling machines	2232	713	74	71	308	13.8%
Hand forging tools	1457	446	108	94	373	25.6%
Machine tools	1982	735	299	217	462	23.3%
Electrical tools	2031	597	343	186	711	35.0%
Electrical meters	1746	303	81	52	610	34.95%
Drawing equipment	4908	1262	536	228	1519	30.9%
Auto-mechanics equipment	2009	629	177	143	525	26.1%
Woodwork tools	2464	955	544	255	941	38.2%
Welding equipment	953	190	67	42	252	26.4%
Food preservation equipment	974	627	27	9	221	22.7%
Metalwork materials	2680	566	131	73	1237	46.2%
Cutting fluids and lubricants	1380	481	21	18	321	23.3%
Electrical materials	3089	504	170	116	1017	32.9%
Building materials	2256	445	127	106	468	20.7%
Woodwork materials	2875	838	212	160	727	24.35%
Drawing materials	5083	1078	237	182	1284	25.35%
Welding materials	1966	693	63	54	347	17.7%
Cutting tools	2847	1327	911	178	586	20.6%
Digging tools	1874	350	103	80	555	29.6%
Bans	1079	341	20	14	125	11.6%
Typewriters	1841	1074	170	91	265	14.4%
Typewriting materials	1697	1263	159	136	111	6.5%
Cookers, stoves and ovens	1628	973	39	36	163	10%
Grinders	1343	542	30	13	90	6.7%
Sink	1204	627	11	10	94	7.8%
Sewing materials	1506	771	39	27	144	9.6%
Laundry equipment	2017	1347	526	528	201	10%
Beds and beddings	8428	1273	913	71	1390	16.5%
Table accessories	1761	844	26	11	228	12.9%
Computer sets and accessories	2647	987	159	142	178	6.7%
Computer software	1845	976	59	53	218	11.8%
Local crafts tools	1924	916	86	74	375	19.5%
Local crafts materials	3417	927	86	83	1551	45.4%
TOTAL	**81942**	**27086**	**7421**	**4055**	**19637**	**24.0%**

Finished Products:

25. A very important aspect of assessment of skills acquisition is in the finished products. For appreciation and value claims, the finished product is the result of the proper use of he processes involved in the various skills. The next table shows the result of the on-the-spot inspection of outputs of

the students in prevocational subjects in the sampled schools. The overall result was generally satisfactory.

Table 6.10: Checklist on Finished Products in Prevocational Subjects.

Products	**Excellent**	**Good**	**Poor**	**Mean**	**Decision**
Drawing	19	61	4	2.18	Good
Planed surface	7	43	10	1.95	Good
Straight ridges	21	34	10	2.17	Good
Typed document	4	23	13	1.78	Good
Transcribed document	5	25	11	1.85	Good
Prepared meal	27	33	4	2.36	Good
Sewn cloth	11	27	11	2.00	Good
Accessed file	3	31	7	1.90	Good
TOTAL	**97**	**277**	**70**	**2.06**	**Good**

By the results of the inspection of finished products of students of prevocational subjects in the sampled schools, where all the products inspected were on the average found to be good, there is room for the encouragement of the teaching and learning of these subjects.

26 A useful approach is to study the trend of enrolments for the various technical and science subjects in schools over a period of time. This should indicate whether enrolments for the various subjects are increasing or decreasing over time. The *Education Sector Status Report* [2003] did this for some selected schools, with the following results.

Table7.11: Completion Rate for Various Cohorts by Courses in Science, Technical and Vocational Colleges from 1999/2000 to 2001/2002

	1999/2000 [SSS1]			2000/2001 [SSS2]			2001/2002 [SSS3]		
Courses	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Agriculture	1305	199	1504	1348	211	1559	1056	136	1192
Applied Electricity	501	92	593	510	90	600	483	92	575
Auto-mechanics	458	32	490	604	23	627	431	20	451
Book-keeping & Accounts	82	131	213	133	130	263	109	162	271
Building construction	533	5	538	407	15	422	361	26	387
Commerce	310	125	435	142	61	203	180	90	270
Computer Studies	--	120	120	--	120	120	--	124	124
Electronics	310	63	373	328	66	394	240	63	303
Clothing & Textiles	--	33	33	--	33	33	--	33	33
Food and Nutrition	--	125	125	--	117	117	--	114	114
Home Management	1	4	5	1	7	8	--	3	3
Metal work	535	231	766	645	222	867	596	220	816
Technical drawing	1701	237	1938	1845	254	2099	1706	212	1918
Wood work	212	4	216	265	1	266	241	2	243
Shorthand	227	222	449	202	743	945	167	203	370
Typewriting	274	156	430	219	178	397	236	160	396
Fine art	230	147	377	185	140	325	152	132	284
Music	188	101	289	151	101	252	122	85	207
Mechanical eng.	20	--	20	16	--	16	21	--	21
Fabrication/Welding	2	--	2	2	--	2	1	--	1

Source: FME (2004) Field Survey.

27. The survey shows that as the students moved from one level to another, their numbers in the various technical courses tended to decline over time. Besides, it is apparent that there are some courses in which males tend to predominate, e.g. Agriculture, Applied Electricity, Auto Mechanics, Building Construction, Electricity, Woodwork, etc., while some few courses are dominated by females, e.g. Food and Nutrition, Clothing and Textiles, Home Management, etc.

28. Besides, it is apparent from the table that there are several courses which are not popular among either males or females. Examples are Fabrication/Welding, Home Management, Mechanical Engineering, Clothing and

Textiles. Several factors might account for this, e.g. unavailability of such courses in several colleges, inadequacy of human and material resources for their teaching, inadequate awareness of their potentials for employment after graduation, etc.

29. These findings call for several steps to be taken by policy makers in order to stimulate more students to enroll for the courses. Awareness needs to be created among students about these courses to enable all students, both males and females to wish to enroll for them. In particular, there is a strong need to dispel the age-old concept that most of these technical courses are the preserve of males only.

30. *Factors Motivating Choice of Courses:* Findings from the ESA study showed that most of the students who enrolled for technology related courses in the polytechnics, monotechnics, colleges of education, and universities made their choice mainly on the basis of 'personal interest'. The factors vary greatly as the following table shows.

Table7.12: Motivation for the choice of Course

Motivating Factors	University		Polytechnic		Monotechnic		College of Ed.	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Peer group influence	4	3.8%	3	2.4	0	0	9	7.1%
Parents' influence	7	6.7	6	4.6	2	4.9	12	9.4
Prestige	5	4.8	7	5.6	0	0	9	7.1
Job market consideration	28	28.9	28	22.6	8	19.5	21	16.5
Personal interest	54	51.9	77	52.1	30	73.2	71	55.9
Last resort	4	3.8	2	1.6	0	0	0	0
Gender	2	1.9	1	0.8	1	2.4	2	1.6
TOTAL	**104**	**100**	**124**	**100**	**41**	**100**	**124**	**100**

31. In all the institutions studied, the one factor that motivated students to opt for the technological course is 'personal interest', although this is most so in the monotechnics than in other institutions. Contrary to what most would have assumed, 'job market consideration' is not the predominant factor, although this is the second most preferred factor across most of the institutions. The chart demonstrates this clearly.

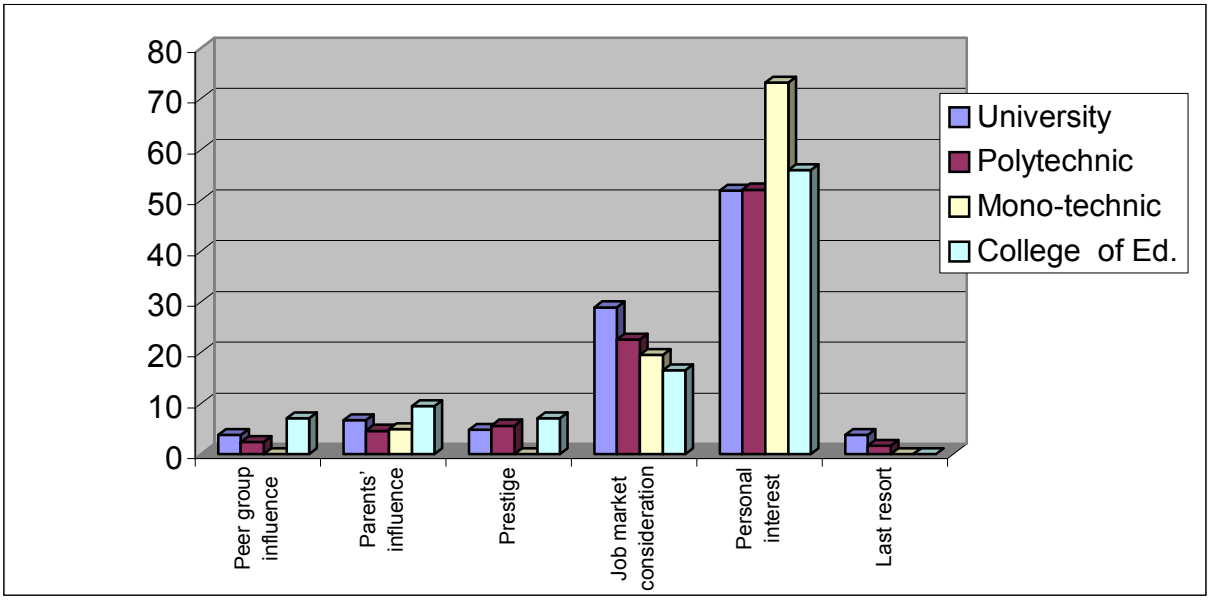

Fig. 7.13. Factors showing motivation for choice of courses

Students' Assessment of Technical Courses

32. The survey referred to [ESA, 2003] required students in the various technical institutions to provide an assessment of the courses they received. Very few of them rated the courses to be poor although very few also rated them as excellent. The responses are shown in the table below.

Table7.14: Summary of Students' Assessment of the Courses Provided.

	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Bad	Invalid response	TOTAL
University	8 [7.7%]	35 [33.7%]	41 [39.4%]	16 [15.4%]	--	4 [3.8%]	104 [100%]
Polytechnic	27 [21.8%]	43 [34.7%]	36 [29.0%]	15 [12.1%]	--	3 [2.4%]	124 [100%]
Monotechnics	7 [17.1%]	12 [29.3%]	17 [41.5%]	4 [9.8%]	--	1 [2.4%]	41 [100%]
Coll. Of Ed.	22 [17.3%]	53 [41.7%]	37 [29.1%]	8 [6.3%]	2 [1.6%]	5 [3.9%]	127 [100%]
TOTAL	64 [16,0%]	145 [36.3%]	132 [33.1%]	43 [10.8%]	2 [0.5%]	13 [3.3%]	399 [100%]

33. In all, most students rated the courses good, very good or excellent. Only a few indicated that the courses were either bad or fair. The chart below illustrates these clearly.

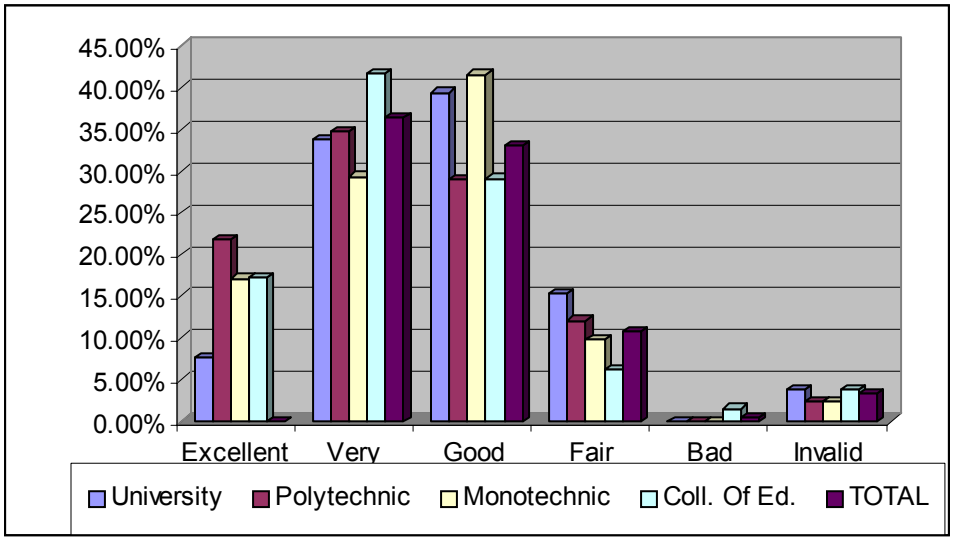

Fig 7.15: Assessments of Training Programme by Technical Students in Various Institutions

34 Responding to the item requesting students to indicate which aspects of their programme were found inadequate, the students provided the responses shown in the next table.

Table 7.16: Areas of Inadequacy in the Institutions Offering Technical Courses.

Variables	University		Poly-technic		Mono-technic		Coll. Of Ed.	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Theory/course content	21	20.2	19	15.3	2	4.9	19	15.0
Practical/laboratory/workshop component	39	37.5	31	25.0	9	22.0	23	18.1
Calibre of teachers	2	1.9	2	1.9	0	0	4	3.1
Standard of training	0	0	7	5.6	1	2.4	6	4.7
Industrial training	2	1.9	7	5.6	0	0	9	7.1
Internship/apprenticeship	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	2	1.6
Lack of current books, journals	4	3.8	4	3.2	2	4.9	10	7.9
Duration of programme	1	1.0	0	0	2	4.9	3	2.4
Mode of teaching	0	0	1	0.8	0	0	2	1.6
Exposure to current trends in the field of study	2	1.9	7	5.6	2	4.9	2	1.6
No regular tests & assignment	0	0	1	0.86	0	0	0	0

35. It is worth noting that most students are dissatisfied with the practical/laboratory/workshop component of their training. This is especially so in the universities where as much as 37.5% of the students gave this indication. The next most highly criticised component is theory or course content where, again, the most vocal criticism is from the university.

36 Another side to the issue is the students' rating of facilities available in the various institutions. The findings on availability of facilities, shown in the next table, should be placed side by side with the foregoing.

Table 7.17: Degree of Adequacy of Facilities in Technical Colleges.

Variables	Very adequate		Adequate		Inadequate		Very Inadequate	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Workshop/laboratory	90	22.6	109	27.3	93	23.3	78	19.5
Lecture hall	94	23.6	117	29.3	96	24.1	71	17.8
Classrooms	83	20.8	131	32.8	108	27.1	51	12.8
Teaching aids and computers	70	17.5	115	28.8	76	19.0	112	28.1
Tables and chairs	90	22.6	114	28.6	124	31.1	50	12.5
Library	79	19.8	127	31.8	118	29.6	50	12.5
Teaching and research equipment	69	17.3	115	28.8	87	21.8	99	24.8
Chemical and other consumables	72	18.0	96	24.1	85	21.3	94	23.6

The table shows that while most students indicate that workshops/laboratories, classrooms, and items of furniture tend to be adequate, chemicals and other consumables, teaching and research equipment, as well as teaching aids and computers are not particularly adequate. Thus, the very components that are rather inadequate are those most needed to sustain a functional technical programme. This is in effect stating that there is no culture of sustaining what has been established.

FINANCIAL COSTS OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION

37. Unit cost of educating a student in the polytechnic. Nuru Yakubu [2004] defined unit of cost as 'the total annual recurrent and capital expenditure per student plus student living expenses [i.e. what the student spends to acquire polytechnic education]. In order to determine the overall mean unit of cost of financing technical students in Nigerian polytechnics, six federal polytechnics were selected and several determinants of cost were computed. Using the formula [Unit Cost = Total Recurrent Cost + Student Living Expenses divided by Total Student Enrolment], different unit costs were arrived at for engineering /science students and for arts/business students. It was found that the average cost of educating an engineering/science technology student per annum was N94, 514, while that for an art/business student was N48, 536. Thus, the cost of educating the former category of students is almost double that of the latter category, within the same institutions.

Given these findings, and compared with the cost of maintaining universities in general, it would be clear that the cost of educating technology students is reasonably low. Perhaps much more would be needed to equip and maintain more facilities in order to ensure that students obtain the best technical education which would make them comparable with any other elsewhere.

KEY ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

38. With the findings thus far, it is possible to arrive at specific conclusions and give a few recommendations. These are not however necessarily presented in the order of importance.

39 A close study of the implications of the *National Policy on Education* would show that the intention is to make as many students in the nation as possible to be technologically literate. However, there are two areas of concern here. First is that after the Junior Secondary School, most students have nothing more to do with technical education. This might need to be redressed. Second is the fact at virtually all levels, vocational/technical education is not adequately backed up with enough human and material resources. That is precisely why as many as half of all courses in technical colleges were not accredited. To fail accreditation test is to imply that the institution has several areas of lack.

40. The issue of access would need far more attention than is given it thus far. To start with, there are not enough students in the technical colleges, polytechnics, and technical colleges of education. The average number of students in each of them is rather low. Besides, females are grossly under-represented. It would be necessary to consciously motivate more females to enrol for vocational and technical courses.

41. A close look at the curriculum of JSS should demonstrate the fact that not enough attention is paid to the ICT need of this cadre of learners. Yet, most of these students, once they transit to the SSS level, might not have any vocational courses featuring in their programmes any more. This is the stage, at the JSS level, when all students should have sufficient exposure to the IT courses.

42. A generally poor attitude toward technical and vocational education pervades everywhere. Technical and vocational education remains hardly attractive to many students. Students are further discouraged by the trio of the schools, which lack most of the basic tools, the dearth of qualified teachers to handle technical education and parents, who generally prefer their children/wards to study more "prestigious" courses like medicine, engineering and law. Technicians, they often claim, do not command prestige in the Nigerian society, it is regarded as a blue colour career often reserved for dropouts and failures of grammar type schools.

43. Furthermore, the low status of vocational/technical education should be addressed through several perspectives. If it is accepted that the best way to enhance the status of this cadre of education is through the productivity and achievements of products of the institutions, it would be highly necessary for more facilities to be provided to enhance learners' productivity. While it is accepted that the policy makers are aware of this need, at least through the formulation of the policy that 60% of all students should be science/technology oriented, as against 40% for those in arts and humanity disciplines, it would be necessary to go further. By this it is not being implied that more room should be created for science/technology courses, but (a) by ensuring that admission policies reflect what has been specified, and (b) through a policy of integration of disciplines such that every student, even in hard core arts subjects should be introduced into as many technology courses as possible. After all, students of languages, history and religious study do need to be computer literate.

44. A study of the courses available for accreditation would show that there are very many courses that are not popular enough in the colleges and polytechnics. It would be clear from that table, for instance, that courses like ceramics, leather works, auto electricity, etc., are available in just one or two institutions throughout the country. Yet, these are courses that could constitute the foundation of much thriving industries. Courses such as these would need to be more highly stimulated and encouraged in virtually all colleges and polytechnics.

45. Of interest should be the question 'Why is there so little private enterprise in vocational/technical education?' This becomes quite relevant when it is realised that there are private secondary schools, private [at least mission owned] colleges of education, and private universities. But there is hardly any private polytechnic. From several studies and observations, it is known that private ventures into primary and secondary education have enhanced quality and levels of achievement, and the same would be expected to happen at the university level before long. There is therefore the need for private venture into vocational/technical education.

46. There is the great need to address the issue of financing of technology education. Education in Nigeria is under-funded, but even more so is vocational/ technical education. Materials and machines are costly, experts in these fields are expensive to produce, but without them the nation can hardly move forward. If materials and equipment used for the training of students are to be of comparable standards to those in advanced countries, far more funds would be needed.

CHAPTER EIGHT
TERTIARY EDUCATION

THE CONCEPT

1. Tertiary Education encompasses all organized learning activities at the tertiary level. The *National Policy on Education* (1998) defines Tertiary Education to include the universities, polytechnic, monotechnics and colleges of education in Nigeria Higher Education. The goals of tertiary education, as specified in the National Policy (2004 edition) are:

- To contribute to national development through high-level relevant manpower training;
- To develop and inculcate proper values for the survival of society.
- Develop the intellectual capability fo individuals to understand and appreciate their local and external environments,
- Acquire both physical and intellectual skills which will enable individuals to be self-reliant and useful members of the society;
- Promote and encourage scholarship and community services;
- Forge and cement national unity; and
- Promote national and international understanding and institutions.

2. These are in consonance with those envisioned by the World Declaration on Higher Education at the World Conference on Higher Education held in Paris, 5-9 October 1998. The Conference re-affirmed that education is a fundamental pillar of human rights, democracy, sustainable development and peace. It should therefore be accessible to all throughout life and that measures are required to ensure co-operation across and between the various sectors, particularly between general, technical and professional, secondary and post-secondary education as well as between universities and other institutions of higher education.

3. In Nigeria, higher education is available in four main types of institutions

- The universities, of which there were 67 as at the year 2003
- Polytechnics, originally intended for middle and high level technical/professional education, of which there are now (2004) some 55 odd institutions
- Colleges of Education, intended for high-level non-graduate teacher education, but some of which have since become 'degree-granting institutions', with emphasis on bachelors' degrees in Education.
- Monotechnics: higher institutions that offer courses in specific professional areas: Nursing, Agriculture, Veterinary Studies, etc.

4. The first institution for higher education in Nigeria was Yaba Higher College, established in 1934. This became the nucleus of the first University College, established in Ibadan in 1948. The attainment of political independence in 1960 was accompanied by expansion in the education sector in general, and in higher education in particular. There was an improved geographical spread of universities: University of Nigeria, Nsukka (1960), Ahamdu Bello University, Zaria, University of Lagos, and the University of Ife (all in 1962), and much later, The University of Benin (1970). These institutions are now collectively known as FIRST GENERATION UNIVERSITIES.

5. The year 1975 witnessed the emergence of Nigeria's second-generation universities. Most of these had begun as satellite campuses of existing universities: Kano, Jos, Maiduguri, Calabar, Port Harcourt, and Ilorin. More universities were to follow in subsequent years, with 'boom period' in the 1980s. The 1990-decade witnessed the birth of private universities. This phenomenon has helped to broaden the scope of ownership of universities into Federal, State, and Private. The post-1970 institutions are now collectively called the third generation universities.

5. One notable feature of the development of universities in Nigeria is the emergence of specialized universities. Most of these focus on Science and Technology, while there are three (Makurdi, Abeokuta, and Umudike) that focus on Agriculture. Table 8.1 below shows a list of conventional and specialized Federal Government-owned universities.

Table 8.1: The Federal Universities – Specialized and Conventional

University	Established	Specialization
University of Ibadan, Ibadan	1948	General
University of Nigeria, Nsukka	1960	General
Obafemi Awolowo University	1962	General
University of Lagos, Lagos	1962	General
Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria	1962	General
University of Benin, Benin City	1970	General
University of Jos, Jos.	1975	General
University of Calabar, Calabar	1975	General
Bayero University, Kano	1975	General
University of Maiduguri.	1975	General
University Sokoto, Sokoto	1975	General
University of Ilorin	1975	General
University of Port Harcourt	1975	General
Owerri (Fed. Univ. of Tech)	1980	Technology
Akure (Fed. Univ. of Tech)	1981	Technology
Abeokuta (Fed. Univ. of Agric)	1982	Agriculture
Minna (Fed. Univ. of Tech)	1982	Technology
Yola (Fed. Univ. of Tech)	1982	Technology
Bauchi (Fed. Univ. of Tech)	1988	Technology
Makurdi (Fed. Univ. of Agric)	1988	Agriculture
Abuja (university of)	1990	General
Uyo (university of)	1991	General
Awka: Nnamdi Azikiwe Univ.	1992	General
Umudike (Fed. Univ. of Agric)	1992	Agriculture

In 1975 alone, seven universities were created (almost with a wand!)

Polytechnics and Monotechnics

6. Polytechnics and Monotechnics were established during the colonial era, long before the emergence of universities for high level technical manpower in a variety of technical and professional disciplines: Yaba Higher College (already cited), schools of survey, veterinary medicine, forestry, and agriculture in various parts of the country. The early 1950s saw the establishment on the Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology, which were later absorbed by three of the first generation universities in Ife, Zaria, and Nsukka.

