

ALL CHILDREN IN SCHOOL BY 2015

Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children



Nigeria




NIGERIA COUNTRY STUDY

Conducted within the Conceptual and
Methodology Framework (CMF)

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Global Initiatives on Out-of-School Children



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Preface

With less than three years to 2015, large numbers of school-aged children are not attending school, and this poses a serious threat to achieving attendance goals laid out as part of Education for All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Like many developing countries, Nigeria is facing serious challenges related to the phenomenon of out of school children.

Recent estimates show that the sub-Saharan Africa region accounts for 52% of the global out-of-school children. 22% of primary school age children in sub-Saharan African were out-of-school. Nigeria's Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS) data for 2008 in fact show that some 7.3 million children of primary school age were out of school. When the junior secondary school component is taken into account, the out of school children (OOSC) problem becomes even larger, with wide regional, geographical and gender disparities across the country. Even when enrolled, hundreds of children (especially girls) are not showing up for class. Although girls' primary school attendance has generally been improving, this has not been the case for girls from the poorest households. So many children drop out of primary school that the expected Junior Secondary School (JSS) enrolment rate is very low. Thus, Nigeria's major challenges are low attendance, low completion rates and gender as well as regional/geographical disparities.

Government has been responding through a number of strategic interventions intended to improve enrolment by addressing the issue of accessibility. Efforts are also underway to improve retention and achievement by improving quality, and reducing inequalities by paying greater attention to gender sensitive and inclusive policies, as well instituting more effective education management systems. Accessibility is being addressed through increased number of schools within reach of populations. Other remedial measures include provision for teacher development, making education more easily affordable, flexible programmes for children from nomadic communities, reduction of socio-cultural barriers and the introduction of social welfare measures.

UNICEF is supporting Government to develop state education sector plans, systems (curriculum, materials and teaching) for early child development/school readiness, conditional cash transfers/scholarship programmes for parents/caregivers who enrol and keep their children in school, and training schemes for female teachers who sign on for rural schools. UNICEF is also assisting with curriculum and teaching materials for integrating formal education into Quranic schools. These assistance programmes incorporate, gender concerns inclusiveness, school-based teacher development programmes, school-based management committees, and school grant systems.

It is hoped that with increasing social mobilisation, strong political will and improved management and funding Nigeria should be able to achieve the education-related. This report provides to highlight flash points for the advocacy that would be needed in this direction.

The Global workshop on Out- of-School Children (OOSC) attended by Nigeria in Istanbul, Turkey, in 2010 initiated this study on OOSC in Nigeria, this was managed by Federal Ministry of Education (FME) the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Institute for Statistics (UIS) and other sectorial partners - (NEMIS (Nigeria Education Management Information System), NPopC (National Population Commission), NBS (National Bureau of Statistics), NPC (National Planning Commission), NCNE (National Commission for Nomadic Education), NMEC (National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-Formal Education), UBEC (Universal Basic Education Commission). The study was carried out using the Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) of the Global OOSC initiative, and the process involved several brainstorming sessions with stakeholders with FME providing leadership. The objective of the study was to determine the complexity of OOSC in terms of magnitude, inequalities and multiple disparities based on five determined dimensions.

A Ministerial Committee set up by Hon. Minister of Education was mandated to determine the strategies/activities for bringing children back to school. The committee disaggregated the statistical analysis of the dimensions of OOSC by States, analysed the barriers and bottle necks in the Nigerian environment and made suggestions for the further pursuit of concerted efforts to improve equitable and meaningful access to efficiently managed basic education of good quality.



Professor Ruqayyatu Ahmed Rufa'i (OON)
Honourable Minister of Education



Dr. Suomi Sakai
UNICEF Representative

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Acronyms

5DE	5 Dimensions of Exclusion
CASSAD	Centre for African Settlement Studies and Development
CBHIS	Community Based Health Insurance Scheme
CBO	Community Based Organization
CCT	Conditional Cash Transfer
CFS	Child Friendly School
CL	Child Labour
CMF	Conceptual and Methodological Framework
COE	Colleges of Education
CRA	Child Rights Act
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DCW	Domestic Child Worker
DFID	Department for International Development
DLS	Distance Learning Study
ECCD	Early Childhood Care and Development
EFA	Education for All
ERC	Education Resources Centre
FAWEN	Forum for Africa Women Educationists (Nigeria)
FBO	Faith Based Organization
FCT	Federal Capital Territory
FMA	Federal Ministry of Agriculture
FME	Federal Ministry of Education
FMH	Federal Ministry of Health
FMWA&SD	Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development
FTS	Federal Teachers Scheme
FTTSS	Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship Scheme
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEP	Girls Education Programme
HGSFHP	Home Grown School Feeding and Health Programme
HIV/AIDS	Human Immuno-Deficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IDP	International Development Partners
ILO	International Labour Organization
IQE	Integrated Quranic Education
LGA	Local Government Authority
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MP-MF	Multi-Partner Micro-Finance
NAPEP	National Poverty Eradication Programme
NAPTIP	National Agency for the Prohibition in Trafficking in Persons
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NCE	Nigeria Certificate in Education
NCP	National Child Policy
NDHS	Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey
NEDS	Nigeria Education Data Survey
NEEDS	Nigeria Economic Empowerment Development Strategy
NEMIS	Nigeria Education Management Information System
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NERDC	Nigeria Educational Research and Development Council
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NHIS	National Health Insurance Scheme
NIEPA	National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration
NMEC	National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-Formal Education
NOGALSS	Non-Governmental Association for Literacy Support Services
NPC	National Planning Commission
NPopC	National Population Commission
NSC	National School Census
NTI	National Teachers Institute

OOSC	Out-Of-School Children
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PCR	Pupil Classroom Ratio
PCTBR	Pupil Core Text Book Ratio
PQTR	Pupil Qualified Teacher Ratio
PTR	Pupil Teacher Ratio
RIDS	Rural Infrastructural Development Scheme
SAGEN	Strategies for Accelerating Girls Education in Nigeria
SAME	State Agency for Mass Education
SBMC	School Based Management Committee
SESP-SESOP	State Education Strategic Plan-State Education Strategic Operational Plan
SFA	School Fees Abolition
SMOE	State Ministry of Education
SITAN	Situation Analysis
SOWESS	Social Welfare Services Scheme
SPSS	Statistical Programme for Social Sciences
SUBEB	State Universal Basic Education
TET Fund	Tertiary Education Trust Fund
UBE	Universal Basic Education
UBEC	Universal Basic Education Commission
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNPD	United Nations Development Programme
WSDP	Whole School Development Programme
YES	Youth Empowerment Scheme

Executive Summary

Background

Nigeria is signatory to various international agreements among which are the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), Education for All (EFA) and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). To fulfil these international agreements, Nigeria has set up structures towards the achievement of the Rights of the Nigerian children, especially as they relate to EFA and MDGs. Since 1999, when Universal Basic Education was launched, a good deal of attention and resources has been devoted to achieving EFA and Education MDGs ahead of the deadline of 2015. With the year 2015 now in sight, the nation is evaluating progress made towards attaining the objectives of both EFA and MDGs. Statistics from the Ministry of Education indicate that the proportion of Nigerian school-aged children that are out of school is unduly high. This is in spite of a policy of universal free access to basic education, and the considerable amount of resources invested in putting the policy into effect. Children in Nigeria still encounter formidable constraints in their efforts to enrol in and attend school. There is an urgent need to analyse the constraints that keep large numbers of children out-of-school Children (OOSC), and to determine in more precise terms their profiles in more precise terms. The objective is to chart the directions of customized policies that would bring them to school (or if necessary), take school to them wherever they may be. This is a necessary groundwork in a sustained effort towards ensuring that EFA and education MDGs be attained by Nigeria within the deadline of 2015 (or shortly after).

Methodology

The Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) developed by UNICEF and UIS as part of the Global OOSC Initiative sees out-of-school children, and children who are at risk of dropping out, in terms of five dimensions of exclusion (5DE), namely:

- Dimension 1 – Children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school.
- Dimension 2 – Children of primary school age who are not in primary school or at higher level
- Dimension 3 – Children of junior secondary school age who are not in primary or junior secondary (or higher)
- Dimension 4 – Children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out
- Dimension 5 – Children who are in junior secondary school but at risk of dropping out.

The CMF further categorized, for dimensions 2 and 3, three mutually exclusive sub-groups based on school exposure, as follows:

- Those who attended school in the past and dropped out (drop-outs);
- Those who never attended school but will enter in future (late entrants);
- Those who will never attend school.

This study used the CMF framework to categorize the OOSC situation in Nigeria as follows:

- **Profiles of Excluded Children:** analysis of the complexity of the out-of-school children phenomenon in terms of magnitude, inequalities and multiple disparities based on the 5 Dimensions.
- **Barriers and Bottlenecks:** analysis of the barriers/factors and the dynamic and causal processes of these Dimensions of exclusion, in addition to unpacking bottlenecks.
- **Strategic Interventions:** identification of the policies and strategies including the social protection mechanisms that can best redress the factors of exclusion or the barriers to inclusion.

The main data source is the Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS), 2008, with some comparisons of trends using the 2003 NDHS data. A desk review of existing information on OOSC was also undertaken for a fuller understanding of Barriers-Bottlenecks issues and the strategic interventions currently in place to address the challenges of OOSC in Nigeria.

Key Findings

Out of School Children: National Averages

- As of 2008 the estimated population of pre-primary aged children (age 5) was 4.5 million, of which nearly 45 per cent—or 2 million children—were classified as out of school [**Dimension 1**]. Of the total population of five year-olds, only about 12 per cent were enrolled in a pre-primary school programme of some kind, which highlights the need for expanded pre-primary study opportunities.

- The 2008 estimated primary age population (6-11 years) in Nigeria was 24.7 million. Out of these, some 7.3 million—constituting 29.6% of the total—were out of school [**Dimension 2**].
- The junior secondary age population (12-14 years) was about 10.9 million children in 2008, and of this group about 26%, or 2.8 million were classified as out of school [**Dimension 3**].
- On the aggregate, about 10.1 million children who are supposed to be in basic education were not in school [**Dimensions 2 and 3 combined**]. In other words, *almost one out of every three primary age children is out of school, and roughly one out of four junior secondary age children is out of school.*

Exposure to School

- The OOSC framework not only describes the magnitude of the out of school phenomenon, but it also provides a useful classification scheme that describes actual (and expected) school exposure for children who are currently not in school.
- In both Dimensions of exclusion at the basic education level (Dimensions 2 and 3), the category: *Expected to never enter school* is predominant. In Dimension 2, roughly 75 per cent of out of school children are in this category, while in Dimension 3 about three out of every four (77%) OOSC were in the *Expected to never enter school* category,
- The results for the OOSC category 'Expected to enter school by age 17' vary substantially by schooling level. At the primary age level (Dimension 2), about 21 per cent of children who are currently out of school are expected to eventually enter school (by age 17). However, among junior secondary-aged children (Dimension 3) only about one per cent of the out of school population is expected to enter school by age 17. In other words, very few older children (aged 12-14) enter school this late.
- The third OOSC school exposure category is concerned with *drop out*. At the primary age level (Dimension 2,) only about five per cent of out of school children have dropped out of school. For the junior secondary age category (Dimension 3) the proportion of out of school children who are school dropouts is about 20 per cent.

