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Accelerating Progress to 2015

Nigeria

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Global Education First Initiative

The UN Secretary-General's Global Initiative on Education

Good Planet Foundation

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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The report was written by Liesbet Steer (Center for Universal Education at the Brookings Institution), Emily Gustafsson-Wright (Center for Universal Education at the Brookings Institution) and Vy T. Nguyen (World Bank), with input from Abdalla Uba Adamu (Bayero University, Nigeria). Lauren Lichtman and Hina Baloch provided substantial research support.

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The report builds on contributions of many stakeholders, but the findings, interpretations, and conclusions expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of all the contributors or their institutions or governments they represent.

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Foreword by Gordon Brown © 2013

FOREWORD

Gordon Brown, UN Special Envoy for Global Education

Thirteen years ago the international community came together and made a commitment, through the Millennium Development Goals and Education for All, to achieve universal education. While we have made significant progress by securing education for over 40 million more children, we have an unfinished agenda. There are still 61 million children that do not go to school and 250 million children who cannot read. The statistics for youth at the secondary level are even more shocking—especially for girls.

Now, fewer than 1,000 days from our deadline, the clock is ticking. And thanks to the leadership of the United Nations Secretary-General and his Global Education First Initiative, focusing on access, quality and global citizenship, the wheels of progress are in motion. By convening the global community to focus on the goal of quality, relevant and inclusive education for all children and youth, the Secretary-General is inspiring action in all corners of the globe. His initiative acknowledges that if we are to hold true to our commitment of ensuring every child in every marginalized slum or forgotten village has access to education, we must take action.

President Jim Kim of the World Bank is focused on solutions for our global challenges as evidenced by his path-breaking speech on April 2nd of this year on the post-2015 Millennium Development Goals and his commitment to abolish extreme poverty and work for shared prosperity. His leadership in convening the *Learning for All Ministerial* meetings represents an unprecedented turning point for global education.

Both the Secretary-General and President Kim are providing an opportunity for collective partnership between the international community and countries themselves to address the critical bottlenecks that are holding us back by creating a set of action plans with concrete outcomes. Their leadership has inspired the participation of ministers of finance and education from eight countries, representing nearly half of the world's out of school population, and leaders from partner governments, international institutions and civil society. Other countries will come before a set of meetings in September of this year.

In preparation for the ministerial meeting, we have commissioned reports on the eight participating countries so that our time together would be spent realizing the vision of the Secretary-General's Global Education First Initiative and discussing what will be done. I am grateful to the Global Partnership for Education and the Center for Universal Education at the Brookings Institution for their major contributions to this exercise and to the support of international development partners in every continent.

The proposals in this report represent a snapshot of the ongoing conversations within countries and with the international community. Considered a "living document," the working paper on Nigeria is an initial set of proposals to accelerate progress on education.

Based on the recommendations in this report and in collaboration with the respective government, international institutions and civil society during the *Learning for All Ministerial* meetings, we have an opportunity to change the course of history and deliver meaningful change to children across the globe.

When you read this report you will see glossy pages, graphs, charts and statistics. While the data is critical, I implore you to take a moment to think about the stories that the statistics represent. They represent the young girl, rising-up against the cultural norm of early marriage in hopes of realizing her dreams. They represent the young boy, struggling to realize his potential, studying under a tree. They represent a child with disabilities, with all of the talents and aspirations to be a world leader. They represent the hopes and dreams that are the right of every human being.

Past generations have developed only some of the potential of some of our children. We can be the first generation to realize all of the potential of all of the world's young people through education. I hope that the ideas brought together through global consultations and synthesized in this report can guide our discussions in realizing the vision of the Secretary-General and the leadership of President Kim aimed at creating a world in school and learning by 2015.

ACRONYMS

CCT	conditional cash transfer
CRF	Consolidated Revenue Fund
DfID	UK Department for International Development
ECD	early childhood development
ESSPIN	Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria
FCT	Federal Capital Territory
FME	Federal Ministry of Education
FRA	Fiscal Responsibility Act
LGA	local government area
MDG	UN Millennium Development Goals
PPA	Public Procurement Act
SBMC	school-based management committee
SEPIP	State Education Program Investment Project
SMoE	State Ministry of Education
SUBEBs	state universal basic education boards
UBE	universal basic education
UBEC	Universal Basic Education Commission
UIS	UNESCO Institute of Statistics
USAID	US Agency for International Development

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Nigeria, a country rich in natural resources, has experienced robust economic growth since 2001. However, the degree to which this economic achievement has had an impact on progress in human development has been low. More than two-thirds of Nigeria's citizens are living in poverty, and their life expectancy stands at just 52 years. Literacy rates are very low, at 61 percent for adults. Nigeria's greatest challenge is to translate its economic wealth into improvements in general living standards and quality of life. The government has recognized this and has put this task at the core of the country's 20:2020 Vision for transformation.

Education is at the center of this transformation challenge. This paper highlights some of the critical barriers that need to be tackled to make progress toward achieving universal basic education, and it proposes some concrete solutions to make further progress. These proposals are in line with the government's own efforts and policies during recent years to promote education and literacy in Nigeria, with a focus on girls and underserved populations.

The key indicators are sobering. Today, about 42 percent of primary-school-age children, or roughly 10.5 million, are out of school. Ninety percent of these out-of-school children never attended school. Net and gross enrollment rates have also worsened in recent years. Huge geographical disparities exist; the percentage of children out of school in the Northeast is 30 times greater than the percentage in the Southeast. In addition, delayed entry into primary school results in delayed graduation—on average only 37 percent of students finish primary school at the official primary-school-graduating age of 11. Children who are in school are struggling to learn basic literacy and numeracy skills. Again, children are much worse off in the North, where more than two-thirds of children who have completed sixth grade are unable to read.

In a country as large and diverse as Nigeria, the obstacles to achieving universal basic education are numerous and complex, and cannot be viewed in isolation. With high levels of poverty and significant opportunity costs, many families are unable to afford sending their children to school. Other barriers, including religious beliefs and cultural norms, have prevented many girls from attending school, in particular in the country's North. Early marriage and subsequent teenage pregnancies have adversely affected attendance, retention, and achievement in schools. The sector has also struggled with challenging supply-side constraints. Insufficient and ill-maintained school infrastructure, and a lack of appropriate teaching materials and qualified teachers at the primary and pre-primary levels, have contributed to the low education outcomes. These constraints are highly related to broader institutional and financial challenges. The complexity of the overcentralized institutional structure, lack of minimum standards, limited autonomy and accountability at the school level, and inadequate overall monitoring of service delivery and out-

comes have been at the heart of Nigeria's education crisis. In addition to these problems, a rapidly rising population will put increasing pressure on all sectors, including the education sector, in coming years. Addressing these complex and interrelated challenges will require comprehensive reforms, many of which are already being developed and implemented and go beyond the scope of this paper. This paper aims to add value to these ongoing efforts by setting out a number of concrete proposals that could offer tangible gains for Nigeria's children. The paper and its proposals are intended to provide background for the Learning for All Ministerial Meeting scheduled for April 17-18. It should be emphasized that the proposals are not intended as a comprehensive response to the wide range of development needs of the Nigerian education sector. The objective, set out in the terms of reference for the Ministerial Meeting, is to identify a small number of areas in which strengthened cooperation and action might add value to current efforts of the government and donor agencies.

The proposals present a set of actions aimed at addressing critical supply-side shortages and demand-side barriers, with a particular focus on the country's North:

- Improving the quality of education through the provision of teacher training and materials for early childhood development, local language, primary-level science and mathematics instruction;
- Addressing regional disparities through school grants and cash transfers in six Northern states; and
- Improving governance and increase accountability through school-based management committees.

If successfully implemented, the proposals collectively could have the effect of:

- Addressing shortages in teachers and training materials in 14 states;
- Encouraging school attendance by 900,000 girls and improving the quality of education in 9,500 schools across six states; and
- Strengthening governance and accountability in schools across 15 states.

The total estimated cost of these programs is $199.4 million per year for three years. These programs could in large part be financed by the government, if there could be some reallocation of funds. Additional funding from donors may be necessary.

1. Progress toward Education for All

Despite a plethora of natural and human resources, relatively strong growth, and its ranking as a middle-income country, Nigeria has struggled to make progress on key development indicators. About 68 percent of Nigerians are living in poverty (below $1.25 daily) (World Bank 2012c), while adult illiteracy rates for adults (both sexes) is approximately 61 percent (World Bank 2012b). Nigeria is also currently failing to provide education to many of its primary-school-age children.

The country's own Vision 20:2020 aims to transform Nigeria's economy and place it in the top 20 global economies by 2020. A Seven-Point Agenda and the Vision 20:2020 National Development Plan provide the framework for reforms, including those fundamental to human capacity building. The government's plan for human capacity building recognizes that "the provision of health, education and functional social safety nets are absolutely essential to achieving desirable human capital outcomes" (Nigeria 2008). The current government policy in education revolves around a 10-year Strategic Plan by the Federal Ministry of Education (FME) as well as the National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy, which aims to overhaul the entire education sector and to promote good-quality education for life (World Bank 2013).