8. The early years of independence witnessed the creation of colleges of technology in Lagos and in the three regions that existed at that time; Ibadan (Western region), Enugu

(Eastern region), and Kaduna (Northern region). As more regions and States were created, new polytechnics (owned by state governments also emerged. The federal government, in its effort to ensure a judicious geographical distribution of facilities for technological education) also established Federal Polytechnics in various parts f the Federation. These institutions contributed to meeting social demands for higher education up till the middle of the 1990s. Today, questions are being raised as to their appropriateness in the contemporary scheme of things, as there has been disenchantment among young people with the cull de sac nature of polytechnic education.

Colleges of Education

9. The first Advanced Teachers' Colleges (for producing 'highly qualified non-graduate teachers', mainly for secondary schools) were established in the wake of independence in the early 1960s – Zaria (Northern region), Owerri (Eastern region), Ibadan (Western region), and Abraka (Mid West region). The creation of more states in the Federation, and the increasing demand for teachers, due to educational expansion in the country) led to the establishment of more institutions, now re-named Colleges of Education, in every part of the country. Most of the institutions are either federally owned or State government-owned, but there has been a rapid increasing in private colleges of education in recent years. Like Polytechnics, the popularity of colleges of education is steadily waning. They are no longer anybody's first choice. For this reason, the nation just has to take a close look at their original raison d'être and work out a re-orientation process for them.

REGULATORY BODIES

8. The National Universities Commission (NUC), the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE), and the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) are the vital parastatals of the Federal Ministry of Education for ensuring effective administrative control of higher education in Nigeria. They plan organize, manage, fund, supervise and monitor provision and development of the tertiary institutions; as may be appropriate to each commission or board. Each parastatal helps to ensure minimum standard and quality among the institutions. They also play the intermediary and advisory roles between the federal government and the institutional authorities. The table below presents names and data of FME parastatals established for regulating and supervising the institutions of higher education.

Table 8.2: *Regulatory Bodies for Higher Education in Nigeria*

Parastatals/ Year established	**Enabling Instrument**	**Basic Functions**
Nat. Universities Commission (NUC) established in 1962	National Universities Commission Decree No. 1 of 1974, Amendment: - Decree No. 49 of 1988; Decree No. 10 of 1993.	(a) Advise the Federal Government on: i. Establishment and location of universities; ii. Creation of new facilities/postgraduate institutions in universities iii. Financial requirement of universities iv. Periodic review of terms and conditions of service of University staff, etc (b) Executive Functions include: i. Preparation of periodic master plans for a balanced and coordinated development of universities; ii. Receipt and disbursement of federal grants to federal universities iii. Establishment and maintenance of minimum academic standards in universities; iv. Accreditation of degrees and other academic programmes, etc.
National Board for Technical Education [NBTE] established in 1977	National Board for Technical Education. Decree No. 9 of 1977; Amendment: - Decree No. 8 0f 1993.	Advises Federal Government on: i. All aspects of technical and vocational education outside the universities; ii. National policy necessary for the development of technical and vocational education iii. Financial requirements of polytechnics and colleges; iv. Establishment and maintenance of minimum standards in polytechnics and colleges of technology v. Accreditation of programmes in these institutions.
Nat. Commission for Colleges of Education. [NCCE] established in 1989	National Commission for Colleges of Education Decree No. 3 of 1989: Amendment: - Decree No. 12 of 1993	Advises Federal Government on: i. All aspects of teacher education falling outside the universities and polytechnics; ii. Establishment and location of colleges of education; iii. Financial requirements of federal colleges of education; iv. Periodic review of terms and conditions of service of personnel in colleges of education (c) Executive Functions include: i. Preparation of periodic master plan for a balanced and coordinated development of colleges of education; ii. Receipt and disbursement of federal grants to federal colleges of education; iii. Establishment and maintenance of minimum standards for programmes of Teacher Education and accrediting their certificates and awards.

Source: Education Sector Status Report, May 2003

PROGRAMMES of TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

The Universities.

9. Programmes in the universities (as illustrated in the box below) are of two general categories:
   a. General education and liberal arts, and science programmes; and
   b. Professional degree programmes.

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Liberal Arts and Sciences	Professional Programmes
▪ Languages ▪ The natural sciences ▪ Creative and performing arts ▪ Mathematics ▪ The humanities ▪ The Social Sciences ▪ Mathematics	▪ Medicine ▪ Law ▪ Education. ▪ Agriculture ▪ Engineering ▪ Veterinary medicine ▪ Pharmacy ▪ Dentistry ▪ Information technology ▪ Management studies. ▪ Architecture ▪ Estate Management

The Polytechnics

11. Programmes in the polytechnics are also in two categories:
   a. General Studies in the humanities, natural and social sciences.
   b. Professional disciplines, such as management and accountancy, engineering and technology.

12. These programmes are available at two levels: the National Diploma (a 2-year cycle) and the Higher National Diploma. (A 2-year post-ND cycle).

The Colleges of Education

13. Programmes in the Colleges of Education generally comprise:
   a. Academic disciplines in subjects taught in the primary, secondary schools and technical schools
   b. Professional courses in Education

ACCESS AND ENROLMENT TRENDS

14. Reports by the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB), which conducts the selection examinations to higher institutions in Nigeria, show that the Nation is still unable to meet the social demands for universities. For example, all the universities in

the country were able to admit a bare 10.75 % of the 467,490 candidates seeking admission in the 2000/2001 academic year

15. For the polytechnics, 24.8% of the 130,000 applicants were admitted in 1999-2000 (the latest year for which figures are available. The Colleges of Education present a completely different picture, as admission rates have been as high as 75% and even higher. (See Tables 8.3-8.5).

Table 8.3: *Demand for and Supply of Places: T he Universities*

Academic Year	Applications			Admissions			%T	%M	%F
	M	F	T	M	F	T			
1996-1997	218881	157946	376827	33130	22925	56055	14.88	8.79	6.08
1997-1998*									
1998-1999	186905	134463	321368	47170	31380	78550	24.44	14.68	9.76
1999-2000	242530	176398	418928	47170	31380	78550	18.75	11.26	7.49
2000-2001	268671	198819	467490	31271	19006	50277	10.75	6.69	4.06

* Data could not be obtained for the academic year 1997/98

Source: Education Sector Status Report, May 2003

Table 8.4: Demand for and Supply of Places: The Polytechnics

Academic Year	Applications			Admissions			%T	%M	%F
	M	F	T	M	F	T			
1996-1997	94085	75545	169630	25831	19844	45675	26.93	15.23	11.70
1997-1998	82158	68255	150413	18065	13664	31729	21.09	12.01	9.08
1998-1999									
1999-2000	72100	56236	130251	21513	15492	37005	28.41	16.52	11.89
2000-2001									

Data could not be obtained for the academic year 1998/99

Table 8.5: Demand for and Supply of Places: Colleges of Education

Academic Year	Applications			Admissions			%T	%M	%F
	M	F	T	M	F	T			
1996-1997	5380	8379	13950	3239	8784*	12023	86.19	23.22	62.97
1997-1998*	5400	7785	13185	5661	6901	12562	95.27	42.94	52.33
1998-1999	2385	4161	6546	-	-	-	-	-	-
1999-2000	-	=	=	-	-	-	-	-	-
2000-2001	3999	4862	8861	2998	3674	6672	75.30	33.83	41.47

* Data could not be obtained for the academic year 1997/98

Patterns of Student Preferences

15. Figure 8.1 provides a further illustration to the point just made. The first choice of most candidates is the University. The Polytechnic follows this. Colleges of Education do not seem to be the first love of most candidates. This is

a major educational development challenge. Should Nigeria's non-University higher institutions continue in their present form?

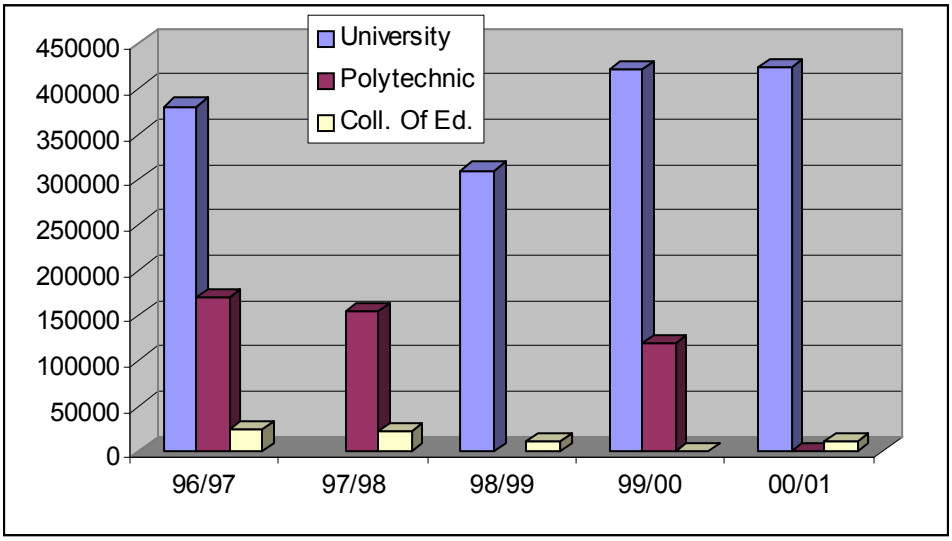

Fig. 8.1: Application trends in Higher Education.

Gender Perspectives

16. The low participation of girls in primary and secondary education is reflected in pronounced gender inequity (to the disadvantage of Women) in higher education. Figure 8.2 shows the high dominance of males in the universities. In the polytechnics (figure 8.3) the gender gap is narrower, while in the Colleges of Education (figure 8.4), there is a predominance of women.

17. Figures 8.2 to 8.4 however hide a few unpalatable details

- Women are predominant only in the non-scientific and non-technical disciplines in the universities
- The preponderance of girls in the 'feminine' disciplines of secretarial studies and administrative studies creates the wrong impression of a relatively narrow gender gap in the polytechnics
- The low status of teaching as a profession is a major explanation for the relatively high enrolment of girls in colleges of education.

Gender barrier to access to higher education is therefore a real education development challenge in Nigeria.

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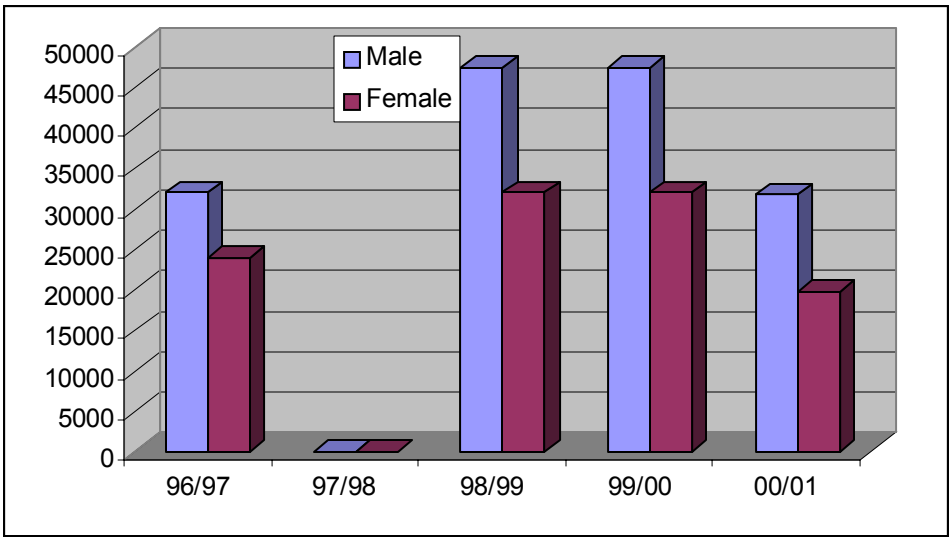

Figure 8.2: *Enrolment Trend in the University by Sex.*

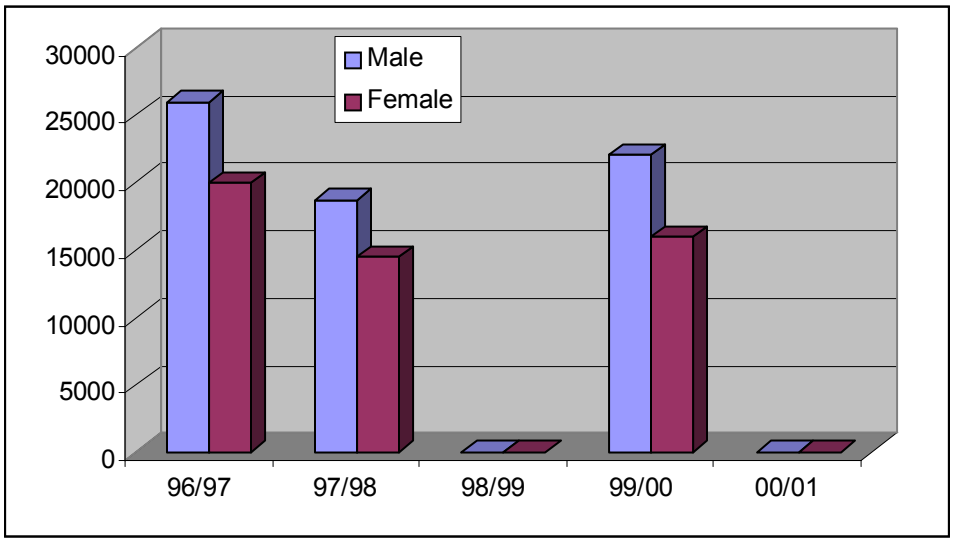

Figure 8.3: Enrolment Trend in Polytechnics by Sex.

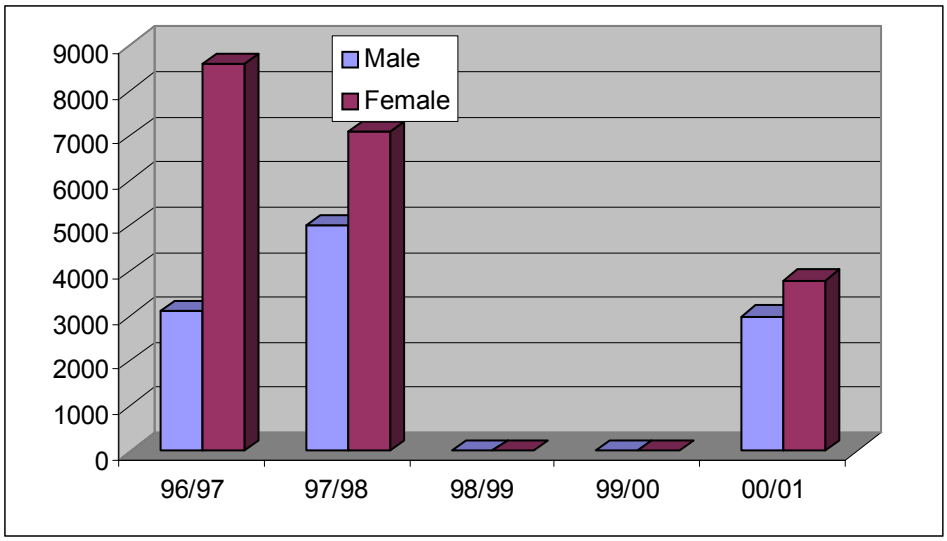

Figure 8.4: *Enrolment Trend in the Colleges of Education by Sex.*

QUALITY ISSUES

1. There have been in recent years a serious concern about the quality of products from tertiary institutions, especially in the light of the sudden rise in their number as well as of the numbers of students, factors which have impact negatively on the institutional facilities, which have become dilapidated, and on the grossly overworked academic staff. Chronic under-funding, that made it impossible for the rehabilitation of infrastructures and construction of new buildings to accommodate the ever-increasing student population, has seriously exacerbated the situation. Funds for recurrent expenditure that are also characterized by short falls, go mostly into the payment of salaries and emolument and for providing services such as electricity, leaving very little for the procurement of consumables and other materials. So, laboratories and workshops are stocked with preponderantly obsolete equipment.

2. By far the most important of the factors implicated as causing the decline in the quality of the graduates of the Nigerian higher education institutions, is the perennial instability which has come to be the hallmark of these institutions in recent times. In the university system for instance, instability occasioned by recurrent and often protracted strike actions by staff unions led to the truncation of academic sessions and frequent closures of universities to the extent that between 1993 and 2003, the university system witnessed more than 28 months of closure without commensurate make up for lost time.

QUALITY ASSURANCE MECHANISMS:

3. Quality assurance in Nigerian higher education consists of internal and external mechanisms. The external mechanism is constituted by accreditation conducted by the statutory regulatory agencies and the professional bodies. The internal institutional mechanisms for the Academic Departments, the Faculties, Schools or Colleges and the Senate or Board of studies as comprises quality assurance appropriate. The external examiner system provides additional assurance that the quality of academic programmes of the institutions is acceptable to academic peers across the system.

22. In the university system for instance, Act No 16 of 1985 empowers the National Universities Commission (NUC) to lay down minimum academic standards for all academic programmes taught in Nigerian universities and to accredit them. Thus, NUC

conducts accreditation of academic programmes that entail peer assessment of the programmes against pre-determined minimum academic standards (MAS) that provide the benchmarks against which the quality of the programmes is measured.

23. Minimum Academic Standards (MAS) for all academic programmes taught in tertiary institutions are set up by government through the appropriate statutory supervisory agency. The National Universities Commission (NUC) is responsible for the setting up of MAS and the assurance of the quality of all academic programmes offered in the universities; the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) and the National commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) are respectively charged with quality assurance responsibility in polytechnics (including monotechnics) and Colleges of Education across the nation, respectively.

24. The objectives of accreditation are to:

- ☞ Ensure that at least the provisions of the Minimum Academic standards documents are attained, maintained and enhanced in the universities;
- ☞ Assure employers and other members of the community that Nigerian graduates of all academic programmes have attained an acceptable level of competency in their areas of specialization; and
- ☞ Certify to the international community that the academic programmes offered in Nigerian universities are of high standards and that their graduates are adequate for employment and further studies.

25. Through the accreditation process, proprietors of the various institutions are advised on ways of revitalizing their institutions and academic programmes where they fail to meet the prescribed standards so that remedial action may be taken towards quality improvement, which is the ultimate purpose of accreditation.

26. The term “accreditation” in the Nigerian context is used to connote “a system for recognizing educational institutions (Universities and programmes offered in these institutions) for a level of performance, integrity and quality which entitles them to the confidence of the educational community, the public they serve and the employers of labour”(NUC, 1989).

27. In the Nigerian university system, in spite of the fact that university education commenced in 1948, accreditation is a relatively recent practice given that the first accreditation exercise was conducted in 1990 following the setting and publication of Minimum Academic Standards (MAS) documents for the thirteen broad discipline areas taught in Nigerian universities in 1989.

28. Since then, three other accreditation exercises have been conducted with the most comprehensive being that conducted in 1999 with a mop-up exercise in 2000. In November 2002 accreditation re-visits were conducted to all programmes that earned denied accreditation status in the 2000 accreditation exercise.

Ranking of Institutions

29. Sequel to the 1999/2000-accreditation exercise, NUC has ranked Nigerian universities based on the Quality (mean score) in each Academic discipline as well as on the Quality of each programme. A league table of the aggregate performance of the academic programmes of the universities was drawn up and used to rank the universities.

30. To achieve objectivity in the exercise, several performance indicators including the following were used to assess the programmes: academic content, curriculum content,

admission into the programme, academic regulations, evaluation of students' work, practical work/degree project, standard of tests and examinations, student course evaluation and external examination, staffing, administration of the department and its staff development programme, physical facilities (classroom facilities, laboratories and staff offices), funding of the programme, library facilities, and employers' rating of the graduates of the programmes.

31. Scores are awarded based on performance of the programme in the area of each indicator. Academic content has a maximum of 23, staffing 32, physical facilities 25; library 12, funding 5 and employers' rating of graduates 3. The aggregate scores are then computed.

32. The accreditation status awarded to a programme depends on the total score. On the basis of aggregate scores, programmes could be accorded **Full** Accreditation, **Interim** Accreditation, or **Denied** Accreditation status. From the aggregate scores, and for the purpose of comparing clusters of universities, the institutions were ranked based on generation and ownership as shown in the tables below.

Table 8.6: RANKING OF FIRST GENERATION UNIVERSITIES

RANK	UNIVERSITY	MEAN ACADEMIC QUALITY INDEX
1	University of Lagos, Akoka	3.63
2	University of Nigeria, Nsukka	3.57
3	University of Benin	3.55
4.	Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife	3.40
5	Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria	3.14
5	University of Ibadan	3.14

Source: National Universities Commission, Abuja

Table 8.7: RANKING OF SECOND GENERATION UNIVERSITIES

RANK	UNIVERSITY	MEAN ACADEMIC QUALITY INDEX
1	University of Port Harcourt	3.75
2	University of Jos	347
3	University of Ilorin	3.43
4.	Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka	3.36
5	University of Maiduguri	3.26
6	University of Calabar	3.24
7	Bayero University, Kano	3.22
8	Usmanu Danfodiyo University, Sokoto	3.19
9	University of Uyo	3.00
10	University of Abuja	2.80

Source: National Universities Commission, Abuja

TABLE 8. 8: RANKING OF STATE UNIVERSITIES

RANK	UNIVERSITY	MEAN ACADEMIC QUALITY INDEX
1	LAUTECH, Ogbomosho	3.40
2	Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye	330
3	Imo State University, Owerri	3.20
3	Enugu State University of Science & Technology	3.20
5	Abia state University, Uturu	3.10
6	Rivers State University of Science & Technology, Port-Harcourt	3.06
7	University of Ado-Ekiti, Ado-Ekiti	3.00
7	Lagos State University, Ojo	3.00
7	Benue State University, Makurdi	3.00
7	Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma	3.00
11	Delta State University, Abraka	2.54

Source: National Universities Commission, Abuja

RELEVANCE RELATED ISSUES: EVIDENCE FROM THE FIELD

Perception of the Quality of Graduates by Professional Bodies

33. In response to the question on the quality of graduates of higher education institutions, university graduates were adjudged to be of good quality by only 25% of respondents, a corresponding 25% of respondents considered them to be of fair quality while another 25% considered graduates of universities to be of poor quality.

34. The quality of polytechnic graduates was rated as very good by 25% of respondents while 50% of respondents considered the quality to be fair; another 25% of employers rated the quality as poor.

35. The quality of graduates of monotechnics was rated as fair my most respondents with 25% of them rating the quality as being poor.

36. 50% of respondents considered the quality of graduates of Colleges of Education to be fair, 25% of respondents considered the quality to be good while another 25% was of the opinion that they were of poor quality.

Rating Of On the Job Performance Of Graduates By Professional Bodies

37. Most professional bodies rated products of science and technology education in Nigeria with regard to contemporary challenges as average in terms of knowledge gained, 41.2% of professional bodies rated them as good, 58.8% rated them as average, In terms of skills acquired, 70.6% of professional bodies who responded rated the graduates as average.

38. Only 17.6% of professional bodies rated the performance on the job of graduates of science and technology as good. Most (64.7%) professional bodies rated the performance on the job of the graduates as average.

39. Most professional bodies rated the percentage of graduates employed after graduation as below average. 47.1% of professional bodies considered the percentage of graduates employed immediately upon graduation to be below average, 2.5

percentage of professional bodies felt that the graduates employed after graduation were good while only 11.8% considered them to be average

40. In terms of self-expression, only 11.8% of professional bodies rated graduates of science and technology education as well. Most (64.7%) rated them as average.

41. In terms of report writing skills about 53.0% of professional bodies rated the graduates as average.

Rating Of Graduate Employability And Performance On The Job By Employers Of Labour.

42. Most employers of labour and rated products of science and technology education in Nigeria with regard to contemporary challenges as average in terms of knowledge gained. 53.2% of employers of labour rated them as average. In terms of skills acquired, 42.6% of employers of labour rated the graduates as average in terms of skills acquired while some 34.0% rated them below average.

43. Only 14.9% of employers of labour rated the on- the- job performance of graduates of science and technology as good while 55.3% of employers of labour rated the performance on the job of the graduates as average.

RECENT STRATEGIC POLICY INTERVENTIONS

44. *Institutional Autonomy:* The granting of autonomy to Nigerian universities involving the devolution of more powers to the governing councils of the universities is certainly one of the measures aimed at stabilizing the university system, since under a milieu of increased institutional autonomy, decisions such as the appointment of vice-chancellors which in some cases had been characterized by rancorous and sometimes vicious succession struggle impacting negatively on institutional stability, will be taken at the institutional level.

