Corruption and Governance in Education: Implications for Quality and Performance in Nigeria

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Abstract

Good governance can erode the effects of corruption in the Nigerian educational system and thus raise the quality and performance metrics in the delivery of educational services in Nigeria. It focuses on the standards, incentives and metrics of high educational performance. The paper provides a good conceptualization of constructs of good governance and a framework that links good governance to high educational performance; these metrics also served as a benchmark for tracking in four key governance area of finance, administration, teacher recruitment and supervision and educational planning. It also looks at the impediments to good governance in educational system with a focus on corruption highlighting the different kind of educational corrupt practices and incentives for educational corruption. Performance tools that have the capacity to aid in the tracking of education performance and in the process eliminate educational corruption are discussed such as PETS. Drawing from documented research and policy documents, the paper made recommendations on what should be done to reduce corruption and raise governance and performance in the Nigerian educational system.

Keywords: Corruption in education, governance in education, education quality and performances, tertiary institutions etc.

Introduction

Quality education is reckoned as a fundamental human right under the international law and a constitutional requirement for majority of countries. Stakeholders especially parents have high hopes in education for their children believing that it is the key to the future; it builds up human capacity which in turn makes use of acquired knowledge and skills to improve economic outcomes. In fact, it is reasoned to be a prerequisite for Nigeria's blueprint for transformation in its

Vision 20:20:20 Development Plan. This vision seeks to place the country among the 20 largest economies in the world by 2020.

In the wake of this recognition, the Nigerian government has made a great effort in terms of educational policies and reforms beginning with the introduction of the Universal Basic Education (UBE, 2004). This is in the UBE Act of April 2004, which requires that free and compulsory education be provided across all states and local governments of the federation for every Nigerian child aged 6-15 years. Moving forward was the creation of the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) to foresee and implement the tenets of the UBE, for which 2% of the government consolidated fund was allocated. As of 2015, Nigeria was ranked 103 out of 118, an improvement by 5 points from 2000 based on the EFA Development Index which inculcates metrics such as the rate of adult literacy, quality of education, gender parity and universal primary education. Also UNESCO's (2015) report found that enrolment rate at secondary levels rose by 103% even when enrolment rates of primary and junior secondary and completion rates still remains below 70%.

Despite all these effort, the Nigerian educational sector is still bedeviled by several challenges including enrolment rates, poor outcomes associated with learning and inequalities in educational access. Between 2010 and 2017, it was estimated that the rate of out-of-school children increased from 24 to 30 percent with high incidence in the Northern part of the country, which was ignited by the series of insurgence, thus stretching the gaps in educational quality. Following these are spates of non-transparent and corrupt practices in the educational sector. The World Bank estimated worldwide cost of corruption at US$1 trillion annually in most corrupt countries and US$30 trillion globally (World Bank, 2016). Corroborating this, the African Union stated that it accounts for a whopping 25% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

In Nigeria, this allowed at least US$21 million to be lost over two years. Corruption has the tendency to blossom in countries characterized by weak governance structures, failing institutions and lack of accountability/transparency. Some of the issues cited range from overcrowded learning

facilities, lack of maintenance of existing infrastructure, teachers' lack of motivation and consequent absenteeism, lack of learning tools and supplies (Busemeyer & Trampush, 2012). As such, though, Nigeria has been recognized and praised by the International Community for its strong record on literacy and basic education; the main debate on the Nigerian education sector now seems to be focused on issues of educational quality and financing as well as the fight against corruption.

Furthermore, though the issue of corruption is not new, yet research on it is few and could be traced to only a decade ago, when the Organization for Economic Corporation and Development (OECD) Convention came out with the theme "Combating Bribery of Foreign Public Officials in International Business Transactions" followed by that of the Global acceptance and adoption of the United Nations Convention Against Corruption (UNCAC). Based on this, the paper presents an overview of the corruption and governance issues in Nigerian educational system and attempts to identify the various metrics that can be used in the educational system to tackle issue of corruption prevalent therein. The focus of this paper is on three major areas: finance, educational planning, school administration and supervision and teacher recruitment and motivation.

The paper is structured as follows: section two dwells on the conceptualization of corruption and governance; it also presents empirical literature on governance issues and corruption in education citing the causes, consequences and recommendations. Section three looks at corruption specifically in the educational sector highlighting corrupt practices in the Nigerian education sector. Section four dwells on governance and quality metrics in education focusing on four major areas of educational governance: finance, school administration, teacher recruitment and motivation and Educational Planning and Supervision. The final section describes the possible implications and recommendations for policy.

