

FEDERAL MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

EDUCATION SECTOR STATUS REPORT

MAY, 2003

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PREFACE

The Honourable Minister of Education, Professor A.B. Borishade set up an eight-member Steering Committee to produce an Education Sector Status Report, as at May 2003. This committee was inaugurated by the Permanent Secretary, Federal Ministry of Education, Ambassador G.B. Preware, on 7th February, 2003. Its members were as follows:

Mr. G.O. Eukora, retired Permanent Secretary, FME	- Chairman
Mr. A.I. Ali, Department of Educational Support Services, FME	- Member
Dr. (Mrs.) Rosemary Nwangwu, ESA Unit, FME	- Member
Mr. E.J. Okon, Department of Technology and Science Education, FME	- Member
Dr. (Mrs.) R.A. Ukpong, Department of Planning, Research and Statistics, FME	- Member
Mr. Hubert Charles, UNESCO (Nigeria)	- Member
Mrs. Brigitte Duces, World Bank (Nigeria)	- Member
Dr. Don Taylor, DFID (Nigeria)	- Member
Mr. Emma Kalu, ESA Unit, FME	- Secretary

The committee was given two broad terms of reference, as follows:

- To develop an Education Sector Status Report (ESSR).
- To review the current Education Sector Analysis (ESA) process.

As part of its first term of reference, the committee was asked to use existing information and materials; identify achievements, critical issues and challenges; indicate major directions and policy options; and identify major gaps in knowledge to be filled through future ESA work.

The committee was supported by two international consultants, Professor Peter Williams and Dr James Urwick, whose participation was made possible by the UK Department for International Development DFID). It met regularly throughout the duration of its assignment. It drew up a work plan, which was duly approved by the Honourable Minister. In order to facilitate its work, it established a Core Writing Team as well as a Reference Committee in which many agencies in the education sector and civil society were represented. The members of the Core Writing Team are Mr. A.I. Ali, Dr. (Mrs.) Rosemary Nwangwu, Mr. E.J. Okon and Dr. (Mrs.) Rosalind Ukpong. The list of members of the Reference Committee is as given in Annex XV of this report. The Core Writing Team worked very hard to produce the initial drafts on schedule for the consideration of the Steering Committee. After due approval by this committee, the first draft was referred to the Reference Committee for its study, comments and observations. With the help of those inputs, the second draft was subsequently produced and referred back to the Reference Committee. Thereafter, the final report (ESSR 2003) was produced.

In terms of the highlights of the structure and content of the report, the following are noteworthy. The report is sub-divided into fifteen chapters spanning the entire

spectrum of education in Nigeria. While Chapter 1 deals with the context and background of education in Nigeria, Chapter 2 is on policies and priorities. Chapter 3 is devoted to the structure and management of the educational system, while Chapters 4-7 examine the various levels of children's education: early childhood, primary, junior secondary and senior secondary education. Chapters 8-12 cover adult and non-formal education, Islamic education, technology and science education, teacher education and university education. Chapters 13 and 14 discuss educational finance as well as education and employment in the system as a whole. The last chapter discusses recent achievements of the educational system, critical issues, and the challenges that it faces.

The executive summary at the beginning of the report highlights the main points and issues raised in the chapters. The page of the report preceding Chapter 1 gives the full meanings of the abbreviations used, while various annexes and a list of the references cited are provided after Chapter 15. I wish to point out that the report relating to the Steering Committee's second term of reference is being submitted separately.

On behalf of the members of the Steering Committee on ESSR 2003, I would like to convey our sincere appreciation to the Honourable Minister of Education as well as to the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry for the opportunity given to the members of the committee to serve the nation in this all-important area. Our appreciation also goes to the two international consultants, the members of the Core Writing Team and their supporting staff, who have had to work tirelessly under pressure in order to deliver the report on schedule. We wish also to extend our special thanks to the World Bank, UNESCO and DFID for their support and co-operation as well as to the NCCE for providing the Committee with office space and meeting venues and to the ESA Unit of FME for facilitating the Committee's work.

Finally, we thank the members of the Reference Committee for their invaluable contributions, which helped to improve not only the text but also the data presented in the report.

G. O. Enukora, NPOM,
Chairman, Steering Committee,
ESSR 2003.

20th May, 2003.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This Education Sector Status Report (ESSR) seeks to present the current status of the educational system as at May, 2003. It identifies the achievements of the present administration, the critical issues and challenges facing the sector today, and the major policy options and directions for the future. It is an output of the Education Sector Analysis and is based on existing information and sources. ESSR is in fifteen chapters, summarised below, covering all levels and aspects of education in Nigeria.

Context and Background

A review of the educational system of Nigeria must take into account the historical, cultural, social and economic characteristics of the nation. Nigerians are people with varied languages and ethnic identities, living in varied vegetation belts from the rain forest to the dry savannah. But they are unified by common traditional values, such as those of hospitality and respect for elders, as well as the common political heritage. Nigeria's existence as a single territory dates from 1914, and her independence from 1960. The two main religions, Islam and Christianity, have both made important contributions to educational practice. The country is a federation, with 36 states and a Federal Capital Territory, Abuja. It has experienced long periods of military rule, but returned to civilian rule in 1999.

Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa. The population was found by the 1991 Census to be about 89 million and is projected to be 135 million by the year 2010. Children below the age of 16 form about 45% of the population. Agriculture remains the dominant means of livelihood, but is no longer the main source of public revenue. Nigeria became a major exporter of oil in the 1970s, when both formal education and other services expanded dramatically. The downturn in oil revenue after 1979, however, combined with other factors to bring about gradual impoverishment during the two decades that followed. The present government recognises a need to diversify exports and reduce the dependence on crude oil.

Evolving Educational Policies and Priorities

The educational policies and priorities of Nigerian governments have evolved in response to changing political and economic circumstances. At the time of independence the production of high-level manpower was a priority, and the 1960s therefore saw a rapid expansion of university and secondary education. There were, however, large and persistent differences between North and South in educational participation, management and policy. It was only after the civil war of 1967-70 had ended and the oil boom had begun that the Federal Government was able to enforce more uniform educational policies. These included the public take-over of grant-aided schools in most states, the launching of a national scheme for universal primary education (UPE) in 1976, and the publication of a comprehensive National Policy on Education in 1977. The National Policy established programmes of 6 years for primary, 3 years for junior secondary, 3 years for senior secondary and 4 years for

university education, and outlined a national curriculum for schools. The UPE scheme was marred by inadequate planning, but nevertheless resulted in a doubling of primary enrolment within a decade.

The period, 1979-99, was marked by instability and financial inadequacy in the management of the education sector. The economic downturn of the 1980s brought an end to the expansion of primary education after 1986. It also led to unpaid teachers' salaries, the degeneration of educational facilities at all levels, and strikes in schools and universities. One response to these problems was the establishment of a more centralised and uniform administration of primary education, headed by the National Primary Education Commission, in 1988. Following Nigeria's participation in the Jomtien Conference on Education For All in 1990, the Federal Government made a renewed commitment to adult literacy and introduced the concept of a 9-year basic education programme covering the primary and junior secondary levels.

The civilian administration which assumed office in 1999 quickly launched the Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme. It also initiated an education sector analysis (ESA) as a starting-point for long-term planning and reform. In order to increase the effectiveness of basic education and other social services, it has shown willingness to collaborate with civil society organisations and with international agencies. At higher levels in the system, the policy focus has been on quality control, on strengthening technical and vocational education, and on encouraging alternative modes of access to higher education.

Structure and Management of the Educational System

The legal framework of education in Nigeria is based on the current 1999 Constitution, together with relevant federal and state laws from the past. The constitution defines the nation's educational objectives and regulates the sharing of responsibilities for education among the three levels of government – federal, state and local. The major statutory responsibilities of the Federal Government in the education sector are ones of policy formulation, co-ordination and monitoring. In addition, the Federal Government has direct control of a large proportion of the universities and other tertiary institutions, and of a small number of secondary schools. Both Federal and State Governments are legally empowered to establish parastatals, through which some of their responsibilities are discharged, and these are widely used at the federal level.

State Governments control most secondary schools and a considerable proportion of the tertiary institutions. Local Governments have since 1976 been delegated responsibilities for the management of primary schools, under the guidance of higher levels of government. As a result of a Supreme Court ruling of 5th April 2002, the jurisdiction of the Federal Government with regard to primary education has ceased to cover special financing through first line charge allocation.

Early Childhood Education

Early childhood education is a critical part of overall human development. The National Policy on Education (NPE) defines the objectives of early childhood education to include a smooth transition from home to school and adequate care for children while their parents are at work. Government intervention at this level, however, is generally limited to setting standards, providing curriculum guidelines and training teachers while service delivery depends on the private sector. This situation effectively limits access to the minority of households that can afford the fees. The wider development of pre-primary classes attached to primary schools is suggested, in view of the cost effectiveness of such arrangements and the fact that they are already working well in some states. It is also proposed that indigenous cultural realities play a greater part in the curriculum.

Primary Education

The discussion of primary education in this report also covers nomadic and special education in the context of basic education. In 1999 the Obasanjo administration launched the present Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme, ahead of the Dakar 2000 framework on Education For All (EFA). The six EFA goals were later integrated into the UBE blueprint. There is mixed evidence about the progress so far of efforts to expand participation in primary education and to improve its outcomes. There is a shortage of qualified teachers and infrastructure, both of which combine to reduce the internal efficiency of the system. Public primary schools are managed and supervised by an established system of State Primary Education Boards and Local Government Education Authorities. However, a major task is to foster more effective participation by local communities in the management and maintenance of primary schools.

A special nomadic education programme is provided by the National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE) for the children of migrant herding and fishing communities. The programme has witnessed increased enrolment of nomadic children in schools and participation of adults in literacy courses. Special education for disabled and gifted children has not received prominence in the UBE programme. Records of student enrolment and completion are scanty and there are few programmes on the ground for mainstreaming the disabled. There are very few schools for gifted children. Attention has been given to the professional development of teachers for UBE, just as increased enrolment is pursued with vigour. Nigeria is however, still striving to make a positive mark on the international scorecard for its universal education programme.

Junior Secondary Education

The junior secondary education is the education received after primary education for a period of three years and is intended to be free and compulsory. The level of participation in junior secondary education has not been encouraging because of the low rate of transition from primary to junior secondary level. Junior secondary

education also shares school buildings and teaching staff with the senior secondary level. Both the completion and transition rates are encouraging even though most students transit to senior secondary rather than technical schools.

The curriculum is both academic and pre-vocational, providing opportunities for career choice. There is a shortage of teachers to handle the pre-vocational subjects, coupled with inadequate equipment. Management and supervision are a concurrent responsibility of the state and federal governments. Some private individuals and organisations also run and manage secondary schools. The challenges at this level include low enrolment of girls in the North and poor retention of boys in the South-East, both of which deserve special attention.

Senior Secondary Education

The senior secondary level includes both an academic curriculum provided in general secondary schools and other curricula provided in technical colleges and vocational centres, all intended for pupils who successfully complete junior secondary education. In practice, the proportion of such pupils who enter the vocational institutions is much lower than the target of 30% specified in the NPE. This is partly because pupils and their parents show a strong preference for the academic curriculum and partly because in some states sufficient places are not available in technical colleges.

An integrated approach to the curriculum has been adopted, with the intention of providing varied experiences capable of meeting the immediate and future needs of pupils. The implementation has, however, been criticised as being over-ambitious, resulting in subject overload, and insufficiently attuned to the needs of the labour market, particularly in the technical and vocational courses. Tasks such as the development of multi-cultural awareness and of skills in information technology have not been addressed adequately. The shortcomings in implementation are partly due to insufficient retraining and professional support for teachers. A high rate of failure in the science subjects reflects inadequate staffing and resources.

Adult and Non-Formal Education

The learning needs of the many young people who do not reach the senior secondary level widens the agenda of adult and non-formal education. Another factor contributing to the need for this type of education is the low level of achievement among school leavers. This report considers the implications of these problems for adult education delivery. The expansion of curriculum content, through the development of three non-formal curricula – for boys, girls and Qur’anic education – is acknowledged. The increase of enrolment in literacy classes to about 407,000 in 2002 has, however, not done much to improve Nigeria’s literacy rates of 57% for men and 49% for women. The open apprenticeship scheme is a strong link between non-formal education and the nation’s poverty eradication programme. Some innovative practices in adult education include applications of the REFLECT methodology and various integrated community development programmes.

Islamic Education

Islamic education is an important tradition both in the formal and in the non-formal delivery of education in Nigeria. Having its own curricula from the elementary to the university level, Islamic education is recognised as a system offering important academic qualities. The fact that a significant proportion of the population passes through the elementary level of the system makes it an important part of the public sector. The problems of the education offered through this system, however, include the restricted curriculum offering and limited training of the teachers. At the basic level, the curriculum needs to be integrated with the formal elements of secular education. Considerable progress has been made in this direction in some states.

Technology and Science Education

Another strand in the various levels of the educational system is technology and science education. Technology education includes pre-vocational education at the primary and junior secondary levels, vocational training in technical colleges and vocational centres, technical education in polytechnics and monotronics, and some professional education in universities. The approach to curriculum design in technology and science education is to integrate general education with professional studies in order to produce a knowledge-based work force. The limited effectiveness of technology and science education has been a result of its comparatively high costs, its demand for uncommon aptitudes, and the perceived higher social status of literary education. The government, however, is promoting both technology education and science education as instruments of national development that deserve priority. For this purpose, national master-plans have been drawn up and are being implemented.

Teacher Education

The gaps between policy provisions and the reality in practice are among the issues discussed in this report with reference to teacher education. These gaps are particularly obvious in teacher demand and supply and in the adoption of the Nigeria Certificate of Education (NCE) as the minimum qualification for teaching. Some states have surpluses of teachers in particular categories, while others have severe shortages. The number of applicants for pre-service teacher education has declined, and the low status of teaching is seen as a major contributory factor. Although there are increased opportunities for teacher upgrading, the need for teachers' classroom skills to be moulded towards teaching initial literacy and promoting active learning, especially at the primary level, is presented in this report as a challenge for teacher educators and policy-makers. Another problem is the quality of the in-service distance learning programmes and the lack of effective follow-up. At the university level, the threat of "brain drain" to the system is no less serious, but steps are being taken to enhance teaching skills at that level.

University Education

The function of universities is to promote higher learning and in so doing to produce the high-level manpower required for national development. Nigeria is adopting a three-stream system, in which the polytechnics and Colleges of Education become degree-awarding institutions and share with the universities the function of high-level manpower production: but the role of the universities remains central. The development of the universities has been conditioned by Nigeria's changing economic circumstances. Of great influence was the oil boom era, which encouraged tastes and levels of spending that the recessive economy cannot now sustain. This, together with rising social demand, is the background to the wreckage of the past glories of the universities and the present problems of unprofessional practices, examination malpractice and cultism. The government, while attempting to restore the quality of existing universities, has revived the National Open University in order to widen the opportunities for access. It is also part of current government policy to restore autonomy to universities.

Educational Finance

Education funding comes from many different sources, but the main one for all levels of government is public revenue from taxation. Public expenditure is reported to be distributed among the primary, secondary and tertiary education levels roughly in the proportions of 30%, 30% and 40%. The public funding for direct government expenditure includes payments from the Education Tax Fund (ETF), mainly for capital expenditures. The Federal Government's expenditure on education has in recent years been below 12% of its overall expenditure, the trend being largely downward.

Each level of education has at various times been a concurrent responsibility of both Federal and State Governments, although the Federal Government has been most heavily involved at the tertiary level. The increasing demands of education on public finances at a time when government revenues are stagnant or even falling requires either finding additional sources of financial support, reducing unit costs through greater efficiency, diverting resources from other lower priority uses, or some combination of such measures.

Another source of financial and other assistance to education in Nigeria is the international donor agencies, both multilateral and bilateral. Of the assistance provided by these agencies over the past decade, that of the World Bank, which is specifically a lending institution, has been quantitatively the most significant. The efforts of the U.N. agencies and the bilateral agencies have focused on capacity building, technical assistance, experimental initiatives and research.

Education and Employment

An important function of education is to produce skills for gainful employment, and every level of the formal educational system makes a contribution to the labour

force. Millions leave school every year to enter the labour market. Many of these young people become unemployed for some time: the level of unemployment was estimated to be 12.7% in 2002. A further problem is that of mismatch between the skills with which students graduate from tertiary institutions and those required for the healthy development of the economy. Efforts are being made to maintain constant consultation between the various stakeholders in manpower production. The government has also identified seven “economic impact areas” for high-level manpower production over the next five years. These areas are petroleum, gas, agriculture, manufacturing, solid minerals, tourism and ICT.

Achievements, Critical Issues and Challenges

The last chapter of this report reflects on the achievements and initiatives of the present administration and highlights the challenges that remain in each sub-sector. The significant achievements include the successful launching of the UBE scheme and the establishment of the EFA unit. In the area of early childhood education, it is suggested that government endorsement of the Dakar goals entails an obligation to give more leadership. Despite commendable rehabilitation efforts that have taken place in the primary and secondary sub-sectors, major challenges that remain are to improve on the current levels of participation, especially those of girls. In the area of technology and science education, the steps taken to refocus policy now call for systematic and committed implementation of policy. In higher education, the challenges of cultism and examination malpractice, if not seriously addressed, could mar the efforts to modernise and to enhance quality and access.

In discussing such pervasive issues as teacher supply, quality assurance, HIV/AIDS, management, funding and the building of partnerships, this chapter highlights the areas that are most troubling in education. The imbalance in teacher demand and supply, across states and subject specialisations, remains a difficult issue. To enhance the quality of education, the FIS must be empowered to play a more proactive role. The government will need to build partnerships with various communities and organisations, including book publishers, in order to make an impact. The threat of HIV/AIDS must be addressed in the education sector before it reaches a crisis point.

Other challenges that are highlighted are those of training educational administrators as better human resource managers and of bringing disadvantaged groups into the mainstream of education delivery. The lack of coherence between educational output and the skills needed by the national economy is also presented as an important problem in the search for an education that is meaningful and relevant.

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE TEXT

AIDS	Acquired Immune-Deficiency Syndrome
B.Ed.	Bachelor of Education
CAPMM	Catchment Area-based Planning Management and Monitoring
CBN	Central Bank of Nigeria
CBO	Community-Based Organisations
CEA	Comprehensive Education Analysis
CISP	Computer In School Programme
COE	College of Education
COREN	Council for Regulation of Engineering in Nigeria
CRC	Child Right Convention
DFID	Department for International Development (UK)
DLS	Distance Learning System
DPRS	Department of Planning, Research and Statistics
EDB	Education Data Bank
EFA	Education For All
EFAGMR	EFA Global Monitoring Report
ESA	Education Sector Analysis
ESSR	Education Sector Status Report
ETF	Education Tax Fund
EMIS	Education Management Information System
FGN	Federal Government of Nigeria
FIS	Federal Inspectorate Service
FFAC	Finance Fiscal Allocation Committee
FME	Federal Ministry of Education
FMF	Federal Ministry of Finance
FOS	Federal Office of Statistics
FRN	Federal Republic of Nigeria
GCE	General Certificate of Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GIR	Gross Intake Rate
GNP	Gross National Product
HIS	Higher Islamic Studies
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HMSO	His/Her Majesty's Stationery Office
HND	Higher National Diploma
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning
IJAMB	Interim Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ISI	Import Substitution Industrialisation
JAMB	Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board
JCCE	Joint Consultative Committee on Education
JICA	Japanese International Co- operation Agency

JSCE	Junior Secondary Certificate Examination
JSE	Junior Secondary Education
JSS	Junior Secondary School
LGEA	Local Government Education Authority
M.Ed.	Master of Education
MHDR	Millennium Human Development Report
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys
MLA	Monitoring of Learning Achievement
NABTEB	National Business & Technical Examinations Board
NALV	Nigerian Arabic Language Village
NAPEP	National Poverty Eradication Programme
NAR	Net Attendance Ratio
NBTE	National Board for Technical Education
NCCE	National Commission for Colleges Of Education
NCE	National Council on Education
NCE	Nigeria Certificate of Education
NCNE	National Commission for Nomadic Education
NCP	National Commission for Polytechnics
ND	National Diploma
NDE	National Directorate of Employment
NDHS	Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey
NECO	National Examinations Council
NERDC	Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council
NETC	National Educational Technology Centre
NFLV	Nigeria-French Language Village
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NIEPA	National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration
NINLAN	National Institute for Nigerian Languages
NISER	National Institute for Social and Economic Research
NMB	National Manpower Board
NMEC	National Mass Education Commission (National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-Formal Education)
NNCAE	Nigerian National Council on Adult Education
NOAS	National Open Apprenticeship Scheme
NOUN	National Open University of Nigeria
NPC	National Population Commission
NPEC	National Primary Education Commission
NPOM	National Productivity Order of Merit
NTI	National Teachers Institute
NUC	National Universities Commission
OAU	Obafemi Awolowo University
ODL	Open and Distance Learning
PES	Primary Education Studies
PRS	Planning, Research and Statistics
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Programme
PSMB	Primary Schools Management Board
PTTP	Pivotal Teacher Training Programme
REFLECT	Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowering Community Techniques
SAA	Situation Assessment and Analysis

SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SAPA	Situation and Policy Analysis
SME	Small and Medium Scale Enterprises
SMEC	State Mass Education Commission
SMOE	State Ministries of Education
SPEB	State Primary Education Board
SSCE	Senior Secondary Certificate Examination
SSE	Senior Secondary Education
STM	Science, Technology & Mathematics
STVE	Science, Technology & Vocational Education
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
TSE	Technology & Science Education
TVE	Technical Vocational Education
TVET	Technical & Vocational Education and Training
UBE	Universal Basic Education
UBEC	Universal Basic Education Commission
UK	United Kingdom
UME/DE	University Matriculation Examination/Direct Entry
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UPE	Universal Primary Education
VAT	Value Added Tax
WAEC	West African Examinations Council

CHAPTER ONE

CONTEXT AND BACKGROUND

History and Political Structure

Nigeria is situated on the western coast of Africa, lying between latitudes 4⁰ and 14⁰ North and between longitudes 3⁰ and 15⁰ East. With a surface area of 923,764 square kilometres, it has borders with Cameroun to the East, Niger and Chad to the North and Benin to the West. To the South it has 800 kilometres of Atlantic coastline along the Gulf of Guinea.

Before the arrival of colonial adventurers on the shores of Nigeria in 1849, different ethnic groups living in different city-states and empires had inhabited the present-day Nigeria. The Hausa, whose language dates from 1000-1500 A.D, inhabited the North. In the South were the Yoruba people who organised themselves into empires in the 16th century. The Binis occupied part of the South as early as 900 A.D., while the Igbo, found east of the Niger, settled around the 16th century (FME, 2002 a).

The formation of Nigeria as a colonial entity could be traced to about 1849 when the British first made a transformational impact on the people and culture of the Niger-Benue area (Afigbo and Uyo, 2000). The process was formally completed in 1914, with the amalgamation of the Protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria as one territory with Lagos as its capital. After 1914, however, the two former protectorates continued to have distinct systems of administration.

Before the advent of Western education in the 19th century, there were two forms of education in Nigeria: the indigenous/traditional education and the Islamic education. The indigenous education consisted of general training in character, social, physical, intellectual and vocational development. Its hallmark lay in the preservation of societal culture, values and norms. Islamic education came in the 11th century to Hausaland and Borno. It received a boost from the Jihad of Usman Dan Fodio in the 19th century, which consolidated Islamic studies in all the established emirates in the country. Teaching was done in Arabic, the language of the Qur'an. Many of the higher schools, or madrasas, produced scholars in legal and administrative disciplines. Western education on the other hand came into the country in the 19th century with the introduction of the Christian religion by the European missionaries from 1842. Many mission schools were subsequently established with a curriculum in literacy and numeracy. The products of the schools served as Catechists or as administrative clerks to the colonial rulers. It is instructive to note that the missionaries were able to convert the predominantly pagan South to Christianity with subsequent introduction of Western education; a move that was resisted by the predominantly Muslim North. This resistance in part, accounted for the educational imbalance between the North and the South.

Nigeria gained independence from the British colonial rulers on October 1, 1960 as a federation with three regions (Eastern, Western and Northern), to which a fourth region, the Mid-Western, was added in 1963. Between 1967 and 1970, Nigeria experienced a bloody civil war during which the Eastern Region attempted to secede from the federation. The civil war remained a watershed in the history of Nigeria, as it ushered in a long period of military rule. The latter has occupied thirty of the forty-two years of independence, 1966-79 and 1984-99. The First and Second Republics, 1960-66 and 1979-83, were aborted through military coups. However, after a series of struggles by pro-democracy activists and international pressure in favour of civilian rule, the Third Republic emerged on May 29, 1999, following the election of a new President for a four-year term of office.

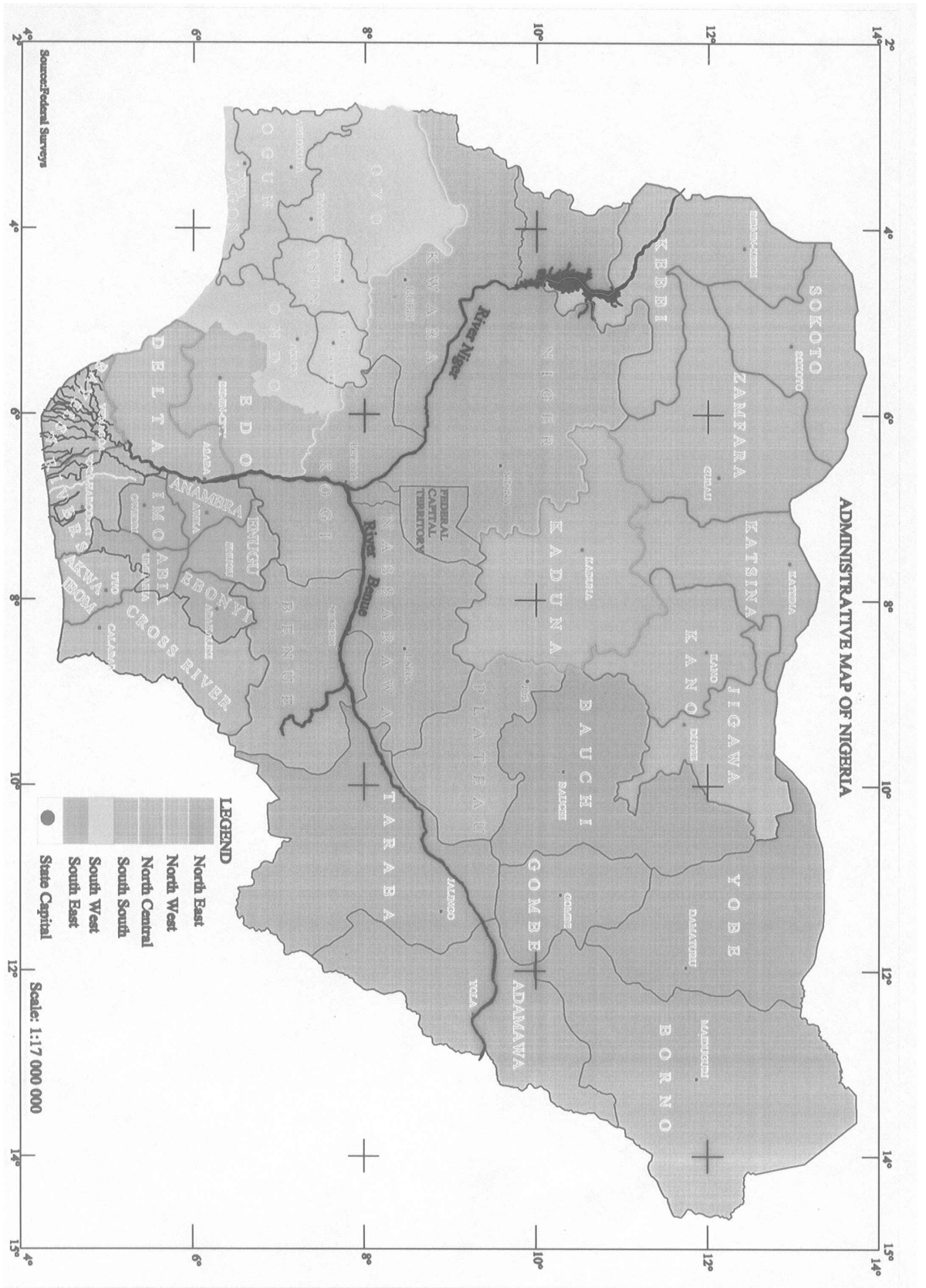
Nigeria has three tiers of government, the Federal, State and Local Governments, and each tier has three arms – the executive, legislature and judiciary. The federal executive consists of the President, Vice President and Council of Ministers. The federal legislature consists of two elected chambers: a Senate with 109 members and House of Representatives with 360 members. The Chief Justice of the Federation heads a Supreme Court. The relations between the different tiers of government are defined by the 1999 Constitution. Aspects of those relations that are relevant to education will be discussed in Chapter Three.

It is noteworthy that the state structure has changed over the years, from 3 regions in 1960 to the 12 states structure in 1967, 19 states in 1976, 21 states in 1987, 30 states in 1991 and 36 states in 1996, with a Federal Capital Territory located in Abuja. All the 36 states have been grouped into six geo-political zones as a way of addressing ethnic minority issues and giving every one a sense of belonging. The zones are: North-east, North-west, North-central; and South-east, South-west and South-south. Within the states, there are 774 Local Government Areas. The map on the next page shows the zones and states.

Geography

Nigeria is blessed with a wide variety of relief features, starting from the upland of Jos Plateau 600m-1300m above sea level to the North central and eastern highland of Adamawa. In the coastal areas is the lowland of less than 20m, which extends up to 60km inland from the shoreline. Covering an average distance of about 1,120km from south to north, Nigeria displays physiographic regions of varying characters in relief, climate, vegetation and settlement patterns (Asangwe, 2000).

The location of Nigeria north of the equator causes it to enjoy a humid tropical climate. There are two marked seasons; the wet and dry season. In the Southern part of the country, the long rainy season lasts from March to end of July and from early September to Mid-October while the dry season starts from late October to early March. In the northern part of the country, the short wet season covers from June to September while the long dry season extends from October to Mid-May.



The vegetation belts are of two main types: the forest and the savannah. The forest region consists of saline water swamp; the freshwater swamp; and the tropical evergreen rainforest. The saline water swamp is found in Badagry and Lekki Peninsular of about 1.5 km. to over 30 km. width in Sapele area. The fresh water swamp stretches from west to east covering parts of Ogun, Benin, Imo, Niger Delta and Cross River. The tropical evergreen forest stretches from the western border of Nigeria with Benin Republic through a narrow stretch on the Niger-Benue River System. The savannah vegetation consists of 3 types. Guinea savannah is the most extensive vegetation covering the middle part of the country. It extends from Ondo, Edo, Anambra and Enugu states in the south through Oyo to beyond Zaria in Kaduna state. The Sudan savannah stretches from the Sokoto plains to the entire north-eastern part. The Sahel savannah is found in the extreme North-East, close to the Lake Chad region.

Society and Culture

There are some 350 languages and ethnic groups in Nigeria. These groups are distinguishable by geographical location, language, mode of dress, food, system of marriage and family organisation: but there is some overlap in language and organisational forms. The members of each ethnic group share common identity, beliefs, and tradition and often look to the group for mutual assistance and defence. Despite the uniqueness of each ethnic group, the cultural diversity in the country has remained a source of strength and unity. As a result of increased social interaction, the Nigerians of today share one another's ethnic cultural practices.

Nigeria upholds the culture of hospitality and respect for parents, elders and traditional institutions. Traditional family units are essentially patriarchal, with little regard for women in decision-making. Traditional culture also favours the male child and is one of the reasons why boys enjoy more educational opportunities than girls in most parts of the country. Data from the National Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS) show that Nigerian men have, on average, had three more years of schooling than their female counterparts. Furthermore, the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (FOS and UNICEF, 1999) shows that illiteracy rates are much higher for women, 59% compared with 42% for men (NPC/UNICEF, 2001)

There are three major ethnic groups. These are the Hausa/Fulani to the North, the Igbo, found in the South-east, and the Yoruba, found in the South-west. While English language is the adopted lingua franca, other languages used in literary works in the country include Hausa, Igbo, Yoruba, Edo, Urhobo, Igala, Efik, Tiv, Ibibio, Izon, Kanura, Fulfulde and Nupe. The two dominant religions are Christianity and Islam. The NDHS of 1999 reports that about 45% of the Nigerian population is Muslim and 53% is Christian, while less than 2% belongs to the traditional African religions. (NPC/UNICEF, 2001). Religion has affected many aspects of culture, including approaches to education. Islam religion penetrated the country from the 11th century A.D. and established its own educational and judicial institutions mainly in the North. Christianity, which spread in the South after 1842 as a result of missionary efforts, was for a long time closely associated with the spread of formal education. Both major religions have contributed in important ways to the present educational system in Nigeria.

Demography

The 1991 Population Census, considered to be more reliable than previous censuses and relatively useful for planning purposes, recorded Nigeria's population as 88,992,220. Of this figure, children below 18 years make up approximately 51%. A "median variant" population projection for 2000 put Nigerian children at about 59 million, of which just over 20 million were under 5 years old (NPC/UNICEF, 2001). The large proportion of children in the population presents a big challenge to government in the provision of basic health and education facilities. The maternal and infant mortality rates remain 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 (CBN 2001).

In Nigeria, population figures are regarded as crucial determinants of major decisions about power sharing and resource allocation. 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 rate of growth 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 and 6.1 for women without education. In the same vein, urban highest 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).

The spatial distribution of the population is uneven: a feature considered to be one of the country's problems. The 1991 census put the national density at 96 persons per square kilometre. Population densities in different parts of the country range from 50 persons per square kilometre to over 1000. Areas with high densities, such as the South-east, the South-west and core areas of Kano, Katsina, Sokoto and Zamfara states, experience population pressures on land resources, surface water and fuel wood (Ottong, 2000).

The age distribution in the 1991 census further showed the proportion of adults (60 years and above) as a mere 3.3% while those under 15 years formed about 45% of the population. There is a high child dependency ratio, of 1:1, which imposes considerable strain on the economy at both family and national levels. This strain is all the greater because of the literacy rate, found by the census to be 57%. Females account for 40% of literate persons overall. Among the lower age group, sex differential in literacy level is substantially narrow as a result of increased efforts in female education in the last three decades. The Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme, launched in 1999, is expected to improve further the overall literacy level among the population.

Economy

At the time of independence, agriculture remained the mainstay of the Nigerian economy, accounting for about 65% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and 70% of exports. It provided the foreign exchange used to import raw materials and capital goods (Ekpo and Umoh, 2000). Cash crops such as cocoa, palm kernel, cotton, groundnuts and rubber, as well as minerals like tin, coal and bauxite, were exported to the industrialised countries. Through an “import substitution industrialisation” strategy (1960-70), the few local industries were protected and allowed to grow. There were low rates of inflation and unemployment. As from the mid-50s oil was discovered in commercial quantity in Nigeria and by the 1970s it constituted 90% of foreign exchange earnings and about 85% of total exports.

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 total revenue. The real annual growth in GDP rose from 3.8% in 2000 to 3.9% in 2001. However, growth in the manufacturing sector has been hampered by irregular supply of petroleum products and intermittent power supply to the sector. The country’s external reserves stood at US \$10.45 billion, while the fiscal balance indicated a deficit of N221.1 billion or 4.0% of GDP.

The total external debt outstanding as at December 2001 amounted to US \$28.4 billion out of which a total of US \$331.8 million (N31.2 billion) has been redeemed by government in the last five years. Government has embarked on privatisation of some major corporations to attract in-flow of foreign direct investment. This has not translated into economic fortune as unemployment level still remained high. Also the persistent depreciation of the Naira vis-à-vis other major currencies since 1995 has affected the tone of business in the country. For example, the average selling rate in 2000 depreciated from N102.10 to N111.96 in 2001. In the parallel market, the Naira exchanged at N132.59 for US \$1.00.

The subsequent decline in national revenue from oil, and other unfavourable economic conditions, in the period 1978–1986 brought about high inflation, high unemployment, fiscal imbalance and an increase in external borrowing. Many recent gains in education were reversed. In 1986 the Federal Government introduced a Structural Adjustment Programme to bring the economy back to the path of steady and sustainable growth. The effect of SAP was remarkable to the extent that it brought about higher rates of economic growth. These averaged 5.4% a year in 1987–1992 compared with 1.8% a year in 1981-86. Despite the relatively high growth rate, the proportion of the population in extreme poverty rose from 12% to 14%. Low revenues and incomes and high rates of unemployment adversely affected enrolment, retention and achievement at all levels of education.

At the inception of the new civilian administration in 1999, however, there were determined plans, as contained in the “Economic Policy of Government, 2000”, to bring the economy back on track. The rate of inflation has been brought to 11% from 14.8% in 2002. The government has also put in place a Poverty Reduction Programme. To reduce the dependence on oil, government has intervened to promote liquefied natural gas production, aluminium smelting and production of bitumen as foreign exchange earners.

CHAPTER TWO

EVOLVING EDUCATIONAL POLICIES AND PRIORITIES

Introduction

Successive governments in Nigeria have used education as a vehicle for social, cultural, political, economic and technological development of the nation. The type of policies evolved to achieve its priorities reflects the character of each administration. The Federal Ministry of Education is statutorily responsible for formulating a National Policy on Education, which guides the nation in pursuit of its educational goals. The Nigerian educational system has witnessed tremendous changes occasioned by the need to develop human and institutional capacities to meet local and global challenges, promote national integration and self-reliance and forge international co-operation. The policy of regionalisation in the 1951 McPherson Constitution allowed each of the three regions, East, North and West, a measure of autonomy. The policy was consolidated in 1954 when Nigeria became a federation with each region enacting different educational laws. This arrangement continued till October 1, 1960 when Nigeria attained independence.

Challenges at Independence

The educational problems confronting Nigeria at independence were manifold and included the following:

- Regional imbalances in educational access and attainment;
- Inadequate high-level manpower;
- Low level capacity of secondary education;
- A school curriculum lacking in science and technology and regarded as bookish;
- Inadequate provision at tertiary level;
- Fragmented education management;
- Few specialized professional and support services;
- Shortage of qualified primary and secondary school teachers;
- Lack of qualified teachers in technical education;
- Lack of a truly national education policy.

The lack of uniformity in the educational system was evident right from the primary school level. Primary education varied from 6 to 8 years. The Western Region had launched a Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme in 1955 followed by the Eastern Region and Lagos in 1957. The Northern Region, where education was almost free, engaged in expansion and development of literacy in the rural areas. There was disparity between the North and the South in educational provision. Voluntary agencies, private proprietors and local communities owned schools and co-operated with the government in the management and provision of educational facilities. As some schools were assisted by the government, the level of school fees varied. There was keen competition among the various schools.

Secondary education, which is the reservoir for recruitment of high-level manpower training, was in high demand. However it was offered in different forms such as Secondary Grammar Schools, Secondary Modern Schools (of 3 years only in the West), Secondary Commercial Colleges; High Schools and Comprehensive High Schools. The curriculum varied in all schools. Science and technology were not taught in some schools, while there were no funds to provide science laboratories and equipment. Another common problem was the shortage of graduate teachers leading to employment of expatriate contract teachers at high cost and dependence on volunteer teachers from abroad.

Technical and vocational education was at a low ebb. Whereas technical education was required in an emerging nation for the production of skilled manpower for marine, railway and works departments, the technical curriculum at school level was limited to the production of craftsmen and artisans. Farm produce was exported to industrialised countries and there was a need to train technical personnel for raw material processing. Teacher training institutions were very few and far between. In 1963, there were 15,967 Grade II primary school teachers out of a staff strength of 94,176 (Taiwo, 1980). Provision of higher education, particularly university education, was grossly inadequate in relation to requirements. University College Ibadan (now University of Ibadan) took over from Yaba Higher College in 1948 and remained the only University till 1960 with the tasks of meeting the manpower needs of the nation. The intake of undergraduates was very low, with first enrolment of 104 students including 3 only females (Taiwo, 1980). Another problem was the strictly “metropolitan” curriculum at Ibadan, not yet adapted to the African environment.

The Post Independence Period, 1960 – 1966

The educational policies and programmes enunciated by the different regional governments were carried over to independence and beyond. The UPE programmes that commenced in the West and Lagos in 1955 and 1957 respectively were pursued until 1976. The same programme embarked on in the East in 1957 was modified into 3 years of fee-paying and another 3 years of non-fee paying school attendance until 1966. The segregation of primary education into junior and senior primary in the North was cancelled, while the length of primary education was reduced to 6 years. Although the UPE programmes witnessed an explosion in enrolment, they were later beset with problems of low funding, inadequate and low quality of teachers and lack of co-operation from the local communities.

In the secondary education sub-sector, enrolment rose from 135,434 in 1960 to 211,879 in 1963 (Taiwo, 1980). The 3 years secondary modern school of the West and Mid-West became unpopular and was phased out. The Secondary Grammar Schools were more popular and highly rated compared to the privately-owned Commercial Colleges. At the end of the fifth year, the West African Examinations Council (WAEC), established in 1951, conducted an external examination for the students in Grammar Schools while those in Commercial Colleges sat for the Royal Society of Arts (RSA) of London certificate examination. Except in the government colleges, the sixth form programme (Higher School Certificate) no longer enjoyed patronage as candidates could enter higher institutions at secondary school certificate level. To demonstrate its desire to use education for national integration, government in 1966 established the first set of Federal Government colleges at Sokoto, Warri and Okposi (later moved to Enugu in 1974). In addition to Queen's College (1927) and King's College (1909), the colleges were designed and operated as centres of unity and excellence, with adequate provision of staff and facilities. The main problem of secondary education at this time was insufficient graduate teachers to improve the quality of teaching/learning.

On another plane, there was rapid expansion in technical and vocational education. In 1966, there were about 73 institutions (Trade Centres, Craft Schools, and Technical Institutes) across the country, with pupil enrolment of 15,509 out of which 1,412 were females (Adesola, 2002). Like the secondary education sub-sector, shortage of technical instructors and high running costs were then as now the bane of technical education programmes.

A major achievement at this time was the phasing out of the Grade III teachers programme while the six Advanced Teachers Colleges, established in 1962, ran the Nigeria Certificate of Education (NCE) courses. The NCE programme was designed to produce teachers for the lower forms of secondary education, a policy that has remained in force up to the present day. With little modification to the Ashby Commission's Recommendations of 1960, Government converted the three existing Nigerian Colleges of Arts, Science and Technology at Ibadan, Zaria and Enugu into regional universities in 1962 as University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University), Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and the University of Nigeria, Enugu campus. The University of Lagos was established in the same year. The University of Nigeria, Nsukka was however established in 1960.

The Period of Oil Boom and Expansion 1966 –1979

The period 1966 to 1979 brought about the centralisation of education policies. The civil war between July 6, 1967 and January 15, 1970 had a devastating effect in the East, where many schools were destroyed and households became impoverished. In assuaging the effects of the war, federal government embarked on a policy of reconciliation, reconstruction and rehabilitation. With the creation of twelve states in 1967 and additional seven states in 1976, government engaged in rapid expansion of educational institutions with the objective of improving wider access to education at all levels. Gross Domestic Product (GDP) grew positively by 6.2% annually between 1970 and 1978 while oil accounted for almost 90% of foreign exchange earnings and 85% of total exports (Ekpo, et al. 2000). This wealth impacted positively on the educational system in many ways. The Udoji Salary Review Commission 1975, went

a long way to improve the lot of teachers and attracted many graduates to the teaching profession just as government took over the financing of teacher education. With the establishment of the University of Benin in 1970, five more universities were added in 1975 and six polytechnics between 1977 and 1979. In 1977 the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) was established to streamline admission polices into Nigerian Universities. The Federal Government also took-over all private and mission schools, thereby bringing uniformity to the educational system in the country. It also established more institutions such as 13 Advanced Teachers Colleges, 3 Grade 1 Teachers Colleges; 35 Federal Government Colleges and Girls' Colleges and 3 Federal Schools of Arts and Science (FRN, 1990). These institutional expansions resulted in increased enrolment levels. For example between 1970 and 1973 primary schools enrolment increased from 3,515,827 to 4,746,808; secondary schools from 310,054 to 448,904; secondary technical and vocational schools from 13,645 to 22,588; teacher training from 32,314 to 46,951 and Universities from 14,502 to 23,173 (Taiwo, 1980). This process of expansion and unification called for control of the quality of education. The Federal Inspectorate Service (FIS) was therefore established as an autonomous body in 1973 with branches in all the states (FME, 2002 b). It had the responsibility for quality control of all educational institutions below the tertiary level (FRN, 1998).

The introduction of the national UPE programme aimed at improving access to school by providing free primary education for all children. This attempt at a UPE programme nationally also ran into difficulties. There were 6 million children enrolled in 1976 (as against a projected 2.3 million) and this figure doubled to 12 million in 1980. Above all, the decline in oil revenue forced the economy into recession with little financial provision to education to address shortage of qualified teachers, classrooms and infrastructure needed for the programme.

The National Curriculum Conference of 1969 tackled the issue of a national curriculum. The conference, which was put together by Nigeria Educational Research Council, evolved a national philosophy of education and means of controlling public education in the country. The report of the conference also led to the adoption of the National Policy on Education (NPE) first published in 1977 and later revised in 1981 and 1998. The important features of the policy were its outline of a philosophy for Nigerian education; promotion of the teaching of Nigerian languages; introduction of guidance and counselling in schools; diversified curriculum with pre-vocational and vocational/technical subjects and a 6-3-3-4 educational structure for the country. This new structure provides for 6 years primary education, 3 years junior secondary and 3 years senior secondary education and 4 years tertiary education. The NPE also embraced pre-primary education, adult and non-formal education and special education, especially children with disabilities. With the firm adoption of the UBE policy (pre-Dakar), the 6-3-3-4 structure is expected to metamorphose into a 9-3-4 structure.

Meanwhile, there is no strong legal framework to ensure implementation of the National Policy on Education. Nwana notes that in the early 80s and 90s, many higher institutions in the country abused the policy by extending the duration of secondary education through the establishment of school of basic studies and remedial studies of 1-2yrs duration. (Nwana, 2000). Some private institutions also run Advanced Level General Certificate of Education (GCE A/L) programmes as

qualification for foreign and local university admission. If the practice is acceptable as avenue for grade improvement, appropriate provision and amendment should be made to the policy.

Period of Austerity 1979 to 1999

The period from 1979 to 1999 could be described as one of instability and financial inadequacy in the educational sector in Nigeria (Ocho, 1995; Nwagwu, 1998). A new civilian administration was established in 1979 with a constitution that provided for education under the concurrent legislative list. This provision is similar to Schedule II Item L of the 1999 constitution, whereby both the National and State Assemblies can make laws on education. There was rapid expansion in education but this was short-lived. The economic depression of the 1980s brought a sharp decline to resources allocated to education. Government could no longer fund education adequately and this led parents to seek for alternatives in private schools which sprang up at all levels. In the primary education sub-sector, the gross enrolment ratio (GER), which had increased from 32% in 1965 and 40% in 1975/76 to 93% in 1982/83, declined to around 78% in 1990 (World Bank, 1994). Also per student expenditure declined considerably within the same period.

A series of strike actions embarked upon by teachers due to several months of unpaid salaries just as the Government withdrew from financing primary education in 1981 and transferred its management to state and local government levels. However, the Federal Government came to the rescue in 1988 by establishing the National Primary Education Commission (NPEC) to cater for the management, policy and allocation of funds to the primary education sub-sector. Although dissolved in 1991, NPEC was again re-established in 1993. The State Primary Education Boards (SPEBs), and local Government Education Authorities (LGEAs), were additional structures put in place for the management and disbursement of funds received from NPEC.

The products of the 1976 UPE gradually transited into Junior Secondary One in twelve states in 1982, while the remaining states completed transition in 1984 (5 states) and 1985 (2 states). A spate of policy somersaults began when another military regime in 1984 abolished all existing private institutions and prohibited the opening of new ones via Decree No. 14 of 1984. The government guaranteed uniformity in the education system by establishing the Education (National Minimum Standard and Establishment of Institutions) Amendment Decree. This decree modifies the first published in 1985 (Decree No. 12) and empowers the National Universities Commission (NUC) to assess and accredit academic programmes. Like the NUC, other relevant bodies such as National Council for Colleges of Education (NCCE) and National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) were set up through enabling decrees. Yoloye describes the functions of the three bodies as those of assisting to plan, organise, manage, fund, supervise and monitor the provision and development of university education, teacher education and technical and technological education and institutions respectively (FME, 2002a). As the government grappled with the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in 1986 to bring the economy back on track, most of the schools managed by government started

to experience progressive deterioration of facilities and declining standard due to poor funding, management and supervision.

Some changes and innovations were introduced into the education policy from 1990 to 1992 after Nigeria adopted the “World Declaration on Education for All” and endorsed the Jomtien “Framework for Action to meet Basic Learning Needs”. Subsequently, the National Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education Commission was established via Decree 17 of 1990 to develop strategies for co-ordinating, monitoring and promoting literacy and post-literacy programmes nationwide. The National Commission for Nomadic Education was similarly established via NCNE Act Cap 243, laws of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1990 to cater for the education of the nomads and migrant fishermen. The Jomtien goal of Education for All was further addressed with the introduction of a nine-year Basic Education programme in 1992 for children between ages 6 to 15. The programme aimed at universalising access to education, removing gender inequality and ensuring retention in schools. This laudable programme did not achieve the desired objectives during the 1990s.

Meanwhile, there were steady increases in the number and enrolment in the tertiary institutions. Okebukola records a total of 37 universities and 62 colleges of Education in 1996 with student population of 234,581 and 80,000 respectively, while the polytechnics and Colleges of Technology numbering 41 in 1998 had student population of 78,102 (Okebukola, 2000). The high demand, and poor funding caused many problems for the university system. While some lecturers left the country for greener pastures, others put pressure on government for improved welfare package and upgrading of facilities. This has resulted in endless strike actions. Nwana recalls the cancellation of the entire 1993/94 academic year for lack of effective teaching/learning (Nwana, 2000). Thus far, the state of education up to 1999 remained unstable, depressed and required urgent diagnosis and remedy.

Educational Developments in Nigeria from 1999 to 2003.

The administration of President Olusegun Obasanjo that was sworn-in on 29th May, 1999 inherited an education system on the verge of collapse. This much the President admitted during his address at the World Education Forum, Dakar, 27th April 2000, when he said: “In Nigeria, our administration is fully conscious of the decline of our educational standards and the decay of the whole system within the last couple of decades. Our educational system is as it stands a living proof of the damages that bad governance can do to our society and social structure”. (FME 2000). At the inception of the administration, a number of approaches were adopted, involving a wide range consultation with stakeholders for viable strategies for the attainment of educational goals. Some of these approaches include:

- Mini-summit on Universal Basic Education (Nov. 29th-Dec. 1st, 1999) to canvass support of all stakeholders and international communities in the review of UBE blueprint and facilitate smooth implementation of the programme.

- FME-Donor Agency Co-ordination Meeting (18th-20th April, 2000), to acquaint the international community, especially the donor agencies with the policy thrust and priority programmes of the government in the education sector.
- National stakeholders Consultation on Education (30th-1st August, 2000), for diagnosing and charting a new course for a socially responsive education programme.
- National Workshop on Distance Education in Nigeria. (27th-9th September, 2000), in collaboration with Commonwealth of Learning, Vancouver, UNESCO and UNICEF, aimed at repositioning the relevance of distance education as a cost-effective alternative in improving access to basic education.
- National Seminar on Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) (31st October-2nd November 2000), to produce a blueprint for revamping and repositioning technical and vocational education in the country.
- National Education for All (EFA) Forum in collaboration with UNESCO, UNICEF and the Education Tax Fund (July 29-August 1st, 2001), aimed at developing a comprehensive National EFA Action Plan and ensuring success of EFA goals.
- Inauguration of National Implementation Committee on Computer In Schools (CISP) (January 18th, 2002), to lay foundation for ICT delivery at the basic education level.
- National Stakeholders Workshop on Education Sector Analysis (17th-20th February 2002) in collaboration with UNESCO, to draw wider participation and foster clearer understanding of ESA process.
- National Summit on Higher Education, (11th-15th March, 2002), aimed at repositioning higher education in the country.
- Forum on Cost and Financing of Education In Nigeria. (18th-19th September, 2002) to provide avenue for stakeholders to discuss issues of education cost and financing.
- High Level Group (HLG) meeting on Education for All (EFA), (18th -20th November, 2002), organised by UNESCO to review progress on EFA.

The first policy thrust of the new administration was the Universal Basic Education (UBE) Programme which it launched on September 30th, 1999 in Sokoto. In launching the programme, the President in his speech admitted that the UBE is an ambitious and very costly programme, but assured that funds would be made available for properly equipping the schools (FME, 2000). Since the launch of UBE in 1999, more students have been enrolled. About 17.9 million children were enrolled

in primary schools in 1999. This increased to 19.2 million in 2000 and 19.4 million in 2001 (FME Baseline Survey data).

In order to produce additional teachers for the UBE programme, the National Teachers Institute (NTI) organised the Pivotal Teacher Training Programmes (PTTP) through its Distance Learning System (DLS). About 300, 000 teachers have been produced. Teachers throughout the country are now better motivated through improved salaries. To arrest the dearth and uneven distribution of teachers in certain localities or states, the government has introduced a two-year service in a Teachers' Corps programme. The programme will deploy teachers to any part of the country. It is also aimed cementing ethnic ties and encouraging distribution of teachers to greater areas of need.

Another area of concern to the present administration is technical and vocational education, which has been reviewed to make the programme attractive to parents and students. As a first step, the federal technical colleges have been converted to federal science and technical colleges. They offer a 6-year programme cycle: a 3-year junior cycle for primary school certificate holders; a 3-year senior technical and senior science cycle for the product of the JS, and a 1-year-post secondary advanced technical cycle after a two-year industrial experience. The aim is to produce a skilled and competent work-force to support the economy.

Again with the support of UNESCO, government is revising the curricula programme. NBTE is making efforts to enable polytechnics attain the 70:30 ratio in favour of production-based programme as distinct from service-based programmes. In terms of quality control of education, the Inspectorate Service has been given a boost by investing heavily in the provision of working tools, revision and production of training manuals and intensive training and retraining of inspectors which commenced in year 2000. With the assistance of UNESCO and DFID, the Education Sector Analysis (ESA) is undertaking a thorough review of Federal Inspectorate Services (FIS) in order to reposition it.