45. *Private Sector Provision Of Student Accommodation:* The problems of deterioration of physical facilities and infrastructure and congestion in student hostels are being tackled by government on several fronts, notable among which is the private sector participation in hostel development. Another is the presidential intervention to ensure completion of all abandoned projects in the universities.

46. *The National Virtual Library Project:* The virtual (digital) library project aims to provide, in an equitable and cost effective manner, enhanced access to national and international library and information resources and for sharing locally available resources with libraries all over the world using digital technology. The practical purpose of this is ultimately to solve the perennial problem of lack of current books and journals in university and other higher education libraries**.**

47. *Virtual Institute For Higher Education Pedagogy (Vihep):* A vigorous policy and practice of staff development is essential to boost the morale of academic staff and to update and improve their skills and make them more effective in curricular implementation and innovation. As part of NUC's contribution to improving the quality of teaching and learning in Nigerian universities and in preparation for the take-off of the National Higher Education Pedagogic Centre (NHEPC), the commission established the Virtual Institute for Higher Education Pedagogy (VIHEP) where participants are expected to be able to update their knowledge and skills on a subject matter using internet protocols as platform. This expected to hone the pedagogic skills of lecturers in Nigerian

universities by exposing them to internet-based training on modern methods of teaching and learning in higher education.

Teaching And Research Equipment Fund

48. Protracted under-funding has led to a situation where many university laboratory and studios equipment are obsolete. To address this situation, NUC has succeeded in getting government to agree to provide specific funds for the procurement of teaching and research equipment through the creation of a teaching and research equipment grant sub-head in the funds appropriated to universities in the budget.

KEY ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

49 *Systematically Planned Expansion:* There is a general feeling that the expansion of higher education in Nigeria has not followed a strict master plan. Whether more institutions are needed, in what forms, in what places, under what conditions, etc are now issues that should become elements of a much-desired national strategy for the development of higher education in the country

50. *Management Of Student Flow:* It is also generally believed that the rapid, unplanned increase in student numbers has been a major crisis area of higher institutions. There is therefore the need for 'academic planning' (both at the systems and at the institutional level) to become more closely involved in 'absorption capacity forecasting', as a means of ensuring that student flow is more intimately linked with the facilities (human, financial, physical, academic) of various institutions. This would also be an instrument for planning the expansion of institutions in a manner that takes due care of changes in social demand.

53. Curriculum Renewal To Meet The Needs Of A Knowledge Economy: The entire world is questioning the relevance of higher education curricula, and the major issues have been the need to adapt what students learn, the way teaching and learning is organised, assessment procedures, etc to the demands of the rapidly changing world of work that emphasizes KNOWLEDGE in terms of 'how you know' and not 'what you know'. Nigerian high education should see this as its most important challenge; as its continued relevance would depend on the extent and the speed with which it is able to meet prevailing societal aspirations.

54. *Evolving A Development-Oriented Operational Culture:* The relevance of higher education (especially in a developing country) is also dependent on its capacity to link its programmes and activities to the development imperatives of the Nation. This involves turning those developmental imperatives into the object and subject of teaching, research, and service within the institutions. It also involves forging closer links between town and gown for a more socially responsive form of higher education.

55. *Bridging The Gender Gap In Access, Opportunity, And Responsibilities:* Gender inequality is a stark reality in higher education, as is the case with the entire system. While the problem requires a 'systemic attack', higher education should give it more prominence, by turning Gender into an institutional development issue

56. Adequate Attention To Students Social And Psychological Challenges: The learner is the major reason for the existence of higher institutions. Her/his special needs should be central to any genuine development efforts within that sub-sector. Today's higher education learner is living under more stressful conditions than her/his forebears. Therefore, students' concerns (bringing them in, and not

merely legislating for them) have become an imperative for the smooth development of higher education. This is a major approach to addressing such issues as Cultism and examination malpractices.

SECTION C

OVER-ARCHING EDUCATION SECTOR CHALLENGES

CHAPTER NINE
FINANCING OF EDUCATION

PREAMBLE

1. The National Policy on Education recognizes education as an expensive social service that requires adequate financial provision for the successful implementation of the educational programmes. Government's ultimate goal is to make education free at all levels although the financial burden appears overwhelming.

2. The 1970s were the period of oil boom in Nigeria. The economy expanded and with it came rapid growth and development of the education sector. Championed largely by the federal government direct involvement at especially primary and tertiary education levels. By the 1980s, in contrast, major economic problems were encountered following the decline in revenue from petroleum products. Total expenditure on education as a percentage of the GNP dropped from 1.4 % in 1990 to 0.9% in 1995. According to 1995 data, the total education budget represented an average of 11.5% of total government expenditure.

3. Education share of the budget dropped in 1991 and 1992, remained stable in the range of 12 to 14.5% of the total Federal budget for a number of years but dropped to 10.5% of the total Federal budget in 2004. Financing education is, therefore, a joint responsibility of the federal, state, local governments, local communities, individuals, the private sector and other organisations.

4. The increasing demand for education on public finances coupled with the fact that Government alone cannot carry the burden of education informed participation of other players in the funding of education. Since the early 1980s, corporate organizations, communities, philanthropists, international development partners, multinational corporations have provided resources for education delivery in the country (Saavedrea, 2003). At present, private sources account for about 20% of total national expenditure on education (ESSR, 2003).

MOBILIZATION

The Federal Government

5. The major resource control instrument at the disposal of Government is its budget. However, in the National Budget, social services (under which Education falls) have consistently received poor budgetary allocations when compared with other sectors: 12.6% in 1999, a decrease to 12.2% in 2001, culminating in a fall to 7.5% in 2002. It is noteworthy that in the period 1997-2002, the Federal Government's expenditure on education was below 12% of its overall expenditure, the trend being largely downward.

6. Although each level of education has, at various times, been a concurrent responsibility of both Federal and State Governments, the Federal Government has been involved most heavily at the tertiary level, allocating an average of 68% of its total education expenditure to this level of education between 1996 and 2002. In the same years, the average share of the secondary level was 14.5% (for Federal Unity Schools) and that of the primary level was 11.5%. In 2004, however, total allocation to Education stood at N93.8bn and allocation to tertiary education grew from N48.2bn in 2003 to N55.4bn in 2004 representing about 15% growth in allocation for both Recurrent and Capital.

State Governments

7. Federal allocations from the Federation Account and from contributions centrally collected is the main source of State revenue. Internally- generated revenues constituted only between 20-25% of the total revenues accruing to states between 1995 and 2000. Education as with other social services is on the concurrent list of the constitution. This means that both Federal and State governments can participate at all levels of education. Although state governments are largely responsible for secondary education, they also participate significantly at tertiary level, Most states have established state Universities in addition to state polytechnic, Monotechnics, Colleges of Education. States are also involved in the funding of education. The State Governments are involved in the funding of each level of education though at differing degrees. They are responsible for financing secondary education and a significant part of tertiary education.

8. Before April 2002, State Governments did not, in practice, control the funding of primary education, but they now do so. The share of the total State Government expenditures devoted to education has been a subject of debate. The median share in 1999, for example, was only 18% and had been declining in most States. On the pattern of funding across levels of education, an average of 67 percent of State Government expenditures on education spent on secondary schooling, 11% on primary education, and 19% for tertiary education (ESSR,

2003) while States with state universities, spent an average of 34% on tertiary education, this effectively reducing state government's expenditure on basic and secondary education. (Hinchcliffe, 2002, pp 9-10).

Local Government Resource Support for Education

9. Local Governments have revenues from three sources, namely statutory allocations from the Federation Account, proceeds from the centrally collected VAT and ETF (Education Tax Fund) and, internally generated revenue. Estimates for 1999 across all Local Governments showed that only 7.7% of the total =N=60,800 Million revenue was generated internally while 15.7% came from VAT and 76.6% from the Federation Account (CBN, 1999).

10. The salaries of primary school teachers source centrally through a federal government agency, were essentially funded from central revenue allocation to Local Governments until April 2002. However, with a Supreme Court ruling which declared this procedure unconstitutional, State Governments now allocate funds for both salaries and other items to Local Government Education Authorities. Some Local Governments have managed to undertake capital expenditures on primary education, which in 1999, ranged between 5.2% and 7.8% representing only 4.5% of total Local Government spending on education (Hinchliffe, 2002).

Local Communities

11. Local communities and individual philanthropists have contributed immensely to the financing of education through self-help projects, donation of land, supply of school furniture and equipment, financial assistance and granting of scholarships. The role of Parent – Teacher Associations in mobilizing such contributions to educational development especially in primary and secondary schools, in recent years, has increased markedly. They have built and equipped schools and, contributed funds to assist the recurrent expenses of schools.

The Education Tax Fund (ETF)

12. The ETF is a trust fund established by decree in 1993 (amended by Act 40 of 1998) with the objective of using funding combined with project management to improve the quality of education in Nigeria. All corporations and companies of identified minimum operating capacity and registered in Nigeria contribute a levy of 2% of their annual assessable profits to the Fund which complements Federal, State and Local Government budgets for the three levels of education nationwide. Table 9.1 illustrates aggregate funds allocation to each level of education between the period 1999-2003. (See Table IV)

Table 9.1: ETF Allocation of Funds to Various Levels of Education, 1999-2003 (=N=m)

S/N	Institutions	FUNDS ALLOCATION			
		2002	2003	Total (2002 – 2003)	Aggregate Allocation (1999 – 2003)
1	Universities	3,243,500,000	184,000,000	3,427,500,000	9,686,627,960.12
2	Polytechnics	2,250,000,000	668,500,000	2,918,500,000	4,815,709,288.00
3	Colleges of Education	1,742,625,000	678,625,000	2,421,250,000	5,156,457,430.00
4	Monotechnics	448,000,000	300,000,000	748,000,000	1,323,000,000.00
5	Secondary	2,782,000,000	1,005,500,000	3,787,500,000	6,796,800,001.75
6.	Primary	2,709,000,000	1,548,000,000	4,257,000,000	10,673,399,997.90
7.	Other Institutions	4,764,614,645.12	3,418,806,506.15	8,183,421,151.27	
	Total	**17,939,739,645**	**7,803,431,506**	**25,743,171,151**	**38,451,994,677.7**

Source: ETF Reports, June 2004

To demonstrate the trend and inequity in funds allocation among various levels of education and especially the lack of commitment to government policy on universalising basic education, the aggregate ETF allocation for the two years, 2002 and 2003. Between 1999 and 2003, the total allocation to tertiary institutions was sN21.0billions; to secondary education it was approximately N7.0billion and N11.0billion to primary education, a ratio of 21:7:11. The allocation to tertiary education has been nearly twice as much to primary education (which is the main stream of the UBE) and three times as much to secondary education. Yet the magnitude of the targeted population which the various sub-sector addresses is in the reverse order.

Table 9.1: ETF Allocation of Funds to Various Levels of Education, 1999-2003 (=N=m)

	Institutions	**Total Allocation**
1	Universities	9,686,627,960.12
2	Polytechnics	4,815,709,288.00
3	Colleges of Education	5,156,457,430.00
4	Monotechnics	1,323,000,000.00
5	Secondary	6,796,800,001.75
6.	Primary	10,673,399,997.90
	Total	**38,451,994,677.7**

Source: ETF Reports, June 2004

Table 9. 2: Funds Allocation to Levels of Education, 2002-2003 (=N=m)

Institutions		Funds Allocation		
		2002	2003	Total
1	Universities	3,243,500,000	184,000,000	3,427,500,000
2	Polytechnics	2,250,000,000	668,500,000	2,918,500,000
3	Colleges of Education	1,742,625,000	678,625,000	2,421,250,000
4	Monotechnics	448,000,000	300,000,000	748,000,000
5	Secondary	2,782,000,000	1,005,500,000	3,787,500,000
6	Primary	2,709,000,000	1,548,000,000	4,257,000,000
7	Other Institutions	4,764,614,645.12	3,418,806,506.15	8,183,421,151.27
	Total	**17,939,739,645**	**7,803,431,506**	**25,743,171,151**

Source: ETF Reports, June 2004

Table 1 illustrates aggregate funds allocation to each level of education between the period 1999-2003 while Table 9.2 shows what amount went to each institution for the years 2002 and 2003.

International Financial Support

13. International development partners, both multilateral and bilateral, have also contributed financially to the development of Education in Nigeria. Since 1992, there has been a succession of World Bank loans for basic education. A total of US$65 million was disbursed in 1992-2000, and US$55 million was budgeted for the second phase, 2000-2003. A further US$101 million has been budgeted for the third phase that covers a range of UBE-related activities, including improvements to educational management. The local-level interventions of this phase were to initially target sixteen States.

14. The efforts of the UN agencies and the bilateral agencies have focused on capacity building, technical assistance, experimental initiatives and research, rather than grants or loans. Among their more financially significant projects in recent years is UNESCO's technical support for the Education Sector Analysis in 2000-2003 (costing about US$1.2 million) that is funded by Japan. Others include UNICEF's support for school learning and girl's education over the same period (US$3 million), and the DfID-funded Community Education Project of 1997-2002 (US$5 million). Both DfID and USAID have assigned significant sums for education in the coming years. The Japanese Embassy in Nigeria expended US$467,337 between 1999 and 2002 in supporting basic education through its grassroots aid for the renovation of primary school buildings in different parts of the country.

UTILIZATION

15. The Nigerian system is characterized by the following general pattern of financial support to Education:

a. **Primary education** is the responsibility of States and their Local Governments. It receives about 40% of public education expenditure. In addition a per pupil grant of =N= 50 is allocated for educational materials by the Federal Government and other recurrent items.

b. **Secondary education** is the responsibility of State governments and their contribution on the average is around 82% of the total education expenditure as funds are usually expended at this level on recurrent and capital items as the need arises.

c. Tertiary education is managed by both Federal Government and State Funds are derived from both external and internal sources, including grants. Development partners can and do make interventions in the form of grants on technical aids any level of education.

Cost and Financing of Pre-Primary Education:

16. The findings of the ESA survey study revealed that ownership of pre-primary schools is not exclusively private. The study showed that pre-primary schools are owned by sole proprietors (40%), Local Governments (18.4%), NGOs (15.8%), State Governments (12.7%) and others (less than 40%). In addition, pre-primary schools are established in both urban (62.7%) and rural settings (32.3%) while respondents to the ESA survey were from private schools (66%) and public schools (32.2%).

Cost to Parents

17. Expenditure on pre-primary education included tuition fees which varied from N10.00 to N12, 000 per annum; learning materials which ranged between N69.00 and N8, 900.00 per annum per child; clothing materials varied from N32.50 to N8, 441.25 (the mean cost on clothing per child per annum was N559.40) and; cost of miscellaneous items was between N9.85 and N8.560.00. The details of the study findings on the unit cost characteristics for pre-primary education in Nigeria are shown in Table 9.3 below with the corresponding pie chart below in Figure 1.

Table 9.3: *Unit Cost Characteristics in Pre-Primary Schools in Nigeria*

Items	Pre-Primary (₦)	(₦)	Percentage
Tuition fees		**2,516.20**	**12.9%**
Learning Materials			
Prescribed Textbooks	1,245.90		
Notebooks/Drawing Books	528.90		
Physical Education Materials	531.40		
Pencils	173.90		
Other Materials	572.60		
SUB-TOTAL		**3,052.60**	**15.7%**
Clothing Materials			
School Uniform	828.70		
Caps/Beret/Badge	280.30		
School Sandals/Socks	593.10		
School Blazer/Cardigan	609.70		
School Bags	447.90		
Pants and other Underwear	558.90		
Umbrella/raincoats	478.10		
Others	679.00		
SUB-TOTAL		**4,475.70**	**23.1%**
Miscellaneous Items			
Lunch in School	2760.30		
Transportation	4,025.20		
School Report Card	135.90		
PTA Levy per annum	244.30		
Development Levy per annum	312.40		
Examination Fees	216.50		
Sports and Games	279.80		
Founder's Day Celebration	333.60		
End-of-year activities	262.50		
Other areas	825.50		
SUB-TOTAL		**9,396.00**	**48.3%**
	TOTAL	**19,440.50**	**100%**

Source: Field Survey, ESA 2003.

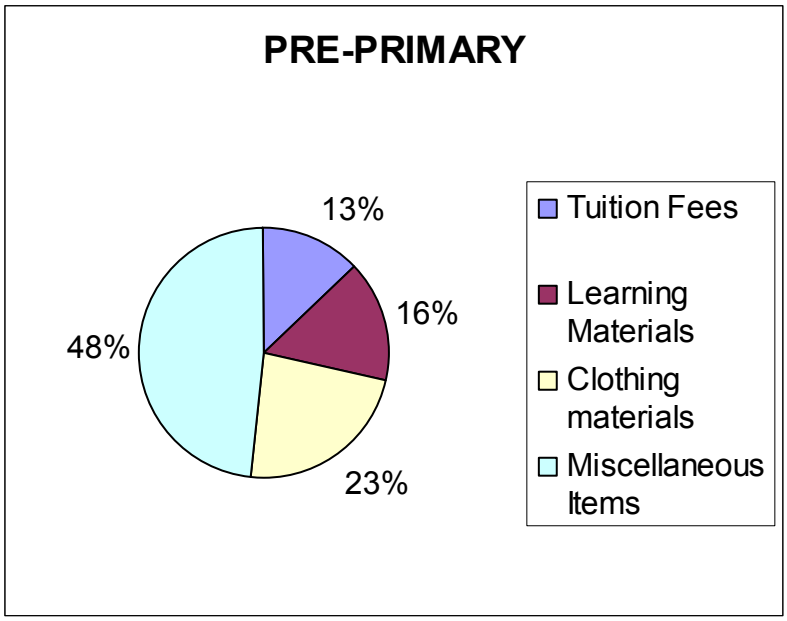

Figure 9.1: Unit Cost Characteristics in Pre-primary Schools in Percentages

18. The summary indicates that the total unit cost per child per annum in pre-primary schools in Nigeria is N19, 440.50 as shown in Table 9.3. The table also shows the various cost components in pre-primary education in the sampled schools both in urban and rural areas. It should be noted that pre-primary education in Nigeria is an urban phenomenon. Miscellaneous items such as school lunch and transportation of the children which constitutes 48.3% of the total cost are the main determinants of unit cost of education in the pre-primary schools. Together with Clothing materials that accounted for 23.1% of the total cost, it is evident that learning materials together with school fees are not the major determinants of cost of pre-primary education in Nigeria, as it is popularly believed.

19. The unit cost of pre-primary education in rural areas is much lower than that of urban centres as shown in Table 9.4. In Nigeria today, early child-care is mainly an urban activity very popular with working mothers.

20. The unit cost of pre-primary education in the private sector is about 50% higher than the public pre-primary schools. In the private sector the unit cost is about N46, 000.00 per annum per child as illustrated in Table 9.4

Table 9. 4: *Mean Unit Cost in Pre-Primary Schools in Nigeria*

Private	₦26, 000.00	Public	₦15, 000.00
Urban	₦29, 000.00	Rural	₦10, 500.00

Source: Balami, 2004

Cost and Financing of Primary Education

21. Government policy stipulates that primary education is tuition free, universal and compulsory. However, Governments welcomes the contributions of voluntary agencies, communities and private individuals in the establishment and management of primary schools.

22. The results of the survey study showed that Local governments owned 39.5% of the primary schools sampled, State governments, 25.5%, sole proprietors 14.1%, Federal government 9.3% and others less than 5.6%. This shows that 75.6% of the primary schools sampled were publicly owned.

Public Expenditure on Primary Education

23. As a result of a combination of reasons, with documented by Hiidchchiffel, sourcing for data on public expenditure on education' is like trying to pass an elephant through a needle's eye. Some of the reasons are:

However, the point has been made that the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria provides for a Concurrent role in the education sector for both the federal and state governments. Furthermore, the constitution encourages local government's participation but subsisted such roles to respective states of the Local Government. With 36 federating states, a federal capital territory and 774 Local Governments, all operating almost independently, it is difficult to fkeep comparable records of fexpenditure. Table 9.5 presents the best available record of funds allocation to primary education in 6 states, as an indication of funds allocation to the sub-sector. It walso shows the relative disbursement of funds by the state Priamry Education and Local Government Education Boards to the State Ministry of Education as well as the relative attention paid by statres to two key functions in the management of primary education.

Cost to Parents

24. The findings of the study revealed that tuition fees in primary schools varied from N11.00 to N25.700.00 while about 55.6% did not pay above N950.00. The highest of N25, 700.00 must be an urban school. On the average people pay ₦1, 673.90 per annum. This is a true reflection of the school fees paid in public primary schools.

25. Expenditure on learning materials ranged between N4.60 and N10.400 per child per annum while about 59% of respondents claimed to spend N671.22 on learning materials on a child per annum. Total expenditure on clothing materials according to the results of the study was between N11.20 and N7,364.75 per annum per child while the mean total expenditure on clothing was N534.00.

26. Annual cost on miscellaneous items ranged between N21.78 and N9, 834.28 per annum per child and, the mean total expenditure on miscellaneous items was N743.60 per annum per child. Table 5 below illustrates the unit cost

characteristics in primary education in Nigeria with the corresponding pie chart below it.

Table 9. 5: Unit Cost Characteristics in Primary Education in Nigeria

Items	Primary	
Tuition fees		**1,674.00**
Learning Materials		
Prescribed Textbooks	1,454.40	
Notebooks/Drawing Books	575.20	
Physical Education Materials	532.20	
Pencils	164.60	
Other Materials	629.00	
SUB-TOTAL		**3,356.20**
Clothing Materials		
School Uniform	730.80	
Caps/Beret/Badge	282.40	
School Sandals/Socks	536.10	
School Blazer/Cardigan	494.60	
School Bags	456.80	
Pants and other Underwear	454.90	
Umbrella/raincoats	477.80	
Others	838.90	
SUB-TOTAL		**4,272.40**
Miscellaneous Items		
Lunch in School	1,324.70	
Transportation	1,312.00	
School Report Card	129.60	
PTA Levy per annum	216.00	
Development Levy per annum	270.00	
Examination Fees	216.00	
Sports and Games	362.20	
Founder's Day Celebration	295.40	
End-of-year activities	311.30	
Other areas	700.30	
SUB-TOTAL		**5,137.50**
	TOTAL	**14,440.10**

Source: Field Survey 2003.

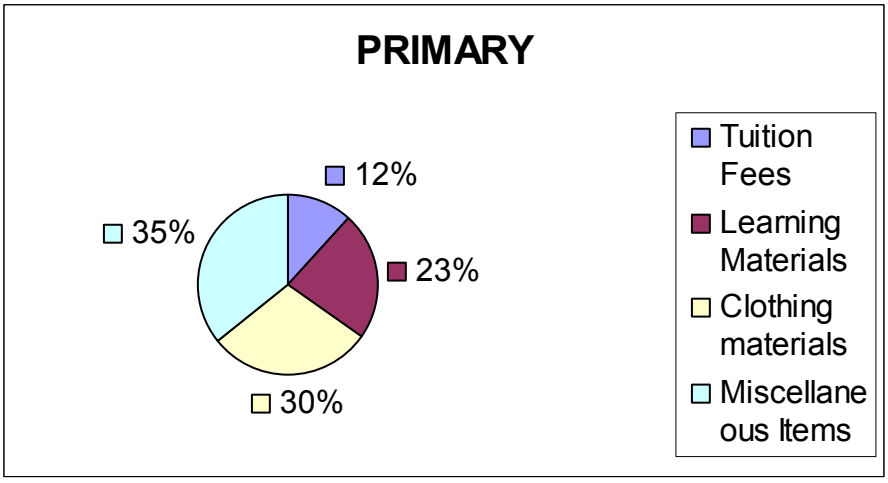

Figure 9. 2: Primary School Unit Cost Characteristics in Percentages

27. The study shows that the total annual unit cost of education in the primary sub-sector is N14, 440.10 as shown in Table 9.5. The Table also shows the various cost components of the unit cost of primary education, e.g. tuition fee, learning materials, clothing materials and miscellaneous items. A breakdown of the cost components shows that miscellaneous items still account for the highest proportion of the total cost of primary education per annum per child. This is because miscellaneous items account for 35.6%, clothing materials 29.6% and, learning materials 11.6% of the total cost. The total unit cost of primary education is lower than that of pre-primary education probably because government has shown greater commitment through funding and management of primary education in line with its free primary education policy. Pre-primary education, on the other hand, is still very much at the mercy of proprietors.