1.1 Nigeria Education Reform and National Education Policy

Since independence, the Nigerian education system has undergone a range of reforms. Through its National Policy on Education, which was first introduced in 1977 and was last updated in 2004, the government has tried to transform the education system from its British Colonial structure to a structure that is more relevant to the culture and life of the Nigerians, and in line with its development aspirations expressed in Vision 20:2020. The policy includes four key objectives: (1) providing universal access to basic education, (2) expanding the provision of publicly financed secondary and tertiary education, (3) outlining national language policy and (4) building national capacity in science and technology. It stipulates a 6-3/3-4 structure that offers nine years of basic compulsory education, including six years of primary education and three years of junior secondary education (FME 2004).

The FME's most recent four-year strategic plan for the development of the education sector from 2011 to 2015 aims to strengthen the sector by focusing on six areas: (1) the institutional management of education; (2) access and equity; (3) standard and quality assurance; (4) teacher education and development; (5) technical and vocational education and training; and (6) funding, partnerships, and resource mobilization (FME 2012). The recommendations set out in this paper are consistent with these aims.

A key policy initiative focused on basic education is the Universal Basic Education Policy. This policy was passed in 2004 following the establishment of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) Program in 2000. While the UBE policy preserves the constitutional responsibilities of states and local government to finance and manage basic education, it expands the roles, responsibilities, and investment of the federal government in basic education. The general objective of the UBE policy is "to eradicate illiteracy, ignorance, and poverty as well as stimulate and accelerate national development, political consciousness, and national integration"(UBEC 2012). In particular, the policy seeks to provide nine years of free, compulsory basic education to all Nigerian children by 2015. The program also aims to provide skills for out-of-school youths, literacy for adults, and education for disadvantaged groups such as girls and nomadic populations.

The Nigerian education system is decentralized under a federal structure, and public education is a simultaneous responsibility of the federal, state, and local governments, with a fast-growing private sector. The federal government plays a dominant role in the provision of tertiary education; state governments provide mainly secondary and regionally focused tertiary education; and local governments provide basic education. At both the federal and state levels, a large collection of parastatals are responsible for the implementation of education policies.

The Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) is the federal government's agency responsible for the coordination of all aspects of UBE's implementation. The UBEC manages the Intervention Fund, which contains 2 percent of the government's Consolidated Revenue Fund, and is the primary source of federal funding for education. At the state level, the UBEC is represented by the state universal basic education boards (SUBEBs), which manage most nonsalary education spending. The SUBEBs, together with the State Ministry of Education and a number of implementing agencies, form the state-level education system. At the local level, local government education authorities are the key players in education inputs and outcomes.

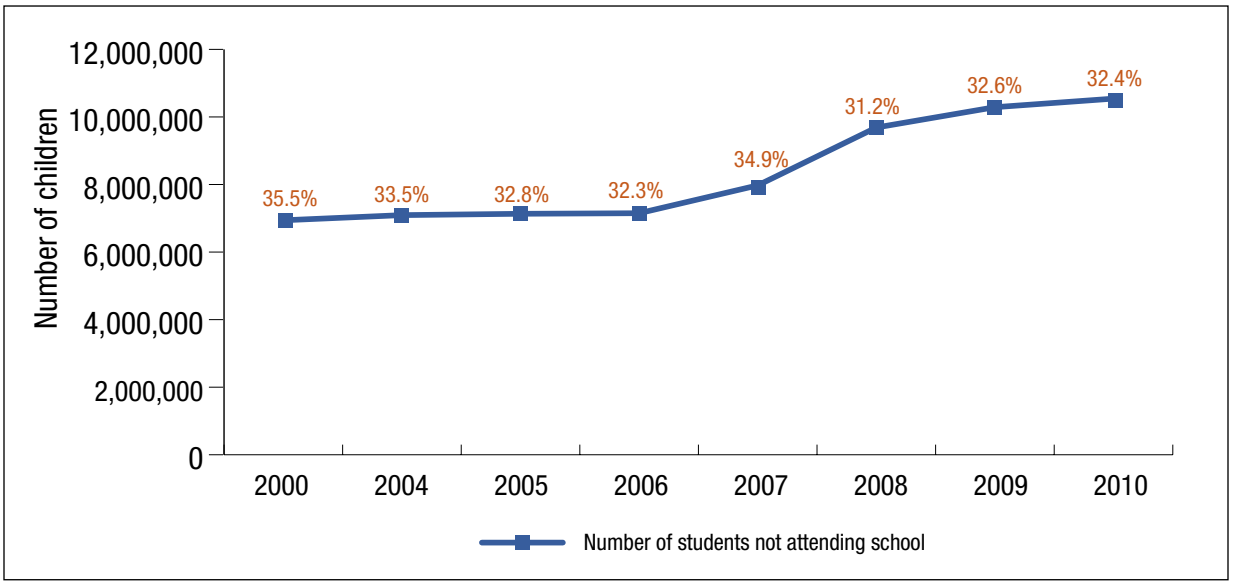
Funds for education come from a variety of sources. The main federal development fund in support of the UBE program is the FGN-UBE Intervention Fund. This fund, managed by the UBEC, allocates funds for teachers' professional development, the provision of materials, UBE implementation and monitoring, special needs education, and infrastructure through matching grants. The Virtual Poverty Fund, created from money saved through the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Initiative, also provides substantial funding for education. Federal transfers for basic education are allocated to local government areas (LGAs), which are responsible for basic education delivery, and could in principle supplement with local resources. However, few local governments have additional resources for the education sector (World Bank 2008). The sector is also supported by a number of international donors. The main partners are the UK Department for International Development (DFID), the Japan International Cooperation Agency, UNESCO, UNICEF, the US Agency for International Development (USAID), and the World Bank. The China International Development Agency and Korean International Cooperation Agency have also provided some support.

1.2 A Large and Increasing Out-of-School Population

Despite its national objective to provide free and compulsory basic education to all children, Nigeria has one of the largest out-of-school populations in the world. About 10.5 million primary school children are out of school (about 42 percent of the primary-age population) (UIS estimate, 2010). Moreover, the trends are not promising. Net enrollment rates worsened over the past 10 years, from 61.3 percent in 1999 to 57.6 percent in 2010 (see figure 1). Similarly, after an initial improvement from 84.2 percent to 102.6 percent, the gross enrollment rate declined to 83.3 percent in 2010 (World Bank 2013). The reasons for this decline are being debated.[1] One report suggests it may be explained by the prolonged mass teachers strike in 2007 and the discontinuance of the Home Grown School Feeding (HGSF) in a majority of states, discouraging enrollment (NPCN] & RTI International 2011). Others have argued that the worsening outcomes can be attributed to governance issues including the creation of UBE in 2004 which expanded the role of the federal government in primary education (Arong & Agdabu 2010). Finally, it is also plausible that the decline could be due to data availability or differences in measurement of enrollment over time.

A slight improvement has been recorded in children's attendance of pre-primary education. Children age 4–16 who attended pre-primary school as a proportion of those ever been to school increased from 30 percent in 2004 to 40 percent in 2010 (RTI International & USAID 2011). Despite this slightly positive trend however, the pre-primary enrollment ratios for 4- to 5-year-olds remain low, at a net of 34 percent and a gross of 51 percent (World Bank 2013, using Nigeria Education Data Survey 2010).

FIGURE 1. OUT-OF-SCHOOL PRIMARY-SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN, 2000–10



Source: UIS February 2012

1.3 Overlapping Regional and Gender Disparities

School access rates show major disparities across geographical regions. Primary-school-age children from the North are considerably less likely to attend school than those from the South (table 1). In the Northeast, for example, 37 percent of girls and 30 percent of boys of primary school age are out of school. In contrast, only 1.6 percent of girls and 0.5 percent boys of primary school age are out of school in the Southeast.[2] Within the Northern region, disparities also exist between urban and rural areas. Children in rural areas are much less likely to attend school than those in urban areas (World Bank 2013). Some states in the North perform much better than others, however. Within the Northwest, primary net enrollment rates range between 18 percent in Zamfara State and 69 percent in Kaduna State. The latter is almost at par with the Oyo state in the high- performing Southwest (70 percent).