In the higher education sub-sector the problems of access, quality, funding and management have been confronted. The three regulatory bodies on higher education, NUC, NCCE and NBTE, have been vigilant in quality assurance. All illegal satellite campuses have been banned in order to sustain the quality of education at that level. In exercising their constitutional rights private organisations sought for and obtained approval to run private universities. The present administration approved 4 private universities (one on July 31st, 2001, and three on February 12, 2002) in addition to the earlier 3, of May 10th, 1999 making a total of 47 universities. The Virtual Library Project launched in February, 2002, was meant to rejuvenate Nigerian universities through the provision of current books, journals, and other information resources using digital technology. It will also enhance scholarship, research and lifelong learning through the establishment of permanent access to shared digital archival collections.

Promotion of access to higher education has encouraged government to embark on the National Open and Distance Learning Programme (ODL). This was done through the revival of the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN), which will open study centres in each state capital. NOUN is expected to cater for the higher

education needs of about 200,000 students by the end of 2003. Government has also resuscitated the Federal Government Scholarship Award for studies in Nigeria and overseas 12,000 students benefited from the award in 2002. As the spread of HIV/AIDS became rampant, government established the HIV/AIDS unit in the Ministry in April, 2002 with the responsibility of creating awareness among children and youth on the scourge of HIV/AIDS. The Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) was saddled with the task of the designing a curriculum on Family Life and HIV/AIDS education.

The jinx on data collection and processing seemed to have been broken with the successful conduct of a nation-wide school census in February, 2002. Government has therefore promoted the Education Management Information System (EMIS) through a series of capacity reinforcement programmes and has come up with only one set of data through the Baseline 2002 Survey. The Education Sector Analysis (ESA) was set up by government with the support of UNESCO, World Bank, DFID and JICA to develop a long-term basis for educational planning and reform. It is also expected to strengthen analytical approaches and evidence-based policy formulation.

The government slogan, “Education For All (EFA) is the responsibility of all”, has informed the appointment of a member of a civil society organisation as the Co-ordinator of EFA programmes in the country. Ideals for the achievement of EFA goals were put together at the National EFA Forum held in Abuja in 2001. The National EFA Action Plan that will emerge will emphasise the strong commitment of the government to EFA goals, while building on the principle of participation of critical stakeholders.

A number of donor agencies and international development partners have contributed significantly to the efforts of the Obasanjo administration in the education sector. They include UNESCO, UNICEF, UNDP, the World Bank, DFID, ADB, USAID and JICA. Some of the donor-funded projects include:

- World Bank Primary Education Project II (PEP II CR 3346-UNI), to strengthen human resources, curriculum improvement, data base, teaching/learning environment and HIV/AIDS awareness.
- World Bank/DFID UBE Project, to provide support for FME and UBE implementing parastatals and 16 state governments.
- Literacy Enhancement Assistance Programme – USAID: Improvement of literacy and numeracy in primary and Islamiyya schools in three states.
- International EFA Week and 2nd High level Group Meeting in EFA - UNESCO.
- Child - Friendly School Initiative – UNICEF.
- Self-Help Project – World Bank PEP II, creating conducive teaching and learning environments in primary schools so as to increase access and quality in schooling.

- Japan's International Cooperation Agency (JICA) Assistance in Primary education, to rehabilitate primary schools in three pilot states.

Despite the achievements so far, very little could be seen at the secondary education level. However, the greatest obstacle to achieving educational goals at all levels is the low level of financial allocation to the education sector. The country has never met the 26% of total budgetary allocation to education recommended by UNESCO. The total federal allocation to education had been on decline from 11.13% in 1999, 8.70% in 2000 and 7.0% in 2001 (FME/UBE/CBN 2002). There is also apparent lopsidedness in the funding of the various sub-sectors, with higher education seemingly receiving a greater share than the UBE sector, as discussed further in Chapter Thirteen.

CHAPTER THREE

STRUCTURE AND MANAGEMENT OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Organisation of the Educational System

Figures 3.1 and 3.2 summarise the structure of the formal educational system, showing characteristics of the different levels of education. The Nigerian educational system has evolved through a series of reforms since independence. These reforms were designed to provide a good organisational structure that would enable the nation to achieve her national goals of social, political, economic and technological advancement. Two notable developments, the 1969 National Curriculum Conference and Simeon Adebó's "Report of the Seminar on a National Policy on Education" in 1973, led to the publication of the National Policy on Education in 1977.

The National Policy on Education reflected new developments in the society and the educational system at the time. The "6-5-2-3" structure of education had been rejected at the 1969 National Curriculum Conference in favour of a "6-3-3-4" structure, an important consideration being the desire to expand access to the tertiary level. Thus, under the National Policy on Education, adopted in 1977 and revised in 1981, 1995 and 1998, Nigeria has a 6-3-3-4 educational system, offering six years of primary, three years of junior secondary, three years of senior secondary and four years of higher education. The system also includes adult and non-formal education programmes, a variety of teacher education programmes, and some programmes for children with disabilities (see NPC/UNICEF, 2001, pp. 189-190). The National Policy is currently undergoing another revision to reflect new issues and programmes such as the Education Sector Analysis, the "Education For All" campaign, the repositioning of the Federal Inspectorate Services, and the private universities. The reinstatement of the Higher School Certificate has received approval by the Federal Executive Council, and this is to be piloted in the sciences in selected Federal Government Colleges in 2003.

The UBE embraces the first nine years of schooling, but pre-primary education remains a voluntary element in the educational system. Non-formal programmes consist of functional literacy, remedial, continuing, vocational, aesthetic, and cultural, political and environmental education for youths and adults outside the formal school system. The non-formal system allows for exit and re-entry at desired points or times in life. There is also provision for movement from the non-formal to the formal parts of the system.

FIGURE 3.1 NIGERIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM, 2003

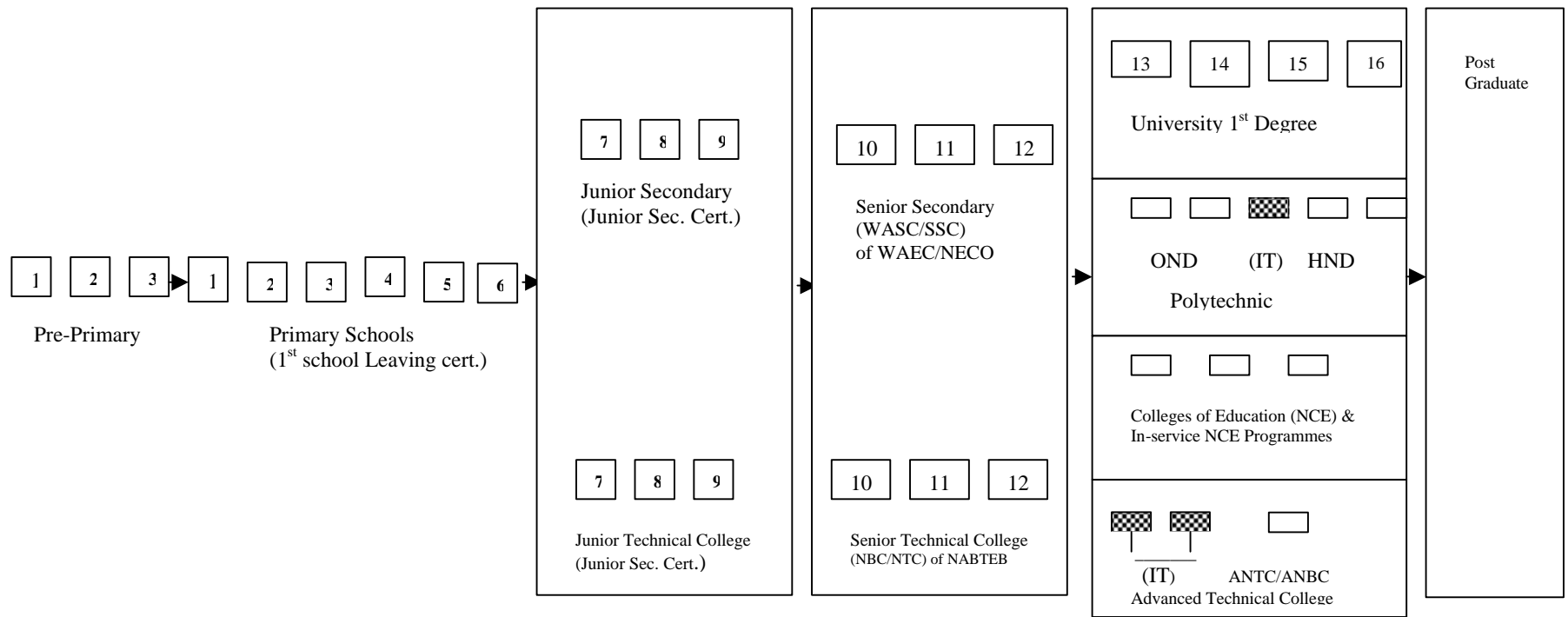
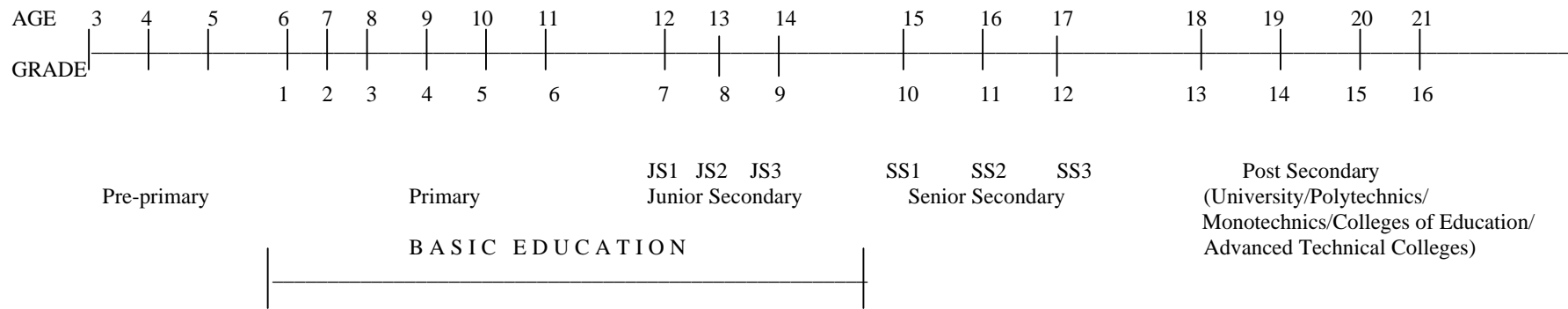


FIGURE 3.2 NIGERIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM ENROLMENT PYRAMID, 2001

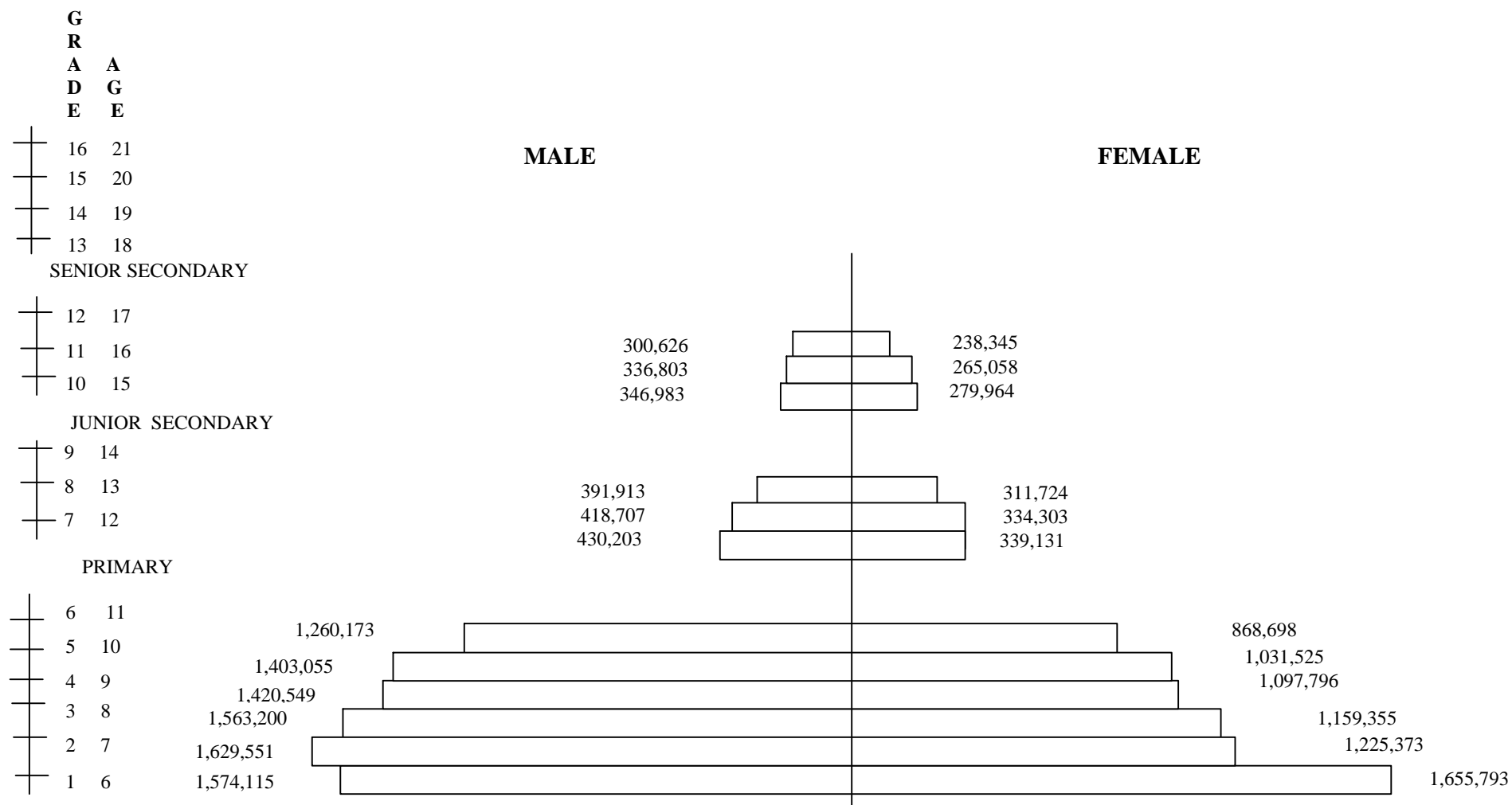
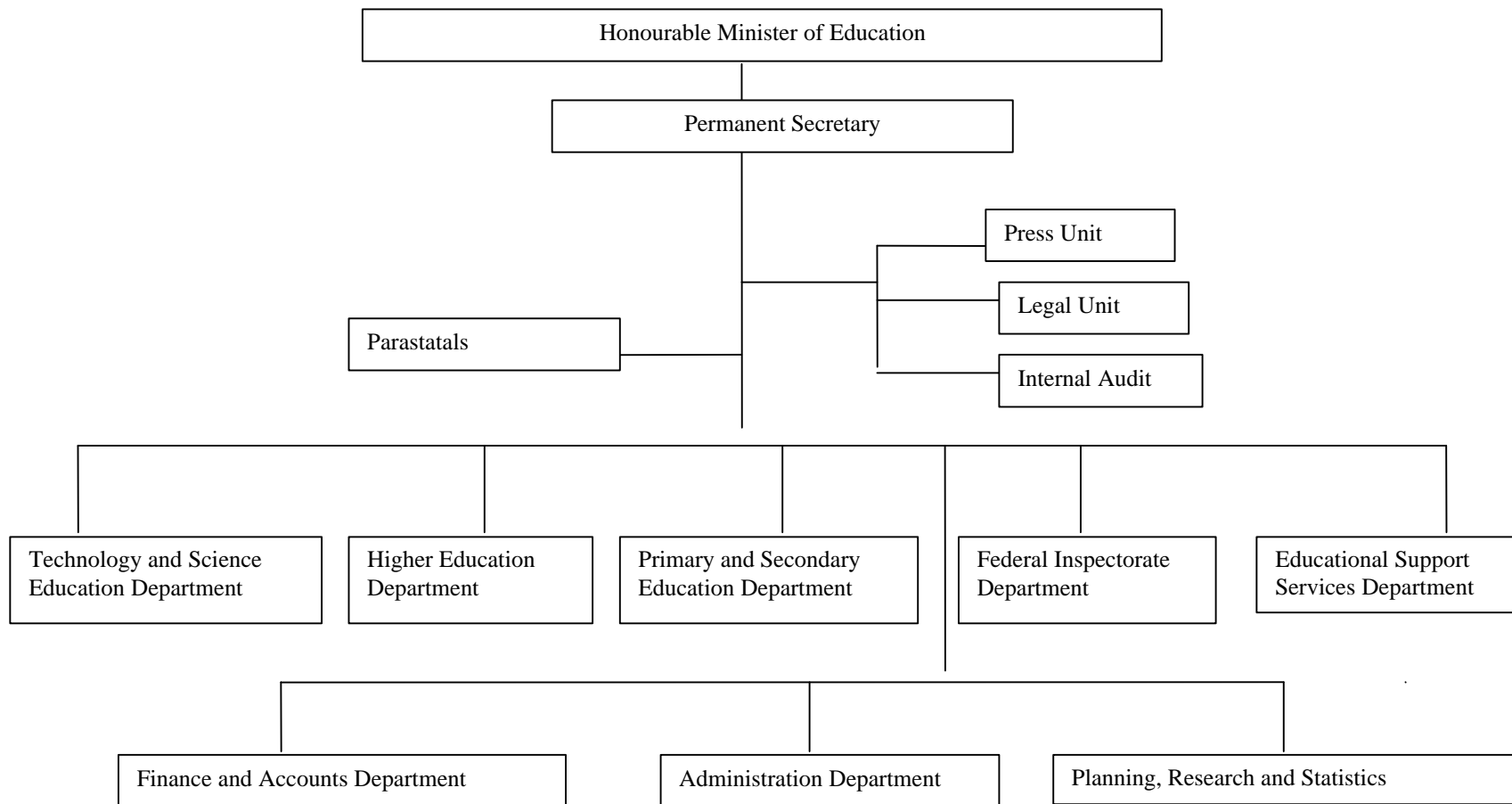


FIGURE 3.3 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF FEDERAL MINISTRY OF EDUCATION



Structure and Functions of the Federal Ministry of Education (FME)

For effective and efficient discharge of its statutory functions, FME is structured into 8 departments. Of these, 3 are common services departments, namely Planning Research and Statistics, Administration, Finance and Accounts, while 5 are operations departments – Primary and Secondary Education, Higher Education, Technology and Science Education, Educational Support Services and the Federal Inspectorate Services whose operational foci are defined by the statutory mandate of the Ministry. There are also three statutory units: Press Unit, Legal Unit and the Internal Audit. See Figure 3.3 for illustration of the organogram. The State Ministries of Education have similar structures to those of the Federal Ministry of Education, for example having the three services departments, although the operations departments vary according to the needs of the various states.

Recent research by Orbach (2003) shows that Planning, Research and Statistics Departments have poor levels of staffing and resources, at all levels of government, compared with other functions such as personnel management and school supervision. Orbach also reports inadequate levels of skill and training for the planning and research tasks, and a tendency for the departments concerned to be more dedicated to physical planning, tendering matters and the supervision of contractors, than to general educational planning. For example, in 2001 there were only 100 staff deployed to the PRS Department of the FME, as against a total staff of 31,883 (excluding parastatals) and 1,473 in Administration. The PRS department collects a series of data on enrolment and facilities and conducts a census of teachers, but data collection has not been effective due to logistical problems. There is dearth of reliable information on schools as the department has had difficulties in collecting reliable statistics. This bears out the comment of Sofolahan (1998) that one of the greatest administrative obstacles to achieving the set goals of the National Policy on Education has been the use of inadequate or unreliable data in the making of major policy decisions. Within the Planning Division, there is the Education Data Bank, which has organised the annual school census and processed the raw data obtained.

The PRS departments are also in charge of research. Orbach (2003) finds that there is a capacity gap here as very few staff in these departments have been trained to plan or conduct research. The staff are usually ex-teachers, or architects or civil engineers with little knowledge of research methodology and statistics and the Orbach report indicates that their ability to conduct analytical work is limited. Lack of interest could also be a factor. In any case, the fact that the volume of research in the Federal Ministry and its parastatals has not been large lends credence to the idea of low capacity.

The Educational Support Services Department gives support services to all the departments of the Ministry in areas that cut across departmental responsibilities. It evaluates qualifications; disseminates information on accredited institutions and courses in Nigeria and overseas; co-ordinates international co-operation in education; and adopts strategies that would lead to the reduction of HIV prevalence. The Technology and Science Education Department is responsible for pre-vocational and vocational education

as well as primary and secondary science education. It is also responsible for establishing and managing federal science and technical colleges. The Higher Education Department supervises tertiary institutions in collaboration with the relevant parastatals. It strives to promote an environment which facilitates learning, scholarship and crisis-free tertiary education. The Primary and Secondary Department is responsible for primary and secondary education matters nation-wide in accordance with the provision of the ministry and in particular the management of the Federal Government Colleges. The Federal Inspectorate Services Department is the quality control unit of the ministry and monitors the quality of primary and secondary education nation-wide. The Administration and Supply Department is responsible for personnel matters and office and stores management. The Finance and Accounts Department manages the budget of the Ministry.

Legal Framework

A major source of the law on education in Nigeria is the 1999 Constitution which like the 1979 Constitution provided both the nation's educational objectives and the legal framework for the devolution of power and responsibilities for legislation on education among the three tiers of government. All federal and state laws, and all executive policies of government on education matters must respect the provisions of the constitution.

The contemporary education laws and edicts and Acts of Parliament in Nigeria derive their sources from the regional laws, current constitutional provision and decrees, and edicts. They have been enacted on various aspects of education with each having specific objectives and orientation. Some are on primary and secondary education, such as the NPEC Act, UBE Act and Nomadic Education Acts. Others are targeted at higher education, such as NUC, NBTE and NCCE Acts. A few have focussed on examinations, such as those concerned with JAMB, NECO and examination malpractices. Many of the responsibilities of both Federal and States Ministries of Education are discharged through their parastatals. These are established in line with enabling laws by federal and state governments respectively, based on powers granted them over education by the constitution. The National Policy on Education is a source of information on how Nigerian education should be structured, organised and administered while the Public Service has government rules and regulations for educational administrators and managers.

The Nigerian educational system is dynamic and laws must continue to give backing to education to guarantee a successful implementation of its policies. The education laws enable the government to take proper control of education and all related activities. They promote regulations for the development of the system and curriculum changes, and help to define the powers of functionaries and agencies as well as the implications of teacher registration and professionalism in teaching (Olagboye and Fadipe, 1998, 23). The administration and control of education are vested by law in the Federal and State Governments, with some responsibilities delegated to Local Governments (Taiwo, 1980). The 1999 constitutional provision accords concurrent legislative status to education.

With the Supreme Court Ruling of April 5, 2002, the jurisdiction of the Federal Government with regard to primary education has ceased to cover special financing through first line charge allocation. The latter was found to be inconsistent with the 1999 Constitution. Rather, State Governments are to receive direct allocations from the Federation Account for funding primary schools in their areas of jurisdiction. The responsibility of the Federal Government in the provision of general national guidelines, evaluation, monitoring and benchmarking for basic education, of which primary education is a part, still stands. While Section 4 (4) of the Constitution empowers the Federal Government to establish universities, post primary institutions, only Section 18 empowers it to provide equal and adequate educational opportunities at all levels.

National Council on Education

The Federal Ministry of Education has statutory responsibility for formulating, harmonising and co-ordinating policies and monitoring quality in service delivery in the education sector. The Federal Ministry of Education is itself advised by the National Council on Education, the highest policy-making body specifically for educational matters. The Council consists of the Federal Minister of Education and the State Commissioners for Education, and is in turn assisted by a Joint Consultative Committee on Education (JCCE), composed of professional officers of the Federal and State Ministries of Education. The JCCE, with its own consultative Reference Committees is an important feedback mechanism for federal policy. The Federal Ministry of Education takes responsibility for policy co-ordination and all federal level activities on education. Policy decisions are reached by consensus in the National Council on Education for implementation by the various states and local governments, but provisions are made for local adjustments to particular circumstances. For instance, the basic policy relating to structure, curriculum and school year is determined nationally, while selections of staff and other specific resources are carried out at the state and local government levels.

These institutions have in general stood the test of time. There has, however, been some tension between central control and the spirit of federalism, in certain areas of educational management. Another problem has been discontinuity, due to changes of government, in the implementation of educational policies at the federal level.

Responsibilities and Functions of the Various Levels of Government

The basic legal framework for educational management in the country, as provided in the 1999 Constitution, spells out basic national objectives for education. It states that the government should seek to ensure equal and adequate educational opportunities at all levels, to promote science and technology, and to eradicate illiteracy.

Education is accorded concurrent legislative status in both the 1979 and the 1999 Constitutions. This means that both Federal and State Governments have legislative jurisdiction and corresponding functional responsibilities with respect to education. There

is a division of labour, though not articulated fully, among the three tiers of government with respect to the different levels of the education system. A few functions are exclusively assigned to the Federal or State Governments, though most functions are treated as responsibilities shared by the three levels of government – federal, state and local (Orbach, 2003, p. 3).

Both Federal and State Governments can legislate on, establish and manage institutions for the purposes of providing university, technological, professional or post-primary education. States can make laws with respect to technical, vocational, post-primary or other forms of education. Local Governments have a formal responsibility (dating from the Local Government Decree of 1976) for providing and maintaining primary education, subject to necessary assistance from the states. The constitution envisages that, in the primary and secondary education sub-sectors, the Federal Government's main role is to determine national policy, set standards (including curriculum) and monitor performance, while the States design, develop and deliver the services. In practice, however, the Federal Government has, for most of the period from 1988 to the present, directly influenced the financing and management of primary education through what Orbach (2003) describes as a “parallel structure” of special institutions at federal and state level.

The period from 1979 to 1988 had been one of increasing economic difficulties and of much improvisation in the financing and management of primary education (see Hinchliffe, 1989). In the southern states, State and Local Governments generally shared responsibility for teachers' salaries; in most of the northern states, Local Governments were responsible, but were subject to much supervision by State Ministries of Local Government. Decree 31 of 1988 introduced a more reliable and uniform pattern of funding by making the cost of primary teachers' salaries a first charge on the Federation Account. It established a National Primary Education Commission (NPEC) at the centre, and Primary Schools Management Boards (PSMBs) at the state level, through which funds for salaries were channelled directly to the Local Government Education Authorities (LGEAs). LGEA budgets were separated from those of the Local Governments. The PSMBs also took over most of the supervision of LGEAs, and were then monitored by the NPEC. In 1991 this system was abruptly terminated by Decree 3, which gave full responsibility for primary education to the Local Governments. However, after a period of “incessant and prolonged strike actions” by primary school teachers over non-payment of salaries, Decree 96 of 1993 restored the system of 1988 (Okoro, 1998, p. 46). With the scope of basic education encompassing the 3 years of junior secondary school, a new commission, the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBE) replaced NPEC. NPEC had tended to acquire increased managerial functions in the later 1990s.

The direct federal funding of primary education was stopped as a result of a Supreme Court ruling of April 2002, to the effect that it was unconstitutional for the Federal Government to circumvent the State Governments in funding primary education. This led to the withdrawal of a UBE Bill in the House of Representatives, which had assumed that UBE programmes would benefit from “first charge” financing. At present, therefore,

LGEAs receive their funds from State Governments, while the SPEBs retain an important managerial role.

Some commentators, including Orbach (2003) see this latest development as an opportunity to establish an improved “division of labour” between the various levels of government. Orbach argues that that it could be used to develop the managerial capacity of State Governments and to promote a more integrated planning of education at state level. Others consider that the system restored in 1993 was effective in maintaining regular payment of teachers’ salaries and should be retained (e.g. Francis et al., 1998, p. 55). Whatever the outcome of the debate, there is a need to determine who is accountable for what in the areas of concurrent responsibility. In the long run, improving the capacity to manage education both at the state and at the local government levels is necessarily an important goal.

Management

Over time, the power and responsibilities of the various levels of government have changed with changes in the constitution and perceived abilities of each government to undertake the financial and managerial responsibilities assigned. Thus, no single tier of government has absolute responsibility for any sub-sector; rather there are varying degrees of overlap. Both the Federal and the State Governments finance and manage their own tertiary institutions: universities, polytechnics and teacher training colleges. At the secondary level, there are 83 Federal Government Colleges and 19 Federal Science and Technical Colleges, spread across the states. All other public secondary schools are managed and financed by State Governments, through State Ministries of Education. As Hinchliffe notes (2002), financing and management structures have been stable for tertiary and secondary education, unlike the case of primary education. Local Government Education Authorities (LGEAs) manage public primary schools, with help from the State Primary Education Boards (SPEBs), and their financing has already been discussed above. Although local communities are supposed to be directly involved in the management of public primary schools through District and Village Education Committees and Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs), the reality on the ground is generally different. While the Committees have not functioned as intended, PTAs are cast in a supporting role rather than a managerial one. At the school level, however, effective enrolment, attendance and learning do depend on the co-operative efforts of school staff, pupils, households and local communities.

Private and community schools at all levels have to comply with minimum standards prescribed by state laws. Quality control of all schools, both public and private, is through inspection and supervision by the various levels of government. Networks of non-governmental organisations collaborate with State and Federal Ministries of Education in the management of non-formal education programmes. At the federal and state levels, there are inspectorates which monitor and evaluate schools below the tertiary level, and LGEAs also inspect primary schools. The Federal Inspectorate Services (FIS) Department, established in 1973, monitors the performance of primary and secondary education throughout the country. In 2002, it had a total of 1502 staff, consisting of 398

inspectors and 1104 other staff. These are distributed amongst the national headquarters, 6 zonal offices and 36 state offices and FCT.

There are inspection guidelines in various subjects to aid inspection for improving the content and quality of education. A common criticism is that the stipulated minimum standards are not stated in measurable terms when it comes to the implementation of curriculum content. There is also a problem of uneven distribution of federal inspectors in the various state offices. While some have fewer than 5 inspectors, others have as many as 20 (FME, 2003). A recent report (NPC/UNICEF, 2001) criticises the various inspectorates, both state and federal, for ineffective performance, attributing this to inadequate funding and training (p. 161).

Other monitoring units may be mentioned briefly. UBEC has a monitoring and evaluation department concerned with all aspects of the primary education programmes, while the Departments of Planning, Research and Statistics of the Federal and State Ministries of Education and SPEBs also have monitoring and evaluation branches concerned with specific projects and programmes of their institutions.

Educational Parastatals

The Federal Ministry of Education is linked up to its parastatals through its operations and services departments for purposes of supervision. The structure and organisation of the parastatals resemble those of the parent ministry. There are 21 parastatals under FME, classified into four major groups based on their basic functions. They are 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, NBEM, NABTEB, and those for language training and development – NFLV, NINLAN, NALV (see Annex VII for a summary). Nearly all these parastatals have their governing councils.

State Governments also have educational parastatals. Major examples are Teaching Service Commissions, Science and Technical Education Boards, State Primary Education Boards (SPEBs), State Mass Education Commissions (SMECs), Governing Councils of tertiary institutions and Scholarship Boards.

The proposed UBE Commission (UBEC, at present the UBE Programme) would be the main co-ordinating body for all components of basic education: primary education, junior secondary education, and all forms of non-formal education. There are also special commissions at the federal level for adult literacy (NMEC) and for the education of nomadic children and adults (NCNE). Since these commissions predate the UBE Programme, their relationship with it requires clarification. Arrangements to harmonise management between UBEC and the State Ministries of Education are under consideration too, since facilities and staff are shared by junior and senior secondary schools in most cases.

At the tertiary level, four national commissions monitor both federal and state institutions. These are the NUC, for universities, the NBTE for polytechnics, the NCCE for colleges of education, and NOUN for the National Open University. Other important national commissions are 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 workshop, seminars and conferences. External examinations for schools are administered partly by an international body (WAEC), partly by national bodies (NECO, NABTEB and JAMB), and partly by state bodies. (For a summary of the functions of all these bodies, see Annex VII.)

CHAPTER FOUR

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Introduction

In this chapter, a broad categorization of early childhood education and non-formal childcare centres is used to depict the community-based informal types, and pre-primary schools to depict the more organized formalized types. Both types are referred to as Early Childhood Education. The National Policy on Education (1998) describes pre-primary education as the education given in an educational institution to children aged 3 to 5 plus prior to their entering the primary school. Described as a period of rapid physical growth, including the development of the brain almost to its full adult size, this stage of life is also regarded as a critical period for the development of cognitive functions (UNICEF, 2001). Care, health, nutrition and stimulation are regarded as the key factors for child growth and development in these formative years. National expectations for education at this level affirm the stipulations for the level in the Child Rights Convention (CRC) all of which were given a new impetus in Dakar World Education Forum and are emphasized under the 1999 UBE Programme.

Objectives

The purposes of pre-primary education as specified in Section 13 of the Policy reiterate the critical importance of these factors. The policy states that the purpose of pre-primary education shall be to 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 (on the farms, in the markets, offices, etc.); 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 cooperation and team spirit; learn good habits especially good health habits and teach the rudiments of numbers, letters, colours, shapes and forms through play.

The two sections, which follow, will consider both the availability and quality of the existing-child care centres and pre-primary schools. Critical issues that relate to this sub sector of education are identified, with particular concern for their implications for meeting the Universal Basic Education (UBE) goal and the Dakar Framework for Action.

Non-Formal Child-Care Centres

The growth of childcare centres (often described as day-care centres) has been closely linked to the growth of female employment. Government involvement in the provision of child-care centres began on agreement among FGN (NERDC), Bernard Van

Leer Foundation and UNICEF, which led to the establishment of 5 pilot projects in rural communities for disadvantaged rural children. The success of these projects and subsequent replication efforts has been widely documented (FGN/UNICEF, 1993; FME, 2000; NPC/UNICEF, 2001; ESA, 2003).

Non-formal childcare centres are the kinds of facilities that are categorized as day-care centres, which have sprung up to meet the increasing demand of mothers who now work outside the home. A further categorization is possible here to depict centres which are well established with full facilities and those either organized by the women themselves, or set up by the community or run by individuals who are neither trained nor in any way oriented in such care but rely on their own child rearing instincts to look after a collection of children to fill an immediate need.

The FGN/UNICEF report (2001) discusses two major categories of non-formal day-care centres namely:

The 'superior' type in purpose-built facilities which have generally high standards but charge high fees and so are accessible only to the children of the elite, and the informal day-care centres in poorer areas of the cities, operating usually in impoverished, overcrowded facilities and with neither the materials nor the professional staff needed to provide appropriate stimulation for young children (p.38).

Enrolment in both categories of centres was 47% of a total of 18,836 children in the sampled centres for children aged 25-36 months and 37% for fewer than 6 months (FGN/UNICEF, 1993).

The Situation and Policy Analysis (SAPA) of Basic Education provides what is perhaps the most authoritative information concerning these non-formal day-care facilities. The document attests to a general recognition and acceptance among the sampled mothers of the need for early childhood education and asserts that day-care centres are readily available with 57 percent less than 1 km away from the children's homes. The few cases where a distance of more than 5 km is recorded occurred generally in large cities and urban centres especially in Lagos, Kano, Kaduna, Port Harcourt and Ibadan. A negative aspect to this is that as many as 44% of the sampled centres are located close to major roads (perhaps for ease of access), 4.1% are located near record shops and markets while 2.8% are located near hotels and motels.

The SAPA survey also found that these centres operate in purpose-built facilities (24%); homes (30.8%); flats (10.5%); single-room apartments (14.0%); churches and mosques (16.2%); garages (1.6%); and open spaces (2.4%). None of these outfits have the full complement of play facilities. All the centres had chalk-boards, charts and poster of sorts.

In the area of learning and instruction, field reports show that many of the children in these centres are made to sleep a lot of the time (55%) while 41.6% spend most of the time playing with toys. Teaching is mostly done in English (77% of the time)

while local language is used 7.5% of the time in rural communities (FGN/UNICEF,1993). The report found, under welfare, that most had clean water and toilet facilities while 18.9% had medical supplies, 2.7% had sick bays, 14.6% had visiting doctors and 38.9% had no medical facilities.

Most of the landmark activities undertaken by the Federal Government in this sub-sector of education are done in partnership with development partners. By 1996, for instance, the FGN/UNICEF partnership on the pilot project of community-based care had been replicated in 10 more states of the Federation. This initiative resulted in the establishment of 2,045 early childcare centres with 75,000 children. The number of these centres grew to more than 7,300 for 400,000 children in 12 states during the next phase of implementation. Despite these achievements and the various training programmes provided for teachers, parents and community members, access to day-care centres is still beyond the reach of many Nigerian children.

A further national survey is necessary to determine what the situation is with the centres since the last national count of 1993 with the SAPA report. In almost every street in large cities, child-minding centres are run with the children grouped around a motherly (and sometimes not so motherly) figure who leads them in songs, play and generally keeps an eye on them until their mothers are able to pick them up. At mid-day or later, the children are seen being walked home from their centres by young people. These guardians normally referred to as ‘aunties’ and ‘uncles’, drop off their young charges from door to door and the next day another round begins.

Pre-Primary Schools

It is estimated that about 12,000 pre-primary schools are registered with government (NPC/UNICEF, 2001) from an estimated figure of 4,200 in 1985 and approximately 8,300 in 1992 (FGN/UNICEF, 1993). This indicates a rapid growth in educational provision at this level.

According to the MICS (FOS/UNICEF, 1999) data, however, only about 18% of Nigerian children aged 36-59 months attend pre-primary centres. Female enrolment according to the same source was 19% while male enrolment was 18% showing an insignificant difference between boys and girls in access. The report on the other hand shows regional disparities in access and very significant differences between urban (37%) and rural (12%) areas (FGN/UNICEF, 2001).

The curriculum taught at these centres is broad-based covering a wide range of subjects. The SAPA document was not specific on whether the curriculum in use is the approved Guidelines. However, it focuses on English Language, Mathematics/Arithmetic, Local Language, Moral/Religious Instruction, Writing, Reading, Poems/Rhymes and Elementary Science/Nature Study. These constitute an average of 28 periods a week, 30 minutes each day of break and 25 minutes each day of play. The English Language is used 93.2 percent of the time in the sampled areas as the medium of communication.

Nutrition is an important part of the care given to children at this time so school meals are important aspects of the school life. The children eat well with their diet incorporating fish, beans and bean products which are brought from home (68%), and procured from food vendors (26%).

Quality Assurance

A curriculum guideline was developed between NERDC and UNICEF along with several training manuals. This is in line with the policy provision of government to control quality in pre-school. The distribution patterns for these guidelines however, leaves much to be desired as several centres operate without the guidelines and most have never set eyes on the training manual let alone being trained in their use.

This is not unconnected with the issue of non-supervision of these centres. The national policy of non-direct government intervention at this level may also be a factor constraining qualitative growth in the sub sector. This reality is perhaps a major contributory factor to the seemingly undirected state of affairs in this sub sector. Simple quality control issues such as choice of site for the centres (already reported earlier to be sited in inappropriate places), affirm the lack of direction in the sub- sector.

The SAPA document reports, however, a relatively respectable level of internal efficiency with attrition rate as low as 2.3 %. Promotion of children from one class to another increased especially from Nursery 1 to 2. Attendance was fairly regular with malaria fever (85.7%); measles (62.4%); cough (60.8%); intestinal disorders (17.0%) and guinea worm (2.4%) recorded as common causes of absenteeism. Teachers were relatively well qualified with over 25% of the 5281 teachers holding the NCE Certificates. Over 60% of these teachers were females (FGN/UNICEF, 1993).

Service Providers

It is important to point out the fact that the provision of both child-care centres and pre-primary education is almost entirely a private affair. Although some state governments have established models of primary/pre-primary school linkages, yet the major service providers in this areas are sole and private persons. The government specifies for itself the responsibilities of promoting the training of qualified pre-primary schoolteachers in adequate number, contributing to the development of suitable curriculum and controlling the quality of such institutions, and encourages as much private participation as possible in service provision.

Sole proprietors, private sector, community and religious organisations own about 80 percent of the centres sampled in SAPA, while 10 percent are owned by government through its supervisory agencies. These assertions are reaffirmed in the Comprehensive Education Analysis (CEA) document (FGN, 2002).

Costs and Benefits of Early Childhood Education

As government intervention in this sub-sector has been limited to setting standards, training teachers and to an extent developing materials, the direct costs of maintaining children's participation at this level lies with parents and community members. The category of responsibility to which government has committed itself accounts for the financial input that government makes in the sub-sector. In the provision of instructional materials for instance, government has collaborated, albeit heavily, with UNICEF and Bernard Van Leer in carrying this role. Data up to 1999 show that several documents including a Curriculum Guideline (although needing updating) and several Training Manuals and pre-school Readers for various categories of providers and learners have been developed. Although the distribution patterns of these materials have not matched expectations, yet the existence of these materials lend credence to a visible attempt to add quality to the system.

In the area of training, the project agreement between FGN, UNICEF and Bernard Van Leer has led to the training and capacity building of 1,056 desk officers, 15,409 care givers and 1,232 para-teachers between 1991 and 1999 (FGN, 2000). It should be pointed out however, that although modules have been developed for the training packages used to conduct training for these teachers, the mode of delivery is largely often non-formal and varies among providers. The training programmes are almost always conducted by NGOs, CBOs and church organizations (within the project agreement framework, of course); not much can be said on the quality and standard of delivery across providers. Thus, motley assortments of techniques, some not too qualitative, are identified in this area. Efforts must be made to make better use of these manuals already developed for more standardized packaging.

This brings up the issue of teachers for pre-primary. With COEs not so active in teacher specialization in pre-primary education, one finds that the teachers employed in pre-primary schools are mostly NCE graduates, university graduates who may or may not have read education or young school leavers. Surprisingly the SAPA report found that the sampled nursery schools are reasonably well staffed with 25% of the 5,281 teachers sampled holding NCE certificates while 175 were actually graduates with specialization in pre-primary education. Non-documented sources through observation show that many school leavers who find no job on completion actually end up teaching in nursery and pre-primary schools. The need for teachers in this area is constantly expanding. There is need to critically examine the teachers needs in this area and determine how these needs can be met.

The direct costs of maintaining a child at this level of education for parents has risen steadily over the years from as little as N20 a month per child in the day-care center in the 1970s (Onibokun, 1977) to as much as N20,000 per term obtainable at present. The types of facilities that are described in this report are actually available on the basis of affordability. Parents have to make this choice according to their economic and social status. The costs are incurred on child-minding charges (day-care centres); school fees (pre-primary schools); uniforms (optional but very popular among the less elitist

facilities); and lunch packs and reading materials. Transportation to a large extent also has cost implications especially if the center or pre-school is not located near the home. Two factors determine which service a parent will go for, namely: the mother's working status and place of work; and affordability. Children are either placed in day-care centres or pre-schools where their mothers or older siblings can easily pick them up at close of work, business or school. This means that the facility eventually chosen by a parent may not necessarily be the one closest to home. The transport element comes in where the center is not located close to home.

Fees for childcare centres are widely varied and determined by the type of facilities. They range from about N300 per month to N10,000 per year, and there are even extremes of N50,000.00 per year in Lagos metropolis. The additional costs of uniforms, lunch and transportation (where necessary) amount to a unit cost of about N7,300 per term totalling N21, 900 per year. This estimate is based on an average of N50.00 for transport per day, N50.00 for lunch per day and N800.00 for uniform purchased once a year. The cost of uniforms varies according to school and location. Lunch costs may also vary according to socio-economic status. The cost of reading materials is often built into the tuition (fees).

For pre-primary schools, costs are higher and determined by the neighbourhood, status or class. Popular models of formal pre-primary schools are often linked with primary and sometimes secondary levels (within the same premises and owned by the same proprietor). Parents often find it convenient to place both pre-school and primary school children within the same school premises. The costs of services provided at this level are higher and also varies across states and standards. In the Lagos metropolis for instance, costs can be as high as N50,000 per term and as low as N2000 per term. Monthly fees are not popular at this level. In Cross River State, a study found that costs ranged between N6000 and N10,000 per year (Agusiobu, 2003). Most parents find these costs high especially in view of the fact that lunch, books and uniforms are significant non-inclusive aspects of the costs mentioned above.

Mothers as a result resort to taking their children along with them to the market or roadside wherever their occupations are. The number of children seen around their mothers in very harsh market environments and even at roadsides is on the increase. Although other factors such as ignorance and uncertainty (handing one's child over to someone else to look after as it were) could be at play here, one may not completely rule out the fact that a lot more children may get sent to well organized child care centres and pre-schools if the costs are affordable.

The presence of such young children in markets has led some NGOs to canvass the establishment of day-care centres in the markets. The Federal Ministry of Women's Affairs and Youth Development in collaboration with UNICEF, has undertaken social mobilization, advocacy and sensitisation involving women at this level. Some centres have actually been established in some markets in recognition of the need to provide these children with appropriate learning experiences.

The fact is that parents unwittingly weigh the costs of providing education against what they may regard as their priorities. Often being ignorant of the importance of proper stimulation at this time for subsequent performance at the levels they recognise, they unwittingly make choices against the 'extra burden' of beginning to pay school fees so soon as it were. Costs can therefore be said to be a critical issue in access to pre-school education. The structure of service delivery at present makes the service available only to those who can afford to pay for it. Yet it is so critical that children must begin early to be exposed to proper stimulation. Can government afford to continue ignoring this level of education, the level at which the foundation for subsequent performance is laid?

Already some states have begun experimenting (some have actually gone beyond experimentation) with pre-primary/primary school linkages and the results are increased access and greater cost-effectiveness. For instance, the same school facilities are used and the same staff, with very little extra support if any.

The choice that government would ultimately make as to whether to intervene directly or not must be weighted against the odds and interplay of various factors. The current reality, however, is that the data that government needs to compute actual unit costs of educating one child at the pre-primary level are not easily available. Urwick (2002) found in the Jos area that the cost to the household of pre-primary schooling is much the same as the cost of private primary schooling. The choice to use pre-primary education is, however, only being made by parents who understand its import. Those parents who do not (and these form the majority), simply ignore that service. It does appear that the gap between private and public provision of pre-primary education must be bridged in order to increase access for all.

A government decision on the extent of intervention in the pre-primary sub-sector must be seen in the light of the established advantage that children who have received pre-primary education have over those who have not. Commitments to increasing learning achievement must, as of necessity, begin at streamlining, standardizing and adding quality to the early care that the Nigerian child receives.

Milestones and innovations

As has been noted earlier, in recognition of the importance of adequate stimulation at this level, and partly in an attempt to release more (who may get denied schooling opportunities to look after younger siblings) a few state governments have introduced pre-primary primary linkage programmes in public primary schools. A few states including Oyo have done remarkably well in this linkage. It is hoped that more states can adopt this practice and that way provide leadership in this area.

The idea of crèches is also being pushed forward and implemented by various state governments. Trained assistants under the state Ministry of Women Affairs and Youth Development establish childcare centres/nursery schools in government secretariats and run them. This practice exists in Lagos State and is a good way of providing leadership.

The UBE Bill holds greater potential for government involvement in pre-primary education. Because pre-primary education is an important component of the UBE programme, it is expected that the passing of the bill will accord the necessary statutory backing for greater Federal Government involvement in the sub-sector.

Such intervention is necessary for the streamlining activities of service providers in this sub-sector. The diversity of service packages here, especially in the areas of costs and quality assurance, needs to be somewhat controlled. Otherwise participation in childcare and pre-primary education will remain on a take-it or leave it basis or at worst based on affordability. Both criteria do not enhance the chances of increasing the performance of children at school or meeting the first of the six EFA goals.

Another challenge for pre-primary education is to strengthen the indigenous content of the knowledge transmitted to children at this level. The ESA unit is involved with analysing what exists now and how they can be incorporated in the curriculum.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRIMARY EDUCATION

The Basic Education Framework

The National Policy on Education (FGN, 1998) provides the 6-3-3-4 system of education, which translates to six-year primary education, three-year junior secondary education, three-year senior secondary education and four-year tertiary education. The first nine years of schooling up to the end of junior secondary level is regarded as the basic education segment. Following the 1990 Jomtien Declaration and Framework for Action on Education for All by the year 2000, Nigeria introduced a nine-year basic education programme in 1992. It was designed for children between the ages six and fifteen. The programme envisaged that children would remain in school until completion of junior secondary education and acquire basic competencies and life-long skills.

The failure of many countries to meet the Jomtien goals necessitated the adoption in 2000 of the Dakar Framework for Action and a commitment to achieve Education for All (EFA) by the year 2015. The Dakar Framework sets six major EFA goals and proposes twelve major strategies for achieving the goals.

The present administration launched the Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme in 1999, seven months ahead of “Dakar 2000” and integrated the six EFA goals into the UBE Blueprint. The UBE programme seeks to make the formal levels of primary and junior secondary education universal, free and compulsory. It further embraces skill acquisition programmes for out-of-school youth; adult literacy, and education for disadvantaged groups such as nomads. In pursuance of the EFA goals for primary education, the government adopted a participatory approach to ensure that the programme responds to the needs of the people. It further embarked on public enlightenment and social mobilisation to ensure full community involvement.

Scope and Objectives of Primary Education

Primary education is the education given in institutions for children aged 6 to 11 (FRN, 1998) and has a duration of six years. In Nigeria and other E-9 countries, primary education forms the base of the 9-year basic education programme. It is tuition free, universal and compulsory. The objectives of primary education are derived from the National Policy on Education. One of the objectives is to equip the individual with a solid base for scientific and reflective thinking through the inculcation of permanent literacy and numeracy. The individual that has passed through primary education must have imbibed a sound attitude and character training to enable the recipient to adapt to the changing environment. Indeed, at the end of primary education programme, the recipient

must have acquired manipulative skills necessary to function effectively in the society within the limit of his capacity.

Access: General Indicators

Access to primary education has been a source of concern to successive administrations in the country. In view of the past efforts of governments at universalising access (the Universal Primary Education (UPE) of the regional governments in the 50s, the Federal Government UPE programme of 1976, the universal basic education of 1992, and lately the Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme of 1999), one would expect a near 100% enrolment of all school age children in the country. In Nigeria, the official age for admission into Primary One is six years. Access to primary education can be determined using the apparent (gross) intake rate and the net intake rate. The gross intake rate is a rough estimate of access to Primary One. It is the total number of new entrants to Primary One irrespective of age, expressed as a percentage of population of children of the official age of entry (6 years). If the rate exceeds 100%, either under-age or over-age pupils have been admitted. The net intake rate cannot be estimated, as data are not available on the ages of children in school.

In 1991, the gross intake rate was 99% for both boys and girls nationally. It rose to 100% in 1993 and fell steadily to 80% in 1996. This trend is similar among the sexes when disaggregated. Thus the 107% for boys in 1991 rose to 110% in 1993, indicating presence of over or under-age pupils, and declined to 88% in 1996. Similarly, the girls highest gross intake of 89% in 1992 declined to 73% in 1996 (FME, 2000). The Comprehensive Education Analysis (FME, 2000) reports states with over 100% gross intake rate as including Akwa-Ibom, Benue, Borno, Kogi, Ogun, Osun, Plateau, Taraba and Yobe, while those with low intake to Primary One for boys and girls are Sokoto, Kebbi, Jigawa, Bauchi and Anambra States. It must be mentioned that all the enrolment and GER rates from the Education Data Bank (EDB) and the UBE Programme relate to the public sector only.

Enrolment

Primary schools in Nigeria have witnessed a phenomenal increase in enrolment over the years. From 2.9 million in 1960, the enrolment figure rose to 3.5 million in 1970, 4.7 million in 1973 and 8.2 million at the inception of UPE in 1976 (Taiwo; 1980). The public sector enrolment figure rose to 13.6 million in 1990 and 16.2 million in 1994, before declining to 14.1 million in 1996 (55% male and 45% female) (FME, 2000). With the introduction of UBE in 1999, the enrolment trend has picked up again, reaching 17.9 million in 1999, 19.2 million in 2000 and 19.4 million in 2001 (FME Baseline Survey data covering both public and private sectors). Equally the number of government primary schools rose from 40,204 in 1997 (Francis, 1998) to 49,306 in 2001 (UBE data). Annex II shows a national summary of primary school statistics, 1999-2001.

For primary education the gross enrolment ratio (GER) is calculated as the total number of pupils enrolled in Primary One to Six irrespective of age, as a percentage of the population of 6-11 year old children. If the GER exceeds 100%, this indicates enrolment of over-age children as a result of late entry or repetition. It is the most readily available measure of participation. According to FME data, the GER rose from 68% in 1994 but declined to 70% in 1996 nationally for both sexes (FME, 2000). The results of the 1995 and 1999 Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) also show a decline of the GER at that time. Thus the 1999 GER of 81% is lower than the 1995 GER of 84% (FOS/UNICEF, 1995, 1999). It is believed that economic downturn, unfavourable political climate and poor financing occasioned this decline in GER between 1993 and 1996. With that trend, it was not surprising that Nigeria did not achieve the Jomtien EFA goals for 2000. The FME baseline enrolment data, covering both public and private schools, and recent population projections, give national GERs of 94.5% for 2000 and 93.1% for 2001 (see Annex III). But the data for most states are inconsistent with those of the 1999 MICS survey (see Annex IV). Another problem is that the breakdown of the enrolments for 2000 and 2001 by public and private sectors has not yet been provided, so that they cannot be compared directly with the EDB data for the 1990s. So the effect of the UBE enrolment drive is not yet clear. The baseline data for 1999-2001 indicate a fairly stable level of enrolment nation-wide, but there are some variations by zone and by gender (see Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1).

The net attendance ratio (NAR) is the percentage of children aged 6-11 attending primary school. The 1999 MICS report gives estimates of the NAR, indicating that it was lowest for six year olds (39%) and highest for nine year olds (67%). It finds that the main reason for the low NAR is that children tend to start primary school late (FOS/UNICEF, 1999). This was corroborated by the 1999 Demographic and Health Survey, which found that 43% of children aged 6-10 were not in school (MOH, 1999). The surveys indicate that over three-fifths of Nigerian children do not enter primary school at the official age for Primary One (NPC/UNICEF 2001). The primary school NARs for each gender in Nigeria (61% for boys and 57% for girls) are lower than the averages for Sub-Saharan Africa.

Geographical Variations in Access

There are variations in access to primary education in different states, between genders, and between urban and rural areas. (On trends in gender differences, see Table 5.1.) The 1999 MICS showed that NAR is much higher in the South (e.g. 81% in the South West survey zone) than in the North (e.g. 28% in the North-West zone). Some states in the North, notably Jigawa, Bauchi, Katsina, Sokoto, Kebbi, Yobe have primary schools with less than 25% NAR. In some southern states notably Imo, Anambra, Enugu, Cross-River, a steady decline in NAR was observed from 1993-1996. This disturbing trend led to boys dropping out of school to pick a trade or join apprenticeship. Factors such as economic downturn, low value placed on education, poor funding and poor political climate engineered the decline.