School Dropout Risk

- The results for dropout are mixed, as administrative data summaries show very large differences in enrolments between early and later grades in primary, which suggests that significant numbers of children are leaving primary school before completing the cycle.
- However, the dropout risk measures used in the OOSC framework, and estimates based on the NDHS surveys from 2003 and 2008, show much less dropout between school years.
- Despite the inconsistent results (by data source) for dropout, there is more agreement that the problem of children never entering formal education is a serious one in the country.

Disparities in Educational Participation and OOSC

- There are significant disparities (or inequalities) in the various outcomes by comparison dimensions such as age/grade level, gender, residence, wealth and zone/state. These are especially potent in for OOSC classifications among primary- and junior secondary-aged children (Dimensions 2-3).
- Girls are slightly more likely than boys to be out of school in both primary and junior secondary school age groups; for example, among primary aged children 32.4% of girls are out of school, compared with 26.9 per cent of boys.
- Urban children are much more likely to be in school compared with rural children in both the primary and junior secondary age groups (Dimensions 2 and 3), and the gap (or difference) in attendance rates is about 23 per cent.
- *The largest differences were encountered for socioeconomic status: among the wealthiest quintile of families (or top 20 per cent), only about 5 per cent of their primary school-aged children are not in school. However, among the poorest quintile (or bottom 20 per cent), the percentage is higher than 60 per cent.*
- The above trends are also subject to wide geographical or regional/zonal variations. The burden of Dimension 2 OOSC was either high or severe in all the states in the three geopolitical zones in the North, except for three states in the North Central zone [Kogi, Benue and Plateau] that had a low burden.
- In the South, the reverse was the case. The burden of Dimension 2 OOSC was low in all the states in the three geopolitical zones in the South except for one state in the South –West (Oyo) that had a high burden.

- For Dimension 3 OOSC, the burden was either high or severe in all the states in the three geopolitical zones in the North except for four states in the North Central zone [Kogi, Benue, Nasarawa and Plateau] that had a low burden. In the South, the reverse was again the case, with a very low OOSC burden in all of the states in the three geopolitical zones in the South.

Two Distinct Education Zones

- Overall, the comparisons by zone and state point to a country with two education scenarios. In the southern zones and states almost all children enter formal school at some point, and those that are out of school are, in the majority of cases, are dropouts. In the northern zones and states, by contrast, substantial percentages of primary- and junior secondary-aged children are not in formal school (although a large proportion attends non-formal education Quranic schools).
- There is therefore the need for flexibility in addressing problems related to out of school children, as the burden is not uniformly felt throughout the country. The results for comparisons by gender, do lend support to this recommendation, as boys fare substantially better in some states and zones, while in others there is gender parity, or even some advantages in favour of girls.

Barriers and Bottlenecks

Several factors act in concert or separately to keep children out of school. These barriers and bottlenecks can be grouped into economic barriers and bottlenecks, socio-cultural barriers and bottlenecks, and supply side barriers and bottlenecks.

Socio-cultural Barriers and Bottlenecks

The socio-cultural barriers are factors affecting the willingness and ability of families/households, based on their perception of the importance and value of education, to enroll their children in school, and sustain their support until the children successfully complete their education. Some of these barriers include:

- Too young to attend school
- Early Marriage.
- Western education perceived as incompatible with Islamic Education
- Large Family size:
- Lower status accorded the Girl-child in the family.
- Peer Pressure
- Children with special needs including OVC

Economic Demand Side Barriers

Economic demand side barriers and bottlenecks are the factors contributing to the number of OOSC which have to do with socio-economic needs of the children and their families. These needs are rooted in the socio-economic status of people. This has far reaching implications on the demand for education of children in the family:

- Poverty of the Family
- Residence or Location
- Child Labour
- Pursuit for material Wealth by Youth
- Limited employment opportunities for school leavers

Supply Side Barriers

- Inadequate Implementation of Pre-primary articulation Policy to public Primary Schools;
- Shortage of Teachers and Caregivers at all levels of Basic Education Schools;
- Safety/Security of the children;
- Incessant and prolonged teachers' strike actions and low teacher Commitment;
- Learner Unfriendly School Environment; (most pronounced is inadequate school infrastructure)
- Lack of Provision for the Education of special needs learners in Basic education;
- Weak or Non-existent Social Protection of Vulnerable Children.
- Non-availability of schools in some communities

Politics and Governance

Politics is a critical factor in the supply of and demand for education in any country. What the political leaders of a country regard as key educational challenges determine main policy directions. Thus government priority in the area of education is critical to what educational practitioners do. The capacity of government to

implement educational policies depends political will and the capacity of mobilise resources and deploy them judiciously. In the Nigerian context these issues do affect school participation and consequently the magnitude of the OOSC phenomenon, as seen in.:

- low level of Political Will;
- Politicization of Basic Education;
- Weak School level Governance;
- Poor Financing of Education in Nigeria.

Strategic Interventions

Nigeria has introduced a good number of initiatives intended to facilitate the implementation of UBE effectively and to achieve EFA and MDGs. Prominent among these are the following

- Ban on the withdrawal of girls from school for marriage purposes;
- Intensive Advocacy, Sensitization and Mobilization of Religious and Traditional Leaders;
- Establishment and growth of Female Teachers Trainee Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS) in Rural Communities;
- Integration of Core subjects into Quranic Education in northern states;
- Free and Compulsory Basic Education in Nigeria;
- Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT);
- Teachers Capacity Building;
- Increased Quality Teacher output for Basic Education by Colleges of Education;
- Improved Quality Assurance in Basic Education;
- Application of the Principles of Child Friendly School (CFS)
- Revision and Introduction of more Relevant School Curricula;
- Social Protection Measures for Children (Child Right Act 2003)
- State/LGA Education Sector Plan and Operational Plan (SESP-SESOP; LESP/LESOP);
- Establishment of functional School Based Management Committees in Basic Education Schools.

Budgeting and Finance

Funding is critical to the success of policy initiatives designed to eliminate the OOSC phenomenon. To this end the Nigerian government and its major partners have undertaken the following education fund boosting steps.

- Establishment of Basic Education Intervention Fund in UBEC;
- Funds from Debt Relief Grant (DRG);
- Special Intervention Fund for Almajiri Education from MDG/FGN
- Funds from IDPs.
- Loans from the World Bank

Major Recommendations

The study shows that the attainment of EFA and the MDGs in Nigeria by the year 2015 is threatened by its huge OOSC burden. The threat is compounded by the existence of two distinct education access zones in the country, with the northern states trailing behind the southern states. Gender is still an issue, with a poor level of girls' participation particularly in the northern states, while adolescent boys' disaffection with schooling is a strong challenge in the south east zone. Rural areas are disadvantaged almost everywhere. All over the country, wealth and socio-economic status confers a definite advantage in terms of enrolment, attendance and completion. There has been quite an impressive list of initiatives to address the demand and supply side barriers and bottlenecks impeding the attainment of EFA and the MDGs in the country, but these have yielded mixed results. The initiatives are being carried out by a wide variety of agencies, with little coordination among them and so very little synergy dividend. Efforts to fast tract the elimination of the OOSC phenomenon, as a route towards attaining EFA and the MDGs would require concerted and urgent efforts along the following lines:

1. Overarching national/sub-national development guidelines that seriously address the challenge of poverty, to take care of a factor that the study has identified as the number one bottleneck.
2. a strategic re-focussing of the UBE programme (at national and state levels), with OOSC as corner stone and paying specific attention to the demand and supply side bottlenecks identified by the study
3. Targeted funding that adequately address the bottlenecks

4. Scaling up of the special initiatives by all partners (such as the GEP initiatives) and – in particular – initiatives addressing the challenge of geographical/national disparity
5. Addressing the gender challenge from both ends: special attention to GIRLS' participation along with responsive programmes on boys' dropout in the south-east.
6. Establishment of a functional coordinating mechanism among all actors to enhance synergy and reduce multiplication of disparate interventions
7. Policy dialogues to address the question WHY HAVE PREVIOUS STRATEGIC INTERVENTION NOT QUITE SUCCEEDED, as a way of avoiding past mistakes and re-conceptualising and refining strategies for responding to the challenge of OOSC
8. A data collection framework (and database) specifically for analysing Out of School Children (OOSC) to facilitate monitoring, research and policymaking for this important group; more research is also required to understand why estimates for out of school children and dropout rates vary substantially by data source;

1. Introduction

1.1. Country Context

Nigeria is a country in the West African Region bordering the Gulf of Guinea between the republics of Benin and Cameroon. It shares borders with the Republics of Benin, Cameroon, Chad and Niger and has a total area of 923,768 sq. km. [910,768 sq. km. of land and 13,000 sq. km. of water]. The two major rivers - Niger and Benue - form a confluence at Lokoja and flow southwards into the Atlantic Ocean, forming numerous creeks in the oil-rich Niger Delta region. With a vast arable land (about 31.2% of the land mass is arable) and climatic condition that varies from equatorial in the South to tropical in the Centre and arid in the North, the country has tremendous agricultural endowments. In addition, it is richly endowed with the following natural resources: natural gas, petroleum, tin, iron ore, coal, limestone, niobium, lead, zinc. Two major natural hazards faced by the country are drought in the North and flooding in the North and South. Current environmental challenges include soil degradation, rapid deforestation, urban air and water pollution, desertification, oil pollution etc.

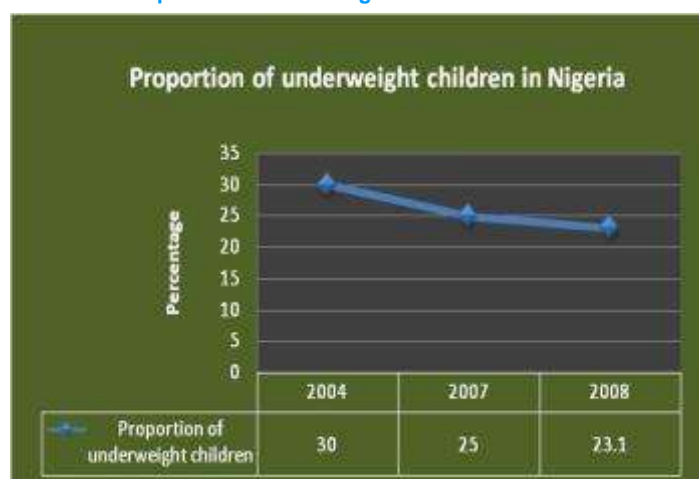
With an estimated growth rate of 1.93% and fertility rate of 4.73 children born/woman, Nigeria, already the most populous African nation, has a rapidly growing population which accounts for one-sixth of the African population. At the time of the National Population Commission of Nigeria census conducted in 2006, the country's population stood at 140,431,790, and by July 2011, had grown to 155,215,576. The median age has increased from 18.63 years in 2006 to 19 years in 2009. The dominant population group is 15-64 years (55.5%) followed by 0-14 years (41.5%). The group aged 65 years and above constitute 3.1% of the population.