TABLE 1. PERCENTAGE OF OUT OF SCHOOL CHILDREN IN NIGERIA BY STATE, 2011

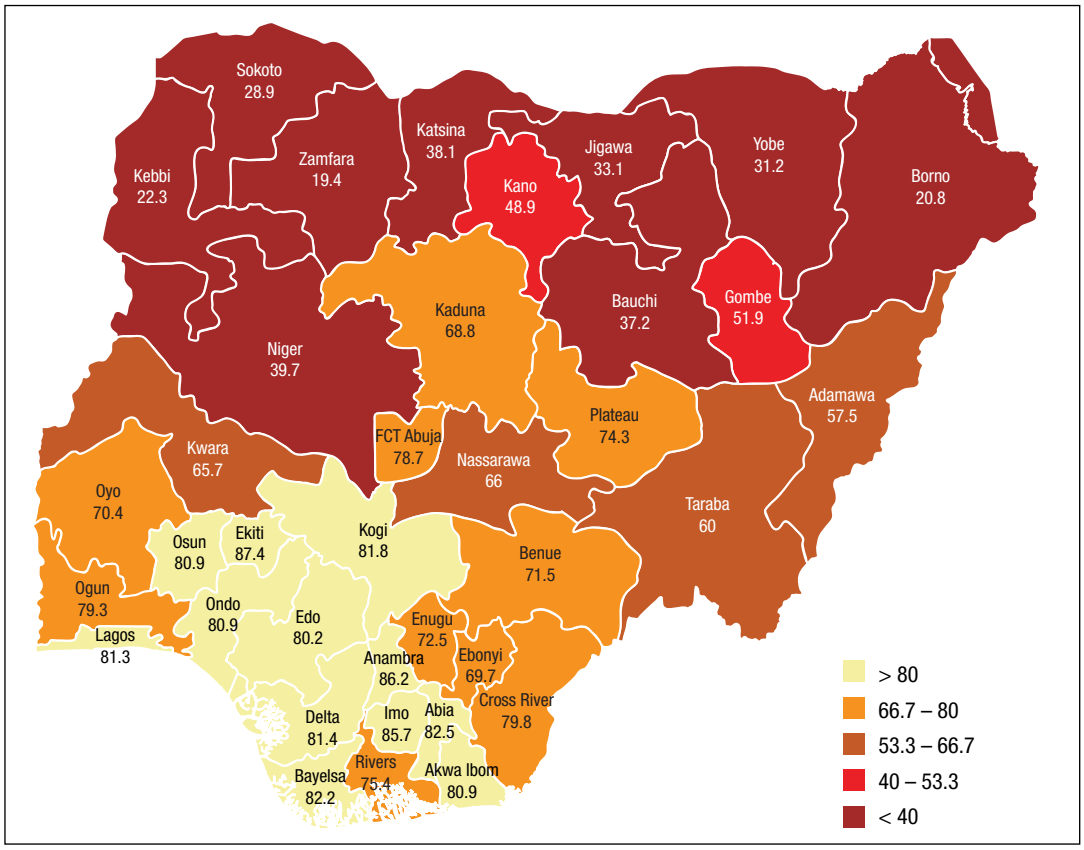
Northern Nigeria		
Geog. Zone/State	Primary	Junior Secondary
North-Central		
Benue	19.0	11.7
Kwara	23.0	6.9
Kogi	8.6	29.2
Nasarawa	22.7	18.1
Niger	50.0	52.3
Plateau	14.5	15.3
Northeast		
Adamawa	32.9	30.0
Bauchi	58.2	65.4
Borno	73.4	69.4
Gombe	38.6	41.3
Taraba	31.9	27.2
Yobe	63.5	64.3
Northwest		
Jigawa	61.6	64.5
Kaduna	23.2	22.3
Kano	40.0	44.3
Katsina	55.1	63.9
Kebbi	69.1	67.6
Sokoto	65.3	68.9
Zamfara	76.2	65.5

Southern Nigeria		
Geog. Zone/State	Primary	Junior Secondary
Southeast		
Abia	5.9	2.7
Anambra	3.9	3.7
Ebonyi	18.0	4.7
Enugu	14.6	7.9
Imo	4.8	3.2
South South		
Akwa Ibom	7.3	6.5
Bayelsa State	8.4	3.4
Cross Rivers	9.5	8.3
Delta	8.6	6.5
Edo	6.9	4.4
Rivers	12.6	7.2
Southwest		
Ekiti	2.9	2.9
Lagos	4.3	6.3
Ogun	4.3	6.3
Ondo	6.0	2.4
Osun	7.5	3.3
Oyo	23.3	18.2

Source: UNICEF 2011

The disparity between the North and South for pre-primary education is even more substantial: the average pre-primary net enrollment rates among children of age 4 and 5 are only 7 percent in the Northwest and 9 percent in the Northeast, compared with an average of 72 percent in the Southeast. For example, in the Northern state of Sokoto, only 1 in 100 children are enrolled in pre-primary school. While Kaduna and Taraba have better gross enrollment rates (31 and 48 percent), the net enrollment rates among children age 4 and 5 stand at only about 20 percent (figure 2).

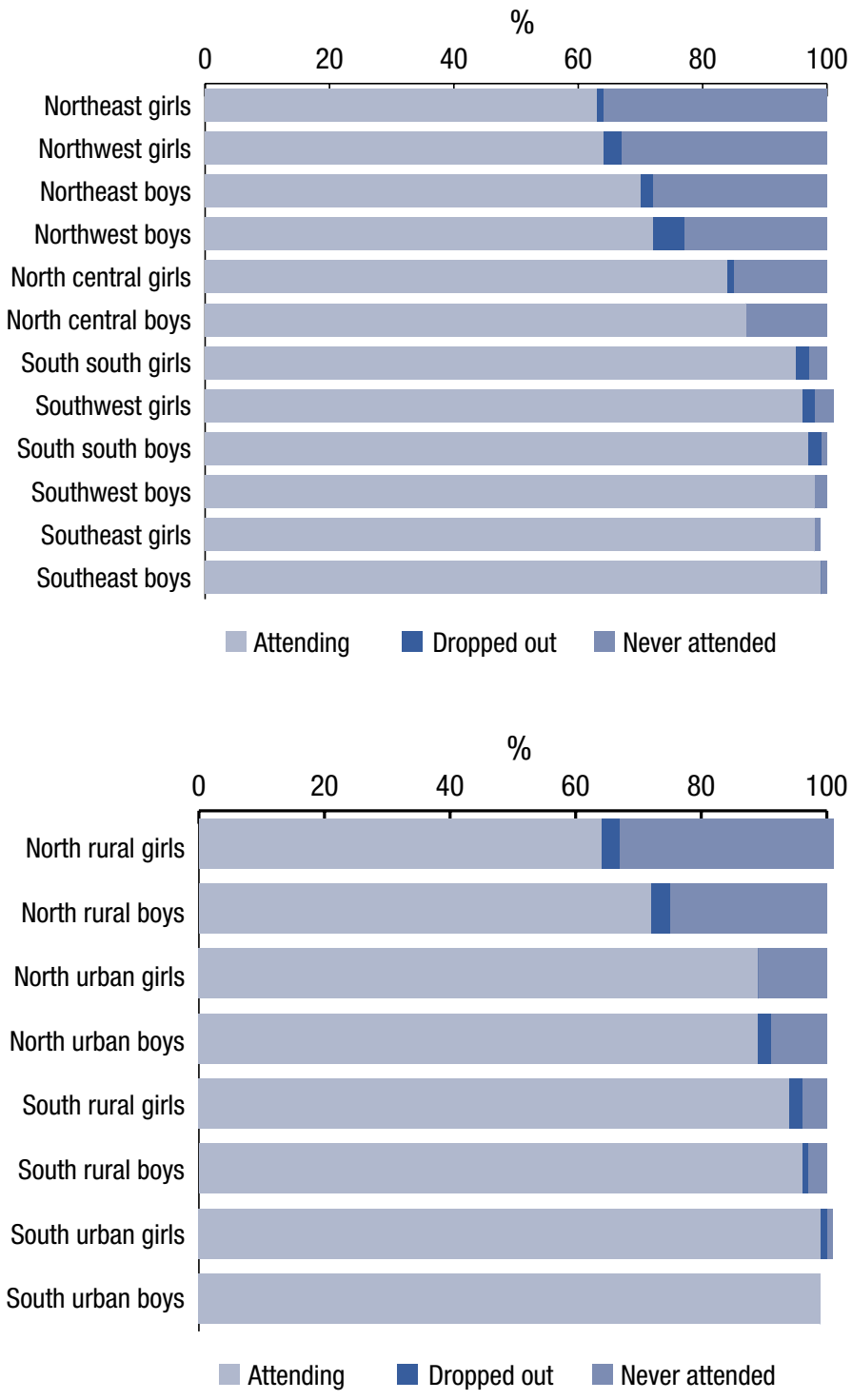
Figure 2. Primary Net Enrollment Rate by State, 2010 (percent)



Source: NPCN & RTI International 2011

Regional disparities are further exacerbated by overlapping gender disparities. The Gender Parity Index improved from 0.84 to 0.91 between 2000 and 2010 (UN Statistics Division 2012). In 2010, 55 percent of girls were enrolled in primary school, compared with 60 percent of boys (2010 UIS data). However, gender disparities are almost exclusively concentrated in the rural North. About 34 percent of primary-age rural girls do not attend school in the rural North, compared with 25 percent of boys. In contrast, only 4 percent of girls and 3 percent of boys from Southern rural areas, and less than 1 percent of boys and girls from Southern urban areas are out of school (figure 3).[3]