Table 5.1
Primary School Enrolment Trends, 1999-2001

Enrolment Trends, by Zone			
Zone	Total (MF)		
	1999	2000	2001
N-W	3744959	4023809	4049984
N-C	2756275	2957578	2905642
N-E	3327840	3613879	4020095
S-W	3033852	3136805	2876297
S-S	2915114	3187338	3267509
S-E	2128970	2239030	2265377
Total	17907010	19158439	19384904

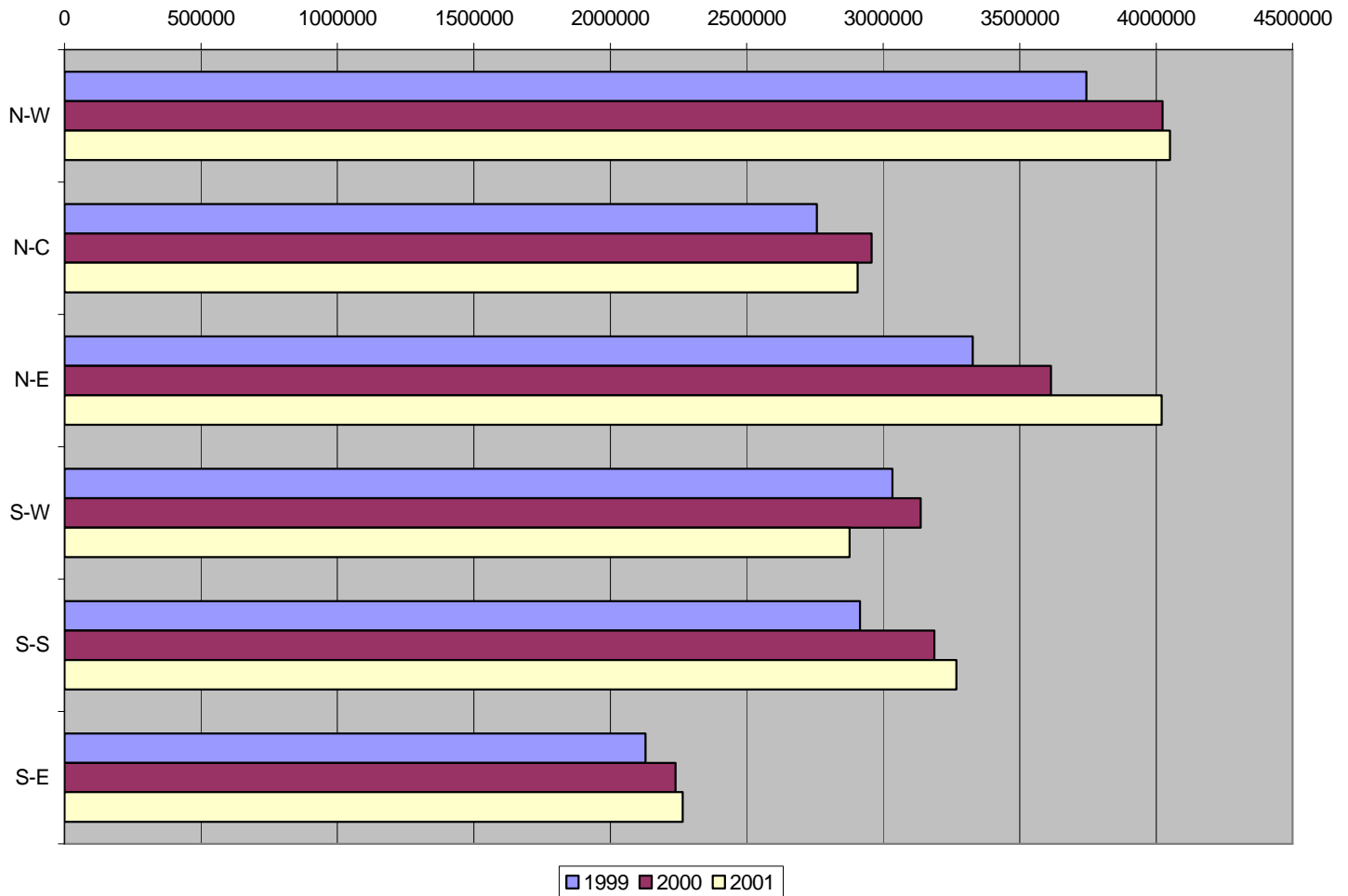
Enrolment Trends, by Zone and by Gender						
Zone	Male 1999	Female 1999	Male 2000	Female 2000	Male 2001	Female 2001
N-W	2439394	1305565	2625139	1398670	2633666	1416318
N-C	1543844	1212431	1645660	1311918	1606316	1299326
N-E	2024592	1303248	2190877	1423002	2501140	1518955
S-W	1508920	1524932	1551084	1585721	1421266	1455031
S-S	1470785	1444329	1606711	1580627	1638758	1628751
S-E	1070899	1058071	1125657	1113373	1130896	1134481
Total	10058434	7848576	10745128	8413311	10932042	8452862

Trends in Female Share of Enrolment (%), by Zone			
Zone	1999	2000	2001
N-W	35	35	35
N-C	44	44	45
N-E	39	39	38
S-W	50	51	51
S-S	50	50	50
S-E	50	50	50
Total	44	44	44

Gender Ratio

This indicator measures gender balance in enrolment between boys and girls. It states female enrolment as a proportion of male enrolment. A gender ratio of less than one indicates an imbalance in favour of boys. The decline in GER in 1994-96 affected both sexes but was steeper on the side of the boys, according to the EDB data the gender ratio rose from 0.77 in 1990 to 0.87 in 1996. The Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) data for 1999 also indicate a closer gender ratio of 0.92 with boys still having greater participation than girls (NPC/UNICEF 2001). The geographical disparity in enrolment is reflected when the participation is disaggregated by states. Most of the states in the South have gender ratios in favour of females, e.g. Anambra 1.1, Bayelsa 1.1, Ekiti 1.1, Lagos 1.1, Ondo 1.1 and Rivers 1.1 in 2002. But states in the North show gender ratios in

Figure 5.1 Primary Enrolments by Zone, 1999 – 2001



favour of males: Bauchi 0.6, Jigawa 0.5, Sokoto 0.3, Yobe 0.6 and Zamfara 0.4 (FME data). Government may have to address the issue of female participation especially in the North, in order to achieve EFA goals. This could be done by developing an advocacy programme to mitigate the effect of cultural practices on the school attendance of girls. Again there is an access and participation gap between rural and urban areas. Both net and gross enrolment are higher in urban areas than in rural areas, and in most cases children from poor rural households are the most disadvantaged and under represented in primary schools. (See Table 5.1 above on the female share of enrolment by zone.)

The “gender gap” reveals the degree of imbalance in access and participation. It is the difference between the GER of males and females. The recent baseline and population data suggest that gender parity will not be easy to achieve, with gender gaps of about 18-20% in 2000 and 2001 (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.2
Primary School Gender Gap

Year	GER males	GER females	Gender Gap
2000	105.3%	85.2%	20.1%
2001	100.4%	82.6%	17.8%

Sources: Based on data from FME and the National Population Commission.

Attrition and Completion Rates

Information on attrition and completing rates is difficult to obtain because of the paucity of data. The attrition rate is calculated by taking the number of pupils enrolled in a given class in year n+1 as a percentage of the number of pupils enrolled in the preceding class in year n. In 1990-95 attrition rate was highest, at 12%, from Primary One to Two. Children moving from Primary Five to Six also recorded a high attrition rate of 8%. Some pupils may be withdrawn at this stage by their parents to attempt the qualifying examination to secondary school, while others may drop to pick a trade or matrimonial engagements.

The apparent completion rate is calculated as the number of children enrolled in Primary Six as a percentage of the number of children in Primary One five years earlier. (A more precise statistic would take account of repeaters, for whom data are not available.) The apparent completion rates for 1998 in Table 5.3 below show the high level of wastage at the primary level in Nigeria, only slightly higher for girls than for boys.

Table 5.3
Apparent Completion Rates of Public Primary Education, by Gender, 1998

Gender	P1, 1992/93	P6, 1997/98	Apparent Completion
Female	1,430,890	868,698	61%
Male	1,932,919	1,287,254	67%
Total	3,363,809	2,155,952	64%

Source: EDB data.

The Rate of Transition to Junior Secondary Education

Transition is taken to mean movement of students from one education level to another. The rate of transition from the primary to the junior secondary level can be measured roughly as the enrolment of Junior Secondary One (JS1), as a proportion of the previous

year's enrolment in Primary Six (P6). The rate of transition from primary school to junior secondary school is not only low but also was on decline from 1990 to 1995. The transition rate, which was 48% in 1990, declined to 38% in 1997 (EDB data). In fact less than half of the pupils who complete primary education move into junior secondary school. Transition rate is a key indicator for Universal Basic Education. The low transition rate is mainly a result of the poverty of households and the high opportunity cost of junior secondary school attendance. To achieve EFA in 2015, government must improve existing education facilities and teachers' morale through greater financial commitment to the education sector. (See Table 5.4)

Table 5.4
Transition Rate from P6 to JS1, 1990 & 1997 (Public Sector)

Year of Transition	P6	JS1	Transition Rate
1990	1,606,299 (1989/90)	767,419 (1990/91)	48%
1997	2,042,819 (1996/97)	769,289 (1997/98)	38%

Source: EDB data.

Learning Achievement

External tests or examinations are intended to provide an objective basis for monitoring students learning achievement at different stages of education. In 1996, a national Monitoring of Learning Achievement (MLA) exercise was first carried out in Nigeria on Primary 4 students. It was a method of determining the amount of learning that takes place in core subjects. The result of MLA showed low achievement levels in three key areas: literacy, numeracy and life-skills. Performance on the literacy test was the lowest of the three, with a mean score of 25%. The national mean for life-skill, was 36.86% while that of Mathematics was 32%. However, all the tests were carried out in the English language, and this made some students with high exposure to English to score higher. The result further showed that students generally tended to perform better on oral tests compared to written tests. While students in private schools achieved higher scores than those in public schools, students in urban schools, scored higher than those in rural schools. As with other indicators, there were considerable differences in achievement levels across the states. As a follow-up action, the UBE conducted a National assessment of learning achievement of primary 5 pupils in English and Mathematics in 2001. The results were astonishingly disturbing, showing again low level of achievement in English, 40% and mathematics, 34%. The results of MLA (low students learning achievement) proved that the internal efficiency is low. It is a reflection of the poor quality of the resources (including the teachers) provided in primary schools. The school environment must be child-friendly and conducive to learning. There must be regularity of teachers' pay, teacher training on the job and adequacy of instructional/learning materials in all schools. Above all quality must go along with universal access and equity in education and this the government can provide through urgent restructuring of the inspectorate

service to be able to carry out regular quality control, capacity building and advisory roles.

Teaching and Learning: the Quality of Provision.

The primary school curriculum consists of Language, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies, Physical and Health Education, Religious Knowledge and Vocational Subjects. (FRN, 1998). Emphasis is placed on the use of language of the local environment in the first three years as a medium of instruction. A normal class lesson lasts 30 minutes, during which the teacher uses practical demonstration, experimental and exploratory or interactive methods of teaching. Instructional and learning materials such as textbooks, science equipment, chalk and chalkboards and charts are generally inadequate in most rural schools thus making effective delivery of curriculum difficult to achieve. The school environment in most public schools lacks adequate facilities like gender-sensitive toilets, a recreation ground and a source of potable water. Indeed classroom facilities are inadequate. Of the 332,408 classrooms in the 44, 292 primary schools in the country in 1999, the UBE Respond Data showed that only 140,134 are in good condition, leaving 157,819 to be massively rehabilitated. The system will also require additional 285,920 classrooms to be able to accommodate 511,939 streams in different classes. One must recognise the Federal Government's assistance to states and local governments in the provision of basic infrastructure. It has, for example, contracted the construction of 3,096 three-classroom blocks with toilets, stores and head teachers' office in the 774 LGAs. The rate of progress is, however, rather slow as only 1,500 have been completed, 1,501 are on-going and 95 units have been abandoned (information from the UBE Commission, 2003). It is yet to be seen what further progress will be made now that the Supreme Court ruling of April 2002 has transferred the construction, renovation and furnishing of UBE classrooms to the states.

As at 2001, there were 488,164 teachers in 49,326 primary schools in Nigeria (FME, 2001). The teaching staff are made up of graduates with and without teaching qualifications; holders of the Nigeria Certificate of Education (NCE); Grade II teachers and 20% teachers without teaching qualification. In 1990-96, there was significant improvement in teaching strength with more females than males. As at 2001, the national pupil-teacher ratio had reached 1:40, the maximum specified by the National Policy of Education (FME, 1998). There are disparities in this ratio among the states. The 2001 data show 111 pupils per teacher in Yobe, 44 in Borno, 41 in Jigawa, 52 in Sokoto, 22 in Lagos, 38 in Ondo, 59 in Abia and 68 in Edo. Thus states with the lowest participation rates and lowest girls' enrolment recorded shortages of teaching staff.

The quality of teachers produced for the UBE deserves greater attention. With a total staff strength of 429,098 in public primary schools in 1999, it was estimated that an additional 772,338 teachers would be required for a successful UBE at the universal ratio of 1:40. The on-going Pivotal Teacher Training Programme (PTTP) is a child of this circumstance. The Nigeria Certificate of Education (NCE) was adopted as the minimum qualification for primary school teachers in 1987 and this principle was reaffirmed by the

National Policy of 1998. The low qualification of PTTP products will no doubt impact negatively on the quality of UBE output in due course.

Supervision and Management

There is a command/control structure in the supervision of primary education in the country. Both the State Primary Education Board (SPEB) and the State Ministry of Education are involved in primary school supervision and inspection. At the state level, management of primary education resides with the SPEB while at the local government level, it is managed by the LGEA. Since the introduction of UBE, both SPEB and LGEA are linked with the UBE Commission (UBEC). However, the Supreme Court ruling of April 2002 has relieved the Federal Government of some functions, which are now transferred to the Local Government through the State Primary Education Board (SPEB). They are both overseen by the UBE and Federal Ministry of Education.

Specifically, supervision is the main responsibility of the local Government Education Authority (LGEA) and in most cases this is limited to record keeping and the physical aspect of inspection. School supervision is neither a regular nor a sustained activity. Most supervisors have no means of reaching distant schools and only schools close to their offices and houses enjoy frequent supervision. Also schools in the rural areas are visited less frequently than urban schools. The same fate applies to the inspectorate division of the ministry and SPEB. However, teachers' performance monitoring is carried out at the school level by the head teachers and their assistants. Their role is limited to supervision of lesson plans and schedules of work (Francis; 1998). The current primary school management arrangement between the states and the Local Government Education Authorities (LGEA) needs to be clarified to remove tension, duplication of efforts and wastage of resources. The LGEA should be more empowered with unhindered resources to carry out its statutory functions of supervision, supply and management of schools. In doing this, appropriate measures should be put in place to ensure transparency and accountability of all levels.

Community and Private Sector Participation

Community and private sector participation in primary education has been related to neglect of public services or low quality of public provisions. Coupled with this is the provision of the National Policy in Education (1998), which allows private individuals and organizations to run nursery and primary schools. Private sector participation in primary education has mushroomed in the last two decades. Participation has involved personal entrepreneurial initiatives or religious or non-governmental organisation efforts in the process of educational development. The schools usually have an adjoining nursery school that feeds pupils into it. They are costlier than public schools, mostly well funded and have more resources per pupil than government schools. The good ones are located in urban or sub-urban centres. Except for a few, the private schools perform well at the national Common Entrance examination into secondary schools. Most of the private schools however, require regular government supervision for the enforcement of

standards. Some private sector organisations also contribute 2% of profit after tax to the Education Tax Fund (ETF).

Recently, government introduced an innovation of allocating substantial funds for community self-help projects for school improvement. This is to increase community involvement in school management and hold schools accountable to parents and pupils. The World Bank has supported this effort since 1992. Ever since the 1980s, it has been common for local communities, normally working through parent-teacher associations, to provide financial assistance in the form of classroom construction, supply of furniture and equipment and provision of scholarships. They also assist in promoting enrolment and attendance in primary schools.

Nigeria's Situation in the International Context

Since the advent of democratic government, Nigeria has received a number of international supports in her bid to achieve the goals of Education for All (EFA). Her performance in meeting the internationally set goals has equally been a subject of assessment. Using three of the Dakar goals as indicators – those of universal access to primary education, adult literacy and gender parity – the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2002 has ranked Nigeria first among the 21 countries at serious risk of not achieving EFA goals with primary education net enrolment ratio (NER) of less than 80%. Secondly, Nigeria is placed among the list of 40 countries at serious risk of not achieving EFA goals with low adult literacy rate of less than 70%. There was no record on gender parity with which to assess the country (EFAGMR, 2002, pp. 91-93).

Furthermore, a recent World Bank report (Bruns, Mingat and Rakotomalala, 2003) places Nigeria in the lowest achieving of four groups of developing countries with respect to “EFA success”. This classification, however, is not due to Nigeria’s primary level GER, recorded as 85%, which is fairly typical of the West African region. The indicators which explain Nigeria’s presence in the lowest group are: (1) her completion rate for primary education; (2) her expenditure on education as proportion of current revenues; (3) the share of her educational expenditure devoted to the primary level, and (4) the share of her expenditure on primary education that is devoted to non-teacher inputs. Nigeria is also placed in a group of 15 “IDA countries” whose completion rates for primary education declined during the 1990s (from 71% to 67% in Nigeria’s case). The same source, however, records Nigeria’s recurrent expenditure on primary education as 1.9% of GDP, somewhat above the average for developing countries. It is not possible to comment comparatively on Nigeria’s preparation of EFA plans, since Nigeria did not respond to the survey of such plan conducted by the UNESCO Regional Bureaus at Dakar in April-May 2002 (see Sow and Sossou, 2002). Although Nigeria is working hard to put in place a National EFA Action Plan (NAP) to deliver EFA to her citizens, the various assessments of UBE are disturbing and call for urgent action to achieve the set goals.

Nomadic Education: Purpose and Objectives

The National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE) is charged with the responsibility of providing relevant and functional education for the nomads via NCNE Act. cap. 243, Laws of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. 1990. Nomadic education is an arm of primary education provided for the pastoral nomads and migrant fishing communities in a formal setting in accordance with their migratory lifestyle. The pastoral nomads with estimated population of 6.5 million and migrant fishing communities numbering about 2.8 million constitute the most educationally disadvantaged groups in the country, with 1989 literacy levels of 0.2% for pastoralists and 2.0% for fishing communities. The pastoral nomads are found in 31 States in different population proportions in the country where vegetation cover can provide adequate fodder for their cattle. The migrant fishing communities, on the other hand, are found in more than 20 states stretching from the shores of the Niger Delta to the valleys of Adamawa river. The former group provide 90% of the nation's beef requirements and the latter are responsible for 95% of the fish caught and sold for consumption nationwide. The objectives of nomadic education are derived from the NPE (1998). In specific terms, they include the acquisition of functional literacy and numeracy as well as knowledge and skills to empower the nomads to improve their income earnings. The inculcation of the spirit of humility, sense of belonging and appreciation of moral and religious practices are also cardinal among the objectives. Above all, nomadic education must specifically stimulate and equip the recipients with scientific and analytical modes of thinking to achieve all-round development.

Nomadic Education: Access, Curriculum and Problems.

Out of the estimated population of 10 million nomads in the country, about 3.6 million are children of school age. Access to nomadic education has been hampered by a number of factors, notably; a lifestyle of constant migration in search of water, pasture and fish; curriculum irrelevance to the needs, interests and problems of the nomads; the centrality of "child labour" to the production system; and environmental physical barriers to settlement. Nevertheless, the number of pupils enrolled in 1999 for nomadic primary schools is 163,361 in 1369 primary schools. By 2002, the enrolment figure increased to 226,944 pupils in 1,680 nomadic schools, an increase of over 25% in enrolment of which 1,307 are pastorals schools (NCNE, 2002). Since vegetation cover and terrain dictate the pattern of migration, states with lush cover and states with high percentage of Fulani pastoralists recorded high incidence of pupil enrolment e.g. Plateau, Katsina and Adamawa. Other states like Ogun, Ondo, Abia, Anambra and Enugu recorded low enrolment. Among the migrant fishing communities of Rivers, Bayelsa, Akwa-Ibom, Edo, Delta, Ondo and Ogun a total of 169,221 children were enrolled in 301 schools with a teacher population of 3,782 in year 2000, (Tawari, 2002). This is a marked improvement on the 1999 enrolment figure of 40,806 children, an increase of over 400%.

There are two types of curriculum used in nomadic schools: the national curriculum and the nomadic curriculum, which reflect the nomadic culture. Nomadic schools are of three types, the fixed/permanent structures, the temporary and the mobile collapsible. The majority of the schools are fixed and they operate the normal five school days a week.

The schools open from 7.00am to 12.30p.m. to provide time for herding by the boys and selling of milk and other domestic work by the girls. The pastoral nomadic curriculum consists of the eight subjects taught in normal schools but is lacking in animal husbandry and farming techniques. There are 4,907 teachers to 203,845 pupils, giving a pupil-teacher ratio of 1:42. Of the 4907 teachers, 11.2% are NCE, 41% are Grade II while the remaining are unqualified and upgraded teachers. Nomadic teacher training is undertaken at universities of Maiduguri, Port-Harcourt and the Federal College of Education, Yola. The Usman Danfodiyo University produces curriculum materials used for teaching/learning, while the Universities of Jos and Port Harcourt do further research on nomadic education.

Schools in the migrant fishing communities are mostly of temporary structures located in areas with 75% flood. There are a few permanent ones. There are also boat schools with classroom facilities and toilets. The boat goes from one fishing port to another picking nomadic pupils to a safe place and teaching them there. The migrant schools open from 8.00a.m to 2.00p.m and operate the four core subject areas of the national curriculum. A fault with the curriculum is that it does not contain subjects like swimming and fishing relevant to the life of the migrant fishing communities. NCNE has however embarked on curriculum enrichment to suit the educational needs of nomads. There are 3,782 teachers to 169,221 pupils, thus giving a pupil-teacher ratio of 1:45. As result of an intensive teacher development programme, the number of qualified teachers has increased from 486 in 1990 to 3,139 in 2002 (NCNE 2003). School programmes are affected during the peak fishing periods of October/November when pupils are hardly in school. The standard of instruction in nomadic schools is moderately high and encouraging, even though the schools lacked adequate instructional materials and furniture. Between 1992 and 2002, 60,212 nomadic children successfully completed primary education and 21,032 of this figure gained admissions to various secondary schools (NCNE, 2002).

Nomadic education as a component of UBE deserves greater attention in order to achieve EFA goals by 2015. Action should be giving to the provision of more permanent classroom structures, instructional materials and curriculum relevance. Also government should provide adequate financial support and well motivated teaching force for the nomadic education programme.

Special Education

Special education is the education given to children with special needs and the NPE (1998) recognises two categories of children with special needs. There are those with learning difficulties as a result of different kinds of handicaps and are unable to cope with routine class organisation and methods. The second category consists of the specially gifted and talented, who find themselves insufficiently challenged by the regular school programmes. Each category is expected to benefit from free education at all levels while government provides all necessary facilities to ensure access to education.

The objectives of special education derived from the National Policy of Education are to: (1) emphasise special provision for the disabled in regular schools, (2) provide functional literacy as well as technical and vocational skills that will enable the disabled to earn a sustainable living, and (3) provide opportunities for the exceptionally gifted children to develop at their own pace in the interest of the nation's economic and technological development (NPE, 1981).

Special Education: Access, Curriculum and Problems

There is no current data on the number and calibre of disabled persons now in homes and centres, or the number enrolled in various forms of institutions across the country. In 1975, a survey of special education facilities on integration carried out by Ogbue (1981) shows that there were 32% deaf and partially hearing, 23.6% blind and partially sighted, 44.4% physically handicapped and others. There were 1,682 disabled persons in 26 schools, homes and centres, with 450 staff numbers and about 1,989 other disabled in homes. The population of the disabled student rose to 6,021 by 1977, consisting of 731 deaf and partially hearing, 957 blind and partially sighted, 1,658 physically handicapped, and 3075 in homes.

In spite of the dearth of current statistics on special education, each state government as a matter of policy runs a special school for the disabled. The Federal Government also established in 1990, a school for the gifted, the Federal Government Academy, Suleja, and provides integrated programmes for the disabled in seven Federal Government Colleges across the country. Government efforts at the tertiary level is seen in the establishment of departments of special education at the Universities of Ibadan, Jos, Calabar, Bayero University Kano and the Institute of Education, University of Nigeria Nsukka. Middle-level teachers training is also carried out at the Federal College of Education (Special) Oyo.

It appears that the prevailing institutional arrangements have not translated into positive programmes that would drive the special education forward. Presently, there is no special provision in the UBE programme for mainstreaming the disabled in regular schools. There are equally no adequate data for planning and addressing the provisional needs of the disabled in the country. All this calls for an urgent research to focus on the extent to which disabled persons can benefit from the UBE programme. Further research should also deal into the integration of the disabled into the world of work.

Achievements and Constraints in Primary Education

There has been an improvement in the number and enhancement in the professional development of teachers. This has led to the production of 30,000 NCE teachers and 42,000 auxiliary teachers through the PTPP of the National Teachers Institute (UBE 2001). An enrolment drive was carried out to enhance the access, retention and participation of girls, the marginalised and the unreached. This is in addition to the formation of 94 radio programme listening groups to promote nomadic participation in

basic education. Across the country, work has been completed by the UBE Commission on the construction of 1,500 three-classroom blocks with head teachers' offices, stores and VIP toilets. Within the last two years, 148 Child Friendly Schools have been established. In the face of these achievements, cultural factors have continued to retard female enrolment in the North. There is also an increasing unemployment rate, which reinforces negative perceptions of the relevance and value of education provision. The school environment still remains unfriendly in most states with poor infrastructure and facilities. Above all, resource allocation to this sector has not matched the vision and scope of primary education in the country.

CHAPTER SIX

JUNIOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

Scope and Objectives

Junior secondary education is the education received after primary education. It runs for three years as the last segment of the nine-year basic education programme in Nigeria. With the emergence of the NPE (1977), junior secondary education (JSE) was designed to equip citizens with adequate knowledge and skills required for a useful life in the society. As a matter of policy (though not yet in reality), JSE is tuition free, universal and compulsory. The official age for attendance in JSE is 12 to 14. The objective of junior secondary education is to provide all primary school leavers with opportunities for education of a higher level. It is intended to develop in the individual functional skills and capacities for creative and critical thinking that will enable him or her to make appropriate decision, solve problems and carry out practical tasks. JSE has a comprehensive curriculum, both academic and prevocational in content, designed to give a sound general education and opportunities for career choice.

Access: General Indicators

Access to junior secondary education in Nigeria is far from universal. Less than half of the pupils who complete primary education move to the junior secondary education (FGN, 2000). This is observable from the transition rate from primary to junior secondary level, which declined from 53% in 1992 to 44% in 1995 (NPC/UNICEF 2001). A recent World Bank Secondary Education Survey (2002) identifies various causes of the low transition rate. Firstly, the conduct of the First School Leaving Certificate Examination eliminates about 25% of those who complete primary school, and state entrance examinations for junior secondary education eliminate another 25%. Secondly, non-adherence to the free-education policy by some states also denies a high proportion of primary school leavers entry into junior secondary level. Thirdly, the opportunity cost of attendance to most Nigerian households that live below poverty line is high. Government must address the problem of low enrolment into junior secondary education if it is to meet the objectives of the UBE Programme.

Since the launch of the 9-year basic education programme in 1992, the number of junior secondary “schools” in Nigeria has continued to increase, even through majority of school buildings house both junior and senior secondary sections. The public sector enrolment in the JS rose from 2,237,689 in 1992 to 2,727,830 in 1995, but was somewhat lower in 2002, when the total for the public and private sectors was 2,712,106 (Baseline data). The female share of enrolment has remained steady, at 45% in 1992, 47% in 1995 and 44% in 2002 (see Annex VI).

The gross intake rate (GIR) is measured as the total number of new entrants enrolled in Junior Secondary One as a percentage of the total population of the official school age of entry (12 years). From 1992 to 1996, the GIR increased from 32% in 1992, to 37% in 1994 and dropped to 28%. Further analysis revealed that states with lower female participation had a lower GIR and vice versa, e.g. Kano, Jigawa, Kebbi and Yobe in 1995. This trend is indicative of male dominance at JS level in the North. Some of the states with a high female GIR in the South are Lagos, Ogun, and Enugu. Nationally, there was no increase in the percentage of boys gaining admission into junior secondary school between 1992 and 1996.

The trend in gross enrolment ratio (GER) in the mid-90s at the junior secondary level reflected the deterioration of the GIR mentioned above. The GER declined from 41% in 1994 to 34% in 1996 nationally (FME 2000). In the North, the GER fell below 20% in several states (e.g. Jigawa, Yobe, Katsina, Sokoto). While the GER for girls was very low in the North because of historical and cultural factors, the GER for boys in the South-East and South-South remained on decline. In such states as Anambra, Edo, Enugu, Rivers and Akwa Ibom, boys are often withdrawn from junior secondary school to engage in apprenticeship and other informal employment. For recent GERs at the national level, see Annex VI.

The completion rate at the junior secondary level is more satisfactory than at the primary level. About four in every five junior secondary pupils succeed in completing this stage of education. From 1989 to 1994, the drop out rate never exceeded 15%. The completion rate is higher for girls than for boys: 83% compared to 79% for boys in 1995 (NPC/UNICEF, 2001).

Rate of Transition to the Senior Secondary Level

The transition rate between junior secondary and senior secondary education was close to or above 90% for the period 1990-1995, in contrast with the high level of attrition between the primary and junior secondary levels. A streaming process is used in the transition from junior secondary level to senior secondary level and tests of academic ability, aptitude and vocational interest are used to guide the process. The National Policy on Education recommends transition to various destinations in the following proportions: 60% to senior secondary schools; 20% to technical colleges; 10% to vocational training centres, and 10% to apprenticeships. The higher proportion going to senior secondary school (much higher than 60%) is a result of some negative factors in the educational system. Technical and vocational education have low status. The lack of teachers and equipment has turned Introductory Technology, a core subject, into an optional subject in most schools. More generally, the pre-vocational training offered at the junior secondary level is of poor quality in spite of its high cost. All these are problems which government must address in order to make the nation relevant in a technological world.

The Curriculum

The curriculum at the junior secondary level is both academic and pre-vocational. This is a significant difference. It is designed to generate interest of students in pre-vocational skills early in life. At this level, the National Policy on Education places greater emphasis on science and technology and the acquisition of knowledge and skills. To ensure a solid base for future manpower development the curriculum prescribes a wide range of subjects that must be offered, leading to a variety of courses and career choices at the senior secondary level. Thus every student must offer (a) a minimum of 10 and a maximum of 13 subjects; (b) all subjects in groups A and (c) and at least one subject each from groups B and C. Group A core subjects are: English Language; French; Mathematics; Language of the environment (L1) and one major Nigerian Language other than that of the environment (L2); Integrated science; Social Studies and Citizenship Education; and Introductory technology. Group B pre-vocational electives are: Agriculture; Business studies; Home economics; Local crafts and Computer education. The emphasis of subjects in Group B is to be on practice. Group C, non-vocational electives, are: Religious Knowledge; Physical and Health Education; Fine Art, Music and Arabic.

Assessment of learning achievement is done by the use of continuous assessment, which has four elements: regular class tests; class assignments; take-home assignments, and project, all weighted 30%. The terminal examination is weighted 70%. The Junior Secondary School Certificate Examination (JSCE) is conducted by states individually for most pupils, while the National Examination Council (NECO) conducts an examination for Federal Government Colleges, private schools and a few states.

The curriculum of the junior secondary schools is widely thought to be over-ambitious and over-loaded, yet it has not accommodated crucial emerging issues like HIV/AIDS prevalence or the controversial sexuality education. This curriculum problem is a major one for the success of the UBE programme. Since junior secondary education forms part of basic education, Government will have to reconcile its inclusion in UBE with the breadth of the curriculum, and devise a mechanism for reducing the unit cost at this level in order to guarantee universal access.

Management and Supervision

Management and supervision of junior secondary education (JSE) is the combined responsibilities of the state and Federal Governments. Both of them have been empowered by the provision of Schedule II Part II of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. A directorate in the Federal Ministry manages the 83 Federal Government Colleges. In the states, public schools are managed either by a state Post-Primary Education Board or by a Teaching Service Commission, or by a School Management Board. The body is responsible for teachers' recruitment and deployment, remuneration, welfare, discipline and disbursement of funds. Management of private schools is in the hands of the proprietor or Board of Governors. The Board exercises its

oversight functions on the school Principal and ensures that the school operates in line with the vision of the founders and directives from the government.

Thus far, there is no national body to monitor public secondary schools like the National Council for Colleges of Education (NCCE) or the National Universities Commission (NUC). However, following the Supreme Court ruling of 2002 the mandate of UBE was reconceptualised and the body will now carry out quality assurance activities through the Federal Inspectorate Services for this level. This is in addition to benchmarking and setting of minimum standards for primary education. Students' involvement in school management at this level is channelled through students' representative councils (SRCs). An SRC is made up of school prefects and class captains who express their views on the events in the school. In both government and private schools, the Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) supplements the efforts of the managing body in the provision of infrastructure.

Achievements and Challenges in Junior Secondary Education

Achievements at this level of education include the increase in the enrolment of girls and a substantial increase in the transition to the senior secondary level. However, the issue of low funding, a focus on examinations rather than skills development, and inadequate equipment for introductory technology are major constraints at this level.

The transition rate from primary to junior secondary school could be improved through mobilisation and sensitisation drives by the government. In the area of curriculum, government should reconcile curriculum goals with the cost of education and devise a way of providing adequate introductory technology equipment to cater for this core aspect of the curriculum. Embarking on a special enrolment drive using women community leaders, community women politicians and women in tertiary institutions to encourage participation by girls could also reduce the gender imbalance in the northern states. In some areas, provision of boarding facilities for girls will go a long way to encourage female attendance. An improvement of employment opportunities and better welfare packages for the employed would stimulate the interest of boys in the South-East and South-South zones. Most importantly, the unit cost of education to the household at this level should be kept as low as possible. Parents have not seen free education to be completely free. Government will need to commit more financial resources to junior secondary education if it is really to form part of the basic education for all.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SENIOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

Introduction

Secondary education is a comprehensive type of education with a core curriculum, designed to broaden the knowledge and outlook of students who “successfully complete the junior secondary school” (FME, 2000, p.138). On completion of junior secondary school, students are expected to proceed either to senior secondary school, preparatory to entry into tertiary institutions or into vocational or technical training institutions for critical skills acquisition (ESA, 2000, p.6). Education at this level also equips pupils with necessary skills to exit school and find employment (Moja, 2000). Senior secondary schooling is of three years duration and the official age for schooling at this level is 15-17 years.

The streaming and certification of students from the junior secondary school are influenced by choice to some extent. However, the pupils’ academic ability, aptitude and vocational interest in the Junior School Certificate Examination (JSCE), determine the placement into the different streams. The streaming is designed to achieve a transition ratio of 60:20:10:10 for the entry of junior secondary leavers into senior secondary schools, technical colleges, vocational training centres and apprenticeship schemes respectively. With regard to “separation”, it was always recognised that junior secondary and senior secondary schooling would in many cases take place under the same roof. The old NPE stated that there should be separation where possible (NPE, 1981, p. 16). The senior secondary education system is well established. Between 1988 and 1991, all states of the federation completed the two 3-year cycles of secondary education. The sixth form system that was in existence before then was phased out.

Goals and Objectives

The goals of senior secondary education as stipulated in the National Policy on Education are to prepare students for “useful living within the society and for higher education” (FRN, 1998, p. 17). The objectives are to ensure there is a balance between literary and vocational goals as well as inspire students with a desire for self-improvement and achievement in later life.

Access and Participation

Secondary education has expanded considerably over the past decade. The total number of public secondary schools rose from 6,009 in 1992 to 6,844 in 2002 (an increase of 11.4%). Of these, 102 (1.4%) were federal unity schools in 2002.

The national population aged 15-17 years in 1998 was estimated at 6,968,448 (FME, 2000), out of which 22.5% of boys and 20.8% of girls gained admission to SS1. Between 1998 and 2002, enrolment had increased from 1.8m to 2.2m (see Table 7.1). The CEA report (FME, 2000) shows that there was a slight gender disparity in favour of boys. The gender gap in the national gross intake reduced from 2.6% in 1992 to 0.4% in 1996. When the data are disaggregated by states, Lagos had a gross intake ratio of 55% for both males and females between 1992 and 1996, the highest in the country, while Ogun and Oyo States had above 40% for both males and females during the same period (FME, 2000, p.132). However the majority of the states in the North-West and North-East Zones had very low gross intake ratios. For instance Sokoto State registered on the average 6% for boys and 1% for girls within the same period. The highest age for entry into SS1 is 18 years, but the majority age range in 1999 was between 15 and 16 years (MICS, 1999).

The national gross enrolment ratios (GERs) for the public senior secondary level were in the range of 32-34% in the mid 1990s (FME, 2000), and somewhat lower (25-27%) in 2000-2002 (see Annex VI). Girls' enrolment at the senior secondary level has been higher than that for boys in virtually all the southern states, especially in the South-East and South-West, with the highest recorded in Lagos, Edo and Delta States in 2002. The imbalance was also pronounced in Enugu, Anambra and Imo states. On the average, the national gender ratio of 110% was recorded at the senior secondary level between 1992 and 1996 (see Table 7.2 and Figure 7.1). This means that participation at this level was in favour of girls during the period. However in some States in the North there were low gender ratios, Sokoto having 32%, the lowest in the country (FME, 2000, p. 140).

Internal Efficiency

The majority of students completing junior secondary schools education enter general senior secondary programme. The transition rate between the two tiers of secondary education is about 90% in most years for both males and females (NPC/UNICEF, 2001, p.149). This contrasts with the targets in the National Policy on Education which prescribed a 60% transition of pupils from junior secondary to general senior secondary education.

The 60% transition to senior secondary is not being adhered to as most students and parents prefer general senior secondary to technical and vocational schools since the latter are being perceived as dumping grounds for less able students. The critical issue of access within the policy of 60% transition to senior secondary is cause of concern. Places in technical college were not available for as many as 20% of junior secondary graduate earmarked for admission into technical colleges, as there are not enough science and technical colleges (FME, 2000, p. 131).

Table 7. 1

Senior Secondary Education (Total Enrolment and Enrolment Rates, 1998 – 2002)

Years	Total Enrolments, in 000s (Percentages in brackets)			Gross Enrolment Ratios		
	Males	Females	Males/Females	Males	Females	Males/Females
1998	984 (56)	783 (44)	1,778 (100)	29%	22%	25%
1999	904 (54)	756 (46)	1,660 (100)	N.A.*	N.A.	N.A.
2000	997 (55)	829 (46)	1,826 (100)	26%	23%	25%
2001	1,116 (55)	905 (45)	2,021 (100)	29%	24%	26%
2002	1,188 (55)	965 (45)	2,153 (100)	29%	25%	27%

*N.A. = Not available.

Source: FME Baseline and other FME data. (See Annex VI.)

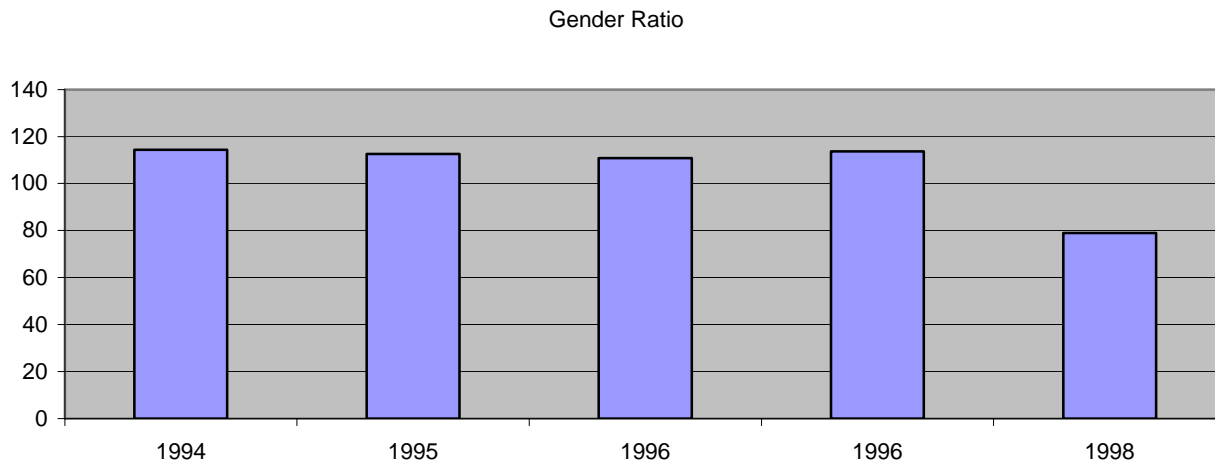
Table 7. 2

Gender Ratio and Gender Gaps, 1994 – 1998

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Gender Ratio	114.4	112.6	110.8	113.7	79.0
Gender Gaps	2.6%	3.4%	3.8%	8.2%	5.9%

Source: FME, 2000

FIGURE 7.1 Gender Ratio in Senior Secondary Schools



More males than females consistently dropped out from SS1 and SS2 classes between 1991 and 1993 except in 1993 when the girls outnumbered the boys. The attrition rates for boys declined from 13.5% to 6.4% between 1989 and 1993. On the average, there is a higher attrition rate in SS1 than SS2. Attrition in the South-East Zone is largely due to the economic recession. Withdrawal of girls in the northern states is often for marriage. Other reasons for withdrawal are reluctance of parents to send their daughters to school, and economic pressure on some parents resulting in their sending children into labour market to augment family income.

Curriculum

The senior secondary schools, in pursuit of their obligations to “raise a generation of students who can think for themselves, respect the views and feelings of others and the dignity of labour ... and live as good citizens” (FRN, 1998, p. 17), are expected to offer seven core subjects. These are English Language, Mathematics, French, a major Nigerian Language, Physics or Chemistry or Biology, Literature in English or History, Geography or Social Studies, and a vocational subject. Thus every student, in addition to offering the core subjects is also expected to take a minimum of one and maximum of two from the list of elective subjects under vocational and non-vocational subjects. This gives a minimum of eight and maximum of nine subjects. One of the three elective subjects may be dropped in the last year of the senior secondary course.

The learning experiences the curriculum is intended to provide are rich and varied and capable of meeting the immediate and future needs of students in terms of what is

prescribed. However, when it comes to implementation, the curriculum of the schools has been criticized for being “over-ambitious, resulting in overload and insufficiently attuned to the needs of the labour market,” particularly in pre-vocational and vocational/technical courses (NPC/UNICEF, 2001, p. 159). The process of integrating family life education into the secondary school curriculum is almost completed.

An integrated curriculum approach has been adopted as opposed to emphasis on single subjects. Implementation of the curriculum indicates that the teachers as implementers failed to understand the underlying approach. Rather, they continued to teach using the old” approach they were accustomed to. The failure in implementation was therefore due to ‘lack of support through rigorous re-training of teachers and continued support during implementation” (Moja, 2000, p. 17).

Teaching / Learning

The medium of instruction at the senior secondary school is English, the official language in the country. The National Policy on Education (NPE) (1998, p. 44) has prescribed that “there shall not be more than 40 pupils to a class” in secondary schools. The total number of classrooms available in all the secondary schools in 2001 was about 124,229, which resulted in an average of 37 pupils per class (FME Baseline data). It is important to note that over-crowded classrooms have negative impacts on the quality of education received. The staff strength of the senior secondary school cannot be disaggregated from that of the junior secondary school because teaching staff teach at both levels. The national average pupil teacher ratio of 32 is reasonable. In 2002, the average national pupil-teacher was 29.8. The high ratios indicate inadequate staffing, which reduces quality of education offered, while low ratios indication overstaffing – a misallocation of resources.

Only teachers with specialisation in the relevant subject area and having Higher National Diploma (HND) with teaching qualification or those possessing University Degree with teaching qualification are considered qualified to teach at the senior secondary level (FME, 2000, p. 146). The NERDC (1997) National Survey of Teacher Supply and Demand in Secondary Schools in attempting to ascertain the number and calibre of teachers required in secondary schools as against supply, came up with the some findings. Only 36.8% of the teachers were qualified to teach English, while 9.5% of those engaged to teach the subject were not qualified. The percentage of senior secondary teachers of any particular subject who were qualified to teach that subject at the senior secondary school level ranged from 11.3 for Arabic to 64.2 for Clothing and Textile. There was no other subject apart from Clothing and Textile where the percentage of teachers qualified to teach it was as high as 48%. The report also stated that only 27.4% of Mathematics teachers were qualified to teach Mathematics to the SSS level. Only the unity schools maintain reasonably high percentages of qualified teachers at the SS level in the sciences, but not in the technical subjects, which they rarely offer (FME, 2000, p. 148). Teacher deficiencies in Mathematics and the sciences help to account for the poor results in these subjects, illustrated by Table 7.3.

Table 7.3
West African School Certificate - Nov/ Dec Exam. with Credits and Above (%)

	1998	1999	2000	2001
Biology	11.6	28.4	10.4	20.4
Chemistry	21.7	14.8	7.0	24.7
Physics	26.4	25.2	41.6	48.4
Mathematics	28.2	33.1	46.1	41.6

Source: Adapted from WAEC Results (1998-2001).

Assessment System

The Senior School Certificate (SSC) is awarded on successful completion of the senior secondary school. It is based on continuous assessment, and a national examination namely West African Examinations Council. In 1999, the National Examination Council (NECO) was restructured and mandated to conduct a parallel terminal examination (FME, 2000a, p.153). This was introduced because of the clamour to have a national examination body as other West African countries and also to allow flexibility of choice for candidates by schools depending on their views about the assessment.

Performance in Senior Secondary Certificate Examination and General certificate of Education (GCE) in Federal and State schools has not been encouraging. There has been a high rate of failure in the science subjects (Moja, 2000) (see Table 7.3 and Annex VIII). Studies have shown that the reasons for the poor performance could be attributed to the poor state of education in the country and the fact that science teaching is taught by unqualified teachers and lack of resources for science teaching (Moja, 2000, p. 21). Other reasons adduced are the inadequate preparation of students for examinations as well as cuts in education budgets leading to shortages of facilities and equipment needed for teaching of science.

The scope and complexity of examination malpractice has been a major problem encountered in the conduct of examinations in Nigeria. Candidates have devised various methods of cheating that has led to rescheduling of some examination papers. The most common cases of malpractices identified range from smuggling of scripts, collusion among candidates, impersonation, to copying from other candidates etc. and they are not unconnected with poor performance, anxiety, management and inadequate preparation for the examinations. It has been possible to reduce these malpractices to a certain degree with the provision of penalties in the regulations and the vigilance of the supervisors and invigilators (FME/, 2000a, p. 156; WAEC, 2001).

The government is in the process of reintroducing the Higher School Certificate Examination (HSCE), as it has been argued that it will provide a more thorough preparation to university and will give a better sift for candidates for university education. In the past, HSCE was perceived as being very demanding, for after the two years duration, candidates were subjected to a terminal examination, which was risky as they ended up failing in most cases. Thus, it was very unpopular and had to be abandoned in favour of other alternatives such as basic studies offered in some universities in the country at that time. It was also seen as a barrier to the expansion of university education.

Supervision and Support

The Federal Government Colleges are supervised, for quality assurance, by the Federal Inspectorate Services. The State Inspectorate Services, in line with the provisions of the 1999 Constitution, have the mandatory responsibility to inspect their schools, but the Federal Government from time to time exercises inspectorate functions on the state secondary schools.

The Federal Inspectorate Services have been plagued by a number of problems over the years. These are “under funding, poor professional skills, lack of mobility, poor staff morale, etc” (FME, 2003). As some states do not have standard inspectorates, there is a lack of systematic quality assurance in the senior secondary schools. Inspections are rare at this level and, when they do occur, are often “of the fire brigade type” (World Bank, 2002, p. 27).

School Management

Most states have a Post-primary Education Board or Teaching Service Commission (TESCOM) or Schools Management Board responsible for teacher recruitment, deployment, remuneration, welfare, and discipline and for disbursement of funds to secondary schools. In other states, the functions are performed by the Secondary Education Departments of the Ministry of Education. Unfortunately, there is often rivalry between secondary education boards and departments (World Bank, 2002, p. 27)

Boards of governors seem to have disappeared from state government owned secondary schools, but are a strong feature in private schools in recent years. These boards monitor the work of the principal, ensures that the school operates in line with expectations of the proprietors and use their influence to attract assistance to the schools (World Bank, 2002, p. 28).

The effectiveness of the PTA according to the World Bank report seems to depend on the ownership of the school and the socio-economic status of the parents. They function in the Federal Government Colleges, the missionary schools and the private sector institutions.

Inadequate planning and funding as well as the inadequacies of the monitoring processes for the implementation of the national policy on education has contributed to a lack of adequate facilities such as classroom space in the sub-sector. There has not been a concomitant expansion of the system with the infrastructure needed to support it.

Funding of Secondary Education

Secondary education is the responsibility of State Governments except for the few federal unity schools. An average of two-thirds of all State Government expenditure is allocated for secondary schooling (Hinchliffe, 2002, pp. 9-10). This is illustrated in Table 7.4 and Figure 7.2, using selected states representing the 6 geo-political zones.

Local communities have contributed immensely to the financing of education through self-help projects. They have built and equipped schools, and at times have contributed funds to assist the recurrent expenses of schools: but their contributions have not been “properly evaluated in quantifiable terms” (Nwagwu, 1998, p. 17). The Education Tax Fund (ETF) complements state government budgets for secondary institutions nationwide. The ETF has contributed in the funding of numerous intervention projects in the various aspects at this level of the education sector. The total funds allocated for intervention projects from 1999 to 2001 for secondary education was N4.5 bn., though only 52% was disbursed. The beneficiaries have been very slow in the prosecution of their projects, hence the slow rates of disbursement (see Table 7.5). Details of secondary education funding are in the chapter on educational finance.

Table 7.4
Source of Funding Secondary Education in Eight States, 1999 (percentages)

	Borno	Rivers	Enugu	Benue	Ekiti	Niger	Jigawa	Oyo
State	67.9	73.0	85.4	75.9	100.0	70.8	100.0	81.8
Federal	32.1	27.0	14.6	24.2	0.0	29.2	0.0	18.2

Source: Hinchliffe (2002).

FIGURE 7.2 Sources of Funding Secondary Education, 1999

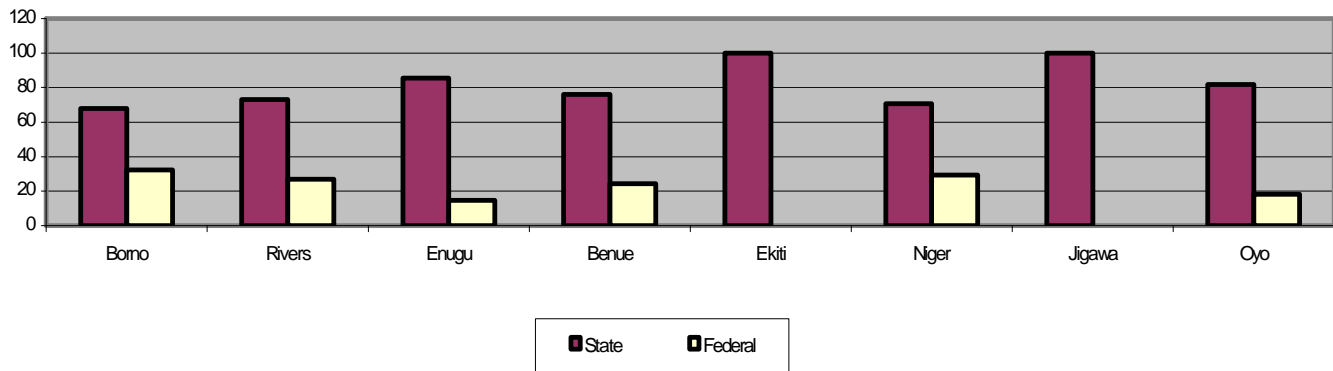


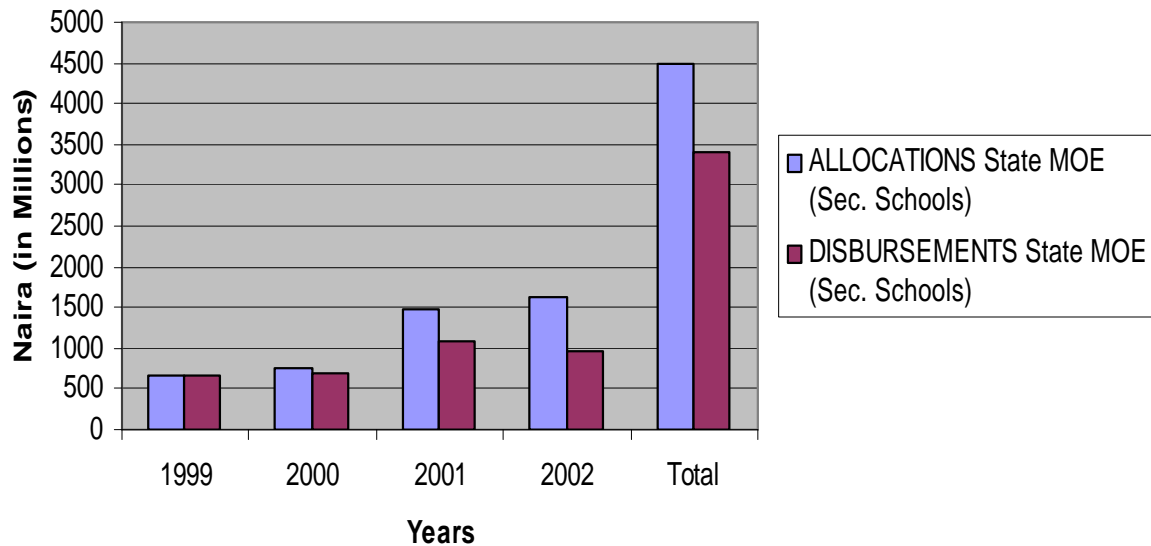
Table 7.5
ETF Funding of Secondary & Post-Secondary Education, 1999-2002 (in millions)

YEAR	ETF ALLOCATIONS		ETF DISBURSEMENTS	
	State MOE (Sec. Schools)	Federal Universities & Schools	State MOE (Sec. Schools)	Federal Universities & Schools
1999	657.0	318.0	657.0	318.0
2000	744.8	110.0	689.6	110.0
2001	1,480.0	113.0	1,089.0	-
2002	1,620.0	151.3	975.5	47.6
Total	4,501.8	692.3	3,411.1	475.6
	5,193.3		3,886.7	

Source: Adapted from FME/ETF Report, March 2003

FIGURE 7.3

ETF Funding of State Secondary Schools-1999-2002



Achievements

In view of the problems besetting the secondary education sub-sector, the Federal Ministry of Education has made continued efforts to revamp this crucial level of the educational system. The rationale for establishing three unity schools in Abuja was to cope with the increasing demand for placement of children, from parents flocking into the city because of the movement of the national administrative headquarters to Abuja.