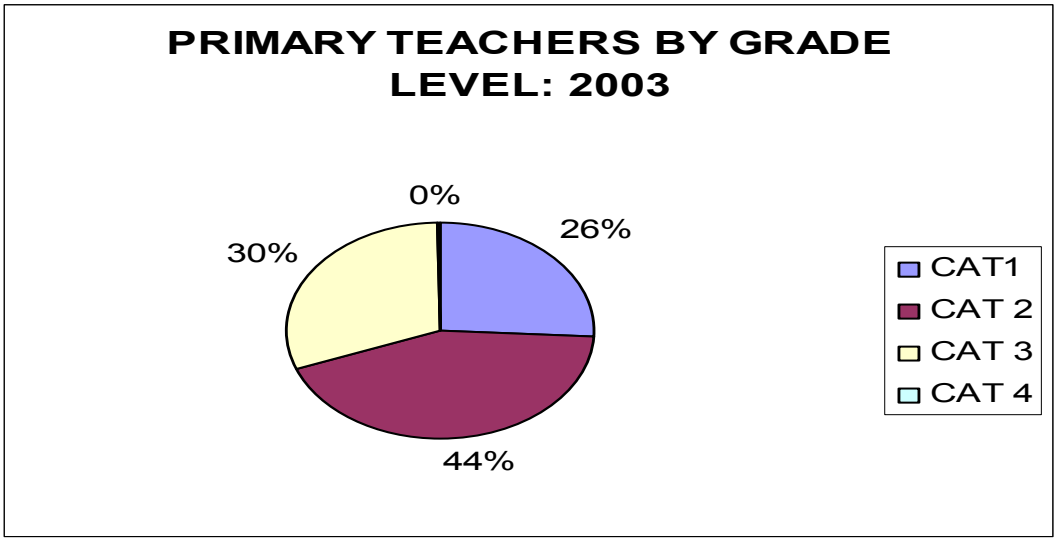

Figure 9.3

The chart above presents Primary school teachers in the country by grade level:

Category 1 represents teachers on salary grade level 1-4;
Category 2 represents teachers on salary grade level 5-8;
Category 3 represents teachers on salary grade level 9-13;
Category 4 represents teachers on salary grade level 14-17.

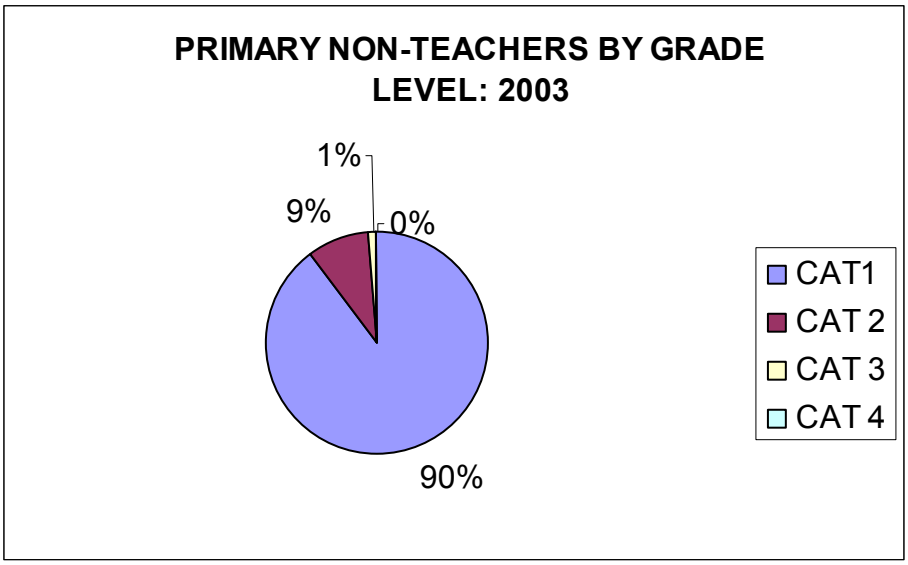

Chart 9.4 above presents Primary school non-teaching staff by grade level:
The categories are similar to chart 2 on teaching staff.

Staffing

28. Primary school staff salary has been a contentious issue in Nigeria. It has been the most important factor of establishment and management of primary schools. Local governments complained of being over-burdened bny the proportion of their revenues that goes to pay staff salary and other benefits. Before the federal government intervention, several Local Governments were in arrears of teachers' salaries for upwards of six months. Non-payment of salaries was the excuse for a nation-wide strike of teachers for many months in the 90^{s}'. This incident led to the wake of the erstwhile National Primary Education Commission, which in turns gave rise to the Universal Basic Education Commission.

Yet the staffing size is generally bloated, without the required mix of qualification and sex. From a recent World Bank study, as shown on Table …, the staffing situation in 26 selected Local Governments in 13 selected stats in Nigeria, there is hardly any discernible norm for recruitment and deployment of staff across the states. The institutions responsible for management the primary education sub-sector were burdened by unqualified teachers and non-teaching staff. Large differences in the sizes of administrative organs that manage the system are observed.

29. The unit cost of primary education in Nigeria is much higher in the urban centres than in the rural areas. The mean unit cost of primary education in rural areas is 35% lower than that of the urban areas. The unit cost in the urban areas is N30, 000.00 per annum while in the rural areas it is N4000.00 per annum per child. In the private sector, the unit cost is estimated to be about N33, 000.00 while in the public schools it is about N10, 000.00 per annum per child as shown in Table 6.

Table 9. 6: Mean Unit Cost in Primary School

Private	₦31, 000.00	Public	₦9, 000.00
Urban	₦30, 000.00	Rural	₦14, 000.00

Source: Balami, 2004

Cost and Financing of Junior Secondary Education

30. State Governments owned 51% junior secondary schools, Local Governments 22.4%, the Federal Government 14.3% and private ownership 12.3% from the sampled schools constitute the highest number of proprietors of secondary school.

31. The study showed that school fees chargeable in the junior secondary schools in the country ranged between N30.00 and N7, 200.00 per annum per child. on the whole, the main school fees in the junior secondary school was N1, 109.00 per annum per pupil.

32. Cost of learning materials was between N20.00 and N4, 000.00 per child per annum. A great number of respondents (71%) claimed that they spent about N996.16 on the average per child per annum on learning materials. The provision of learning materials for basic education in the country may lead to parents spending less on the procurement of learning materials for their wards.

33. Annual expenditure per child on clothing materials was between N56.62 and N4, 350.00. The mean expenditure on clothing material was N834.76 per child per annum. Expenditure on miscellaneous items per annum per child was between N34.28 and N2, 759.60. The result showed that the mean expenditure on miscellaneous items was N614.90 per annum per child. Table 9.7and the corresponding chart in figure 9.4, illustrate these findings**.**

Table 9. 7: Unit Cost Characteristics in Junior Secondary School Education 2003

Items	JSS (₦)	(₦)	Percentage
Tuition fees		**1,108.57**	**5.9%**
Learning Materials			
Prescribed Textbooks	2,267.74		
Notebooks/Drawing Books	807.35		
Physical Education Materials	827.75		
Pencils	273.17		
Other Materials	805.00		
SUB-TOTAL		**4,981.01**	**26.1%**
Clothing Materials			
School Uniform	1,451.17		
Caps/Beret/Badge	350.57		
School Sandals/Socks	835.10		
School Blazer/Cardigan	742.88		
School Bags	795.23		
Pants and other Underwear	742.55		
Umbrella/raincoats	660.00		
Others	1,100.95		
SUB-TOTAL		**7,514.02**	**39.4%**
Miscellaneous Items			
Lunch in School	1113.40		
Transportation	467.70		
School Report Card	393.33		
PTA Levy per annum	271.33		
Development Levy per annum	328.45		
Examination Fees	226.33		
Sports and Games	737.14		
Founder's Day Celebration	579.41		
End-of-year activities	276.00		
Other areas	1,053.53		
SUB-TOTAL		**5,446.62**	**28.6%**
	TOTAL	**19,050.22**	**100%**

SOURCE: ESA Field Survey 2003.

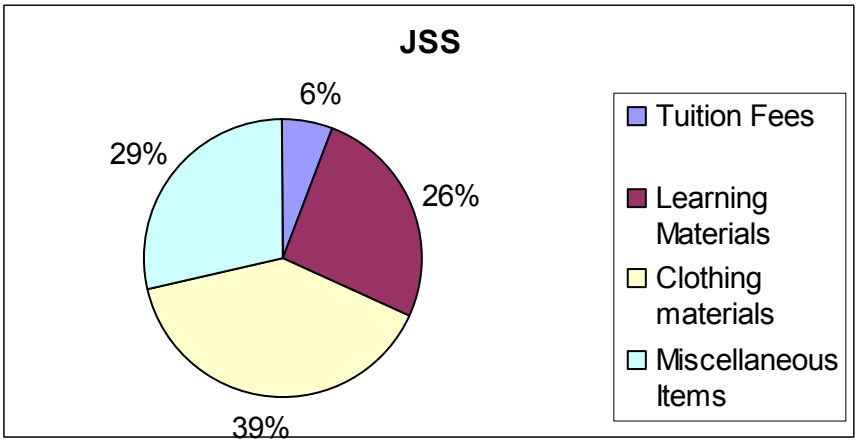

Figure 9. 5: Unit Cost Characteristics in Junior Secondary Education in Percentages.

34. The studied group showed that the total unit cost of education per child per annum in junior secondary school was N19, 050.22 as indicated in Table 9.7. The table also shows the various components of expenditure on education in the junior secondary school sub-sector. Unlike in the pre-primary and primary sector, clothing materials constitute greater percentage of the total cost component of education accounting for 39.4% of the total cost; closely followed by miscellaneous items with 28.6% of the total cost; learning materials 26.1% and tuition fees only 5.9%.

35. The unit cost of junior secondary school in Nigeria in rural areas is much cheaper than the urban centres. It is estimated to be 30% lower than in the urban centres. However, the unit cost of education in the private sector is estimated to be 60% higher than the estimated unit cost of education in the junior secondary schools as illustrated in Table 9.8.

Table 9. 8: **Unit Cost in Junior Secondary School**

Private	₦52, 000.00	Public	₦9, 000.00
Urban	₦56, 000.00	Rural	₦15, 000.00

Source: Balami, 2004

Cost and Financing of Senior Secondary Education

36. Analysis of the results of the ESA survey study revealed that ownership structure of the senior secondary schools in the country included State Governments (52.4%), Federal Government (14.3%), sole proprietors (14.3%), Local Governments (9.5%) and communities (4.8%).

37. The results of the survey showed that tuition fees per child per annum ranged between N30.00 and N7, 200.00. About 55.6% of the study sample did not pay more than N360.00 per annum thereby putting the mean total expenditure per child per annum at N3, 500.55.

38. Expenditure on learning materials was between N20.00 and N4, 000.00, clothing materials between N56.62 and N4, 350.00 and miscellaneous items between N343.00 and N2759.60 per annum per child. The mean total expenditure on learning materials was N996.16; clothing materials N847.30 and; miscellaneous items N614.90.

Table 9. 9: Unit Cost Characteristics in Senior Secondary school (2003)

Items	SSS (₦)	(₦)	Percentage
Tuition fees		**3,500.55**	**8.9%**
Learning Materials			
Prescribed Textbooks	2,656.15		
Notebooks/Drawing Books	1,205.94		
Physical Education Materials	600.00		
Pencils	170.38		
Other Materials	969.16		
SUB-TOTAL		**5,601.63**	**14.2%**
Clothing Materials			
School Uniform	1,647.77		
Caps/Beret/Badge	395.33		
School Sandals/Socks	1,072.35		
School Blazer/Cardigan	533.33		
School Bags	515.00		
Pants and other Underwear	717.77		
Umbrella/raincoats	675.00		
Others	1,022.72		
SUB-TOTAL		**6,582.27**	**16.7%**
Miscellaneous Items			
Lunch in School	1,294.25		
Transportation	2,737.53		
School Report Card	255.00		
PTA Levy per annum	758.66		
Development Levy per annum	878.00		
Examination Fees	509.11		
Sports and Games	600.00		
Founder's Day Celebration	440.00		
End-of-year activities	1,279.16		
Other areas	14,983.33		
SUB-TOTAL		**23,735.04**	**60.2%**
	TOTAL	**39,419.49**	**100%**

Source: ESA Field Survey 2003.

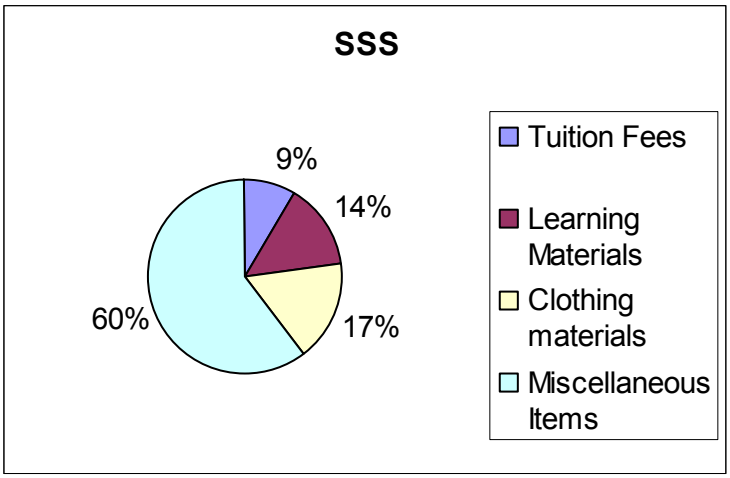

Figure 9.6: Unit Cost Characteristics in Senior Secondary Schools in Percentages.

39. The survey showed that the unit cost of education in senior secondary schools in Nigeria was N39, 419.49 as indicated in Table 9. 9. Table 9.9 shows the various cost components of the unit cost of education at the senior secondary level of education. Further analysis indicated that miscellaneous items took the lion share of 60.2% of the total cost of education at the senior secondary school level followed by clothing materials 16.7%, learning materials, 14.2% and tuition fees 8.9%.

40. Noteworthy is that the unit cost of senior secondary school education in rural areas seems to be 17.8% cheaper than that of urban centres. Similarly, the unit cost of education in public schools estimated to be 36.36% cheaper than that of the private schools as illustrated on Table 10.

Table 9. 10: Mean Unit Cost of Education in Senior Secondary Schools

Private	₦85, 000.00	Public	₦20, 000.00
Urban	₦84, 000.00	Rural	₦15, 000.00

Source: Balami, 2004

Cost and Financing of Tertiary Education

41. Tertiary Education comprises Universities, Polytechnics, Colleges of Education and Monotechnics that are owned either by the Federal Government, State Governments private organisations or individuals. Thus in Nigeria, there are tertiary institutions which are publicly or privately funded.

42. The Federal and the State governments are the major funders of public/government-established post-secondary institutions in the country. A characteristic of tertiary education (also secondary) funding in Nigeria is that both tiers of government manage and fund their own institutions. On the whole, however, the Federal Government share in tertiary education financing is greater than that of the State Governments.

43. Previous studies confirmed that the unit costs of education vary from one sub-sector to the other. For instance, the unit costs for universities were found to be much higher when compared to the other levels of education. The unit cost of education in Colleges of Education and Polytechnics also varied from State to State. The unit cost of education also varied from one discipline to another in the universities as confirmed by Okebukola (2002). According to Okebukola (2002) the total average unit cost per student per discipline in all science-based disciplines (with a

mean of N239, 408) was higher than those of Art-based disciplines (with a mean of N186.525). He further explained that the average unit cost per student per discipline ranged from a minimum of N141, 532 for business Administration/Management Science to maximum of N302, 096 in Human Medicine.

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44. Table 9.11 presents the results of some of the major findings of the survey study carried out on the cost and financing of tertiary education in Nigeria.

Table 9.11: REVENUE PROFILES OF TERTIARY Institutions in NIGERAI (1998 – 2002) (IN ₦ Million.)

YEAR	GRANT FROM PROPRIETOR				INTERNALLY -GENERATED			
	University	Polytechnic	Monotechnic	College of Education	University	Polytechnic	Monotechnic	College of Education
1998	-	24.00	-	1,913.10	-	281.80	-	2,215.60
1999	153.70	71.60	-	3,718.30	152.60	67.10	-	8,673.40
2000	301.20	18.20	0.5	2,351.00	148.40	526.50	-	3,103.00
2001	550.00	343.50	0.1	3,467.90	140.50	17.00	-	3247.30
2002	2.70	2,050.00	-	4,247.80	38.40	23.00	0.82	1,713.000
Total	1,007.80	2,507.30	0.6	15,698.10	479.90	916.00	0.82	18,952.30

Source: ESA Field Survey, 2003

Table 9.11 shows the amount of revenue profile of institutions of higher learning in Nigeria from 1998-2002. For the universities the amount declined from N550 million in 2001 to as low as N2.7 million in 2002 while that of polytechnics appreciated from N343.50 million in 2001 to N2.05 billion in 2002. For Colleges of Education, there was a slight decline in year 2000 that later shot up in year 2001 and higher in 2002. With respect to internally generated revenue, the trend was generally downward. Both internally generated revenue and grants from proprietors were inconsistent from year to year.

45. There was also an inverse relationship between grants from proprietors and internally- generated revenue for polytechnics in Nigeria. Moreover, the sharp fall in 2002 for university could be attributed to the strike in the university system that resulted in the closure of the system and the stoppage of salaries of staff.

Table 9.12 Estimated Unit Cost of Education in Tertiary Institutions

S/N	Expenditure	Monotechnics	%	Polytechnics	%	Colleges of Education	%	Public Universities	%	Private Universities	%
1	Tuition & Registration	10,500.00	16.6	8,500.00	11.1	8,000.00	11.4	9,000.00	6.7	250,000.00	75.3
2	Learning Materials	15,000.00	23.8	20,000.00	26.1	15,000.00	21.4	50,000.00	37.3	10,000.00	3.0
3	Clothing Material	18,000.00	28.5	20,000.00	26.1	20,000.00	28.6	25,000.00	18.6	20,000.00	6.0
4	Miscellaneous items	19,500.00	30.9	28,000.00	36.6	27,000.00	38.6	50,000.00	37.3	52,0000.00	15.7
Total		**63,000.00**	**100**	**76,500.00**	**100**	**70,000.00**	**100**	**134,000.00**	**100**	**332,000.00**	**100**

Source: Balami (2004)

46. Table 9.12 illustrates the public and private unit cost of the various levels of education in tertiary institutions in Nigeria in 2004. The unit cost varies not only among the different levels of education but also horizontally on the same item of expenditure.

47. The unit cost of education in a Monotechnic is estimated to be about N63, 000 per annum per child with miscellaneous items of N19, 500 as the highest. This is followed by clothing material with N18, 000 as cost. In the polytechnics, miscellaneous and learning materials constitute the main components of cost in education. School fees are the least item. The estimated cost per child per annum is N76, 500.

The unit cost of education in the colleges of education varied from State to State but it is estimated to cost about N70, 000 per annum per child. Still, school fees are the least cost component of the unit cost of education in this sector.

ROLE AND CONTRIBUTION OF INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AGENCIES

48. Nigerian education sector gets assistance from development agencies both multilateral and bilateral. Notable among these international development agencies are The World Bank which has contributed a substantial amount of money in terms of loans for basic education for the construction of new classrooms, renovation, furniture provision, toilets and water, capacity building and other special programmes including community-organised school self-help schemes. From 1992 - 2000, the World Bank contributed a total sum of $65,000,000 to the Education sector. Again, $55,000,000 was budgeted for 2000-2003. In addition to

this, $101,000,000 was earmarked for UBE- related activities. UNESCO is another important development agency that has supported education in Nigeria. It has provided 1.2 million dollars between 2000 and 2003 as grant. UNICEF also contributed about $3,000,000 to Education in Nigeria. Both USAID and DFID have contributed $467,337 within the period 1999 and 2002. As shown in Table 9.13, other agencies that have supported education included African Development Bank (ADB) and Japanese Government through its International Cooperation Agency (JICA).

Table 9.13: International Development Agencies' Contribution to Education (US$)

S/N	AGENCY	1992-2000	2000-2003
1	World Bank (credit)	65,000,000	55,000,000
2	UNESCO		1,200,000
3	UNICEF		3,000,000
4	USAID & DFID		467,332
5	African Development Bank (ADB)		N/A
6	Japanese Government	204,388	3,275,642
7	Japanese International Cooperation Agency	N/A	115,000

Source: Federal Ministry of Education (2003). *Education Sector Status Report, UNESCO.*

MAJOR CONSTRAINTS

49. The findings of the study raised some issues about the constraints and challenges of financing education in the country. Presented below is Table 9.14 that illustrates the actual allocation of funds and funds released to the Federal Ministry of Education between 1999 and 2003.

Table 9. 14: FME: Allocation and Availability of Funds 1999-2003

SN	YEAR	CAPITAL (Nbn)			RECURRENT (Nbn)		
		ALLOCATION	RELEASED	%RELEASED	ALLOCATION	RELEASED	%RELEASED
1.	1999	11.043	6.871	62.2%	23.702	23.702	100%
2.	2000	23.370	15.113	64.7%	49.127	49.127	100%
3.	2001	24.797	22.317	90%	52.549	52.549	100%
4.	2002	22.100	2.772	.01%	50.002	42.683	85.4%
5.	2003	15.723	5.161	32.8%	62.819	58.310	92.8%

Evidently funds allocation to the Federal Ministry of Education has dwindled over the years. Funds release for capital project was as low as 0.01% of approved allocation in 2002. Release of recurrent allocation was

85% of approved allocation in 2002, the lowest level of release during the period under review

Mobilizing sufficient funding for Education at all Sub-sectors.

50. The Federal government should device a means of mobilizing sufficient funds for the education sector at all levels. This means that all the stakeholders in the education industry should live up to their responsibility of making available sufficient funds for the running of the educational sector in Nigeria. These stakeholders include Federal, State, Local governments, individual's private sector and development partners like the World Bank, UNESCO, USAID, OXFAM, UNDP etc.

Reducing Hidden Costs to Parents of the Less privileged:

51. Table 9.15 aptly demonstrates the inequity in funds allocation in the Education sector in Nigeria. There is need for government to intervene at the lower levels of the education sector to reduce costs of transportation of pupils/students to and from the school, school uniform (e.g. badges, berets, and shoes), afternoon lunch and other sundry expenses. These hidden costs most of the time far outweighs school fees and other well-known costs involved in the sector. A reduction in the hidden costs will relieve the heavy burden on parents of low-income groups. Public spirited individuals, NGOs and private sector can also assist through the rendering of assistance like providing means of transportation, provision of school badges and berets free to pupils and students and making occasional lunches available to the students of low income families. This will go a long way in saving costs to parents, particularly the less privileged in the society.

Ensuring Regular Payment of Teachers:

52. Payment of teachers' salaries and allowances could take a large proportion of the cost of the educational sub-sector, particularly at primary school level. For smooth running of the school, salary and allowance of teachers should be paid promptly to induce teacher performance. Excess teachers in one school should be taken to areas of deficit and the number of non-teaching staff should be reduced to allow for saving money for the development of teachers.

Expanding and Strengthening Partnerships

53. Financing education appears to have become a heavy burden on government and thus requires participation from other stakeholders. Hence, there is the need for partnership participation among stakeholders in the education sector, e.g. entering into partnership with Development Partners, such as the World Bank, UNDP, UNICEF, UNESCO and the

organised private sector, non-government agencies as well as other philanthropic organizations and individuals. Policy makers in the education sector can work out the best way to channel such support.

Prioritizing Needs for Optimizing Scarce Resources:

54. The current challenge in the education sector is the need for prioritization of needs because the available resources appear grossly inadequate. Currently, there are many compelling needs as far as costing and funding of the education sub-sector in the country is concerned. These include classroom construction, renovation, furniture provision, teachers' salaries miscellaneous, capacity building, special programmes like HIV/AIDS, problem of enrolment and enhancing the quality of education delivery at all levels. Given, these circumstances, efforts should be made to put these needs in order of their importance and treated as such to ensure optimum use of scarce resources. In this regard, it is required that school management is to determine which area of expenditure should come before the other. For example, emphasis may be put on costs of learning materials, clothing material or on miscellaneous items. This needs to be streamlined to ensure that the scarce resources are maximally utilised in the overall interest of education in Nigeria.

55. Resource allocation in the various sub sectors of the education should also be based on simulation modelling, etc. whereby allocation to each sub-sector is specified. This should be done in such a way that when all the sub-sectors are put together it would produce the best result in terms of costing and financing of education in Nigeria.