Nigeria operates a Federal system with 36 states, a Federal Capital Territory and 774 local governments. After several years of military rule, the country returned to civil rule in 1999 and has since then remained under democratically elected leadership. The 1999 Constitution which was drafted by the Military provided the framework for the country's return to civil rule. It witnessed the first amendment by a democratically elected National Assembly in 2011. In spite of post-election violence that erupted in two states in the Northern part of the country, the last election held in April 2011 under a multi-party system was judged by both local and international agencies that monitored the election to be the most credible in the history of the nation. In spite of the sophistication of the political behaviour of the electorate during the last general elections, which seem to indicate a deepening of democratic culture in Nigeria, violent conflict of religious, political and ethnic origin have been on the increase in the last five years. These conflicts may constitute serious threats to the stability and development of this fledgling democracy.

There are about 389 ethnic and linguistic groups in Nigeria. Islam and Christianity are the predominant religions, although there is also a sizable population of adherents of a traditional religion.

Poverty remains a deep-rooted development issue in Nigeria, which ranked 142 out of 169 countries on the 2011 Human Development Index (HDI) with 63.5 % of its population living in poverty (UNDP, 2011). The 2008 Nigeria Demographic and Household Survey (NDHS) estimated the poverty index at 32.3%.

Chart 1.1: Proportion of Underweight Children 2004-2008



Source: Human Development Report, Nigeria 2008-2009

Efforts at reducing poverty and improving human development in the last decade seem to have achieved some noticeable gains. According to the Human Development Report Nigeria 2008-2009, the proportion of underweight children – a key target under MDG 1 on Poverty and hunger – declined marginally from 30.00% in 2004 to 25% in 2007 and 23.1% in 2008 (Chart 1.1).

The 2008 NDHS also reported significant improvements in infant mortality, with a drop from 110 deaths/ 1000 live births in 2005 to 98.8 in 2006 and 75 in 2008 (Chart 1.2). However it appears to

Chart 1.2: Infant Mortality Rates 2004-2008

have risen again to 94.35 deaths/1000 live births in 2010. Under-5 mortality declined from 197 deaths/1000live births in 2005 to 157 in 2008. Similarly, within the last decade, from 2000 to 2009, life expectancy appeared to have decreased by 4.62 years (51.56 years in 2000 to 46.94 years in 2009); see Chart 1.3 below. The lowering of life expectancy was more for men (5.42%) than for females (3.79 years).

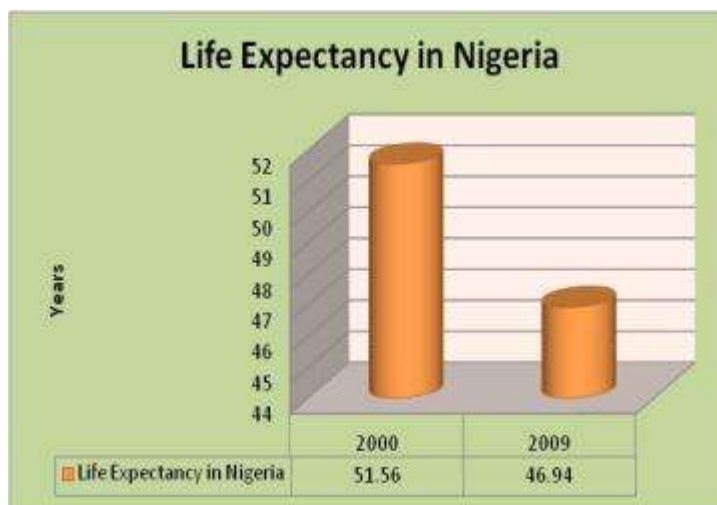
A key feature of the country's socio-economic structure is inequality. The Gini coefficient—a standard measure used to define inequality by the distribution of income-- stood at 0.43 in 1985, but has increased to 0.49 in 2004, thereby making Nigeria one of the most unequal countries in the world. The entrenched structural inequalities manifest in unequal income distribution, differential access to basic infrastructure, education, training, and employment opportunities. The consequence of this is the creation of disparities in income and access to social and economic opportunities between males and females, urban and rural residents, high and low socio-economic groups etc. These culminate in the emergence of educationally, socially and economically marginalized, excluded or disadvantaged groups.

Between 2004 and 2007, Nigeria implemented key economic reforms under the NEEDS (Nigerian Economic Empowerment Development Strategy) and the Vision 20-2020 and is currently pursuing the Transformation Agenda. – an economic development plan which aims at making Nigeria one of the top 20 economies in the world by the year 2020. These economic reforms have resulted in improvements in major economic indicators. It is estimated that the GDP (without the informal sector) has grown to 374.3 billion USD in 2010 from 170.7 billion USD in 2005 just as the GDP per capita grew from 1,200 USD per person in 2005 to 2,500 USD per person in 2009. The GDP growth rate is impressive at 7.8%. Unfortunately, these economic gains seem not to reflect in the socio-economic conditions of the people.



Source: Human Development Report Nigeria, 2008-09

Chart 1.3: Life Expectancy in Nigeria 2000 and 2009



Source: Human Development Report Nigeria 2008-2009

1.2. Overview of the education sector

In Nigeria, education is seen as an instrument par excellence for national development and therefore a sector deserving of huge Government investment. Soon after the attainment of political independence in 1960, the need to inject relevance into the inherited system of education gathered momentum and later crystallized in the first National Curriculum Conference in 1969 and subsequently a National Policy on Education in 1977. Apart from identifying the philosophy and goals of Nigerian education and describing the different levels of the Education system with their objectives, the National Policy on Education ushered in a new structure of education (the 6-3-3-4). In order to reflect new developments in the system, the Policy, which is in its 4th edition, has been subjected to periodic revisions.

The introduction of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme in 1976 was a significant milestone in widening access to education, particularly for the poor and rural dwellers. The UPE programme was a School Fees Abolition (SFA) policy which gave rise to an unprecedented upsurge in school enrolment. However, due to poor planning precipitated by wrong statistical forecasts, the programme could not move Nigeria towards universal access to primary education. By 1979, the country successfully transitioned to a civilian government after 13 years of uninterrupted military rule. Whereas the new civilian government could not continue with the UPE scheme at the national level, the state governments in the western states (now South-West States) sustained free primary education throughout the 80's and the 90's. In 1999, there was a rebirth of the SFA policy at the national level under the Universal Basic Education Programme (UBE). The UBE Act (UBE, 2004) provides for free and compulsory 9-year continuous education for every Nigerian child. It stipulates appropriate sanctions against parents who fail to enrol their children in school. The Act also stipulates that 2% of the Federal Account shall be set aside as an intervention fund to assist the state governments in implementing the UBE programme in order to ensure uniform development of basic education in the country.

To strengthen the management structure of education in the country, a number of regulatory agencies/bodies were created between the 70's and the 90's. Some of these agencies/bodies which are key players in the basic education sub-sector include the UBEC, NCCE, NMEC, NCNE, NERDC, and TET Fund. Operating at the state level are the SOMEs, SUBEBs and SAMEs.

The Nigerian education system has five main levels according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). Pre-primary education begins at age 3, and is intended to last three years. Primary education (level 1 in the ISCED) begins at age 6, and includes six complete years of study. For junior secondary education (level 2 in the ISCED), which is called "Junior Secondary", the entrance age is 12, and this level comprises three years of study. This is followed by upper secondary ("Senior Secondary", level 3 in the ISCED) beginning at age 15, which lasts another three years. Finally, the first stage of tertiary education ("Bachelor") is designed for four years of study, while non-university higher education follows a slightly different structure. There are also technical and vocational education options beginning at the Junior Secondary level.

1.3. The Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DE) in the Nigerian Context

The Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) developed by UNICEF and UIS as part of the Global OOSC Initiative conceptualized out-of-school children in terms of five dimensions of exclusion (5DE) as shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: The Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DE)

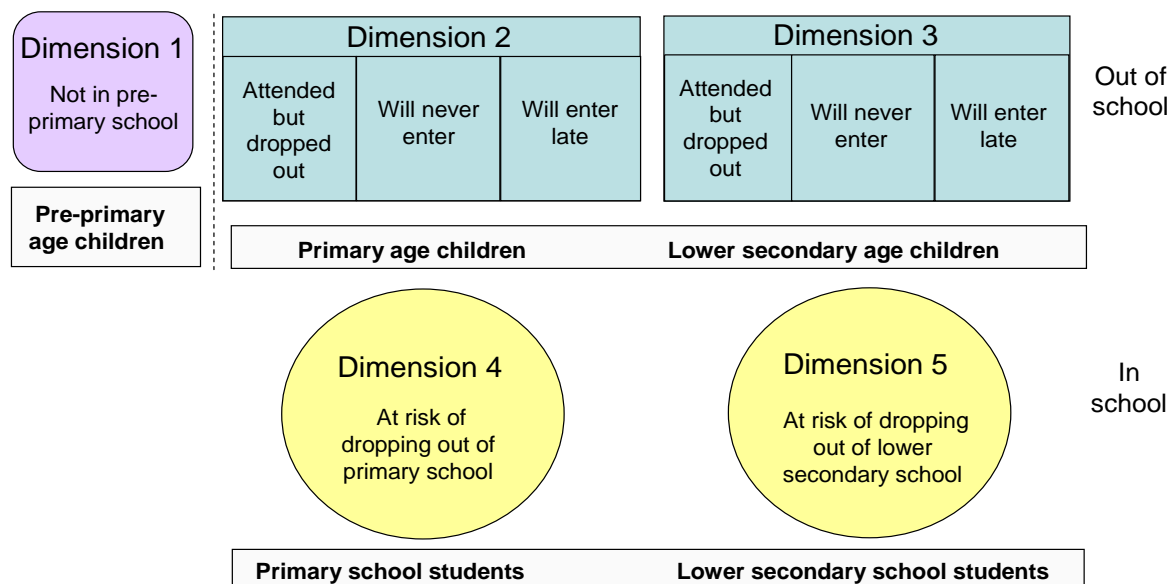
Dimension 1	Children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school
Dimension 2	Children of primary school age who are not in primary or secondary school
Dimension 3	Children of junior secondary school age who are not in primary or junior secondary school (or higher)
Dimension 4	Children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out
Dimension 5	Children who are in junior secondary school but at risk of dropping out

The five dimensions are illustrated in Chart 1.4 below. The dimension definitions in more detail are as follows:

Dimension 1: Children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school.

The National Policy on Education (NERDC, 2004) defines pre-primary education as that education given to children aged 0-5 years prior to entry into the primary school. This level of education is important to ensure smooth transition from the home to school and prepare children for primary education. Dimension 1 represents children who do not benefit from pre-primary education and who may therefore not be adequately prepared for primary education, placing them at risk of not entering into primary education or, if they do enter, at risk of dropping out. For pre-primary aged children (Dimension 1), the standard approach (suggested by the Global Initiative) is based on pre-primary attendance of children in the year proceeding the official entrance age into primary school. In the case of Nigeria Dimension 1 therefore covers children aged 5 years who are not in pre-primary or primary education.

Chart 1.4: The Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DE)



Dimension 2: Children of primary school age (6-11 years) who are not attending primary or secondary school.

Children in this age range who are in pre-primary education or those attending Non-Formal Education Centres where the programmes cannot be equated to primary education level are regarded as out-of school children.