The government has also achieved the following: revamping the system of admission into the federal unity schools, to cater for more talented and deserving candidates; updating the capacity of school principals in current school management practices; promotion of transition to technical colleges through the establishment of Federal Science and Technical Schools of six years duration; development of an ICT curriculum and its integration into schools. The Sara Communication Initiative project, an integrated communication package in form of films, cartoons, comics for youths, parents and communities, has also been introduced into schools to address the problems confronting girls and to promote their participation in the education system.

The State Ministries of Education, in collaboration with National Educational Technology Centre, have produced a series of educational broadcasting programmes in Chemistry, Physics, Biology and English Language for senior secondary schools to improve learning and teaching in these subjects.

Challenges

Monitoring of Learning Achievement (MLA) should be carried out at the SSS level. This will assess competencies within specific knowledge domains of a student within the dictates of curricular demands as well as measure the level of pupils' learning acquisition. It will also analyze the pattern of performance at national and State levels by sector, type of school and gender (FME, 2000a, p. 77). MLA will also reveal the competencies of the teaching staff in handling their various subjects as well as the prevailing environment the child comes from and how it affects performance, which the existing results do not measure.

Stimulating demand for senior secondary education is a challenge for the less educationally developed states of the North and South to expand access at the senior secondary level. Thus this should be encouraged as is done in Kano and in Bayelsa by renovating more rural secondary schools, constructing additional classrooms, equipping and furnishing the schools. This will attract students as well teachers to them because of the conducive and enabling environment (World Bank, 2002, p. 14). Training and retraining of various categories of serving teachers who are not fully qualified to teach at the level where they are currently employed to teach is crucial (FME, 2000, p. 157).

Diversifying opportunities for senior secondary education is critical, as learners' needs do vary across time, space, gender, socio-economic conditions, generation, etc. Attention must be paid to the following: "rural, far-flung communities, urban ghettos and the urban poor, girls in all places, boys in some places, adolescents already engaged in economic activities and a wide variety of persons with special learning needs" (World Bank, 2002, p.15). This could be achieved through establishing more technical colleges and vocational centres at the state levels.

The curriculum should be enriched to meet the needs of changing times, by emphasising information communication technology and sexuality education especially in the light of the HIV/ AIDS. Emphasis should also be placed on Guidance and Counselling, as reflected in the National Policy on Education, as students at this level need to be guided on career-choices.

CHAPTER EIGHT

ADULT AND NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

Introduction

The National Policy on Education (1998) describes as adult and non-formal, all forms of functional education given to youths and adults outside the formal school 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. The target groups specified in the policy include nomads, migrant fishing families, the disabled and others, and programmes include functional literacy remedial and vocational education. 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, having been crippled by inadequate planning for logistics, this campaign at least taught Nigerians how not to organize a mass literacy campaign.

The establishment of the National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-Formal Education (NMEC) by Decree 17 of 1990 with very clear mandates in the areas of monitoring, coordination and research on adult education gave a new impetus to adult education activities in Nigeria. State Agencies for Mass Education were also established in the 36 states and Abuja to implement Adult Education programmes. Regarded as part of Nigeria's response to the Jomtien Declaration, NMEC has provided the lead as envisaged in mobilizing support for and participation in mass literacy delivery. This chapter presents the activities and programmes that have gone on in Adult and Non-Formal Education, and documents the responses to emerging challenges in the field since 1999.

Concepts and Programmes

Emerging developments 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 peculiar 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. The challenge of equipping these young people with literacy as well as marketable skills is a major one for adult 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 tests tell us that it is no longer possible to do so as competencies have dropped drastically (MLA, 1996). With this increase in the number of 'schooled' illiterates as it were, adult education has to cater not only for the education of youths and adults but that of children as well.

In order to cater to the needs of these 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.

Nigeria's Literacy Profile

Literacy is defined as the ability of a person to read and write with understanding, a short simple statement on his or her everyday life. 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 under 35 years of age. This is the productive age group and the fact that this report was published almost 8 years after its collation (1991) exhibits the information gaps that are apparent. Literacy rates according to urban and rural settings are 90% urban and 62% rural (98% urban male; 79% urban female; 75% rural male; 52% rural female).

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. This shows an obvious disparity between the North and the South but criticisms arise when we compare this outcome with our definition of literacy. It is not known whether data collectors asked specifically in which language people could read and write during the data collection exercise. The fact here is that most adults in the North can read and write Arabic but the figures for literacy reflected here may not have captured that fact. This issue has to be properly addressed in order to obtain a clearer picture of the literacy profile across states and regions (FGN/UNICEF, 2001).

Nationally, Nigeria's literacy rate of 49% is far below the average of 57% for Sub-Saharan Africa. Some other national examples are Cameroon 72% and Ghana 68% with female literacy also being lower in Nigeria than in 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 UBE programme clearly tackles this challenge in its blue print. More of these discussions will come up later in this chapter.

Access to Adult and Non-Formal Education Programmes

The heightened mobilization efforts of all concerned agencies with the leadership of NMEC and its State Agencies have resulted in a massive awareness and demand for adult education programmes. However, the SAPA document (1993) reports a lack of access to adult education programmes for many adults with as many as 46% of the sampled communities not having access to adult education centres. The document revealed too that even where there is access, participation is restricted on grounds of non-functional programme offerings and other factors including age, unsuitable programme schedule, irrelevant programmes, lack of interest, ill health and husband's refusal among others. The SAPA document concludes that less than 3% of adults have access to adult and non-formal education programmes. This should not be so as consistent mobilization activities have led to the participation of public and private agencies as well as civil society groups in literacy delivery. This seems to be the easiest way of practicalising the "each-one-teach-one-or-fund-the-teaching-of-one" slogan of the NMEC. In areas where NGOs and other civil society groups have set up learning centres, payment of instructors and other problems have derailed the capacity and intentions of the programme. The issue here is that most donor support for literacy delivery does not accommodate the cost of stipend to instructors.

That notwithstanding, literacy centres abound in many primary school premises mostly run by state agencies for mass education and NGOs. Churches are also establishing classes for members. Market unions, CBOs and other grassroots associations are also mobilized to establish literacy classes. In the end, these structures seem to be the strongest avenues to explore for taking literacy to the doorstep of everyone (Tahir, 1991).

Enrolment in Literacy Programmes

There has been a steady increase in enrolment for adult education from the low 696,367 figure of 1990 and 503,071 of 1991 (SAPA, 1993). The NMEC reports an enrolment figure of 546,256 in 1991 and 1,143,737 in 1996 (consisting of 603,906 males and 539,831 females). Generally, from 1991-1996, the Comprehensive Education Analysis (CEA) observed increase in enrolment by gender from 310,113 for males and 236,143 for females in 1991 to 603,309 for males and 539,831 for females in 1996. The document pointed out the fact that female participation rates in Akwa Ibom, Cross River, Benue, Imo and Abia States were higher than the national female participation rate of 47%. The NMEC Statistical Digest (2001) published the following enrolment figures for 1997- 2000.

Table: Enrolment in Literacy Classes (1997-2000)

Year	M	F	Total	
1997	598,166	557,366	1,155,532	
1998	666,131	598,130	1,264,289	
1999	712,326	605,370	1,317,696	
2000	701,798	705,156	1,406,953	

Source: NMEC Statistical Digest, 2001

These figures show a progressive increase in enrolment from a total of 1,155,532 participants in 1997 to 1,406,953 in 2000. Among the states, the highest enrolment for 2000 came from Edo, which recorded 144,250 while the lowest came from Bayelsa with 400 participants followed by Enugu state with 3000 participants.

Although the 2000 figures did not provide actual graduation figures, other NMEC publications show a total basic literacy output of 3,073,983 between 1995 and 1997. A summary table of successful completers of mass literacy programmes from 1990 to 1997 shows a progression to 543,020 in 1997 from a figure of 382,520 in 1990. The CEA lauds the increase in female participation from 37.3% in 1990 to 44.6 % in 1997. But mobilization efforts are still required to keep up the momentum.

Completion and Dropout

Out of a total number of 1,142,966 learners enrolled in 1996, 814,143 completed their respective programmes representing a drop-out rate of 28.8% and completion rate of 71.2%. Of the number who completed, 625,363 (57.4%) sat for the test and 487,662 were awarded certificates (CEA, 2000). This is not encouraging.

Curriculum and Instruction

Each time a mention is made of curriculum in adult and non-formal education programmes, experts and practitioners get into a debate on whether there is a need to have a unifying structure for the programme. Some argue that adult education programmes are needs driven and so must not be structured, as a standard curriculum is wont to do. Proponents of a curriculum cite the immeasurability of such widely diversified content offering and propose that a curriculum of sorts can at least set standards that can be used as measures of minimum attainment. A major recommendation, which helped to win acceptability in favour of a curriculum, was the need to make training and retraining a strong component of the curriculum implementation.

This debate notwithstanding, NMEC with support from UNICEF and technical input from Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) has developed three curricula for use in Non-formal Education. These are curricula for Girl-

Child Education, Quranic Schools and Boys Dropout. These curricula, which were developed through wide consultations, are in use in literacy centres around the country. Although the NMEC had planned to document its functionality and acceptance in the field, it has been unable to undertake this exercise owing to funds constraint. It is important to find out how these curricula are being implemented and how responsive they are to the needs of the target groups. Proposals are even now already being considered to review these curricula in order to make them more responsive to emerging local and global information demands.

The Commission has also developed readers and primers for literacy and post-literacy programmes. These reading materials are in circulation among agencies that deliver literacy and are freely distributed to NGOs and other interested organizations. It is not clear, however, the extent to which these materials get to the end users, especially in rural areas.

Instructional methods used around these literacy centres are mostly discussion, lecture, drama, and group work. There is, however, a need to train instructors on flexibility in their response to learning situations.

Facilities

Facilities in use for adult and non-formal learning centres vary according to providers. Understandably, with no minimum specifications in an activity where everyone is encouraged to participate or lend a helping hand, learning centres of all sorts are prevalent in adult education. Classes are held in school buildings, community halls, market places, church buildings, and private compounds and so on. Facilities such as desks, fans and libraries are not always available in these centres. This is discouraging for some learners and reduces participation.

Instructors

There are hardly any full-time instructors for adult and non-formal education. They are mostly hired on part-time basis; the turnover rate is quite high. NMEC (2001) reports a figure of 34,692 instructors in 1996 of which 36% were females. A distribution of these instructors by States shows that Benue has the highest number of 2,609 (1,434 males and 1,175 females) while Kano came second with 1,884 instructors (1,413 males and 471 females). Yobe closely followed with 1,852 instructors of which 1,294 were males. A general trend shows more male instructors in the North than females. This has implications for participation of women in adult education programmes in view of the suspicion among men of another male teaching their wives. The need for female role models is also highlighted here, as more women would be allowed to participate if female instructors teach them.

Instructor qualification profile ranges from First School Leaving Certificate (for some retired primary school teachers) to Teacher Grade II Certificate, NCE and Graduates with

or without teaching experience. The stipend paid to instructors across the states range between N350 and N1,500. This is poor compared with the kinds of demands made on these instructors and the expectations.

Instructors are trained from various sources and by various agencies. Thirteen Government institutions nationwide provide training for instructors. These centres are spread across the regions. Data is not available on the average output of these centres each year but one can assume that the programmes are accessible. However, the mode of sponsorship for participants often determines whether would-be instructors bother to enrol in a programme or not.

The development oriented nature of adult and non-formal education makes it a field of interest to many development partners who are willing to get involved in training and retraining of instructors. Apart from formal training programmes, development partners and NGOs sponsor or organize training programmes for instructors. The quality of these programmes, however, may sometimes be difficult to measure.

Open Apprenticeship Scheme

The National Policy on Education refers to the open apprenticeship scheme under 'Secondary Schools' where it prescribes a 10% transition rate from junior secondary education to the programme. This implies that these young persons must have completed 9 years of compulsory schooling. The Decree establishing the National Directorate of Employment (NDE), however, charges the Directorate with the function of providing apprenticeship programmes for youths and adults in the informal sector.

The open apprenticeship scheme is a strong component of the national Poverty Reduction Strategy Programme (PRSP), which receives very strong focus from the Obasanjo administration. Although the national policy prescribes a 10% transition rate into the open apprenticeship scheme, the reality is that pupils leave school after 6 years of schooling or even before and simply drop into the labour market unskilled and illiterate. A negative attitude towards formal education has developed among these young persons as formal schools have simply failed to prepare them for the world of work. They opt to get into apprenticeships at an early age so that they can learn some marketable skills with which to earn a living. They abandon school too early.

Emerging as a response to the problem of income-generating skills among school leavers, the NDE has through its National Open Apprenticeship Scheme (NOAS) benefited a total of 589,318 people from 1987 to 1996. For 1997 and 1998, totals of 49,552 and 28,418 were reached. The FGN/UNICEF document describes models of these apprenticeship schemes, where in some cases the apprentice, building on tradition, lives with the master and on certification of competency, gets his or her 'freedom' (p.173). The striking feature of the open apprenticeship scheme is its acceptability to a majority of Nigerians.

Milestones

The present administration addressed the challenge of delivering basic education to all age groups in Nigeria as soon as it was sworn into office in 1999. In fact the UBE launch was the first official assignment undertaken by the President with the Lokoja Declaration in August 1999. Two Basic Education Summits were held in succession (1999 and 2000) which all aimed at eliciting dialogue among stakeholders on the problems and challenges of delivering education to all Nigerians wherever they may be.

In order to make literacy more relevant and responsive to community needs, the NMEC had adopted the REFLECT approach to adult literacy and has successfully completed programmes in Tomaro, an island community in Lagos state and Kpaduma, another community in the Federal Capital Territory. ActionAid who are the originators of this programme are involved in using the process in the North and are also training more officers in the use of the methodology. The Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowering Community Techniques (REFLECT) is ActionAid's contribution to literacy and community development in Nigeria. The REFLECT methodology applies the use of participatory techniques that help to generate discussions and analysis on critical issues that are of concern to the community. The methodology holds a lot of prospects for community participation in adult education and development (Akinyemi, 2003).

The British Council has also sponsored a community education programme, which ran for five years between 1997 and 2002. The programme consisted of four projects, which were designed to improve primary schools; adult education centres and build community capacity to manage educational development. The result brought about a degree of community mobilization that according to the reports exceeded expectations while building up along the line, the capacity of Nigerian trainers and consultants (British Council, 2002). This project is worth replicating for its capacity-building component.

The government through the National Commission has continued to make reading and writing materials available to learners. The Commission has purchased and distributed 1,460,000 pencils and erasers, 51,600 blackboard dusters, 740,000 exercise books and 78,000 packets of chalk to literacy centres across the country through State Agencies for Mass Education and NGOs. Reading material in Hausa, Igbo, Yoruba and English Languages have been purchased and distributed as follow: Hausa, 300,000; Igbo, 150,000; Yoruba, 94,000; English (Basic and Post-Literacy) 45,000 and 75,000 respectively; Igala, 33,000; and Tiv, 10,000. A total of 3,870 blackboards, 35,000 registers, 126,000 training manuals, 6 computers, 1 photocopier, 4,000 writing aids, 800 sewing machines and 20,000 posters for mobilization have all been distributed appropriately.

In the area of capacity-building, a number of persons have been trained in proposal writing, financial and management skills. Training has been replicated on REFLECT and the UNICEF-supported CAP-MM strategy of community development. The Commission has also developed a memorandum of understanding as part of the on-going FGN/UNESCO cooperation for improving community education literacy using the radio.

The Funding Challenge

A major challenge for adult and non-formal education delivery is the payment of instructors. Most programmes that fail are caused by this lapse. If a strong structure is put in place for instructor remuneration, it is certain that there will be a consistent presence of someone in each learning centre to at least follow up on learners.

CHAPTER NINE

ISLAMIC EDUCATION

Historical Background

The Islamic Education tradition with Arabic as the medium of instruction dates back centuries before the introduction of Christianity and western education. Penetrating first the Northern parts of Nigeria as early as the first century of the second millennium, Islam through the activities of the growing trade across the Sahara, soon grew strong enough in Nigeria to move the capital of the Muslim Empire of Karnem-Bornu from Chad where it originally was to the North East of Nigeria. Islam has as a result spread across Northern Nigeria and the Middle Belt to the South-Western states, where by the 18th and 19th centuries the religion had already made converts.

A study of Islamic education must of necessity be tied closely to the growth and spread of Islamic religion across the country. This connection is perhaps strongly rooted in the injunction of the Qur'an that every Muslim is obligated to use prescribed portions of the Arabic text of the Holy Book in his five daily prayers. The injunction in the Qur'an for every believer to "Read: In the name of the Lord who created" (Qu'ran, 96: 11) seems to be a mandate for every Muslim to read albeit in Arabic. Thus, Muslim teachers spread the faith and encouraged converts to acquire Arabic literacy. The importance of Arabic to Islamic education was seen to go far beyond the religious role it played. The FGN/UNICEF document states the fact that

In time, many of {the} traders and scholars became scribes to non-literate local chiefs and rulers... {and so} local events and history began to be documented in the Arabic language, in various northern states, from the old Karnem-Bornu empire in the Sokoto caliphate in the 19th century (spreading into Yorubaland and remaining alive until the 1930s (p. 151).

The Arabic language enjoyed a pride of place in Islamic education. This situation led scholars to regard the period between the establishment of the Sokoto caliphate by the Fulani Jihadists in 1804 and the collapse of that state as a result of British incursion in 1903, as the golden age of the Arabic Language in Northern Nigeria (FGN/UNICEF, 2001: 151). With that era, competence in Arabic was a pre-requisite for appointment (administrative and judicial). Thus, literacy in Arabic was the way to go and educational provision targeted that competence. This remained the case until the British began to subtly introduce the English Language to replace Arabic in the administration of the North and set up educational institution with English as the medium of instruction. The fact that these institutions were better funded than the traditional Islamic type indicated where the control and preference lay so in 1947, it came as no surprise that the Hausa Language rather than the Arabic was named the medium of instruction and in 1954 the McPherson constitution made the English Language the official language of the country.

Thus, officially the use of Arabic ceased in government circles, but not among Muslims. The language rather grew stronger in use among Muslim clerics and scholars, thus continuing to dominate Islamic pedagogy and Qur'anic schools across the various levels.

Levels of Islamic Education

The objective of traditional Islamic education is to teach Arabic and the Muslim religion. To achieve these objectives, levels were stratified not strictly by age but by competences and the ability of the learner to master the content of each level. The curriculum expanded as the learner progressed. These centres are categorised as non-formal (NFE Qur'anic). Data from National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education Statistics Digest show the participation spread across states for NFE Qur'anic schools (Table 9.1).

Table 9.1
Participation in NFE Qur'anic by State (1997-2000)

State	1997	1998	1999	2000
Bauchi	1567 (1279 m/270 f)	1749 (1297 m/452 f)	5988 (5167 m/791 f)	3954 (3086 m/868 f)
Cross River	1329 (552 m/777 f)	1645 (664 m/981 f)	855 (505 m/370 f)	840 (470 m/370 f)
Jigawa	253 (m)	253 (m)	1165 (m)	1167 (m)
Katsina	0	2340 (m)	2464 (m)	2551 (254 m/4 f)
Kebbi	0	0	7369 (m)	0
Kano	0	0	7369 (m)	0
Niger	2250 (1205 m/1045f)	2213 (1191m/1022f)	2150 (1150m/1000f)	2104 (1141m/963f)
Taraba	6796 (3930m/2866f)	30958 (18284m/12674f)	29024 (17124m/11900f)	8839 (6661m/2178f)
Yobe	343 (f)	490 (f)	790 (f)	1005 (f)
Total	14452 (9133m/5301f)	43183 (27557m/19971f)	53546 (30926m/1525f)	24806 (18876m/5928f)

Source: NMEC Statistical Digest, 2002

Qur'anic schools are stratified from pre-primary to senior secondary levels and teach Arabic and Islam as core content areas. The first of these schools is the Kuttab (*makarantar allo* in Hausa), which is the most common and found in virtually every neighbourhood where a Muslim community exists. This level is characterised by

personalised instruction usually by rote/choral in classes manned by a local mallam within the premises of a mosque, inside the courtyard of a private house or under a tree. The curriculum component includes reading and counting but does not include the meaning of the words read or written. Usually the age mix of four to ten years or more (depending on when the pupil has learned to recite the Qur'an is found in these centres.

The next stage in the traditional Islamic education system is the Illimiyyah Arabic School (*makarantar ilmi*). Usually for older children the curriculum is wider. Learners are at this stage introduced to the branches of Islamic studies such as Quranic exegesis, prophetic traditions, Islamic jurisprudence and different branches of Arabic studies including grammar, rhetoric and literature. These subjects are taught in Arabic thus enabling the learners to acquire a heightened mastery of and confidence in the language.

As concerns began to be expressed about the ability of learners who have passed through this system to be integrated into the formal western system of education, Muslims on their side became more determined to maintain their own identity. Perhaps these concerns at integration led to the introduction of other subjects regarded as secular into these traditional Islamic schools. Subjects thus introduced included English language, mathematics, geography and elementary science. Government also took steps to make this integration by establishing structure for Arabic education.

This somewhat invigorated interest in Islamic education among Muslims led to the emergence of Islamiyya schools. These schools are part of efforts to integrate with the public educational system without losing the essence of the original objectives of traditional Islamiya schools. Championed by the Tijaniyyah Brotherhood in Kano and supported by the Quadriyyah and the Ahmadiyya societies, these schools offer Quranic education from the primary level (*libitida*) through junior secondary (*I'dadi*) to upper secondary level (*thanau* or *tairjihi*) with Arabic remaining the medium of instruction. Secular subjects such as mathematics, economics and geography are also taught. The figures show female bias in the primary while the teaching force shows an opposite skew to males rather than females. This may perhaps be contributory to the reason for low girl-child participation in schools.

At the tertiary level, government efforts at integration are more visible with the establishment in the 1930s of a structure for Arabic education, which began with Arabic schools at the lower level and with the Arabic Teachers College. Such a school was set up in Kano for Quranic teachers and pupil-teachers to improve their academic standard in Arabic and Islamic studies. The school initially ran a curriculum of four-year certificate course with Arabic as the medium of instruction and did not include English language or any secular subject. The curriculum was later reviewed in 1965 to include business, English, elementary arithmetic, general knowledge and methodology of teaching Arabic and Islamic Studies. Today, modern Arabic private schools are established and run by Muslims.

At present, diploma courses are being designed for Higher Islamic Studies (HIS) Certificate holders. This culminates in a three-year diploma course in Shar'iah or Arabic, islamic studies and Hausa and qualifies candidates for entry into the university for first-

degree courses. The Bayero University, Kano and Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria at present run these courses.

A crop of highly-educated Nigerians is springing up who are versed in Arabic studies and are publishing in the language as well. Government inclusion of Arabic in the National Policy on Education as one of the languages to be taught in schools added impetus to these developments.

The Challenge of Integration

Integration of the traditional and western education has remained a challenge beginning with the difficulty of classifying traditional Islamic schools. Even when the categorization is made, integration is still not easily accomplished. On the one hand, the mallams and parents distrust western education while on the other hand, little is known among non-Muslim circles of what the mallam actually teaches. Islamic education is thought to be all non-formal but the explanation given here shows that a level of formalisation exists as the pupil advances. Fears are often expressed by the mallams and other concerned muslims that integration would lead to a reduction of the curriculum content of the traditional Islamic education. This they adjudge would lead to a derailment from the original objectives these schools. Be that as it may, the attempts at integration have resulted (in the non-formal sector) in the development of a curriculum on Quranic Education, which successfully infused elements of basic education into Islamic education.

There have also since emerged successful models of integration. The FGN/UNICEF document (2001:153) documents the Nizzamiya schools in Sokoto. According to the document, the Government began actual integration of the two systems in 1955 with the first Nizzamiya (integrated) school. The purpose of this school was to allay the fears of parents that their children would lose the essence of Islamic religion if the 'western' element was introduced.

To guide the integration process, most governments in the North established Arabic and Islamic Education Boards with the responsibility for coordinating and giving guidelines for integrating the two systems. Thus four integrated secondary schools came into existence in Sokoto (two girls, two boys) and Qur'anic nursery classes have also been attached to some of the schools where children aged 4-5 are taught Qur'anic Education moving on to Primary One after one year.

The media of instruction in Nizzamiya primary schools are English and Arabic with Arabic and Islamic religious studies enjoying high status. The schools using the Muslim calendar operate from Saturday to Wednesday with Thursday and Friday as work free.

In terms of enrolment, retention and graduation, the FGN/UNICEF document reports a fruitful outcome of integration especially in rural communities where acceptance of the system is said to be very high. According to the report, at least one Nizzamiya School at

present exists in each of the 23 LGAs in Sokoto state, totaling 28 across the state, and parents prefer the schools to conventional ones.

Milestones

Islamic education, as the foregoing discussion shows, is a highly sophisticated system of education. The religious angle places the system at a level where internal efficiency according to its aims and objectives is relatively high in the sense that children are motivated to learn and the teachers motivated to teach. A major challenge has been to bridge the gap between this system of education and the western system. Solutions were sought and found in the integration attempts from which in the past five years, concrete outputs have emerged.

At the formal school level, the successful inclusion of secular subjects in the curriculum of the Islamiya schools is a positive development. This infusion has not been very successful in the traditional Quranic school sector. A series of advocacy and sensitisation visits however, resulted in a partial endorsement of a non-formal integrated curriculum by the mallam proprietors of Quranic schools covering life-skills, mathematics, social studies and English language. This curriculum was developed between the National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-Formal Education (NMEC) and UNICEF with technical inputs from NERDC. The document has been presented at JCC Plenary and found acceptable. Although studies are not yet available as to its use in the field, the huge participation of stakeholders in the development and at the various critique meetings has given the document a broad chance of acceptability.

The work being done at Arewa House, Kaduna through the Northern Education Research Project is a very important milestone. In their Agenda for Action drawn up and formally presented in a forum with His Excellency, the Vice-President of Nigeria, Alhaji Atiku Abubakar as Chief Guest of Honour, the issues of integration were reflected. Part of action that must be taken in 2002-2005 is to “encourage the establishment of more Islamiya schools that would integrate Islamic education and western education; and gradually transform Qur'anic Schools into Islamiya Schools” (Northern Education Project, 2000, p.25).

A serious challenge to the education sector, however, is to address the situation of the 'almajirai' who are really children placed under the tutelage of mallams. The Quranic injunction that they and their master should depend on alms from well meaning persons has been influenced by negative modern trends. These children now wander the streets at will, with no control and no skills to become self-reliant ultimately. Many non-governmental organisations (NGOs) are involved in addressing this phenomenon. Success is still very limited as shown by observations in large cities in Northern Nigeria. The problem of these children must be addressed by a careful distinction between religious injunction and a social problem. The mallams will be helpful in this dialogue.

CHAPTER TEN

TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCE EDUCATION

Concept, Purpose and Scope

In Nigeria, it is recognised for the purpose of discrete policy-making and administration, that technology and science are two realms of human endeavour which exist mutually together. Science functions primarily in the realm of “knowing” while technology functions primarily in the realm of “doing”. The two realms are required for national development as Nigeria needs the “knowing” heads with the “doing” hands among its citizens to make progress. For the purpose of clear thinking, Nigeria does not accept the 19th century attempt by science to appropriate technology as “applied science”. Consequently, in the education sector, “technology” and “science” are maintained as separate types of education with their purposes, delivery and administrative institutions to enable their separate but mutual development as tools for achieving national aspirations. It is to be noted that where technology and science have close affinities in their practices, they still distinguish themselves by the different purposes they serve.

In general, “science education” in Nigeria deals with the study of natural sciences and science occupations. The two types of studies in science are necessary for national development: one leads to fundamental research while the other leads to applied research. On the other hand, “technology education” is a generic term for the study of technologies at all levels of education. Public understanding is focused on technology as public knowledge, skills and procedures for making, doing and using things in specifiable and reproducible ways. By this understanding, “accounting” or “information”, for instance, in so far as its practice is based on specifiable knowledge, skills and procedures is technology (Brooks, 1981: 35). In Nigeria therefore, “technology education” implies any type of education in technology at any level of the national education system – from primary to tertiary level. In this technological age, every occupational study is a study in technology and therefore technology education. The meaning of technology education in practice cuts across the conventional boundary between service and production occupations or service and production industries. By functional and administrative differentiation, technology education comprises four distinct types and levels of education indicated in Table 10.1 below.

It is important to note that the fundamental purpose of technology education is to produce all types and levels of technological manpower required by the economy and, in so doing, to extend the realm of practical human possibilities through research. The survival of Nigeria as a nation in the advancing world of technology requires progress towards these two goals.

Table 10.1
Types of Technology Education

Type 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: FME and World Bank (1988, p. ii).

It is important to note that the fundamental purpose of technology education is to produce all types and levels of technological manpower required by the economy and, in so doing, to extend the realm of practical human possibilities through research. The survival of Nigeria as a nation in the advancing world of technology requires progress towards these two goals.

The 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria requires Governments in the Federation to promote technology and science education (FRN, 1999). The purpose of science education is to cultivate the knowing and rational mind needed to maintain the good life, democracy and enlightened humanity; produce scientists for national development; further the cause of science in human and national development; and service technology education as the provider of fundamental scientific knowledge used by technology. The cultivation of a scientific culture through universal basic science education is necessarily a national objective of Nigeria as a growing democracy. It is realised that for popular suffrage to succeed, the electorate must be equipped with rational abilities to make enlightened choice of their governments and to participate in their governance. It is believed that democracy in Nigeria will thrive to the extent of the grip of a scientific culture on the people.

Modes of Curriculum Design and Delivery in Technology and Science Education

A national education system requires an integrated and balanced operation of its *formal*, *non-formal* and *informal* modes of education delivery in order to be efficient and effective. It is recognised that informal and non-formal education are inseparable from formal education and are essential for the development of the learner at any stage of life. Accordingly, formal education settings are designed to include non-formal and informal aspects of education. In the design of technology and science education curricula, there

is a concern for co-curricular activities, aesthetics and order as necessary elements for complete development of the human personality with sensitivity to perfection, order and beauty. These sensitivities are essential for the cultivation of positive attitude towards quality workmanship or performance in technology and science occupations.

The curricula for formal technology and science education are designed to produce the complete person (Faure et al, 1972: pp.153-159) rather than the historic "hand" in production or service. The various facets of the learner's personality and needs are recognised in the curriculum for each level of education, so that the learner may have a sense of humanity and social sensibility. Each curriculum integrates general education in the study of technology or science and gives exposure to job-market practice through industrial attachment so that education in technology or science occupations may produce professionals who have adequate sensibilities in addition to occupational skills. It is expected that while the professionals benefit from the utilitarian functions of their profession, they should also have ethical consciousness, a sense of contributing to the common good of all in doing so. The National Policy on Education (1998) is clear about this, as it specifies one of the values to be fostered by education as "shared responsibility for the common good of society".

Technology and Science Education in Nigeria before 1977

Nigeria, like other nations, has never been without its types of technology education. In pre-colonial times, the traditional technologies of agriculture, medicine, food preparation and warfare were taught by non-formal methods, but with little or no basis in science. Skills and knowledge were mostly shrouded in traditional mysticism, superstition and guarded family apprenticeship system. When in the 19th century therefore, formal technology and science education came to Nigeria as educational transplants, they had little cultural base to support their beginnings. Formal science teaching started with the establishment of the first secondary school (CMS Grammar School, Lagos) in Nigeria in 1859. From inception, the demand for science was not high in spite of the good prospects for learners for further education in the technology and science professions.

Formal technology education, which suffered from low prestige complex in 19th century Britain, was transplanted with this complex to Nigeria in the early 20th century. The colonial government established the Railway Training Institute in 1901 and the Survey School in 1908, in Lagos, as training schools for its own departments. Another landmark was the opening of Yaba Higher College in 1932, to provide a range of advanced vocational courses. The colonial government policy in the name of "relevance", encouraged schools to teach agriculture and crafts avocationally. This policy, however, lacked popular appeal and had very limited outcomes. Nigerian nationalists argued that the policy generally, and the non-university status of Yaba Higher College in particular, were part of an attempt to block the advance of Africans into positions of leadership.

In the 1950s, after Yaba Higher College was converted and moved to Ibadan as the University College, Ibadan (in 1948), its vacated facilities were used to establish Yaba

Technical Institute. The role of the institute in providing programmes at polytechnic level was then shared by the Nigerian College of Arts, Science and Technology, with campuses at Ibadan, Zaria and Enugu. For the secondary level, the colonial government also opened trade centres at Yaba, Enugu and Kaduna. The regional governments followed the lead and, by 1966, had established 11 technical colleges. These were reputable institutions, adequately funded and popular with employers. Students were given free tool-boxes in addition to training stipend for their upkeep and incentive to remain in training. During the 1970's, however, as tertiary education rapidly developed, they became caricatures of their former selves for lack of adequate funding and management by government as well as respect on the part of the public for manual skills and technical achievement.

An important conceptual landmark in the effort to modernise and vitalise TVE was the publication of the first "National Plan of Vocational and Technical Education in the Republic of Nigeria", prepared by Dr. Adam Skapski (1966). Skapski called for action by "a group of professionally competent educators" united by a sense of mission and aware of relevant achievements in other countries to move the change process forward. He also called for pilot projects, and for "the foundation of an adequately structured general education". Since the publication in 1966, Skapski's master plan has been the spirit of innovation and change in the profile of TVE in Nigeria. Most of the recommendations have been implemented in one form or the other including the 3-3 secondary education policy from 1982, the establishment of NBTE in 1977, ITF in 1971 and uniform educational structure and content nation-wide from 1977; some recommendations are yet to be implemented.

Technology and Science Education in the National Policy on Education

The National Policy on Education (effective from 1977) provides for a two-tier secondary education comprising 3 years each of junior and senior secondary education. Their curricula are both academic and pre-vocational in nature. That is, technology is studied at pre-vocational level while the sciences are studied at pre-professional level. According to the policy, the natural sciences at the junior secondary level are to be studied in an integrated manner, while at the senior secondary level they are to be studied as discrete subjects e.g. metalwork, building construction, food and nutrition, typewriting.

In the same way, pre-vocational education is offered at the junior secondary level as broad fields such as introductory technology, business studies and home economics. The aims of pre-vocational education are to develop technological literacy, give some exposure to the world of work for wise vocational choice, and promote a positive attitude towards work. At the senior secondary level, they are studied in their discrete component subjects as indicated above. The pre-vocational subjects which may be offered at senior secondary level (from which students may choose one or two) include: Agriculture, Applied Electricity, Auto-Mechanics, Book-keeping and Accounting, Building Construction, Commerce, Computer Studies, Electronics, Clothing and Textiles, Food and Nutrition, Home Management, Metalwork, Woodwork, Technical Drawing,

Shorthand and Typewriting. At the senior secondary level pre-vocational education is offered as a preparation for higher education in technology and for useful living.

Owing to the high costs of training in pre-vocational subjects, the relative scarcity of technology teachers for them, the expansion of enrolment in secondary education, and the parlous economic circumstances since 1979, it has been exceptionally difficult to implement the goals of the National Policy in this area. Although the National Policy on education is not very explicit about the use of special function schools at the senior secondary level, both Federal and State Governments have in practice chosen to operate a system of technical colleges and science schools, parallel to the general senior secondary schools. The curriculum of the technical colleges is intended to be job-specific rather than pre-vocational. From the late 1980's the Federal Government renewed its commitment to establishing more technical colleges, in the belief that they could make an important contribution in the struggle against youth unemployment and mass poverty. Between 1988 and 2002 the Federal Government established 18 new Federal Technical Colleges. In 2002 these were converted into six-year Federal Science and Technical Colleges, covering both segments of secondary education. These colleges are to offer job-specific training for craftsmen or skilled manpower as well as pre-professional science training for those who are to pursue their further education in science and technology occupations respectively.

Participation in Technology and Science Programmes

The National Policy on Education (1998) places technical colleges at par with senior secondary schools. The policy envisaged that 20% of students who complete the junior secondary segment would be admitted to technical colleges, while about 60% would enter general senior secondary schools. The reality, however, in 2001, was that the enrolment of 90,038 in 117 technical colleges was about 1.2% of the 7,351,000 enrolment in 7,309 general secondary schools in the country. Furthermore, the transition rate of technology and science students from secondary to tertiary institutions is small. Indeed, the polytechnics are unable to implement the prescribed admissions ratio of 70:30 in favour of production-based programmes. In order to approximate the prescribed admission ratio in production and service-based programmes, the NBTE has decided that effective from the 2003/2004 academic session for the purpose of its accreditation, less than 30% enrolment in State and Private Polytechnics in production-based programmes would be unacceptable. NBTE statistics on the state of disparity between production and service-based programmes in 2000 is shown in annex 6 in respect of 41 polytechnics (federal and state) in the country. By 2000, the overall picture of ratio of enrolment in production to service-based programmes by NBTE statistics was 36:64. In 2001 the Polytechnics enrolled a total of 186,080 out of which females were 74,612 (40%) in ND and HND programmes.

In 2002, the enrolment in ND and HND programmes was 197,440 in the 51 Polytechnics (17 Federal, 27 State and 7 Private) in the country while their output graduates were 32,451. Monotechnics in the country comprise 36 Colleges of Agriculture, 39 health science and allied institutions and 12 other specialised

monotechnics. NBTE statistics in 2001 indicate a total enrolment of 11,358 with an output of 2964. In 2001, enrolment in Pre-ND courses was 37,500 in 45 Polytechnics, which is about 37.5% of enrolment in ND programmes.

It is known that the universities are yet to approximate the prescribed admissions ratio of 60% for technology/science and 40% for arts/humanities-based programmes. In 1991/1992 academic session, new entrants in technology/science programmes in the 37 universities were about 42% of the total enrolment. For 40 universities in 2000, total enrolment was 201825 or 46.5% for technology/science and 232,046 or 53.5% for arts/humanities-based programmes. Female participation was 53,989 or 26.7% in technology/science as against 78,360 or 33.8% in arts/humanities (NUC statistics). Remedial/pre-degree programmes mainly in technology and science programmes was 14,359 or 3.2% of the 448,230 enrolled in 2000 in all universities.

Inclusion

Efforts are being made to keep technology and science education routes open and flexible against entrenched historical rigidities and to provide opportunities for entrants to compensate for their disadvantaged backgrounds in their study pursuits. This is in keeping with the commitment of government to the implementation of the policy of lifelong education for all. Access is being expanded to accommodate more students who have appropriate aptitudes and can progress in technology and science professions. There is no exclusion mechanism save the prescribed entry requirements.

A number of measures are being adopted to ensure a high level of inclusion in technology and science education. One of such measures is special resource provision for the physically challenged in selected and specialised institutions. Another is the provision of open and distance education to take care of the huge number that cannot follow a full-time formal education programme due to their varying conditions of life or their inability to gain admission into full-time tertiary institutions. For this purpose the National Open University has been resuscitated. Both technology and science programmes are included in the curriculum for UBE, and there are programmes for public enlightenment about their importance. There is also public recognition of, and reward for, achievement in these fields.

The Government recognises that female participation is a particular problem in these fields. Table 10.2 below gives examples of rates of participation by gender. Among the efforts being made to close the gender gap is the establishment of a science and technical college for girls only by the Federal Government.

Table 10.2
Gender Disparity in Technology and Science Education

Academic Year	Type of Institution	Male/Female Participation (by Numbers and Percentages)		
		Male	Female	Total
2000/2001	Technical Colleges	73,239 (81%)	16,799 (19%)	90,033
2000/2001	Polytechnics	111,468 (60%)	74,612 (40%)	186,080
1999/2000	Universities (Science and Technology enrolment)	147,836 (73%)	53,989 (27%)	201,825

Source: NUC and NBTE Statistics

The Problems of Status

Planners and policy makers in technology and science education in Nigeria need to reckon with the consequences of the long tradition of control of the education scene by literary education. On account of its prior existence, firm grip on social consciousness and control of resources in the society, literary education tend to direct the organisation and process of education apparently in its favour. In every society where literary education ideology is strongly held, technology and science education tend not to develop to meet national expectations. This may explain why after about a century of existence in Nigeria, technology education and science education are yet to make appreciable impact. In the 2001 Millennium Human Development Report, it is observed that Nigeria is one of the African countries that have been pushed out of the information highway as it suffers from low diffusion of both old and recent technological innovations (NHDR, 2000/2001: vii) because “the country has for too long paid only lip service to scientific and technical education. The long-term neglect of research and development (R&D) in Nigeria is largely responsible for the present sorry state of affairs in the field of ICT (p. 47)...There is no enabling environment for technology creation” (p. 50).

The historical power of literary education is due to the effective propagation of an ideology that regards technology education as its antithesis. For University education in technology, Asquith (1945, p. 11) did observe that because the antithesis was not transcended in Britain, “any new universities will find themselves, in company with those which exist, at grips with the problem. It is a difficulty, which must be faced and not an objection to our proposal” to have professional training in the universities in the Colonies. This difficulty seems not over the years to have been adequately addressed as the 2000/2001 Millennium Human Development Report has it that “the Nigerian Universities are producing relatively too many graduates of dubious quality and relevance... they are ... yet to succeed in generating the knowledge and technology needed for development through indigenous scientific research. Nor have they been able to establish themselves as credible agents for acquisition, adaptation and dissemination of scientific and technical knowledge” (p. 56). The Report goes on to observe that “Countries that have succeeded in achieving technological breakthrough are those which

have consistently productively invested not less than two percent of their GDP on R&D”. But Nigeria is not investing substantially and “has exacerbated the technological divide” (p. 48).

With a persistently depressed economy and an unsupportive social attitude, it is difficult to meet the requirements for effective technology education. For technology education to be effective, the following three conditions must be met:

- The facilities and equipment used in institution-based training must be the same or comparable to those used in the job market or world of work;
- The conditions under which training is given must be similar to those desirable in the field; and
- Those competent, experienced in the field and appropriately educated should instruct entrants.

Government is aware that technology is acquired at a price and that good institution-based occupational training is expensive and necessarily more expensive than general education. But, with a weak industrial base, Nigeria has no alternative to an institution-based training model. Consequently, as the conditions for training under the model are not adequately met, the results in terms of quality have been disappointing. The way out is government determination to pay the price for technological training on the institution-based model. Accordingly, efforts of the present government have been focused on modernisation of training facilities and the concept of training in technology.

Government has recognised that the status of technology education, particularly the TVE aspect, has been historically affected by lack of social appreciation of TVE as an area of human endeavour with a respectable and distinct intellectual identity separate from that of literary education. Another factor in the low status is the relative scarcity of good quality entrants due to negative societal attitude towards TVE because it is not seen as a symbol of intellect, a way to wealth and prestige or control of power and resources in the world of work. Other factors of low status include poor funding by proprietors, unarticulated curricula that tend to hinder academic progression and scarcity of good quality technology teachers which serves among other factors to create a vicious circle of poor performance.

Administration of Technology and Science Education

As indicated already, technology and science education are administered as distinct themes of education in the national education system. The National Council on Education requires all States to have Technical and Science Education School Boards to handle matters of technology and science education below the tertiary level. For this purpose also the Federal Ministry of Education maintains the Department of Technology and Science Education. The reason for separate administration is based on the need to focus policy attention and resources on the development of technology and science

education as special themes in education indispensable to national technological development. In the 1999 Constitution, education is placed on concurrent legislation. The role of the Federal Ministry of Education is to harmonise policy and practice of education nation-wide through the National Council on Education. It also establishes and manages its own secondary schools, science and technical colleges, polytechnics and universities and takes exclusive responsibility for quality assurance and national examination and certification scheme through its relevant parastatals. These parastatals perform functions in respect of technology and science education as shown in Table 10.3 below.

It is important to note that quality assurance and national examinations and certification scheme are exclusive responsibilities of the Federal Government by the 1999 Constitutional provision and also by virtue of Act no. 16 of 1985 as amended by Act no. 9 of 1993. The State Ministries of Education have functions similar to those of the Federal Ministry of Education, except that standards maintenance through national minimum guide, curriculum development, national examination and certification, and accreditation are exclusive legislative matters of the Federal Government through the Federal Ministry of Education.

Table 10.3
Functions of Parastatals in Technology and Science Education

Parastatal	Function
NUC	Responsible for funding and supervision of federal universities, national minimum standards, curriculum development and quality assurance, through accreditation for all universities (federal, state and private).
NBTE	Soon to be legally converted to a National Commission for Polytechnics (NCP), with responsibility for funding and supervision of federal polytechnics and national curriculum development and quality assurance, through accreditation for all polytechnics (federal, state and private).
NCCE	Responsible for funding and supervision of federal colleges of education, and national minimum curriculum development and quality assurance, through accreditation for all colleges of education (federal, state and private).
NABTEB	An examination body responsible for national vocational examinations and awarding NTC/NBC and ANTC/ANBC. It also has responsibility by law for the conduct of national common entrance examinations into technical colleges.
NECO	An examination body responsible for junior school certificate examinations (JSCE) for federal secondary schools and senior school certificate examinations (SSCE) for federal and state secondary schools. It also conducts GCE examinations.
WAEC	An examination body responsible for senior school certificate examinations and GCE, (General Certificate of Education).
NERDC	Responsible for national minimum curriculum development for primary and secondary schools, book development and educational research.

Source: FME

The Problems of Technology and Science Teacher Production and Utilisation

The training of technology teachers naturally varies according to the nature and levels of the curriculum they teach, as shown in Table 10.4 below. In practice, science teachers are those who teach the natural sciences in primary and secondary schools. Those who teach the natural and applied sciences at the tertiary education level do not normally class themselves as science teachers but as lecturers in the sciences or the applied sciences as the case may be. Of recent the three subject areas – science, technology and mathematics (STM) – due to their close affinity tend to have the same problems of scarcity of good quality professionally trained teachers.

Table 10.4
Technology Teachers, their Minimum Qualifications and Principal Supply Institutions

Technology Teacher Category	Principal Level of Teaching	Minimum Qualification Required for Teaching	Principal Supply Institution
(i) Pre-vocational (semi-skilled labour) teachers	Primary and secondary schools	NCE (technical) for JS and Bachelors degree for SS	Colleges of education (technical) – COE(T)
(ii) Vocational (craftsmen/Trade) teachers	Technical colleges and vocational centres	Advanced craft certificate or HND plus teaching qualification or Bachelor's degree	COE (T), Polytechnics for certificate/diploma holders and universities for degree holders
(iii) Technical (technician) Teachers	Polytechnics and colleges of education (technical)	Bachelor's or Master's degree in technology subjects with or without teaching qualification	Universities
(iv) Teachers of professionals	Polytechnics, colleges of education (technical) & universities	Master's or Doctorate degree in technology subject with or without teaching qualification	Universities

All levels of education face varying degrees of scarcity of professionally trained technology and science teachers. Technical colleges are more affected as they have limited avenues for production of technology teachers appropriate to them as indicated in Annex XI (a). Annex XI (b), shows the state of national shortage of technology teachers in secondary schools, while Annex XI (c) indicates the state of supply and demand of technology teachers in the federal science and technical colleges as at 2003.

In a recent survey exercise carried out by the Federal Ministry of Education in 2003, it was discovered that six states in the federation (Kaduna, Kano, Gombe, Adamawa, Abia and Zamfara) had 6,234 professional technology teachers on ground while they needed 6,428 (103%) to meet their demand. The statistical details are as shown in Annex X. In respect of science, Akpan (1999, p. 310-399) reports the findings of research by NERDC in 1997 that 31.8% of the available science teachers qualified in Physics, 40.4% in Chemistry and 46.8% in Biology respectively. In other research, it was found that "very few primary school teachers have training in science". Existence of technology and science teachers in adequate number and quality is paramount because, as pointed out by

Castro (1985, p. 17), incompetent instructors create the vicious circle of lack of quality which in turn creates a situation where certificates are worthless proof of competence.

The problems of poor production and utilisation of technology teachers stem from inadequate conception of the categories of technology teachers required and the method of their training. It is not always considered that a technology teacher should first be a practising professional at the level of his teaching before becoming a pedagogue to transfer his skills to students. As a result technology teachers as currently produced in the concurrent mode of training, lack professional registrable status as well as research competence to engage in further education in their profession. This is due to the fact that the combination of studies in education with the teaching subject in the concurrent mode of training creates teaching subject content deficiency which makes it impossible for the holder of the certificate to qualify for further education in the teaching subject area or to teach the profession in job specific training institutions such as technical colleges, polytechnics and universities. Whether in technology or in science, Nigeria is yet to have a co-ordinated national system of production of teachers appropriate for the various levels of teaching. The present conception of and modes of training of technology teachers only serve to weaken the teaching of technology and science as well as to deter good quality entrants into the teaching profession. Above all, is the disadvantage in terms of a remunerative power and social prestige of those engaged in technology and science teaching compared with those in industry and commerce. Consequently those trained in technology and in science deter teaching as a profession.

The remedies proposed for the various problems include the necessity for establishment of a dedicated university for the production of the various categories of science and technology teachers. Such a university is to serve also as national seminar centre for technology and science teacher education. Other remedies include the creation of a national system of production by the proposed university, the creation of special incentives to retain technology and science teachers in teaching, over production to create a glut which shall make for retention of technology and science in teaching. Alternatively, people have seen great values in intensifying public enlightenment to create demand for entry into technology and science teaching.

Achievements

The present administration is currently deliberately reshaping the terrain of technology and science education for better performance. In awareness of the problems that beset the full realisation of the goals of TVE, a national seminar was held in November 2000 in collaboration with UNESCO. The goals of the seminar were to re-engineer and reposition TVE for better performance in the 21st century and to market prescribed reforms to stake holders. The material outcome of the seminar was the preparation of a national master-plan for the development of TVE in the 21st century. Key ideas in the national master plan include the institution of entrepreneurial education at all levels, raising the quality of TVE, expanding access and inclusion, increasing number and improving quality of technology teachers, intensive marketing of TVE, and improving the managerial capacity of the sub-sector.

Some modest achievements in the last few years include rehabilitation and expansion of facilities, curriculum revision and teaching capacity building in collaboration with UNESCO. Increased flexibility in the system enables the hitherto excluded products of technical colleges to gain admission more easily into tertiary institutions. There is a gradual change of social attitudes towards technology education and science education, and a focusing of government attention on their development. There is also a growing recognition of the importance of technology and science for the success of democracy, attainment of mass employment and national economic development. TVE with a scheme of financial empowerment of the clientele is now government's main approach to poverty eradication. NAPEP, as a parastatal of the Federal Government for poverty eradication, spearheads the idea of the use of TVE with financial empowerment of the clientele to eradicate poverty.

In 2002, the Federal Government took a further step to reposition TVE for greater advantage in the national education scheme. Major policy innovations in this regard include:

- The reversal of federal technical college craft programmes to full secondary education duration of six years. Students from primary schools are admitted into the junior college component of technical colleges to enable the technical colleges stand a fair chance of having good quality entrants as well as provide an early orientation to students towards technology education and the world of work. In addition, the FME has converted its technical colleges to science and technical colleges offering senior school science and normal craft and advanced craft programmes at senior secondary level to attract entrants.
- Setting up an action plan, following the resolutions of Higher Education Summit in 2002, to review the policy and mandates of Polytechnics and Colleges of Education to enable them award degrees. Government is therefore considering the adoption of a policy of separate development and independent operation of tertiary institutions. The policy of separate development is geared towards eliminating all forms of marginalisation consequent upon the old tradition.
- Setting up of action plan to review the ceiling in career progression of graduates and staff of polytechnics and Colleges of Education, so that the historical disparities between university and polytechnic graduates may be eliminated.
- Setting up plans to integrate entrepreneurial education into the scheme of technology education.
- Introduction of post-HND programmes to enable holders of HND to qualify for professional registration and practice.

Mission for the 21st Century

The 2nd International Congress on TVE held in Korea, April 1999, set the mission for all nations under UNESCO to use TVE to address the employment and other socio-economic challenges of the early years of this 21st century. These challenges include globalisation, an ever-changing technological scenario, ICT revolution and the consequent rapid pace of social change. For all these, a new paradigm of TVE was required of all member nations in order to make for success. Nigeria therefore, assumed the challenge of creating a new paradigm of TVE by means of the 2000 national master-plan. The mission of TVE in this 21st century is to provide technological orientation to all citizens of Nigeria and produce a knowledge-based skilled workforce to enable the national economy maintain a competitive edge in the world of globalisation, trade liberalisation, technological and social change and political integration. TVE shall produce, through the institution of entrepreneurial education more job-creators than job-seekers.

Following the resolution of the 2002 National Summit on Higher Education and the recommendations of the 2000 TVE master-plan, the Federal Government has commenced action to rationalise the system of management of TVE for improved efficiency. It is therefore, intended that the three areas of management functions - proprietorship (founding, funding and supervision), regulation (certification, quality control/assurance) and programmes delivery - should be handled by distinct bodies ultimately. Meanwhile, NBTE as earlier indicated would be converted by law to National Commission for Polytechnics (NCP) to handle both the proprietorship and regulatory functions in education for polytechnics. NABTEB as an examination body would continue to handle vocational examinations and certification. The Federal Ministry of Education would continue to handle its proprietorship functions in respect of its institutions and would take on in addition, the regulatory functions of national curriculum development and accreditation of technical college programmes. As indicated already, the change of Technical College programme duration from three to six years after primary education and the elimination of hindrances to admission of the graduates of technical colleges in tertiary institutions are strategies to market TVE for social acceptance. In the future, a more intensive campaign to promote TVE among students and their parents is to be launched.

Nigeria believes in transfer of technology and technology is transferred only by training. Where good quality technology teachers are lacking, technology transfer remains a mirage. Accordingly, the mission of technology education for the 21st century is focused mainly on the production of all categories of good quality technology teachers and their retention in teaching.