Major Constraints to Institutions Funding

In the ESA survey, respondents were requested to …..

Table 9.16: Major Constraints to Institutions Funding (%)

S/N	Constraints	Percentage
1	Global economic depression	31.8
2	Unpredictable state of the economy	13.6
3	Limited source of fund	18.2

Source: ESA Field Survey, 2003

56. Table 16 shows the pattern of frespfonse to identified constraints on institutional funding in Nigeria. About 31.8% of the respondents agreed that global economic depression was responsible for the constraints in funding education and 13.6% of the respondents claimed that the

unpredictable state of the economy was responsible for the poor funding whereas 18.2% claimed that the limited sources of funds available to the institution were responsible for the constraints.

Options for Improving……

Table 9.17: ***Options for Improving Institutional Financial Health***

Options	SD	DA	A	SA
Academic linkage	13.60	18.20	27.30	-
Fee deregulation	18.20	9.10	22.70	13.60
Introduction of user charges	18.20	4.50	27.30	13.60
Embarking on Commercial Ventures	9.10	4.50	13.60	36.40
Gift and Donations	-	9.10	27.30	27.30
Endowment	4.5	9.10	31.80	22.70
Private Sectors participation	-	4.50	22.70	31.80

Source: ESA Field Survey, 2003

57. Table 9.17 shows that most respondents agreed that other sources should be explored for financing education in Nigeria. In most cases the respondents agreed that institutions must search beyond traditional source of funds, such as …….. Respondents were almost evenly spread on this issues of a combination of strategies for improving the Financial Health of Nigeria Institutions.

Table 9. 14*: Strategies for Improving Financial Health in Nigerian Institutions*

S/N	Strategy	Percentage
1	Encouraging private participation provision of basic amenities	63.60
2	Award Honorary Degrees to deserving individuals	-
3	Funding raising	13.60
4	Collaboration with private sector in research activities	-

Source: ESA Field Survey, 2003

58. Table 9.18 suggests that the private sector should be encouraged in the provision of basic amenities in Nigerian institutions. The finding

revealed that 63.6% of the respondents agreed that private sector participation is a strategy that tertiary institutions should adopt to improve the financial health. About 13.6% also claimed that fund raising should be used as a strategy for improving financial health.

KEY ISSUES AND RECURRENT CHALLENGES

Resourcing Education in Nigeria has been complicated by the following intractable challenges.

59. ***Paucity of reliable data:*** An objective analysis of education sector financing is hindered by the dearth of comprehensive data. Though the Federal Government produces data on executed budgets annually, contributions from States and Local Government Areas are not collated into comprehensive Government accounts presenting global sectoral breakdown of expenditure. The situation is complicated by the fact that funds expended on education by numerous bodies; grants and internally generated revenue are not reflected in the federal, state and LGA budgets.

60. **Dwindling facilities**: Probably due to economic crunch, infrastructural and utility facilities in institutions have depreciated or collapsed completely or are non-existent. For instance, approximately 5% of Schools in the country have no schooling buildings. Most of the buildings (where available) were either without roofs, inadequate or in a terrible state. The SAPA survey (1993) showed that classrooms are over crowded with an average of 69 pupils per teacher in a regular 12m x 10m classroom. In other cases, there was acute shortage of furniture for teachers (62.5%) and for pupils the national average is 62.38% (ESA/FME, 2003). World Bank (2000) report revealed that decline in the quality of higher education in the country is probably not unconnected to infrastructural decay, breakdown and deterioration of facilities, shortages of new books and current journals in the libraries, supplies for the laboratories, and limited funding for research.

61. **Inadequate/Inappropriate Human Resources:** The NPE specifies that the minimum qualification for entry into the teaching profession shall be the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) but as of the time the policy was enacted many teachers in Nigerian primary schools did not even possess the Grade II certificate. Most times teachers in service and education administrators do not have opportunities for high quality staff development and, as a result, their knowledge and skills are often outdated. There are human resource needs for administration, management, research and teaching as well as for support and technical staff which therefore calls for an urgent need for capacity building in the various establishments charged with responsibility for governing and managing different aspects of education.

62. **Competing demands on government:** It has become apparent that there is a limit to which the total revenue generated by Government can go in view of the competing demands on Government to service other sectors of the economy. The allocation to the education sector as a share of the national budget has fluctuated from 6.45% in 1989 to 11.13% in 1999 declining to 8.70% and 7.0% in 2000 and 2001 respectively. This is probably because to reform the country, Government has to invest in other sectors such as politics, communication, agriculture, poverty eradication, industry, mines and power. It is, therefore, imperative that financing of education should become the' responsibility of all'.

CHAPTER TEN
SPECIAL NEEDS EDUCATION

INSTITUTIONAL AND NORMATIVE FRAMEWORK

1 Special Education represents the specialized educational services delivery offered to children and adults who are unable to cope with the regular school class organization and methods. Government's avowed intention as articulated in the National Policy on Education (NPE) (2004) is to provide adequate education for all categories of children and adults who require special education services as well as to provide a diversified and appropriate curriculum for each category of disability.

2. In 1993, Government and UNICEF carried out a situation and policy analysis of Basic Education in Nigeria as a way of driving the education sub-sector forward (including Special Education). Ten (10) years after, that is in 2003 Government embarked on Education Sector Analysis as a way of describing vividly the current status of the educational system in Nigeria. In this exercise in Special Education, 117 Special Schools/Centres/Homes/Units were sampled out of the 302 identified in 32 states of the Federation. The study involved pupils, teachers and head teachers in primary and secondary schools throughout the country. This implies that there are about 302 special schools, homes/centres, integrated schools, unit classes and clinics (such as the type at the University of Ibadan) in 32 states that have programmes for the education of children with special needs. Their population is approximately 1.68 million using United Nations (UN) population estimates. The United Nations estimates the disabled population of each country to be 10% of its total population. Going by the SAPA report of 1993, available statistics then showed that in 1986, only about 2.1 per cent of children with special needs attended formal schooling. In 1991, the percentage appreciated marginally to 4.23 (20,000). The implication was that about 96% did not profit from formal schooling. Ten years after, available statistics from this national survey has shown that just about 8.92% of children with disability are in formal education. In many schools visited, low enrolment figures appeared to be the trend.

3. The major thrust of the National Policy in Education (NPE) (1998) which is consistent with prevailing government policy, is the provision of equal educational opportunities for all children. To realize this, the goals of special education in the policy document are:

(i) give concrete meaning to the idea of equalising educational opportunities for all children, their physical, mental, sensory, psychological or emotional disabilities notwithstanding;

(ii) provide adequate education for all people with special needs in order that they may fully contribute their own quota to the development of the nation;

(iii) provide opportunities for exceptionally gifted and talented children to develop their talents, national endowments/trails at their own pace in the interest of the naiton's economic and technological dev elopement; and

(iv) design a diversified and appropriate curriculum for all the beneficiaries.

The Dakar framework and Millennium Development Goals improved on existing policy provisions in education qualitatively and quantitatively. In the EFA Dakar goals for instance, it is expected that:

- By 2015 all children particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality.
- By 2005, gender disparities in primary and secondary education will be eliminated while gender equality in education will be realized by 2015.

POLICY TRENDS

4. The Federal Government of Nigeria made bold initiatives in 1986 when it came up with the Blueprint on Education for Gifted and Talented persons. Government later reviewed the content of the Blueprint in a bid to enhance the quality of services delivery in Gifted Education. In July 2001, the Ipaye-led team submitted its report on Repositioning of Federal Government Academy, Suleja. Most of the prescriptions in the Blueprint for running gifted Education in Nigeria are hardly followed by the teachers, Out of the eigh instructional strategies recommended in the Blueprint in 1986, all the teachers (100%) still use only the lecture method. Instructional procedures in the two schools for the gifted are not much different from what obtains in regular secondary schools such as Federal Government Colleges.

5. In the area of staffing, data from this survey indicate that most of the teachers employed to teach gifted children lack basic qualification and essential basic in the management and nurturance of gifted children.

Table 10.1 shows enrol of Special Education by sex.

ACCESS AND EQUITY ISSUES

6. The targets set are a far cry from the situation on ground. Available statistics from this survey indicate that with less than 12 months to year 2005, there is still gender disparity in primary and secondary school enrolment for the different categories of disabilities. For the period surveyed (1999-2003) enrolment figures for males were consistently higher than those of females.

7. One worrisome feature of the figures is that for the males and females alike there has been consistent decline in the pattern of enrolment as the children move from one class to another. This suggests that the drop out rate increases as the students move up the academic ladder. The dropout rate appears to be higher for the males than for the females. In 1999, there were 180 males and 50 females in JSS 1. In 2000, there were 150 males and 47 females in JSS 2, a reduction of 30 males and 3 females respectively. The figure for males in year 2000 is against the fact that 13 schools provided data for year 2000 whereas only 12 schools provided data for 1999.

8. Enrolment figures are generally low for all categories of disability at both the primary and secondary school levels. Wheelchair and behaviour disordered children are fairest.

9. This current survey suggest that there may be shortages of educational facilities for children with behaviour disorders throughout the country. There are just about 3 schools in the Federation where behaviour disorders are managed. That perhaps accounted for the extremely low enrolment figures.

TABLE 10.1
ENROLMENT AT THE PRIMARY SCHOOL LEVEL

Type of Disability	1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Visual Impairment	398	280	500	320	495	298	496	258	430	229
Hearing Impairment	1111	242	1073	276	1095	261	1057	253	1279	319
Mental Retardation	8	11	11	13	78	33	57	33	63	32
Multiple Handicap	5	4	4	3	32	12	34	23	24	23

Source: FME, ESA Sample Survey, 2003
Total number of institutions used: 117

TABLE 10.2
ENROLMENT AT THE SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL

Type of Disability	1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Wheelchair Bound	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	7	2
Visual Impairment	538	362	745	539	708	596	907	598	966	645
Multiple Handicap	7	7	8	8	11	9	16	11	18	12
Mental Retardation	108	71	110	80	121	81	128	81	137	79
Learning Disability	8	5	10	5	11	8	427	11	24	17
Health Impairment	10	5	11	6	12	7	21	7	13	11
Hearing Impairment	651	266	755	246	866	352	985	402	1108	500
Behaviour Disorder	1	0	2	0	3	0	221	3	3	0
Physically Handicapped	98	69	111	57	116	49	166	63	146	63

Source: FME, ESA Sample Survey, 2003
Total number of institutions used: 117

Tables 10.1 and 10.2 show the trend of enrolments at primary and secondary levels for children with disability. At the primary school level, gender disparities are easily noticeable. The males have generally higher enrolment figures than the female pupils with disability. Where the females achieve higher enrolment figures, such scores are usually marginally higher than the male scores.

Ownership of Special Schools

10. In terms of ownership, 117 special schools, homes, centres were surveyed out of about 302 special institutions identified in 32 states of the country. This represents 38.7% of the total figure. State Governments owned about 64.0% of the institutions while the Federal Government owned 10.3% of the institutions. The others are private and/or owned by NGO, etc

TABLE 10.3

OWNERSHIP OF SPECIAL SCHOOLS/CENTRES n=117

	Frequency	Per Cent
Federal Government	12	10.3
State Government	76	65.0
Local Government	4	3.4
Community	1	0.9
Non-Governmental Organisation	10	8.5
Private Proprietor	6	5.1
Missionary	3	2.6
Others	5	4.3

11. Most of the special schools/centres are located in urban areas. 84 or 71.8% of the 117 special schools in the survey are in urban centres while 33 or 28.2% are located in rural settings.

QUALITY AND EFFICIENCY ISSUES

Quality Assurance

12. Quality education cannot be guaranteed in a situation where learning materials are grossly inadequate for the gifted children. The respondents rated the teaching/learning materials to be inadequate by very wide margins Given the unavailability and inadequacy of essential learning materials in such core science areas as Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology and integrated science, it means that the chances of the students mastering in time the essential skills that would enable them go into areas such as medicine, pharmacy, Engineering, Veterinary Medicine etc are diminished.

Physical Infrastructure for Special Needs Education

13. The peculiar nature of certain disabling conditions requires that custom-built architectural designs be utilized in public buildings and other facilities. Data generated from this study have shown that policy guidelines in respect of special education (including education of the gifted) have not been fully adhered to especially in the area of physical infrastructure, instructional procedures, personnel preparation and emoluments.

14. Ramps and motorized wheelchairs meant to facilitate the movement of wheel-chair bound special needs children were found to be lacking in the institutions or homes where they are needed. Such environments are not user friendly. About 42% of the institutions were found to be unsuitable for special needs education going by modern standards. Some of the buildings are bereft of modern creative touches. One of the few exceptions observed in this study was the hostel of special needs children in Abeokuta that met modern standards.

Instructional Procedures

15. On instructional procedures, data from this survey showed that some of specialized services, which distinguish Special Education from regular education, are hardly used. Some of the respondents in this survey were not aware of the operations of IEP (Individualized Education Plan), ability grouping, mentorship etc. The commonest form of instructional procedure noticeable there was direct teaching or lecture method.

Teacher Qualification/Skills

16. The reason for this state of affairs may be attributable to the amount of vocational skills available to the teachers. In a sample of 117 teachers, only 2 or 1.7% have a PhD; 6 or 5.10% have obtained M.Ed. degree in Special Education; 51 or 43.6% have a B.Ed. while 22 or 18.8% have NCE. On the average, staff in Special Schools has met the minimum qualification for handling Special needs Children. However, such skills need to be updated on regular basis through seminars, workshops, in-service programmes etc in the light of modern changes in the theory and practice of teaching special needs children. The need for producing both teaching ad supportive staff is urgent because no school system can rise above its teachers.

17. In Nigeria, formal nurturance of gifted and talented children has so far existed only at the secondary school level. There are two secondary schools where gifted and talented children are at present nurtured. These are the Federal Government Academy, Suleja owned by the Federal Government and the School for the gifted at Gwagwalada owned by the Federal Capital Development Authority (FCDA) . Both schools, urban-based, were used for this study.

AVAILABILITY OF TEACHING LEARNING MATERIALS

Instructional Materials

18. On the issue of instructional materials, 35% of the respondents indicated that teaching-learning materials available to them are inadequate while another 28.2% (n=117) observed that the teaching materials needed for specialized services delivery are not available. Only 21.4% certified that the teaching materials are adequate. The issue of equipping special schools adequately is critical because the learners (Special needs children) need to utilize to the maximum their residual abilities or potentials in order to optimise their capacity for learning.

19. Apart from English Language studies where respondents affirmed that teaching learning materials are marginally available and adequate (44%), in all the other school subjects, the gifted and talented children do not have adequate learning materials in the various subject areas.

20. In the Table 4 below, 92.9% of the teachers rated the teaching learning materials in Gifted Education as inadequate.

Table 10. 4

Adequacy/Inadequacy of Teaching Learning Materials n= 14

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent
Inadequate	13	92.9	92.9
Not Decided	1	7.1	100.0
Total	14	100.0	

CHAPTER ELEVEN
KEY CROSS CUTTING ISSUES

OVERVIEW

1 A number of issues are categorized as crosscutting in the sector analysis project owing to their occurrence at all sub-sectors. This implies that these issues impact on all sub-sectors and demand a thorough understanding for a proper focus on their effects on the system. These are poverty, gender issues, partnership and community participation, HIV/AIDS, etc. These selected issues will be treated in this section under the following headings:

- Poverty and Education
- Partnerships/Community Participation
- HIV/AIDS
- Gender Issues
- Societal Crises and Education (examination malpractices, cultism, welfare, guidance and counselling etc)
- Brain Drain
- Students Loan scheme
- Use of Nigerian Language/Language Policy

CROSS-CUTTING ISSUE I: POVERTY AND EDUCATION

2. The ESA studies show that both poverty affects education and education in turn also affects poverty but that education can serve as a tool for alleviating poverty. Indicators of poverty cut across a good number of the ESA studies. The primary education Head Teachers' (HT) questionnaire, Parents' questions (MLA) and Pupils' questionnaire (MLA) all provide these indicators. Reports on such non-school based studies as the Open Apprenticeship scheme, Enterprise Education, Extension Services and Early Childhood Care and Development also provide information on the interplay of education and poverty.

Highlights of the interaction between education and poverty

3. *School attendance* – 11.12 % of all the pupils sampled did not attend pre-primary schools because their parents could not afford to send them. In the same vein, the major reason advanced by parents for withdrawing their children from school is financial (13.4%) while poverty related reasons constitute the bulk of why children go into the farm or trade.

4. *Drop out* - among such responses to why they left school as parents' and guardians' decision, desire to work and earn a living, poverty was the greatest reason given by a good number of the respondents. Indeed the home background of the apprentices sampled show that they come from the lower income group (constituting the children of lower cadre workers in the civil service, farmers etc) thus suggesting the gradual emergence of a vicious cycle. For instance, more than 70% of the fathers were either farmers (49.9%), or lower cadre civil servants (24.2%) and about 10.2% were teachers. Incidentally these are generally the calibre of persons who possess low education excluding the teachers.

5. The study on Open Apprenticeship reveal that a good number of out-of-school children who became apprentices found themselves in that situation because their parents could no longer afford to keep them in school.

6. Learning achievement/Quality assurance - Poverty restricts children's access to learning materials in the home. Only 2% of the parents sampled had toys for their children to play with at home. The lack of basic facilities like toys, newspapers, magazines etc in almost 50% of the homes indicate pervasive lack of varied stimulation for most pupils in their homes.

7. *Supervision* - The school-based studies also reveal that a significant proportion of pupils (20.1%), confirmed by 13.7% of parents do not receive any assistance in doing their homework. The pupils themselves do not do their homework sometimes because they are helping either parent in his or her business (53.3%), doing housework (21.7%) or hawking after school (1.4% confirmed by 7.5% of the parents. It is clear that children who do not attend school regularly, are hardly supervised and do not receive proper guidance and support to continue in school are more likely to drop out of school at the earliest available opportunity.

8. *Progression to secondary school*- Many of the children interviewed are not likely to progress to secondary school owing to the cost of sending a child to school. An overwhelming number of parents (50.3) give financial reasons as the major factor that would prevent the majority of pupils from going to secondary school. For pupils themselves, financial reasons top the list on why they are not likely to go on to secondary school, affecting more boys (52.85%) than girls (48.14%). Indeed, although a large percentage (83.3) of the apprentices interviewed would like to go back to school, yet they acknowledge that this would remain a dream as the financial situation in the family would not allow them that luxury.

9. *Cost and financing of education* - The hidden costs of sending a child to school (such as school uniforms, levies, school meals, transportation and to a large extent books) remain a daunting factor for parents and guardians who easily make the decision to withdraw the children where they find it difficult to cope. A high proportion of the sampled pupils (56.3%) pay levies despite the free education policy. Some 26.1% of pupils claim to have been sent away from

school for non-payment of levies and about 4.0 % of pupils claim to have visited guidance counselors for financial reasons. Keeping pupils away from class reduces contact time and in turn impacts negatively on learning achievement.

10. *Health and nutrition* - A total of 22.1% of the children indicated ill health as the most prevalent constraint on attendance. Further analysis shows that 6.0% of the pupils eat one meal a day while 23.0% eat two meals a day. Although breakfast is provided in 80% of the homes and dinner in 76%, only 68.6% of the homes provided lunch for their children. A well-fed child would certainly learn better in school. Teachers' responses on their perception of factors contributory to under performance by pupils suggested that socio-economic factors (26%) constitute the most significant factor.

Possible Policy Interventions

11. *Functional and Enterprise Education* – The recent emphasis on technical and vocational education as a major policy focus if well managed will ensure that graduates from various levels in the school system would be adequately equipped to earn a living. At the tertiary level, enterprise education is being pushed as a way of encouraging self-reliance. These studies reveal that a good number of university graduates would like to establish businesses of their own if they are assisted and above all empowered with requisite skills to do so.

12. *Integration* – findings of the studies show that a lot more integration of effort is required between adult education programmes and extension services. With appropriate enabling policy, adult and non-formal education programmes will become more viable and target poverty reduction better.

13. *Student Loan Scheme* – Policy must also target resuscitation of a viable student loan scheme as the studies also revealed that such support would enable many students complete their higher education.

14. A Sound financial base, will ensure that a reasonable number of students receive support each year. If for example, each beneficiary receives N10, 000 a year, and 500 students receive loans; the annual loan support is N5m. If we assume that each of the students is registered on a four-year programme of study, the total financial commitment is N20m. In eight years time, we have to budget for the sum of N40m. Yet 500 student beneficiaries a year is only about .2% of the total student population in public tertiary institutions.

15. A sound legal framework is needed to operate a student's loan scheme. Such a framework will enable the enforcement of the terms of loan disbursement and recovery. It will also legally establish the administrative machinery for operating the loan scheme.

16. Government backing is necessary for enforcement both at the Ministerial and Presidential levels.

17. Effective publicity is a sine qua non both for disbursement and recovery of loans made out to students.

CROSS-CUTTING ISSUE 2: COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

18. Greater collaboration and partnerships are increasingly regarded as more effective ways of providing basic education as the reality that government cannot do it all is gradually sinking in. Community involvement and partnership among stakeholders are becoming accepted practices in many communities in Nigeria. Outputs from the ESA studies yielded emerging patterns of community involvement and partnerships in education. The school-based questionnaire (responses from HTs and Principals), community-based questionnaires and those of employers of labour and education funding agencies provide the trends emerging in this area

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Highlights of Findings

19. *Support to schools* - Parents and school communities provide 36.82% of the support that the schools received followed by the United Nations Agencies (16.60%).

20. *Type of support* – Provision and repairs constituted the major type of support provided to schools (28.52%). This was followed by scholarship (19.50%) and provision of teaching/learning materials (18.23%).

21. *Donor participation* - In Nigeria as in other developing countries, the donor community and development partners have become increasingly recognized as critical stakeholders in education. Factors that constrain their responding freely to the demands made on them by communities and other target groups to support education delivery include lack of cooperation from community members (32.50%) followed by lack of transparency in handling funds (21.85%).

22. *Willingness to participate* - Parents are willing to participate in school activities if they are mobilized to do so as trends in the data show that 40.67% of them attend PTA meetings while 35.60 attend open days.

23. *Community participation* - Several communities have groups and organizations that may not have participated very actively in the management of schools. Ignorance on the need to participate topped the list of reasons for non-participation (32.0%) followed by poverty (21.50%). Belief that Government alone should fund education constituted 13.50% of the responses.

Follow-up In-country Study visits

24. On a follow-up in-country study visit, to some identified states, on best practices in school level managements in primary schools in Nigeria, it was observed that some state governments are reverting to encouraging increasing community and other stakeholder participation in education delivery. For example, of all the five States visited Benue State, did not undertake a complete takeover of schools in the days when that policy was in vogue. Thus, the old

Mission and Community Schools still retained their traditional management and administrative culture. A school administration model which was essentially decentralized with a high level of parents/community involvement was the most likely factor contributory to the outstanding level of learning achievement of primary school pupils in Benue State during the 2003 MLA study. Despite visible commitment, to providing facilities, high level of motivation, teacher attendance and pupils involvement and positive disposition to school etc, the involvement of Community members in regular monitoring and supervision of schools was perceived as the single largest contributory factor to sustaining high level tone in schools The need to promote participation and streamlining the nature of their involvement particularly in States where PTAs/Community were virtually excluded from school management was subsequently advocated. Table 8.1 shows the contribution of PTAs to 647 (73.8 percent) of the sampled schools where PTAs were functional. Table 11.1 also shows contribution made by Communities as distinct from PTAs.

Table 11.1 Proportion of Schools indicating variety of contributions made by PTAs/Communities

Type of Contribution	PTA (n=647)		Community (n=877)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Funding Raising	477	73.72	287	32.7
Provision and Maintenances of Infrastructure and Furniture	289	44.36	159	18.2
Student Discipline	258	39.88	249	26.68
Recruitment and Payment of (PTA) teachers	233	34.47	NA	NA
School based management	161	24.88	1.2	12.7
Teacher/Student Care	145	22.4	87	9.9
Provision of Equipment/Materials	103	15.92	72	8.2
Production of teaching/Learning/Play materials	83	12.82	49	5.6
Accompany Students and teachers on Excursions and Outing	38	5.87	40	3.6
Keeping surrounding Clean/Environmental Sanitation	NA	NA	63	6.11
Organizing open day activities management	42	6.49	46	3.24
None	17	2.63	135	15.4

Table 11.1 indicates that the incidence of community involvement in various school activities was less prevalent than PTA who are obviously more active. The number of benefiting schools with the exception of fund raising by PTAs, was much fewer than those that had not benefited in any way calling for the need for more effective mobilization of PTAs/Communities in the management of secondary schools. Only 11.49 percent considered communities to be indifferent while a relatively few Principals actually considered communities to be hostile. Deliberate efforts should be made by all cadre of personnel involved in school management to maintain positive relations with communities in which schools are

based. Indeed principals should purposefully work towards ensuring cordiality with key community members.