Dimension 3: Children of junior secondary school age (12 – 14 years) who are not attending primary or secondary school (or any higher institution).

As is the case with Dimension 2, children in this age range who are attending any school lower than the primary level are regarded as out-of school children.

Dimension 4: Children in primary school (of any age) who face the risk of dropping out of primary school.

Dimension 5: Children in junior secondary school (of any age) who face the risk of dropping out of junior secondary school.

Whereas Dimensions 1 to 3 represent the out-of-school population of today, Dimensions 4 and 5 represent a different population, namely the in-school population that is at risk of dropping out and becoming - part of the out-of-school population of tomorrow. To prevent the OOSC phenomenon it would be necessary to identify the **at-risk children** in the country (Dimensions 4 and 5) and analyse the associated risk factors.

Categorization of OOSC Based on School Exposure

The CMF further categorizes OOSC into three mutually exclusive sub-groups based on school exposure as illustrated in Chart 5. These three mutually exclusive categories are:

- Those who attended school in the past and dropped out (drop outs);
- Those who never attended school but will enter in future (late entrants);
- Those who will never attend school.

1.4. Data Sources

Following the Out of School Children (OOSC) work in other countries, the main information source in this study are the Nigeria Demographic and Health Surveys (NDHS) of 2003 and 2008. This information comes from surveys conducted by the National Population Commission (NPopC). The DHS is conducted every five years and covers a representative sample of households in all states in the country. In 2008 it targeted a total of 36,800 households, while for 2003 a total of roughly 7,200 households were visited. The data collection procedure involves visiting the sampled households and interviewing all women aged 15-49 and men aged

15-59 from every second household, present in the household either as a visitor or permanent resident. The educational data canvassed in the survey and their operational definitions are as follows:

- *Out-of-School Children*: Children who never attended school or attended school in the past but are not attending in the current school year;
- *School Entrance Age*: The age at which the child began schooling;
- *Attendance*: Whether or not the child is reported to have attended school at any time during the current school year;
- *School leaving*: There are two categories of school leaving. On an “overall” basis school leaving refers to a child who attended school in the past, but is no longer enrolled. The “Year on Year” school leaving rate refer to a child who was enrolled the previous year, but is not enrolled in the current year. This measure is similar to drop out, but is not classified as such because a child may leave school after completing a given level, which is not the same as “dropping out” before completing that level.
- *Repetition*: A child who attended the same grade in the previous year as they are attending in the current year.

The source reports statistics (numbers and percentages) of out-of-school children and school-age population at the level of enumeration areas. These statistics are disaggregated by sex, age, disability, and enumeration area. Both hard and electronic copies are available and can be obtained from the NPopC or on their website.

The NDHS survey covers only a percentage of the population, and as a result the generalizations drawn from this data are subject to sampling errors. Survey data—like all data sources—are also subject to non-sampling errors that result from incorrect responses to questions, or problematic questions.

One potentially serious issue with the DHS concerns the month of the survey and the impact this can have on measurement of “current” school attendance, and age at the time of school attendance. For the NDHS 2003 the surveys were completed between March and June 2003, which corresponds to the second half of the Nigerian school year (which officially runs from September to June). This means that all schooling results from the 2003 NDHS refer to the 2002-03 school year. It also requires adjusting the child’s age by subtracting one year from their current age (measured in 2003) to more accurately reflect their age at the beginning of the 2002-03 school year, which is the strategy recommended by UIS for the analysis of DHS data in these cases.

The 2008 DHS was carried out between June and October 2008, and most of the interviews (about 65 per cent) were conducted before the 2008-09 school year had begun. As a result, data collection personnel were instructed to ask families about school attendance in the *previous* school year (2007-08). This also requires adjusting the child’s age in the 2008 DHS analysis downward by one year to reflect their age at the time of the 2007-08 school years. This method of “looking backward” also introduces some potential measurement error if families do not understand the question, or if they do not accurately remember.

Finally there is the issue of Quranic school attendance. It is generally known that a substantial number of children are in these schools, especially in the northern zones. However, the definition of school attendance in this report is based on formal schools only, which does not include the Quranic (or other) systems that are considered non-formal.

When appropriate, other data sources are used as well, mainly for analysis of school attendance rates. These sources are described in the sections they appear in.

1.5. Methodology

Major Research Issues

The methodological framework for this study was designed to address three major issues which also define the three components of the study as follows:

1. *Profiles of Excluded Children*: analysing the complexity of out-of-school children in terms of magnitude, inequalities and multiple disparities based on the 5 Dimensions.
2. *Barriers and Bottlenecks*: analysis of the barriers/factors and the dynamic and causal processes of these Dimensions of Exclusion, in addition to unpacking bottlenecks.
3. *Strategic Interventions*: highlighting of policies and strategies including the social protection mechanisms that can best redress the factors of exclusion or the barriers to inclusion.

1.6. Procedure

In order to address the above three major issues, three major activities were undertaken. These included:

Quantitative analysis of existing data

In determining the complexity of out-of-school children in terms of magnitude, inequalities and multiple disparities based on the 5DE (Major Research Issue 1: Profiles), a quantitative analysis of existing data was undertaken. The data sources used for these analyses were the 2008 population projected from the 2006 Population and Housing Census and the 2003 and 2008 Nigeria Demographic and Health Surveys (NDHS). The analysis was done using the customised Excel software prepared by UIS for countries participating in the Global Initiative on OOSC. From this analysis, estimates of the three categories of OOSC (i.e. dropped out, expected to enter late, expected to never enter) were obtained for Dimensions 2 and 3 of the 5DE.

The data on Dimension 1 are generated from DHS data sources. With respect to Dimensions 4 and 5, the observed dropout rates, as recommended by UIS, were used as the best measure of the proportion of children who are at risk of dropping out from the primary and junior secondary schools respectively.

For disparity analysis, the data on OOSC were disaggregated by state, geopolitical zone, gender, wealth, and residence (location). To determine the relative weights of these barriers or factors, a simple measure of effect size (i.e. the difference in the proportions of the two comparison groups) was used.

Analytical Desk Review

Analytical desk review of existing literature and documents was undertaken as the main procedure for addressing Major Research Issue 2 (barriers) and Major Research Issue 3 (policies). The review focused on the analysis of the:

- a. Barriers (or causal factors) and Bottlenecks of exclusion that are linked to these profiles or characteristics of Nigerian OOSC.
- b. Evidence in respect of policies and strategies which remove barriers and bottlenecks *both* within the education sector and cross-sectorally, particularly through Social Protection programs which address social and economic barriers.

Qualitative Study

In order to supplement and enrich the desk review with a multi-sectoral perspective on Major Research Issues 2 and 3 (barriers and policies) a qualitative study in the form of key informants' interview was undertaken. Two instruments adapted from the "Generic questionnaire" provided as a guide or framework by the Global OOSCI were used for collecting the relevant data. The 'Questionnaire for Stakeholders on OOSC – Barriers, Bottlenecks, Policies and Strategies' was used to capture the work of relevant agencies (stakeholders) on barriers and bottlenecks as well as the best practices on policies and strategies that promote schooling in relation to the 5DE. The 'Questionnaire for Key Informants and Policy Makers Social Protection Systems' captured the inputs of the same relevant agencies (stakeholders) on the social protection systems in Nigeria. This was in terms of the main social protection policies and strategies in place and the extent to which they function as a system, their financing, impact and multi-sectoral synergies. The respondents were directorate-level staff of relevant agencies or stakeholders who are key players in education and related sectors.

1.7. Structures for Executing the Study

The structure that was established for executing the study comprised the following:

- a. The Core Team: This team which is the propelling inner wheel for the OOSC Global Initiative in Nigeria comprised the four officials who participated in the Global Methodology Workshop. These are: Umar Hussaini, Deputy Director, Policy, Planning, Management and Research, FME; Boniface Nworgu, University of Nigeria, Nsukka; Alice Akunga, Chief, Basic Education, UNICEF, Abuja; and Valentina Solarin, Education Specialist, UNICEF, Abuja. The team was responsible for developing a blueprint or plan for appropriate programmes, actions and interventions in well-structured and strategic manner for the successful execution of the study.
- b. National Task Team: This was a small operational Committee that carried out the quantitative analysis of the data. The Technical working Group on Quantitative Data Analysis comprised the Consultants, representatives of National Population Commission, National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), FME, NEMIS, Education Data bank, UBEC, NMEC, NCNE. This Committee had the responsibility of carrying out the quantitative data analysis and generating the profiles of the OOSC in the 5DE. Between September 2010 when the Technical Working Group met for the first time in Kaduna, and May 2010, the Group met four times and generated the profiles of OOSC for Dimensions 2 and 3.

Validation of Report/Data

The data and the findings of the study were presented to a Stakeholders Forum for their inputs and validation. The Forum comprised relevant ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) as well as NGOs whose operational mandate has relevance for OOSC. These include: FME, FMWASD, FMIC, FMOH, NPopC, NPC, NMEC, NCNE, UBEC, NEMIS, NCCE, NERDC NBS, NAPTIP, FAWA (N) and NOGALSS

2. Educational Participation and Exclusion in Nigeria

This chapter provides a detailed overview of education in Nigeria, divided into three general sections. This begins with an empirical overview of the Nigerian education system that goes beyond the basic institutional summary that was provided in Chapter 1, with indicators for school participation rates and quality, and a brief review of important trends in recent years. This section is intended to provide an overall context for understanding educational exclusion in Nigeria, which is the focus of the second and third parts of the chapter—and of this study.

The second section provides a detailed overview of Dimensions 1, 2 and 3 of the Out of School Children (OOSC) framework introduced in the previous chapter. This is done on a national basis as well as by states, with some additional comparisons by student gender, location and socioeconomic status. Finally, the third section completes the overview of OOSC with Dimensions 4 and 5.

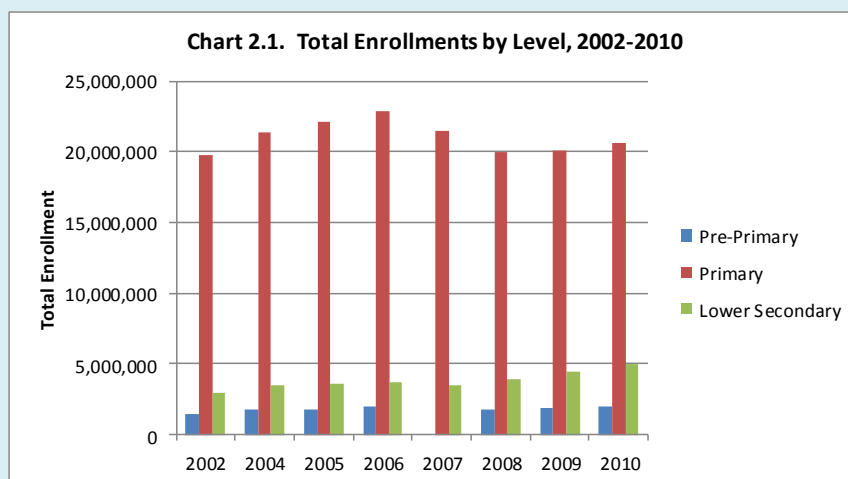
As noted in Chapter 1, the main source of information for the empirical work in this study is the Nigeria Demographic and Health Surveys (NDHS) from 2003 and 2008, although the first part of the chapter also brings in information from the UNESCO data webpage (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, UIS: <http://stats.uis.unesco.org>). The analysis of the five dimensions of the OOSC framework relies exclusively on the 2008 NDHS. The NDHS data have already been analysed by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), and the spread sheets created by the UIS are used to fill in many of the tables and charts presented in this chapter; these have been augmented with additional analyses carried out by local and international consultants and analysis team members. Also, as described before, the NDHS survey years correspond to the 2002-03 and 2007-08 school years. For more information on the NDHS the reader is referred to the general analyses that accompanied each survey (NDHS Report, 2004; National Population Commission and ICF Macro, 2009).