Governance is a term that has a wide range of definitions and simultaneously no internationally accepted one (Bevir & Hall, 2011). Beginning with the definition of the term by OECD, neutral concept comprising the complex mechanisms, processes, relationships and

institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interest, exercise their rights and obligations and mediate their differences". It is described as the institutions, norms and rules via which policies are developed, implemented and sustained. It is the medium via which accountability is enforced.

Kola, Gana and Olasumbo (2017) stated that governance goes beyond the rules and institutional processes and inculcates at its basic level, who decides on policies and how resources are to be distributed and how government institutions should be held accountable. Therefore, governance in education refers to the mediums through educational institutions are organized and managed formally. It is the modus operandi of the operations of educational institutions (Ahmed & Iqbal, 2014). It connotes the procedures and processes that forms the internal and external workings of educational institutions. Governance according to Greed and Johnson (2014) connotes the mechanism set by institutions which make up the educational decision-making process, the constituencies with which these institutions interact and the ways in which they are connected.

'Good governance is currently a part of the international development agenda (World Bank, 2015). Kaufmann, Kraay & Mastruzzi (2007) stated the following as key indicators of good governance system: (i) multi-party democracy (ii) zero tolerance for corruption and corrupt practices (iii) strengthening the rule of law (iv) increasing accountability of public institutions and enhancing citizens' participation. Crouch & Winkler (2008) stated thus: "good governance is an ideal in which political processes translate the will of the people into public policies and establish the rules that efficiently and effectively deliver services to all members of society".

Anazodo & Igbokwe-Ibeto (2015) while discussing on leadership, corruption and governance in Nigeria, confirmed the earlier position that leadership, corruption and bad governance are the bane militating against development in Nigeria. Therefore, all hands must be on deck to enthrone effective leadership and good governance that could expunge the scourge of corruption from the nation's body polity. The first fundamental step among other measures is

transformation of the state from an alien force to an entity that caters for the welfare and wellbeing of the people.

Jellal, Bouzahzah & Asongu, (2015) assessed the relationship between institutional governance, education and growth, seeking to determine the channels through which education and governance affects growth. The study finds that the growth rate depends on the rate of return on human capital or that this rate of return itself depends on the quality of governance, which further increases growth. As a result, institutional quality has a double dividend, which suggests considerable benefits to educational reforms. Kola, Gana & Olasumbo, (2017) paper on the lack of good governance in Nigeria and its impact on functional science education attributed the inability of academic institutions to produce graduate who are not creative to back good governance. According to the authors "the pinnacle of bad governance was summarized to be corruption in the nation". Based on the conclusion, the study recommended the following: visionary leadership, total war against corruption amongst others.

Oladiran (2014) in his paper on "corruption and the quest for good governance in Nigeria" asserted corruption as a threat to good governance and averred that the major impediments to the fight against corruption in Nigeria is the lack of political will to arrest the malaise at all levels of government. An International Monetary Fund (IMF), (2006) study which estimated a corruption perception index (CPI) detailed that for every one percent change in the corruption index gives rise to a 1.2 percent change in growth annually. Ekanem & Ekefre (2013) stated that the present magnitude of corruption in Nigeria is traceable to the many years of military rule where due process was not observed in public procurement and contract bidding and enabled by systems of weak regulations and poor oversight. Moyosore (2015) on corruption in Nigeria: causes, effects and probably solution advocated that an effective action against corruption has to evolve effective sanction and greater political transparency as a means of ensuring that the resources of the country are deployed to bring about sustainable development in the country.

Ugoani (2016) used survey method whose population comprised teachers in Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu and Imo States, of Nigeria. The results of the descriptive and Chi-Square

statistical methods, found that Education corruption displays ample evidence that warrants inefficiencies and absenteeism among teachers. High teacher absenteeism can exist when teachers have very low levels of motivation to work, little commitment to the profession, and when there is lack of accountability in the education sector.

Using a data set of 57 countries, Rajkumar and Swaroop (2008) established that as spending on education increases, there is a corresponding increase in primary education completion rates in countries that are least corrupt and those with better bureaucracies. Hallack and Poisson (2007) reports showed that bribery of educational officials and politicians by teacher to secure promotion is a form of educational corruption for most countries. A study by Ramachandran et al., (2005) reported that most teacher appointment and promotions are unfair as some teachers usually get promoted through informal payments made to government officials and politicians.

Using error correction mechanism to determine the long-run relationship between corruption and economic growth in the Nigerian economy, using time series data from 1960 to 2012, from the findings, it was discovered that corruption has an inverse relationship with growth of an economy, based on the findings, the authors recommended that the government should intensify effort to create more agencies beside EFCC and ICPC to address cases of corrupt practices in the economy, encourage leaders that display transparency, honesty, probity, accountability, purposefulness and commitment to good ideals of the society before followers will be convinced of the ingenuity of such crusade, ensure corruption as a theme needs to be discourse or debated by government representatives at federal, State and local levels.