FIGURE 3. SCHOOLING STATUS BY REGION AND URBAN/RURAL, BOYS AND GIRLS AGE 6–11, 2010–11



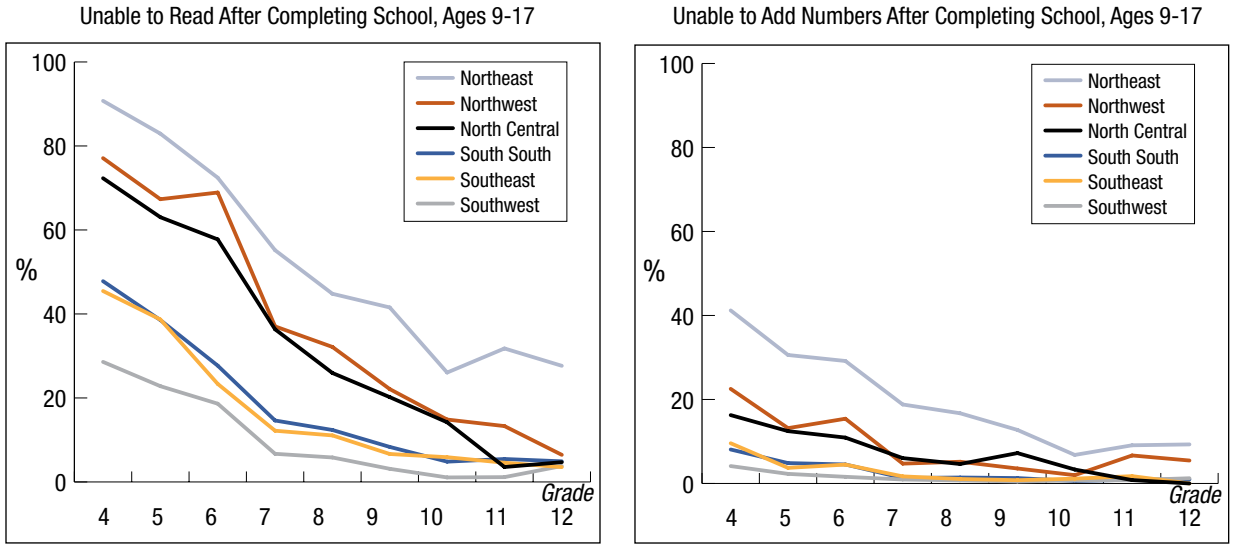
Source: World Bank 2013

1.4 Poor Quality of Education

Learning outcomes, in particular literacy and numeracy, are very unsatisfactory.[4] Three out of five students who have completed grade 4 and 44 percent of students who have completed grade 6 are not able to read a complete sentence in English or in their preferred language.[5] Students perform slightly better in numeracy, measured by a simple test of adding numbers (see figure 4). About 10 percent of students cannot add numbers at the end of primary school. An analysis based on the 2010 Nigeria Education Data Survey shows that a significant number of students in Nigeria take 10 or more years of schooling to master the basic competencies of reading, writing, and numeracy.

Learning outcomes are particularly bad in the North, where more than two-thirds of students who have completed grade 6 remain illiterate. This proportion is even higher in the Northeast, where 72 percent of students who have completed primary school in grade 6 are unable to read. In the South, this proportion ranges between 18 and 28 percent in grade 6. Geographical disparities are similarly wide in numeracy outcomes. The worst-performing geographical zone is again the Northeast, where about 29 percent of students unable to do a simple addition problem when finishing primary school, compared with only 2 percent in the Southwest. It takes up to grade 10 for all students in the Northeast to grasp basic numeracy skills, whereas all students in the South are able to add numbers correctly by grade 5.

Figure 4. Many Children are Unable to Read and Add Numbers after Completing School, 2010



Note: All estimates are weighted, and the population includes age 9-17
Source: World Bank 2013, using 2010 Nigeria Education Data Survey

1.5 Repetition, Dropout, Completion and Transition Rates

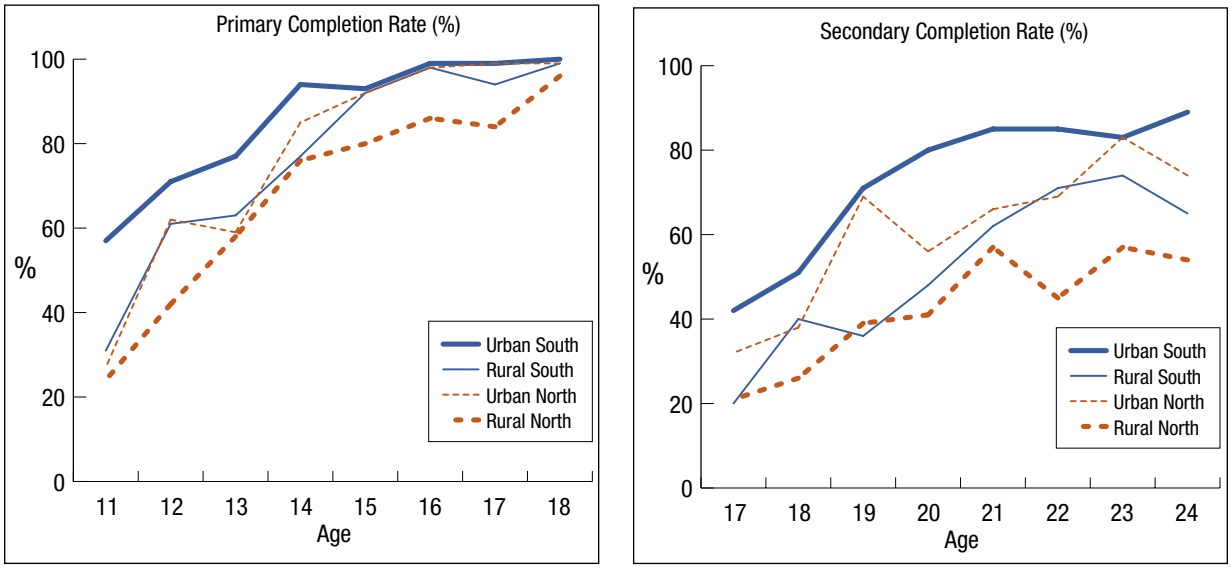
Nigeria's large out-of-school population and disappointing learning outcomes likely do not stem from high drop-out and repetition within school cycles. In fact, about 90 percent of out-of-school primary-age children in Nigeria never attended school (World Bank 2013). For those who are in school, the dropout

and repetition rates are relatively low. In 2008–09, the highest repetition rate recorded was only 2.8 percent in grade 6. Similarly, fewer than 1 percent of children dropped out between grades 1 and 5. Dropout rates were higher at 11 percent, in grade 6. These relatively low rates are likely due to automatic promotion within each school cycle. Many students, especially in the rural North, do not complete primary school on time. On average in the country, only 37 percent of students finish primary school at the official primary-school-graduating age of 11 (World Bank 2013). The delay in graduation from primary school is more likely due to late entrance into school, which is an acute issue in Nigeria. Overall, about 17 percent of primary school students are over the official age. About 32 percent of students enrolled in grade 1 are older than the official starting age of 6 years old. Many children do not enroll in school until age 10. Late school entry is particularly prevalent among poor children and girls. Less than 50 percent of the poorest girls are enrolled in school at age 6. A large proportion of primary-school-age children start pre-primary school instead of beginning primary school (World Bank 2013).

The relatively low repetition and drop out on the national level conceal huge regional disparities. Between 13 and 19 percent of children in the North dropped out at the end of primary school, which is twice or three times the percentage in the South. Similarly, 13 percent of children in rural areas dropped out in grade 6, compared with only 8 percent in urban areas. Disparities also exist in completion rates. In the urban South, 57 percent of students completed primary school, while completion rates in other regions ranged between 24 and 31 percent.[6] The rural North has persistently lower completion rates than any other region (World Bank 2013) (figure 5).

Progression to the next education level is also a challenge. In fact, among grade 6 students, only 53 percent transitioned to secondary school. The secondary completion rate is even lower. A high percentage of students never finish secondary school and only 29 percent of those who started school graduated secondary school at the official graduating age of 17 years old. Even if there is a delay up to age 24, only 75 percent finish secondary school and the remaining 25 percent never finish secondary school.

Figure 5. School Completion Rates by Age, 2010–11



Source: World Bank 2013 using Nigeria General Household Survey 2010-11

2. Key Obstacles to Achieving Basic Education for All

In a country as large and diverse as Nigeria, the obstacles to achieving the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for education are numerous and complex. Factors limiting Nigeria's educational outcomes include household poverty and economic issues, sociocultural biases, poor infrastructure and a lack of qualified teachers, financing constraints, and weak governance and accountability.

2.1 Poverty and Economic Constraints

Despite Nigeria's policy, free basic education is not a reality in Nigeria, and poverty remains one of the key constraints to progress in improving access to basic education. The costs for school-including direct costs, such as fees, uniforms, textbooks; and indirect costs, as a result of the loss of children's time for work-impact the age of primary enrollment, attendance and completion. In an econometric analysis using the 2004 Nigeria EdData Survey and Demographic Health Survey, poverty was found to have a large and statistically significant negative effect on children's school attendance, even after accounting for child, family characteristics, and distance to school (Lincove 2009). Despite the fact that tuition fees were abolished, 10 percent of parents reported paying some form of fee in 2010. About 57 percent of parents also reported paying a compulsory parent-teacher association fee, and a further 40 percent had to pay exam fees (NPCN & RTI International 2011). These costs can be significant. For example, sending three children to a slum school in Lagos equates to 46 percent of the minimum wage (Härmä 2011).

Poverty also affects families' ability to invest in early childhood education, which in turn has an impact on age of entry into primary school and learning outcomes.[7] The government only funds 10 percent of existing early childhood education centers in Nigeria, while parents and other private entities are the largest contributors to this sector (Ajayi 2008). Adequate public funding of early childhood education sector, and supervision of private preprimary institutions, is a major challenge.

Poverty constraints interact with other factors. For example, the decision to pay school fees is strongly influenced by gender. Girls' schooling depends on family income to a greater extent than does boys' schooling, with an income elasticity of 9 compared with 6.4 for boys. This implies that when parents face budget constraints, girls are less likely than their male siblings to attend school. Their education is also hindered by the need to provide care for infant siblings or work on a farm, but encouraged by having school-age siblings (Lincove 2009).