2.1. Educational Participation

The major thrust of Education sector reforms in Nigeria in the past decade has been to widen access and improve the quality of education delivery in a manner that is equitable. To achieve this, a series of actions and interventions are on-going in the sector. Although some positive gains have been recorded in some aspects as a result of these interventions and reform initiatives, the education performance indicators (EPI) and other development indicators for the country have remained on the low side and therefore generally unimpressive.

Chart 2.1 begins the review of educational participation with a summary of school enrolments by level for the 2002-2010 period (data from 2003 are not available from this source). The chart confirms the enormity of the Nigerian education system, with more than 25 million students in these three levels. In terms of trends the results for primary are mixed, and show that enrolments declined between 2006 and 2008, and in recent years are increasing. This is somewhat surprising given the general population growth that is taking place in the country.

Chart 2.1 also demonstrates the centrality of the primary level in Nigerian education. As of 2010, the primary school population of just over 20 million students is almost three times larger than the combined number of junior secondary and pre-primary students.

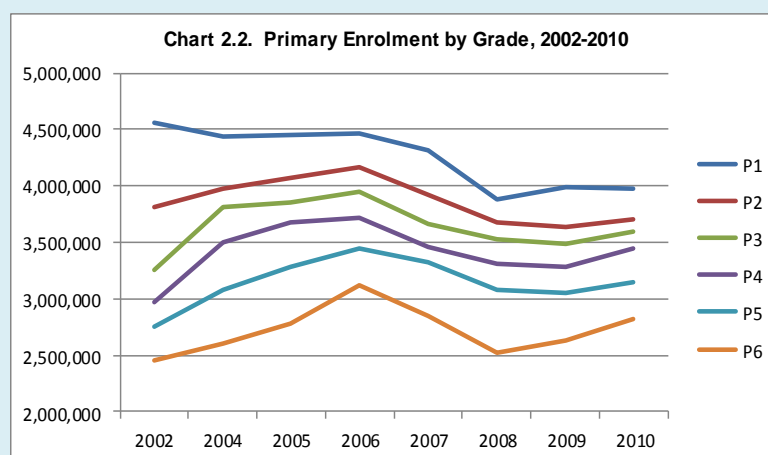


Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

This emphasis on primary education is a common feature of education systems in the developing world. However, it is a problematic one, since it signals an imbalance in participation where not enough spaces are available at lower (i.e. pre-primary) and higher (junior secondary) levels. There is some evidence in Chart 2.1 that the distribution is becoming more equal, as junior secondary participation levels (measured only by total students) are increasing in recent years. But overall the results suggest that much work remains in Nigeria to provide children with educational opportunities in levels other than primary. This is returned to below with a review of enrolment rates, as opposed to enrolment totals.

Chart 2.2 continues the overview based on numbers with a breakdown of primary enrolments by grade during the same 2002-2010 period. The results are generally consistent with the overall trend in Chart 2.1, and show that in most primary grades enrolments increased between 2002 and 2006, then declined through 2008, and since 2008 have been on the upswing. As expected, the largest primary grade based on enrolment is grade one. According to the 2010 summary, roughly 4 million children were enrolled in grade one, compared with about 2.8 million children in grade 6. This disparity between grade one and six enrolments is another common feature of education systems in developing countries. It is a result of population growth, grade repetition (especially in the lower primary grades), and primary dropout. This topic is returned to below with a summary of primary completion rates.

Enrolment summaries based on raw numbers are useful from a systemic standpoint, but they do not tell the whole story in terms of participation. Table 2.1 summarizes gross and net enrolment rates by school level, year and gender. Gross enrolment is defined as the total number of children (regardless of age) who are enrolled in a given level, while the net rate is based on a more restricted definition that only includes children from the correct age group for that level. When the disparity between the two rates is large (i.e. gross is much higher than net), the likely explanation is high rates of grade repetition, or late entry (i.e. older children) into the school system.



Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics

Table 2.1: Gross Enrolment Ratio and Net Enrolment Rates 2002-2010, by Level and Gender

Level/Group:	2002	2004	2006	2008	2010
Gross Enrolment Rate (GER)					
Pre Primary	11.9	14.4	15.6	12.6	13.9
Female	11.8	14.3	15.7	12.9	13.8
Male	12.1	14.4	15.5	12.3	14.0
Primary	97.8	100.9	102.8	85.0	83.3
Female	88.6	92.1	95.2	80.1	79.3
Male	106.6	109.3	110.1	89.9	87.1
Junior secondary	32.4	37.3	38.3	38.6	46.7
Female	27.0	33.3	34.8	35.8	43.9
Male	37.7	41.1	41.5	41.4	49.4
Net Enrolment Rate (NER)					
Primary	----	66.5	67.8	58.8	57.6
Female	----	61.8	63.9	55.4	54.8
Male	----	71.1	71.6	62.0	60.1

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics

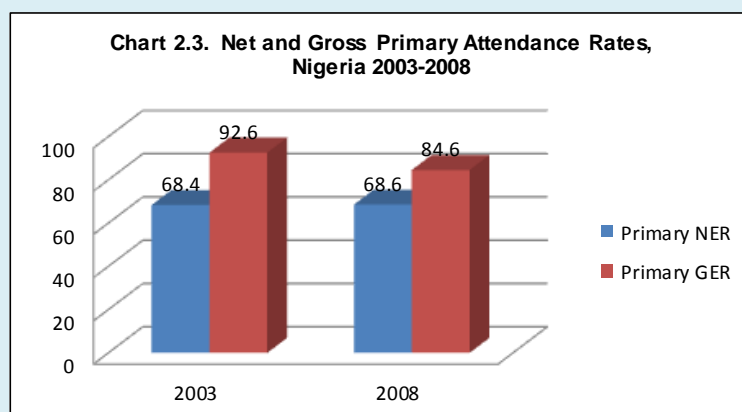
The following trends stand out from the table. First, the results confirm that participation rates are the highest in primary, followed by junior secondary and then pre-primary. Enrolment rates at the pre-primary level are

quite low (GER of about 14 per cent), which points to the need to expand opportunities at this important level. Second, for primary schooling the trends during the 2002-2010 period are somewhat mixed. As noted before, participation was increasing both on a gross and net basis between 2002 and 2006, but since 2006 the trend has been negative. This is a difficult result to explain, since it suggests that families are less likely to send their children to school in recent years than before.

However, there is a positive trend for junior secondary schooling. The gross enrolment ratio (GER) at this level steadily increases throughout the 2002-2010 period, going from 32.4 per cent in 2002 to nearly 47 per cent in 2010. This is an impressive improvement in a relatively short period of time, and shows that opportunities to study at the junior secondary level are increasing in Nigeria. This is a trend that needs to continue in order to absorb even more of the primary school graduates.

Finally, the table shows that boys and girls do not fare equally in terms of school attendance in Nigeria. At the primary and junior secondary levels there are significant differences in gross and net (for primary) enrolment rates favouring boys, and in some years the gaps are upwards of 20 per cent. However, it is important to note that these gaps are declining over time. For example, boys had an 18 per cent advantage over girls in gross participation in primary schooling in 2002, but by 2010 this gap had been reduced to fewer than eight per cent. This is an encouraging trend that likely reflects a positive impact of policy emphasis in Nigeria on getting girls to school.

Chart 2.3 summarizes gross and net primary attendance rates based on the NDHS data that are used in this report. The results show that net attendance (NAR) in primary was 68.6 per cent in 2008, which is actually for the 2007-08 school year. This represents a marginal improvement over the 2002-03 school year rate (68.4 per cent) that was measured in the 2003 NDHS. Also, the gross attendance rate (GAR) for primary has declined during this period, and stood at just over 87 per cent in 2008. This is positive if it is a result of more on-time school entry, and less grade repetition. These trends for the 2003-2008 period according to the DHS data are generally consistent with the summaries in Table 2.1 that are based on UNESCO data. However, there is some disagreement in the levels of participation by data source¹, especially for net attendance in 2008.



Source: NDHS, 2003-2008

In terms of the breakdown by sector, the UNESCO data show that 92.1 per cent of primary attendance is from public schools, compared with only about 8 per cent in private schooling. However, there is more private participation in pre-primary (27.5 per cent) and junior secondary (17.7 per cent) levels.

Table 2.2 continues the analysis with a summary of school leaving. As described above, the term drop out is not incorporated here because leaving school includes children who have discontinued their schooling after completing a level like primary or junior secondary, which is different than leaving school before completing that level (often called dropping out). School leaving rates are much higher among older Nigerian children, and relatively infrequent in the age 12-14 range. For example, as of 2008 only 3.4 per cent of 12 year olds who had entered school in Nigeria were no longer attending. Not surprisingly, this figure steadily increases by age, and for 18 year olds especially there is a higher Overall school leaving rate (37.2%), meaning they have attended school and no longer do so. Once again it is important to note that in many cases these children have already completed a level, and have decided not to continue. For the Year-on-Year school leaving rates the results again show very little school leaving among younger children, but increasing rates as children presumably reach the end of important cycles like lower and upper secondary. For the most part school leaving is decreasing in Nigeria, although for some age cohorts the rates were increasing during the 2003-2008 period.

¹ These figures based on the NDHS are also not always consistent with those presented in the NDHS analytical reports. This is due primarily for the net attendance rate (NAR) calculations, which are different in this report since attendance in higher levels of education is counted towards the net rate calculation, as opposed to the specific level being analyzed. There is also the issue (referred to above) of age-adjustment to account for the time of the survey visits in the school calendar.

Table 2.2: Overall and Year-on-Year School Leaving Rates 2003-2008, by Age and Gender

AGE/GENDER	Overall		Year-on-Year	
	2003	2008	2003	2008
Age 12	4.0	3.4	2.7	1.2
Female	3.2	3.4	1.7	1.2
Male	4.8	3.4	3.6	1.1
Age 14	9.1	8.3	4.1	2.5
Female	9.3	8.6	6.5	2.7
Male	8.8	8.1	2.1	2.3
Age 16	19.6	15.5	5.3	6.5
Female	24.1	17.2	6.8	7.8
Male	14.8	13.8	4.3	5.4
Age 18	37.2	35.0	13.7	14.1
Female	40.7	39.0	19.2	17.2
Male	33.3	30.7	8.9	11.9

Source: NDHS, 2003-2008

The results for school leaving once again highlight the importance of getting children into school initially. The challenge is therefore insuring that every child enters the system, which is why the Out of School Children framework is so relevant to the Nigerian case. With only two years to 2015, a significant number of basic education age children are not enrolled in school. Estimates of these totals vary by source. Based on NDHS data from 2008 there are about 7.3 million young people out of school. The FME Road Map (2009) estimates that about 19.6m children (who are supposed to be enrolled in basic education) are out of school. UNESCO Institute for Statistics data shows that about 10.5 million children of primary age were not enrolled in school in 2010.