The Way Forward

For the immediate future, efforts of the government will focus on full implementation of the national master plan on TVE, particularly the attainment of the decade goals. Also efforts will be focused on the implementation of the national action plan on the

resolutions of the 2002 National Summit on Higher Education. For this purpose, there would be the need to create a National Advisory Council on Technology and Science Education, comprising a group of professionally competent educators who are versed in the fields and could galvanise a sense of mission to drive technology and science education to meet national expectations. The logic of this approach is to involve stakeholders of innovations in the process of implementation.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

TEACHER EDUCATION

The teacher is central to the process of education and teacher education is considered to be the foundation for quality and relevance in education at all levels. The National Policy on Education (Nigeria, 1998) clearly articulates the importance attached to teacher education in affirming that “no education system can rise above the quality of its teachers”. According to the Policy, the goals of teacher education shall be:

- To produce highly motivated, conscientious and efficient classroom teachers for all levels of our education system;
- To encourage further the spirit of enquiry and creativity in teachers;
- To help teachers to fit into the social life of the community and the society at large and to enhance their commitment to national goals;
- To provide teachers with the intellectual and professional background adequate for their assignment and to make them adaptable to changing conditions;
- To enhance teachers’ commitment to the teaching profession.

In addition, the Policy stipulates that the Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE) shall be the minimum entry qualification into teaching and provides that all teachers in educational institutions shall be professionally trained, in relevant teacher education programmes. It requires that teaching services shall be so planned that teachers can transfer from state to state without loss of status. The current reality however, is that the policy making the NCE the minimum requirement is not yet fully effective and neither is the transfer within states without loss of status. Teachers who have transferred have had to accept lower status while some state governments have totally retrenched teachers who are non-indigenes.

These excellent intentions contrast with the massive challenges that teacher education in Nigeria faces. As the mobilization efforts of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) policy result in increased enrolment in primary schools, the issue of teacher capacity to respond to the demand assumes greater importance. This challenge is no less real at the post-primary level, where daily teachers are expected to devise learning experiences which make schooling more enjoyable and relevant. Unless they make such efforts, even more young people will make the decision to leave school before completing the intended nine years of basic education. At the tertiary level, teachers face the intractable problem of working with dilapidated facilities even for the most sophisticated courses. Across these levels, teachers are generally expected to make the best of every bad situation.

To what extent are teachers equipped for the task assigned to them in the National Policy? What manner of education do teachers receive and what retraining opportunities are available for them? What support services are put in place for teacher professional development and subsequent professionalism? This chapter attempts to address these issues.

Access to the Teaching Profession

Various routes of entry into the teaching profession are provided by different kinds of institutions. University Faculties of Education, Schools of Education in Polytechnics, and Colleges of Education provide pre-service teacher education. In-service training is provided by University Institutes of Education and The National Teachers Institute (NTI). The latter also provides a new, “pivotal” pre-service programme. One would not be wrong to infer that there appear to be many opportunities for anyone who is interested and minimally qualified to enter the teaching profession. Indeed, a one-year remedial programme has been introduced to give candidates whose entry qualifications are not up to required minimum (of 2-3 school certificate credits) to remedy the defect before moving on to the full NCE programme.

The emphasis on the NCE is a result of the policy (effective since 1987) that this should be the minimum qualification for teaching. The policy was given a boost by the establishment of the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) in 1989. It led to the phasing out of the Grade II Teachers’ in states where the deadlines for upgrading to NCE were met.

Teacher Supply and Demand

A major problem which the country faces is that the above measures, which might have been expected to raise the status of teaching, have not prevented a decline in the demand for pre-service teacher education. A nation-wide survey of secondary school pupils conducted by the NCCE (2000) found that less than 8% expressed a wish to enter colleges of education (COEs). In the selection examination for polytechnics and COEs, held in the 2001/02 academic year, the 14,338 candidates who had applied for admission to the NCE programmes represented only 22.4% of the intake capacity of the COEs (NCCE, 2000). Consequently, the COEs have to depend mainly on their remedial programmes to fill NCE places. Furthermore, Aarons (2003), using data from 12 COEs over a three-year period ending in 2001, observes that a small, and diminishing, proportion of NCE students are specializing in primary education. They tend to prefer courses which would enable them to enter degree programmes or non-teaching careers after graduation. Although it is recognized that the NCE programme is structured in such a way that every NCE teacher can teach in a primary school, yet the fact that these teachers may be mostly subject specialists leads to the conclusion that their focus and interest is subject matter rather than methodology. The primary school teacher ought to

be well grounded in methodology as well in order to handle the delicate task of educating children at that level.

The same study, examining the supply and demand situation in four States, finds that the output of the NCE Primary teachers falls far short of the demand. The table below although containing a sample of only 4 states illustrates the issue at stake.

Table 11.1
Colleges of Education, by state, by NCE primary specialist output, by state new primary teacher requirement 2001/02

State	% NCE Primary Specialist	Total state enrolment, in NCE Primary Specialist course	State Primary teacher demand
Kaduna	14	950	1,349
Imo	28	363	3,500
Taraba	33	992	2,246*
Adamawa	24	333	1,000**

**Taraba has a very large number of religious instruction teachers; this figure is based on current teacher numbers in primary schools exclusive of RI teachers. ** Figures for Adamawa could not be verified, but the demand is well over 1,000 additional teachers.*

As shown in the above table for instance, Kaduna State required 1,349 new primary school teachers for the year 2000/01, but of the expected output of 1,609 from COEs located in the state, only 290 (18%) were primary specialists. In the same vein, Taraba State needed 3,509 new primary school teachers, but could expect an output of 395 from the COE, of whom only 170 (43%) were primary specialists. Only limited help comes from the in-service upgrading programmes: the output of the NTI's Distance Learning System, for example, fell from 24,359 in 1994 to 7,606 in 1999 and has maintained an annual average of 3,500 since then (Aarons, 2003).

At the national level, the proportion of primary school teachers holding the NCE or higher qualifications rose from 39% in 1996 to about 56% in 2000 (Lassa, 2000; Aarons, 2003). But at the State level in 2000, the proportion varied from about 30% to 70%. In certain States more of the under-qualified teachers are, even now, upgrading to Grade II rather than NCE (Aarons, 2003). This is an encouraging trend in a way, as the teachers have to upgrade to Grade II first anyway before moving on to NCE.

Meanwhile, many NCE holders remain unemployed while the colleges of education jointly graduate over 30,000 NCE teachers yearly from full time studies with relatively steadily increasing enrolments which peaked at 151,578 in 2001. The irony of this situation is that this available pool of teachers is not being utilized even while the cry against inadequate supply of qualified teachers is growing strident. In fact, fears are expressed that the PTP graduates have joined the pool of unemployed teachers.

For the secondary level, a World Bank survey (2003) indicates that here too there are serious gaps between demand and supply of teachers, resulting in many over-size classes. Every area of the curriculum is under-served. This situation is partly explained by low and poor-quality enrolment in university Faculties of Education. In the 2001/02 session, for instance, only 2.2% of the candidates in the University Matriculation Examination (UME) applied to study Education, whereas 25.8% applied for Administration and 20.3% applied to study Social Sciences (JAMB, 2002). Education would recruit mainly those who were denied access to their field of first choice. The resulting belief that teachers are the “academic dregs” contributes to their low status.

The supply of qualified teachers for the pre-primary level should not be overlooked, since the Government has a responsibility to promote suitable teacher education for this level. This is being done in the NCE programmes with courses available for teacher trainees in early childhood education. The demand for properly trained teachers at the pre-primary level arises as more women engage in work outside the home (see Chapter 4).

The Content of Teacher Education Programmes

The statutory responsibility for teacher education is vested in COEs, Institutes of Education, polytechnics and NTI (by distance). Teachers are also trained in University Faculties of Education for B.Ed, B.A.Ed. and M.Ed. Programmes. COEs award the Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE), which is a sub-degree but professionally demanding diploma obtainable after three years of full-time study in a COE. These COEs can therefore be said to be the core of the teacher-training system, expected to produce teachers for the primary and junior secondary levels.

Lassa (2000) identified four major requirements for a teacher preparation programme: general studies; educational studies; studies related to the students’ intended field of teaching; and teaching practice. It is considered that these represent a widely accepted pattern of teacher education. Teacher training in Nigeria adopts this general pattern although with variations in breadth and depth. In the past it was left to the various universities to prescribe minimum standards for their affiliate colleges of education.

Since its establishment in 1989, the NCCE has three times laid down “Minimum Standards” for the COEs, the most recent edition being published in 2002. The admission requirements for the NCE programme under the Minimum Standards (2002) specify a senior secondary school certificate (SSC), NECO, or General Certificate in Education (GCE) O’ Level with passes in 5 subjects including English, including three credits at the same sitting or four credits at two sittings. Two of the credits must be relevant to the course the candidate wishes to offer. Credits in English and/or Mathematics may be required in some courses to meet departmental requirements. A Grade II Teacher’s Certificate (TCII) with at least 5 years of post-qualification teaching experience, with or without the required number of credits, is also acceptable. Candidates can also apply with an Associate Certificate in Education at merit level and candidates who are successful in

the Pre-NCE final examination are also admitted. The selection process is done through JAMB.

The Minimum Standards were designed to produce teachers exposed to a breadth of studies covering all that is required to make them competent professionals. The academic level reached is equivalent to that of the third year of a university Bachelor of Education programme. The 3rd edition of the Minimum Standards has, in response to increasing demands on teachers in the field, increased the number of credits in Primary Education Studies (PES) that are compulsory for all NCE holders. Courses such as Computer Education, Mathematics and General English have also been made compulsory for all NCE students. Thirdly, relevant themes, besides the Nigerian Constitution input of General Studies, have been infused into the NCE curriculum. These themes include Environmental/Conservation Education, Population and Family Life Education, STD/HIV/AIDS Education, and Drug Abuse and Women's Education. The objective is to improve teachers' capacity to communicate, and to provide necessary guidance outside their subjects of specialization (NCCE, 2002).

Recent reports from classroom research (Aarons, 2003) indicate that there are other specific improvements needed to the training that teachers received. Deficiencies are identified in teachers' knowledge and skills in the area of language. They are found to need more skill in teaching initial literacy, number and basic science concepts in the children's mother tongue, more ability to manage children's learning needs during the transition to English as the medium of instruction, and more awareness of the importance of language across the curriculum. It is also suggested that they need additional training in the use of instructional time, in promoting active learning, in assessment techniques, and in teacher teamwork. An important issue is whether these needs can best be met through pre-service, or through school-based in-service, training.

Opportunities for Professional Development

The National Policy on Education provides that "teacher education shall continue to take cognizance of changes in methodology and in the curriculum" and specifies that "teachers shall be regularly exposed to innovations in their profession". It recognizes the need for in-service training "as an integral part of continuing teacher education" (Nigeria, 1998, p.34). There is however, a contrast between opportunities for upgrading and those for continuing professional development.

Programmes to up-grade qualifications are available and easily accessible to teachers in service from the variety of institutions already listed. The COEs offer sandwich programmes leading to the NCE by correspondence and vacation courses. Many universities offer part-time B.Ed. programmes. The NTI, as we have mentioned earlier, offers various upgrading programmes through distance education. Teachers themselves consider such programmes to be widely available (Aarons, 2003).

In the area of professional support through school-based in-service workshops, seminars and training programmes, however, there appear to be very limited

opportunities. Most teachers in the system have been never exposed to any form of such support programmes and for many, there is a feeling of abandonment to the frustrations and trials that today's children have become. These results in loss of self-esteem and makes negative attitudes to pupils more likely. Aarons (2003) concludes from recent field studies that "a system of teacher development at school and school cluster level is at the core of improving teaching and learning" and "could be the main source of professional development opportunities".

The Private Costs of Training

Some of the obstacles to effective teachers education are matters of cost. In a survey of difficulties encountered by NCE sandwich teachers, exorbitant fees, high cost of materials for practical work, cost of transportation, the wide scope of the course offered and lack of facilities for practical work were identified. The survey observed too that, the more distant the teaching practice posting, the more acute the problems seem to be (NCCE, 1997).

Under the emotive heading, "teachers are paying for their own education", Aarons (2003) documents the costs incurred by teachers in their education and training. In its sample of COE, the report finds that direct private costs for full-time NCE students in federal colleges range from N15,448 to N91,000 per annum, while in State colleges they range from N27,490 to N17,000. For upgrading to NCE through the part-time programme of NTI's DLS, costs in the year 2000/01 varied between N27,830 in Imo State and N61,700 in Cross River State. It is noted that the base fee for the NCE DLS programme is N12,000 per annum, hence the additional costs are those incurred for levies, stationery, examination fees, tutorials, practice teaching sites, and so on. These costs have implications for access and raise the need to consider heavier subsidies to increase enrolment in teaching. Stipends have also been used in some countries for this purpose. As the profile of the average education student does not depict affluence, this is a critical issue for policy.

Quality Assurance and Internal Efficiency

Three factors which are considered important in determining standards in teacher education are the process of selection into training, the programme of study during training, and the institutional factors that relate to teacher preparation. Each of these factors will be considered in turn, with particular reference to the COEs.

Much has been written on the selection process for would-be teachers. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) recommends that teachers should be selected on the basis of moral, intellectual and physical qualities. In the UK, applicants must be seen in face-to-face situations and must be seen to possess certain personal qualities and characteristics before they are admitted for training (Lassa, 2000) Nigerian institutions have in the past varied in the criteria they have used, some being much more thorough than others (Urwick, 1987). In facing the realities of the present shortage of applicants,

COEs are certainly not likely to be rigorous about personal characteristics. The main emphasis of the NCCE is on prescribing the minimum academic qualifications mentioned earlier.

The regulation of the curriculum by the NCCE, described earlier, extends to the Pre-NCE Programme (i.e. the remedial programme). Standards are also prescribed in detail for institutional factors: staffing, physical facilities, administrative leadership, discipline and funding. All of these are widely considered to be critical for quality assurance (Lassa, 2000). The NCCE enforces these standards through periodic accreditation visits, and completed the second round of such visits in 2000-01.

Teacher Quality in schools

Overall, teacher quality at the primary level seems to be low, and this reflects on the various part-time and sandwich programmes in which many were trained. There are complaints that the teachers produced by these programmes can barely write an assignment. The fact that, even with increased availability of upgrading opportunities for the NCE, most teachers are upgrading to Teacher Grade II does not help matters. Since the Grade II is a stepping-stone to the NCE, it is expected that these teachers would eventually upgrade to NCE.

Teacher quality is no less reduced at the secondary and post-secondary levels. While at the secondary level the same upgrading phenomenon and lower quality output is evident, at the university level, the “brain drain” affecting the more able and experienced lecturers is a major problem. The reliance on inexperienced lecturers affects the quality of students’ work, and so of the lecturers of the future. This vicious circle contributes to the low status of Education faculties. However, attempts are being made to sharpen the skills of lecturers and to arm them with knowledge of fundamental concepts in teaching.

Gender

Teaching is widely thought to be a predominantly female profession. For historical and cultural reasons, however, the northern and southern States continue to exhibit sharp contrasts in enrolment by gender in teacher education. Table 11.2 shows the situation affecting COE environment in five southern and five northern States, in two recent academic years.

Table 11.2
College of Education Enrolment by Gender in selected States

S/N	STATE	1999/2000			2000/2001		
		MF	F	FPR*	MF	F	FPR*
1	Abia	1382	1109	82.3	1198	852	71.1
2	Anambra	4511	3951	87.6	5319	4977	93.7
3	Edo	2991	2084	69.7	3431	222	64.8
4	Ekiti	3250	2171	66.8	3352	2610	77.9
5	Ogun	4551	2793	61.4	5886	3730	63.4
6	Adamawa	3875	1481	38.2	5211	1792	34.4
7	Jigawa	2061	477	23.1	1989	881	44.3
8	Katsina	2782	510	18.3	3062	526	16.9
9	Kebbi	1807	337	18.7	1999	470	23.5
10	Yobe	1420	250	17.6	2266	417	18.4

*FPR = Female participation rate(%)

Source: NCCE Statistical Digest on Colleges of Education, Vol. 6, April 2002.

World Bank reports (Aarons, 2003) show that, nationally, 47% of primary school teachers are female, with a range of 21-82% across States. The States that have low female participation in teaching are also those with low girl-child participation in school. This has led some States to look into strategies for increasing the participation of women in teaching, in order to provide more female role models for girls in school (see Nwangwu, 2001). One source of hope for such strategies is the finding, in a recent survey of the perceptions of Nigerians about teaching as a profession, that females have a more positive attitude to teaching as a profession than do males (NCCE, 1992).

The Morale and Status of Teachers

The problems of teacher education cannot be detached from the continuing low morale and status of teachers in Nigeria. These are attributable, to a large extent, to poor incentives to improve performance, very poorly equipped working environments, inadequate social recognition, powerlessness and lack of control over working conditions. The old problem of late payment of salaries, too, is again present in some states. Studies conducted in different states provide evidence for these points (Makoju, 1998; Nwangwu, 1997). In these circumstances, there are thousands of under-qualified teachers in the system, and this in turn contributes to the low professional status of teaching.

The task of improving teachers' welfare and commitment to their work must be sufficiently addressed in any policy reform framework. This is a matter of recognizing the significance of the services they render to the nation, since, as it has been observed, rightly, "the kind of teachers trained and posted to a school may well determine what the next generation of Nigerians will be" (Lassa, 2000). In the context of the UBE policy, it is particularly important to minimise the shortcomings of the past UPE programmes as far as teachers are concerned. In the planning process, as Urwick (1987, p.138) observes, due attention needs to be given to "the existing profile of teachers' skills and qualifications, the cost of improving this profile and the existing size of the teaching force".

Milestones and Innovations in Teacher Education

Some innovations have been introduced to address the teacher issues raised in this chapter. With the UBE and EFA programmes mobilizing for greater participation of children in basic education, it is important that steps are taken to address the issues of teacher demand and supply, training, welfare and professionalism. The government in apparent moves to address these issues has through appropriate supervisory agencies, introduced several measures.

The Pivotal Teacher Training Programme (PTTP) was introduced to address the teachers shortfall of 279,411 identified in 1999 at the inception of UBE in apparent search for cost-effective alternatives for bridging the gap. The PTTP is a 15-month course including 12 weeks school experience and three-month internship in a primary school. The mode of teaching combines face-to-face contact at weekends and holidays, self-instruction course materials and school experience after which the candidate is qualified to teach.

A two-year capacity-building programme has just been introduced for teachers. This Teacher Corps programme will involve two years of compulsory post-training experience for teachers in an internship capacity.

At the university level, quality is being enhanced by the establishment of three pedagogical centres in selected universities to provide short courses for lecturers in principles and methods of teaching. The National Universities Commission is also involved in recording the teaching models of seasoned lecturers for use as model lessons for other lecturers.

The revitalization of the Teachers' Registration Council (TRC) is another development for the teaching professional. It is believed that this move will raise the status of teaching as a profession.

Critical Issues

A major challenge in teacher education is to balance the demand and supply of teachers across the states. The reality at the moment is that some states are over supplied while others have barely enough teachers to staff half their schools. The National Policy on Education provides for teachers to work in any part of the country unrestricted. Is there a way perhaps of using the framework provided by this policy to redress the imbalance in teacher supply?

It is imperative that the welfare of teachers must be looked into to boost morale. Perhaps other non-salary inputs may be explored.

The quality of teacher training programmes by distance also need to be examined. A specific case is the PTTTP programme which leaves a lot to be desired in deliver across the centres.

CHAPTER TWELVE

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

The Idea of University Education

The National Policy on Education (1998) reaffirms that universities, polytechnics/monotechnics and Colleges of Education are tertiary education institutions. The goals of tertiary education as specified in the Policy, in summary, are:

- To contribute to national development through relevant high-level manpower training.
- To develop and inculcate proper values for the survival of society.
- To promote scholarship, community service, national unity and international understanding.

Universally, the fundamental mission of universities is to promote the life of the mind through intellectual inquiry and to generate, store and transmit specialised knowledge and sophisticated expertise, higher forms of culture and ethical basis of conduct (Brubacher, 1982, p.12). Not all are capable of profiting from university education, but those who can, should have unhindered access.

In practical terms, universities pursue their universal mission through teaching, research, publication and community service. The distinguishing mark of the university in regard to teaching is award of degrees, which symbolises admittance of the learner to the international community of scholars who are perpetually engaged in the business of extension and sophistication of knowledge. In order to function properly, universities generally exercise self-regulation in academic matters. There is, however, in practice no single, immutable “idea” of the university, to be held in trust for all time in all societies by the corporate guardians of its purity. This is because the university necessarily exists in two worlds: the academic world in which they must maintain their core universal academic values and the civic society in which they are subject to the demands and influences of the polity and the cultures they serve. Universities in Nigeria have to achieve a balance between these two aspects of their mission.

Following its acceptance of the resolutions of the 2002 National Summit on Higher Education, the Federal Government has action plans to “review the policy and mandates of polytechnics and colleges of education to enable them award degrees subject to the availability of appropriate human and material resources”. Thus, Nigeria is considering adopting a three-stream system of higher education. However, it remains to be made clear in due course, whether the academic bureaucracy of the polytechnics and colleges

of education would enable them award degrees independently or whether the professorial system of the universities will be adopted.

Given the new policy position of the Federal Government, a variety of avenues for degree studies will become available. These will include: local universities, polytechnics and monotechnics, colleges of education, National Open University and study in universities abroad. This chapter discusses the polytechnics/monotechnics and colleges of education only in passing, as they are covered more fully in chapters 10 and 11 of this report.

The National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) was resuscitated in 2001 to provide expanded access to university education through a distance learning mode that is flexible, cost-effective, affordable and open to those who qualify but, for reasons of their living conditions, cannot attend the traditional universities. So far, NOUN has focused on putting in place its academic and administrative infrastructures and is admitting its pioneer students in 2003 for about 70 different programmes in the arts, humanities, sciences and technology at diploma, bachelors and masters degree levels.

Alongside universities, there is the rising competing phenomenon of professional training schools (e.g. in accountancy and business professions) and also the recognition of professional qualifications in the public service. In this chapter, such professional schools are not considered.

Trends in the Development of University Education in Nigeria

Three ideological positions may be discernable in the universities in Nigeria. As explained by Faure, et al (1972, p. 56), they are:

- Idealism: which considers that the university exists in and for itself and therefore must be autonomous in all respects and thus supply-driven in its high-level manpower production. Operations rationalization should not be effected; the status quo should not change. The university must be free from the demands of the polity. That is, its relevance to the society must not be looked into. This position incited the protest against Federal Government receiving World Bank credit facility of US \$120 million in 1990 to improve the quality of university education (FME, 1990).
- Mechanistic determinism: which represents the position that universities are directly controlled by, or is a reflection of the society. The universities being subsystems of society have no power to effect social change on their own. Corrupt practices, the struggle for “filthy lucre” or cultic practices in the universities are effects of the influence of society for which universities are not responsible. Let society change and the universities will change; the university alone cannot change the society. Indeed, in 1998 the National Association of Pro-chancellors took the position that “the crisis in the universities today emanates from indiscipline in the larger society”.

- Voluntarism: which insists that the university is for national development to meet stiff international competition, and respond to the challenges of trade liberalisation, globalisation and technological change. Accordingly, its high-level manpower production should be demand-driven. The university must be deliberately managed to be result-oriented to meet social expectations. This appears to be the position of government, the society and the progressive elements of universities. On this basis the universities themselves have proposed their reform measures.

Phases in the development of Nigerian universities have been conditioned by these ideologies, government policies and economic conditions. It is to be noted that when the expanding colonial administration needed more indigenous high-level manpower, which “study abroad” was not the best means to provide, the idea of the University College, Ibadan, as a satellite campus of the University of London was conceived. The University College, Ibadan, started in 1948 with only 104 students it inherited from Yaba College. Subsequent enrolments were small because of the limited employment capacity in the public service. Administrative officers were mostly required then. Therefore, enrolment was more in the humanities and classics. After about a decade of slow growth and restrictive admission practice, Ibadan was considered to be inadequate for the needs of an independent Nigeria. The University of Nigeria, Nsukka, was established in 1960. Other universities were established in Ife, Lagos and Zaria in 1962 and in Benin in 1970. They all became federal institutions after the civil war.

Regional rivalries of damaging nature heightened from 1960 to 1966 when they culminated in the civil war. When the civil war was over in 1970, the new 12-State structure of Nigeria created by the Gowon Administration in 1967 brought about new educational realities. Both the Federal and State Governments were expanding rapidly. There was need for more high-level manpower to hold controlling positions in the federal and state services and in the growing private and public sector economy due to oil boom. Therefore, the struggle for federal character representation in the federal service and with it, the logic of quota admission in the federal universities took the centre stage. The oil boom decade gave the impetus to the Federal Government to establish at once 7 (seven) more federal universities in 1975: Jos, Calabar, Kano, Maiduguri, Sokoto, Ilorin and Port-Harcourt as second generation federal universities. Some of these universities were taken-over from State Governments to meet their needs. The Federal Government apparently had “unlimited” financial resources to meet the needs of these universities then. Therefore the new universities were planned to have large campuses, grandiose buildings and expensive municipal facilities. Besides, they needed enormous teaching staff outlay which demanded poaching from existing universities as well as expatriates recruitment - all of which the economy could not afford soon after their take-off.

In order to enforce quota admission as a check to educational imbalance and to rationalize the admission process, JAMB was created in 1977. In addition, the Federal Government by Private Universities (Abolition and Prohibition) Act No. 19 of 1984 transferred the provision of university education from concurrent legislation to the exclusive legislation. From that time, the agitation on the part of the southern states to establish state universities on political and economic grounds took the centre stage. The

southern states were facing the problems of increased demand for university education due to the success of their UPE programmes. They had need for their own universities. Yoloye (2002) reports that “with the return to democracy in 1979, the 1979 Constitution reverted Higher Education to the concurrent list ... this accounted for the rapid re-emergence of state universities and the emergence of private universities”. Thus the attempt to check the widening regional imbalance in admission by central control was not very successful. The northern states, however, took to introducing basic studies to increase northern quota in university education. Aside from JAMB, Interim Joint Admissions Matriculation Board (IJMB) was created for the purpose. It is to be appreciated that the demand for university education hinged also on the fact that university graduates control the public service and some political and social interests regard the public service as the “god” of the nation (Philips, 1990). Individuals desire to share in the benefits of power control and the privileges in the public service as well as have higher purchasing power and social prestige by virtue of university education. However, there was a lull in the efforts to increase the number of federal universities during the period, 1975 to 1980. This was because by Act no. 19 of 1984 the Federal Government took-over all existing state universities and therefore, had a total of 12 universities at various stages of development to fund and manage. But in the 1980s when the ban was lifted by virtue of the 1979 Constitution, there were disconcerting efforts by private proprietors to set up what they called “universities”. The Federal Government reacted by banning the establishment of private universities in 1984 in order to check the ensuing confusion of academic values and the problems of geographical imbalance.

Progressive creation of states from the 1980s on political and economic grounds caused more demand for federal universities by the states that had none. This in turn led to the progressive creation of the 3rd generation federal universities: Owerri in 1980; Akure in 1981; Abeokuta in 1982; Yola in 1982; Minna in 1982; Bauchi in 1988; Makurdi in 1988; Abuja in 1990; Uyo in 1991; Awka in 1992; and Umudike in 1992. Some of these universities were also taken-over from the State Governments on their request. Among the 3rd generation federal universities were 5 universities of technology (Owerri, Akure, Minna, Bauchi and Yola) and 3 universities of agriculture (Makurdi, Abeokuta and Umudike), which were established as specialized universities to focus attention on the development of technology education, research and development (R&D) as well as the production of high-level manpower for industry, commerce and agriculture and the public service. At the centre stage in the establishment of the third generation universities was the need to meet the expanding high-level manpower requirements while maintaining a balanced geographical spread of federal universities to ensure even educational development of the country and to cultivate national unity as a political objective.

By Education (National Minimum Standards and Establishment of Institutions) (Amendment) Act no. 9 of 1993, the Federal Government lifted the ban on establishment of private universities. That led to the current renewed spate of establishment of private universities. Currently there are 7 private universities in the country. In 2000, Nigeria had 40 (26 Federal and 14 State) public universities. This number has since grown to 47 by the addition of 7 private universities, for which about 500,000 candidates now vie for about 75,000 (15%) admission places annually (JAMB Report 2002). Under the

persistent economic depression, universities took to setting up satellite campuses as their auxiliary businesses to cushion the effects of poor pay of lecturers, to increase their internally generated revenue and to serve the under-served clientele and communities. The wild spread of satellite campuses, however, became a matter of serious concern to the Federal Government as most of them exhibited the tendency to exploit students and with a lowering of academic standards. In 2002, the National Council on Education (NCE) banned the existence of satellite campuses located more than 30 kilometres away from the parent campuses in order to restore sanity in university education.

When the Federal Government defined educationally disadvantaged states in 1983 for the purpose of redressing educational imbalance, the states that were excluded by such a definition redefined educational disadvantage in terms of shortage of university places in relation to qualified candidates. This was their justification for establishing state universities (Yoloye, 2002) in order to meet their local demand and political expediency.

“Study abroad” programmes in respect of university education are not a significant concern of the government outside available overseas scholarships from Commonwealth and other countries. This is mainly because the depreciating value of the local currency makes the cost of overseas studies on a large scale unaffordable. Available statistics indicate that between 2001 and 2002, Nigeria received only 174 foreign awards. However, study abroad has always been a private interest of the Nigerian elites. Due to the various crises in the universities (disruption of academic programmes by frequent strike action, prolonged poor funding, indiscipline, mismanagement and attendant poor academic quality) a minority of Nigerians seek to send their children abroad for university education. According to UNESCO estimates in 2003 about 7,700 Nigerians are currently studying in various countries abroad. This figure, however, gives an incomplete picture as it only covers the main destinations.

The Federal Government Scholarship Scheme which was stopped during the military era was resuscitated in 2000. The awards made so far focus on indigent students in the tertiary institutions. In the 2001/02 academic session, a total of 12,068 awards costing about N532 million was made while in the 2002/03 academic session, a total of 16,684 awards costing about N716 million was made. That is, by 2003 the Federal Government has expended about N1,248 million on 28,752 awards.

Participation in University Education.

The rate of output from senior secondary schools nationwide has been on the increase from 196,819 in 1990 to 636,064 of those who took SSCE/GCE conducted by WAEC in 2000, that is, an annual increase of about 20% (WAEC, 2003/FGN, 2000, p.154). In 2001, a total of 842,072 candidates made up of 494,001 (59%) males and 348,071 (41%) females took JAMB examinations for admission into the universities but only 95,199 (11.3%) candidates made up of 57,993 (61%) males and 37,206 (39%) females secured admission through JAMB, a small proportion of secondary school. In terms of field of study and gender in 2000, the spread of enrolment was as indicated in Table 12.1 below.

Table 12.1
Enrolment by Field of Study in Universities in 2000

Programme	Total Enrolment in 2000		
	Male	Female	Total
1. Technology and science-based programmes	147,836 (73%)	53,939 (27%)	201,825
2. Arts/Humanities programmes	134,456 (58%)	97,590 (42%)	232,046
Total	282,292 (65%)	151,529 (35%)	433,821

Source: NUC Statistics, 2003.

In 2000, the ratio of admission in technology/science to arts/humanities programmes was 47:53. Enrolment in remedial programmes in 2000 was 14,359 out of which females were 4657 (32.4%), that is, about 3% of the enrolment in degree programmes. Statistics from other years that might indicate a trend are not available. The total output of the universities in 2000 is as shown in Table 12.2 below:

Table 12.2
Total Output (Degree, Diploma and Certificate) of Universities in 2000.

Programme	Total Output		
	Male	Female	Total
1. Technology and science-based programmes	18,057 (79%)	4,863 (21%)	22,920
2. Arts/Humanities programmes	30,533 (69%)	13,572 (31%)	44,105
Total	48,590 (72.5%)	18,435 (27.5%)	67,025

Source: NUC Statistics, 2003

The indication in Table 12.2 is that females compete more with males in their participation in the arts/humanities (30,533 or 69.2% males to 13,572 or 30.8% females) than in the technology/science programmes (18,057 or 77.8% males to 4863 or 21.2% females). Also, the output was more (67%) in arts/humanities than in technology and science (33%) in 2000.

Table 12.3
University Admission Statistics for 2001

Programme	Admissions in 2001		
	Male	Female	Total
1. Technology and science-based programmes	28,521 (70%)	12,231 (30%)	40,752
2. Arts/Humanities programmes	29,472 (54%)	24,975 (46%)	54,447
Total	57,993 (61%)	37,206 (39%)	95,199

Source: NUC, 2001

In sum, the analysis in Table 12.3 above shows that the ratio of admissions in technology/science to arts/humanities was approximately 43:57 in 2001. That is, the prescribed ratio of 60:40 is yet to be attained. The proportion of females admitted for technology/science is 30% as against 45.9% in arts/humanities programmes. The causes of the age-long disparities between males and females on the one hand and between technology/science and arts/humanities programmes on the other, are both social and economic. They are based on the fact that:

- Historically, the society first required and continues to require larger numbers of graduates from the arts/humanities disciplines than from technology/science.
- The bureaucratic structure of the society (by line and staff principle) favours those in the arts/humanities (as administrators) and places them in charge of power and resource control in organizations as personnel managers, accountants, planners, contracts and supplies managers. Students drift more to arts/humanities programmes to obtain these advantages and there is skewing of admissions towards accounting and public/business administration in the universities.
- The cost of technology and science education, the rigours of their courses and their demand for uncommon aptitudes are inherent deterrents to entry to these disciplines.
- Lack of adequate special incentives to lure students to technology and science programmes in the face of the deterrents.
- The prevailing poor quality of training in technology and science programmes which tends to cultivate incompetence.

- Culture stereotyping which excludes women from some occupations.

Quantity and Quality in University Education

The National Policy on University Education sets out the cardinal goals as follows:

- To provide self-reliant high-level manpower for national development;
- To develop Nigeria as a united nation with an enlightened ethical citizenry;
- To promote the cause of knowledge through research and scholarship.

The available evidence is that university education in Nigeria had a good beginning from the colonial times and was effective up to the 1970s as an instrument for national development until its nature changed by mass admission from the 1980s. In 1980, total enrolment in the universities was 73,425, but by 1990, enrolment had grown to 180,871, an increase of 246%. Quality fell as an effect of greater numbers of students in the face of diminishing resource input due to worsening economic recession.

As stated in this chapter, the 1979 Constitution returned education to concurrent legislation and that ushered in a new era of state and private universities. Unfortunately, by that time, the economic recession had set in. But the 13 federal universities in existence then had set the tradition of campus construction with high profile projects. When economic recession made it impossible for the Federal Government to fund the universities as adequately as in the oil boom era, the universities were thrown into the crisis of facilities dilapidation, project abandonment and unprofessional conduct by staff. FME (1990) reports that: “as student enrolment in the federal universities grew from 97,631 in 1982/83 to about 134,532 (138%) in the 1988/89 academic session ... the overall result ... was the fall in the quality of university education”. Government has noted further that: “Tertiary institutions have failed to perform optimally in varying respects ... Students complete degree programmes without actually becoming knowledgeable in the courses undertaken... the quality of the turn out appear suspect as a very high percentage of graduates have been found to be unable to meet the manpower requirements of vital sectors of the economy” (Federal Ministry of Finance, 2000, pp. 105 and 108). The other factors responsible for the dwindling quality of university education were:

- Introduction of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in 1986 which led to the devaluation of the local currency, high inflation, and decrease in real terms of budgetary allocations to the universities.
- Severe academic staff shortage due to the flight of some lecturers from existing universities to the newly established ones or to universities abroad in search of better prospects.

This contrasts with the high reputation that university education in Nigeria enjoyed before the 1980s. The current situation can be gauged from the results of the accreditation exercise carried out by NUC in 1999/2000. Out of 1,198 programmes visited only 136 (11.4 %) obtained full accreditation; 869 (72.5%) had interim accreditation while 193 (16.1%) were denied accreditation. The NUC has put the cost (recurrent and capital) of remedying the various deficiencies in all the federal universities at about ₦83.5 billion while that of the state universities is put at ₦19.1 billion making a total system-wide requirement of about ₦102.6 billion. This is about 115% of Mr. President's proposed ₦89.24 billion national budget (recurrent and capital) for 2003. Government has also noticed the "increasing incidents of corruption and lack of integrity within the system ..., which undermine the quality of the output of the system (Federal Ministry of Finance, 2000, p. 110).

It is also said that the bane of the Nigerian universities is poor staffing. In the 1990s Government observed that the numerical strength of the non-academic staff particularly the junior cadre, was far in excess of requirements for efficiency and effectiveness, (FME, 1990). Okebukola (2002, p. 16) reported a high load of administrative and technical staff that constituted about 76% of staff strength in most federal universities. At the same time, system-wide, there were severe shortages of academic staff to the extent that some universities could not run their post-graduate programmes (see Table 12.4). The overload of the system with non-academic staff implies unjustifiable levels of cost. However, efforts by government since the 1990s to rationalise staffing have not been successful. Indeed, some universities that attempted staff rationalisation process in the 1990s were deterred by their inability to pay terminal entitlements. But this remains a sore point in the university system.

Table 12.4 below gives an analysis of the shortfall in academic staff in the Nigerian universities in 2000. By 2000 NUC statistics, there was a total of 18,328 academic staff to look after 433,871 students and by NUC staffing norms, a total of 33,951 should be in the system. Therefore, the academic staff shortfall was 15,718 (46%) in the Nigerian universities in 2000.

The Root Problems of University Education in Nigeria

It has been observed that university education in Nigeria is in a state of decay (FME, 2000, p.1). Government is aware that the situation portends danger to the country particularly as poor quality graduates who may not be able to effectively hold executive positions in the public service in the future are currently being produced. The decay manifests variously as staff and student indiscipline, poor remuneration and poor service conditions, dilapidated facilities, bad administration, poor funding, enrolment expansion beyond the capacity of facilities, cultism, examination malpractice, strike action, crises of succession of vice-chancellors, sexual harassment, drug abuse and apathy to work and learning. Among the multifaceted problems of the Nigerian universities, cultism, examination malpractice and conflict between staff unions and management appear to pose the greatest danger to the future of Nigeria (on cultism, see Yoloye, 2002, p. 106).

Table 12. 4
University Academic Staff Shortfall in 2000

Discipline	Academic Staff Available	Student Enrolment	NUC Staff-Student Ratio	Academic Staff Required by NUC Norms	Shortfall by NUC Norms as % of Total Requirements
Administration	697	43,933	1:20	2,197	1,500 (68%)
Agriculture	1,904	25,602	1:9	2,845	941 (33%)
Arts	2,116	45,440	1:20	2,272	156 (7%)
Education	1,652	46,812	1:24	1,930	278 (14%)
Engineering Technology	1,798	52,843	1:9	5,871	4,073 (69%)
Environmental Science	904	15,663	1:10	1,566	662 (42%)
Law	586	23,431	1:20	1,172	586 (50%)
Medicine	1,876	23,241	1:6	3,874	1,998 (56%)
Pharmacy	360	5,066	1:10	507	147 (29%)
Sciences	4,146	77,092	1:10	7,709	3,563 (46%)
Social Science	1,831	72,430	1:20	3,622	1,791 (49%)
Vet. Medicine	368	2,318	1:6	386	16 (4%)
Total	18,328	433,871		33,951	15,718 (46%)

Source: NUC, 2001

From 1993 to May 2003, public universities in Nigeria have remained closed for an accumulated period of about 33 months due to progressive reformulation of collective bargaining issues by university staff unions (FME, 2003). It is known that the frequent and prolonged closures of the universities have badly affected the quality of education and the future of students in no small measure. On account of this, the credibility of degree qualifications is fast becoming untenable (FME, 2002, p.1).

Inadequate funding of public universities has been identified as the prime cause of the problems of the universities. The recent position of the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) is that both the federal and state universities should be appropriately funded by the Federal Government. As to the question whether the universities were better funded in the 1970s than now, ASUU holds that the real value of current funding is low in terms of its purchasing power due to the progressive devaluation of the local currency and inflationary trends.

Over the years, many commissions have been set up to redress the problems but they appear not to have succeeded due to poor implementation of recommendations. The various reports of commissions could not trigger the political will necessary to effect the reform or build executive capacity necessary to implement and sustain reforms on the basis of ownership by the stakeholders.

In the face of the tottering image of the universities, the question of the role and effects of the flurry of activities of international co-operation in the education sector has been raised. It is argued that development partners spend a “substantial proportion of donor funds on foreign experts and consultants with limited impact on local capacity building and utilisation” (Federal Ministry of Finance, 2000, p.38). The other

consideration is that more attention has been paid by international development partners to the lower levels of education, to the virtual exclusion of the university education sector. The rule that “where education as a whole is backward, effort is most rewarding when it is directed to higher levels” (Asquith, 1945, p.12) seems not to have been given adequate consideration. Government is aware that the economy is developed by quality high-level manpower produced by the universities. The risk of EFA then lies in its capability of raising the desires for higher education, but without concomitant capability of the country to meet those desires in universities for failure of executive capacity. The challenge now is to reverse this risk through capacity development by the universities.

The Asquith Commission (1945) idea of university education prevailed as the Ibadan model until the ingress of American model through the University of Nigeria, Nsukka in 1960. The idea of Ibadan was the production of “English gentlemen”: the generally educated persons who by the exercise of their disciplined mind would function in and direct any situation, professional or otherwise. But the idea of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, rested on the spirit of emergent nationalism and vocationalism with liberal education. At the inception, there was open social clash between the two paradigms. Strong criticisms of offering inferior degree qualifications were made against Nsukka. However, not too soon afterward, the Nsukka model prevailed in Nigeria with its course system, continuous assessment, general education studies and utilitarian orientation. Nevertheless, the NUC has noted that, “over 40 years of existence the 30 universities in Nigeria cannot be said to have evolved a readily identifiable uniform system” unlike the over 3,280 universities and colleges in the United State of America (NUC, 2002, p.1). The challenge now for the universities is to create a system of uniform practice to provide for programme articulation and credit transfer, to keep the system open and flexible in line with the economic and political objectives of the nation.

Perhaps no other indicator could be more symptomatic of the sorry state of universities than the problem of lack of books and journal materials for research work, particularly in technology and science. Prima facie, the situation would look like a sign of failure to meet the cardinal objective of being the generator and storehouse of knowledge. The dependence of Nigerian universities on their foreign counterparts for books and journals, though defensible from the point of view of universal sharing of knowledge, is not defensible from the point of view of not making adequate contributions to the world of books and journals as a storehouse of knowledge. The plight of universities in book production in science and technology may be understood by reference to the difficulties of having financial resources to meet production cost. Books on technology and science have a narrow sales market and are unprofitable ventures. In the circumstances, it would seem advisable that government should bear the cost under a special trust fund in support of book production in technology and science fields.

As highlighted already, the problems of poor funding started with the collapse of the international oil market in the early 1980s and the consequent depression of the Nigeria economy. Before that time, the country had taken off with the idea of government-driven economy, extensive economic development, encouragement of the attitude of dependence on government, massive importation of luxury goods and conspicuous mass consumption. The private sector, although growing, had neither scope nor the capacity to

support government then. The public sector lacked executive capacity which resulted in “poor policy conception, unclear direction, inconsistencies and confusion, (FMF, 2000, p. 14). On the part of the 13 existing universities then, there was the irresistible political and economic demand for expansion of enrolment but without expansion of physical facilities to match. When the oil boom receded, there was no way government could immediately reverse the attitudes and habits of the people or stop the essential capital intensive economic projects that had already taken-off. Government failed to meet the expanding consumption capacity of the economy. For the universities, the net effects were drastic budget cuts, academic staff shortages due to brain drain, lack of library books and journals, the decline of reading culture among students while their aspiration to obtain degrees even by unorthodox means heightened. Facilities broke down without repair or replacement and quality fell (FME, 1990). The Federal Government tried ad hoc measures of injecting extra-budgetary allocations to no avail because the demands of the universities were even known to exceed national budgets then. On staffing, the Federal Government established the Nigeria Expatriate Supplementation Scheme (NESS) which started in 1976 as British assistance but was later taken over and expanded by Government. It operated for some time and then died, due to the depreciating value of the naira, in spite of the support of US \$52 million from a World Bank credit facility in 1990. Government could not meet the increasing foreign exchange demands of the scheme.

Current Reform Efforts and New Initiatives

From the foregoing highlights, the problems of the Nigerian universities could be linked to four prime factors:

- The development of public universities on the basis of dependence on government funding over the years.
- The tradition of expensive development of university facilities.
- The cultural tendency of those in authority to make life difficult, so that normal rights are not dispensed except by agitation and grim struggle of the beneficiaries, as now captured in the slogan, “la luta continua” (the struggle continues) by staff and students.
- Inadequate executive capacity of those in authority to manage the universities, not by tradition and experience, but by professional management knowledge.

Government sees the response to the attitudinal problem as one of restoring to the universities full autonomy and changing the culture of management from tradition and experience to the use of professional knowledge and skills, acquired through deliberate training of university teachers and managers. Government has therefore accepted to implement the resolutions of the 2002 National Summit on Higher Education that:

- All new entrants into the management of higher education institutions should be exposed to appropriate senior management training programmes in order to enhance efficiency.
- New entrants into academic positions should be exposed to pedagogical training and be properly supervised. For this purpose government is to establish national higher education pedagogy centres for training of lecturers and managers of higher education institutions including universities.

University autonomy is essential to the resolution of the problems of universities. According to Professor P. Okebukola (2002, p. 54), “university autonomy as envisaged by government is a shift in the locus of certain aspects of control and decision making from government and its agencies to the university campus – notably council, senate and management. Autonomy will thus involve the restoration of academic, administration and financial “freedom to all federal universities under the general policy guidelines of government”.

It is known that the problems of funding and management have taken the greatest toll of the universities from the 1980s. The present administration inherited these problems when it assumed office in May 1999. The administration took up the issue of funding and particularly addressed staff remuneration. It has given increased attention to the funding of capital projects within the limits of available resources. Following negotiations with staff unions in 1992 and 1995, a new university staff salary scale was adopted with a variety of fringe benefits. Government is negotiating with ASUU on their demand for full implementation of all collective bargaining agreements. ASUU is yet to shift grounds for a new agreement in the face of economic realities as the Federal Government, the proprietor of federal universities, has done.

In order to build executive capacity, the current mode of operation of government is to consult academics widely on all matters of policy. Government is refocusing its efforts to empower the universities to contribute to and sustain national development. In line with government efforts, the NUC has assumed the challenge of institutionalizing “total quality management” in the universities. It has created for itself the vision and mission “to be a dynamic organization, acting as a catalyst for positive change and innovation, for the delivery of quality university education in Nigeria and ensuring a stable, adequately funded and sustainable university system that will produce globally competitive graduates and world-class research, relevant to national development”. NUC has assumed this positive leadership role, which has been the missing dimension over the years of decay. Its strategic goals for the period 2002-2007 have been set accordingly.

Already, with the strong support of the Federal Government, NUC has introduced new initiatives to stimulate quality university system. These include: virtual library, best practice in university teaching, Nigerian universities management information system (UMIS). Nigerian Universities Network (NUNET), Nigerian universities computer literacy programme (compulit), E-learning, university system annual merit award scheme, pedagogic and management training programme for university staff and managers and database of experts in higher education.

A crucial orientation in university education is the idea of entrepreneurial education and auxiliary businesses for the purpose of adequate training of students, and self-sustenance of universities. It is clear that government alone cannot meet the multifarious needs of the universities. Perhaps the future development of this idea in the context of university autonomy could lead to the resuscitation of the idea of “matching grants”. University autonomy and stability might not be realisable in the context of complete dependency on government funding.

Following the resolutions of the 2002 National Summit on Higher Education, an action plan has already been drawn for the implementation of the resolutions. Actual implementation of some aspects of the action plan is currently on course. There is hope that subject to availability of funds, when the action plan is fully implemented within the 5-year period set for it, university education will recapture its original quality.

The Way Forward

The root causes of the current problems of the Nigerian universities are well known as indicated above. The 2002 National Summit on Higher Education had addressed the identified problems and proffered solutions for which government has worked out implementation plans. The way forward to the restoration of normalcy in the university system appears to be through implementation of the plan of action. In addition, it may be necessary to consider that:

- The existing rigidities in the university education system which serve to hinder students’ academic mobility, should be relaxed by the adoption of the practice of programme articulation and credit transfer, as is characteristic of university education in other countries.
- The study of all types of technology should culminate in the university, as the mission of the university is to generate and transmit specialised knowledge and sophisticated expertise. Therefore, all forms of study in technology should have a place in the university. For this reason, garment making, catering, carpentry, furniture making, plumbing, welding technology and other types of technologies hitherto excluded should have a place as studies in their own right in the university in the same way as philosophy or history.
- A book policy should be developed whereby the cost of book production particularly in technology and science is borne by government under special copyright agreement to that effect. This is because books in technology and science have discouragingly narrow and unprofitable sales market and some authors do not have the capacity to fund their book production. For this reason, a *National Book Trust Fund* should be set up in NERDC to manage technology and science book production for which government should bear the cost.

- A national effort should be launched to address factors hindering female participation in technology and science education in the universities.
- The funding of physical development and operation of public universities should be on the basis of student per capita costs developed by the NUC from time to time and optimum student population.

CHAPTER THIRTEEN

EDUCATIONAL FINANCE

Historical Perspectives

The 1970s were a period of unprecedented economic growth and educational expansion in Nigeria because of the oil boom. The country had enjoyed adequate funding by the Federal Government until 1975, but government programmes were tied to the budget, which itself was overly dependent on petroleum export. The period after 1979 was characterised by general economic crisis and decline of the share of public expenditure received by education. This was partly because of the world-wide economic recession of the 1980s, which resulted in a decline of public expenditure in many countries.

Expenditure on education suffered a large decline in real terms in the first half of the 1980s, as a result of the sharp fall in oil earnings at the time. Since then there has been little or no recovery and in 1998, federal expenditure on education in real terms was only 23% of its level in 1980 (NPC/UNICEF, 2001, p.164). The decline in expenditure per pupil has been even steeper because of the large increase in the school-age population and school enrolment over the past two decades. Also, since the mid-1980s, there has been a steep decline in capital expenditure. Thus, capital expenditure on education in 1996-98 was on the average less than 17% of its average level in 1980-82. In the 1990s recurrent expenditure accounted for about 75% of total federal expenditure on education and the bulk of this was for staff emoluments. This expenditure pattern has also been typical at the state level.

The precarious condition of the education sector partly stems from the unanticipated effects of the structural adjustment programme, introduced in 1987 to address distortions in the economy and improve the system of economic management. This led to a reduction in government support to the sector. Other factors were poor governance at both institutional and social levels. Not only was there a tense and uncertain political environment caused by the prolonged military rule, but resources were diverted from the public services to fund changes in the apparatus of government (Balami, 2002, p.2).

Population growth in the country (see Annex I) and efforts towards UBE have resulted in a long-term increase in enrolments. This has occurred at the same time as real levels of expenditure and financial support have declined, leading to overcrowding and declining quality. Competition for dwindling public resources has led to a reduction of the public resources allocated to education. The allocation to the education sector as a share of the national budget has remained relatively low, ranging from 6.45% in 1989 to 11.13% in 1999 and declining to 8.70% and 7.0% in 2000 and 2001 respectively (see Table 13.1 and Figure 13.1) In Nigeria, public spending as share of GNP grew from

3.3% during the recession of the 1980's to 4.2% in 1996 (Saavedrea, 2003). However, although estimating public expenditures on education in Nigeria is very difficult because the three tiers of government are involved and statistics are of uncertain reliability, available information indicates that the education sector has been allocated a declining share of GNP over the past two decades (Dabalen and Oni, 2000).

Table 13.1

Share of the Federal Budget Allocated to Education, 1989 - 2001 (in millions of Naira)

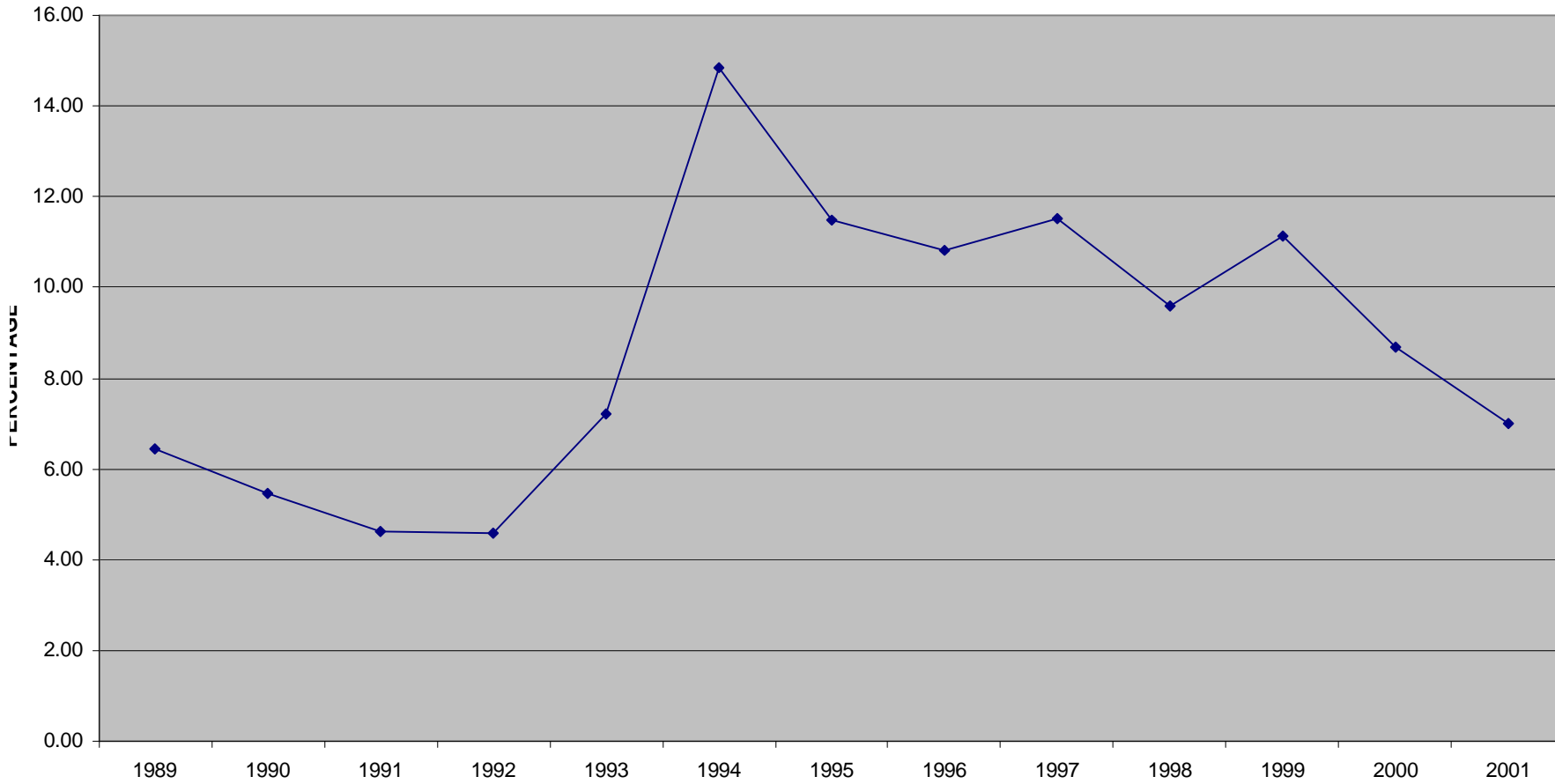
Year	Federal Government Annual Budget			Allocation to Education			% of Total
	Capital	Recurrent	Total (N)	Capital	Recurrent	Total (N)	
1989	9,297.0	20,810.1	30,107.0	221,880.0	1,719.8	1,941.7	6.45
1990	13,452.1	27,208.6	40,660.7	331,746.0	1,872.9	2,204.7	5.45
1991	13,085.4	25,580.5	38,665.9	299,049.6	1,488.5	1,787.6	4.62
1992	15,975.9	36,060.5	52,036.4	395,130.0	1,997.8	2,392.9	4.60
1993	18,116.0	93,500.5	111,616.5	1,563.0	6,436.0	7,999.1	7.20
1994	31,000.0	38,200.0	69,200.0	2,405.7	7,878.0	10,283.8	14.86
1995	44,500.0	66,957.5	111,457.5	3,017.9	9,798.6	12,816.4	11.50
1996	44,477.0	76,744.9	121,221.9	3,215.8	12,135.9	15,351.7	10.81
1997	88,693.0	99,396.2	188,089.3	3,807.9	13,033.2	16,841.2	11.53
1998	129,700.0	116,607.4	246,342.4	9,739.6	13,928.3	23,668.1	9.61
1999	88,000.0	161,000.0	249,000.0	8,291.8	19,421.7	27,713.5	11.13
2000	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	56,568.5	8.70
2001	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	62,567.1	7.00

Source: Federal Ministry of Education

Note: Budgets exclude military and para-military schools.