Poor nutrition (related to poverty and lack of mothers' education) also drives poor schooling outcomes.[8] Malnutrition is a serious problem in Nigeria. According to the 2008 Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey, 23 percent of children were underweight, 41 percent were stunted (suffering from chronic malnutrition), and 14 percent were wasted (suffering from acute recent malnutrition).[9] In spite of improvements in the 1990s, child malnutrition has not showed appreciable changes recently. Discrepancies between wealth groups have become larger, and geographic inequalities have also increased. Rural children are more exposed to malnutrition than urban children, and these geographic inequities have increased slightly over time (except for wasting). Gender disparities are limited in malnutrition, although boys are slightly disadvantaged in comparison with girls (Viridiana 2012).

2.2 Cultural, Religious, and Gender Biases

In addition to economic constraints, cultural, religious, and gender-specific barriers affect demand for and access to education in Nigeria. These biases tend to lead to parents to enroll boys instead of or before girls. Barriers related to religious beliefs and traditional practices are particularly severe in the North (UNICEF n.d.). Girls in the North marry (for the first time) about four years earlier, at age 16, than their Southern counterparts. Girls in rural areas are also more likely to marry early than girls in urban areas (Action Health Incorporated 2011). Early marriage and pregnancy have a significant impact on girls' attendance, retention, and achievement in schools. This problem is further exacerbated when girls start school late and reach the age of marriage before completing the basic education cycle. Among girls age 15 to 19, only 2 percent of those married were in school, compared with 69 percent of unmarried girls (Brown 2012).

Further barriers related to gender include gender bias in content and also teaching and learning processes in schools. Many parents are reluctant to send their female children to schools that are far from their homes due to fears of child kidnapping and sexual assault. Increasing security challenges are consistently identified as an obstacle to girls' participation in education. In the recent years, militancy in the Niger Delta and insurgency in the North of Nigeria have created a security challenge because schools have been targets of insurgents (Tolulope 2012).

2.3 Inadequate School Infrastructure, Teaching Materials, and Poorly Qualified Teachers

Access and quality of schooling is also affected by a range of supply-side constraints including inadequate school infrastructure, teaching tools and qualified teachers. The availability of and distance to primary schools has a negative effect on school enrollment in Nigeria (Lincove 2009). The national pupil/class ratio in primary classes was 49:1 and 62:1 at the junior secondary level in 2009, much higher than the recommended 35:1. Classes were found to be especially large in the North where the average class size is 56 students, almost twice as many as an average classroom in the South. Classrooms in early childhood development (ECD) centers are also crowded, with an average of more than 130 pupils per classroom in the North. Moreover, even when schools are available they are often physically unsafe; and water, health, and sanitation facilities are inadequate, further discouraging attendance (UBEC 2009). The ratio of pupils

to good classrooms was found to be 109:1 at the primary level and 125:1 at the junior secondary level. The government estimates a shortfall in classrooms for early childhood education of 90 percent, primary education of 60 percent, and junior secondary education of 67 percent (table 2). The 2008 Education Public Expenditure Review shows that about half of primary schools require major rehabilitation (World Bank 2008).

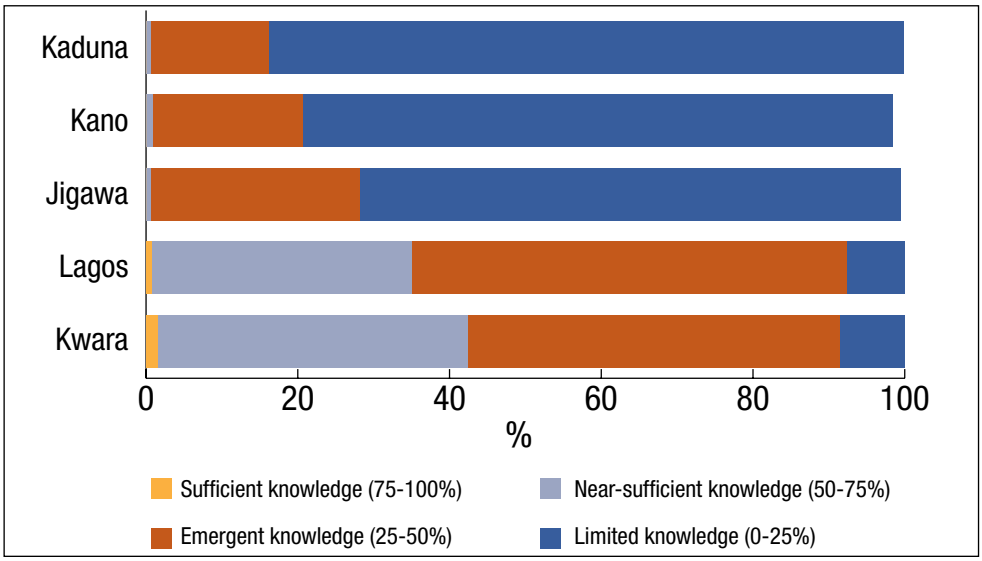
Table 2. Shortfall in Classrooms/Facilities

School Level	Classrooms				
	Required	Existing	%	Shortfall	%
Early childhood education	525,000	50,576	9.63	474,424	90.37
Primary	872,971	359,625	41.19	523,346	59.95
Junior secondary	252,312	81,670	32.37	170,642	67.63
Senior secondary	130,755	98,078	75.01	32,677	24.90

Source: Digest of Education Statistics, Nigeria, 2006–10

The lack of and poor quality of teachers seriously hinder students' enrollment and learning. Teacher/student ratios per pupil stood at 36:1 at the primary level in 2010 (World Bank 2012d). In addition, estimates from the UBEC in 2009–10 indicate that only 60 percent of primary school teachers are qualified.[10] The lack of teachers is particularly acute in the Northwest and Northeast, where only 50 and 53 percent of teachers were qualified. The Southwest has close to 100 percent qualified teachers. But even teachers with qualifications do not have the adequate professional knowledge and competency to teach. A teacher assessment conducted in five states in 2010 illustrates that the majority of qualified teachers had only limited (0–25 percent) or emergent (25–50 percent) professional working knowledge. Again significant geographical disparities were found. As shown in figure 6, teacher knowledge was much higher in Lagos and Kwara in the South than in Kaduna, Kano, and Jigawa in the North (ESSPIN & UKAid 2010a).

Figure 6. ESSPIN Teacher Knowledge Assessment Results, 2010



Source: ESSPIN & UKAid 2010a

Students and teachers do not have adequate educational tools. About 80 percent or more of students in Nigeria do not have a textbook for a subject, about 60 percent of primary students do not have a mathematics or English textbook, and materials in languages other than English are scarce. There is similarly a dearth of instructional materials for teachers; fewer than 15 percent of teachers in Kaduna, Kwara, and Lagos have a teacher guide, and the situation is even worse in Jigawa and Kano (UBEC 2009).

Additional pressure will be placed on the education system with a rapidly rising population (2.6 percent annual growth rate) and with 44 percent of the population being under the age of 15.[11] By 2050, the global Population Reference Bureau projects that it will be the world's fourth-most-populous country, with 400 million people—slightly less than the projected figure for the United States, but with only a tenth of its territory. This rate of population growth translates into about 11,000 babies born every day. These children will need schools, materials, and qualified teachers from a system that is already deficient.

2.4 Financing Constraints in the Education Sector

There are four main sources of public funding for the public (nonfederal) education sector: state governments, local governments, direct allocations from the federal government (through the UBE Intervention Fund and the Education Trust Fund), and private individuals and organizations, including nongovernmental organizations and international donors in some states. There is a huge lack of information on state and local expenditures for education which makes accurate estimates of total spending difficult.

Overall, available data point to a lack of education funding in the sector, in particular at state level. Excluding direct federal spending through UBEC and the Education Trust Fund, total state education expenditures in all but one of the nine states declined significantly between 2001 and 2005. Spending on essentials such as textbooks, instructional materials, in-service training, and operations and maintenance is inadequate. A large proportion, often about 90 percent, of total public expenditures on education is absorbed by salaries, whereas the benchmark is 67 percent. Most local governments and schools have inadequate capacity and financial resources with which to manage primary education (ESSPIN & UKAid 2010b). In 2006, total public spending on education was estimated at 5 percent of gross domestic product (GDP) and 12.5 percent of total public spending, well below the recommended Education for All threshold of 20 percent (World Bank 2013). Spending as a percentage of GDP was higher than in the average Sub-Saharan country, but slightly lower than in South Africa and Kenya, which spend 5.3 and 7 percent, respectively.[12]

Trends in aggregate expenditures mask significant variations in the composition and level of spending across states and local governments. Based on incomplete estimates in nine states, the share of primary education in state expenditures ranged from a low of 32 percent in Lagos to a high of 62 percent in Enugu. The share of federal transfers to local government authorities that is spent on primary school also varied considerably. In Kano, for example, that share varied between less than 15 percent in 16 out of 44 LGAs and more than 30 percent in 3 LGAs. Some of this variation is related to demographics, but it also highlights variation in commitment to education. Evidence shows a fairly direct and positive relationship between levels of education expenditures per capita and education outcomes in states (World Bank 2011).

Spending in the sector is plagued by huge internal inefficiencies related to the structure of spending, the deployment of teachers, teacher and support staff salaries, and an inability to track funding for infrastructure spending. These inefficiencies are exacerbated by the fragmentation of funding sources and the lack of control over budgets and teacher recruitment, which prevent schools from functioning most effectively.