Apart, from communities as an entity, other organizations/agencies as indicated on Table 11.2 provide some form of support to secondary schools.

Table 11.2 Proportion of Schools that have received support from different partners.

Agency/Organization	Frequency	Percentage
Philanthropists	202	23.0
Community Development Association	198	22.5
Religious Organizations	131	14.9
Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO)	111	12.7
Bilateral/Multilateral Agencies/Development Partners	84	9.6
Private Sector	45	5

Table 11.2 shows a variety of potential sources of support that could be harnessed by principals to forge partnerships in the delivery of secondary education. Indeed, schools (25.6 percent) which are not benefiting from any form of partnership support should be sensitized to the existence of this potential and assisted to explore various accessible viable sources. It is imperative to recognize however, that the private sector makes a mandatory contribution of 2 percent of profit after tax by way of Education Tax to the funding of education in Nigeria. The office of the Education Tax Fund disburses the contributions to all subsectors of education primarily towards facilities provision.

There is however no indication as to the number of sampled schools that have benefited from ETF.. Table 11.3 indicates the type of support received from agencies/organizations.

Table 11.3 ETF Yearly Allocations to Various Levels of Education in Nigeria, 1999 – 2004

	INSTITUTIONS	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
1	UNIVERSITIES	2,124,999,960.00	1,050,000,000.00	1,794,128,000.00	3,243,500,000.00	1,474,000,000.00	1,440,500,000.00
2	POLYTECHNICS	1,087,209,288.00	450,000,000.00	967,500,000.00	1,642,500,000.00	668,500,000.00	661,500,000.00
3	COLLEGES OF EDUCATION	1,099,137,930.00	520,000,000.00	1,116,069,500.00	1,742,625,000.00	678,625,000.00	678,625,000.00
4	MONOTECHNICS	0.00	230,000,000.00	345,000,000.00	448,000,000.00	300,000,000.00	290,000,000.00
5	SSEs	675,000,000.00	781,800.001.75	1,589,500,000.00	2,794,500,000.00	1,005,500,000.00	803,000,000.00
6	SPEBs	3,132,000,000.00	1,117,199,997.90	2,167,200,000.00	2,709,000,000.00	1,548,000,000.00	1,855,260,000.00
7	SPECIAL PROJECTS	0.00	248,035,944.18	0.00	0.00	520,000,000.00	65,000,000.00
8	OTHER INSTITUTIONS	872,777,700.34	404,704,000.00	357,098,512.00	4,731,214,645.12	3,845,402,946.15	4,559,483,952.77
		8,991,124,878.46	**4,801,739,943.83**	**8,336,496,012.00**	**17,311,339,645.12**	**10,040,027,946.15**	**10,353,368,952.77**

Source: ETF Reports April, 2005 as cited in ESA Education Sector Analysis Report , 2005

However, the aggregate funds allocation to various levels of education is hown in Table 11.3

Table 11.4 Frequency of Schools indicating variety of support received from agencies/organizations

Type of Support	Frequency	Percent
Financial	258	29.3
Books	209	23.9
Equipment	192	21.8
Infrastructure	140	15.9
Personnel	81	9.2
Training	54	6.3

Schools receiving various forms of support from sources than government are bound to have an edge over those not so advantaged in terms of funds/facilities availability. This possibility underscores the need for sensitization of non-benefiting schools on the potentials of various sources. State governments also owe it an obligation to mobilize active partners to support secondary education.

MAJOR ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

24. Community participation and partnership in educational development is generally growing but the bulk of the partnership appears largely limited to efforts of Parents-Teachers Associations. Other groups and organizations in the communities are yet to identify fully with the schools programmes. How to get these other groups to be actively involved is a major challenge.

25. The types of support that groups in the communities provide are largely in the area of provision/repair of physical facilities. Other areas of need exist. It is important to ensure that these other areas of need are accommodated.

26. Donors and other stakeholders who support education are discouraged from actively supporting the schools as a result of lack of cooperation from some communities and lack of transparency or accountability by those who manage the funds. How to ensure transparency and accountability is a challenge.

27. Most community members interact with the schools largely during PTA meetings and sports days. Little attention is paid to such programmes as school development planning and village education committee meetings. It is important to evolve ways of getting parents to show interest in other aspects of school life.

28. Many groups and organizations fail to participate in school management as a result of ignorance, poverty and belief that it is the sole responsibility of government to manage education. These factors need to be reversed. How to do it effectively is a major challenge.

CHAPTER TWELVE

CRITICAL ISSUE 3: HIV and AIDS

Level of HIV/AIDS Awareness.

HIV/AIDS Education in Secondary Schools

Education has been identified as a powerful instrument in the global campaign for awareness creation and mobilization against the HIV/AIDS pandemic. To this end, government and other partners have made considerable investment towards using schools to reach adolescent and young adult who have been identified as potentially risk groups. A related study on the ESA project sought to investigate the extent of HIV./AD awareness amongst students and how far schools are responding to and implementing various programmes/policies to be disseminated through learning institutions. On HIV/AIDS awareness, more than 90 percent of sampled principals and Head teachers (95.0 percent) reported awareness on existence of HIV/AIDs. However, only 79.70 percent of primary and secondary schools disseminated information on HIV/AIDS pandemic.

On HIV awareness amongst secondary school students, of the 4,336 JSS and SS students randomly selected from the sampled schools for the study addressing this theme, most (84.3 percent) were aware of the existence of the HIV/AIDs pandemic. A relative few (385 or 8.9 percent) had however not heard of HIV/AIDS.

29. In combination with pupils of primary schools, over 70% of pupils in Primary, and students of Secondary and Tertiary institutions are aware of the existence of HIV and AIDS.

Incidence/Frequency of HIV/AIDS among teachers and students.

30. Only 13% of Secondary students and 26% of students of Tertiary institution are aware of cases of HIV and AIDS in the schools.

31. 56.2% of Principals/Head teachers had no record of staff death. Of the 43.8% that recorded staff death, 1.9% of the dead (Males) and 3.1% (Females) was attributed to AIDS.

32. Records from Ministries of Health and Hospitals showed that 14 teachers died from AIDS; 9 males, 5 females.

33. 87.5% of Secondary school and 86.7% of Tertiary institution students said they have not lost any one due to AIDS.

34. 93.2% of the sampled schools had no records of orphans. Of the schools that had records:

- 60.7% of the AIDS orphans are females, while males were 39.3%.
- Most schools that had AIDS orphans had no special provisions them (84.2%).

Table 12.1 indicates the various sources of acquisition of awareness and other information on HIV/AIDS.

Table 12.1 Sources of Students Information on HIV/AIDS

Source of Information	Frequency	Percent
Books, magazines/newspaper	1365	31.4
Television	1337	30.7
Teachers	1224	28.2
Radio	1197	27.2
Parents	1050	24.2
Peer Group	708	16.3
Relatives	454	10.5
Religious Organizations	311	7.2
Siblings	246	5.6
NGOs	99	2.3

Table 12.1 shows that the mass media, print, television and radio collectively are means of reaching the a preponderance of adolescents/secondary school children on HIV/AIDS related information. Efforts however need to be intensified towards reaching students who are yet to be reached by identifying their location. Not only were the students aware of HIV/AIDS and its attendant implication, some 530 (12.2 percent) have suffered bereavement from the scourge. Table 12.2 indicates various family members or parents lost by proportions of students to the HIV/AID pandemic.

Table12.2: Proportion of Secondary Schools Students who have lost various family members to HIV/AIDS Pandemic

Family Members /Friends	Frequency	Percent
Friends	187	4.3
Sister	91	2.1
Father	89	2.0
Mother	84	1.9
Brother	60	1.3
Nobody	3598	82.9

Although some of the students might not have been forthcoming in giving information on death from HIV/AIDs, the proportion of students who readily responded to this item as it had affected them, is worthy of attention as the death of a family member particularly father or mother could have both financial and psychological implication for children including adolescents at this level. Indeed

36% or (3.7 percent) of sampled principals and Headteachers reported that they had HIV/AIDs orphans in their schools. Between these Headteachers/principals, the numbers of pupils orphaned by HIV/AIDS were 22 boys and 34 girls. While 34 (3.5 percent) out of 36 primary and secondary schools where HIV/AIDS orphans were enrolled provided special support for such orphans, 2 of the schools did not. The types of support provided range from exemption from school

imposed levies (1.5 percent), to counselling (2.7 percent) and solicit PTA support for HIV/AIDs orphans (12.9 percent).

Apart from internal support for HIV/AIDS orphans some of the schools had instituted various programmes directed at promoting awareness on HIV/AIDS. Table 12.3 indicates the various measures and activities used by schools to promote awareness on HIV/AIDS towards prevention and eradication, while table 12.4 indicates the proportion of secondary school students who confirmed the existence of the various measures and activities.

Table 12.3 Frequency Utilization of Various Anti-HIV/AIDS Activities/Measures in Sampled Primary and Secondary Schools.

Measures/Activities used by Schools	Highly Used/Used		Seldom Used		Not Used	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Integrated in the school curriculum and taught through some subjects	267	27.2	96	9.8	237	24.1
Organise Talks/Seminars on HIV/AIDs	358	36.4	141	14.4	153	15.6
Anti-HIV/AIDS Clubs	185	18.8	74	7.5	332	33.8
Training of Peer Education	205	20.8	109	11.1	275	28.0
Sexuality Education	290	29.6	136	13.8	192	19.6
Organise Anti-HIV/AIDS Drama	187	11.1	127	12.9	228	23.2
Organise Anti-HIV/AIDS Essay Competition	160	16.36	125	12.7	280	28.5
Hold Anti-HIV/AIDS Debate	212	21.6	116	11.8	255	26.0
Placement of Posters etc in key locations	390	39.7	90	9.2	130	13.2
Distribution of T-Shirts, Handbills, Pamphlets	219	22.3	86	8.8	271	27.6

The most popular methods of reaching-out to primary and secondary school students were the use of posters and organised talks/seminars on HIV/AIDS**,**

Table 12.4 Proportions of Secondary School Students indicating the Frequency of availability of various Anti-HIV/AIDS Activities/Measures in their Schools.

Measures/Activities used by Schools	Highly Used/Used		Seldom Used		Not Used	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Anti-HIV/AIDS Clubs	614	14.2	199	4.6	755	17.4

Training through Peer education	771	17.8	282	6.5	756	17.4
Sexuality Education	784	18.0	301	6.9	756	17.4
Organise Anti-HIV/AIDS Drama	568	15.6	324	7.5	800	18.5
Organise Anti-HIV/AIDS Essay Competition	454	10.5	319	7.4	960	22.1
Hold Anti-HIV/AIDs Debate	489	11.2	287	6.6	941	21.7
Integrated in the school curriculum	567	13.1	216	5.0	886	20.4

The frequency of HIV/AID activities generally low. Below 20% of respondents indicated the use of any anti-HIVAIDS activities in their schools.

Intervention measures directed at reducing/eliminating HIV pandemic in schools/institutions and their effectiveness.

37. Some 51.3% of secondary and 56.3% of tertiary institution students indicated that they haved no HIV/AIDS Prevention Education program in their schools. In schools where such programs exist, Sexuality Education (43.1%) and training of Peer Educators are more commonly used.

38. The mass media is the greatest source of HIV/AIDS information, followed by teachers (30.3%).

39. Over 50% of primary pupils, 82% of secondary and 93% tertiary institution students are aware that HIV is transmitted by unprotected sex. A most respondents were aware of the various preventive methods and risk reduction behaviours, although they did not seem to see the connection between the use of drugs and alcohol and HIV transmission.

40. Although a high proportion of respondents were willing to interact with people infested with HIV/AIDS many still have reservations.

41. It was not possible to attribute respondents' knowledge of HIV/AIDS to the effectiveness of the intervention measures in schools. This was because most of these measures are lacking in schools.

Frequency/Incidence of HIV/AIDS on the Workforce

42. Of a total of 28,928 cases diagnosed with HIV and AIDS, 7,230 were treated and 1005 died of those treated, 81.8% were males while 18.2% were females; 61.2% of those that died of AIDS were females as compared to 38.8% males. Gender is apparently a factor in accessing treatment for HIV/AIDS infection in the workforce.

43. The result showed a high prevalence among Civil Servants (56.4%). The Civil Service is the greatest employer of labour and is made up of people of various professions. The Medical profession alone had 18.9% of infection followed by the Teaching profession (14.9%).

Frequency/Incidence of other killer diseases.

44. The study shows that malaria is the foremost killer disease (60.9%). This is followed by HIV/AIDS (17.2), typhoid (9.1%) and tuberculosis (4.9%).

45. Road accidents are a major cause of deaths among workers. 65.2% and 66.3% of death of teachers and students were attributed to accidents.

KEY ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

46. The policy implications of the effects of HIV/AIDS and these killer diseases include the fact that the Education Sector should move very fast to ensure that its schools' intervention programs are being implemented, and that teachers and counselors are trained to provide effective HIV/AIDS prevention services. Intervention measures must be deliberately targeted at schools in order to effect changes in behaviour from that early stage.

47. Teachers must be empowered to address the HIV/AIDS issues and other killer diseases that they are confronted with in the classroom. In the same vein, teachers must be trained in the use of the curriculum developed on Family Life Education that will equip them with the knowledge and skills required for the task ahead.

CROSS-CUTTING ISSUE 4: SOCIETAL CRISES AND EDUCATION

48. Regarded by Nwana (1998) as "Aberrations in the Nigerian Education System",: examination malpractices, clandestine societies (alias cultism), drug abuse, mass failure in public examinations, student indiscipline and vandalism, violent trade unionism among staff, misapplied quota system in student admission, non-professional practices among teachers and disenchantment with education among young people are still and topical serious issues that have taken a stronghold in the Nigeiran education system.. Examination malpractices and cultism are singled out in this section as more critical in their impact.

Examination Malpractices

49. *Examination malpractices have become pervasive in the Nigerian school system*

The table below shows that the phenomenon of examination malpractices in the Nigerian school system begins as early as in the primary schools with behaviours

that are not proper during examinations.

Table 12. 5: Primary 4 pupils' response to what happens when they are writing examinations in class.

Table 12.5: Observable Behaviours during examinations in primary schools

Observable Behaviours	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Pupils who are not clever spy clever ones	6869	43.58
Clever pupils let weak pupils copy from them	2863	18.16
Some pupils copy answers from books	2737	17.36
Some pupils get up from their seats to copy others' work	1092	6.73
The teacher sometimes help some pupils	438	2.78
None of the above	1764	11.19

These observable classroom practices are often regarded as normal examination occurrences. Only 11% of respondents reported that behavgiours do not manifest in the examination rooms in primary schools.The perception is worrisome.

50. At the secondary school level factors adduced by teachers as causes of examination malpractices are stated in table 12.6.

Table 12.6: Teachers' Opinions on Factor Responsible for Examination Malpractices.

Ways of Preventing Examination Malpractices	**Responses**	**%**
Inadequate preparation of students	879	52.17
Emphasis on qualification	357	21.19
Students are not ready to learn	672	39.88
Parents want their children to pass at all cost	397	23.56
Supervisors and custodians of examination papers are corrupt	303	17.98
Reflection of the wider society	122	7 . 2 4

51. *Major Culprits* – According to responses received from students, teachers and parents, the major culprits are students (59.7%), invigilators (53.6%), teachers (33.9%), parents (29.0%) schools (25.2%) examination bodies (24.3)

and law enforcement agents (15.4%). This shows that nearly every stakeholder is involved in this practice of actively aiding and abating examination malpractice.

52. Parents – Parents spend a lot of money on examination papers and upgrading scores because they want their wards to pass at all cost. This issue is in turn influenced by the perceived emphasis on certificates as a good measure of learning achievement. The table below shows the various practices that are used to perpetuate examination malpractices by parents.

Table 12.7: *Parents' Roles in Examination Malpractices.*

Parents' Activities that contribute to Examination Malpractices	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Register pupils in special centres	1365	38.8
Purchasing examination marks	491	13.9
Bribing the supervisor / examination official	694	19.7
Having someone to do the examination for the candidate	534	15.2
None of the above	384	10.9
Others	52	1.5

Below is stated parents' opinion on what causes examination malpractices.

Table 12.8: *Parents' Opinions on the Factors Encouraging Examination Malpractices*

Causes of Examination Malpractices	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Examination questions are not related to the syllabus	1375	41.8
Insufficient time	928	28.2
Objective questions	507	15.4
Easy questions	481	14.6

CULTISM AMONG STUDENTS

56. The emergence of secret cults from the youthful exuberance of some radical students in the early 60s has assumed a more threatening dimension in recent times. Cult members constitute themselves into parallel authorities in the school and derive satisfaction from challenging constituted authorities. They kill,

maim and generally terrorize their fellow students and lecturers alike. Often saturated with hard drugs, they mutilate and generally constitute security hazards in higher institutions. Cultism, like examination malpractices has become a big issue in the education system.

57. Cultism is a system of beliefs and practices which are shrouded in secrecy. The belief may revolve around a person or an idea, and the practices may involve rituals, chants, worships, violence and all sorts of heinous crimes. Cult members were often sworn to an oath of secrecy or bound in blood covenants. Cultism is growing in variety as well as in the number of its members. It is no longer restricted to tertiary institutions, where it is believe it took its roots. It is to be found at the secondary education level. Audu (2003:9) reported as many as 85 different cult groups spread across Nigeria educational institutions.

58. Although some earlier members claimed that the original objective was to fight vice such as colonialism, convention, tribalism and elitism, this noble objective was soon abandoned in favour of criminal protection for members, violence, instilling dreadful fears in campus communities and beyond. In spite of its proscription (in 1997) from the educational institutions, the menace of cultism has not abated.

59. The ESA study on cultism which was a national survey sought to identify the forms and variety of cultism in the Nigeria school system, identify the push factors and viable solution options that can inform policy towards its control. The foci were secondary and tertiary institutions. Sampled by stratification. Students, teachers and school managers were administered with appropriate questionnaires.

60. The findings included that

(a) For the majority; it has almost become a taboo to mention cult and cultism. Many deny knowing anything about cultism but 44% of students, 59% of lecturers and 50% of principal officers in sampled tertiary institutions confirmed that they were aware of the existence of cults and cultism in the Nigeria school system;

(b) As many as 85 different cult groups exist especially in tertiary institutions across the country;

(c) Most respondents (6%) denied its existence in their own institutions;

(d) The most active cults with largest followerships were Black Beret, Black axe, Pirate, Eye Confraternity and Pink Lady, in this order of prominence;

(e) Where they exist, they tend to do so side by side in same institution;

(f) The most common push factors identified across board by all respondents were protection and security of members, educational “excellence” through threat, power and popularity, affluence through illegal means (e.g. robbery), peer influence; etc.

(g) The most serious and adverse effects envisaged by students of tertiary institutions were interruption of academic calendar, social and economic disorder, breakdown of law and order and insecurity of lives and properties.

Challenge:

61. Managers and students have recommended the arrest, prosecution and subsequent expulsion of cult members and provision of adequate security on the campuses. Who should "bell the cat" in view of the secrecy that surrounds cultism and the numerous schools and campuses that are to be addressed?

GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

Guidance and Counselling Services

53. Guidance on future career choice and appropriate psychological support for adolescents as they strive to resolve and adjust to moral and socio-psychological conflicts which they are not entirely shielded from and are therefore bound to encounter occasionally are essential service obligations for secondary schools. In spite of the potential of adolescent problems only slightly more than 60 percent of sampled Principals in a related nationwide study on HIV/AIDs precisely reported that their school had guidance counsellors while 39.63 percent of schools had none. Further analysis on guidance and counselling services provided by schools, were obtained through a questionnaire administered on 9,750 students (52.3 percent males and 40.9 percent females), randomly selected from JSS1 - SS3 classes in the sampled schools. On access to guidance and Counselling services, 70.3 percent of the students indicated that guidance and counsellng services were provided in their schools while 22.2 percent had no such advantage. Only slightly more than 50 percent of the school guidance counsellors were alleged to be engaged on a full-time guidance counselling services. In reality counsellors in some schools are also saddled with teaching subjects such as social studies or English language, where there is a shortfall in teachers for these subjects. On referral by authority to the school guidance counsellors 37.7 percent of the students reported being referred by their principals or teachers. The proportion of students indicating availability of a variety of counselilng services in heir schools as indicated by a proportion of students are shown on Table 12.7.

Table12.7: Proportion of Students indicating availability of variety of Guidance and Counselling Services in Sampled Schools.

Counselling Services	Frequency	Percentage
Behaviour Counselling	3585	36.9

Information	2146	21.9
Career Orientation	1724	17.5
Appraisal testing	1145	11.7
Follow-up Counselling	970	9.9
Research and Evaluation	641	6.6
Referral	387	3.2

54. Table 12.7 indicates that behaviour counselling which were the most widely available counsellilng services was operational to less than 50 percent of the students while only 21.9 percent and 17.5 percent of the students had access to career information and career orientation respectively. In view of the importance of career guidance, and the potential of psychosocial and adjustment problems faced by adolescents including the girl-child who sometimes also have to contend with the problem of sexual abuse or pregnancy, he provision of at least one guidance counsellor in each secondary school should be made mandatory for all category of schools. Indeed over 60 percent of students opined that guidance-counselling helped students to a great extent in solving problems, 28.47 percent thought it helped to some extent, while less than 10 percent (precisely 9.45 percent) perceived guidance and counselling as being of little help.

55. Apart from services provided directly by trained counsellors, schools also organize programmes to further assist students in making career choices. Table 112.8 indicate the proportion of students who reported that such services were available in their schools.

Table 12.8: Proportion of Students indicating availability of various programmes in their schools.

Programme	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Career Information	3212	32.8
Career Talk	3047	31.2
Orientation	1898	19.5
Excursion	1435	14.8

Issues on Discipline

56. Apart from dealing with career and students personal problems principals also have to content with various problems arising from indiscipline amongst students. Knowledge of issues related to indiscipline amongst students could usefully inform measures to arrest such behaviour. Indiscipline amongst students ranked second to under-funding amongst the factors considered by principals (32.2 percent) as constraints on the administration of schools. To deal with disciplinary problems almost all the sampled schools (97.1 percent) had established a disciplinary committee. Indiscipline in schools is sometimes so disturbing that schools have to take recourse to suspending or expelling students because of enormity of offences. Table 12.9 indicates the number of students suspended or expelled between the years 2000 – 2002. The problem of

indiscipline amongst students needs to be seriously addressed as it constitutes wastage.

Table 12.9: Number of students by Gender suspended or expelled from sampled Secondary schools (2000 – 2002)

Gender	2000		2001		2002	
	Suspend	Expelled	Suspend	Expelled	Suspend	Expelled
Male	1,346	246	1,332	180	1,656	323
Female	584	88	683	99	1,033	116
Total	1,930	334	2,015	279	2,689	439

A total of 470 schools responded from all 36 States and the FCT.

57. The consequences of suspension and expulsion are more ramifying than immediately obvious. while suspension as a punitive measure reduces attendance and consequently contact time, expulsion (especially in cases where expelled students are not readmitted into other schools) is tantamount to drop-out. Both expulsion and suspension amount to wastage to the system. Worse still is that some instances where expelled students do not receive adequate guidance, they degenerate into social miscreants referred in local parlance as area boys or 'ogbologbo' a situation which needs to be seriously addressed.

CHAPTER THIRTEEN
QUR'ANIC AND ISLAMIYYAH EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

1. Qur'anic education is an integral part of Islam. Wherever there are Muslims, schools are found for the teaching of Qur'an and Islamic Education. In Nigeria, the history of Qur'anic school/ Islamic Education is dated back to 11th Century when Sayfawa court of the Kanem Empire was converted to Islam. By early 16th Century, Qur'anic / Islamic Education has taken a new dimension with the establishment of centres of learning in Borno, Zaria, Sokoto, Kano and Katsina. The teachers were mostly Arabs scholars and traders, while the syllabus was mainly reading, writing and memorisation of the Qur'an and reading of certain selected venerated texts in Arabic language and literature, logic and Islamic jurispudence.