Figure 13.1

EDUCATION SECTOR SHARE OF FEDERAL BUDGET



It should be noted that, apart from the Federal Government budget on education for all levels, there are other expenditures in education that are not reflected in the Federal Ministry of Education budget. For example other Federal government organs like the army, navy and police have secondary schools that are controlled, run and funded by each organs of government. They are not reflected in the normal Federal Government budget for education per se.

Windfall profits from oil price swings encouraged wasteful expenditures in the public sector and thus distorted the revenue bases for policy planning. The large swings in public revenues, and the lack of a stabilisation mechanism at the national level, have led to unpredictable and inconsistent financing of education. This in turn has contributed to the problems of the sector. Primary schools throughout the country lack basic infrastructure, supplies and instructional materials. Delays in the payment of teachers' salaries are still a problem in some states. The basic levels of the education system are still unable to provide adequate service delivery or staff development and training, and this has negative implications for learning outcomes and opportunities for further education (World Bank, 2002; USAID, 2002).

There are, in addition, problems of fiscal federalism (Hinchliffe, 2002). Primary school enrolments are part of the allocation formula for distributing centrally collected revenues across States, and the education sector typically consumes a significant share of State and local government resources. However, the issue of how to share financial responsibility for primary education across levels of government has never been fully resolved. In addition, there is a lack of information, nationally and for individual states, on the sources and trends of educational expenditure and its distribution across the various educational levels. This lack of comprehensive data hinders an objective analysis of education sector financing (Hinchliffe, 2002; UNICEF, 2001).

Sources of Revenue

Education funding comes from many different sources: the main one for all levels of government is public revenue from taxation (Saavedrea, 2003). Education funds are reported to be distributed among the primary, secondary and tertiary education levels in the proportions of 30%, 30% and 40% respectively (Balami, 2002). The public funding direct government expenditures (for teachers' salaries and instructional materials) as well as indirect expenditures in the form of subsidies to households such as tax reductions, scholarships, loans and grants. It also includes payments from the Education Tax Fund (ETF), mainly for capital expenditures. The main sources of funds that the Nigerian Government has are federal taxes and duties on petroleum, profits, imports and exports, which forms the revenue of the Federation Account, and the centrally collected value added tax (VAT) introduced in 1996 (Hinchliffe, 2002, p. 3; Orbach, 2000, p. 32).

The increasing demand of education on public finances at a time when government revenues are stagnant or even falling requires either finding additional sources of financial support, reducing unit costs through greater efficiency, diverting resources from other lower priority uses, or some combination of such measures. Since the early 1980s,

therefore, considerable attention has been given, in Nigeria and elsewhere, to greater use of corporate, community and household sources of finance for education. At present, private sources account for about 20% of total national expenditure on education. In addition, some financial support is available from international donors, particularly in the form of loans. The donors include multilateral and bilateral agencies, multinational corporations and philanthropic foundations (Saavedrea, 2003).

Federal Government Expenditures

In the period 1997-2002, the Federal Government's expenditure on education has been below 12% of its overall expenditure, the trend being largely downward. Of this share, 70-80% has been for recurrent items, except in 2000 when the capital expenditure rose to 45% of the total. Each level of education has at various times been a concurrent responsibility of both Federal and State Governments, although the Federal Government has been most heavily involved at the tertiary level, allocating at least 68% of its total education expenditure to this level between 1996 and 2002. In the same years the average share of the secondary level has been 14.5% (for federal colleges) and that of the primary level has been 11.5%. The latter expenditure has been on an ad hoc basis, resulting from specific initiatives such as construction and renovation of classrooms (Hinchliffe, 2002, p. 9). The budgeting process, in Hinchliffe's opinion, lacks incentives for rational allocations, as some federal institutions have been relatively under-funded (p. 9).

State Government Expenditure

States' revenues are dominated by allocations from the Federation Account and from the centrally collected VAT. Their internally generated revenue constituted 20-25% of the total between 1995 and 2000. The State Governments are involved in the funding of each level of education, though to different degrees. They fund most of secondary education and a significant part of tertiary education. Until April 2002, they did not in practice control the funding of primary education, but they now do so. The latter change will be discussed further in a later section.

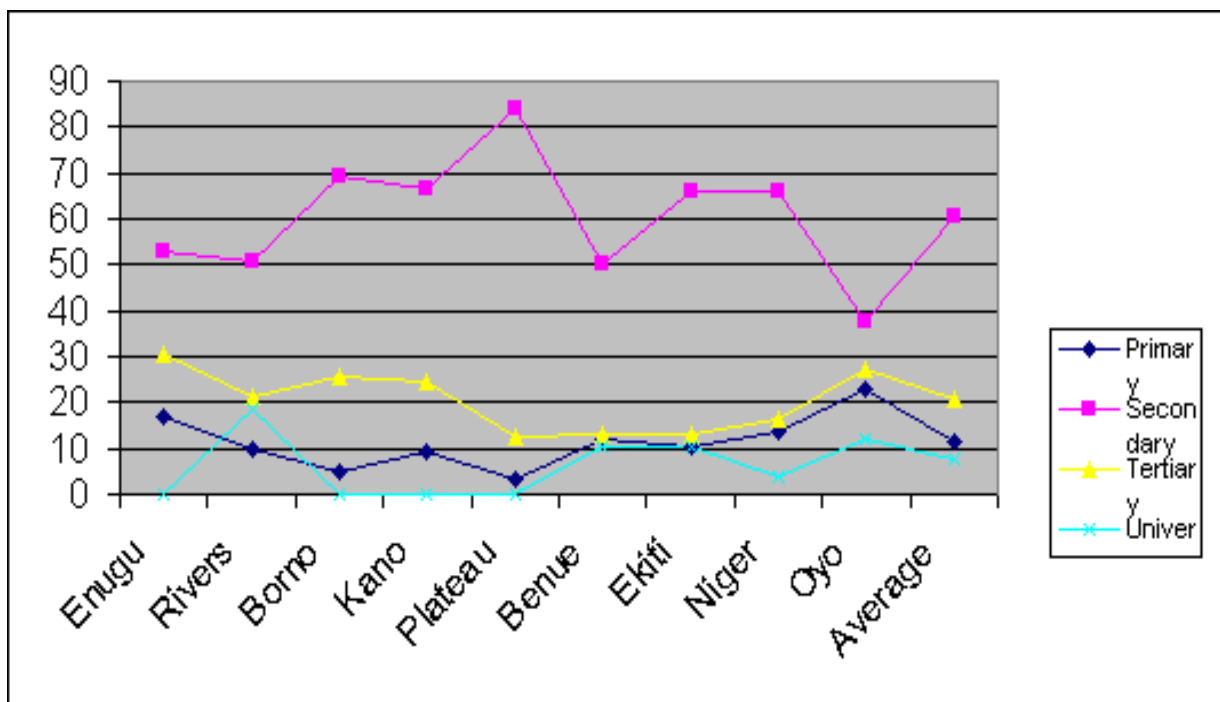
Education expenditures as a share of total State government expenditure, and its distribution across levels of education, varied considerably over the period 1995-99. The size of the share devoted to education is a cause of concern. The median share in 1999, for example, was only 18% and had been declining in most states. On the pattern of funding across levels of education, an average of two-thirds of all State government expenditures were then for secondary schooling, 11% for primary education and 19% for tertiary education. States with state universities, however, spent on average 34% on tertiary education (Hinchliffe, 2002, pp. 9-10). Table 13.2 and Figure 13.2 show the pattern for selected states.

Table 13.2
Shares of State Government Education Expenditure by Educational Level in Selected States, 1998 (percentages)

State	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	University
Enugu	17.0	52.7	30.3	0.0
Rivers	9.7	50.6	21.4	18.3
Borno	5.0	69.1	25.8	0.0
Kano	9.2	66.3	24.5	0.0
Plateau	3.3	83.9	12.8	0.0
Benue	11.9	50.2	13.0	10.4
Ekiti	10.4	66.2	13.0	10.4
Niger	13.8	65.8	16.6	3.8
Oyo	23.1	37.6	27.5	11.8
Average	11.4	60.3	20.8	7.4

Source: Hinchliffe (1998), p. 10.

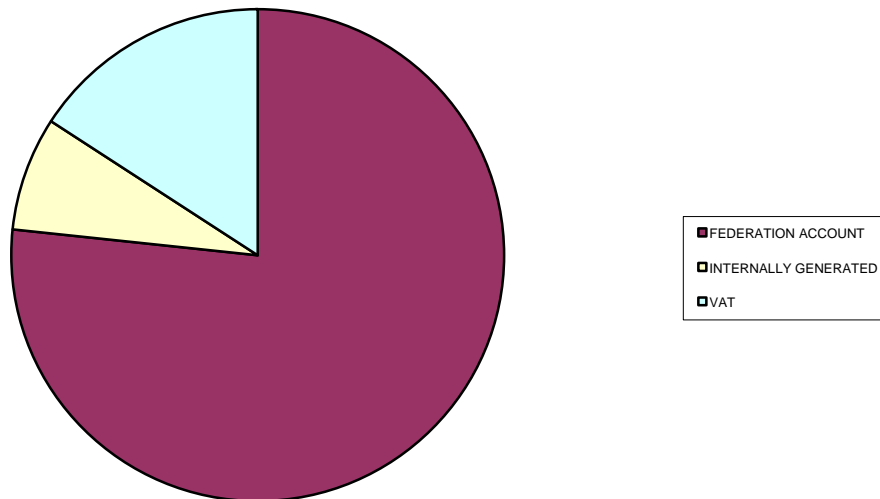
Figure 13.2: STATE EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BY LEVEL



Local Government Expenditures

Like the states, Local Governments have revenues from three sources: statutory allocations from the Federation Account, proceeds from the centrally collected VAT and ETF, and internally generated revenues. Estimates for 1999 across all Local Governments (CBN, 1999) show that only 7.7% of the total N60, 800 million revenue was generated internally, while 15.7% came from VAT and 76.6% from the Federation Account. The salaries of primary school teachers are essentially funded from central revenue allocations to Local Governments. This share of their allocations was, until April 2002, deducted at source and allocated to NPEC for onward transmission, through the State Primary Education Boards (SPEBs) to Local Government Education Departments (LGEAs). Now, however, State Governments allocate funds both for salaries and for other items to the LGEAs. The system of deduction at source resulted in considerable variations between States, and between Local Government Areas, in the proportion of allocated revenue deducted (see Hinchliffe, 2002), owing to the complex criteria for revenue allocation. Data are not available for any comment on the present situation in this regard.

Figure 13.3 LOCAL GOVERNMENT SOURCES OF REVENUE, 1999:



Some Local Governments have managed to undertake capital expenditures on primary education, although these have not been given high priority. In 1999, they ranged between 5.2% and 7.8% as a share of overall capital expenditure by Local Governments. They represented only 4.5% of total local government spending on education (Hinchliffe, 2002, p. 11).

Community Financing

Local communities have contributed immensely to the financing of education through self-help projects. They have built and equipped schools, and at times have contributed funds to assist the recurrent expenses of schools: but their contributions have not been “properly evaluated in quantifiable terms” (Nwagwu, 1998, p. 17). Other contributions include levies paid by parents or adults, donations in response to appeals and assistance from philanthropists and large corporations.

The Education Tax Fund

The Education Tax Fund (ETF) is a trust fund established by a decree of 1993 (amended by Act No. 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. The fund complements Federal, State and Local Government budgets for primary, secondary and tertiary institutions nationwide. It identifies areas of weakness in the educational sector and intervenes with funding. It serves to enhance educational facilities and infrastructure development, and promotes innovative approaches to educational learning and services.

The ETF has contributed by funding numerous projects at the various levels of education. The total funds allocated and disbursed to the various sub-sectors for intervention projects from 1999 to date are as follows. For the primary sub-sector, N9.0058 billion has been allocated, of which only N5,812.2 billion that is 64.5% have been disbursed. For the secondary sub-sector, N4.5042 billion has been allocated, of which N2,350.3 billion which is 52% has been disbursed, while at the tertiary level 63.6% of the allocated sum has been disbursed. The beneficiaries have been very slow in the prosecution of their projects hence the slow rates of disbursement (see Table 13.3).

Table 13.3
Allocation of the Education Tax Fund

(A) Funds Allocation to Various Sub-sectors, 1999-2002 (in millions of Naira).

Education Sub-Sector	Funds Allocation in:				
	1999	2000	2001	2002	TOTAL
Primary	3,117.5	1,117.0	2,167.2	2,604.0	9,005.8
Secondary	657.0	744.8	1,460.0	1,642.5	4,504.2
Tertiary	4,489.3	2,147.0	4,127.5	5,551.0	16,314.8
Other education agencies	518.4	747.8	846.4	6,759.9	8,972.4
Total	8,882.4	4,756.6	8,601.0	16,557.4	38,797.3

Source: Adapted from ETF Reports, Annual 2002 and March, 2003.

(B) Disbursement Allocation to Various Sub-sectors, 1999-2002 (in millions of Naira)

Education sub-sector	Funds Allocation in:				
	1999	2000	2001	2002	Total
Primary	3,117.6	1,010.6	1,111.9	572.0	5,812.2
Secondary	657.0	698.7	1,112.0	277.2	2,350.3
Tertiary	4,291.8	1,876.1	1,624.3	1,587.4	10,372.9
Other education agencies	532.0	588.2	252.9	1,405.4	2778.5
Total	8,598.5	4,165.1	4,688.2	3,842.1	21,314.0

Source: Adapted from ETF Reports, Annual, 2002 and March, 2003

The ETF also funded some special intervention projects in specific areas. These are Special Education for students with special needs and disability (N362 million); nomadic education (N50 million); curricular revision of primary and JSS subjects and book fair (N35 million) (ETF, 2002). Other methods of raising funds for education, explored by State Governments, are imposing an education tax on all taxable adults, and also property taxes (Nwagwu, 1998, p. 16).

International Sources of Financing

Another source of assistance to education in Nigeria is the international donor agencies, both multilateral and bilateral. Of the assistance provided by these agencies over the past decade, that of the World Bank, which is specifically a lending institution has been quantitatively the most significant. Since 1992 there have been a succession of World Bank loans for basic education, whose main focus has shifted from centrally organised supply of primary school textbooks to locally organised school self-help schemes. A total of US\$65 million was actually spent in 1992-2000, and US\$55 million was budgeted for the second phase, 2000-3. A further US\$101 million has been budgeted for the third phase, which covers a range of UBE-related activities, including improvements to educational management. The local-level interventions of this phase are to target 16 states initially.

The efforts of the U.N. 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 2000-3 (costing about US\$1.2 million) which is funded by Japan. Other examples are UNICEF's support for school learning and girls' 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. Japan Embassy in Nigeria expended US\$467,337 between 1999-2002 in supporting basic education through its grass root aid for the renovation of primary schools building in different parts of the

country. It is also to be expected that the African Development Bank and the Japanese International Co-operation Agency will become more conspicuous in assistance to education.

Financial Responsibilities

A good education financing system generates an adequate level of funding to promote efficiency and equity aimed at optimising the distribution of education and its benefits among citizens (Saavedrea, 2003). In Nigeria, however, there is a marked disparity in the quality of education offered by schools at the same level due to the method of financing schools. Schools that are able to mobilize more funds offer better physical structures, furnishings, broader curricula and better-trained staff than their less richly endowed counterparts.

Primary education is a responsibility of the states and their Local Governments. It receives about 40% of public educational expenditure (see the examples in Table 13.4): a low proportion by international standards. In addition to the statutory funding already described, a per pupil grant of N50 is allocated for educational materials by the Federal Government.

Table 13.4
Distribution of Total Educational Funding by Educational Level, 1998 (Percentages)

Sub Sector	Borno	Oyo	Rivers	Enugu	Benue	Ekiti	Niger	Jigawa
Primary	23.4	43.1	30.4	33.8	60.9	41.0	37.2	48.4
Secondary	47.1	15.8	28.4	16.2	14.8	31.4	36.7	45.4
Tertiary	13.8	16.0	16.3	8.7	5.0	23.6	14.0	6.2
University	15.7	25.1	24.9	41.3	19.3	4.9	12.0	0.0

Source: Hinchliffe (2002), p. 14.

Secondary education is the responsibility of State Governments and their contribution on the average is around 82% of the total expenditure at this level. The share of the Federal government is high, averaging about 25% because of the high cost boarding of the federal government colleges and federal science and technical colleges located in the states. Its overall average share of expenditure is 18%.

Both State and Federal governments manage and finance universities, polytechnics, technical colleges and colleges of education. The actual distribution of funding for tertiary institutions in a state between the Federal and the State government depends on the range of federal and states' institutions and their types. Overall, the Federal

Government share is greater than the State Governments in funding of tertiary institutions, but each of the two tiers of government funds only its own institutions. The average state share of expenditure for post-secondary education is 32%.

Funds for running the universities are derived from both external and internal sources. Public universities secure grants for recurrent and capital expenses from government. These externally derived funds make up, on the average, about 75% of the total income available to a federal or state university (Okebukola, 2002). Private universities depend on their proprietors for funds, to meet recurrent and capital costs. Internal sources of funds include consultancies, user charges including tuition fees (particularly important in private universities), investments, donations, and endowments.

In 2001, 98% of personnel expenses were met through grants from the Federal Government through the NUC. Government remained the major financier for overhead and capital expenses. Only a few universities generated up to 25% of their income from internal sources. A notable external source of funds is the ETF: an average of about 40% of the total allocation to tertiary institutions from ETF went to universities between 1999 and 2001, but by 2002 this had increased to 60% (see Table 13.5).

Table 13.5
ETF Funding of Higher Education, 1999-2002 (in Millions of Naira)

Sub-Sector	1999 ₦	2000 ₦	2001 ₦	2002 ₦
Universities	2,125.0	1,080.0	1,794.0	2,600.0
Polytechnics	1,087.2	450.0	967.5	1,125.0
Colleges of Education	1,099.1	480.0	1,027.5	1,228.0
Monotechnics	-	225.0	352.5	456.0
Inter-Universities, Government Agencies, Various Parastatals, Nigerian Law School	304.0	162.0	1,879.5	362.2

Source: ETF, 2003 (as at March, 2003)

The shrunken capital budget was in the recent past oriented primarily to the tertiary sector, at the expense of primary education. Of the N14 billion projected for investment in education by the Federal Government under the National Rolling Plan for 1996-98, 71% was for higher education and only 1% for NPEC (UNICEF, 2001, p.165).

Public Unit Cost by Level of Education

Information on unit costs (i.e. costs per pupil) of education helps to ascertain the efficiency of resource use, the profitability of investing in education and the equity of

public or private spending on education (Mingat and Tan, 1998). The ratios of public unit costs for primary, secondary, non-university tertiary, and university education were roughly 1:2:13:15 in 1998 (Hinchliffe, 2002, p.18). This implies that post-secondary education is relatively expensive, although the unit costs were generally all very low when compared to those of countries of Sub-Saharan Africa and other low-income countries. With increases in teachers' and lecturers' salaries across the different levels of the education system in 1998, the unit costs have increased substantially.

Table 13.6 illustrates the public unit costs of the various levels of education. In 1998 the average public unit costs of primary education in selected states ranged from N397 in Benue State to N2,102 in Enugu State, where there had been falling enrolments in recent years (Hinchliffe, 2002, p.18). For state secondary schools, the average unit cost for 6 selected states, representing the various geopolitical zones, was N3,080. The state averages ranged from N1,333 to N3,655.

Table 13.6
Unit Public Cost by Level of Education and Type of Institution by State, 1998 (in Naira)

States	Primary	State Secondary	Tertiary	Teacher Training	Poly-technic	State Univ.	Federal Univ.
Jigawa	677	12,101	20,117				
Kano	1,747	3,633	27,952	41,595	25,471		
Oyo	1,336	1,333	4,116				
Borno	397	3,809	16,957				16,957
Rivers	1,310	3,655	22,929	21,892	14,935	21,588	20,000
Enugu	2,102	1,881			2,811	5,472	28,259
Benue	1,886	2,523	15,125			131,252	201,965
Ekiti	1,220	2,987		6,702	4,384	17,659	

Source: Hinchliffe (2002), p. 18

At the tertiary level unit costs are even more diverse. For federal universities the average was recently found to be N23,414 (Hartnett, 2002). Unit costs for state universities are on the average higher. Unit costs of the teacher training institutions and polytechnics seem to vary considerably across states. They are very high in states with low enrolment, like Kano (N41,595 in 1998). In states with low fees, the public unit cost of non-university tertiary education lies between N15,000 and N25,000. In states with specialised Universities (such as Benue with an agricultural university), the public unit cost is higher, at N201,965 (Hinchliffe, 2002, p.19).

For most Federal and State Government Colleges of Education, public costs are generally higher. For instance, at the FCE Zaria during 2000/ 2001 academic year public

cost was approximately N48,000, although for NTI Distance Learning System (DLS) programmes, the public costs were as low as N960. This could be due to the fact that the NTI uses skeletal services at the various DLS centres rather than establish grandiose bureaucratic arrangements. Moreover, overhead expenditure varies widely within and between states and institutions (UBEC, 2002, p.11).

The total average unit cost per student per discipline in all Science-based disciplines (with a mean of N239,408) is higher than those of Arts-based discipline (with a mean N186,505) (Okebukola, 2002). He explained further that the average unit cost per student per discipline range from a minimum of N141,532 for Business Administration/Management Science to maximum of N302,096 in Human Medicine. Each of the seven science-based disciplines, i.e. Medicine, Environmental Science, Veterinary Medicine, Pharmacy, Agriculture, Engineering and Natural Science, has a higher cost than the arts and social science-based disciplines, i.e. Law, Arts/Humanities, Education, Social Sciences, Management and Administration. Overall, Medical Sciences and Engineering together account for 39% of the total unit cost, and pure and applied sciences for 37%, while arts-based disciplines account for the least total cost (24%).

Private Education and Household Expenditure on Education

Private schooling is significant in every state of Nigeria. The private sector for primary and secondary education has been growing for the past two decades, but the federal authorities have failed to keep a proper record of this development. The size of the sector in 1999 may be illustrated by reference to certain states, however. In Ekiti State, private schools were 17% of all primary and 14% of all secondary schools. In Enugu State the proportions were 16% and 14%, and in Kano State they were 17% and 27%. The widespread loss of public confidence in public primary education has been noted by various studies (e.g. Francis et al., 1998; Urwick, 2002). For the secondary level Rivers State, where private secondary enrolment grew from 7% to 33% of the total in the period 1995-99, illustrates the same trend.

School attendance requires household expenditure on learning materials, uniforms, meals and transport, as well as fees and other charges. The items other than fees normally form a large share of household expenditures in government schools. From small household surveys conducted in Plateau State in 1995, it was found that, on average, uniforms and shoes accounted for about half the direct cost to the household of government primary schooling. Learning materials accounted for about 36%, and fees and donations were only 10% of the cost in an urban area and 6% in a rural area. For private schools, fees were 29% of the cost in the urban area and 18% in the rural area. The main factor was transport as it accounted for one-third and half of the private cost of transport in private schools (Urwick, 2002).

Direct private unit costs (i.e. annual household expenditures per pupil) have been constructed both by the study just cited, for Plateau State in 1995, and by another study for Lagos State in 1998 (Okebukola and Olaniyonu, 1998). Both studies present average unit costs for public and for private schools, in rural and in urban areas. For ease of

comparison, Table 13.7 shows these costs in U.S. Dollar equivalents, using the exchange rates that prevailed at the time. The differences between the two sets of findings are large. To some extent they represent regional contrasts, although the economic environment of Lagos State is atypical. It should be borne in mind that these costs have much variability within each sector and are in effect negotiated between the household and the educational system (Urwick, 2002, p.141). But household expenditure forms a significant share of total costs of education at all levels. Even in the government primary schools of Plateau State, private expenditure per pupil was higher than the public cost per pupil of the school staff.

Table 13.7
Examples of Direct Private Costs of Primary Education: Average Costs per Pupil by Sector and by Location

Sector	Location:	
	Rural	Urban
	<u>Plateau State, 1995</u>	
Government schools	8	6
Private schools	44	64
	<u>Lagos State, 1998</u>	
Government schools	93	174
Private schools	296	455

Sources: Urwick (2002); Okebukola and Olaniyonu (1998).

Note: Costs are stated in U.S. Dollars. The exchange rates used are \$1 = N82 for 1995 and \$1 = N95 for 1998.

Recent examples of fees and charges in government schools, recorded by Hinchliffe (2002, p.19) suggest that these have risen in real terms in recent years. The examples for government primary schooling in the North are in the region of N120 p.a., while those for the South have a range of N455 to N625 p.a. The examples for government secondary schooling have a range of N175 to N290 in the North and N1,430 to N2,150 in the South. Overall, it is clear that to make public basic education effectively “free” in any sense will be a very difficult task, especially in the southern states and especially at the junior secondary level.

Allocation Mechanism

Substantial revenues are required by State and Local Governments to carry out their constitutional responsibilities for education and other services. The 36 States and FCT, as well as the 774 LGAs, are funded more through revenue sharing arrangement than through locally collected taxes (Hinchliffe, 2002, 3).

Based on the constitution, all federal revenues are pulled together and placed in the Federation Account, from which they are distributed among the three tiers of government (Orbach 2003, p.32). There are two types of distribution of the centrally acquired revenues: between the Federal, State and Local Governments, and across State and Local Governments.

The allocation to the states for education is based on a formula decreed in 1993 by the Finance Fiscal Allocation Committee (FFAC), set up to develop and apply the formula by which the Government divides the funds. This has been revised several times, most recently as a result of the Supreme Court ruling of April 2002 on resource control. The ruling directed a split of 54.68%, 24.70% and 20.60% to Federal, State and Local Government respectively and prohibited the Federal government from transferring any revenue to special funds. The share of 7.5% formerly appropriated by Federal government would be added to the States' allocations. The horizontal revenue sharing arrangements, the distribution across State and Local governments and among sectors, still remain the same. The mobilization of more funds for education is likely to imply less for some other sectors (Orbach 2003, p. 36).

The state and local government allocations are on the basis of equal shares and population as well as according to indicators like primary school enrolments and fiscal effort. The role of local government in the provision and maintenance of primary schools, spelt out in the 1979 constitution, coincided with a new revenue allocation formula, which increased the shares of revenue to States and Local Governments. The application of this allocation formula to the overall conditions prevailing in the states has not reduced the differences between them, as poor states cannot generate substantial internal revenues and are very dependent on the formula (Orbach, 2003, p. 36).

Unfortunately, with the decline of total revenue in the Federation Account in the 1980s, the financing of primary education, and payment of teacher salaries "increasingly faced crisis" (Hinchliffe, 2002, p.4). This led to the establishment of NPEC to coordinate and supervise primary education as well as contribute 65% to primary teachers' salaries. The local government was to contribute 20%, while State governments provide the remaining 15%. Though states were happy with increased funding, they resented the power of NPEC. The way Federal funds were distributed across states was seen as discriminatory against those with large educational systems. Surprisingly, in 1991, full responsibility for primary education was transferred to Local Governments, and their share of revenue increased to 20% while that of states was reduced to 25%, as NPEC was abolished. After a period of crisis occasioned by this sudden change, the previous system was re-established by Decree 96 of 1993. NPEC was re-established and the cost of teachers' salaries was again deducted at source from the Federation Account allocation to each Local Government. On this occasion, the formula for distribution of the National Primary Education Fund was clearly spelt out to take account of such factors as school enrolment, equality of States and special funds for the educationally disadvantaged states (Nwagwu, 1998, p. 16).

The Challenges of UBE

The Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) is working with states to develop plans and funding proposals for state UBE implementation. The issues of adequate teacher supply and teacher quality in most States, against the background of increasing enrolments in primary and junior secondary schools, is a cause of concern. Hence the support for teachers' participation in NCE upgrading programmes. Central to these issues is the cost of training teachers to cope with the implementation of the UBE programme (UBE, 2002, p. 2).

The UBEC is attempting to ascertain what impact a new programme of teacher training would have on future recurrent cost of teachers whose qualifications would be enhanced by the new programme. It is considering the implications for the present and future planning process, and how to finance initial upgrading programmes of teacher training (UBEC, 2002, 4). The findings would inform decisions about state public expenditures for teacher training and contribute to consideration of alternative and cost-effective options for the provision of teacher education (UBEC, 2002, Appendix 10).

Conclusions

The task of reducing educational inequality can only be accomplished through political commitment at the federal and state levels. Educational opportunities can be equalized by providing support from Federal Government funds to complement locally generated resources and providing greater assistance to impoverished communities. To reduce rural–urban disparities, there must be an increase in the proportion of resources allocated to rural LGAs. Also decisions about priorities and resource allocations must be based on a well-structured set of national policies and programmes.

The emphasis in financing of education must be placed on better utilisation of the available funds, the allocation of additional public funds to the sector, and diversification of the sources of funding in education. Decentralization of finance and management requires adequate management skills for state and LGA administrators as well as head teachers and principals. Thus training programmes should be designed to promote such skills.

There is the need to consider options for the funding of higher education. One of these is to introduce a graduate payroll tax, whereby employers of graduates (both public and private) are taxed to fund university education. This has a sort of regulatory influence on the labour market and would encourage employers to identify their need for employees with particular skills and qualifications. Other ways of generating revenue to finance tertiary education could be through consultancy services, community programmes (e.g. outreach programmes), increased fees, possibly combined with student loan schemes, and generation of income from non-teaching services such as use of university buildings for conferences and social events.

Nigeria is one of many developing countries re-examining the question of how to finance education as they face growing economic problems and increasing pressure on public funds. These pressures coincide with growing private demand for access to primary, secondary, and higher education, and for an improved quality of service. They are also attempting to find new solutions to the problem of using resources efficiently and sharing financial burdens both efficiently and equitably (Woodhall, 1996, p. 20).

CHAPTER FOURTEEN

EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

Education Policy and Manpower Supply

In the present technological age, a fundamental function of formal education is to produce a knowledge-based work-force for national development. In this connection, the National Policy on Education (1998) prescribes two major goals:

- To civilize and enlighten every individual to lead the good life in society as a citizen of Nigeria while harmonizing with and sharing in the world's cultural heritage.
- To equip every individual with the skills and job competencies for gainful employment.

The National Policy on Education is definite that the defining character of an educated person is the competence to live and work successfully in society. Barring these competencies, there is no education. Individuals who lack life skills and job competencies are prone to suffer identity crises and social disorientation. The curriculum at each stage of formal education, from primary to tertiary, is therefore geared towards inculcating civilized and enlightened mode of living as well as competencies. At the primary education level, the elements of work in the curriculum include the study of mathematics, science, agriculture, home economics, cultural and creative arts (drawing, handicraft, music and cultural activities). Existing labour laws in Nigeria do not permit primary school graduates under 15 years to join the labour market directly. Child labour is prohibited but apprenticeship training is allowed and encouraged. Thus drop-outs/offers and completers of primary education who cannot immediately proceed for formal secondary education due to their life circumstances, find a means for job training as apprentices. In the labour market, opportunities for apprenticeship training include: distributive trade, traditional medical practice, house help, farming, local crafts, in-plant industrial training, roadside trade training and on-the-job training. Normal employment is available in the public service for persons with primary education above the age of 15 years.

As at 1995, the projected population of children aged 6-11 years who should be in primary school was 16.1 million (see Annex 1), and in the same year, total enrolment in public primary schools including many over-aged pupils was about 15.6 million (EDB data) giving a GER of 97%. In the same year, only 44% of those leaving primary six entered junior secondary one. These statistics illustrated the point that the demand for apprenticeship for young out-of-school children is very large.

With reference to 1995 again, a transition rate of 88% from Junior Secondary Three to Senior Secondary One implied that for 77,750 junior secondary school leavers their main option was to enter the job market. The junior secondary level is intended to produce, inter alia, semi-skilled workers for apprenticeship training or for direct employment in the public service in such occupations as labourers, messengers or other office and field assistants.

At the end of senior secondary education the 2001 WAEC report indicated a total of 886,936 entries in English language (a compulsory core subject) among candidates for the 2001 examinations. This represented approximately the output of senior secondary for the year. Against this background the JAMB report on 2001 admission exercise indicates 128,114 admitted to higher institutions (see Table 14.1)

Table 14.1:
JAMB Admissions, 2001

S/N	Institution	Admissions		
		Males	Females	Total
1	Universities	57,993	37,206	95,199
2	Polytechnics	15,444	8,508	23,952
3	Colleges of Education	3,542	5,421	8,963
Total		76,979	51,135	128,114
		(60%)	(40%)	

Source: WAEC and JAMB 2001 Reports.

The implications of WAEC/JAMB statistics are as follows:

- Tertiary institutions could only absorb about 14% of the output of senior secondary level.
- In 2001 a total of 758,822 (86%) candidates who could not be absorbed in tertiary institutions must have headed for labour market and occupational post-secondary; such as schools of health, agriculture, business, engineering and construction (monotechnics) (see Chapter 10) which are outside the purview of the Federal Ministry of Education.

Technical colleges providing job-specific training institutions within formal secondary education, produce skilled labour (craftsmen). Vocational centres produce semi-skilled labour and artisans/operatives at post-primary level: they belong to non-formal vocational education and since they are mostly private enterprises in the informal sector of the economy their activities are less recorded in national statistics. However, the bulk of the skilled and semi-skilled manpower for small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs) are produced by vocational centres and apprenticeship schemes.

Both the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) and National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) have established collaborative efforts in open apprenticeship training. The NDE teaches skills to the unemployed and inculcates enterprise spirit using: Vocational Acquisition Training, Entrepreneurial (Business) Training, Training for Rural Employment and Training for Labour-Based Work Programme. In 2000, about 129,146 unemployed persons were involved in the various programmes of NDE across the country. NAPEP's Youth Employment Scheme involves capacity acquisition programme and mandatory attachment programme for the jobless. In 2002, a total of 180,000 were involved as beneficiaries of NAPEP's programmes.

The output of technical colleges as indicated by NABTEB in its 2001 report to NCE was 41,500 out of which only 16,000 (36.6%) registered for technical trades certificate examinations, while the balance of 63.4% registered for business examinations. NABTEB reported a high failure rate in its examination due to poor expression, poor conceptual skills, poor drawing skills, and inadequate exposure to practical training. Technical college graduates enter the labour market as craftsmen with these defects. The causes of poor performance are considered to be lack of facilities and poor quality teaching.

Available statistics for 1998 indicate that the polytechnics enrolled 86,212 final year students, out of which females were 7,548 (8.8%). In the same year the output was 9,344 of which females accounted for 2,344 (25%). The universities enrolled in 1999 a total of 448,230 of which the females numbered 156,236 (34.9%). In the same year they produced 67,025 out of which the females were 18,435 (27.5%). The gender disparity is a cause for concern.

The ratio of polytechnics output to that of the university is about 1:7. This is an unhealthy relationship from the point of view of economic development. Similarly, the relationship between the output of the technical colleges and the polytechnics is about 4:1 which is not ideal for economic growth. The relationship prescribed by COREN, for engineering occupations, is 1 engineer to 6 technicians to 60 craftsmen (COREN, 1993). Nigeria apparently, has ratios of 4:1:7 far from this ideal of 60:6:1. A situation where high-level workers are more numerous than those at low-levels easily leads to underemployment or educational inflation. However, the manpower mix applicable to engineering and construction is not applicable to public service where the preponderance of staff are non degree holders on GL 01-07. In 1996, the numerical staff strength in the Federal Public Service was 347,068, made up of 263,387 on GL 01-07 and 83,681 on GL 08-17, that is, about 3 non-degree holders to one degree holder in the service (FMF, 2000, p. 240).

Manpower Demand in Nigeria

In the 2003-05 Rolling Plan, it is observed that "Nigeria is currently faced with high unemployment, underemployment, low productivity, rising skill flight, depreciating real household income, etc". Over 70% of the unemployed in Nigeria are youths within 15-25 years (UNESCO, 1998). The stock of manpower is derived from the 15-65 age

bracket of the population, which is about 55 million with unemployment level of about 12% (NMB, 2003).

Employment in Nigeria is public sector-driven. About 60% of those employed are in the public service. With the on-going privatisation and the inability of the public sector to employ, the rate of unemployment has been rising. The unemployment rate for university graduates may be around 25% and their prospects are worsening (Dabalén, Oni and Adekola, 2000). However, Nigeria faces a paradoxical situation where available qualified persons do not all find jobs and where available jobs in certain sectors do not have enough qualified persons to fill them. This affects in particular, the upstream petroleum industry where expatriates flood the country. The mix of manpower production as already shown is in favour of arts and humanities and social science and not in favour of hardcore technology and science.

Educational and training institutions that produce skills tend to be supply-driven, and to some extent this is unavoidable. The reasons are as follows:

- Training institutions once set-up cannot open or close depending on the vagaries of demand. “Strictly applied, a demand-driven policy would be a recipe for disaster. The world of training is too complicated to be satisfied with this simple rule” (Castro, 1995, p. 6).
- Economic development cannot be left to determine manpower development since the latter creates new possibilities for the economy. Indeed, experience during the 3rd National Development Plan Period, 1975-80, was that economic development stimulated by oil boom was stifled because of unavailability of manpower (FGN, 1975, p. 3).
- Implementation of the existing manpower development and employment policy has been inadequate for the country. It is important to note that the NMB was set up in 1962 for the purpose and is active in providing manpower development direction to the nation in spite of its funding constraints. To improve policy implementation, NMB has set plans to establish strong links between stakeholders in manpower development and utilisation by means of a tripartite consultative forum.

The size of the public service in Nigeria is said to be bloated but efforts to trim it down in the past proved unsuccessful. In 1994, the public service was estimated at 1.3 million made up of about 400,000 in the Federal Service, 400,000 in the State Service, 200,000 in Local Government Service and 300,000 in public enterprises. The problem of the public service has perhaps been lack of quality rather than size per se. Therefore, the effort on the ground is towards capacity building. 20% of the budget is allocated to staff training (FMF, 2000, p. 36) but is never completely released or used for the purpose.

However, in 1996 the size of the Federal Service was 347,221 while that of the Statutory bodies and state owned companies were 154,573 (FMF, 2000, p. 240-241).

This made a total of 501,794 of which 297,406 (59%) were non-degree holders on grades 1-7. There is no doubt that the size of the work force will be reduced as ICT is leading to office automation.

The National Manpower Board (NMB) has estimated that during the Rolling Plan period 2003-2005, the labour force will grow from 48.4 million to 50.2 million in 2005, that is, by about 900,000 per year. The absorption capacity of the economy is expected to rise from 42.25 million in 2003 to 44.28 million in 2005. In other words, 2.03 million employment opportunities are expected to be generated from the implementation of the plan and to reduce unemployment rate from 12.70% in 2003 to 11.79% in 2005.

Seven “economic impact areas” identified by government have been estimated to require additional high-level manpower in the next 5 years as shown in Table 14.2. The universities have been called upon to take up the challenges which these statistics represent.

Table 14.2
High-level Manpower Needs in Targeted Sectors in 2003-2007

Sector	High-level Employees
Petroleum	3,900
Gas	5,250
Agriculture	15,250
Manufacturing	9,000
Solid Minerals	10,900
Tourism	6,700
ICT	4,899
Total	55,899

Source: FME

Statistics on retirement from service are not available. Also unavailable are statistics on employment in the SMEs, which form the employment base of the economy, and types of skills and education level needed.

Brain Drain

“Brain drain” is a natural effect of an economy that fails to meet the aspirations of the highly qualified workers in the face of the lure of external economies. It has been associated with the migration of highly educated and skilled professionals and technical manpower from Nigeria (Ojo, 1998, p. 2). The effect of brain drain on the economy is similar to the effect of anaemia in the human body. It weakens the powers of the economy drained of its brains to make meaningful socio-economic progress and generates dependency syndrome – the tendency to be dependent on the prescriptions of international “development merchants” often to no gainful effects. Statistics on the

extent of the brain drain from Nigeria are not easily available. Nevertheless, the size could be gauged from the number of Nigerian intellectuals in foreign lands. A national plan of improved service conditions to lure these Nigerians back home is not in place. The nation stands at risk in terms of loss of executive capacity through brain drain.

The Way Forward

- Since there is a poor link between education and the labour market, enterprise education should be instituted at all levels of education to reduce unemployment. The FME should also carry out tracer studies of leavers in order to improve the linkages of schooling with the labour market.
- The FME and NMB should establish collaborative relationship in manpower development. They should seek to improve the manpower mix produced by the educational system.
- NMB should produce and keep under review a compendium of skills and competencies required at each level of manpower production in the national education system.
- Trade guilds should be formed under their respective professional association for improvement of the quality of trade practice. They should be consulted in the process of curriculum development.

CHAPTER FIFTEEN

ACHIEVEMENTS, CRITICAL ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

Introduction

In this chapter of the status report, government achievements in the various sub-sectors are highlighted. It is significant that these achievements cut across the sub-sectors and are aimed at addressing fundamental issues that have plagued the education system severally. The chapter also highlights the challenges that must be addressed in each sub-sector of the education system in order to achieve progress in the education sector as a whole. At the federal level, the problems range from the funding imbalances, through development and strengthening of partnerships, to the daunting task of building capacity at all levels. There is the important need to re-examine the targets set for UBE, to reduce gender gaps in participation and, beyond basic education, to face up to the problem posed by HIV/AIDS. In each sub-sector from early childhood and primary, through to the secondary and tertiary levels, and in adult, non-formal, TSE and teacher education, there are issues to be adequately addressed. This chapter focuses first on the achievements of government in specific sub-sectors from 1999 to 2003 and then presents the critical challenges that remain.

Achievements

Universal Basic Education

The first public function undertaken by the present administration in September 1999 is the launching of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme. This is a landmark achievement. Since the launching of this scheme, intensive mobilisation of communities and the general population to participate has led to increased primary school enrolment from 17.9 million in 1999 to 19.2 million in 2000 and 19.4 million in 2001. To meet the classroom demand necessitated by this increase, a total of 1,500 three-classroom blocks with head teachers' offices, stores and VIP toilets have been constructed since 1999. These facilities are distributed evenly across the 774 local government areas in Nigeria. The two successive Basic Education Summits (held in 1999 and 2000) and the subsequent Higher Education Summits that followed are indicative of government commitment to revamping the education sector, which it inherited in a state of decay. The passing of the UBE Bill on 14th May 2003 is an additional achievement aimed at reinforcing the UBE programme. Nigeria took part in the Dakar conference in 2000, which adopted the 6 EFA goals including universal enrolment and completion of primary education. NPEC has been converted into the "UBE Programme" and given a new mandate to coordinate the UBE policy. The establishment of an EFA Coordinating

Unit led by a representative of civil society is a laudable landmark. This has placed Nigeria among the community of nations, which together agreed to work towards Education For All by the year 2015. Nigeria's appointment as the Regional Coordinator for the Africa Region under the Honourable Minister of Education is a recognition of the country's potential to play a leadership role in the EFA delivery process. The EFA unit is currently engaged in producing a national plan on EFA and the states are being empowered to develop their own UBE/EFA plans. When successfully concluded, this will consolidate Nigeria's potential to benefit from the EFA 'fast track initiative' being led by the World Bank.

Secondary Education

In the secondary sub-sector, specifically in the period since 1999, there has been some movement towards gender parity in secondary education enrolments, and transition rates from junior to senior secondary education have improved considerably. The system of admission into federal unity schools has been revised to give more places to talented and deserving candidates. The government has also, in the past three years, made efforts to give school principals up-to-date knowledge of school management practices. Other recent developments include the establishment of Federal Science and Technology Colleges and the introduction of an Information and Communication Technology curriculum to equip pupils for the computer age.

Technology and Science Education

The technology and science sub-sector has received an even greater boost fundamental to resolving the problems that it has grappled with in the past. Government, in recognition of the potential for development that lies in technology and science education, took several steps to consolidate service delivery in that sub-sector. Government has assumed new initiatives to revitalise and expand the scope of technology and science education. In this regard, the present administration is credited among other achievements with the production of a national master plan for the development of TVE in the 21st century with a focus on expansion of training opportunities, integration of entrepreneurial education in training, development of technology teachers and modernisation of programme delivery.

The reversion of the length of training in crafts programmes in technical colleges from 3 years to 6 years as full secondary education, admitting successful completers of primary education as the conventional secondary schools has the intention of attracting students and expanding enrolment. This eliminates the age-long discrimination against technical college graduates in admission into tertiary institutions. Government has continued to establish more Federal Science and Technical Colleges and taken steps to eliminate all forms of disparities between the Polytechnics and Universities while considering action plans to transform polytechnics into degree awarding institutions.

University Education

The present administration inherited a lot of woes as a result of the prolonged military rule, which contributed to the decline in the universities. Government therefore had to focus its attention within the years under review on universities as well. In 2002 therefore, the present administration conducted a National Summit on Higher Education to generate social consensus on these problems and their solutions. The root problems identified include lack of executive capacity for management and leadership by those in authority, poor funding and a long established attitude of dependence on government for direction and funding. Government is responding to these phenomena by seeking to restore financial and academic autonomy to the universities. The autonomy soon to be legally granted to federal universities by an Act of Parliament should help to make the universities more self-reliant.

The closure in 2001 of satellite campuses which were run by various universities was an attempt by government to control quality and maintain minimum standards. To fill in the gap that this action would have on potential clientele for University education, the Federal Government resuscitated the Open University which had been closed down in 1983, one year after it was established by the Shagari administration. The National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) aims to accommodate about 200,000 students in the year 2003. The Virtual Library Project, which was launched in 2000 by the National Universities Commission (NUC), promises to satisfy the textbook and research needs of students and lecturers.

Government has also commenced the process of modernisation of university administration and academic management. Plans are being pursued to enable all new entrants into teaching and management in universities to be professionally trained for their jobs. Three National Higher Education Pedagogic Centres (NHEPC) are to be established to enhance teaching skills. Also from 1999, the present administration has considerably improved the conditions of service of university staff by instituting new salary scales and fringe benefits. Efforts have also been concentrated on campus rehabilitation and expansion, particularly with student accommodation and with recreational and academic facilities.

Adult and Non-formal Education

In the adult and non-formal sub-sector, the enhanced social mobilisation efforts under the UBE scheme helped in part to create awareness for adult and non-formal education. The National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education (NMEC) has extensively supplied reading and writing materials to adult learners across the 6 zones. Innovative strategies are being introduced in adult education programmes, often combining literacy with community development programmes and generally using more active methodology. A lot more needs to be done in this area to increase the literacy level of Nigerians especially women.

Teachers and Teacher Education

In order to meet expanding teacher needs as a result of the UBE programme, government introduced the Pivotal Teacher Training Programme (PTTP) through the National Teachers' Institute. Since the beginning of the programme, 30,000 NCE and 42,000 auxiliary teachers have been produced. Teachers' salaries have also received upward reviews since 1999. Attempts are being made to improve the deployment and skills of teachers, notably the Teachers' Corps programme and the establishment of pedagogic centres in universities.

Data Needs

The activities of the Education Data Bank are being strengthened with the development of an Education Management Information System (EMIS). A "baseline survey" has been completed for 1999 to 2002 to fill in the data gaps that built up over the years when annual school censuses were not taken. The decision to embark on a Sector Analysis project is itself an achievement. This led to the establishment of an ESA unit in FME to lead the process of diagnosing the education sector. The process is intended to provide an empirical basis for an informed sector reform and for instilling a sustainable data collection culture.

The present administration has produced an Atlas, which documents significant information about Nigeria. The publication places in proper perspective demographic and environment detail on Nigeria.

Quality Assurance

The low learning achievement level being recorded among pupils is an issue that the present government has begun to tackle from the roots. Recognising the Federal Inspectorate Services (FIS) as the unit of the FME charged with the responsibility for quality assurance, the Honourable Minister of Education set up a committee, co-ordinated by the ESA unit and supported by DFID, to study the FIS and make recommendations for its repositioning. The committee has since submitted a report.

HIV/AIDS

Government has risen to the challenge of HIV/AIDS by instituting a typical education response to the disease through the setting up of the HIV/AIDS and Education Unit in FME. This unit collaborates with NACA in sensitisation of pupils and students concerning the scourge of HIV/AIDS. This unit has assembled desk officers from various departments in the Ministry and its parastatals to participate in working out the modalities for reaching school age children. The curriculum on Sexuality Education, developed to teach the young as much as possible about the disease transmission patterns, has been renamed Family Life Education. The Federal Government, in conjunction with UNESCO in 2002 held a conference on HIV/AIDS and education in Nigeria.

Critical Issues and Challenges

Early Childhood Education

The present government responsibility for early childhood education is limited to setting standards and ensuring quality pre-primary education, as well as providing teacher training and learning materials. There is an important issue as to whether government should accept some financial and managerial responsibility for pre-primary education. There are arguments for and against this step. Proponents argue that these early years are too critical to overall human development to be left unattended by government and that mere specification of standards is not enough. Some believe that government ought to intervene more actively here in order to enhance access to everyone rather than accepting the present situation, in which the service is made available only to those who value and can afford it. Opponents argue that government cannot take on this extra responsibility as it is still grappling with higher priorities and would leave early childhood care and education to parents, communities and the private sector. There is merit in both arguments, but it seems clear that government must play a more active role than it is doing now in pre-primary education, empowering the departments or agencies of government responsible for this role to be more pro-active.

Other necessary measures include training programmes for producing pre-primary teachers, continuing to support community-based pre-primary and childcare centres; introducing appropriate legislation concerning early childhood education, government consideration of the practice of primary-pre-primary school linkage programmes for children aged 3-5. This model of pre-primary education is cost-effective as well as efficient and appears to work well at present in Oyo state. Government should also encourage the application at this level of more indigenous child stimulation methods, many of which cut across the major ethnic groups in Nigeria.

Primary Education

In this sub sector, the challenges that remain include non-payment of teachers' salaries when due and the low morale of teachers. The primary education sub-sector receives between 35% and 40% of the allocation to public education. The issue of who pays teachers' salaries, which take up the bulk of the allocation to that sub-sector, has until recently dominated public debate. Now that the Supreme Court ruling has settled the issue, more efficient allocation of resources within the primary education sub-sector may receive more attention. The right balance needs to be struck between expenditure on teachers and on other inputs into primary education. The contributions of parents as well as local communities to education should also be analysed to estimate what parents spend on their children's education. For this analysis to be possible, an appraisal of the current funds allocation and disbursement patterns in schools is necessary in order to set aside funds for learning materials. For more efficient use of resources, the shift system could be suggested and teachers given greater incentives to support the system. These options and strategies must be thoroughly analysed in order to have a good picture of their expected efficiency. A sound judgement on these issues must be based on data and other evidence.

The problem of teacher demand and supply continues to pose problems at the primary school level. Whereas some states have more teachers than they need, others seem to battle constantly with an inadequate supply of teachers. Enhancing teacher quality and productivity by increasing opportunities for in-service training at local levels should also receive government attention.

Secondary Education

The low transition rate from junior secondary education to senior secondary is still a challenge to the system. The NPE transition ratio of 60:20:10:10, from junior to senior secondary schools, technical schools, vocational centres and open apprenticeship, is not being adhered to: there is a serious mismatch between official targets and actual enrolment. The transition rate between primary and junior secondary education is also low, declining from 53% in 1992 to 38% in 1997. In contrast, transition from junior to senior secondary education is higher, close to 90%.

The demand by almost every parent that their children move on to senior secondary, instead of Technical Colleges and Vocational schools, is excused on the grounds that vocational schools are not well equipped and the public has little regard for them. The recent government move to rename Federal Technical Colleges as Federal Science and Technical Colleges addresses only a part of the problem. This may raise the status of these schools among the general public, but only if the schools are equipped as real science and vocational schools that transmit the special body of knowledge. More than ever, greater financial commitment by government is necessary to bolster public acceptance and support for STVE.

The shortage and inadequacy of science teachers in secondary schools is an issue that must be addressed seriously. Low learning achievement as currently being recorded in schools is also a big challenge. The fact that many children even after 9 years of basic education are still unable to acquire basic competencies is serious enough to be addressed urgently. Traditional quality assurance mechanisms should be strengthened to perform their roles more effectively. The Federal Inspectorate Service (FIS) is particularly relevant in this regard.

Technology and Science Education

The challenge in this area is that of meeting the national scarcity of professional technology teachers. The dearth of books in technology and science education deserves serious consideration and so does the need to modernise technology and science education. These measures will help to reverse the negative image that science and technology education has at present. In effect, the systematic implementation of the national master plan on TVE is the crucial challenge.

University Education

Certain problems still plague the university system. Incessant industrial disputes, cultism and examination malpractices are some of the problems that have turned the

universities into very unstable environments. The resolutions on autonomy and funding made at the Higher Education Summit, if implemented to the letter, will guarantee a measure of achievements. Government must seek a final solution to the threat of cultism, and examination malpractices in the university system. Incessant strike actions also constitute threats to the stability of the system in the productivity loss which each strike action entails.