For example, current monthly statutory allocations to the North LGA in Kaduna are approximately N80 million, of which N33 million is immediately deducted at the source and paid through the SUBEB as primary teachers' salaries.[13] A further N30 million is used to pay other staff salaries in the LGA (approximately 3,000 staff). This leaves N17 million a month to cover overhead (including administration of the entire LGA) and capital expenditures. The local government education area receives no capital allocation from the LGA at all, and only N400,000 per month to cover overhead. This is sufficient only to make occasional emergency repairs to some schools. If any significant expenditures are made (generally for repairs), this is done on the basis of a specific request to the council chairperson and not against any particular budgetary allocation (World Bank 2008). Improving efficiency will require greater decentralization of decisionmaking power to local governments and schools and additional support from the federal and state governments to ensure a stable and adequate flow of resources in the poorest areas. This is discussed further in the next section.

2.5 Weak Governance and Institutions

Much of the failure to progress toward UBE goals can be attributed to institutional issues (Arong & Ogbadu 2010; Adamolekun 2013; World Bank 2008). The extensive set of institutional and intergovernmental relations for the provision of basic education makes the provision of education in Nigeria particularly complex. Roles and responsibilities between the three tiers of government, and between government and parastatals, are largely undefined, leaving no government or agency clearly accountable for results. Moreover, these relations have become even more complicated in recent years due to the creation of new agencies and organizations (e.g., UBEC and SUBEBs), new policy initiatives (e.g., UBE Intervention Fund), the overcentralization or recentralization of primary education, and the emergence of private education (World Bank 2008).

The complexity of the institutional structure associated with the creation of the UBEC and the the SUBEBs has resulted in confusion over roles and jurisdictions across institutions and institutional rivalry at the federal and, even more important, at the state parastatal level (World Bank 2008). The SUBEBs were established to assist the federal government at the state level to implement the UBE objectives by managing school performance at the primary and secondary levels. In general, protocols are unnecessarily complicated and unclear, and processes are often unknown and unaccountable (FME 2012). National minimum standards set in law are not enforced, and the resources required to meet established standards are not provided. As a result, standards vary widely across schools and LGAs. In addition, there are no standards for the provision of key inputs—such as class size, educational facilities, teaching and learning materials, health and safety, and teacher provision and qualifications. These are the key factors that directly affect the teaching and learning process (World Bank 2008).

Overcentralization has decreased incentives for service delivery. In contrast to the 1999 Constitution assigning responsibility for primary education to state and local governments, UBE was designed as a federal government policy and program. Under the UBE law, LGAs continue to be responsible for delivering basic education—but without budgetary power, which is largely determined at the federal level. Salaries of teachers make up about 80 to 90 percent of the budget and are directly deducted at the federal level, leaving only about 15 percent of the total budget to cover operating costs. Some local governments receive no transfers at all once teachers' salaries have been subtracted from their federal budget share. This arrangement creates perverse incentives for the LGAs to keep enrollments down or hire less expensive and therefore unqualified teachers. Similarly, schools have little autonomy in teacher recruitment, have inadequate systems to assess and monitor schools and students, and have low accountability to parents and society. In some cases, schools have no funds to manage at all. In Bauchi, operational budgets, including for those for materials and supplies, are managed by the LGA, leaving schools with no funds to manage (Adamolekun 2013; World Bank 2008).

School inspection and monitoring are inadequate, in part due to unclear and overlapping roles and responsibilities and a lack of accountability. The UBEC was given responsibility for quality assurance, a role that overlaps the previously established work of the Federal Inspectorate Service. Neither of these institutions is entirely independent, and school inspections are sometimes duplicated or missed altogether, or the results are not properly reported. This confusion is compounded by the low capacity in both institutions. A similar lack of clarity about responsibilities can also be observed across the four agencies tasked with data collection. As a result, data collection is not standardized, and data are unreliable. Many states have made progress in institutionalizing the Annual School Census, but data reliability is still low (World Bank 2008). Evidence from a study in the Dekina Local Government Area in Kogi state demonstrates that inadequate inspection and supervision have led to a declining quality of education (Arong & Ogabadu 2010).

3. Recommendations and Proposed Interventions

The Learning for All Ministerial Meeting in April 2013 aims to discuss concrete steps that will accelerate progress toward Education for All and to agree on a program to make progress in each participating country, with a time horizon of 2013 to 2016. Efforts to make further progress will need to address a number of distinct issues discussed in this paper, including reducing Nigeria's large out-of-school population, alleviating huge regional disparities in equitable access and quality, and starting to meet the huge governance challenges the country currently faces.

The recommendations and proposals developed here are focused on these challenges and guided by three simple principles. First, they aim to be consistent with and complement Nigeria's current planning framework and priorities. Second, they seek to add value in terms of delivering tangible benefits and addressing key bottlenecks. Third, the proposed financing should be seen as additional, rather than a reallocation of the existing resource envelope. The financing provisions themselves are indicative rather than definitive. More detailed financing would be needed to move toward implementation.

The proposals are built on the objectives of the National Education Policy and are consistent with the most recent four-year strategic plan for the development of the education sector by the Federal Ministry of Education for 2011 to 2015. They also draw on and complement a number of existing donor programs, by extending initiatives to states that are currently not covered by these programs.

The proposals are interrelated and may require combined interventions. For example, the school-based grants proposal will likely be enhanced and complemented by efforts to strengthen governance and accountability. In line with the analysis of regional disparities, the proposals have a strong focus on the North, where education outcomes vis-à-vis access, equity, and quality in basic education are the lowest and the demand and supply barriers are particularly severe.

In line with the analysis given above of Nigeria's current education outcomes, priorities, and constraints, the interventions aim to deliver significant results by improving:

- Quality of primary education through training, on-the-job support for teachers, and textbook/learning materials provision;
- Equality of access to a good-quality education by providing financial resources to disadvantaged areas of the North; and
- Governance and accountability through community-based programs.

Proposal 1: Improve Quality through the Provision of Teacher Training and Materials for ECD, Local Language, and Primary Sciences Instruction

Targeted beneficiaries: schools and teachers in 14 states

Estimated annual cost: $35 million

Addressing the severely low learning outcomes in Nigeria requires additional resources. This proposal seeks to tackle the major supply-side constraints identified above through the provision of both teacher training and educational materials. Particular attention will be given to providing qualified teachers who can teach in indigenous languages, work at the pre-primary level, and teach primary sciences.[14]

Current Mechanisms and Programs Providing Teacher Training and Teaching Materials

The main national vehicle for teacher training and provision of learning materials is the UBEC Intervention Fund. The guidelines for this fund stipulate that 10 percent of its resources will be used for teachers' professional development and 15 percent for providing of instructional materials. In 2012, this amounted to $61.6 million (N9.6 billion) for instructional materials and $30.6 million (N4.8 billion) for teachers' professional development (FME 2013). Despite these investments, serious shortages in qualified teachers and materials continue to exist.

A number of donor programs have implemented a range of basic education training programs and distributed learning materials in order to help address shortages. These programs have focused on a selected number of states. The largest programs include Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria (ESSPIN) (DFID), Girls Education Program (DFID-UNICEF), Teacher Development Programme (DFID, starting May 2013), USAID's Northern Education Initiative, Strengthening of Mathematics and Science Education (Japan International Cooperation Agency), Lagos Eko Project (World Bank), and the State Education Program Investment Project (SEPIP) (World Bank). The Global Partnership for Education may also launch a program in 2014, which may include support for school grants, conditional cash transfers, and strengthening management systems in 5 states. Collectively these programs cover 12 states, 8 of which are in the North.

Scaling the Provision of Teaching Materials and Instructional Materials

The proposed program aims to use the existing UBEC mechanisms to scale up in-service and preservice training, with particular attention to early childhood development, local language instruction, and primary sciences. Such training programs should also include capacity development for head teachers and academic leaders. In addition, school management, governance, school support systems, and capacity must be considered at the local and state government levels. Without these components, teacher training will have little impact on behavior in the classroom and improved learning opportunities for children.

Further scaling up of the provision of teacher training and materials is made difficult, however, by the various governance challenges discussed above. To address this concern, the proposed program would

be limited in Phase 1 to states that have passed the Fiscal Responsibility Act (FRA) and/or the Public Procurement Act (PPA) (see table 3). The program could be further expanded in a Phase 2 to an additional seven states that have submitted drafts of the FRA or PPA to their state assemblies. This would bring the total coverage of the proposed program to 14 states.

TABLE 3. STATES THAT HAVE PASSED THE FISCAL RESPONSIBILITY ACT AND THE PUBLIC PROCUREMENT ACT OR HAVE SUBMITTED THEM TO THE STATE ASSEMBLY

	States	Acts Passed	
	Phase 1	**Fiscal Responsibility Act**	**Public Procurement Act**
1	Benue	No	Yes
2	Delta	Yes	No
3	Ebonyi	Yes	Yes
4	Imo	No	Yes
5	Kwara	Yes	Yes
6	Oyo	No	Yes
7	Rivers	Yes	Yes

	Phase 2	Fiscal Responsibility Act	Public Procurement Act
8	Abia	In state assembly	In state assembly
9	Borno	In state assembly	In state assembly
10	Cross River	In state assembly	In state assembly
11	Kaduna	In state assembly	In state assembly
12	Ogun	In state assembly	In state assembly
13	Taraba	In state assembly	In state assembly
14	Yobe	In state assembly	Not submitted

Source: FME 2011

Estimated Financing

Based on spending patterns in recent years, UBEC financing for professional development is estimated to be about $ 1 million per annum per state. Provision of instructional materials is estimated at $1.5 million per annum per state. The proposed program would match the existing allocation, doubling total funds, to enable adequate professional development in the areas of early childhood development, local language instruction, and primary level science and mathematics. These areas are currently not adequately covered by the UBEC and local funds (table 4).