Obi & Ogugua (2014) examined the impact of government expenditure on education using time series data from 1981 to 2012. The study made use of OLS econometric technique which used gross domestic product (GDP) as the growth and recurrent spending on education as a proxy for government spending on education for the 32 years. The study established that though a positive relationship exist between education spending and economic growth, the association could not be

sustained over a long period of time. The authors attributed these factors to labour market distortions, redundancy of workforce and leakages in the systems among other factors. Based on the foregoing they suggested improved use of educational resources through good governance, accountability and transparency.

The core aim of this paper is to determine the implications of corruption and governance for education quality and performance in Nigeria.

Research questions

The paper therefore seeks answers to the following questions:

1. What are the types of corrupt practices observed in the administration of Nigerian education systems

2. What are causes and consequences of educational corruption?

3. What impact does governance have on educational systems?

4. What are the main recommendations for good governance and reduction of corruption in educational systems?

Methodology

This paper is qualitative in nature. It adopts facts from review documents, policy documents, national papers and statistics such as those relating to anti-corruption interventions, peer reviewed academic papers and reports detailing consultations with expert groups. The term "education" covers all aspects of educational services from primary, secondary to tertiary. It covers international and national level initiatives that have taken congruent steps to address educational corruption including sector specific policies and legislations.

Corruption, causes and consequence in educational systems

An evaluation of public finance structure in education for most governments shows how funds flow and resource for education is mobilized through national budgets to state governments, local governments and finally to schools. It has long been documented that large-scale government

corruption diverts scarce resources away from government's obligation to provide key services such as education or health, undermining peoples' economic, social and cultural rights (Transparency International, 2015). A critical observation of this chain shows that there are usually loopholes from the point of budget passage to the delivery of educational services at the school level. Tracking corruption in a sector of the economy including education is crucial especially as the lack of integrity associated with corrupt practices contradicts the purpose of education which is to produce "good citizens" who have respect for the law, environment and human rights (Hallak & Poisson, 2004).

Corruption breeds inequity; it acts as a regressive form of taxation. One good example of this from Nicaragua where deliberate monitoring of six major government project involving the rehabilitation of six schools undertaken by the ministry of education showed wide irregularities and diminished the resource flow to the sector (Transparency International, 2012). The FUNDEF program (Fundo de Manutenção e Desenvolvimento do Ensino Fundamental e de Valorização do Magistério) which was reputed to be effective in Brazil was discovered to have huge elements of corruption as the funds meant for teachers' salaries and training were found to be misappropriate (UNESCO, 2015).

Corruption also breeds inefficiency, since corruption means that part of the funds required for capital investment in education is captured in the form of private rent. An example of this is where efficiency can make a big difference is Kano State in Nigeria. The FTI Secretariat (2006) and the Kano State Ministry of Education (2008) both reported that the average building costs of a classroom in 2007 in Kano was US$14,000 which is a US$4,000 difference to the estimated sub-Saharan average of US$10,000 by the World Bank. Thus, if funding of these classroom is to be patterned according to the World Bank's projections and patterns, there will be 40 additional classrooms for every 100 built. In Nigeria, one million students pass college entrance exams, yet there are only 300,000 places available in public universities. Limited access to education has no doubt contributed to the use of bribes and personal connections to gain coveted places at

universities, with some admissions officials reportedly working with agents to obtain bribes from students. Those who have no ability or willingness to resort to corruption face lost opportunities and unemployment (US Global Post, 2012).

When academic integrity breaches go unchecked, they have the potential to undermine the credibility of degrees and the reputations of institutions. Furthermore, society as a whole suffers, because it is difficult for employers to determine who is and who isn't qualified. This could even put at risk the people who rely on well-trained professionals such as doctors, nurses, lawyers, engineers and teachers. For instance, research into academic integrity breaches in Nigeria has demonstrated how dishonesty in education is both affected by and contributes to broader social corruption. Academic fraud is endemic at all levels of the Nigerian education system, and misconduct ranges from copying from other students and cheating during examinations to more serious behaviors, such as impersonation, falsifying academic records, 'paying' for grades/certificates with gifts, money or sexual favours, terrorizing examiners and assaulting invigilators. These practices, combined with other issues, such as violence on campus, have contributed to widespread illiteracy, poor worldwide rankings of Nigerian universities, the non-accreditation of many programs and the revocation of degrees. Taken together, these outcomes undermine educational opportunities for all Nigerian students and produce graduates less equipped to thrive in future careers (Nwaopara, Ifebhor & Ohiwerei, 2008).