These differences in the estimates of out of school children highlight an important issue that needs to be taken into account when reviewing the results for this study. Surveys based on samples, and administrative data collected by school officials (local, state, federal, etc.), each have strengths and weaknesses, however they rarely provide exactly the same results. In the case of Nigeria there does appear to be some significant variation in education progress indicators by data source. For example, Chart 2.2 above—which was based on administrative data provided by Nigerian education officials (from schools)—shows a very large decline in enrolment totals between grade 1 and grade 6, which is indicative of a high rate of dropout during the primary school cycle. UNESCO's Institute for Statistics (UIS) estimates that the primary completion rate (among children who at least enrol) is about 80 per cent (UIS: <http://stats.uis.unesco.org>),

However, based on the summaries of school leaving presented above (Table 2.2) using the NDHS data, dropout during the primary and junior secondary cycles does not appear to be a serious issue. Furthermore, NDHS summaries of primary completion rates show that by the age of 14 roughly 65 per cent of 14 year olds in Nigeria had completed primary school, and by age 16 about half had completed junior secondary. In other words, the NDHS results are not consistent with other sources, namely the administrative data source.

Notwithstanding the interventions under the UBE scheme, the problem with out of school children could be linked to resources, quality and human capacity gaps inherent in the system. Space does not permit an exhaustive review of resources and quality in the Nigerian system, so this section concludes with only a couple of indicators. For example, existing school infrastructure appears to be grossly inadequate both in quantity and quality. The provision of school buildings/classroom has not kept pace with the increase in enrolment. In many communities, primary and junior secondary schools are located more than two kilometres away from the homes of children. This makes physical access a major challenge to schooling which Government recognizes as a 'deep issue' (FME, 2010:18). There are also concerns about teacher supply at the basic education level. Table 2.3 shows that pupil-teacher ratios are high at the primary level, although they appear to be declining in recent years. In terms of trained teachers the results also show improvement at the primary level, but a substantial proportion of teachers working in primary are without official training. At the

junior secondary level the trained teacher supply is higher; although in recent years it has been declining (in percentage terms).

Table 2.3: Pupil-Teacher Ratio and Percentage of Trained Teachers in Primary and JSS, 2004-2010

		Pupil-Teacher Ratio	Percentage of Trained Teachers
Primary	2004	36	49
	2006	40	51
	2008	46	--
	2010	36	66
Junior Secondary	2004	42	--
	2006	33	71
	2008	26	92
	2010	31	85

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics 2004-2010, UIS Data Centre, Accessed July 2013

Acknowledging this as a major challenge, the UBEC stated that the “UBE programme is in dire need of 40,000 teachers” given that “there were only 590,655 teachers catering for the learning needs of 24.77 million children in primary schools”. The UIS (2011) in projecting the global demand for teachers for meeting the goal of universal primary education by 2015 put the total recruitment needed for Nigeria at about 387,000 (UIS, 2011: The Global Demand for Primary Teachers – 2011 Update, Montreal: UIS. <http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/IS6-2011-Teachers-EN6.pdf>).

Another basic quality input is the student textbook which, an indispensable resource in the hand of every learner. Available evidence, however, suggests a high pupil-textbook ratio in the core subjects, as shown in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Pupil-Textbook Ratio in Nigeria

	Pupil: textbook ratio (core subjects)	
	Public	Private
Primary	3.1	5.6
JS	8.5	8.5

Source: FME NEMIS, 2006

A recent summary provided by UNESCO's Institute for Statistics (UIS, 2013) shows that 37.6 per cent of public primary schools in Nigeria do not have potable water, while 65.3 per cent do not have electricity. This is further evidence of limits in school resources that can, in turn, impact outcomes like student learning and attendance.

Other significant issues which still remain deep-rooted in the system and which exert enormous influence on schooling include poverty, gender, residence, location, disability, value orientation, HIV/AIDS and conflicts. Some of these issues will be returned to in more detail in subsequent sections.

In sum, this brief review of education participation in Nigeria has highlighted four main findings.

- First, enrolment rates are below expected or desired levels, especially at the primary level where the overall goal is to reach universal primary enrolment (and completion) by 2015.
- Second, the evidence suggests that in recent years there has been little progress in these indicators. This is a troubling result because it means even more work for reaching larger goals.
- Third, supply side deficiencies in the form of access and quality are likely to play a significant role in affecting schooling outcomes, which clearly highlights the need for improvements in school resources, teacher preparation, and other areas.
- Finally, the evidence is often variable depending on data source, at least for some indicators like dropout. Data based on administrative summaries suggest substantial dropout during the primary school cycle, which is not corroborated in the NDHS data that are the main source for this report. However, there is agreement that significant numbers of children are still outside of the system, and when combined with dropout the result is a large number of excluded children. This group clearly requires more attention, an issue that receives further attention in the remainder of this report.

2.2. Profiles of Excluded Children

Dimension 1: Children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school.

Table 2.5 presents a summary of school participation, and out of school children, for young children according to the 2008-2008 NDHS data. Population data are obtained from the national population projection of 2008, which makes it possible to calculate the actual totals of out of school children. The OOSC Dimension 1 definition for pre-primary age children is only applicable to the year before the official entrance age. In the Nigerian case this means that only children aged 5 are included in the out of school calculation. Table 2.6 includes the age range of 4-6 in order to provide some more detail on pre-primary attendance, but the five year olds are highlighted in boldface since this is the specific group of interest.

Table 2.5: Estimate of Out of School Children in Pre-primary age group (Dimension 1) 2003 and 2008

Age Category	Population	Attendance Status (per cent):			Out of School Children
		Pre-primary	Primary	Out of School	
	2003 NDHS:				
Age 4	3,873,710	21.2	19.7	59.1	2,289,363
Age 5	3,773,182	11.8	36.9	51.4	1,939,415
Female	1,817,174	10.4	37.7	51.9	943,113
Male	1,956,008	13.2	36.0	50.8	993,652
Age 6	3,671,474	6.0	54.8	39.2	1,439,218
	2008 NDHS:				
Age 4	4,700,000*	21.1	24.7	54.2	2,547,400*
Age 5	4,500,000*	12.3	43.8	43.9	1,975,500*
Female	2,214,000*	12.3	42.2	45.5	1,007,370*
Male	2,286,000*	12.4	45.4	42.3	966,978*
Age 6	4,411,166*	6.3	56.4	37.4	1,649,776

Source: NDHS 2003-2008; Population Projection 2008

Notes: *Estimates of population totals, source-UNICEF, Nigeria

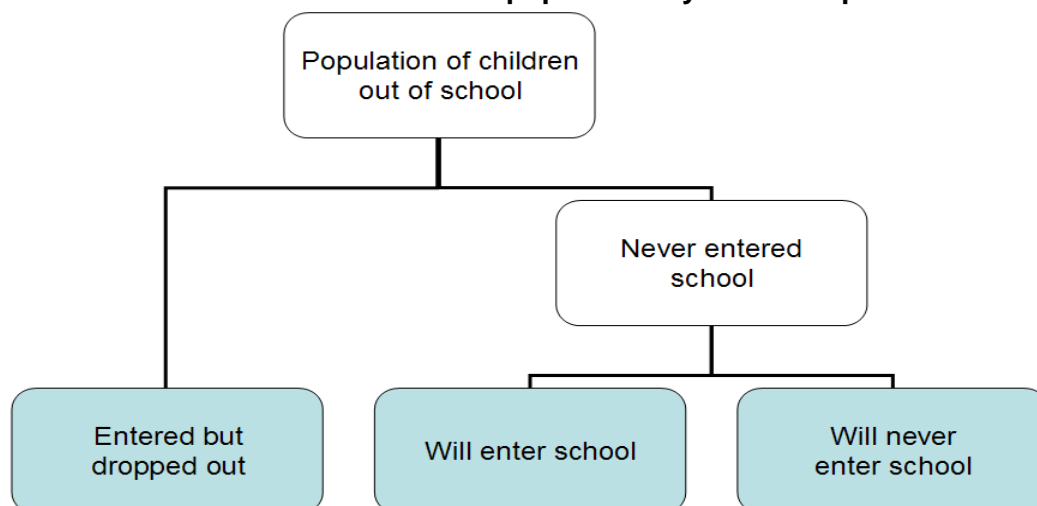
The main result in Table 2.5 is that as of the 2008 NDHS data collection almost 2 million Nigerian five year olds were not attending pre-primary or primary school. This represents the out of school population for Dimension 1, which corresponds to roughly 44 per cent of the 5 year old population at the time of the survey. Not surprisingly, attendance rates steadily increase by age in both surveys: in 2008 about 54 per cent of 4 year olds were not attending any school, versus only about 37 per cent of 6 year olds. Between 2003 and 2008 there has been marginal improvement in participation for young people in Nigeria. For example, 51.4 per cent of 5 year olds were not in school at any level in 2003, which declined to 43.9 per cent in 2008. The difference in participation between survey years for five year olds is mainly explained by early entrance into primary school, as preschool participation rates have remained fairly steady at roughly 12 per cent in both surveys. Finally, the out of school population for Dimension 1 is weighted towards females, who make up about 51 per cent of out of school five year olds, but only 49 per cent of the total five year old population.

Dimensions 2 and 3: Children of primary and junior secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary school

Dimensions 2 and 3 of the OOSC framework are critical for understanding the scope of the exclusion problem in Nigeria. Each dimension is defined as the number (or percentage) of children of primary (or junior secondary) age that are not enrolled in a primary or junior secondary school. However, the OOSC definitions go beyond a simple summary of current non-enrolment, and consider how many children are likely to enter school in the future, and how many will likely remain outside of the school system permanently (see UIS Spread sheets). As a result, the OOSC analysis provides two sets of key results for Dimensions 2 and 3. The first is the percentage (or number) of children who are currently out of school. Then, for the out of school population, the framework creates three mutually exclusive categories based on previous or future school exposure, as demonstrated in Chart 2.4. The three categories (shaded in light blue) refer to children who

attended in the past and dropped out, children who will never enter school, and children who will enter school in the future. For more detail on how these categories are created, see UNICEF and UNESCO UIS (2011).