2. But it was in the 19th century that Qur'anic / Islamic education began to enjoy a wider popularity especially in the Northern region. The products of the system were appointed by colonial administrators as Alkali (Judge) and were also assigned administrative functions. In the South –West, the situation was different. Administration was moulded on western lines and legal system was operated by judges and magistrates rather than Alkalis. So Qur'anic/Islamic Education was not given any recognition until 1896. In June 1896, as a result of demand by Muslims for formalisation of Qur'anic / Islamic Education in schools, the first Government Muslim school was operated in Lagos. A Muslim, Idris Animashaun consented to be a headmaster for one trial year without pay. Similar schools were operated in Epe and Badagry. The Schools were later phased out in 1925 when government hands off funding of schools.

3. However, the traditional Qur'anic schools flourished especially in the North, Middle Belt and South West. It is found in virtually every neighbourhood where there is a Muslim community. These schools are seen as community schools The system is flexible; it allows enrollment at any point.

THE QUR'ANIC SCHOOL

4. The traditional Qu'ranic school was designed to maintain and propagate Islam. In this sense, Islamic education has a lot in common with other religious schools, such as the Monastic Christian schools.

I. An emphasis on verbatim oral mastery of a body of written teachings and rituals;

II. A system of self-paced learning with no fixed grades or ages for completion, and often, after the elementary level, individualized instruction in a master apprentice relationship; and

III. The learning of literacy skills to supplement oral mastery, and to lead to the acquisition of new knowledge.

5. The word Qur'an means "recitation" and this was, and still is, the main goal of Qur'anic education. In order to recite properly, with the appropriate rhythm and intonation, the children are taught to memorize as much of the Qur'an as possible. Memorisation and mastery is a challenge of considerable magnitude and the average student must spend about six to eight years of full-time study to achieve the goal of proper measuration by recitation. Description of traditional Qur'anic schools vary remarkably little across historical time and across societies and regions.

6. The child is admitted to the Qur'anic school between the age of three and four. The school is opened every day of the week except for Thursday and Friday, and classes run from 7:30 am to 12:30pm. The younger students attend this session. Two hours later all the students come together for a mandatory session. A student may spend any where from seven to twenty years at a Qur'anic school, and usually a formal request from the parents is needed for the termination of studies.

7. A key item in the Qur'anic schools was the wooden slate on which the verses of the Qur'an were inscribed and then learned by hearth. This slate (alo or walaha) was said to prefigure the perfect heavenly masterpiece.
The schools sizes differ. A school could have very few students or as many as thousands. The proprietor, who in most instances is the teacher with a couple of assistants (mostly graduates of his school, or advanced, older students).

8. The proprietor is the sole controller and administrator of the school. A typical Qur'anic school is located in mosque which serves dual purposes of a place of worship and school. Some Qu'ranic schools are however found in other places e.g. special buildings for the purpose, the verandah or porch of the teacher's house, under trees, inside compounds etc.

9. During the second half of the 20th Century, there was a resurgence of interest in Islamic education among Muslims in Nigeria. This resulted in a remarkable growth of Qu'ranic / Islamic education in Nigeria. This process was all the more remarkable because it occurred during a period when public education system was receiving great attention from government.

10. After the introduction of UPE scheme in 1976 Qur'anic / Islamic schools increased rather than decrease, following the spread of public education in Muslim communities. This resulted in the upgrade of some traditional Qur'anic schools into Islamiyyah School.

11. Unlike the traditional Qur'anic schools, Islammiyyah schools offer such subjects as English, Maths, Social Studies etc, and the medium of instruction was largely in local language or Arabic with some English. The role of this type of education (Qur'anic / Islamiyyah education) has become more and more significant for the shaping of a national education system in Nigeria. An estimated, 30% of school-age chldren are in the Qur'anic/Islamiyyah schools. There is the need to provide empirical and reliable data on this sector of Nigeria

education system. It is in view of this that the Nigeria Education Sector Analysis (ESA) project conducted this survey.

12. The only reference to Qur'anic and Islamiyya education in the National Policy on Education (2004) is to be found in Section 4, Sub-section 19(J)[i], namely:

(i) With a view to correcting the imbalance between different parts of the country, with reference to the availability of educational facilities and the number of pupils receiving formal education and girls education:

(ii) State governments shall ensure the integration of formal basic education curriculum into Qur'anic and Islamiyya Schools.

(iii) Special efforts shall be made by all appropriate agencies to encourage parents to send their daughters to school.

However, a national curriculum guide for Qur'anic and Islamiyya education has been designed and is in most public schools.

Findings

13. The results on the analysis of Quranic/Islamiyyah Education in Nigeria are presented in this and subsequent chapters. The presentation in most instances is by aggregation of data on entire national sample.

Traditional Rulers And Community Leaders

Background Information:

14. Traditional Rulers and community leaders opinions are very important in any Islamic society because they are important stakeholders in Quranic/Islamiyyah Education. Ninety two Traditional Rulers / Community Leaders in twenty six states, including the Federal Capital Territory were interviewed. About 59% of the respondents are resident in urban areas while 34% live in rural areas. Seven percent of the respondents did not indicate their location.

Table 13.1 shows the distribution of the respondents by sex.

Table 13.1: Frequency Distribution of Sex of Traditional Rulers / Community Leaders

Sex	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Male	69	75.0
Female	16	17.4
No Response	7	7.6
Total	**92**	**100**

Predominant Economic Activities in the Communities:

15. The predominant economic activity in the communities surveyed is farming. About 86% of the communities surveyed were engaged in farming while close to 7% of the communities were engaged in business or trading activities.

Only (1%) of the community leaders was in the civil service while the same proportion (1%) practiced local craft. Table 13.2 shows the predominant economic activities in the communities.

Table 13.2: Distribution of Communities by major Economic activities

Major Economic Activities	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Farming	79	85.9
Trading / Business	6	6.5
Local Craft	1	1.1
Civil service	1	1.1
No response	5	5.4
Total	**92**	**100**

Predominant Health Problems in the Communities:

16. The most predominant health problems identified by traditional rulers / community leaders were malaria. Ninety two (92%) of the traditional rulers identified malaria as the most predominant health problem in their communities. The next predominant health problems identified by traditional /community leaders were cholera and malnutrition. One percent (1%) of the traditional rulers / community leaders identified cholera and malnutrition as the most dominant health problem in their communities. Five percent of the traditional / community leaders identified other health problems aside from malaria, cholera and malnutrition. Table 13.3: shows the dominant health problems in the communities.

Table 13.3: Frequency Distribution of Health Problems in the Communities

Health Problem	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Malaria	85	92.4
Cholera	1	1.1
Malnutrition	1	1.1
Others	5	5.4
Total	**92**	**100**

Specific dominant Health Problems in the Communities:

17. Aside from malaria, cholera and malnutrition, the traditional rulers / community leaders identified other specific, prevalent health problems such as HIV/AIDS, River Blindness, Measles and Polio in their communities. Ninety percent (90%) of the traditional rulers identified malaria, cholera and malnutrition as the most predominant health problems in their communities while 4% of them identified Measles as the most predominant health problem. Two percent (2%) of the traditional rulers / community leaders identified HIVAIDS and Polio as predominant health problems in their communities. Only a small proportion (1.1%) of the traditional rulers / community leaders identified River Blindness as a predominant health problem in their communities. Table 13.4: shows the frequency distribution of specific-predominant health problems in the communities.

Table 14.4: Frequency Distribution of Specific Health Problems in the Communities

Health Problem	Frequency	Percent (%)
Malaria, Cholera & Malnutrition	83	90.2
HIV/AIDS	2	2.2
River Blindness	1	1.1
Measles	4	4.3
Polio	2	2.2
Total	**92**	**100**

Pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary Schools Available in the Emirate / Chiefdom:

18. Under a simple classification of schools into Pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary schools, sixty two percent (62%) and 25% of the traditional rulers/ community leaders identified Pre- primary and Primary schools respectively, as available schools in their communities. Only 2% of the traditional rulers / community leaders acknowledged availability of secondary schools while 5% of the respondents did not respond. This implies that there were a lower number of secondary schools than the Pre-Primary and Primary schools in the community surveyed.. Table 13.5 shows the frequency distribution of available schools in the communities.

Table 13.5: Frequency Distribution of Pre-Primary, Primary and Secondary Schools in the communities

School Types Identified	Frequency	Percent (%)
Pre-Primary	62	67.4
Primary	23	25
Secondary	2	2.2
No Response	5	5.4
Total	**92**	**100**

Availability of Qur'anic, Islamiyyah, Vocational and other Schools in the Emirate /Chiefdom:

19. Further classification of the schools into specific types revealed that there were Qur'anic schools in about 36% of the communities surveyed. There were Islamiyyah and Vocational schools in 15% and 13% of the communities respectively. Close to 11% of the communities had Adult Education Centres while only 1% of the communities had tertiary institutions available in the communities on the basis of this classification. Table 5.1 shows the percentage distribution of formal schools in the communities, while table 13.6 shows the relative distribution of non-formal schools.

Table 13.6: Frequency Distribution of Qur'anic, Islamiyyah, Vocational and other types of Schools in the Communities.

School Types	Frequency	Percent (%)
Qur'anic	22	35.9
Islamiyyah	14	23.9
Vocational	12	13.0
Adult Education Centres	10	10.9
Tertiary Institutions	1	1.1
Others	33	35.9
Total	**92**	**100**

Constraints to Effective Participation in Educational Management:

20. The traditional rulers / community leaders identified constraints to their effective participation in educational management. Majority (about 57%) of the traditional rulers/ community leaders identified "poverty in the communities" as the most serious constraint to effective community participation in educational management. Twenty eight (28%) ranked high, "ignorance of the need for participation" as the reason for non participation in educational management while close to 20% considered "lack of will to participate" as the most reason for non participation in educational management. Only 16% of the traditional / community leaders ranked high, "political problems" as the reason for non participation in educational management.

21. About 45% of the traditional rulers considered "ignorance of the need for participation" as a moderate constraint to effective participation in educational management while 37% considered "lack of will to participate" as a moderate constraint. About 23% of the respondents considered "political problems" as moderate constraint while close to 20% considered both "poverty" and "religious / cultural differences" as moderate constraints to effective participation in educational management. Fifteen percent (15%) of traditional rulers / community leaders ranked "community hatred for Western Education as a moderate constraint to participation in educational management.

22. Majority (54%) of the traditional rulers/ community leaders considered "Community hatred for Western Education" as the lowest constraint to effective participation in educational management while about 45% considered "religious / cultural differences" as the lowest constraint. Forty percent (40%) of the respondents rated "reluctance of Mallams to accept salaries" as the lowest constraint to effective participation in educational management while about 36% of them ranked "political problems" as the lowest constraint to effective participation in educational management. Table 13.7 shows the ranking of constraints to effective participation in educational management by traditional rulers / community leaders.

Table13.7: Ranking of Constraints to Effective Participation in Educational Management by Traditional Rulers

Constraints	High	Moderate	Low
Ignorance of the need for participation	28%	45%	13%
Lack of will to participate	20%	37%	24%
Poverty in the community	57%	20%	5%
Community hatred for Western Education	4%	15%	54%
Political problems	16%	23%	36%
Religious / cultural differences	14%	20%	45%
Reluctance of Mallams to accept salaries	4%	15%	40%

Strategies for Improving Community Participation in the Management of Qur'anic Schools:

23. The traditional rulers/ Community Leaders identified strategies for improving community participation in Qur'anic schools. About 44% of the traditional rulers / community leaders suggested community participation in selection of teachers while close to 10% suggested introduction of Western style of reading. About 8% of the traditional rulers /community leaders suggested leaving Qur'anic education as inherited while about 7% of the traditional rulers /community leaders suggested introduction of life skills in Qur'anic schools. Only 1% of the traditional rulers/ community leaders suggested provision of health services for Qur'anic education students as means to improving Qur'anic education while close to 32% suggested other strategies including provision of room for exams and certification of students. Table 13.8 shows the frequency distribution of strategies suggested by traditional rulers / community leaders on improving community participation in the management of Qur'anic schools.

Table 13.8: Frequency distribution of strategies for improving community participation in the management of Qur'anic schools.

Suggested Strategies	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Participate in selection of Teachers	40	43.5
Leave Qur'anic education as inherited	7	7.6
Introduce life skills in Qur'anic schools	6	6.5
Introduce Western style of reading	9	9.8
Provide health services	1	1.1
Others	29	31.5
Total	**92**	**100**

HEADMASTERS OF QUR'ANIC/ISLAMIYYAH SCHOOLS

Background Information:

24. The survey was conducted in fourteen States including the Federal Capital Territory. Twenty six Headmasters of Qur'anic and Islamiyyah schools were interviewed. Sixty one percent of the Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools were located in urban areas while about 31% of the schools are located in the rural areas. Seven percent of the respondents did not indicate whether they were in rural or urban area.

Type of School:

25. Majority (61%) of the Head Teachers were from private schools while about 31% were from public schools. About four percent (4%) of the Head Teacher were from Nomadic schools while 4% of the respondents did not indicate the type of schools they supervise. Table 13.9 shows the distribution of Head Teachers by School type:

Table 13.**9**: Frequency distribution of schools by school type

School Type	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Private	16	61.5
Public	8	30.8
Nomadic	1	3.8
No Response	1	3.8
Total	**26**	**100**

Ownership of Qur'anic and Islamiyyah Schools:

26. Close to 35% of the Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools surveyed were owned by communities while about 31% were owned by Sole Proprietors. State Government, Local Government, and Non Governmental Organisation each accounts for about 8% of the schools in terms of ownership while the Federal Government owned about 4% of the schools surveyed (Nomadic school). About 8% of the respondents did not respond to question on ownership.

Table 13.10**:** Frequency Distribution of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools By ownership

Ownership	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Community	9	34.6
Sole Proprietor	8	30.8
State Government	2	7.7
Local Government	2	7.7
Non Governmental Organisation	2	7.7
Federal Government	1	3.8
No Response	2	7.7
Total	**26**	**100**

Sex of Respondents:

27. Majority (about 89%) of the respondents were male while about 8% were female. One respondent did not indicate his / her gender. Table 13.11 shows the sex of Head Teachers interviewed.

Table 13.11: Frequency Distribution of Respondents

Sex of Respondents	Frequency	Percent (%)
Male	23	88.5
Female	2	7.7
No Response	1	3.8
Total	**26**	**100**

Grouping of Students in Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools:

28. Majority (about89%) of the Head Teachers interviewed indicated that their schools were Mixed Schools, having boys and girls together. A small proportion (about 4%) of the Head Teachers, one in each case, indicated that their schools were boys only and girls only. One of the respondents did not indicate whether the school was for boys or girls only or mixed. Table 13.12 shows the frequency distribution of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools by student grouping.

Table 13.12: Frequency Distribution of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools by Student Grouping

Student Grouping	Frequency	Percent (%)
Boys & Girls together	23	88.5
Boys only	1	3.8
Girls only	1	3.8
No Response	1	3.8
Total	**26**	**100**

Hours of Schooling:

29. Forty six percent (46%) of the Head Teachers interviewed indicated that they operate 8 Hrs of schooling per day while 15% of the Head Teachers operate 6 Hrs of schooling. Nineteen percent (19%) and 12% of the Head Teachers operate 3 Hrs and 5 Hrs of schooling respectively. One of the respondents in each case indicated that they operate 2 Hrs and 1 Hr of schooling per day. Table 13.13: shows the frequency distribution of schooling hours operated by Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools.

Table 13.13: Frequency Distribution of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools By Schooling Hours

Hours of Schooling	Frequency	Percent (%)
8 Hours	12	46.2
6 Hours	4	15.4
5 Hours	3	11.5
3 Hours	5	19.2
2 Hours	1	3.8
1 Hour	1	3.8
Total	**26**	**100**

Highest Educational Qualification Attained:

30. Most of the Head Teachers interviewed (23%) had first leaving school certificate as their highest qualification while 19% of the Head Teachers had WASC/ GCE/ Grade II certificate. Fifteen percent (15%) of the Head Teachers had OND/Diploma /Grade I certificate while close to 12% had National Certificate in Education (NCE). About 8% and 4% of the Head Teachers interviewed had either Bachelors degree in Arts, Science, Education or Higher National Diploma (BA/ BSC/ BED/ HND) and Masters degree in Arts, Science or Education (MA/ MSC/ MED) respectively. Nineteen percent of the respondents did not indicate their educational qualifications. Table 13.14: shows the frequency distribution of highest qualification attained by Head Teachers.

Table 13.14: Frequency Distribution of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah School Head Teachers By Educational Qualification

Highest Qualification Attained	Frequency	Percent (%)
First School Leaving Certificate	6	23.1
WASC/ GCE/ Grade II	5	19.2
OND/ Diploma/ Grade 1	4	15.4
National Certificate in Education (NCE)	3	11.5
BA/ BSC/ BED/ HND	2	7.7
MA/ MSC/ MED	1	3.8
No Response	5	19.2
Total	**26**	**100**

Levels of Schooling:

31. Half of the Head Teachers interviewed (50%) indicated 6-15 years while 23% of the Head Teachers indicated 16 years and above. Only 15% of the Head Teachers indicated 3-5 years while about 12% did not respond. Table 13.15 shows the frequency distribution of levels of schooling in Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools.

Table 13.15: Frequency Distribution of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools by Levels of Schooling

Levels of Schooling	Frequency	Percent (%)
6-15 years	13	50.0
16 years and above	6	23
3-5 years	4	15.4
No Response	3	11.5
Total	**26**	**100**

Possession of a copy of National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools:
32. Majority (close to 62%) of the Head Teachers of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools did not have a copy of the National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools while about 35% had copies of the policy. One of the respondents did not respond to the question. Table 13.16 shows the frequency distribution of Head Teachers on possession of copies of National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools.

Table 13.16: Frequency Distribution of head Teachers on Possession of copies Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools

Possession of National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	9	34.6
No	16	61.5
No Response	1	3.8
Total	**26**	**100**

Awareness of a National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools:
33. Close to 58% of the Head Teachers claimed to be aware of existence of a national policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools while about 39% were not aware of such a policy. One of the respondents did not respond to the question. Table 13.17 shows the frequency distribution of Head Teachers on awareness of a national policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools.

Table 13.17: Frequency Distribution of head Teachers on awareness of a National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools

Awareness of National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	15	57.7
No	10	38.5
No Response	1	3.8
Total	**26**	**100**

Need for an overall National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools:

34. Close to 54% of the Head Teachers of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools strongly agreed on the need for an overall national policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools while 23% of the Head Teachers merely agreed to its need. Fifteen percent (15%) of the Head Teachers disagreed on the need for an overall national policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools. Only one respondent strongly disagreed to having an overall national policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools while one respondent did not respond to the question. Table 13.18 shows the frequency distribution of Head Teachers' agreement on the need for an overall national policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools.

Table 13.18: Frequency Distribution of Head Teachers' agreement on a need for An overall National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools

Agreement on the need for a National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Strongly Agree	14	53.8
Agree	6	23.1
Disagree	4	15.1
Strongly Disagree	1	3.8
Total	**26**	**100**

Use of National Curriculum for Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Education from Government:

35. Majority of the Head Teachers (about 77%) indicated that they did not receive a national curriculum for Qur'anic / Islamiyyah education neither from the State nor Federal Ministry of Education. Nineteen percent (19%) of the Head Teachers indicated that they received the curriculum while one respondent did not respond to the question. Table 13.19 shows the frequency distribution of Head Teachers on receipt of national curriculum on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah.

Table 13.19: Frequency Distribution of Head Teachers on use of national Curriculum for Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Education

Receipt of National Curriculum for Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Yes	5	19.2
No	20	76.9
No Response	1	3.8
Total	**26**	**100**

Inspection of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools in the last two years:

36. Most of the Head Teachers indicated that their schools (about 37%) were inspected 1to 2 times within the last two years. Fifteen percent (15%) of the Head Teachers claimed in each case, that their schools were inspected five (5) times and three to four times (3-4 times) within the last two years. Close to 27% of the Head Teachers claimed that their schools were not inspected at all in the last two years while about 8% did not respond to the question on inspection of schools. Table 13.20 shows the frequency distribution of times Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools were inspected in the last two years.

Table 13.20: Frequency Distribution of Number of times Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools were inspected

Inspection of Schooling	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
1-2 Times	9	34.6
3-4 times	4	15.4
5 Times	4	15.4
Not at all	7	36.9
No Response	2	7.7
Total	**26**	**100**

Receipt of Educational Materials from Government in the last two years:

37. Majority (about 58%) of the Head Teachers indicated that their schools received educational materials from government in the last two years. Close to 39% of the Head Teachers indicated that they did not receive any educational material from the government in the last two years while one respondent did not respond to the question. Table 13.21 shows the frequency distribution of schools that received educational materials from government in the last two years.

Table 13.21: Frequency Distribution of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools that Received Educational Materials within the last two years

Receipt of Educational Materials From Government within the last two years	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Yes	15	57.7
No	10	38.5
No Response	1	3.8
Total	**26**	**100**

Kinds of Educational Materials Received by Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools within the last two years:

38. Kinds of educational materials received by Head Teachers of Qur'anic/ Islamiyyah schools include Books for teachers, Text books for pupils, Teachers' guide and other Instructional materials. Within the last two years, a high percentage of the Head Teachers (42%) claimed that they received books for teachers while close to 31% received text books for pupils. Nineteen percent (19%) and 15% of the Head Teachers indicated that they received teachers' guides and other instructional materials respectively. Table 13.22 shows kinds of educational materials received by Head Teachers within the last two years.

Table 13.22: Percentage distribution of educational materials received by Head Teachers

Kinds of Educational Materials Received	Percent
Books for teachers	42%
Text books for pupils	31%
Other Instructional materials	15%

Posting of Teachers to Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools by Government within the last two years:

39. More than half of the Head Teachers (about 54%) indicated that they did not have any teacher posted by government to their schools in the last two years while 46% of them indicated that they had teachers posted to their schools by government within the last two years. Table 13.23 shows the frequency distribution of Head Teachers that had teachers posted by government in the last two years.

Table 13.23: Frequency distribution of Head Teachers that had teachers posted To their schools by government within the last two years

Teachers from Government within last two years	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	12	46.2
No	14	53.8
Total	**26**	**100**

Benefit from any welfare provision from Government:

40. More than half of the Head Teachers (about 54%) indicated that their schools have not benefited from any welfare provision from government while 46% of the Head Teachers indicated that they have benefited from government welfare provision. Table 13.24 shows the frequency distribution of Head Teachers that have received welfare provision from government.

Table 13.24: Frequency distribution of Head Teachers that indicated receipt of Government welfare in their schools

Benefit from Government welfare provision	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	12	46.2
No	14	53.8
Total	**26**	**100**

Forms of welfare provisions received from Government:

41. Amongst the group of Head Teachers that indicated receipt of government welfare in their schools, about 27% claimed that they received government welfare provision in use form of financial incentives for Mallams. Close to 8% of the Head Teachers indicated that government provided potable water in their schools. Equal percentage of the Head Teachers (about 4% in each case) indicated that the government provided lunch for pupils, play grounds, games materials, electricity and other welfare provisions in their schools. Table 13.25 shows the frequency distribution of forms of government welfare provision in Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools.

Table 13.25: Frequency distribution of Government –welfare provisions received by Head Teachers in their schools

Forms of Government welfare provision	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Financial incentives for Mallams	7	26.9
Provision of potable water	2	7.7
Provision of lunch to pupils	1	3.8
Provision playground	1	3.8
Provision of play and games materials	1	3.8
Provision of electricity	1	3.8
Other welfare provisions	1	3.8
Not at all	12	46.2
Total	**26**	**100**

Sources of funds for running Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools:

42. Nineteen percent (19%) of the Head Teachers indicated that Parents-Teachers' Association (PTA) was the source of funds for running their schools while 15% indicated school fees as the source of funds for their schools. Equal percentage of the Head Teachers, (close to 12% in each case) indicated State Government, Local Government and donations as sources of funds for running their schools. Close to 8% of the Head Teachers indicated Federal Government and Private agencies as the sources of funds for running their schools while close to 4% of the Head Teachers indicated levies on pupils and "other sources" as sources of funds for their schools. Table 13.26 shows the frequency distribution of Head Teachers on the basis of sources of funds for running the schools.