Efforts to minimize or completely get rid of corruption will only succeed if each sector is handled specifically. A case in point is the School Improvement Grant Programme (SIGP) of Indonesia where the government had a US$60 million outlay for primary and secondary school spanning four years (2000-2004), for those located in the rural areas and those areas hit by natural disasters. The programme covered 8,000 schools across 130 communities (districts) and 70 percent (US$42 million) was for rehabilitation of school building. Recognizing the need to eradicate corruption, the central government in conjunction with donors came up with the following: decentralization of the decision making which is to include representatives from government, donor institutions and beneficiary schools to jointly take decisions such as needs and construction

work, setting up of a monitoring committee called the Central Independent Monitoring Unit (CIMU), issuance of comprehensive programme guidelines and public and open announcements of block grants and finances. The CIMU was dubbed effective as during these periods, it was able to document 40 apparent corruption cases ranging from those related to attempted bribery and collusion of prices between school officials and building contractors and other suppliers to illegal charges from construction consultants.

Table 1: Types of corrupt practices observed in the administration of Nigerian education systems

Level	Corrupt Practice)
Central Ministry	• Kickback on construction and supply contracts • Favoritisms in hiring, appointment and promotion decisions • Diversion of funds from government accounts • Diversion of funds from international assistance accounts • Ghost teachers and employees* • Requiring payment for services that should be provided free • Withholding needed approvals and signatures to extort bribe • Directing the location of construction and services to locations that offer opportunities for gain by oneself, family and friends • Requiring the use of materials as a way to create a market for items on which one, one's family or friends can hold an import or production monopoly
Region/District	• Overlooking school violations on inspector visits in return for bribes or favors • Diversion of school supplies to private market • Sales of recommendations for higher education entrance • Favourisitism in personnel appointments
School Level	• Ghost teachers* • Diversion of school fees • Inflation of school enrolment data • Imposition of unauthorized fees • Diversion of central MOE funds allocated* • Diversion of monies in revolving textbook • Diversion of community contributions
Classroom/Teacher	• Siphoning of school supplies and textbooks to local market • Selling test scores and test grade* • Selling change of grade • Selling grade-to-grade promotion • Selling admissions (especially to higher education) • Creating the necessity for private tutoring • Teachers' persistent absenteeism
International Agencies	• Payment of bribes • Payment of excessive or unnecessary fees to obtain services • Skimming from project funds • Allocating (or acquiescing in the allocation of) project related opportunities on the basis of candidates connections rather than on merit

• Practices in empirical research, either designed as experiments, quasi-experiments or proving analysis beyond a description of corrupt practices

Source: Adapted from Chapman 2005, p. 19

According to Transparency International 'in many countries, anti-corruption laws and regulation have been in place for years, but citizens do not know about them – often because they are rarely applied. With no visible sanctions, people are inclined to believe that corruption cannot be resisted and therefore will not report it' (Transparency International, 2005).   Available research in corruption in Nigerian education system is rife and huge focused on the forms and levels of corruption (table 1). Corruption in education was ranked fifth among other sectors behind taxation, customs, health, construction, oil and gas and administration. A 2007 Human Rights Watch study titled the Human Rights Impact of Local Government Corruption and Mismanagement in Rivers State, Nigeria also observed that 'many local governments allocate next to nothing in their budgets to support primary education, and much of the money they do allocate disappears (Transparency International, 2015).

Governance and impact on educational system: An overview and case study of Nigeria

Governance is a word often used in politics, administration and management processes and when it is used in the field of education, it tends to conjure an abstract image which can easily make one lose sight of its significance in the lives of people, the aspirations of students, the hopes of their parents and the human development prospects of nations. If one is to comprehend the efficacy of the effect of governance in the educational sector; then the alternative "bad governance" can be considered. When the educational system of governance is bad, parents and communities are left to face educational provision that is insufficient, unaccountable and unresponsive to their needs. Communities will be left with schools having infrastructure especially the classrooms that is lacking in basic learning apparatus including unqualified and demotivated teachers (Education for all Report, 2009). In most cases bad governance is a recipe for financial misallocation. Good governance connotes 'accountability' and 'transparency'. In addition it signifies equal access and equal opportunities for all. Through good governance all citizens including the 'poor' can access good educational service delivery from the government even when

they cannot afford private education like the rich and when bad governance do not make this happen, the poor quality, inaccessibility and unaffordability of quality education that result make the poor loose out completely. Rodrik (2008) stated the following as indicators of bad educational governance: huge financial gap between the rich and poor communities, infrastructure that is only accessible to the rich and unaffordable for the poor, lack of attention to strategies required to make these provision available to the disadvantaged.