TABLE 4. COSTS FOR PROPOSAL I (MILLIONS OF DOLLARS)

	Annual additional cost per state	Annual additional cost for total of 14 states	Total additional cost for 14 states, 2013–16
In-service & preservice training (with focus on ECD, local language, and primary science and technology)	1	14	42
Provision of instructional materials (with focus on ECD, local language, and primary science and technology	1.5	21	63
TOTAL	2.5	35	105

Proposal II: Addressing Regional Disparities Using School Grants and Cash Transfers in Six Northern States (in Two Phases)

Targeted beneficiaries: 900,000 girls and 9,500 schools across 6 states

Estimated annual cost: $76.1 million for school grants and $58.3 million for Conditional Cash Transfers

Building on two successful pilot programs in Lagos and Kano, the second proposal aims to provide access to good-dquality primary education in six Northern States in Nigeria. Through the provision of both school grants and conditional cash transfers (CCTs), the proposal seeks to address both demand- and supply-side constraints.

School Grants

The school grants aim to provide a performance incentive for schools to improve the management and service delivery of primary education. The grants would be allocated to cover nonsalary expenditures to improve the teaching and learning environment. School grant schemes are already provided in a number of states, and evaluations suggest that a long-term and predictable increase in a school's operational (nonsalary) budget can improve the learning environment. The grant schemes allow the schools to utilize the funds for the areas of highest need in the particular state, such as early childhood education or girls' education. These should be complemented by effective capacity building for school management and school-based management committees (SBMCs) to enhance school self-evaluation, school development planning, and the financial accountability cycle at the school/cluster level (see Proposal III) (table 5).

Conditional Cash Transfers

A CCT targeted at poor children can incentivize school entry, reduce gender and regional disparities, and improve basic educational outcomes (Garcia & Moore 2012; Fiszbein & Schady 2009). This would address the poverty and cultural factors that are significant barriers to school attendance, in particular in the North.

Current Mechanisms and Programs Providing School Grants and Conditional Cash Transfers

The proposal builds on two pilot projects in Nigeria that have already demonstrated strong results:

- *Lagos EKO Project.* This project was a four-year World Bank Specific Investment Loan of $95 million from 2009 through 2013 targeting educational investments in priority areas. The project included a School Development Grant component focused on promoting secondary school effectiveness (cost: $6.2 million). A project evaluation found that the additional funding had led to an increase in performance on standardized testing.
- *Kano Conditional Cash Transfer Program.* To address the problem of low female school enrollment, Kano State piloted a Conditional Cash Transfer Program for girls education starting in 2009–10. The pilot aimed to overcome demand-side constraints to female school participation, particularly during the transition from the primary to the secondary level. The pilot target population included 12,000 enrolled or recently dropped out girls in grades 4, 5, and 6 from 300 randomly selected primary schools in 12 LGAs. In rural areas, all girls within the target age range and school grades were eligible to become beneficiaries; while in urban and semiurban areas only those girls within the target age range and school grades that belonged to poorest households were eligible to become beneficiaries of the program. The eligible group of girls was divided such that some received a higher transfer amount of N20,000 ($130) per year and some received with low transfer amount of N10,000 ($65) per year. The World Bank initially provided money for 75 percent of the transfers (later passing responsibility to Kano State government) and ESSPIN for the remaining 25 percent (rising to 33 percent in 2012).

A preliminary impact evaluation reveals that the CCT payment boosted school participation of targeted girls in Kano by 10 percent. Relative to attendance rates in control schools of just over 60 percent, attendance rates were 6 percentage points higher for CCT beneficiaries. The attendance rate of beneficiaries receiving the higher cash transfer amount was 4 percentage points higher than lower cash transfer beneficiaries. Grade six beneficiaries showed the largest gains. There was also a strong impact on the transition rates of girls from primary to junior secondary school (6 percentage points higher). The effect on transition rate was also higher among girls from nonsecular (Islammiyya) primary schools and girls from urban areas. This study also noted that there was "almost no indication of any corrupt practices on the part of village leaders, headmasters or program officials" (World Bank (2011, 40). While the program faced some administrative challenges, the government and DFID are currently jointly funding approximately N120 million to scale the CCT program to 300 schools in the state.[15]

Scaling School Grants and Conditional Cash Transfers to Regions Left Behind

The proposed conditional cash transfer program would focus on reaching out-of-school primary-age girls. The program would be complemented by a school grants program modeled on the Lagos Eko project. The program would be focused on the North where access and learning outcomes are particularly low. It would target states that are not currently included in other donor financed programs. Current

programs by the development partners addressing demand and supply-side barriers to access to quality basic education in the North are currently limited to the following states: Bauchi, Kano, Jigawa, Kaduna, Katisina, and Sokoto. The proposal would aim to scale up these interventions to the other Northern states not currently covered by existing programs, including, in a first phase, Kebbi, Zamfara, and Taraba; and in a second phase, Yobe, Bornu, and Adamawa, depending on security risks.

The success of the CCT programs will depend on state governments' leadership and willingness to fund the bulk of the investment in the longer term. This will also require a significant level of political zeal and technical capacity at the local level (table 6).

Estimated Financing

TABLE 5. COSTS FOR PROPOSAL II—SCHOOL GRANTS PROGRAM

School Grants Program	Number of Schools (based on 2006 Housing Census)	Annual Grant per School (dollars)	Total Annual Grants for All Schools/State (dollars)	Total for 3 Years (2013–16) (dollars)
Phase I				
Kebbi	1,614	8,000	12,912,000	38,736,000
Taraba	2,088	8,000	16,704,000	50,112,000
Zamfara	1,246	8,000	9,968,000	29,904,000
Phase II				
Adamawa	1,870	8,000	14,960,000	44,880,000
Borno	1,573	8,000	12,584,000	37,752,000
Yobe	1,125	8,000	9,000,000	27,000,000
TOTAL	9,516	8,000	76,128,000	228,384,000

TABLE 6. COSTS FOR PROPOSAL II—CONDITIONAL CASH TRANSFER PROGRAM

Conditional Cash Transfer	Number of Girls 6-8 Years (based on 2006 Housing Census)	Annual Cost per Beneficiary (dollars)	Total Annual Transfers/State (dollars)	Total for 3 Years (2013–16) (dollars)
Phase I				
Kebbi	171,602	65	11,154,130	33,462,390
Taraba	106,946	65	6,951,490	20,854,470
Zamfara	168,439	65	10,948,535	32,845,605
Phase II				
Adamawa	147,079	65	9,560,135	28,680,405
Borno	194,010	65	12,610,650	37,831,950
Yobe	108,862	65	7,076,030	21,228,090
TOTAL	896,938	65	58,300,970	174,902,910

Proposal III: Improve Governance and Increase Accountability through School-Based Management Committees

Targeted beneficiaries: schools across 15 states

Estimated annual cost: $30 million

The implementation of the programs presented above will need to be complemented by much broader governance and accountability reforms. This proposal aims to build on the existing long-term governance reform strategy and provide a concrete, short-term intervention, through the establishment of SBMCs, to enhance accountability and management at the school level. By decentralizing decisionmaking power to local players (community, principals/head teachers, teachers, parents, students, etc.), SBMCs give them increased voice, management, and monitoring powers and compel schools to be more accountable and transparent (Bruns, Filmer, & Patrinos 2011).

Many of the necessary reforms in Nigeria will require deep structural and long-term interventions that go beyond the scope of this paper and the Ministerial Meeting. Existing analysis shows that action is needed in the following critical areas (World Bank 2008):

- *Removing ambiguity, overlap, and unassigned roles and responsibilities.* Roles and responsibilities of each level of government need to be clearly defined, and the right kinds of incentives must be in place for all forms of service provision, especially for the provision of basic education and its monitoring and evaluation.
- *Setting, resourcing, and enforcing minimum standards.* At the federal level, minimum standards for key educational inputs are needed to provide guidance to states and inform the planning and budgeting cycle. This is an important part of the development of longer-term state-level strategic planning. In the short term, states could develop less-demanding quality assurance and accountability mechanisms by providing additional training to head teachers and local officials and giving them effective monitoring tools, such as school report cards and a simple set of indicators (enrollment rates, student/teacher ratios, unit costs).[16]
- *Improving transparency of results and expenditure information.* This can be achieved through (1) publishing data on financial transactions in the educational system; (2) publishing test results in the form of a school report card that informs parents and parent-teacher associations of the status of learning within schools, LGAs, and states;[17] and (3) disseminating detailed report cards on the execution of the previous year's investment plan and the current year's plan to newspapers, parent-teacher associations, capital funding source(s), local government authorities, and school heads. However, improving accountability through increasing transparency can only improve the educational system when schools have enough autonomy to respond to pressure resulting from information for accountability, and the knowledge of how to improve their practices (Bruns, Filmer, & Patrinos 2011).