Adult and Non-formal Education

Partnerships are advocated as the most viable strategy for reaching the target beneficiaries in adult and non-formal education. In Nigeria there is a plethora of NGOs and CBOs operating in many communities. These associations are viable avenues for disseminating literacy programmes in a cost-effective and relevant manner. They have special potentials in adult education delivery especially among women. The Government should endeavour to forge partnerships with non-governmental organisations.

A major problem in adult and non-formal education is the timing factor in relation to the regular occupations of potential learners. The face-to-face mode, though very effective, can only reach a limited audience, and often requires the learner to shelve livelihood activities to engage in education. At the moment the choice is often made in favour of non-education activities. Adult and non-formal education must therefore strive to tap the potential of education delivery through the distance mode. Print, electronic media or radio raise new possibilities of literacy education everywhere, anywhere and at any time for target beneficiaries to access at their own convenience.

Teachers and Teacher Education

The Government faces challenges from the teaching service and from teacher education, especially as the agitation for more salaries and improved welfare continue to dominate teachers' demands. The problem of improving the welfare of teachers, however, appears to go beyond mere salary increases. Terms of service for teaching should not only attract but also retain the best brains. Teachers want not only better conditions and better fringe benefits, but also a better working environment with tools and materials for research and opportunities for self-development more easily available. Government must involve teachers themselves in working out effective ways of making the teaching profession viable for serving teachers and attractive to incoming ones.

The teacher retraining opportunities that currently exist are mostly centralised training in which many teachers participate. This mode of training is believed to have limited impact and level of transfer to actual classroom practice on the part of teachers (NPEC, 1999). In-service training ought to be on-going, regular and woven into the fabric of the teachers' daily activities while also addressing the expressed concern and needs of teachers.

More science and vocational studies teachers are needed for any meaningful development in science and technology education. Government could consider greater financial incentives to attract more teachers to science. At the tertiary levels, the shortage

of teachers, as a result of brain drain resulting from the low status and the lack of attraction to the teaching profession, is considerable. Government must seriously address the issue.

In the non-formal sector, the issue of instructors' stipends remains intractable problem. Insufficient and irregular payment of instructor stipends (varying from N500 to N1,500 per month across the country) is a very serious inhibiting factor for non-formal education. Considering that, without instructors regularly available at the learning centres, all efforts at literacy education come to naught, it is time for government to make a categorical commitment to instructor payment in this sub-sector. This could involve working out a matching grant arrangement with providing agencies whatever their affiliation.

Data Collection

Meanwhile, the need for timely, valid and reliable data is evident across all sub-sectors of education. The Baseline Survey exercise was a major effort to update the national data collection system. There is a need, however, to review the major sources of national data such as the MICS (1999), the population projections of the National Population Commission, and the baseline survey enrolment compilations. The challenge of collecting and authenticating data for all sub-sectors in education is urgent. For UBE and EFA, and also for states and local government areas, there is need for soundly based projections that are informed by accurate data. This applies to enrolment, teacher numbers, classroom spaces, number of schools needing renovations and infrastructures required. More reliable data would ensure that realistic targets are set for UBE, enabling Nigeria to reassess the prospects of attaining the 2015 EFA goals of eradicating illiteracy.

The Education Sector Analysis (ESA) project is expected to generate, in the diagnosis process, data and research studies that would assist in charting the future course of education in Nigeria. This Education Sector Status Report has exposed gaps in the availability and accuracy of data. The authorities must build data collection and analysis into their daily operations and use the data more effectively.

HIV/AIDS and Education

The spread of HIV/AIDS poses direct threats to the education sector in relation to access, teaching and learning. Also information dissemination and education concerning the control of the epidemic is an area of concern to education. In a dialogue on teachers conducted by NCCE in 2002, the threat of HIV/AIDS to teachers was highlighted. It was noted at that discussion meeting that infected teachers need support. Mechanisms and structures for cushioning effects of AIDS must also be put in place for AIDS orphans. Above all, teachers need an enhanced capacity to deal with AIDS related issues affecting their pupils and themselves. Facts and figures are needed to aid the planning process. The education sector must respond more proactively to the challenge of HIV/AIDS.

Management and Funding of Education

The place of education on the concurrent legislative list has proved to have advantages and disadvantages. This has been the subject of various policy reversals culminating in the 2002 constitutional injunction that the Federal Government should leave states and local government authorities (LGAs) to handle teachers' salaries. This has highlighted the need for dialogue among all stakeholders concerning the roles of each level of government in education provision. With the acceptance of the Supreme Court ruling, LGAs need to be empowered to ensure that teachers' salaries are paid regularly. Besides, while it is urgent to address the inadequate level of public funding of education, it is imperative too that the financial allocations to education at various levels be efficiently utilized.

Amid claims of overlap and duplication of functions among the parastatals in education, it is necessary to streamline the roles and responsibilities of these parastatals in a cost-effective way. Over and above this is the need to streamline how the FME itself is structured in relation to its parastatals, and FME's relationship with them. This is necessary to reduce conflicts and dissipation of energy.

Partnerships

An increasing number of children, youths and adults need and in many cases actively demand education. Government alone cannot meet these demands. The time has come for a greater community and civil society participation in providing, managing and funding education. This requires all levels of government to forge partnerships across the public and private sectors, and for parents and local communities to be involved in the management and financing of education in order to meet the challenge of EFA. Such partnership is relevant to all the different tiers of government and across every sub-sector. Funding and management options should be fully explored with these partners. The involvement of civil society and international development partners in education has increased considerably during this administration, but there is scope for further development of such partnerships.

Government may consider various forms of partnership with publishers for supply of specialised books at secondary and tertiary levels, which may be sold at subsidised rates to students. Another possibility would be for government to encourage experts in various disciplines to write books for students effectively underwriting the expenditure of producing the books.

Capacity Building for Management

The challenge of building greater capacity for educational management at all levels of government, especially state governments, and at the school level is very real. Concerted efforts must be aimed at meeting the training needs of those managing human and material resources at state, LGA and school levels. There are particular concerns about the capacity of school and educational managers to manage the human resources under their authority. There are doubts that such managers are given any form of training

before or on appointment into such headship positions. The physical facilities of NIEPA have been rehabilitated and additional staff recruited in order to enhance NIEPA's capacity to train planners and managers for the system.

Disadvantaged Groups

The challenge of reducing gender inequities in education is also a big issue. The Baseline data records a consistent percentage increase in female gross enrolment ratios from 25% in 2000, 26% in 2001 to 27% in 2002 for the 15-17 age groups. For the 12-14 age group, the figure rose from 25% in 2000 to 27% in 2002. Regional disparities persist – in boys' drop out, street children, *almajirai*, special needs children and other under served groups. There is a need to target all children for UBE and the achievement of EFA. Issues or problems that are specific to individual states must be tackled to achieve this purpose.

Increasing female participation in schools remains a challenge to which the education sector must respond as gender disparities still exist in favour of boys. This is especially the case in the North. The advantages of educating girls and adult women have been emphasised in various fora. Government must therefore take the lead in mobilising efforts to get more girls into school and adopt regionally specific strategies for achieving this objective.

Education and the World of Work

The policy on education assumes that children will remain in school until they are 15 years of age. At present, however, many children leave school long before this time. This situation underlines the need to prepare suitable non-formal alternatives for young school leavers. Entrepreneurial skills should be developed throughout the education levels from primary to tertiary to enable school leavers and graduates to acquire skills that can promote self-reliance and independence.

The apparent lack of coherence between the labour market and graduate output is not desirable. Graduate production must be better aligned with the world of work in order to reduce the imbalance evident at present. This requires cooperation between educational institutions and employers in identifying the labour requirements to be met and assessing how graduates already on the job are performing. In this way, graduate production would be more closely geared to labour market needs with a good balance between demand and supply. An ESA study targets this linkage and proposes to work with employers in carrying out the study.

Conclusion

This final chapter has attempted to document major achievements and challenges in specific sub-sectors of education. An analysis of these achievements and critical challenges shows that most of the activities are long-term, the impact of which can only be felt in a few more years. Many policy reviews and enabling laws are necessary to lay a strong foundation for education in future. It is hoped that this Education Sector Status Report will contribute in this regard.

ANNEX I

PROJECTED GROWTH OF SCHOOL-AGE POPULATIONS

The table below shows projected populations, in Nigeria as a whole, for the intended age-groups of the various levels of formal education. These rounded numbers are based on the ones published in the final report of the 1991 Population Census (National Population Commission, 1998). In that report, the assumptions on which the projections are based are fully explained.

Similar projections can be made at the level of states and LGAs and are an essential resource for educational planning. State-level projections of this kind for the years 2000-2002 have been provided for this report by the National Population Commission and are used in Annex III.

Projected school-age populations, by sub-sector, for all Nigeria:

(Numbers are given in millions, rounded to the nearest 100,000.)

Age group (level)	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	Annual growth rate 1995- 2015
3-5 (pre-primary)	9.7	11.1	12.9	14.6	16.4	2.8%
6-11 (primary)	16.1	19.0	22.2	25.5	28.9	3.1%
12-14 (jr. sec.)	9.1	10.6	12.4	14.6	16.8	3.3%
15-17 (sr. sec.)	6.6	7.1	8.6	10.0	11.7	3.0%
18-25 (tertiary)	15.0	17.0	18.8	22.1	26.0	2.9%

Source: National Population Commission (1998).

NATIONAL SUMMARY OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS STATISTICS
FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA

ANNEX II

(A) 1999

1999

STATE	TOT SCH.	TOTAL MALE PRY1	TOTAL FEML PRY 1	TOTAL MALE PRY 2	TOTAL FEML PRY 2	TOTAL MALE PRY 3	TOTAL FEML PRY 3	TOTAL MALE PRY 4	TOTAL FEML PRY 4	TOTAL MALE PRY 5	TOTAL FEML PRY 5	TOTAL MALE PRY 6	TOTAL FEML PRY 6	TOTAL MALE ENROL	TOTAL FEML ENROL	M+F ENROL	TOTAL MALE TEACH	TOTAL FEML TEACH	TOTAL M+F TEACH
ABIA	1063	60810	62054	59725	58698	57076	57128	56206	56326	53522	53418	49615	52660	336954	340284	677238	2414	8552	10966
ADAMAWA	1261	64789	44054	53866	37205	50128	34218	44404	30713	40340	27948	34995	23666	288522	197804	486326	7572	3173	10745
AKWA IBOM	924	64322	66870	53736	55313	50186	51362	46560	46940	42972	43160	37532	38468	295308	302113	597421	4529	7133	11662
ANAMBRA	1039	28151	28371	25082	26003	26264	26437	26200	26368	25368	26284	23988	25473	155053	158936	313989	1498	12297	13795
BAUCHI	1748	85583	53576	75911	48713	69139	43876	62221	40020	54368	35251	50489	32267	397711	253703	651414	7698	1949	9647
BAYELSA	536	43842	40205	36857	34276	31760	29469	27668	25508	22848	20917	17061	15647	180036	166022	346058	2286	1309	3595
BENUE	1822	69737	59602	57358	47411	52540	43357	46250	38796	41150	33463	40307	26845	307342	249474	556816	8458	4718	13176
BORNO	1258	67341	43332	61722	41142	58953	39296	53531	36531	50223	33317	49124	31884	340894	225502	566396	7317	2862	10179
C/ RIVER	980	39332	37578	33790	33343	32111	31516	30946	29763	27568	27082	25291	24909	189038	184191	373229	5793	6533	12326
DELTA	1632	52692	50966	50236	49038	48933	47561	48168	46168	47765	46210	44593	41944	292387	281887	574274	7833	13670	21503
EBONYI	763	36786	36014	31242	30910	28089	27266	25109	24846	23899	23537	21618	20665	166743	163238	329981	5140	3977	9117
EDO	1038	59080	57545	55260	54639	54843	55266	53646	53674	53229	53245	51141	50232	327199	324601	651800	3078	7218	10296
EKITI	776	39213	42619	29482	32145	25990	32150	23559	26198	22457	24763	20844	22996	161545	180871	342416	2540	5381	7921
ENUGU	1126	27413	25581	24687	23150	24567	23157	24140	24428	23505	22527	21831	20816	146143	139659	285802	4514	7770	12284
GOMBE	956	76645	52842	62782	44236	55342	36997	48484	32312	44672	28723	39392	25374	327317	220484	547801	4403	2253	6656
IMO	1619	49174	47145	43710	42824	42951	42091	42975	41743	44913	41880	42283	40271	266006	255954	521960	2886	9774	12660
JIGAWA	1971	59674	33034	56864	31634	53767	29673	52616	28771	49291	26629	47966	24961	320178	174702	494880	8747	648	9395
KADUNA	2495	69442	47154	55000	38772	47771	33136	41723	28555	36241	25812	33301	24243	283478	197672	481150	5281	3854	9135
KANO	1889	145795	100639	127285	86960	116796	81100	110630	74565	106577	69916	99545	63196	706628	476376	1183004	16118	3027	19145
KATSINA	1170	88691	44076	80577	38799	69491	34465	63149	31190	65905	28754	49357	25232	417170	202516	619686	9701	2920	12621
KEBBI	1590	31868	15945	28754	13953	24974	12552	22685	11195	19790	9951	17274	8464	145345	72060	217405	5089	1675	6764
KOGI	1237	59810	53604	52753	48701	49873	45281	45878	42695	42746	39833	39266	36678	290326	266792	557118	6472	6539	13011
KWARA	1090	33277	27837	29446	24317	27573	23170	26585	22734	24829	21959	22918	19752	164628	139769	304397	4941	5925	10866
LAGOS	1194	36406	36587	38854	40113	43530	44393	45070	47143	46517	48370	45527	48274	255904	264880	520784	4076	13513	17589
NASARAWA	2100	45761	29751	40782	25831	36008	22984	32507	20481	29136	17932	23873	14919	208067	131898	339965	8116	3316	11432
NIGER	1676	56765	30913	46955	25140	39269	21900	32859	18659	31347	17071	26090	14342	233285	128025	361310	8835	5085	13920
OGUN	1258	48500	45106	41801	39025	39752	38494	38347	35955	35152	33637	30641	29306	234193	221523	455716	6074	11455	17529
ONDO	1438	49755	50508	42015	42905	39580	40918	37745	37988	35352	36206	33288	33469	237735	241994	479729	4526	7482	12008
OSUN	2389	45025	45579	38335	39504	36372	37157	35413	35803	33757	34180	31466	32011	220368	224234	444602	5802	10020	15822
OYO	1672	75208	74798	70994	69581	67378	65478	66488	64915	62023	60942	57084	55716	399175	391430	790605	9146	19300	28446
PLATEAU	953	58639	50843	50528	43774	44935	38950	39655	36483	35628	30800	28680	25021	258065	225871	483936	9579	6364	15943
RIVERS	1893	42100	42033	32991	32266	29318	29644	28737	28626	27910	27864	25761	25082	186817	185515	372332	4423	4462	8885
SOKOTO	1279	86813	28778	75734	23539	62935	19608	52002	16341	45477	14547	40574	12248	363535	115061	478596	8288	1313	9601
TARABA	883	72608	45447	60917	38397	53734	42429	46892	30127	40369	25610	32262	19742	306782	201752	508534	6595	1831	8426
YOBE	925	67069	39165	65582	37538	65021	35490	59594	33035	55575	30565	50525	28210	363366	204003	567369	4275	1290	5565
ZAMFARA	474	42753	14900	39916	13442	39281	12303	30425	10332	27351	8916	23334	7285	203060	67178	270238	4837	473	5310
FT ABUJA	1209	15297	13276	15251	12843	14249	12484	13412	11910	12333	11003	11589	9086	82131	70602	152733	2066	2089	4155
TOTAL	49326	2096166	1618327	1846780	1426080	1710479	1342756	1582479	1247837	1482105	1162222	1340425	1051354	10058434	7848576	17907010	220946	211150	432096

Source: Baseline 2001

NATIONAL SUMMARY OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS STATISTICS
FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA
2000

STATES	TOT SCH.	TOTAL MALE PRY 1	TOTAL FEML PRY 1	TOTAL MALE PRY 2	TOTAL FEML PRY 2	TOTAL MALE PRY 3	TOTAL FEML PRY 3	TOTAL MALE PRY 4	TOTAL FEML PRY 4	TOTAL MALE PRY 5	TOTAL FEML PRY 5	TOTAL MALE PRY 6	TOTAL FEML PRY 6	TOTAL MALE ENROL	TOTAL FEML ENROL	M+F ENROL	TOTAL MALE TEACH	TOTAL FEML TEACH	TOTAL M+F TEACH
ABIA	1063	58584	59678	57650	55779	54947	55802	54655	53718	51052	53669	48107	49832	324995	328478	653473	2483	8848	11331
ADAMAWA	1261	68213	48131	57692	40721	52001	35877	45924	32539	42070	29139	36038	24638	301938	211045	512983	7782	3347	11129
AKWA IBOM	924	71421	73707	58071	60834	55176	56922	50278	52217	45832	47073	39438	40657	320216	331410	651626	4514	7328	11842
ANAMBRA	1039	30902	31549	26876	28269	27745	28688	28480	28899	26510	27933	26721	26176	167234	171514	338748	1568	12256	13824
BAUCHI	1748	108523	67567	94222	59467	78221	49942	72909	46334	65537	41720	57010	36289	476422	301319	777741	7815	1939	9754
BAYELSA	536	48828	45141	41008	39000	35667	33906	32062	29481	25709	23723	18858	17664	202132	188915	391047	2453	1497	3950
BENUE	1822	75447	63362	60193	51348	54683	45934	49212	40835	43496	35602	35876	28364	318907	265445	584352	8584	4950	13534
BORNO	1258	62765	42620	56048	39100	52230	35958	49100	34844	44404	31912	42829	29945	307376	214379	521755	7306	3084	10390
C/ RIVER	980	42131	42414	37871	36613	37535	35771	34266	33103	32076	30677	28215	27831	212094	206409	418503	6228	7141	13369
DELTA	1632	56690	54089	51843	49865	50404	48404	50128	47261	49080	46510	44752	40957	302897	287086	589983	7641	13571	21212
EBONYI	763	41122	40265	34148	34042	31494	29769	28188	27509	25876	24321	22707	22031	183535	177937	361472	5445	4284	9729
EDO	1038	68329	67141	61879	60743	60621	60025	59857	59327	59100	57299	53052	51113	362838	355648	718486	3063	7122	10185
EKITI	776	44051	48437	32972	43789	29026	31971	26064	29017	24567	27447	22392	25226	179072	205887	384959	2774	5660	8434
ENUGU	1126	26379	25554	24091	24065	23826	22602	23417	22211	22988	22075	21436	20223	142137	136730	278867	4428	7784	12212
GOMBE	956	87963	61922	72334	51721	64197	46940	55472	39883	48961	34357	44955	30819	373882	265642	639524	4752	2587	7339
IMO	1209	57795	57111	52278	50457	49789	48371	49399	48110	49942	48064	48553	46601	307756	298714	606470	2898	10116	13014
JIGAWA	1619	60634	33196	56312	31086	51824	29263	50551	27823	48608	28037	46078	24618	314007	174023	488030	9326	721	10047
KADUNA	1971	79149	53845	61548	43738	50385	35403	42796	31361	38075	27600	34235	24286	306188	216233	522421	6221	4856	11077
KANO	2495	169328	106501	141525	96652	128879	85962	124457	78607	110533	71192	104394	65070	779116	503984	1283100	16456	3214	19670
KATSINA	1889	94740	49839	82455	41739	71329	36118	65732	33031	56692	29210	50914	26644	421862	216581	638443	9891	3146	13037
KEBBI	1170	34034	17706	31899	15894	27249	13583	24359	12203	22463	11316	18803	9347	158807	80049	238856	5396	1750	7146
KOGI	1590	69166	65170	58890	54647	55724	51017	50196	47636	46699	45115	42422	39972	323097	303557	626654	6476	6813	13289
KWARA	1237	34656	28303	30729	25319	28876	23945	27008	24054	25436	22516	23282	20258	169987	144395	314382	4971	6064	11035
LAGOS	1090	33304	34346	37199	38098	40888	42120	44051	45751	45078	46983	45143	47632	245663	254930	500593	4169	13599	17768
NASARAWA	1194	50783	33057	43614	27558	39386	24484	35126	22906	30736	19347	24319	15633	223964	142985	366949	7989	3637	11626
NIGER	2100	63825	33578	52438	28655	42872	23065	35859	20262	31333	17351	25203	14253	251530	137164	388694	8612	5200	13812
OGUN	1676	50331	45770	41718	39988	39639	37761	37967	35950	35235	33712	30585	28781	235475	221962	457437	6328	11871	18199
ONDO	1258	54678	55128	47001	48660	43537	46080	41235	41804	39053	39664	34744	34864	260248	266200	526448	4766	7807	12573
OSUN	1438	46006	47372	40003	41129	37576	38910	36077	36820	34416	34987	32074	32102	226152	231320	457472	5727	9732	15459
OYO	2389	77487	77163	71383	71563	68616	68791	66766	67011	62463	62576	57759	58318	404474	405422	809896	9608	19980	29588
PLATEAU	1672	64035	57108	52440	47700	47812	42058	41510	36637	35461	31289	29176	24906	270434	239698	510132	9923	6551	16474
RIVERS	953	49646	51562	36299	36998	31979	32736	31278	31610	31150	30785	26182	27468	206534	211159	417693	4316	4237	8553
SOKOTO	1893	109764	34555	87411	26848	72151	22661	65041	19403	52892	16385	45514	14039	432773	133891	566664	8506	1464	9970
TARABA	1279	71075	46513	62162	40653	53931	34641	46356	30406	40809	26018	31778	19741	306111	197972	504083	7244	2263	9507
YOBE	883	84380	48270	74115	41958	73525	39023	69287	36246	64320	34193	59521	32955	425148	232645	657793	4879	1530	6409
ZAMFARA	925	44468	17034	42475	15251	37949	13011	34188	11391	28896	9428	24410	7794	212386	73909	286295	4629	534	5163
FCT ABUJA	474	16830	14908	16176	14072	16799	13941	14679	14682	13123	12057	10134	9014	87741	78674	166415	2282	2473	4755
TOTAL	49326	2307462	1779612	1986968	1554019	1818488	1421455	1693930	1330882	1550671	1231282	1387609	1096061	10745128	8413311	19158439	227449	218956	446405

Source: Baseline 2001

**NATIONAL SUMMARY OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS STATISTICS
FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA**

ANNEX II
(C) 2001

2001

STATES	TOT SCH.	TOTAL MALE PRY1	TOTAL FEML PRY 1	TOTAL MALE PRY 2	TOTAL FEML PRY 2	TOTAL MALE PRY 3	TOTAL FEML PRY 3	TOTAL MALE PRY 4	TOTAL FEML PRY 4	TOTAL MALE PRY 5	TOTAL FEML PRY 5	TOTAL MALE PRY 6	TOTAL FEML PRY 6	TOTAL MALE ENROL	TOTAL FEML ENROL	TOTAL M+F ENROL	TOTAL MALE TEACH	TOTAL FEML TEACH	TOTAL TEACHERS
ABIA	1063	65538	66812	65201	65106	62346	62930	61170	59920	56166	58764	52021	55637	362442	369169	731611	2464	9959	12423
ADAMAWA	1262	57111	41851	51241	36761	46190	32377	41052	29290	36280	26262	31804	21484	263678	188025	451703	8352	3653	12005
AKWA IBOM	924	93732	97074	67738	70384	56308	59299	52501	53962	46295	47751	40873	41929	357447	370399	727846	4811	8295	13106
ANAMBRA	1039	32524	32590	26426	27879	26196	27797	26294	27630	25706	27153	22087	24501	159233	167550	326783	1505	12462	13967
BAUCHI	1746	170929	102940	112172	72023	89768	58022	77032	49582	69235	44994	62032	40845	581168	368406	949574	10933	2533	13466
BAYELSA	536	50367	44782	38132	38351	33390	32559	29251	28391	25060	24083	18470	17874	194670	186040	380710	2719	1866	4585
BENUE	1825	86489	75046	57173	48564	49054	41017	44741	36743	40425	32918	33592	25903	311474	260191	571665	8804	5044	13848
BORNO	1258	66799	42226	51292	34295	45702	32138	43258	30848	40450	28627	40076	26048	287577	194182	481759	7942	3139	11081
C/ RIVER	961	42549	42628	36974	36921	36274	35566	33435	32956	30037	30026	26167	25686	205436	203783	409219	7206	8585	15791
DELTA	1631	53952	52650	49133	48764	47719	47055	47165	45566	45875	43670	40937	39090	284781	276795	561576	7746	14399	22145
EBONYI	764	43419	43149	34941	35226	30877	30783	27468	27488	24535	23878	21812	21731	183052	182255	365307	5975	5304	11279
EDO	1039	68641	66779	65016	61709	61693	60755	60595	60399	60199	59902	53139	51897	369283	361441	730724	3035	7666	10701
EKITI	777	53543	59145	41424	45245	35219	39511	32296	35593	30285	33179	27470	30016	220237	242689	462926	2752	6059	8811
ENUGU	1125	22071	21267	20155	19537	20136	19163	19912	19122	18731	18784	17453	17660	118458	115533	233991	4405	7756	12161
GOMBE	957	122256	86062	88687	61599	69530	49688	61261	42643	50066	37608	45758	31500	437558	309100	746658	6124	3314	9438
IMO	1209	59185	58145	52037	51121	50389	49033	49848	47842	48861	47434	47664	46399	307984	299974	607958	2888	11009	13897
JIGAWA	1619	60358	33523	53803	29228	48893	27584	46634	25729	44183	24087	42738	22508	296609	162659	459268	10414	872	11286
KADUNA	1958	115096	83274	77344	56763	56839	39672	45530	32538	38741	27672	33655	24896	367205	264815	632020	7590	6430	14020
KANO	2495	168105	104230	140616	89458	120239	77865	109037	71462	100978	62860	90814	55290	729789	461165	1190954	17880	3832	21712
KATSINA	1903	104707	55958	83921	43122	71022	36048	64138	31549	57023	28128	49549	25115	430360	219920	650280	11146	3460	14606
KEBBI	1170	39501	20160	31592	15992	25652	13368	22949	12014	21418	10950	18171	9359	159283	81843	241126	6680	1944	8624
KOGI	1589	75507	70844	60353	57001	53392	51105	49865	48590	45816	44222	40706	39178	325639	310940	636579	6868	7228	14096
KWARA	1236	33272	26943	27247	23440	25793	21741	24450	20911	22583	19877	20813	18687	154158	131599	285757	5315	6803	12118
LAGOS	1090	25785	26251	28734	29955	32388	33926	35504	37301	37376	38856	37124	39242	196911	205531	402442	4170	13870	18040
NASARAWA	1194	48172	31625	40784	27903	35412	23606	31074	20399	27471	18089	22463	14031	205376	135653	341029	8456	3929	12385
NIGER	2101	67495	37486	50854	27828	38847	21165	32190	18367	28643	16509	23004	13755	241033	135110	376143	9854	5885	15739
OGUN	1675	41542	39721	35846	33955	33389	31983	31806	30757	29042	28367	27061	24063	198686	188846	387532	6286	12873	19159
ONDO	1258	53999	55392	46527	48085	43254	44555	41276	41928	38073	39590	34187	34477	257316	264027	521343	5122	8671	13793
OSUN	1435	41664	42009	34643	35729	32485	33937	31401	31967	29834	30967	27298	27493	197325	202102	399427	5656	10239	15895
OYO	2390	66815	67499	62197	62663	60750	59633	58116	58024	53991	54527	48922	49490	350791	351836	702627	9921	20877	30798
PLATEAU	1672	68835	60457	56178	50011	48581	43583	42634	37501	36737	32400	29402	25238	282367	249190	531557	10471	7055	17526
RIVERS	953	66085	66059	38634	39015	32882	33462	31783	32684	30614	31411	27143	27662	227141	230293	457434	4126	4195	8321
SOKOTO	1893	108794	46031	92068	29712	74118	24324	63261	19290	53628	16912	46096	13947	437965	150216	588181	9779	1564	11343
TARABA	1279	73850	48188	67882	45812	57934	38296	50307	32484	42696	27275	35006	22726	327675	214781	542456	7708	2430	10138
YOBE	882	86990	52736	78550	45058	71628	39400	68623	38424	237243	35694	60450	33149	603484	244461	847945	5831	1832	7663
ZAMFARA	925	45366	18058	39533	15264	38636	13101	33269	11512	30135	10186	25516	7579	212455	75700	288155	5019	593	5612
FCT ABUJA	473	21003	18225	15642	13750	13930	12700	13867	12289	12187	11034	9640	8645	86269	76643	162912	2746	2979	5725
TOTAL	49306	2502046	1937815	2020690	1573229	1776855	1398747	1634993	1293695	1666618	1194646	1331113	1054730	10932315	8452862	19385177	248699	238604	487303

Source: Baseline 2001

**NATIONAL SUMMARY OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS STATISTICS
FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA**

**ANNEX II
(D) 2002**

2002

STATES	TOT SCH.	TOTAL MALE PRY1	TOTAL FEML PRY 1	TOTAL MALE PRY 2	TOTAL FEML PRY 2	TOTAL MALE PRY 3	TOTAL FEML PRY 3	TOTAL MALE PRY 4	TOTAL FEML PRY 4	TOTAL MALE PRY 5	TOTAL FEML PRY 5	TOTAL MALE PRY 6	TOTAL FEML PRY 6	TOTAL MALE ENROL	TOTAL FEML ENROL	TOTAL M+F ENROL	TOTAL MALE TEACH	TOTAL FEML TEACH	TOTAL TEACHERS	PTR
ABIA	1099	58408	59264	59788	58933	57661	57584	56051	55370	52131	55407	49428	51570	333467	338128	671595	2384	9768	12152	55.27
ADAMAWA	2	137	93	95	61	31	68	81	32	52	30	38	37	434	321	755	14	1	15	50.33
AKWA IBOM	1231	149331	157433	89735	91251	74073	76416	66829	70087	61945	63890	54542	56067	496455	515144	1011599	6196	11901	18097	55.90
ANAMBRA	924	43623	44377	32443	33522	31937	33157	31020	32413	30757	31967	28265	29466	198045	204902	402947	1174	11181	12355	32.61
BAUCHI	1760	108055	86629	94650	58790	58120	38593	52138	34549	46719	29231	40053	26624	399735	254416	654151	10143	2320	12463	52.49
BAYELSA	581	32108	31522	27857	28727	24240	23794	21179	20726	18103	17680	13231	13150	136718	135599	272317	2903	1943	4846	56.19
BENUE	2231	96606	85431	80720	68653	60092	50528	52268	44240	46592	38693	37483	28937	373761	316482	690243	10709	5636	16345	42.23
BORNO	1426	77364	48456	62628	43729	53862	37975	51483	37184	47894	33734	47482	31136	340713	232214	572927	8848	3905	12753	44.92
C/ RIVER	1056	49127	47994	46344	45598	43478	42213	39113	38107	36413	35587	31602	30810	246077	240317	486394	7495	8274	15769	30.84
DELTA	1605	58378	57140	57661	57997	55127	55463	53167	52574	51898	50909	46349	45663	322580	319746	642326	6980	13398	20378	31.52
EBONYI	716	38837	38816	33818	35637	29802	30587	25952	26184	23852	23747	20271	19526	172332	174497	346829	5058	4513	9571	36.24
EDO	1029	42217	41054	40109	39548	39529	39210	38383	38245	38094	37420	36176	35325	234508	230802	465310	2832	6925	9757	47.69
EKITI	826	51271	58047	41030	45356	35292	39264	31906	35644	29588	32960	26576	30257	215663	241528	457191	2987	6670	9657	47.34
ENUGU	1213	27264	25930	28312	25291	26114	25020	25223	24123	23645	23075	21291	21316	151849	144755	296604	4263	7823	12086	24.54
GOMBE	903	81817	54146	59570	41411	46065	31727	40958	26800	32797	23714	30230	20813	291437	198611	490048	5263	2759	8022	61.09
IMO	1191	55342	53838	50481	49116	49267	47726	47076	46750	54588	44999	45573	44197	302327	286626	588953	2811	11643	14454	40.75
JIGAWA	1575	55263	31060	51799	29976	45336	25770	44037	24413	41698	22629	39808	21850	277941	155698	433639	10307	905	11212	38.68
KADUNA	3070	222028	108478	127033	94727	80521	58206	67368	49376	56541	41440	47950	36483	601441	388710	990151	12127	9373	21500	46.05
KANO	2670	186296	124473	140802	94917	121263	81028	103739	70618	98647	62711	86760	58049	737507	491794	1229301	19444	4070	23514	52.28
KATSINA	1935	104255	55519	84640	43853	70336	35417	61977	31126	53221	26446	45513	22947	419942	215308	635250	11242	3194	14436	44.00
KEBBI	1191	44507	23783	36999	18532	28799	15490	26516	13804	24792	13614	19399	10721	181012	95944	276956	6992	1812	8804	31.46
KOGI	1416	77272	69880	70497	63431	59198	52979	54113	49577	48777	44883	44953	40560	354810	321310	676120	5905	5982	11887	56.88
KWARA	1333	40564	32455	35695	29139	32397	27208	30440	26223	28251	24704	27783	22252	195130	161981	357111	6184	8228	14412	24.78
LAGOS	1219	34020	35056	37844	39335	43298	44868	47885	51887	50381	52641	51194	49929	264622	273696	538318	4401	15986	20387	26.40
NASARAWA	1089	45856	31711	40557	27682	35695	24010	30528	20842	27825	18856	22460	14068	202921	136969	339890	7640	3632	11272	30.15
NIGER	2087	77067	43402	62010	34800	42923	25267	35471	20504	31133	17986	25935	15030	274539	156989	431528	11167	6305	17472	24.70
OGUN	1638	49722	47689	39951	36718	37631	36996	35891	34839	32563	32967	28246	26699	224004	217908	441912	6174	12868	19042	23.21
ONDO	1263	53096	54809	48632	50678	44838	47181	42211	43755	40209	41337	36022	36665	265008	274425	539433	5270	9551	14821	36.40
OSUN	1592	51323	51792	44099	44402	41515	41139	39404	39911	37227	37830	44250	36692	257818	251766	509584	5718	10608	16326	31.21
OYO	2341	71005	70853	69134	66715	66307	65976	63864	63975	62318	60509	55789	55958	388417	385986	774403	9280	19786	29066	26.64
PLATEAU	1743	72212	64196	68180	59541	55450	49548	48343	42497	41739	37594	34574	30246	320498	283622	604120	10711	7215	17926	33.70
RIVERS	1064	86293	88526	44335	45041	34886	35380	33555	34016	32214	33798	29242	29603	260525	266364	526889	4519	5083	9602	54.87
SOKOTO	2309	130537	49350	109793	40654	90469	27694	71719	21767	62471	18499	52377	15796	517366	173760	691126	10737	1817	12554	55.05
TARABA	1045	64274	38597	57947	37164	55340	36047	45208	29279	37423	25062	30043	18768	290235	184917	475152	7528	2485	10013	47.45
YOBE	865	48478	29695	44633	26154	39263	22786	37238	21694	35688	20409	33653	19632	238953	140370	379323	5616	1714	7330	51.75
ZAMFARA	831	39506	15672	34108	13827	32201	11747	27518	10041	25457	9123	22192	7655	180982	68065	249047	5214	668	5882	42.34
FCT ABUJA	449	23158	18919	20023	17910	16913	15092	18109	13978	14288	12879	12651	11297	103142	90075	193217	2676	2897	5573	34.67
TOTAL	50518	2546617	1956085	2073952	1642814	1759069	1409152	1595961	1296830	1477931	1198970	1319384	1065794	10772914	8569745	19342659	248912	242839	491751	39.33

NOTE: There is no information in respect of some schools that were in existence in 2001. Adamawa 1260; Anambra 105; Kogi 173; Nasarawa 106; Niger 463; Taraba 234; Delta 26; Ebonyi 48; Gombe 54; Ogun 37; Oyo 49; Edo 10; Imo 18; and Jigawa 44. Zamfara 94

Source: Baseline 2001

ANNEX III (A)									
PRIMARY EDUCATION: ENROLMENTS, POPULATION PROJECTIONS									
AND GROSS ENROLMENT RATIOS, 2000									
State	2000 Enrolment			2000 Population			2000 GER		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Abia	324,995	328,478	653,473	216,219	211,301	427,520	150.3%	155.5%	152.9%
Adamawa	301,938	211,045	512,983	264,702	254,269	518,971	114.1%	83.0%	98.8%
Akwa Ibom	320,216	331,410	651,626	283,435	283,914	567,349	113.0%	116.7%	114.9%
Anambra	167,234	171,514	338,748	298,208	295,089	593,297	56.1%	58.1%	57.1%
Bauchi	476,422	301,319	777,741	352,687	335,611	688,298	135.1%	89.8%	113.0%
Bayelsa	202,132	188,915	391,047	122,882	110,807	233,689	164.5%	170.5%	167.3%
Benue	318,907	265,445	584,352	296,483	287,533	584,016	107.6%	92.3%	100.1%
Borno	307,376	214,379	521,755	282,922	267,916	550,838	108.6%	80.0%	94.7%
Cross River	212,094	206,409	418,503	222,959	216,030	438,989	95.1%	95.5%	95.3%
Delta	302,897	287,086	589,983	285,651	284,295	569,946	106.0%	101.0%	103.5%
Ebonyi	183,535	177,937	361,472	166,328	170,807	337,135	110.3%	104.2%	107.2%
Edo	362,838	355,648	718,486	252,034	246,176	498,210	144.0%	144.5%	144.2%
Ekiti	179,072	205,887	384,959	164,812	156,372	321,184	108.7%	131.7%	119.9%
Enugu	142,137	136,730	278,867	231,758	255,956	487,714	61.3%	53.4%	57.2%
FCT	87,741	78,674	166,415	47,465	41,169	88,634	184.9%	191.1%	187.8%
Gombe	373,882	265,642	639,524	183,160	175,108	358,268	204.1%	151.7%	178.5%
Imo	307,756	298,714	606,470	270,898	279,961	550,859	113.6%	106.7%	110.1%
Jigawa	314,007	174,023	488,030	340,266	318,533	658,799	92.3%	54.6%	74.1%
Kaduna	306,188	216,233	522,421	479,079	451,094	930,173	63.9%	47.9%	56.2%
Kano	779,116	503,984	1,283,100	699,525	665,579	1,365,104	111.4%	75.7%	94.0%
Katsina	421,862	216,581	638,443	451,120	442,439	893,559	93.5%	49.0%	71.4%
Kebbi	158,807	80,049	238,856	256,555	242,740	499,295	61.9%	33.0%	47.8%
Kogi	323,097	303,557	626,654	248,261	250,773	499,034	130.1%	121.0%	125.6%
Kwara	169,987	144,395	314,382	180,575	177,468	358,043	94.1%	81.4%	87.8%
Lagos	245,663	254,930	500,593	658,176	605,638	1,263,814	37.3%	42.1%	39.6%
Nasarawa	223,964	142,985	366,949	143,746	139,397	283,143	155.8%	102.6%	129.6%
Niger	251,530	137,164	388,694	305,874	284,217	590,091	82.2%	48.3%	65.9%
Ogun	235,475	221,962	457,437	228,311	236,331	464,642	103.1%	93.9%	98.4%
Ondo	260,248	266,200	526,448	242,019	227,394	469,413	107.5%	117.1%	112.2%
Osun	226,152	231,320	457,472	229,185	231,237	460,422	98.7%	100.0%	99.4%
Oyo	404,474	405,422	809,896	364,804	360,243	725,047	110.9%	112.5%	111.7%
Plateau	270,434	239,698	510,132	250,888	241,885	492,773	107.8%	99.1%	103.5%
Rivers	206,534	211,159	417,693	348,680	315,719	664,399	59.2%	66.9%	62.9%
Sokoto	432,773	133,891	566,664	262,680	254,051	516,731	164.8%	52.7%	109.7%
Taraba	306,111	197,972	504,083	181,429	175,574	357,003	168.7%	112.8%	141.2%
Yobe	425,148	232,645	657,793	165,950	155,575	321,525	256.2%	149.5%	204.6%
Zamfara	212,386	73,909	286,295	226,525	222,586	449,111	93.8%	33.2%	63.7%
Total	10,745,128	8,413,311	19,158,439	10,206,251	9,870,787	20,077,038	105.3%	85.2%	95.4%

Sources: FME Baseline Survey, and National Population Commission projections.

ANNEX III (B)									
PRIMARY EDUCATION: ENROLMENTS, POPULATION PROJECTIONS									
AND GROSS ENROLMENT RATIOS, 2001									
State	2001 Enrolment			2001 Population			2001 GER		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Abia	362,169	369,169	731,338	236,118	231,739	467,857	153.4%	159.3%	156.3%
Adamawa	263,678	188,025	451,703	280,320	268,816	549,136	94.1%	69.9%	82.3%
Akwa Ibom	357,447	370,399	727,846	298,115	295,822	593,937	119.9%	125.2%	122.5%
Anambra	159,233	167,550	326,783	304,883	298,160	603,043	52.2%	56.2%	54.2%
Bauchi	581,168	368,406	949,574	366,971	349,573	716,544	158.4%	105.4%	132.5%
Bayelsa	194,670	186,040	380,710	126,127	113,755	239,882	154.3%	163.5%	158.7%
Benue	311,474	260,191	571,665	303,305	292,517	595,822	102.7%	88.9%	95.9%
Borno	287,577	194,182	481,759	287,049	269,989	557,038	100.2%	71.9%	86.5%
Cross River	205,436	203,783	409,219	231,525	224,892	456,417	88.7%	90.6%	89.7%
Delta	284,781	276,795	561,576	299,387	295,751	595,138	95.1%	93.6%	94.4%
Ebonyi	183,052	182,255	365,307	180,158	184,836	364,994	101.6%	98.6%	100.1%
Edo	369,283	361,441	730,724	266,993	259,830	526,823	138.3%	139.1%	138.7%
Ekiti	220,237	242,689	462,926	168,316	163,681	331,997	130.8%	148.3%	139.4%
Enugu	118,458	115,533	233,991	237,763	262,447	500,210	49.8%	44.0%	46.8%
FCT	86,269	76,643	162,912	50,331	44,270	94,601	171.4%	173.1%	172.2%
Gombe	437,558	309,100	746,658	190,814	182,408	373,222	229.3%	169.5%	200.1%
Imo	307,984	299,974	607,958	286,225	291,005	577,230	107.6%	103.1%	105.3%
Jigawa	296,609	162,659	459,268	348,302	325,873	674,175	85.2%	49.9%	68.1%
Kaduna	367,205	264,815	632,020	505,104	478,562	983,666	72.7%	55.3%	64.3%
Kano	729,789	461,165	1,190,954	728,259	695,080	1,423,339	100.2%	66.3%	83.7%
Katsina	430,360	219,920	650,280	470,656	460,004	930,660	91.4%	47.8%	69.9%
Kebbi	159,283	81,843	241,126	267,842	254,924	522,766	59.5%	32.1%	46.1%
Kogi	325,639	310,940	636,579	262,846	263,595	526,441	123.9%	118.0%	120.9%
Kwara	154,158	131,599	285,757	189,027	185,785	374,812	81.6%	70.8%	76.2%
Lagos	196,911	205,531	402,442	662,663	613,590	1,276,253	29.7%	33.5%	31.5%
Nasarawa	205,376	135,653	341,029	148,358	143,933	292,291	138.4%	94.2%	116.7%
Niger	241,033	135,110	376,143	320,720	299,093	619,813	75.2%	45.2%	60.7%
Ogun	198,686	188,846	387,532	235,878	235,380	471,258	84.2%	80.2%	82.2%
Ondo	257,316	264,027	521,343	246,445	238,004	484,449	104.4%	110.9%	107.6%
Osun	197,325	202,102	399,427	239,213	238,551	477,764	82.5%	84.7%	83.6%
Oyo	350,791	351,836	702,627	366,369	358,932	725,301	95.7%	98.0%	96.9%
Plateau	282,367	249,190	531,557	258,509	249,740	508,249	109.2%	99.8%	104.6%
Rivers	227,141	230,293	457,434	361,780	325,544	687,324	62.8%	70.7%	66.6%
Sokoto	437,965	150,216	588,181	271,150	261,775	532,925	161.5%	57.4%	110.4%
Taraba	327,675	214,781	542,456	188,627	181,948	370,575	173.7%	118.0%	146.4%
Yobe	603,484	244,461	847,945	170,250	159,520	329,770	354.5%	153.2%	257.1%
Zamfara	212,455	75,700	288,155	234,871	229,343	464,214	90.5%	33.0%	62.1%
Total	10,932,042	8,452,862	19,384,904	10,591,269	10,228,667	20,819,936	103.2%	82.6%	93.1%

Sources: FME Baseline Survey, and National Population Commission projections.

ANNEX IV

PRIMARY EDUCATION: COMPARISON OF GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO ESTIMATES FROM DIFFERENT SOURCES

The gross enrolment ratio (GER) estimates are shown as percentages to the nearest whole number. Both the series shown are based on enrolments in private as well as public schools. Separate estimates for each gender are available from the same sources, but not shown here. Since the estimates from the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) of 1999 used the former 30-state structure for ease of comparison with the 1995 MICS findings, new states are grouped below with the former states from which they were detached.

GER Estimates for Primary Education:

STATE	GER for 1999 from MICS*	GER for 2000 from FME and National Population Commission data**
Abia	126 (Former Abia)	153
Ebonyi		107
Enugu	113 (Former Enugu)	57
Adamawa	78	99
Akwa-Ibom	120	115
Anambra	125	57
Bauchi	37 (Bauchi with Gombe)	113
Gombe		179
Benue	117	100
Borno	38	95
Cross River	125	95
Delta	124	104
Edo	127	144
Imo	117	110
Jigawa	30	74
Kaduna	85	56
Kano	28	94
Katsina	22	71
Kebbi	21	49
Kogi	105	126
Kwara	112	89
Lagos	111	40
Niger	54	66
Ogun	107	98
Ondo	114 (Ondo with Ekiti)	112
Ekiti		120
Osun	128	99

STATE (continued)	GER for 1999 from MICS*	GER for 2000 from FME and National Population Commission data**
Oyo	121	118
Plateau	107 (Plateau with Nasarawa)	104
Nasarawa		130
Rivers	124 (Rivers with Bayelsa)	63
Bayelsa		167
Sokoto	11 (Sokoto with Zamfara)	110
Zamfara		64
Taraba	65	141
Yobe	29	205
FCT	103	188
All Nigeria	38	95

*Source: Federal Office of Statistics and UNICEF (1999), pp. 70-71.

**Sources: Enrolment data from the Federal Ministry of Education baseline series; population projections supplied by the National Population Commission and based on the final report of the 1991 Population Census.

Discussion

There is much incompatibility, in some cases extreme, between the two sets of indicators. The comparison indicates that the MICS survey procedures, the FME baseline enrolment compilations, and the population projections used, should all be reviewed critically. As some of the statistics in the second series are abnormally high or low and are grossly at variance with the historic pattern of regional differences, that series in particular cannot be considered very useful for planning purposes.