Chart 2.4: Classification of the out-of-school population by school exposure



Source: OOSC Conceptual and Methodological Framework (2011)

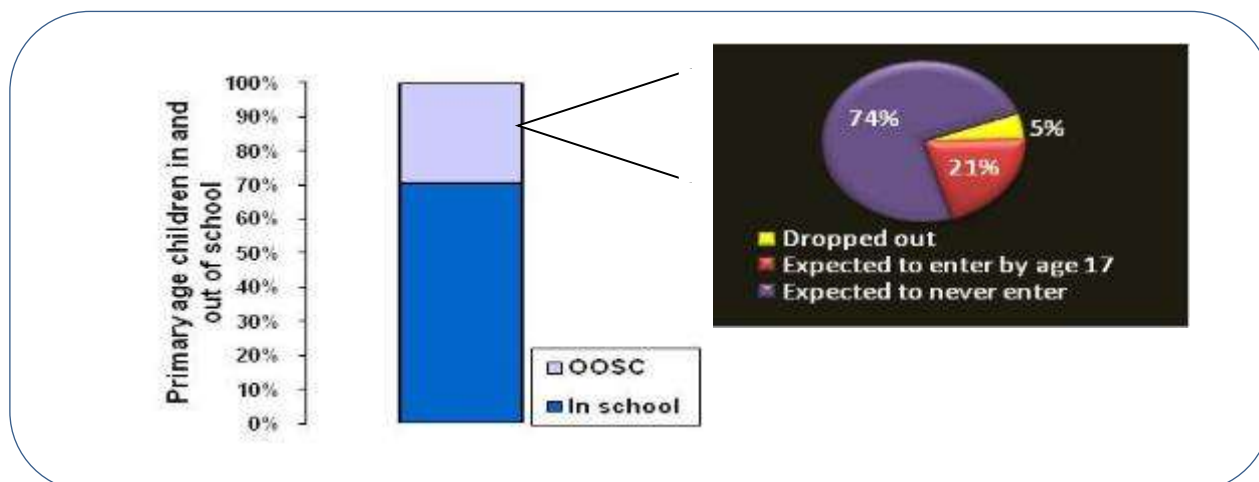
Dimension 2: National Summary

For Dimension 2, the projected primary age population in Nigeria in 2008 was 24.6 million, out of which 7.3 million (representing 29.6%) are classified as out-of-school. In other words, nearly one-third of primary-aged children were not in school in the 2008 NDHS data collection.

How many of these children are likely to be permanently excluded? Chart 2.5 provides a breakdown of primary-aged out of school children into the three categories used by the OOSC framework based on school exposure. The results show those in the 'expected to never enter' category constitute the bulk of OOSC in Nigeria (74.0%), followed by the 'expected to enter late by age 17' (21%). In raw numbers the out of school children problem is alarming: roughly 5.4 million children aged 6-11 in the 2008 NDHS are expected to never enter primary school in Nigeria. As a percentage of the primary-aged population in 2008 this represents nearly 22 per cent of the total.

Roughly five per cent of out of school children at the primary level are classified as dropouts, which is a total of 370,022 children. This is the smallest category of OOSC for the primary age group, which is consistent with earlier summaries that never enrolling in school is a more serious problem than dropping out. This means that, taking together dropouts and those who are expected to never enrol, nearly 5.8 million (or 23.4 per cent) of the total primary-aged population is outside of school, and not expected to enter or return.

Chart 2.5: Magnitude and Categories of OOSC for Primary-Age Children (Dimension 2), NDHS 2008



In terms of age-specific summaries, the OOSC phenomenon is most pronounced at the school entrance age of 6, followed by age 7. For example, at age 6, 42.4% of the children were out-of-school, although almost all of these children had not yet entered school (very few had dropped out). This implies that about 2 out of every 5 children who are of primary school entrance age (6 years) have still not entered school. Similarly, 1 out of every 3 children aged 7 failed to enter school. These results for school entry rates among younger children highlight the problem of late entry into primary schooling. Compared with the issue of never entering school this problem does appear to be secondary, but it nonetheless is significant because when children enter primary school late they have less time to complete primary schooling (and beyond) before demands related to work or family begin to accumulate.

The analysis further revealed that the chance to enter school by age 17 decreased with age, being higher at ages 6 and 7. This means that the probability of never entering school increased with age. For example, children who have still not entered school in the 9-11 age range have an 80 per cent probability of never doing so.

Chart 2.6A: Gender Disparity in OOSC in Dimension 2, NDHS 2008

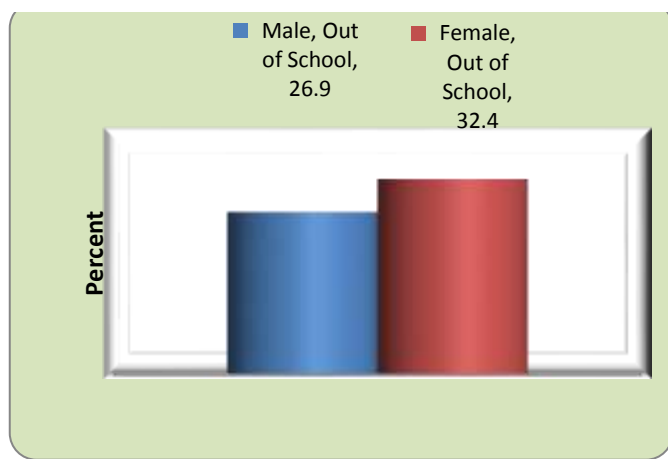
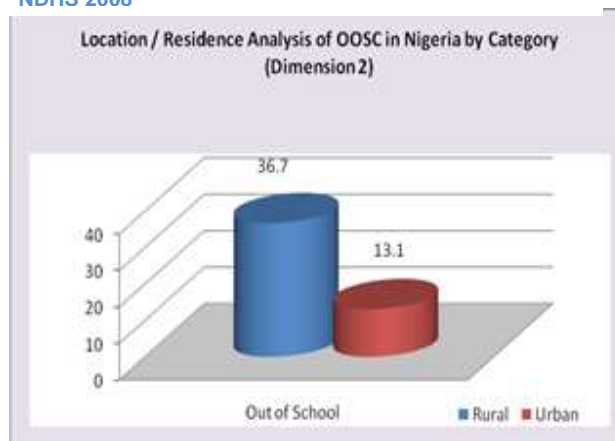


Chart 2.6B: Location Disparity in OOSC in Dimension 2, NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS 2008

In addition to presenting an overall summary of out-of-school children on a national level, the OOSC framework is useful for exploring differences by student and family characteristics such as gender, location and socioeconomic status (SES). Gender disparity analysis showed that out of 12.5 million males of primary school age, 3.4 million or 26.9% were out of school whereas out of 12.1 million females of primary school age, about 32.4% were out of school (see Chart 2.6A). In terms of the three categories of OOSC based on school exposure, the 'expected to never enter' was the most dominant for both sexes although among out of school children more females than males fell into the 'expected to never enter' category (males=69.8% ; females=77.7%) whereas more males than females fell into the 'expected to enter by the age of 17' (males=24.3%; females =18.0%) as well as the dropped out categories (male=6% ; female 4.3%).

Residence or location is also a major determinant of OOSC (Chart 2.6B above). For instance, about 37% (or 6,213,179) of the 16.9 million rural children of primary school age were out of school, compared to only 13% of their urban counterparts. There are also substantial differences in the makeup of out of school children, as a much higher proportion of rural children (76.1 per cent) were classified as 'expected to never enter' school. Also, a higher percentage of urban out of school children were classified as 'expected to enter school by age 17' (rural = 19.4%; urban = 30.3%), although dropout rates for this age cohort are higher in urban areas, as nine per cent of OOSC had already attended school in urban areas, versus only 4.5 per cent of rural OOSC.

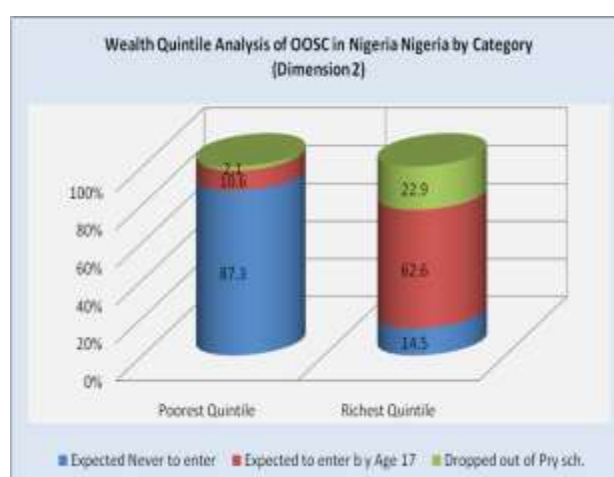
With respect to age, dropout rates were comparable in urban and rural residences up to age 9 (i.e. the official age for grade 4) but at ages 10 and 11 (i.e. the official ages for grades 5 and 6) dropout rates in rural residence were about double the corresponding rates in the urban residence.

Analysis of the data based on the richest and poorest wealth quintiles shows that wealth had a strong influence on schooling. About 64.4% (or 3.4 million) of the 5.3 million children from families in the poorest quintile were out of school compared to only 4.8% (or 197,955) of the 4.1 million children from families in the richest quintile. In the richest quintile 62.6% of the OOSC are 'expected to enter school by age 17', compared with only 10.6% of the OOSC in the poorest quintile. Similarly, 87.3% of the OOSC in the poorest quintile compared to only 14.5% of their counterparts in the richest quintile are 'expected to never enter'.

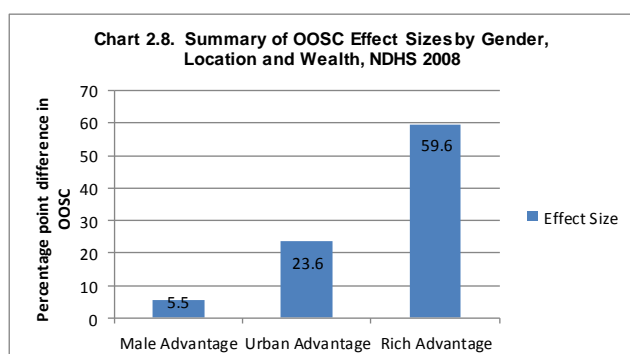
Chart 2.7A: Wealth Disparity in Dimension 2 OOSC, NDHS 2008



Chart 2.7B: Wealth Disparity in Categories of Dimension 2, NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008



Source: NDHS 2008; UNESCO Institute for Statistics

Chart 2.8 provides a summary of the effect sizes for OOSC based on three critical comparisons: gender, location and wealth. The results clearly show that the advantages for wealthy and urban children are larger than the male advantage. By far the largest effect size is found for the quintile comparison, where the wealthiest quintile has 59.6 per cent fewer out of school children compared with the poorest quintile (see Chart 2.7A). This was followed by the 23.6 per cent effect size for urban children versus rural. And finally the gender comparison—while significant—registers a relatively small 5.5 per cent advantage for males versus females.

Dimension 2: Regional and State Comparisons

Given the size of Nigeria an extensive review of OOSC by dimension *and* state/region requires a very large amount of information. In this section the descriptive summary of out of school children in Dimension 2 continues with region (or geo-political zone) and state averages, first in terms of the numbers (and percentages) of OOSC, and then within specific regions the state-by-state results are analysed focusing on the main disparity categories (gender, location, wealth).