Educational governance do not simply mean the system of management and administration of education in a country; in its broadest sense it connotes the formal and informal processes through which educational policies are formulated, reforms formulated, implemented and monitored, priorities identified and educational resources allocated and re-allocated. Educational governance is not simply directed at a central government, but every level that makes up the educational system from the ministry of education down to the classroom and the community. As with any social service, the provision of quality educational service can be affected by 'bad' governance indicators. When there is weakness in democratic structures, transparency, accountability and participation levels suffer. For instance, it might hinder the rate at which parents participate in school decisions, hold school and teachers accountable and secure access to information conditioned by their rights and upheld under good governance systems. Quality or good governance also defines the extent to which teachers are recruited, allocated and trained. They also have important bearing on the skills and drive which teachers bring to the classroom. Moving away from the classroom paradigm, governance system influences the relationships between school administration, local government and central government. It concludes on who is to take decisions for educational reforms such as curriculum change, supervision of teachers as well as monitoring and supervision of school structures. This section focuses on three (3) major aspects of educational governance citing cases and references generally and specifically for Nigeria.

Finance

In the area of finance, governance in education determines how resources are mobilized, allocated and managed. How government mobilize funds, distribute these funds and manage investments in the educational sector has huge implications for educational equity and efficiency. Management of finance within the educational sector features prominently in debates regarding educational governance; governance affects the ways resources are allocated. During the Dakar framework, the government of several nations made this pledge "we, the participants in the World Education Forum, commit ourselves to the achievement of education for all (EFA) goals and targets for every citizen and for every society" and implicit within this pledge is the commitment for 26% GDP allocated to educational sector. Though countries vary as to the level of funding due to their difference in wealth patterns; actual spending show that some government are far more committed to financing their educational systems than others and this has important consequences for the education outcomes, though higher levels of spending does not guarantee improved or equitable access to education services; chronic underfinancing on the other hand, is not conducive either to development of equity or high-quality education systems.

Besides, governance determines the level of efficiency to which government spends. Advocates of increased educational spending perceived increased educational spending as "automatic indicator for progress" while some states that the relationship between spending and increased educational outcomes is non-existent. Realists on the other hand who adopt the two views simultaneously hypothesized that increased level of spending do not automatically and necessarily give rise to improved educational outcomes, yet financing threshold for education are crucial: student require learning materials and resources, schools to accommodate learning needs to be constructed, funds are required to recruit and pay teachers. Thus, even in cases of improved efficiency, chronic gaps in financing would give rise to poor educational outcome – poor quality, inefficient teacher recruitment and low teacher motivation. In reiteration, though disparities exists as to the capacity for educational financing, the level to which government finance education

reflect her priorities and says something on how significant their ordering of their concerns truly is. One of such reflections is the share of education in the total budget and total public spending.

This section asks whether governments have acted on their Dakar commitment. The case of Nigeria is illustrative. According to the World Bank (2016) report, education represents only 11% to 13% of total government spending, which compares unfavourably with the regional average for sub-Saharan Africa. This low funding of the country's educational sector has been identified as the major reason for the rot and challenges in the sector, especially tertiary education given rise to issues such as frequent strikes by teaching and non-teaching staff since the early 1990s. Undeniably, the Federal Government's allocation to the education in the last decade has been miserly. Out of a budget of an average of ₦55.19 trillion from 2009 to 2018, only ₦3.90 trillion which is equivalent to 7.07 per cent (table 1) was allocated to the sector. Beginning with 2009, the Federal Government allocated ₦221.19 billion (7.25 per cent) of its ₦3.049 trillion budget to education, the year following that (2010) saw a 2.42 percent reduction to 4.83 per cent when education got ₦249.09 billion of the substantial N5.16 trillion appropriation. There was a marginal improvement in 2011 when education got ₦306.3 billion (6.16 per cent) of the ₦4.972 trillion budget an improvement of 1.33 percent.

The marginal improvements continued in 2012 (8.20 per cent) by 2.04 percent, 2013 (8.55 per cent) 0.35 percent, and 2014 (9.94 per cent) 1.39 percent until 2015 (7.74 per cent) a noteworthy drop in allocation to education by 2.2% was recorded. The sector experienced its second-worst allocation in decade during President Muhammadu Buhari takeover of office when of the ₦6.061 trillion budget, only ₦369.6 billion (6.10 per cent) a 1.64 percent reduction was appropriated for education. However, there was a slight rise in 2017 (7.38 per cent) 1.28 percent and if the expected 2018 budget of N8.612 trillion is approved, education will get N605.8 billion or 7.03 per cent given rise to a positive improvement albeit 0.04 percent. The same picture is depicted when government allocation to education is considered from the perspective of government aggregate expenditure (see table 2).