**NATIONAL SUMMARY OF POST-PRIMARY SCHOOLS STATISTICS
FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA**

**ANNEX V
(A) 1999**

1999

S/N	STATES	TOT. SCH	TOTAL CLASSES	TOTAL MALE JSS 1	TOTAL FEML JSS 1	TOTAL MALE JSS 2	TOTAL FEML JSS 2	TOTAL MALE JSS 3	TOTAL FEML JSS 3	TOTAL MALE SSS 1	TOTAL FEML SSS 1	TOTAL MALE SSS 2	TOTAL FEML SSS 2	TOTAL MALE SSS 3	TOTAL FEML SSS 3	TOTAL MALE ENROL	TOTAL FEML ENROL	TOTAL (M+F) ENROL	TOTAL MALE TEACH	TOTAL FEML TEACH	TOTAL (M+F) TEACH	PTR
1	Abia	174	2901	7879	9691	9657	10891	10118	11533	8303	8972	8096	9467	7708	9251	51761	59805	111566	2463	1788	4251	26.24
2	Adamawa	52	518	3583	1843	3892	1880	3042	1684	2439	1228	2252	873	1596	621	16804	8129	24933	519	106	625	39.89
3	Akwa Ibom	171	2775	9531	11822	7514	9215	7115	9058	6302	7756	5546	6880	6121	6963	42129	51694	93823	1552	935	2487	37.73
4	Anambra	227	3631	13295	16344	12276	16213	10694	14657	9104	18931	7991	15655	6889	12216	60249	94016	154265	1786	3730	5516	27.97
5	Bauchi	90	1083	9305	4015	8742	3669	7176	3203	5448	3164	5851	3111	4471	2383	40993	19545	60538	1218	257	1475	41.04
6	Bayelsa	131	748	3200	2185	3047	2011	3097	1866	2638	1634	2554	1580	3438	2031	17974	11307	29281	830	191	1021	28.68
7	Benue	117	1784	4670	3102	4519	2909	4280	2572	3609	2080	3400	1860	3254	1777	23732	14300	38032	1249	165	1414	26.90
8	Borno	52	650	4148	2096	3738	2104	3460	2131	2684	1696	3072	1642	2625	1606	19727	11275	31002	960	334	1294	23.96
9	Cross River	195	2069	7070	7202	5984	6480	6012	5872	5100	5231	5028	5346	5336	5022	34530	35153	69683	1813	1005	2818	24.73
10	Delta	425	5779	16585	14792	16690	15147	18423	17273	11621	10585	11979	10916	12274	9377	87572	78090	165662	4237	3577	7814	21.20
11	Ebonyi	18	87	561	540	474	300	302	245	183	170	93	100	111	96	1724	1451	3175	162	113	275	11.55
12	Edo	293	4253	17503	14406	16336	14157	15287	13764	15460	16865	14631	12819	13260	11306	92477	83317	175794	2721	2394	5115	34.37
13	Ekiti	73	946	2904	2545	2721	2499	2507	2269	2592	2366	2866	2482	2802	2417	16392	14578	30970	957	442	1399	22.14
14	Enugu	216	4313	10116	11436	9145	11055	9415	11177	7990	10595	7495	9979	9395	11772	53556	66014	119570	2395	2178	4573	26.15
15	Gombe	127	1099	9968	7370	9606	6087	7399	5595	5506	3889	4757	2964	3682	2349	40918	28254	69172	1653	577	2230	31.02
16	Imo	133	2261	6011	7203	6203	7245	6462	8039	5387	7416	5996	8395	7346	8756	37405	48054	85459	1662	1411	3073	27.81
17	Jigawa	55	361	3937	246	3668	213	3790	168	2441	211	2093	218	1940	156	17869	1212	19081	627	27	654	29.18
18	Kaduna	166	1837	9948	6079	9126	5691	8654	5301	6449	3957	6299	3602	5650	3503	46126	28133	74259	2316	705	3021	24.58
19	Kano	286	2642	20548	9251	19800	9125	17886	9048	13153	6747	12998	6498	11293	6227	95678	46896	142574	3613	751	4364	32.67
20	Katsina	123	1100	9484	2001	9074	2005	8396	1825	5894	1354	5671	1397	5185	1309	43704	9891	53595	1685	240	1925	27.84
21	Kebbi	73	3904	12852	3959	11971	3435	10781	3126	7390	2429	6587	2136	5942	1858	55523	16943	72466	1650	307	1957	37.03
22	Kogi	175	2119	8704	6780	8312	6376	8088	6049	7683	5761	6990	5259	6607	4897	46384	35122	81506	2488	870	3358	24.27
23	Kwara	195	2933	7813	5987	8376	6439	7293	5350	8150	5794	7512	5278	8428	6416	47572	35264	82836	2110	1106	3216	25.76
24	Lagos	329	14810	42572	44299	55112	50158	47183	46194	48030	46928	41481	41852	33638	33151	268016	262582	530598	5987	8618	14605	36.33
25	Nassarawa	190	1428	8035	4257	8175	4180	7357	3934	5771	3126	6607	2640	5215	2351	41160	20488	61648	1641	377	2018	30.55
26	Niger	144	3462	12594	6521	11938	6369	9731	5671	9407	4825	8633	4377	7265	3628	59568	31391	90959	2983	950	3933	23.13
27	Ogun	323	9434	19795	18754	18542	17740	16963	16334	17377	16016	15930	14610	15442	14202	104049	97656	201705	3786	3104	6890	29.28
28	Ondo	217	3878	13196	11283	12199	10860	10893	9573	10949	9950	10594	10362	9023	7338	66854	59386	126240	2809	2019	4828	26.15
29	Osun	345	4476	17616	15998	16756	15330	15314	13766	17177	13676	15537	13366	15026	11946	97426	84082	181508	4580	2390	6970	26.04
30	Oyo	399	6768	28264	25155	28578	24587	25803	22137	23544	21092	22519	20154	21266	18742	149974	131867	281841	4989	4268	9257	30.45
31	Plateau	323	2742	15015	11314	13715	11023	12022	9165	10931	7816	9595	6864	8476	5990	69754	52172	121926	3448	1317	4765	25.59
32	Rivers	207	2842	10976	13595	10890	14406	10493	13559	10495	13029	9873	11700	13158	13014	65885	79303	145188	3022	1397	4419	32.86
33	Sokoto	74	855	8119	1910	6593	2039	5676	1471	5214	1739	5034	1666	4286	1309	34922	10134	45056	1172	446	1618	27.85
34	Taraba	54	468	3183	1461	2865	1206	2476	1064	2262	859	1623	626	1467	540	13876	5756	19632	621	88	709	27.69
35	Yobe	18	705	6253	2113	6216	1923	6020	1811	7427	1577	7618	1009	7019	901	40553	9334	49887	982	221	1203	41.47
36	Zamfara	34	458	3742	1969	3980	1757	2956	1461	2681	1177	2370	1126	2118	911	17847	8401	26248	573	140	713	36.81
37	FCT, Abuja	68	1044	5819	4205	5264	4077	4028	2999	4032	3040	3845	2954	2937	2307	25925	19582	45507	1335	1015	2350	19.36
	NATIONAL	6292	102943	394794	313729	391694	310821	356592	290944	320823	273681	301016	251763	281689	229639	2046608	1670577	3717185	78594	49559	128153	29.01

Source: Baseline 2001

NATIONAL SUMMARY OF POST-PRIMARY SCHOOLS STATISTICS
FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA

2000

S/N	STATES	TOT. SCH	TOTAL CLASSES	TOTAL MALE JSS 1	TOTAL FEML. JSS 1	TOTAL MALE JSS 2	TOTAL FEML. JSS 2	TOTAL MALE JSS 3	TOTAL FEML. JSS 3	TOTAL MALE SSS 1	TOTAL FEML. SSS 1	TOTAL MALE SSS 2	TOTAL FEML. SSS 2	TOTAL MALE SSS 3	TOTAL FEML. SSS 3	TOTAL MALE ENROL	TOTAL FEML. ENROL	TOTAL (M+F) ENROL	TOTAL MALE TEACH	TOTAL FEML. TEACH	TOTAL (M+F) TEACH	PTR
1	Abia	174	2760	7664	8710	8211	10448	8892	10257	8084	9769	7486	9347	8420	10095	48757	58626	107383	1478	1828	3306	32.48
2	Adamawa	52	543	3777	2038	3958	1905	3406	1457	2682	1109	2455	988	1997	789	18275	8286	26561	467	120	587	45.25
3	Akwa Ibom	171	2896	9661	12066	7762	9848	7187	8837	6180	7913	5387	6960	6458	7837	42635	53461	96096	2169	1434	3603	26.67
4	Anambra	227	7308	13841	18222	13506	17434	11154	15874	11009	18452	8624	14792	6254	12564	64388	97338	161726	1679	3744	5423	29.82
5	Bauchi	90	1110	8988	4797	8248	4281	7835	3602	6288	3105	5689	3148	5236	2702	42284	21635	63919	1204	295	1499	42.64
6	Bayelsa	131	828	3693	2576	3427	2335	3053	2016	2773	1837	2733	1847	4740	2852	20419	13463	33882	948	278	1226	27.64
7	Benue	117	1823	5974	3663	5736	3531	6177	3211	4219	2479	3881	2218	3757	1950	29744	17052	46796	1254	196	1450	32.27
8	Borno	52	691	4365	2264	4298	2379	3608	2250	2729	1901	3062	1896	3172	1763	21234	12453	33687	956	336	1292	26.07
9	Cross River	195	2223	7533	7790	6482	6491	6124	6187	5699	5718	5391	4948	6022	5716	37251	36850	74101	1745	1135	2880	25.73
10	Delta	425	6100	20909	19627	19027	17762	20056	18277	14068	12474	14009	11941	13693	12180	101762	92261	194023	4523	4169	8692	22.32
11	Ebonyi	18	136	1225	1288	863	925	556	397	286	303	184	171	257	217	3371	3301	6672	105	107	212	31.47
12	Edo	293	7506	25663	19658	26151	19492	30785	19161	22267	19687	21027	17652	18419	15206	144312	110856	255168	2791	2262	5053	50.50
13	Ekiti	73	992	3180	2947	3026	2875	2722	2632	2943	2500	3549	3362	3340	2890	18760	17206	35966	995	485	1480	24.30
14	Enugu	216	4080	10807	12556	10176	13262	9894	12003	8392	11085	7713	9812	9870	12006	56852	70724	127576	2363	2240	4603	27.72
15	Gombe	127	1217	9975	7675	9841	6574	8148	5680	5755	3969	5573	3533	3611	2716	42903	30147	73050	1555	578	2133	34.25
16	Imo	133	2299	6399	7517	6107	7732	5906	7312	6704	8048	5654	7506	8500	10295	39270	48410	87680	1497	1192	2689	32.61
17	Jigawa	55	388	4361	295	4330	224	3645	192	2557	198	2331	184	2232	181	19456	1274	20730	645	35	680	30.49
18	Kaduna	166	1760	11406	6549	10523	6388	8973	5292	7257	4701	7016	3975	6138	3482	51313	30387	81700	1957	625	2582	31.64
19	Kano	286	3110	21887	10399	20486	9592	18242	9092	14035	7290	12768	6848	11787	6399	99205	49620	148825	3536	795	4331	34.36
20	Katsina	123	1149	10907	2491	10120	2447	8557	2055	6649	1399	6208	1278	5426	1436	47867	11106	58973	1719	250	1969	29.95
21	Kebbi	73	3963	14845	4695	13477	6086	12459	3582	9152	2921	7260	2493	6518	2277	63711	22054	85765	1822	368	2190	39.16
22	Kogi	175	1950	9621	7880	9736	7595	9103	7059	8789	6970	8488	6266	8073	6240	53810	42010	95820	2389	921	3310	28.95
23	Kwara	195	2894	8401	6132	7960	6031	7794	5909	7381	5494	7549	5505	9850	7588	48935	36659	85594	1687	1018	2705	31.64
24	Lagos	329	15122	45569	47864	51852	51989	46358	46787	52855	52733	42900	46658	33371	33825	272905	279856	552761	6035	8956	14991	36.87
25	Nassarawa	190	1645	11077	5306	10217	4801	8859	3788	7163	3378	6713	3290	6515	3004	50544	23567	74111	2007	505	2512	29.50
26	Niger	144	3702	12320	6976	11696	6197	10091	5659	9805	4970	8297	4466	6829	3864	59038	32132	91170	2988	1102	4090	22.29
27	Ogun	323	10014	21442	20464	19978	18862	19049	16591	17951	17317	16892	15247	17255	14853	112567	103334	215901	3901	3371	7272	29.69
28	Ondo	217	4425	15632	14663	14013	12191	12450	10728	13129	11220	13345	10929	10666	9979	79235	69710	148945	3169	2386	5555	26.81
29	Osun	345	4749	20883	17836	17765	16432	17006	14858	15927	13972	15970	13768	16416	13543	103967	90409	194376	4465	2377	6842	28.41
30	Oyo	399	8793	35342	32499	29790	27137	29221	25173	28310	24224	26003	23145	22096	18950	170762	151128	321890	5536	4840	10376	31.02
31	Plateau	323	2945	16420	12200	14552	11179	12141	9880	11491	8412	9934	7447	8626	6309	73164	55427	128591	3420	1359	4779	26.91
32	Rivers	207	3263	12931	15838	11969	15980	11689	14764	11045	14010	11563	13327	17516	17449	76713	91368	168081	2956	1415	4371	38.45
33	Sokoto	74	888	9005	2642	6920	2229	6074	1772	5345	1906	4733	1704	5022	1588	37099	11841	48940	1110	457	1567	31.23
34	Taraba	54	523	3969	1759	3501	1518	2890	1222	2373	972	1959	773	1716	626	16408	6870	23278	666	99	765	30.43
35	Yobe	18	824	7162	2299	6968	2017	6634	1887	8260	1712	8101	1649	7489	1150	44614	10714	55328	971	234	1205	45.92
36	Zamfara	34	514	5035	1825	3971	1527	3500	1316	2875	896	2915	935	2731	807	21027	7306	28333	628	148	776	36.51
37	FCT, Abuja	68	968	6147	4789	5541	5602	4465	3506	4372	3352	4057	3312	2991	2752	27573	23313	50886	1396	1229	2625	19.39
	NATIONAL	6292	116101	448016	358795	422184	343298	394703	310265	356799	298396	327419	273320	313009	258080	2262130	1842154	4104284	78732	52889	131621	31.18

Source: Baseline 2001

**NATIONAL SUMMARY OF POST-PRIMARY SCHOOLS STATISTICS
FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA**

2001

S/N	STATES	TOT. SCH	TOTAL CLASSES	TOTAL MALE JSS 1	TOTAL FEML. JSS 1	TOTAL MALE JSS 2	TOTAL FEML. JSS 2	TOTAL MALE JSS 3	TOTAL FEML. JSS 3	TOTAL MALE SSS 1	TOTAL FEML. SSS 1	TOTAL MALE SSS 2	TOTAL FEML. SSS 2	TOTAL MALE SSS 3	TOTAL FEML. SSS 3	TOTAL MALE ENROL	TOTAL FEML. ENROL	TOTAL (M+F) ENROL	TOTAL MALE TEACH	TOTAL FEML. TEACH	TOTAL (M+F) TEACH	PTR
1	Abia	174	2809	7358	8514	7791	9375	7680	9479	7549	9071	7430	9500	8300	8850	46108	54789	100897	1515	1919	3434	29.38
2	Adamawa	52	625	4482	2314	4368	2309	3446	1818	3372	1605	2929	1146	2059	872	20656	10064	30720	556	143	699	43.95
3	Akwa Ibom	171	3222	9843	13225	8255	10186	8017	10061	6402	8297	5827	7660	7553	8895	45897	58324	104221	1829	1184	3013	34.59
4	Anambra	227	3864	13303	17928	12925	18006	11444	16133	10458	16812	8713	15228	6160	11851	63003	95958	158961	1623	3709	5332	29.81
5	Bauchi	90	1277	11971	5658	10029	4656	8843	4103	7445	3439	6620	3209	6321	2743	51229	23808	75037	1442	329	1771	42.37
6	Bayelsa	131	967	4379	3023	3972	3320	3745	2441	3014	2051	3022	1974	5698	3641	23830	16450	40280	1224	350	1574	25.59
7	Benue	117	1716	6462	3955	6247	3811	5753	3471	4976	2676	4519	2318	4435	2072	32392	18303	50695	1395	195	1590	31.88
8	Borno	52	735	6023	2937	4926	2291	4986	3502	4128	1881	3724	1821	3817	2931	27604	15363	42967	964	368	1332	32.26
9	Cross River	195	2004	8601	8934	8068	7842	6869	6865	6120	6263	5648	5588	7574	6628	42880	42120	85000	1907	1271	3178	26.75
10	Delta	425	7128	25711	23101	23848	23687	22423	20010	18097	17053	16859	15464	17440	15660	124378	114975	239353	5118	5618	10736	22.29
11	Ebonyi	18	276	1624	2118	1380	1774	708	823	439	534	488	698	393	591	5032	6538	11570	222	231	453	25.54
12	Edo	293	8984	31317	30424	31159	28335	31180	27104	29325	26536	28300	23416	22926	18207	174207	154022	328229	3194	2862	6056	54.20
13	Ekiti	73	1230	4044	3134	3426	3104	2819	2752	3167	2853	3705	3304	3257	2742	20418	17889	38307	1082	546	1608	23.82
14	Enugu	216	4229	12113	14321	11070	12783	10045	11665	8615	11688	7551	10426	10685	12397	60079	73280	133359	2334	2742	5076	26.27
15	Gombe	127	1603	28421	18789	12874	8655	12330	7611	7984	4756	7309	3959	5850	3135	74768	46905	121673	1962	738	2700	45.06
16	Imo	133	2297	6511	8153	6541	8256	6295	7681	9537	8300	6127	8134	7894	9708	42905	50232	93137	1533	1314	2847	32.71
17	Jigawa	55	423	4913	389	3747	286	3755	205	3045	626	2622	203	2392	83	20474	1792	22266	762	38	800	27.83
18	Kaduna	166	2102	15389	8269	13023	6432	11192	5654	9099	4995	8464	4563	7341	4234	64508	34147	98655	2195	677	2872	34.35
19	Kano	286	3265	26559	12531	23205	11832	20983	10248	16373	8325	14505	8271	12912	6992	114537	58199	172736	3790	939	4729	36.53
20	Katsina	123	1338	14144	3126	12154	3408	10513	2161	8514	1988	7687	1726	6813	1371	59825	13780	73605	1854	375	2229	33.02
21	Kebbi	73	5291	18988	6748	16491	4803	13736	4244	10781	3481	9397	3042	7504	2597	76897	24915	101812	2155	387	2542	40.05
22	Kogi	175	2415	11096	8228	9965	8786	9231	7502	9118	7136	8648	6466	9288	6656	57346	44774	102120	2450	1006	3456	29.55
23	Kwara	195	2921	8926	7222	9155	7020	8162	13774	8159	7529	7244	5999	10255	7789	51901	49333	101234	1794	1044	2838	35.67
24	Lagos	329	15334	50038	49366	55120	55125	45645	46103	57935	54665	47244	48739	35353	36372	291335	290370	581705	6298	9517	15815	36.78
25	Nassarawa	190	2059	14112	7533	11973	5979	9802	4904	7992	3999	7056	3945	7289	3639	58224	29999	88223	2712	709	3421	25.79
26	Niger	144	3907	13458	7304	12676	6589	11123	5827	11325	5304	8796	4734	8270	4222	66650	33980	100630	3163	1144	4307	23.36
27	Ogun	323	8060	24163	23245	22456	20682	18725	17301	19106	17632	18413	17098	17221	15752	120084	111710	231794	3866	3423	7289	31.80
28	Ondo	217	4836	16751	14899	15853	14556	13405	12268	13933	12395	14500	12652	10904	9270	85346	76040	161386	3793	3156	6949	23.22
29	Osun	345	5137	18189	17268	19233	17591	17068	15886	17367	15091	15542	14086	17330	14843	104729	94765	199494	3667	1897	5564	35.85
30	Oyo	399	13653	34356	31662	35465	32129	31461	27434	30265	26652	28149	24753	23348	20613	183044	163243	346287	6365	5765	12130	28.55
31	Plateau	323	3183	18881	14331	17191	12439	13879	10270	12284	8496	11364	8047	9533	6897	83132	60480	143612	3475	1330	4805	29.89
32	Rivers	207	3385	14804	17870	14515	18240	12814	15477	12702	14602	12340	13559	18330	17654	85505	97402	182907	2914	1360	4274	42.80
33	Sokoto	74	1076	11920	3253	9558	2712	6788	2410	6617	2008	5484	2019	4780	1425	45127	13827	58954	1351	457	1808	32.61
34	Taraba	54	611	4494	2107	4284	1859	3189	1423	2656	1221	2298	846	1920	732	18841	8188	27029	705	116	821	32.92
35	Yobe	18	921	7771	2400	6207	2350	5986	2187	7939	1832	7966	1663	7213	1488	43082	11920	55002	1185	372	1557	35.33
36	Zamfara	34	574	6460	1990	5900	1867	5060	1418	4071	1064	3749	1042	3286	923	28526	8304	36830	641	196	837	44.00
37	FCT, Abuja	68	972	8185	6874	7035	5769	4698	4320	4676	4325	4477	3907	3413	2716	32484	27911	60395	1520	1353	2873	21.02
	NATIONAL	6292	124229	525760	413143	482085	388844	423778	346535	404585	327181	365718	301205	345057	277191	2546983	2054099	4601082	84535	58780	143315	32.10

Source: Baseline 2001

NATIONAL SUMMARY OF POST-PRIMARY SCHOOLS STATISTICS
FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF NIGERIA

2002

S/N	STATES	TOT. SCH	TOTAL MALE JSS 1	TOTAL FEML. JSS 1	TOTAL MALE JSS 2	TOTAL FEML. JSS 2	TOTAL MALE JSS 3	TOTAL FEML. JSS 3	TOTAL MALE SSS 1	TOTAL FEML. SSS 1	TOTAL MALE SSS 2	TOTAL FEML. SSS 2	TOTAL MALE SSS 3	TOTAL FEML. SSS 3	TOTAL MALE ENROL	TOTAL FEML. ENROL	TOTAL (M+F) ENROL	TOTAL MALE TEACH	TOTAL FEML. TEACH	TOTAL (M+F) TEACH	PTR
1	Abia	182	7556	9218	7690	9648	7477	9219	6923	8763	6884	9019	7703	9101	44233	54988	99201	1469	1901	3370	29.44
2	Adamawa	8	524	286	552	341	472	227	340	170	360	134	294	123	2542	1281	3823	69	12	81	47.20
3	Akwa Ibom	258	15316	18414	13352	15581	12255	14315	10716	12561	8971	10668	10918	12504	71528	84043	155571	3559	2325	5884	26.44
4	Anambra	250	14128	15571	14117	17226	12797	15660	12011	16811	10470	15273	8310	13604	71833	94145	165978	1778	4155	5933	27.98
5	Bauchi	93	10602	5452	10475	4593	8525	4067	6787	3272	6537	3659	6894	2945	49820	23988	73808	1475	420	1895	38.95
6	Bayelsa	100	2678	2342	2843	2403	2459	2008	2236	1779	1956	1381	4029	2802	16201	12715	28916	856	199	1055	27.41
7	Benue	277	14831	10604	16008	10952	13835	9515	11705	7930	11053	6979	10264	5887	77696	51867	129563	3778	697	4475	28.95
8	Borno	68	6881	3723	6685	3677	6265	3458	5662	2756	5252	2613	5408	2481	36153	18708	54861	1491	452	1943	28.24
9	Cross River	239	10924	10877	9762	10430	8759	8474	7994	7832	6677	7055	9485	8967	53601	53635	107236	2528	1532	4060	26.41
10	Delta	421	23586	22026	24723	22380	24731	21572	20195	17340	18321	14812	17746	13658	129302	111788	241090	5364	5643	11007	21.90
11	Ebonyi	27	2034	1945	1852	1950	1469	1497	929	818	869	754	758	871	7911	7835	15746	231	153	384	41.01
12	Edo	285	23509	20571	24301	21082	24566	20773	24892	20886	23773	19338	19688	15251	140729	117901	258630	3232	2680	5892	43.90
13	Ekiti	82	3653	3248	4038	3698	3283	3140	3628	3165	4376	3793	3340	2824	22318	19868	42186	1343	622	1965	21.47
14	Enugu	231	12194	14437	12390	14787	11112	13271	11980	12600	8718	11745	11022	13975	67416	80815	148231	2677	2792	5469	27.10
15	Gombe	129	28020	20435	24438	19183	14453	11444	9960	6240	8934	5395	8269	4094	94074	66791	160865	1969	854	2823	56.98
16	Imo	186	8190	10909	8660	11405	8569	10773	7768	10570	7573	10797	11836	15699	52596	70153	122749	2166	2064	4230	29.02
17	Jigawa	53	7908	415	3981	369	3808	293	2504	291	2470	230	1969	118	22640	1716	24356	716	41	757	32.17
18	Kaduna	239	19539	11974	20320	12886	16450	11190	13981	9099	13746	8229	11763	7814	95799	61192	156991	3839	1571	5410	29.02
19	Kano	296	23214	10954	21116	10318	18401	10042	14122	7608	12115	7446	10886	6592	99854	52960	152814	3807	882	4689	32.59
20	Katsina	113	12973	2781	12418	2944	10643	2856	8476	2254	8671	2014	6770	1631	59951	14480	74431	2016	384	2400	31.01
21	Kebbi	68	15927	4728	13727	3973	12537	3799	9561	3113	8113	2691	6526	2368	66391	20672	87063	2028	409	2437	35.73
22	Kogi	174	9334	7032	9795	7839	9013	6596	8812	6598	8332	5874	8667	5890	53953	39829	93782	2474	920	3394	27.63
23	Kwara	234	10114	8315	10305	8269	9333	7768	9275	7578	8496	7074	11037	8350	58560	47354	105914	2266	1539	3805	27.84
24	Lagos	336	46955	48366	56520	54875	43331	42991	62447	61507	50219	50978	33680	35034	293152	293751	586903	7422	10922	18344	31.99
25	Nassarawa	185	13737	7299	13796	6958	11098	5973	8482	4512	8111	4279	7468	3903	62692	32924	95616	2786	733	3519	27.17
26	Niger	158	14067	7013	14003	7258	12361	5648	13067	5671	11037	5296	8399	3757	72934	34843	107577	3479	1231	4710	22.84
27	Ogun	327	22716	20984	21790	19876	19036	16783	17764	16373	16840	16176	15202	13920	113348	104112	217460	3979	3297	7276	29.89
28	Ondo	219	16224	15844	16175	15214	15083	13295	14714	13063	17509	14650	8250	6984	87935	79050	166985	4011	3104	7115	23.47
29	Osun	356	15251	13883	18466	17206	23386	16700	19792	16243	16133	14551	15764	13444	108792	92027	200819	3971	2096	6067	33.10
30	Oyo	401	35294	32136	34665	30788	31009	26624	34676	28915	28446	23796	22070	17863	186160	160122	346282	6532	6005	12537	27.62
31	Plateau	326	19963	12907	17200	13666	14512	11124	11076	8247	10819	8134	9052	6463	82622	60541	143163	3548	1304	4852	29.51
32	Rivers	256	15464	16281	17543	18092	15949	16545	15565	15303	14225	15330	21303	20211	100049	101762	201811	3658	2009	5667	35.61
33	Sokoto	73	12010	3184	11394	2866	6991	2434	8476	1798	5840	1922	4477	1341	47188	13545	60733	1501	484	1985	30.60
34	Taraba	68	5072	2434	5189	2419	4047	1894	3335	1413	3035	1196	2231	895	22909	10251	33160	863	113	976	33.98
35	Yobe	28	15761	4736	13497	4571	11937	3947	10140	3254	9811	3173	9589	2731	70735	22412	93147	2091	658	2749	33.88
36	Zamfara	39	6448	2423	5443	2520	4551	2046	3871	1930	3299	1719	2778	3342	26390	13980	40370	813	247	1060	38.08
37	FCT, Abuja	59	8230	7310	8005	7135	6054	5115	5615	4650	5467	4167	3819	3022	37190	31399	68589	1625	1508	3133	21.89
	Total	6844	530827	411057	527234	419378	460537	363076	437477	352913	393458	322340	357664	290459	2707197	2159223	4866420	97410	65938	163348	29.79

NOTE: There is no information in respect of 119 schools that were in existence in 2001 as distributed: Anambra 44; Bayelsa 31; Delta 4; Edo 8; F.C.T. 9; Jigawa 2; Kaduna 10;

Kebbi 5; Nasarawa 5; Sokoto 1.

Source: Baseline 2001

ANNEX VI

SECONDARY SCHOOL ENROLMENTS: POPULATION PROJECTIONS AND GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO ESTIMATES AT NATIONAL LEVEL, 1999-2002

Year	JSS Enrolment (in thousands)			Population aged 12-14 (in thousands)			Gross Enrolment Ratios (GERs)		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	M/F
1999	1144	916	2060	-	-	-	-	-	-
2000	1265	1012	2277	4229	4106	8335	30%	25%	27%
2001	1432	1148	2580	4383	4251	8634	33%	27%	30%
2002	1519	1193	2712	4557	4382	8938	33%	27%	30%
Year	SSS Enrolment (in thousands)			Population aged 15-17 (in thousands)			Gross Enrolment Ratios (GERs)		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	M/F
1999	904	756	1660	-	-	-	-	-	-
2000	997	829	1826	3768	3682	7450	26%	23%	25%
2001	1116	905	2021	3900	3804	7704	29%	24%	26%
2002	1188	965	2153	4034	3890	7925	29%	25%	27%

Note: Enrolment and population data have been rounded to the nearest thousand; GERs are rounded to the nearest whole number.

Sources: Enrolment data from Baseline 2001 survey and School Census 2002, supplied by Prof. A.M. Fagbulu, dated 10 May 2003.

Population projections supplied by National Population Commission, for the Education Sector Status Report, May 2003.

ANNEX VII

MAJOR EDUCATIONAL PARASTATAL ORGANISATIONS

The major parastatals of the Federal Ministry of Education, classified according to their functions, are as shown below;

- (1) Supervisory and Regulatory
- (2) Research and Development/training
- (3) Measurement and Evaluation/Examination, and
- (4) Language Training and Development

Supervisory & Regulatory Parastatals		
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	<p>(a) Advise the Federal Government on:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 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 <p>(b) Executive Functions include:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 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 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 of 1993	<p>Advises Federal Government on:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. all aspects of technical and vocational education outside the universities; ii. national policy necessary for full development of technical and vocational education; iii. financial requirements of polytechnics and colleges of technology; iv. periodic review of terms and conditions of service in polytechnics and colleges of technology; <p>(b) Executive Functions include:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. co-ordination of all aspects of technical and vocational education; ii. preparation of periodic master plan for a balanced & coordinated development of polytechnics & colleges; iii. receipt and disbursement of federal grants to federal 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 Edu. (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 (b) 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 all programmes of Teacher Education and accrediting their certificates and awards.
Nat. Commission for Mass literacy, Adult & Non-Formal Edu. (NMEC) established in 1990.	National Commission For Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-Formal Education Decree No.17 of 1990;	Advises Federal Government on: i. all aspects of mass literacy, adult and non-formal education, etc (b) Executive Functions include: i. designing, promoting and implementing strategies & programmes of mass literacy
National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE) established in 1989	National Commission for Nomadic Education Decree No. 41 of 1989.	Advises Federal Government on: i. all aspects of Nomadic education, etc (b) Executive Functions include: i. formulating policies and issuing guidelines on all matters relating to nomadic education; ii. developing programmes for the acquisition of functional literacy and numeracy for nomads, etc.

Research & Development/Training Parastatals

Parastatals/Year Established	Enabling Instrument	Basic Functions
Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council – NERDC first established as a Committee of Experts in 1964	NERDC Decree No.31 of 1972 Amendment:- Decree No. 53 of 1988	i. encouraging, promoting and coordinating educational research; ii. identifying and prioritizing educational problems needing research; iii. documenting and publishing or sponsoring the publication of educational research; iv. sponsoring relevant national and international conferences, etc; v. conducting educational research; vi. developing curriculum and instructional materials, etc; vii. language and book development.
National Mathematical Centre - established in 1989	National Mathematical Centre Decree No.40 of 1989	i. encouragement and support of improvement activities for the teaching of mathematical sciences at all levels of the education system; ii. implementing national set goals in the development of mathematical sciences, etc.

National Library of Nigeria first established as a unit in the Federal Ministry of Information in 1964	Library Act No. 6 of 1964 National Library Decree No. 29 of 1970; Amendment:- Decree No.29 of 1979, Decree No.5 of 1987.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. stimulation and coordination of library development efforts; ii. giving necessary supports for intellectual efforts in all activities directed at progress and development iii. serving as the national depository for all publishing output; iv. serving as the Nat. Bibliographic Centre, etc.
National Teachers' Institute established in 1976	National Teachers' Institute Decree No. 7 of 1978	Provision of instruction leading to the development, upgrading and certification of teachers using distance learning techniques, etc.
National Institute for Educational Planning & Administration(NIEPA) - established in 1992	In draft yet to be promulgated	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. provision of relevant professional planning and management skills for educational personnel at all level of the education system; ii. training and consultancy services, research and development activities in educational management; iii. continuing professional dev. of serving officers in educational planning & administration, etc.

Measurement & Evaluation/Examination Parastatals

Parastatals/Year Established	Enabling Instrument	Basic Functions
West African Examinations Council(WAEC) - established in 1952	Convention establishing the West African Examinations Council	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. annual review and consideration of examinations to be held in member countries; ii. conducting in consultation with member countries, such examinations as may be appropriate; iii. awarding certificates on the results as may be appropriate.
Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) - established in 1978	JAMB Decree No. 2 of 1978; JAMB Decree No. 33 of 1989; Amendment:- Decree no. 4 of 1993	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. conduct of matriculation examinations for admission into all universities, polytechnics, monotechnics and colleges of education; ii. placement of suitably qualified candidates into these institutions; iii. collation and dissemination of information on all matters relating to admissions into tertiary institutions, etc.
Nat. Examinations Council (NECO) - formerly established as National Board for Educational Measurement (NBEM) in 1992	National Examinations Council NECO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. conduct of the National Common Entrance examination into Fed. Government Colleges (FGC); ii. conduct of the Junior Secondary Certificate Examination for FGC students and allied institutions; iii. conduct of Senior Secondary Certificate Examination iv. conduct of screening examination into Fed. Govt. Academy; v. administration of Aptitude Tests; vi. National assessment of educational performance in junior secondary schools, etc.
Nat. Business and Tech. Examinations Board (NABTEB) - established in 1992	NABTEB Decree No. 70	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. conduct of technical and business examinations; ii. issuing results and awarding certificates on the results of such examinations, etc.

Language Training & Development Parastatals		
Parastatals/Year Established	Enabling Instrument	Basic Functions
Nigeria-French Language Village - established in 1992	Draft Decree yet to be promulgated	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. practical training for French majors in universities and colleges of education; ii. provision of training in French for different Nigerian clients, etc
National Institute for Nigerian Languages (NINLAN) - established in 1992	NINLAN Decree No. 117 of 1993	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. encouraging learning of Nigerian languages; ii. providing courses

ANNEX VIII

WAEC RESULTS (CREDIT AND ABOVE) BY SUBJECT

MAY/JUNE EXAMS, 2000 & 2001

S/No	SUBJECT	2000	2001	S/No	SUBJECT	2000	2001
1	COMMERCE	55427 21.70	228636 51.53	21	FURTHER MATHS.	2040 22.82	3875 25.09
2	FIN. ACCTS	26325 21.11	37790 19.21	22	MATHS.	208244 32.81	373955 36.55
3	SHORT HAND	82 26.11	19 18.47	23	AGRIC. SCIENCE	94300 19.29	289031 36.44
4	TYPE WRIT.	480 15.90	1450 30.85	24	BIOLOGY	119769 19.30	231475 23.25
5	CRK	65404 30.99	95306 25.18	25	CHEMISTRY	62442 31.88	109397 36.25
6	ECONOMICS	214864 35.36	276632 28.17	26	PHYSICS	56604 30.05	99264 34.46
7	GEOGRAPHY	7352 21.36	122570 22.96	27	APPLIED ELECT.	118 56.45	30 7.97
8	GOVT.	135477 39.19	329843 53.95	28	AUTO MECH.	58 45.31	140 57.37
9	HISTORY	8472 23.94	15693 28.68	29	BUILD. CONST.	40 27.21	89 32.60
10	ISLAMIC STUD.	31362 59.34	46760 48.93	30	HEALTH SC.	2650 40.23	5237 33.90
11	LITT. IN ENG.	18519 8.17	21915 60.23	31	PHYSICAL EDUC.	511 9.89	1393 16.63
12	HAUSA LITT.	164 43.85	242 64.70	32	ELECTRONICS	96 56.47	76 42.93
13	IGBO LITT.	83 65.87	91 64.08	33	METAL WORK	131 37.86	250 47.80
14	YORUBA LITT.	325 36.80	347 46.95	34	TECHNICAL DRAWING	2161 46.24	2890 47.26
15	ARABIC	314 21.77	1713 40.24	35	WOOD WORK	32 8.29	35 6.62
16	ENGLISH LANG.	68792 10.81	267251 26.07	36	CLOTHING & TEXTILES	379 64.89	306 50.32
17	FRENCH LANG.	551 50.55	507 45.79	37	FOOD & NUT	8842 54.54	12438 60.13
18	HAUSA LANG.	16001 34.14	54296 57.01	38	HOME MGT.	5752 47.72	6303 46.25
19	IGBO LANG.	47737 37.72	98490 66.76	39	MUSIC	5 17.24	17 38.63
20	YORUBA LANG.	135112 48.77	234303 64.66	40	VISUAL ARTS	860 16.29	1018 18.23

Source: West African Examination Council (WAEC)

ANNEX VIII (cont.)

WEST AFRICAN EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL

NOVEMBER/DECEMBER EXAMINATIONS, 1998 - 2001

SUBJECT	NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF ENTRIES THAT SAT THE EXAMINATIONS				NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF CANDIDATES WHO SCORED 5 CREDITS & ABOVE			
	1998	1999	2000	2001	1998	1999	2000	2001
AGRIC SC	260,738 89.78	344,816 92.97	552,001 88.31	564,687 89.80	74,091 28.41	73,664 21.36	72,854 13.19	121,722 21.55
APPLIED ELECT	331 52.70	399 68.67	1,603 72.86	865 73.93	16 4.83	4 1.00	558 34.80	68 7.86
ARABIC	333 60.32	310 57.40	1,812 76.52	731 59.43	205 61.56	234 75.48	641 35.37	567 77.56
ART	2,213 58.23	1,751 77.58	4,989 84.37	2,426 74.76	405 18.30	578 33.00	665 13.32	857 35.32
AUTO MECH.	139 62.61	124 74.69	958 86.54	212 71.14	36 25.89	93 75.00	236 24.63	119 56.13
BIOLOGY	317,303 88.24	410,831 91.51	677,869 88.07	700,12 90.12	36,894 11.62	116,480 28.35	70,543 10.40	142,973 20.42
BOOK KEEPING	74,517 87.26	84,450 75.07	191,552 88.08	213,129 90.37	12,701 17.04	18,520 21.93	74,845 39.07	39,330 18.45
BUILDING CONST.	470 66.85	419 70.42	1,510 76.72	705 68.91	183 38.93	82 19.57	205 13.57	141 30.00
CHEMISTRY	143,641 93.46	175,988 95.60	265,705 91.53	265,755 93.28	31,159 21.69	26,091 14.82	18,499 6.96	65,742 24.73
COMMERCE	173,790 90.25	231,037 94.55	414,535 91.16	435,294 92.06	68,020 39.13	63,929 27.67	94,465 22.78	100,807 23.15
SHORT HAND	1,613 60.66	1,442 81.01	3,280 79.03	1,833 70.06	171 10.60	35 2.42	70 2.13	285 15.54
ISLAMIC STUD.	11,010 71.49	17,363 75.48	36,424 72.00	39,067 74.91	5,759 52.27	9,965 57.39	15,000 41.18	22,265 56.99
ECONOMICS	375,393 95.14	477,425 97.25	804,458 94.34	819,651 95.15	92,714 24.69	83,525 17.49	140,935 17.51	309,598 37.77
GEOGRAPHY	166,155 85.38	209,321 86.72	311,590 81.47	304,000 82.14	26,753 16.10	25,056 11.97	40,988 13.15	30,467 10.02
HISTORY	13,604 60.29	12,519 50.52	26,900 56.38	23,942 58.81	4,677 34.37	4,616 36.87	8,231 30.59	6,214 25.95
	129,123 84.05	138,516 73.97	283,225 82.16	283,378 83.24	35,836 27.75	42,647 30.78	109,027 38.49	187,568 66.19
LITT. IN ENG.	116,741 85.81	153,657 90.80	260,665 86.19	265,683 87.18	18,641 15.96	28,771 18.72	34,001 13.04	18,399 6.92
HAUSA LITT.	179 53.59	221 37.77	548 34.10	238 30.55	59 32.96	110 49.77	194 35.40	160 67.22
IGBO LITT.	127 21.97	108 15.31	614 30.59	123 8.09	75 59.05	47 43.51	60 9.77	44 35.34
YORUBA LITT.	101 19.16	147 11.37	532 10.86	365 6.69	57 56.43	59 40.13	121 22.74	129 35.35

ENGLISH LANG.	397218 97.95	499555 99.06	850479 96.91	866626 97.71	94166 23.70	135016 27.02	126566 14.88	196981 22.72
FRENCH	-	528 56.53	2214 69.42	466 48.19	-	297 56.25	374 16.89	212 45.49
HAUSA LANG.	179 53.59	221 37.77	18157 62.27	18813 69.03	59 32.96	110 49.77	10415 57.36	10818 57.50
IGBO. LANG.	54032 84.23	70551 87.26	101720 81.16	109952 82.81	31549 58.38	43923 62.25	62184 61.13	80439 73.15
YORUBA LANG.	100848 81.35	148928 86.00	239792 78.39	265198 81.87	77372 76.72	91611 61.51	164965 68.79	99969 37.69
FURTHER MATHS	13086 63.21	14579 67.37	22724 58.33	21978 59.30	16889 12.90	3497 23.98	3717 16.35	2910 13.24
MATHS	388844 95.90	492587 97.75	831728 94.82	843991 95.16	109643 28.19	163039 33.09	383463 46.10	350746 41.55
HEALTH SC.	8172 72.19	7771 74.50	16317 72.69	12539 69.28	3386 41.43	4411 56.76	5043 30.90	6532 52.09
PHY. EDUC.	1489 60.67	1388 67.70	4318 71.83	2449 66.01	252 16.92	435 31.34	520 12.04	678 27.68
PHYSICS	138069 93.83	170673 96.66	257555 92.62	256140 93.10	36424 26.38	43058 25.22	107199 41.62	123671 48.38
ELECT.	-	213 52.07	1239 81.40	470 57.03	-	16 7.51	20 1.61	141 30.00
METAL WORK	297 68.75	257 74.70	1230 78.34	501 58.52	87 29.29	95 36.96	480 39.02	280 55.88
TECH. DRAWINGS	2665 60.52	2692 70.19	6551 69.89	3731 62.43	635 23.82	963 35.77	945 14.12	615 16.48
WOOD WORK	129 60.56	101 79.52	540 88.81	150 71.77	16 12.40	33 32.67	66 12.22	62 41.33
CLOTH/TEXTILES	114 34.54	53 77.94	584 88.88	67 50.37	36 31.57	40 75.47	81 13.86	48 71.64
FOOD & NUTR.	2755 44.81	1843 54.33	8613 71.28	710 20.84	913 33.13	546 29.62	1166 13.53	311 43.80
HOME MGT.	2213 50.60	1534 51.18	5632 70.62	584 28.28	473 21.37	414 26.98	517 9.17	150 25.68
MUSIC	31 72.09	144 73.09	861 92.78	160 38.36	6 9.35	17 11.80	16 1.85	18 11.25
GOVT.	221889 89.74	289766 93.13	513622 89.77	532426 91.21	99250 44.72	121703 42.29	277951 54.11	282414 53.04
TYPE WRITING	47.58 71.27	4261 79.77	9224 79.64	5867 68.99	2042 42.91	2453 57.56	3557 38.56	2858 48.71

ANNEX IX

2001 POLYTECHNIC ENROLMENT

Polytechnic	PND	ND	HND	PHND	TOTAL
1. YABA	62	2620	2724	0	5406
2. KADUNA	2253	3123	2925	0	8301
3. AUCHI	1739	6594	1590	0	9923
4. ENUGU	0	6322	6606	0	12928
5. CALABAR	1011	3046	1710	0	5767
6. MUBI	799	825	326	0	1950
7. MAIDUGURI	1440	2520	668	0	4628
8. B/KEBBI	532	2108	1046	0	3686
9. UGBOKOLO	900	1495	454	0	2849
10. ADO-EKITI	0	3833	3459	0	7292
11. IDAH	1703	1826	818	0	4347
12. KANO	1736	1944	1185	0	4865
13. ABEOKUTA	218	2179	1545	0	3942
14. B/LADI	1191	1336	516	0	3,043
15. NEKEDE-OWERRI	1253	4330	1360	0	6,943
16. BAUCHI	955	1013	1106	0	3,074
17. ILARO	0	3699	2212	0	5,911
18. OWO	1509	8533	1346	0	11,388
19. OKO	0	1233	2712	0	3,945
20. UNWANA-AFIKPO	609	1118	580	0	2,307
21. K/NAMODA	750	723	240	0	1,713
22. NASSARAWA	1009	1832	679	0	3,520
23. BORI-PH	1771	4404	1754	0	7,929
24. ZAIRA	627	1951	709	0	3,287
25. IREE	5959	9590	2393	0	17,942
26. ESA-OKE	6786	7202	3768	0	17,756
27. IKOT-OSURUA	639	2419	192	0	3,250
28. EDE	503	5580	2579	0	8,662
29. YOLA	36	15	0	0	51
30. EMENE-ENUGU	311	1390	270	0	1,971
31. ABA	639	1423	343	0	2,405
32. KAZAURE	146	40	0	0	186
33. TALATA MAFARA	156	448	137	0	741
34. LOKOJA	0	1851	442	0	2,293
35. ZUNGERU	0	166	0	0	166
36. WUKARI	218	574	0	0	792
37. DAMATURU	0	541	64	0	605
38. IKEJA	40	191	85	0	316
TOTAL	37500	100037	48543	0	186,080

Source: NBTE

ANNEX X

**TEACHER DEMAND AND SUPPLY FOR SECONDARY VOCATIONAL
SUBJECTS IN SIX STATES, 2003**

SUBJECT	Teaching Staff Available			Teaching Staff Required		
	Professionals	Non-Professionals	Total	Professionals	Non-Professionals	Number Required
Business Studies	871	53	954	529	109	638
Home Economics	677	25	702	521	109	630
Music	50	-	50	42	3	45
Local Craft	1	-	1	177	29	206
Agriculture	1,134	147	1,281	490	25	515
Auto Mechanics	12	37	49	95	1	96
Book Keeping	390	31	421	452	27	479
Building Construction				109	3	112
Short Hand	354	6	360	354	7	361
Commerce	369	31	400	417	20	437
Computer		160	160	245	9	254
Electronics				117	6	123
Clothing and Textiles	14	31	45	142	23	165
Food and Nutrition	342	3	345	465	43	508
Home Management	379	4	383	469	48	517
Typewriting	328	30	358	372	10	382
Fine Art	488	19	507	168	36	204
Introductory Technology	654	107	661	546	216	862
Applied Electricity	19	54	73	116	-	116
Metal Work	68	14	82	114	3	117
Wood Work	59	9	68	98	3	101
Technical Drawing	25	47	72	390	3	393
TOTAL	6,234	808	6,972	6,428	733	7,261

Source: FME

ANNEX XI

SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF TECHNOLOGY TEACHERS

(A) Existing Avenues For Training Technology Teachers For Technical Colleges

<p>Engineering Trades</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mechanical Craft Practice 2. Agric. Mechanics Works 3. Electrical Installation 4. Radio, TV and Electronics 5. Foundry Craft Practice 6. Vehicle Body Repair 7. Vehicle Mechanics Works 8. Refrigeration & Air-conditioning 9. Appliances Maintenance Work 10. Fabrication and Welding 11. Electroplating 12. Marine Engineering 13. Instrument Mechanics Work 14. Auto Parts Merchandising 	<p>Mechanical engineering</p> <p>Agricultural Mechanisation</p> <p>Electrical engineering</p> <p>Electronics engineering</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p>
<p>Building/Wood Trades</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Block laying & Concreting 2. Draughting & Blue Print Reading 3. Painting and Decorating 4. Plumbing and Pipefitting 5. Soft Furnishing & Upholstery 6. Furniture Craft 7. Carpentry & Joinery 8. Machine Woodwork 	<p>Building</p> <p>Architecture</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p>
<p>Catering & Hospitality</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Catering Craft Practice 2. Cosmetology 3. Hairdressing 4. Body Care 5. Home Care Services 6. Laundry & Dry-cleaning 	<p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p> <p>None</p>

Art and Culture Trades	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Textile Trade 2. Graphic Arts 3. Leather Goods Manufacture 4. Ladies and Men's Garment Making/ (Fashion Design) 5. Printing 6. Ceramics 7. Glass Blowing and Ornamentation 	Fine Art/Industrial design Fine Art None None None None None
Business Trades	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Book-Keeping and Accounting 2. Computer Studies 3. Secretarial Studies 	Business Education (Accounting) Computer Science Business Education (Sec. Education)
Agriculture	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Fisheries 2. Animal & Crop Production 3. Horticulture 	Fisheries Agriculture Botany

Source: FME

ANNEX XI (Cont.)

(B) State of National Shortfall of Technology Teachers

S/N	Subject	National Shortfall in Number of Technology Teachers	Annual Rate of Production by Tertiary Institutions	Duration to Meet Shortfall (in Years)
1	Agriculture	93,335	1,960	48
2	Home Economics	42,951	968	44
3	Food & Nutrition	2,954	30	86
4	Home Management	846	69	12
5	Clothing & Textiles	296	18	16
6	Fine Art	35,240	571	62
7	Commerce	10,982	48	41
8	Typewriting	2,656	-	-
9	Shorthand	246	-	-
10	Bus. Management	2,438	-	-
11	Principles of Accounts	5,265	-	-

12	Intro. Tech	41,172	1,091	38
13	Wood Work	1,587	-	-
14	Metal Work	819	-	-
15	Auto Mechanics	324	-	-
16	Book-Keeping	-	-	-
17	Basic Electronics	246	-	-
18	Technical Drawing	1,361	-	-
19	Building Construction	246	-	-
20	Music	11,345	720	16
21	Local Craft	4,450	-	-
22	Business Studies	14,192	2,132	7
23	Computer Practice	-	448	-

Source: FME

ANNEX XI (Cont.)

(C) State of Supply and Demand of Technology Teachers in FSTCs

S/N	FSTC	No. Available	No. in Demand	Shortfall Percentage
1	Yaba	139	84	38%
2	Orozo	119	104	47%
3	Shiroro	37	38	51%
4	Otukpo	40	23	37%
5	Ilesha	33	59	64%
6	Ohanso	10	43	81%
7	Uyo	36	33	48%
8	Jalingo	16	96	85%
9	Zuru	11	24	69%
10	Ijebu-Imushin	40	128	76%
11	Kafanchan	48	30	38%
12	Lass	19	45	70%
13	Tungbo	16	39	71%
14	Uromi	20	48	71%
15	Ikare-Akoko	31	30	49%
16	Awka	-	144	100%
17	Usi-Ekiti	-	30	100%
18	Michika	-	30	100%
19	Ahoadá	-	30	100%
Total		615	1058	63%

Source: NERDC

ANNEX XII

UNIVERSITY ENROLMENT, 2001/2, BY LEVEL

S/ N	University	Sub-degree	Under-Graduate	Post-Graduate	Total
1	University of Nsukka, Nsukka	2880	21827	3892	28599
2	University of Lagos, Akoka	1058	20569	2259	23886
3	Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria	2500	20742	5180	28422
4	University of Ibadan, Ibadan	520	15468	5105	21093
5	Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife	384	24914	1129	26427
6	University of Benin, Benin City	1079	19805	2074	22958
7	University of Jos, Jos	0	10382	2199	12581
8	Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka	2522	13591	1847	17960
9	Bayero University, Kano	5131	13784	6332	25247
10	University of Ilorin, Ilorin	3927	13151	1410	18488
11	University of Maiduguri	1650	16314	2308	20272
12	University of Calabar, Calabar	2040	20586	626	23252
13	Usman Danfodiyo University, Sokoto	1810	16620	847	19277
14	University of Port Harcourt	9455	17477	1073	29005
15	University of Uyo, Uyo	2677	14748	1235	18660
16	University of Abuja, Abuja	5	186	867	1058
17	University of Agriculture, Abeokuta	429	4075	703	5207
18	University of Agriculture, Umudike	0	1875	425	2300
19	Federal University of Technology, Owerri	2280	10361	1407	14048
20	Abubakar Tafawa Balewa University, Bauchi	850	6212	397	7459
21	Nigerian Defence Academy, Kaduna				
22	University of Agriculture, Makurdi	650	3788	225	4663
23	Federal University of Technology, Minna	1833	5871	689	8393
24	Federal University of Technology, Akure	0	5397	2594	7991
25	Federal University of Technology, Yola	4000	7411	550	11961
26	Imo State University, Owerri	0	14788	1203	15991
27	Ogun State University, Ago-Iwoye	893	11568	582	13043
28	University of Ado-Ekiti, Ado-Ekiti	901	12535	293	13729
29	Enugu State University, Enugu	2949	13182	187	16318
30	Abia State University, Uturu	0	10014	313	10327
31	Lagos State University, Lagos				
32	Ladoke Akintola University, Ogbomosho	2720	10713	1388	14321
33	Benue State University, Makurdi	4905	4851	1709	11465
34	Delta State University, Abraka	1759	11967	448	14174
35	Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma	0	14443	595	15043
36	Rivers State University of Science and Technology, Port Harcourt	0	14192	3515	17707
37	Madonna University, Okija	459	635	0	1094
38	Igbenedion University, Okada	15	1027	16	1058
39	Badcock University, Ilishan Remo				
40	Bowen University, Iwo	0	650	0	650

Source: NUC Statistics 2003

ANNEX XIII

UNIVERSITY ENROLMENT 2001/02, BY DISCIPLINE

S/ N	University	Arts		Social Sciences		Sciences		Total
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
1	University of Nigeria Nsukka, Enugu	4510	4742	3900	3685	7769	3993	28599
2	University of Lagos, Akoka	1898	2556	4847	3371	7035	3121	22828
3	Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria	2936	1884	5951	3674	10853	3124	28422
4	University of Ibadan, Ibadan	2844	2951	2115	1079	7635	4469	21093
5	Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife	138	376	6088	2892	10566	3634	24914
6	University of Benin, Benin City	2023	2145	3334	2401	8940	4115	22958
7	University of Jos, Jos	1633	1131	1764	949	4918	2186	12581
8	Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka	1266	2258	2077	2398	6466	3495	17960
9	Bayero University, Kano	5173	1250	9777	1737	5928	1382	25247
10	University of Ilorin, Ilorin	1965	1644	3128	1683	7220	2848	18488
11	University of Maiduguri, Maiduguri	3327	1848	1929	1003	9379	2786	20272
12	University of Calabar, Calabar	2234	2790	2933	2213	7718	5361	23252
13	Usman Danfodiyo University, Sokoto	3797	1015	3813	809	8137	1706	18277
14	University of Port Harcourt Port Harcourt	4291	1773	6820	4203	7237	2608	26932
15	University of Uyo, Uyo	1227	1259	3501	3341	5314	4018	18660
16	University of Abuja, Abuja							
17	University of Agriculture, Abeokuta	0	0	0	-	3587	1191	4778
18	University of Agriculture, Umudike	0	0	0	-	1336	964	2300
19	Federal University of Technology, Owerri	0	0	0	-	10802	3246	14048
20	Abubakar Tafawa Balewa University, Bauchi	0	0	0	-	5349	1260	6609
21	Nigerian Defence Academy, Kaduna							
22	University of Agriculture, Makurdi	0	0	0	-	3730	933	4663
23	Federal University of Technology, Minna	0	0	0	-	6809	1584	8393

24	Federal University of Technology, Akure	0	0	0	-	6742	1249	7991
25	Federal University of Technology, Yola	0	0	1214	1214	7159	3068	11961
26	Imo State University, Owerri	1578	1870	3505	3505	2236	2650	15991
27	Ogun State University, Ago-Iwoye	1381	1798	2630	2630	1942	1687	11568
28	University of Ado-Ekiti, Ado-Ekiti	654	779	5017	5017	2311	1871	12535
29	Enugu State University, Enugu	948	1078	1718	2266	4685	2487	13182
30	Abia State University, Uturu	1064	1228	2308	2293	1903	1218	10014
31	Lagos State University, Lagos							
32	Ladoke Akintola University, Ogbomoso	0	0	0	0	7096	3617	10713
33	Benue State University, Makurdi	1129	703	1548	1548	515	262	4851
34	Delta State University, Abraka	929	1476	2491	12491	2474	2375	11967
35	Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma	2020	2469	2042	2042	3610	2407	15043
36	Rivers State University of Science and Tech., P.H	0	0	0	0	10395	7312	17707
37	Madonna University, Okija	35	65	87	147	166	135	635
38	Igbenedion University, Okada	58	122	150	127	275	295	1027
39	Badcock University Ilishan Remo							
40	Bowen University, Iwo	20	30	75	70	345	110	650

Source: NUC Statistics 2003

ANNEX XIV

**UME/DE APPLICATIONS AND ADMISSIONS,
BY FIELD OF STUDY AND GENDER.**

Faculty	Applications				Admissions			
	Male	Female	Total	% Female	Male	Female	Total	% Female
Administration	110,558	106,861	217,419	49	7,728	7,050	14,778	48
Agriculture	3,848	2,680	6,528	41	2,300	1,614	3,914	41
Arts	12,712	23,791	36,503	65	4,540	5,043	9,583	53
Education	8,993	10,279	19,272	53	6,010	6,107	12,117	50
Engineering/ environmental	121,931	16,852	138,756	12	13,591	2,647	16,166	16
Law	42,557	39,503	82,090	48	2,326	1,663	3,989	42
Medical science	65,798	59,449	125,247	47	2,974	2,005	4,979	40
Sciences	25,018	20,725	45,743	45	9,728	5,965	15,693	38
Social Sciences	102,556	67,958	170,514	40	8,868	5,112	13,980	37

Source: JAMB Annual report 2001, p.68

ANNEX XV

MEMBERS OF THE ESSR REFERENCE COMMITTEE

S/N	NAME	STATUS/AFFILIATION
1.	Mr. G.O. E nukora	Chairman, ESSR Steering Committee
2.	Dr. (Mrs) R.A. Ukpong	Member, ESSR Steering Committee
3.	Dr. Rosemary Nwangwu	Member, ESSR Steering Committee
4.	Dr. Don Taylor	Member, ESSR Steering Committee
5.	Dr. Brigitte Duces	Member, ESSR Steering Committee
6.	Dr. James Urwick	Consultant (via DFID, UK)
7.	Mr. Hubert Charles	Member, ESSR Steering Committee
8.	Mr. E.J. Okon	Member, ESSR Steering Committee
9.	Mr. A.I. Ali	Member, ESSR Steering Committee
10.	Professor Peter Williams	Consultant (via DFID, UK)
11.	Mr. Emma Kalu	Secretary, ESSR Steering Committee
12.	Professor Peter Okebukola	NUC, Abuja
13.	Dr. Isyaku Kabiru	NCCE, Abuja
14.	Dr. (Engr.) Nuru Yakubu	NBTE, Kaduna
15.	Dr. Ahmed Oyinlola	NMEC, Abuja
16.	Professor Taiwo Ajayi	NIEPA, Ondo
17.	(Mrs.) Nafisat Mohammed	NCNE, Kaduna
18.	Mr. Mustapha Jaji	ETF, Abuja
19.	Mrs. Amina Ibrahim	EFA, Abuja
20.	Mrs. Mariam Katagum	NATCOM, FME, Abuja
21.	Professor Sam Ale	NMC, Sheda, Abuja
22.	Mr. George Igelegbai	UNICEF, Abuja
23.	Professor M.J. Shuaibu	UNICEF, Abuja
24.	Mr. Dennis C.U. Okoro	Consultant, Lagos
25.	Mr. Tunji Olaopa	OHOS, Abuja
26.	Professor David Anawambor	NABTEB, Benin
27.	Dr. (Mrs) G.A.E. Makoju	ESA, FME, Abuja
28.	Chief (Mrs) B.C. Braimah	NCE/JCC, FME, Abuja
29.	Professor Gidado Tahir	UBEC, Abuja
30.	Dr. Mohammed Modibo	NTI, Kaduna
31.	Professor (Mrs.) E. J. Maduewesi	NERDC, Sheda, Abuja
32.	Alhaji Abubakar Abdullahi	DPRS, FME, Abuja
33.	Dr. U.B. Ahmed	DPSE, FME, Abuja
34.	Alhaji I.K. Zaifada	DTSE, FME, Abuja
35.	Alhaji G.S. Kuta	DFI, FME, Abuja
36.	Dr. Peter Abdu	DHE, FME, Abuja
37.	Dr. B. Ibe	DA, FME, Abuja
38.	Alhaji Y. Gulma	DFA, FME, Abuja
39.	Dr. S.A.B. Atolagbe	DESS, FME, Abuja

40.	Dr. Sandy Ojikutu	USAID, Abuja
41.	Professor Bello Salim	JAMB, Bwari, Abuja
42.	Professor Dibu Ojeride	NECO, Minna
43.	Professor Olu Jegede	NOUN, Abuja
44.	Dr. A.M. Fagbulu	ESA/EMIS, Abuja
45.	Tom Maiyashi	CSACEFA, Abuja
46.	Mr. M.K. Ayandele	JICA, Abuja
47.	CEO/Chairman	National Population Commission, Abuja
48.	Executive Secretary	National Manpower Board, Abuja
49.	The CEO	Federal Office of Statistics, Abuja
50.	Mr. A.O. Oloyede	Head of National Office, WAEC, Lagos
51.	Mr. Lanre Fagbohun	EDB, FME, Abuja
52.	Dr. Tunde Adekola	World Bank, Abuja

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