- *Improving instruments to assess education quality and learning achievement.* While indicators of school attendance have been available through the annual household survey, Nigeria currently does not have any good-quality nationwide student assessments at the primary level (World Bank 2012a). Nigeria could learn from and potentially scale up existing programs, such as Monitoring Learning Achievement by ESSPIN and Early Grade Reading Assessment and Early Grade Mathematics Assessment by USAID. Alternatively, the government could consider participating in international student assessment programs, such as Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study, Progress in International Reading Literacy Study, or the Program for International Student Assessment. This would allow Nigeria to benchmark its national learning outcomes against other those of countries and enable it to gauge its global market competitiveness.
- *Improving data flows and routine monitoring and evaluation.* Federal and state governments need to improve their capacity to collect, analyze, and report data and to provide feedback on the design of policies and specific interventions based on the findings. Improvements in data should be a long-term priority, linked with institutional reform and an accountability framework. In practical terms, this means making information accessible to use as a planning tool and making the government more accountable over the medium to long terms. Improved budget reports from the government as a whole, and within the education sector specifically, would allow the sector to provide better detail of costs, with greater accuracy, and in a consistent manner across all three tiers of government.

Strengthening the institutional management of education is already part the 2011–15 national strategy plan. Some already proposed activities to achieve this goal are encouraging. For example, the plan emphasizes the need for monitoring results and increased transparency through improving the Education Management Information System and conducting and publications of Early Grade Reading and Early Grade Mathematics Assessment nationwide (FME 2012). While part of the plan is in line with the recommendations given above, the plan does not sufficiently include provisions for increased accountability. For example, the plan does not include activities to develop clear roles and responsibilities, minimum standards, or a national capacity to collect and use data.

Existing Programs Developing School-Based Management Committees

Evidence for SBMCs in Africa is positive. An evaluation of Gambia's Whole School Development Program found various intermediate outcomes to be significantly improved over those from control schools (World Bank 2010b). In Kenya, school-based management committees were found to increase teachers' attendance and improve test scores. In schools with committees that were trained to manage and monitor teachers, civil service teachers had a higher probability to be in class and teaching on spot visits (Duflo, Dupas, & Kremer 2007, 2009).

In Nigeria, the SBMCs established in Enugu, Jigawa, Kaduna, Kano, Kwara, and Lagos, supported by ESSPIN, have shown successful outcomes. A qualitative evaluation shows that SBMCs have resulted in increased school attendance rates; promoted greater awareness of roles, responsibilities, and rights; encouraged the participation of ethnic-minority students; enhanced teachers' presence; and improved teacher-pupil

interaction time and child-centered learning. SBMCs have also mobilized more resources to improve school infrastructure and have influenced government education authorities, from the local to the state levels, and even construction contractors to achieve positive results. ESSPIN has maintained its support to the UBEC on state domestication of the revised SBMC guidelines, helping 22 states to develop state-specific SBMC policy guidelines using a UBEC investment of N5 million each. The UBEC has disbursed a further N1.3 million to each of the 36 states and the Federal Capital Territory to facilitate SBMCs' training of trainers at the state and local levels. States have been directed by the UBEC to identify at least seven civil society organizations to support this process in collaboration with state officials as trainers, mentors, and monitors for SBMC development. In addition, the SBMC *Trainer's Manual* developed by ESSPIN states have been adopted and printed by the UBEC for distribution nationwide. Both the evaluation findings and the current support of this model underline the importance of SBMCs and suggests a significant opportunity for scaling them up (ESSPIN & UKAid 2012).

Scaling Up SBMCs across 15 States

The proposed program would support the scaling up of the SBMC models to 15 states included in Proposal I and Proposal II (there is some overlap between the two proposals in terms of states covered) and where SBMC programs are not yet being implemented (some states are already covered by DFID-ESSPIN and World Bank-SEPIP).

Estimated Cost

The estimated cost to expand the SBMC program to one state is $2 million per annum (estimate based on SEPIP). Scaling up the program to 15 states for three years (2013–16) would cost $90 million (table 7).

Table 7. Costs for Proposal III (millions of dollars)

	Annual Cost per State	Annual Cost for Total of 15 states	Total Cost for 15 States, 2013–16
SMBCs	2	30	90

Summary and Financing of Proposals

The three proposals, covering supply- and demand-side constraints as well as governance and accountability issues, require an estimated (additional) allocation of $ 199.4 million per year over the next three years (see table 8). The FME is committed to increase government spending on education from less than 5 percent of GDP to at least 10 percent by 2020 (FME 2007, 31). However, as the government increases its spending and improves its internal efficiency, it will likely continue to require additional funding from other sources, including for the proposed programs here. It should also be noted that the annual budget of the proposed programs is equal to the UBEC's annual budget in recent years, which was meant to provide education funding to the entire country. This proposal covers less than half the country, albeit those states with the lowest incomes.

TABLE 8. SUMMARY OF PROPOSALS

Proposal		No. of States	No. of Schools	No. of Students	Total Annual Cost (millions of dollars)	Total cost, 2013-16 (millions of dollars)
I: Teacher Training and Materials		14	-	-	35	105
II: Addressing regional disparities	School Grants	6	9,516	-	76.1	228.4
	CCTs	6	-	896,938	58.3	174.9
III: Improve Governance and Increase Accountability		15	-	-	30	90
Total:					199.4	598.2

Given the proposals are built on existing models (e.g., school grants, CCTs, and SBMCs specified in SEPIP, ESSPIN, and Global Partnership for Education programs) and implementation channels (e.g., UBEC), the proposed scaling up, possibly with a gradual rollout, should be feasible in the near term. The largest proposals in terms of financing are Proposal II for school grants followed by the CCT program, which are based on proven models of such in the country. As noted above, the estimated budget is a rough estimate that has been provided with the intention of giving an approximation of the funding that would potentially be needed. More detailed financing studies would be needed to move toward implementation, and a more detailed implementation of the proposals will need to be further worked out.

Other potential sources of financing could be also be accessed. One example is the Tertiary Education Fund (formerly known as the Education Trust Fund), which has unused funds set aside for basic and senior secondary education. In addition, through the Office of the Special Assistant on MDGs, the federal government provides conditional grants to local governments to be spent on education, health, and water/sanitation that could be harnessed.

For of all these proposals to succeed in accelerating progress toward the MDGs and achieving Education for All, all the stakeholders—including government, donors, and civil society organizations—must have a joint commitment to collaborate, with each taking clear roles and responsibilities. Mutual accountability must be at the forefront of the effort to ensure that Nigeria improves its education indicators and reaches its full potential.

ENDNOTES

1. Reliable data on public education expenditures are not available to explain the trend of public investment over time.
2. Note that the average of the regional percentage of out-of-school children may not be similar with the aggregate estimate from the UIS. The reason is the difference in data source; the UIS estimate is derived from administrative and UN population sources, while the regional estimates are from 2010–11 Nigeria General Household Panel Survey. In addition, UIS measures enrollment rates, whereas household survey measures attendance rates.
3. Some inconsistencies in data on sub-populations stem from differences between measurement method and datasets. For each sub-population, care was taken to present the most accurate data possible.
4. The data used for this analysis are from the 2010 Nigeria Education Data Survey, which only provides one measure for each literacy and numeracy. It is recommended to be interpreted with caution.
5. The literacy rate is measured by a simple test by showing a card with the language of instruction taught in the child's school—including English, Yoruba, and Hausa—and tests if the child (1) cannot read at all, (2) is able to read parts of the sentence and (3) is able to read the whole sentence. The literacy outcomes calculated here captures the percentage of students who can read the whole sentence. The observations are excluded if child is taught in a language different from above or child is visually impaired. The primary school medium of instruction is the community language for Basic 1–3 and English is taught as a subject. Starting in Basic 4, English is introduced as a medium of instruction (Okebukola, Owolabi, & Okebukola 2013).
6. The completion rate is measured as the percentage of the population in the relevant age group who ever attended school and completed primary school.
7. See Shonkoff and Phillips (2000) and Grantham-McGregor et al. (2007) for benefits of early childhood development.
8. For a discussion of the relationship between delayed primary school enrollment and malnutrition, see Glewwe and Jacoby (1995) and Alderman, Hoddinott, & Kinsey (2006).
9. "A child is stunted when their height-for-age z-score is –2 or less; severe stunting is defined as a z-score of –3 or lower. Wasting occurs when the weight-for-height z-score is –2 or less; severe wasting occurs with a z-score of –3 or lower. Underweight children have weight-for-age z-scores of –2 and below; severely underweight children's z-scores equal –3 or less. Stunting is an indicator of chronic malnutrition, wasting is an indicator of recent acute malnutrition, and being underweight is a general sign of poor nutrition" (World Bank 2013, 15).
10. Teachers are defined as qualified by meeting the minimum Certificate of Education qualification.
11. Nigeria Demographics Profile 2013, www.indexmundi.com.
12. Nigeria Public Expenditure Review, 2008.
13. At the time of publication, the exchange rate was approximately N 158 = $1 (iCurrencyPad).
14. This proposal supports the national four-year-strategic plan, which highlights the need for teacher

education and development. However, as noted above, the current quality and content of the training are not detailed and teacher training is often inadequate.

15. The second payment scheduled for June 2011 was suspended due to the fact that (1) the World Bank transfer did not reach the beneficiaries' account before the SESP closing date of June 30, 2011; (2) The new governor of Kano State suspended the CCT program pending full review.
16. Models for these exist within ESSPIN, populated from the Integrated School Development index for every school. According to ESSPIN, these do require substantial capacity building to become viable, given the human resource constraints of head teachers and other school personnel.
17. An example would be learning outcomes benchmarks.

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