The consequences of underfunding are powerfully captured in the following World Bank's assessment: 'Spending on essential inputs, such as textbooks, instructional materials, in-service teacher training, and operations and maintenance are inadequate. About half of primary schools require major rehabilitation, with an additional 251,000 classrooms needed countrywide' (World Bank, 2008). Another issue on financing is that of inequity in distribution of financial resources in the educational sector. For instance, the primary net attendance rates (NARs) in Nigeria range from 85% in Anambra and Ondo states to less than 30% in Jigawa and Zamfara states and these disparities are linked to substantial differences in poverty rates. In 2004 the poverty headcount ratio in Anambra was 20%, compared with 95% in Jigawa. Under an equitable financing system more resources would be allocated to states with low levels of participation and high rates of poverty.

This proves not to be the Nigerian picture as the equity principle is turned upside down with the wealthiest states and regions with the highest education participation secure the lion's share of federal resources. Specifically, states like Lagos receives around five times as much as Jigawa, which has attendance rates less than half of those in the commercial capital and unlike most states that depend on federal allocations, a state like Lagos generates two-thirds of its revenue from local sources — an arrangement that reinforces regional financing gaps. Another example is 2005 when Kano, a less privileged state with a low primary NAR and limited revenue-generating capacity, received 20% less in federation account revenue than Enugu state, with similar revenue raising capacity, lower poverty rates and a higher primary NAR.

With regards to the requirements for additional financing in education, the federal government have made concerted effort through mediums such as the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) intervention fund, whose role include the channeling of financial and material resources directly to basic education. Between 2005 and early 2015 about US$950 million has been made available to states through the fund. Unfortunately, this has done little to enhance equity or efficiency and resource disbursements have been much lower than expected. Within this period, only about 65 percent of allocated funds had been disbursed by mid-2015.

Issues in relation to this phenomenon range from poor policy coordination to complex bureaucratic procedures and weak capacity in state education bodies which makes the use of funds inflexible. The UBEC has strict guidelines on the percentage of funds that can be spent on pre-primary, primary and junior secondary education, as well as the type of expenditure. For instance, 70% of funds must be spent on construction, regardless of need giving rise to difficulties in using these resources to support state plans in a more efficient manner for the development of basic education (Kano State Ministry of Education, 2018; Nigeria National Bureau of Statistics, 2016; World Bank, 2015). Raising government spending on education in Nigeria to the regional average would release substantial additional resources to address the many difficulties the sector faces.

Table 1: Budgetary Allocation to Education 2009-2018 in Nigeria

Year	Aggregate Budget (N'trillion)	Allocation to Education (N'billion)	Education in Budget Percentage	Change (Δ) in Percentage
2009	3.049	221.19	7.25	-
2010	5.160	249.09	4.83	-2.42
2011	4.972	306.30	6.16	1.33
2012	4.877	400.15	8.20	2.04
2013	4.987	426.53	8.55	0.35
2014	4.962	493.00	9.94	1.39
2015	5.068	392.20	7.74	-2.2
2016	6.061	369.60	6.10	-1.64
2017	7.444	550.00	7.38	1.28
2018	8.612	605.80	7.03	-0.35
Total	55.19	3.90	7.07	0.04

Source: CBN Statistical Bulletin, 2016

Table 2: Change in total public expenditure on education as a percentage of GNP in Nigeria between 1999 and 2017 (percentage points)

Year	Education	Government	Percentage of	Change (Δ) in

	Expenditure (₦'Billion)	Revenue (₦' Billion)	education Expenditure in Revenue	Percentage
1999	43.61	949.19	4.59	-
2000	57.96	1,906.16	3.04	-1.55
2001	39.88	2,231.60	1.79	-1.25
2002	80.53	1,731.84	4.65	2.86
2003	64.78	2,575.10	2.52	-2.13
2004	76.53	3,920.50	1.95	-0.56
2005	82.8	5,547.50	1.49	-0.46
2006	119.02	5,965.10	2.0	0.5
2007	150.78	5,727.50	2.63	0.64
2008	163.98	7,866.59	2.08	-0.55
2009	137.12	4,844.59	2.83	0.75
2010	170.8	7,303.67	2.34	-0.49
2011	335.8	11,116.90	3.02	0.68
2012	348.4	10,654.75	3.27	0.25
2013	390.42	9,759.79	4.0	0.73
2014	343.75	10,068.85	3.41	-0.59
2015	325.19	6,912.50	4.7	1.29
2016	341.88	5,679.03	6.02	1.32
Total	181.85	5820.06	3.13	0.08