Table 13.26: Frequency distribution of Head Teachers on basis of sources of funds For running their schools

Sources of funds for running the schools	Frequency	Percent (%)
Parent – Teachers' Association (PTA)	5	19.2
School fees	4	15.4
State Government	3	11.5
Local Government	3	11.5
Donations	3	11.5
Federal Government	2	7.7
Private agencies	2	7.7
Levies on pupils	1	3.8
Other sources	1	3.8
No Response	2	7.7
Total	**26**	**100**

PROPRIETORS OF QUR'ANIC AND ISLAMIYYAH SCHOOL

Background Information:

43. The survey was conducted in twenty six states including the Federal Capital Territory. Fourteen proprietors of Qur'anic and Islamiyyah schools were interviewed. About eighty six percent of the respondents are resident in urban area while fourteen percent live in rural area.

Type of School:

44. Majority (57.1%) of the proprietors were from private schools while 14.3% were from public schools. 28.6% of the respondents did not indicate the type of schools they owned. Table 13.27 shows the distribution of Proprietors by School type:

Table 13.27: Frequency distribution of schools by school type

School Type	Frequency	Percent (%)
Private	8	57.1
Public	2	14.3
No Response	4	28.6
Total	**14**	**100**

Ownership of Qur'anic and Islamiyyah Schools:

45. About 43% of the Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools surveyed were owned by Sole Proprietors while about 28.6% were owned by the community. State Government and Local Government each accounts for about 14.3% of the schools in terms of ownership.

Table 13.28: Frequency Distribution of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools By ownership

Ownership	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Community	4	34.6
Sole Proprietor	6	30.8
State Government	2	7.7
Local Government	2	7.7
Total	**14**	**100**

Sex of Respondents:

46. All of the respondents were male with the exception of one respondent who did not indicate his / her gender. Table 13.29 shows the sex of Head Teachers interviewed.

Table 13.29: Frequency Distribution of Respondents

Sex of Respondents	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Male	13	92.9
No Response	1	7.1
Total	**14**	**100**

Supports To Qur'anic And Islamiyyah Schools:

47. The Proprietors of Quranic/Islamiyyah schools identified the community and the parents as major providers of support to their schools. These supports include: teaching materials, accommodation, health care and staff remuneration. Community is consistently ranking the highest in provision of these supports – teaching materials, 50%, Accommodation, 57.1%, health care, 28.6% staff remuneration, 35.7%. It is closely followed by the parents with 35.7% for the provision of teaching materials and accommodation and 28.6% for provision of health care and staff remuneration respectively. Private individuals were ranked next to the parents. They were closely followed by the philanthropists. The traditional rulers, surprisingly, ranked last with highest ranking of 14.3% for the provision of teaching materials.. Table 13.30 shows the kinds of supports provided by various groups to Quranc/Islamiyyah Schools.

Table 13.30**:** Provsion of Supports to Quranc/Islamiyyah Schools.

GROUP/SUPPORT	TEACHNG MATERIALS	ACCOMMODATION	HEALTH CARE	STAFF REMUNERATION
COMMUNITY	50%	57.1%	28.6%	35.7%
PARENTS	35.7%	35.7%	28.6%	28.6%
PRIVATE	28.6%	21.4%	7.1%	28.6%
PHILANTROPISTS	28.6%	14.3%	0%	21.4%
TRADITONAL RULERS	14.3%	7.1%	0%	7.1%

Strategies Adopted to Solicit Community Support for Qur'anic/Islamiyyah Schools:

48. The Proprietors identified strategies to solicit community support for Qur'anic schools. About 57.0% of the Proprietors suggested thanking donors orally and inviting parents to see their children. About 29% of the proprietors suggested getting pupils involved n community work, while about 14% of the proprietors suggested involving pupils in programmes organized by philanthropists. Table 13.31 below shows the ranking of strategies adopted by the proprietors of Quranic/slamiyyah schools to guarantee community support for Qur'anic/Islamyyah schools.

Table 13.31**:** Ranking of Strategies Adopted by the Proprietors of Quranic/Islamiyyah schools to Guarantee Community Support for Qur'anic Schools

Strategies	High
Thanking Donors Orally	57.1%
Inviting parents to see their children	57.1%
Getting pupils involved in community wor	28.6%
Involving pupils in programmes organised by philanthropists	14.3%

Constraints to Effective Participation of the Community in the Affairs of the Qur'anic/Islamiyyah Schools :

49**.** The proprietors identified constraints to the effective participation the of community in the affairs of the Qur'anic/Islamiyyah Schools. "Ignorance of possible assistance modes" (about 79%) was rated as the most serious constraint to effective participation in the affairs of the schools by the proprietors. "Lack of will to seek assistance" and "poverty in the community" come next on rating with about 57% respectively. "Belief that government should not participate in Quranic education" was rated next with 29% considered "lack of will to participate" as the reason for non participation of the community in the affairs of the Quranic/Islamiyyah schools. Suspicion of influence of western education and political problems were ranked very low with 21.4% and 14.3% respectively as the reason for non participation of the community in the affairs of the Quranic/Islamiyyah schools. Table 13.32 shows the rating of constraints to effective participation of the community in the affairs of the Quranic/Islamiyyah schools the proprietors.

Table 13.32**: R**ating of constraints to effective participation of the community in the affairs of the Quranic/Islamiyyah schools by Proprietors

Constraints	High
Ignorance of possible assistance modes	78.6%
Lack of will to see assistance	57.1%
Poverty in the community	57.1%
Suspicion of the influence of Western Education	21.4%
Belief that government should not particpate in Quranic education	28.6%
Political problems	14.3%

Preferred Areas of Government Assistance/Support to Quranic Schools

50. Proprietors of Quranic/Islamiyyah schools identified kinds of support/assistance they think government should provide for Quranic schools. All the respondents (100%) would want government to provide "Instruuctonal Materials" to the schools. About 72% of the respondents identified provision of "Vocational Skills', 50% wanted "remuneration for teachers" and "capacity building for teachers" respectively, 35.7% for "medical services", 28.6% for "introduction of "Boko" (English)" and 21.4% wanted "registration with government". Only 14.3% wanted "mid-day meals".

FEDERAL MINISTRY OF EDUCATION/STATE MINISTRIES OF EDUCATION/ STATE PRIMARY EDUCATION BOARD/LOCAL GOVERNMENT EDUCATION AUTHORITIES' OFFICIALS

Background Information:

51. Seventy four officials of Federal Ministry of Education, State Ministry of Education, State Primary Education Board and Local Government Education Authority in twenty five states, including the Federal Capital Territory were interviewed. About 68% of the respondents are resident in urban areas while 28% live in rural areas. Four percent of the respondents did not indicate their location.

Sex of Respondents:

52. Ninety one percent (91%) of the respondents were male while 4% of the respondents were female. Five percent (5%) of the respondents did not indicate their sex. Table 13.33 shows the distribution of the respondents by sex.

Table 13.33**:** Frequency Distribution of Sex of Officials of FME/SOME/SPEB/LGEA

Sex	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Male	67	90.5
Female	3	4.1
No Response	4	5.4
Total	**74**	**100**

Highest Educational Qualification Attained:

53. Most of the respondents (27%) had B.ED/BA/BSC+PGDE as their highest qualification while 14.9% of the respondents had BSC/ BA. Close to 11% had National Certificate in Education (NCE), while 15.0% had ACE/Diploma/ OND,and HND/Advance Diploma respectively. About 7% of the respondents had either M.ED or MSC/ MA+PGDE respectively. 4.1% and 2.7% of respondents had TCII and MSC/MA respectively. About eleven percent of the respondents did not indicate their educational qualifications. Table 13.34: shows the frequency distribution of highest qualification attained by respondents.

Table 13.34: Frequency Distribution of Officials of FME/SOME/SPEB/LGEA By Educational Qualification

Highest Qualification Attained	Frequency	Percent (%)
TC II	3	4.1
ACE/DIPLOMA	6	8.1
OND	5	6.8
National Certificate in Education (NCE)	8	10.8
HND/ADVANCE DIPLOMA	6	8.1
BSC/ BA	11	14.9
B.ED/BA/BSC+PGDE	20	27.0
MSC/ MA	2	2.7
M.ED/MSC/MA+PGDE	5	6.8
No Response	8	10.8
Total	**74**	**100**

Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools Benefited directly from Federal/SOME/SPEB/LGEA Policy:

54. Close to 57% of the respondents disagreed that Qur'anic/Islamiyyah schools benefited directly from government at all levels while about 31% agreed that Qur'anic/Islamiyyah schools benefited directly from government at all levels. Some 12.2% of the respondents did not respond to the question. Table 13.35 shows the frequency distribution of the respondents

Table 13.35: Frequency Distribution of Official of FME/SOME/SPEB/LGEA on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools benefited directly form Government.

Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools Benefited Directly from Government	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	23	31.1
No	42	56.8
No Response	9	12.2
Total	**74**	**100**

Definite Government Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools:

55. Majority of the respondents (about 68%) indicated that the ministry has no definite policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools. Twenty percent (20%) of the respondents indicated that the ministry has definite policy on Qur'anic/Islamiyyah schools while nine respondents did not respond to the question. Table 13.36 shows the frequency distribution of the respondents on availability of definite government policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools.

Table 13.36: Frequency Distribution of the Government Officials on the availability of Definite Ministry Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools.

Receipt of National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Yes	15	20.3
No	50	67.6
No Response	9	12.2
Total	**74**	**100**

The true position as of the time this report was prepared is that there is National Policy for Qur'anic and Islamiyya education, other than what is contained in the general National Policy on Education. However, a national curriculum guide for Qur'anic and Islammiyya Education exists.

Need for Overall National Policy for Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Education:

56. Majority of the respondents (about 77%) agreed that there is the need for a National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah education. Eleven respondents (14.9%) saw no need for such policy. Ten respondents (13.5%) did not respond to the question. Table 13.37 shows the frequency distribution of respondents on the need for a national policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah education.

Table 13.37: Frequency Distribution of the Government Officials on the Need for A National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools.

Need for a National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Yes	53	71.6
No	11	14.9
No Response	10	13.5
Total	**74**	**100**

Documents made available by States Ministry of Education to Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools within the last one year:

57. States ministry of education were expected to make available certain education documents to assist the Qur'anic/ Islamiyyah schools. These include curriculum guides, textbooks, stationery, and record booklets. Within the last one year, a high percentage of the government officials (50%) claimed that have not made available any of these documents to the Qu'anic/Islamiyyah schools. About nineteen percent (18.9%) of the respondents claimed that the ministry had provided curriculum guides, 10.8% claimed the ministry provided textbooks and 4.1% of the respondents indicated that the ministry provided stationery and record books for the Qur'anic/Islamiyyah schools. Twelve respondents did not respond to the question. Table 13.38 shows the kinds of documents made available by state ministries of education to Qur'anic/Islamiyyah schools.

Table 13.38: Frequency Distribution of the documents made available by States Ministry of Education to Qur'anic/Islamiyyah Schools.

Document	Frequency	Percent (%)
Curriculum	14	18.9
Textbooks	8	10.8
Stationery record book	3	4.1
No response	12	16.2
Total	**74**	**100**

School Subjects Considered the Most Appropriate for integration into Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools:

58. As policy maker's government officials were asked to state which school subjects they considered the most appropriate for integration into the Qur'anic/ Islamiyyah schools. Majority of the respondents chose Literacy in Arabic (36.5) and Literacy in Local Languages (35.1). Literacy in English Language comes next, but as low as 12.2%. Only 1.4% of the respondent chose Primary Mathematics, Health Education and Vocational Subjects respectively. This is very surprising when one considered the education background and positions of the respondents. Nine respondents did not respond to the question. Table 13.39 shows subjects considered by government officials the most appropriate for integration into Qur'anic/Islamiyyah schools.

Table 13.39: Frequency Distribution of the Subjects Considered By Government Officials the Most Appropriate For Integration into Qur'anic/Islamiyyah Schools

School Subject	Frequency	Percent (%)
Literacy in Local Languages	26	35.1
Literacy in Arabic	27	36.5
Literacy in English	9	12.2
Primary Mathematics	1	1.4
Health Education	1	1.4
Vocational Subject	1	1.4
No response	9	12.2
Total	**74**	**100**

Governments Agencies Specific Steps in the Past Two Years to Integrate Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools:

59. This item sort to know if government agencies have undertaken any specific step to integrate formal education into Qur'anic / Islamiyyah schools. Majority of the respondents (51.4%) said yes while 31.1% said no. Thirteen respondents did not respond to the question. There is no follow up question for respondents to specify steps undertaken. Table 13.40 below shows government officials responses to specific steps taken by government agencies to Integrate Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools.

Table 13.40: Frequency Distribution of the Government Officials On whether specific step was taken by Government Agencies to Integrate Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools.

Receipt of National Policy on Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Yes	38	51.4
No	23	31.1
No Response	13	17.6
Total	**74**	**100**

Two Most Likely Processes to win Community Support for Integration of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools:

60. Respondents were given a list of four options of likely processes to win community support for integration of formal education into Qur'anic/Islamiyyah schools. Majority of the respondents (51.4%) were of the opinion that advocacy and face to face contact (37.8%) and Intervention by traditional leaders and other significant persons (31.1%) are the two most likely processes to win community support for integration of formal education into Qur'anic/Islamiyyah schools. The other two options received low responses – seminars, workshops and media appeal (10.8%) and provision of free school materials and lunch (6.8%). Ten respondents did not respond to the question. Table 13.41 below shows respondents opinion on most likely process to win Community support for integration of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools.

Table 13.41: Frequency Distribution of The Government Officials On opinion on most likely process to win Community support for integration of Qur'anic/Islamiyyah Schools.

Most Likely Process	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Advocacy and face to face contact	38	51.4
Intervention by Traditional Leaders and other significant persons	23	31.1
Seminars, workshops and media appeal	8	10.8
Provision of free school materials and lunch	5	6.8
No Response	10	13.5
Total	**74**	**100**

Best Qualified People to handle the Integration of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools:

Since 1969 curriculum Conference, the Nation Policy on Education – original, reversed and reviewed- had always call for the integration of formal education into Qur'anic Schools, but who should or implement this policy remains an issue. This item sorts the opinion of the respondent on who are the best qualified

people to do this integration. Majority of the respondents (40.5%) were of the opinion that the traditional rulers and prominent Muslim Organisations are the most qualified people to handle the integration of formal education into Qur'anic Schools. Other choices are UBE (16.2%), Curriculum experts and ministry of education officials 14.9%, school proprietors and their head teachers (12.2%) UNICEF and NTI (1.4%) respectively. Ten respondents did not respond to the question. Table 13.42 below shows respondents opinion on the best qualified people to handle the integration of formal education into Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools.

Table 13.42: Frequency Distribution of Government Officials opinion on most likely process to win Community support for integration of Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools.

Most Likely Process	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Advocacy and face to face contact	38	51.4
Intervention by Traditional Leaders and other significant persons	23	31.1
Seminars, workshops and media appeal	8	10.8
Provision of free school materials and lunch	5	6.8
No Response	10	13.5
Total	**74**	**100**

Teacher Development Efforts of Government Agencies towards Qur'anic / Islamiyyah Schools in the last two years:

62. Regular opportunity for professional development of teachers ensures that teachers are kept up-to-date and adequately empowered to offer quality delivery. Teachers of Qur'anic schools have often been classified as unqualified and untrained. This sector of the Nigerian education system should not be denied of teacher development and capacity building in form of in-service-training, refresher workshops, seminars etc. This item sought to find out government efforts towards Qur'anic /Islamiyyah schools' teacher development.

63. Although majority of respondents claimed that government provided assistance in the areas of retraining of teachers (32.4%) and provision of in-service course relevant to teach in Qur'anic schools (29.7%), available data shows that almost a third of the respondents (27%) did not respond to this question. This may be an indication of lack of or little efforts on the government part. Establishment of new programmes for teachers received lowest rate (10.8%). Table 13.43 below shows respondents opinion on efforts of government agencies towards Qur'anic/Islamiyyah schools teacher development.

Table 13.43: Frequency Distribution of Opinion of The Government Officials on Efforts of government agencies towards Qur'anic/Islamiyyah schools teacher development

Teachers Development Efforts	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
Retraining of Qur'anic/Islamiyyah teachers	24	32.4
Establishment of new programmes for Qur'anic/Islamiyyah schools' teachers	8	10.8

APPENDIX

NATIONAL POLICY PROVISIONS ON EDUCATION

1. PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

Pre-Primary Education is referred to as the education given in an education institution to children aged 3-5 plus prior to their entering the primary school. Government Policies regarding this level of education are to:

- Promote the training of qualified pre-primary school teachers in adequate numbers
- Contribute to the development of suitable curriculum;
- Supervise and control the quality of such institution;
- Establish pre-primary schools in existing public schools;
- Encourage private efforts in the provision of pre-primary;
- Ensure that the medium of instruction is principally the mother tongue or the language of the immediate environment
- Ensure that the main method of teaching at this level shall be through play; and that the curriculum of teacher education is oriented to achieve this;
- Regulate and control the operation of pre-primary education;
- Teacher-Pupils ratio shall be 1:20

2. PRIMARY EDUCATION

Primary education is referred to as the education given in an institution for children aged 6-11 plus. Since the rest of the education system is built upon it, the primary level is the key to success or failure of the whole system.
Government polices at this level are as follow: -

- The duration shall be six years
- It shall be free, universal, and compulsory;
- Its Curriculum shall include the following subjects: languages, Mathematics, Science, Physical & Health Education, Religious Knowledge, Agriculture/ Home Economics, Social Studies and Citizenship Education, Cultural &Creative Arts and Computer Education
- It shall have basic educational services, like School Library, Basic health schemes, Counselling, Educational Resource Centre, Specialist teachers;
- Teaching shall be by practical, exploratory, and experimental methods;
- The medium of instruction shall be language of the environment for the first three years. During this period English shall be taught as a subject;
- English language shall be progressively used as a medium of instruction from the fourth year, and the language of the immediate environment and French shall be taught as subjects
- The Teacher-Pupil ratio shall be 1:35
- Advancement from one class to another shall be based on Continuous Assessment;

- The primary school leaving certificate shall be based only on continuous assessment and shall be issued locally by the head teacher of the school;
- Drop out at the primary level of education shall be discouraged. However, if this occurs provision shall be made in the context of adult and non-formal education to enable early leavers to continue with their education.
- Welcomes the contributions of voluntary agencies, and private individuals in the establishment and management of primary schools alongside those provided by the state and local governments, as long as they meet the minimum standard laid down by government

3. SECONDARY EDUCATION

This is the education children receive after primary education and before the tertiary stage. The major polices at this level are as follow:

- It shall be of six years duration given in two stages; a junior and senior secondary school stages.
- Each stage shall be of three years duration
- The junior Secondary School shall be both pre-vocational and academic; Tuition free, universal and compulsory;
- The Senior Secondary School shall be comprehensive with a core curriculum designed to broaden pupil's knowledge and outlook.
- The Teacher-Pupils ratio shall be 1:40

4. TECHNICAL AND VOCATION EDUCATION

Technical and Vocational Education is used as a comprehensive term referring to those aspects of the educational process involving, in addition to the general education, the study of technologies and related sciences and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge.

The main features of the curricular activities for technical colleges is

- Structured in foundation and trade modules
- The curriculum of each trade consists of five components: - General education, Theory and related courses, Workshop practice. Industrial training/production work and Small business management and entrepreneurship training.

5. TERTIARY EDUCATION

This is the education given after secondary education in universities, colleges of education, polytechnics, and monotechnics, including those institutions offering correspondence courses. Major government polices at this level will be discussed under each category.

5.1 UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

- Voluntary agencies, individuals and groups shall be allowed to establish universities provided they comply with minimum standards laid down by the Federal Government.
- A greater proportion of expenditure on university education shall be devoted to Science and Technology, and not less than 60% of places shall be allocated to science and science oriented courses in the conventional universities and not less than 805 in the universities of technology.

5.2 TEACHER EDUCATION

- Since no education system can rise above the quality of its teachers, teacher education shall continue to be given major emphasis in all educational planning and development.
- The minimum qualification for entry into the teaching profession shall be the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) in addition to registration with Teacher Registration Council (TRC)

5.3 POLYTECHNIC EDUCATION

- Maintain a two –tier programme of studies, via the National Diploma (ND) and the Higher National Diploma with one-year period of industrial experience added to the ND and serving as one of the pre-requisites for entry into the HND programmes.
- Improve immediate and long-term prospects of polytechnic graduates and other professionals with respect to their status and remuneration.

6. MASS LITERACY, ADULT AND NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

6.1. Mass literacy, adult and non-formal education encompasses all forms of functional education given to youths and adults outside the formal school system, such as functional literacy, remedial and vocational education.

6.2. The goal of this level of education shall be to:

- ☞ Provide functional literacy and continuing education for education for adults and youths who have never had the advantages of formal education, or who did not complete their primary education,
- ☞ Provide functional and remedial education for those young people who did not complete secondary education,
- ☞ Provide education for different categories of completers of the formal education system in order to improve their basic knowledge and skills,
- ☞ Provide in-service, on-the-job, vocational and professional training for different categories of workers and professionals in order to improve their skill; and
- ☞ Give the adult citizens necessary aesthetic, cultural and civic education for public enlightenment.

6.3. In order to eradicate illiteracy:

- ☞ There shall be a nation-wide mass literacy campaign based on various strategies including that of 'each-one-teach-one' or 'fund-the-teaching-of-one';
- ☞ State agencies for mass education shall be responsible for the regulation of all adult classes;
- ☞ Mass literacy, adult and non-formal education shall continue to be under the supervision of ministries of education,
- ☞ Mass literacy programmes shall be provided free to the beneficiaries.

7.0. SPECIAL EDUCATION

7.1. Special education is the education of children and adults who have learning difficulties because of different kinds of handicaps, blindness, partial-sightedness, deafness, hardness-of-hearing, mental retardation, social maladjustment, limb of deformity or malformation, etc., due to circumstances of birth, etc., due to circumstances of birth, inheritance, social position, mental and physical health patterns, or accident in later life.

7.2. There are also the specially gifted and talented children who are intellectually precocious and find themselves insufficiently challenged by the programmes of the regular school.

7.3. The goals of special education shall be to provide:

- ☞ Adequate education for all special cases;
- ☞ A diversified and appropriate curriculum for all the beneficiaries.

8.0. EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

8.1. Educational services facilitate the implementation of educational policy, the attainment of policy goals and the promotion of effectiveness of educational system.

8.2. The goals of educational services shall be to:

- ☞ Develop, assess and improve educational programmes,
- ☞ Enhance teaching and improve the competence of teachers,
- ☞ Make learning experiences more meaningful for children,
- ☞ Make education more cost-effective, and
- ☞ Develop and promote effective use of innovative materials in schools.

9.0. FINANCING, ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF EDUCATION

9.1. The success of any system of education is hinged on proper planning, efficient administration and adequate financing. Administration is a function of organisation and structure, proprietorship and control, inspection and supervision.

9.2. School systems and consequently heir management and day-to-day administration

shall grow out of the life and social ethos of the community that they service. Therefore, he administrative machinery for the national education system shall be based on the following cardinal principles:

- ☞ Shared responsibility for the funding and management of primary education among the three tiers of government;
- ☞ Close participation and involvement of the communities, at the local level, in the administration and management of their schools;
- ☞ Effective line of communication between local community and the state on the one hand and national machinery for the policy formulation and implementation on the other;
- ☞ Devolution of functions whereby the direction, planning and co-ordination of the total educational efforts within the states and the federal capital territory [FCT] Abuja, especially of secondary education, is the responsibility of the state ministries or the territory's Department of Education; and
- ☞ The integration of educational development and policy with national objectives and programmes by the Federal Ministry of Education.

9.3. the objectives of the planning, administrative, inspectorate, supervisory and financial services in education are to:

- ☞ Ensure adequate and effective planning of all educational services,
- ☞ Provide efficient administrative and management control for the maintenance and improvement of the system,
- ☞ Ensure quality control through regular and continuous supervision of instructional and other educational services, and
- ☞ Provide adequate and balanced financial support for all educational