Source: CBN Statistical Bulletin, 2016

Educational planning, school administration and supervision

For many educational professional, the term 'planning' connotes many different meanings as used by different people and institutions. Adesina (1990) referred to planning as "a way of projecting out intentions, that is, a method of deciding what we want to accomplish". Yoe, (2013) refer to planning in his book titled "Introduction to Natural Resource Planning" as the deliberate social or organizational activity of developing an optimal strategy for solving problems and achieving a set of desired objectives. Planning enables the end user or the planner to think critically about the future and the best route to get to a desired end from the present. Its aim is to achieve future objectives by anticipation, identification, problem-solving and capitalizing on present opportunities. Planning is a complex form of symbolic action that consists of consciously preconceiving a sequence of actions that will be sufficient for achieving a goal.

The ultimate educational policy objectives of many countries, especially those trying to attain developed status include broad-based learning and the acquisition of skills as defined in their national curricula. Achieving these educational policy objectives however becomes the job

description of education planning and supervising; planning and supervision is vital for policy-makers on four counts: to chart progress and identify disparities in learning; to influence and monitor policy measures aimed at improving learning (related to teacher training, curriculum development and textbook revision, for example); to determine the allocation of resources to support poorly performing schools; and to provide information to parents and policymakers, ensuring that schools are held to account for student performance. From classroom to system level, the weakness of existing supervision mechanisms in many countries undermines efforts to address the learning needs of most schools and students, especially the disadvantaged ones. Besides the extensive use of large-scale learning assessments as a strategy to curbing these issues and the reform of school supervision services is another. A key motive for large-scale assessments has been to track performance of education systems as a whole, while supervision reforms have aimed to improve monitoring and support quality at school level. This subsection discusses the role of these strategies for improving quality and equity.

School supervision is an essential aspect of monitoring, not only to check teacher and school performance but also to identify and support needed quality improvements. As the only direct institutional link between classrooms and education ministries, school supervision plays a crucial role in education system management. School visits can allow supervisors not only to support and monitor implementation of official policies but also to bring school realities to the attention of policy-makers. School supervision systems in developing countries are under researched, though anecdotal evidence suggests they are overstretched. With demanding mandates, and limited human and financial resources, few developing countries have supervision services that are fit for the task at hand. However, in their quest for quality education, many countries have changed and clarified the role and structure of supervision in recent years (De Grauwe, 2008).

The very large gaps in learning outcomes between schools in many developing countries mirror other inequalities in education and in society at large. Supervision has a key role to play in closing these gaps. What weak schools need is not just inspection but also consistent pedagogical

support, including regular visits by support-oriented supervisors. This implies radical institutional change, with supervisors finding the right balance between allowing schools sufficient autonomy and intervening to identify performance problems (De Grauwe, 2008). Planning is about more than producing technical documents. National plans provide an opportunity for governments to set out their goals and their strategies for achieving them. There define a purpose against which governments can be held to account.

Not all the problems in Nigeria's education financing can be traced to unequal fiscal decentralization. National planning is also weak. No statutory accountability mechanisms exist to ensure that state and LGA plans, where they exist, are aligned with national goals in education. As a result, the priority that LGAs give to primary education varies enormously, even within states. In Kano, 28% of the Dala local government budget was allocated to primary education, compared with 12% in Bichi. In a lot of countries, especially less developed ones, educational stakeholders such as school administrators, teacher, parents and communities have often been bound by central government rules and control, leaving them with little or no authority over crucial decisions such as staff selection, methods of teaching and other educational practices.

In disagreement to this, school-based management reforms are been advocated. These reforms aim to increase autonomy of and empower administrators and teacher involvement in decision making. Advocates for school-based management reforms argue that this method would enhance teacher participation which corroborate with the strategy proposed by the Darker framework, 2000. Diverting sole decision making from planners who are often remote to those who are directly involved in the day-to-day piloting of learning and learning requirements is deemed a more proactive and responsive action.

Teacher recruitment and motivation

Constructing schools building and getting students into classrooms is important, but education goes beyond putting people in a school setting; it stretches to engaging the minds of these people and ensuring that the opportunities for learning are maximized. The ultimate aim of

full educational outcomes is engaging the cognitive, emotional and social capacitates and that students acquire skills that they need to actualize these potentials (UNESCO, 2012). Though school is the primary mediums for achieving this feat, teachers are at the forefront of this delivery as well.

Improved governance in forms of teacher management is vital in this picture. Educational systems require qualified teacher to the system, train them, maintain them and ensure that they stay motivated. If the education-related Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have to be realized in Least Developed Countries (LDCs) there is the need to recruit more teachers who are to be trained and deployed especially to marginalized areas. Also, further evidence revealed that this is not only that problem, that is, the problem is not only about the quantitative recruitment of teachers but keeping and maintaining them. Empirical evidence (Samson & Aibieyi, 2014; Bolaji, Gray & Campbell-Evans, 2015) shows that huge number of primary and secondary teachers have low levels of motivation; thus, even when the teachers are available in their numbers, students are not been properly tutored, giving rise to what is termed "teacher motivation crisis" (UNESCO, 2015). Increasing teacher recruitment and rewards systems including salaries and improvement of living standards, deployment, qualification, capacity and motivation are the bane of the issues associated with teacher governance.

When teacher pay or reward packages are inadequate, we have situations where teachers have often times want to complement their earnings with 'a second' and in some cases 'second and third' jobs. This has consequences for quality of educational delivery within schools facilities with teachers' lowering teaching quality with the intention of getting parent to employ them for extra-moral tutorship and those who are unable to afford this, may lose the most. In some rural areas students can only access what they are taught within the confines of the classroom, while their teachers 'second' jobs are trading and in most cases farming. In these circumstances, there is a huge divide between rural students and those in the urban areas. In some cases, some teacher following educational curriculum review are demanded to meet up with new standards by making

more time and increased levels of preparation. Yet evidence shows that these responsibilities do not usually accompany increased earnings levels. In some cases where deployment are demanded, some teacher might resign their responsibilities as they are demotivated to go into areas where they will likely not be able to have access to water, electricity, communication, good housing and quality education for their own children giving rise to 'urban bias'.

Governance issues associated with teacher recruitment and supervision have been solved using a range of measures. One solution to 'urban bias's is to provide special incentives such as accelerated teacher promotions, eligibility for study leave, waiving of fees for teacher training if teachers agree to teach in marginalized areas, bonuses of such postings and these incentives should be such that they outweigh the benefits of living in urban areas. Another is the use of Resource centers for teachers. Countries like Kenya, Mali, Uganda and Malawi have set up these resource centers provided with resources that aids teacher upgrading, accreditation and professional development (Girodano, 2008). Studies from teacher center surveys report shows that teachers who participated in the centers have improved their teaching methods, professional development, commitment and improve teacher retention.

A third solution is the widespread growth in large scale learning assessments with emphasis on teaching outcomes. A host of countries according to UNESCO (2015) have participated in one form of national learning assessment or the other. For instance Botswana, Ghana and South Africa took part in the PIRLS, PISA and TIMSS assessments. In 2008, 37 less developed countries took part in SACMEQ and PASEC (Lockheed, 2008). These same assessment or standards have formed the benchmarks on which pupils' achievements are monitored and some countries which have been a part of these assessments have affirmed that they form the pivot for curriculum change (Greaney & Kellaghan, 2008). This was the case in Romania which changed her curriculum after performing poorly at the TIMSS adding integrated science to her curriculum and fine-tuning that of mathematics with new topics. Countries such as Mauritius, Namibia, Zambia, Zanzibar and Zimbabwe have used the outcomes from cross-national assessments like SACMEQ have been adopted in sector and sub-sector reform programs.

Conclusion

Delivering high-quality education for all will require far-reaching governance reforms in the areas covered by this section. There are no ready-made solutions to the problems identified. Clearly, governments need to recognize that declines in teacher pay and conditions have the potential to damage morale, quite apart from reducing quality in recruitment and the quantity of applicants seeking to join the profession and also failure to tackle corruption, a key governance concern imposes economic, social and political burden on education.

Recommendation

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

1) Educational assessment should be conducted nationwide at designated time periods (i.e. every 5 years) using defined key indicators and results from these assessments should be used to inform approaches and policy design.

2) Robust ICT systems covering the four process of educational governance: finance, administration, teacher registration and management such as the Educational Management Information System (EMIS) which allows the collection, analysis and interpretation of data can aid in making discrepancies in education output more visible.

3) Funding for education should be improved with monitoring and accountability mechanism properly put in place.

4) Corrupt education officers and politicians saddled with the responsibility of providing quality education and the teachers who are found to be culpable of corruption offices should be shown the way out and also prosecuted and jailed to serve as deterrents to others who may wish to go the same.

5) Government and other education stakeholders should provide a feasible, function and sustainable reward system for school teachers and managers of the system. Adequate

motivation should be provided in terms of in-service training, prizes, scholarship for

professional training and better condition of services among others.

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