Table 2.6: Magnitude and Categories of OOSC in Dimension 2 by Geo-political Zone and State

State Number	ZONE	STATE	Total Population of Primary Age Children	Out of School Children		School Exposure of OOSC (%)		
				Number	Per Cent	Dropped Out	Expected to enter at age 17	Expected to never Enter
1	North Central	Benue	804,470	152,464	19.0	17.2	78.0	4.7
2		Kogi	676,584	57,897	8.6	19.4	47.4	33.1
3		Kwara	425,491	98,410	23.1	1.6	14.6	83.8
4		Nassarawa	346,844	78,884	22.7	11.5	42.8	45.7
5		Niger	804,470	382,810	50.8	1.9	8.7	89.4
6		Plateau	582,447	84,507	14.5	7.3	39.4	53.4
7	North East	Adamawa	579,536	190,764	32.9	2.1	25.4	72.5
8		Bauchi	913,920	531,691	58.2	2.5	12.2	85.3
9		Borno	788,615	578,746	73.4	2.2	1.1	96.8

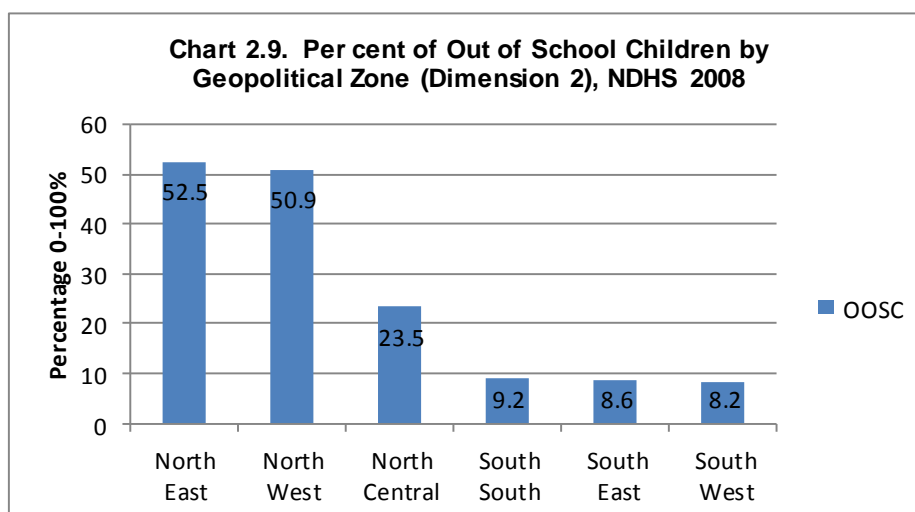
10		Gombe	463,799	179,232	38.6	2.2	4.9	92.9
11		Taraba	425,066	135,714	31.9	7.6	30.4	62.0
12		Yobe	449,849	283,482	63.5	0.7	0.2	99.2
13	North West	Jigawa	821,822	506,087	61.6	5.7	5.3	89.0
14		Kaduna	1,146,558	266,517	23.2	4.6	24.4	71.0
15		Kano	1,822,366	729,285	40.0	5.6	13.7	80.7
16		Katsina	1,125,905	620,667	55.1	4.0	1.9	94.1
17		Kebbi	633,498	437,963	69.1	1.9	4.7	93.3
18		Sokoto	705,549	460,492	65.3	0.3	6.3	93.4
19		Zamfara	633,545	482,739	76.2	1.1	0.9	98.0
20	South East	Abia	450,093	26,596	5.9	15.2	84.8	0.00
21		Anambra	663,878	25,792	3.9	52.1	17.7	30.2
22		Ebonyi	384,341	69,315	18.0	4.2	89.8	6.0
23		Enugu	520,766	75,998	14.6	11.4	83.0	5.6
24		Imo	635,073	30,326	4.8	20.7	43.7	35.6
25	South South	Akwa Ibom	650,894	47,561	7.3	30.2	69.8	0.00
26		Bayelsa	284,197	23,805	8.4	14.9	51.9	33.3
27		Cross River	480,706	45,485	9.5	16.1	83.9	0.00
28		Delta	676,584	57,897	8.6	20.8	52.0	27.2
29		Edo	508,845	35,101	6.9	31.3	68.7	0.00
30	South West	Rivers	837,555	105,388	12.6	20.6	73.6	5.7
31		Ekiti	404,953	11,921	2.9	0.00	63.2	36.8
32		Lagos	1,223,027	52,421	4.3	22.1	50.4	27.5
33		Ogun	596,887	25,549	4.3	22.1	27.6	50.3
34		Ondo	575,249	34,660	6.0	10.2	85.1	4.7
35		Osun	564,465	42,477	7.5	6.5	90.2	3.3
36		Oyo	915,208	185,544	20.3	7.6	15.8	76.6
37		FCT	249,176	24,171	9.7	9.1	73.1	17.8

Source: NDHS, 2008

Notes: Shading refers to highest proportion (percentage) among OOSC population within each state

Table 2.6 provides a detailed overview of the magnitude of out of school children in Nigeria, together with a summary of the breakdown of OOSC by the three categories, for primary-aged young people in each state and geopolitical zone. The results show tremendous variation in the OOSC problem in Nigeria, between both states and zones. For example, 76.5 per cent of primary aged children are not in school in the state of Zamfara (South East zone), compared with only 2.9 per cent in the state of Akiti (South West). These results are consistent with a country profile marked by high inequality.

Chart 2.9 condenses the results in Table 2.6 down to a summary of OOSC percentages in Dimension 2 by geopolitical zone. The results again show tremendous variation in the per cent of primary-aged children who are out of school in Nigeria. The highest percentages are found in the North East and North West zones, each with averages over 50 per cent. In the middle is the North Central zone, where 23.5 per cent of the total primary aged population is not in school. Then at the other extreme, in the southern zones, a relatively small percentage of children are out of school.



Source: NDHS, 2008

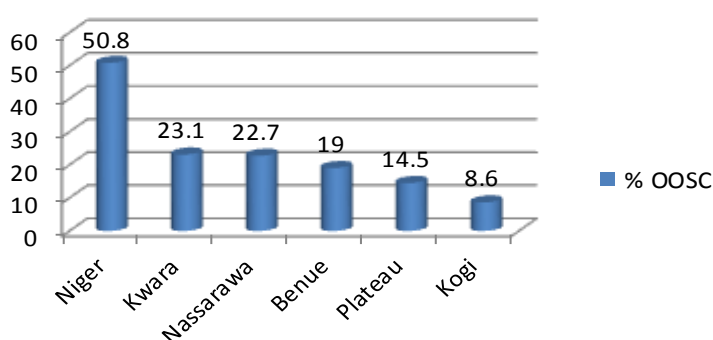
This regional variation has important implications for education policy and equity. It is not the case that the OOSC problem is equally spread out throughout the country. Instead, the reality is that the problem of out of

school children—at least for Dimension 2—is very much concentrated in two (or three) zones of the country. This doesn't mean that certain kinds of children and communities are not more likely to be affected, as these regions have more poor families and perhaps more isolated communities. But the very strong spatial component to OOSC in Nigeria highlights the need for a policy focus that takes into account local conditions in order to address this problem.

The summaries in Table 2.6 and Chart 2.9 provide a useful overview of the regional variation in the out of school children problem in Nigeria. However, a still more detailed review is required in order to compare states within regions, as well as examine disparities linked with variables like gender, location and socioeconomic status.

In the following sub-sections the Dimension 2 OOSC is summarized for each geopolitical zone on the basis of three charts. The first simply provides the percentage of children who are classified as out of school for each state within the geopolitical zone. The second then breaks down the out of school population within each state into the three categories used by OOSC (dropped out, likely will enter, and never enter). Finally, the third chart provides a summary of the magnitude of the differences—referred to as effect sizes in Chart 2.8 above—in attendance rates between boys and girls, rural and urban areas, and wealthy and poor children.

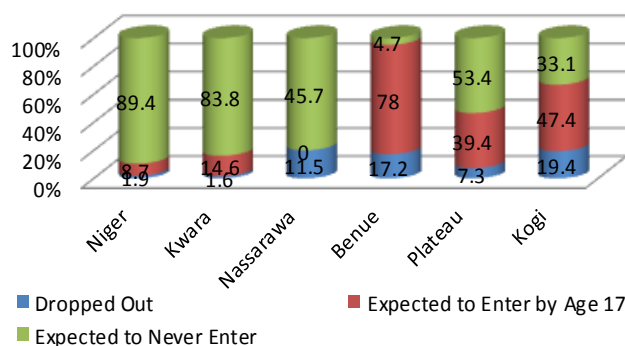
Chart 2.10. Per cent of Primary-Age Children Out of School (Dimension 2) in North Central Zone by State, NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

breakdown of the out of school child population in each of the state. Taken together the two charts (2.10 and 2.11) provide valuable information because the magnitude of the OOSC problem in each state does depend,

Chart 2.11. School Exposure of Primary-Age OOSC (Dimension 2) in North Central Zone by State, NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

lowest rate of children who are currently out of school.

Chart 2.12 concludes the analysis of OOSC in the North Central zone with a summary of the effect sizes for differences between males-females, rural-urban and rich-poor. Chart 2.8 presented a version of this summary for the national data. For each of the three comparisons the effect size is calculated by subtracting the lower group from the higher group, based on the national averages. So this means subtracting the female attendance rate from the male rate, the rural attendance rate from the urban rate, and the poorest quintile

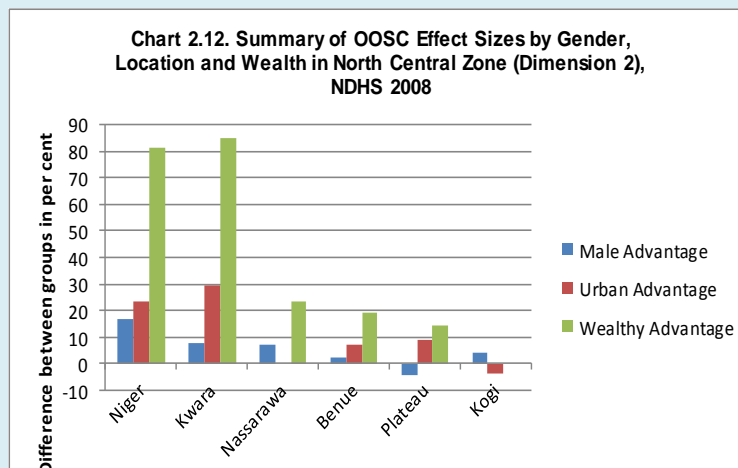
North-Central

Chart 2.10 presents the state-by-state summary of OOSC in the North-Central zone. The results once again show significant variation, this time across states within the same zone. For example, more than 50 per cent of primary-aged children in Niger state are out of school, compared with only about nine per cent in Kogi. The remaining states in the zone (Kwara, Nasarawa, Benue and Plateau) are grouped fairly close together, and have lower rates of OOSC than the national average for Dimension 2 (which is about 30 per cent)

Chart 2.11 continues the summary in the North Central zone with a review of the breakdown of the out of school child population in each of the state. Taken together the two charts (2.10 and 2.11) provide valuable information because the magnitude of the OOSC problem in each state does depend, to some degree, on what is likely to happen with these children in the future, which the OOSC framework can only estimate. In the case of Niger—which had the highest rate of OOSC in Chart 2.10—most of the primary-age children who are out of school are not expected to enter school by the time they are 17 (green shading). However, for Benue the results suggest that most (78 per cent) of the children who are out of school are likely to enrol by the time they are 17 years old. What this means is that when taking into account the projected rate of OOSC in the future, more children are likely to attend school in Benue than even Kogi, which has the

attendance rate from the wealthiest quintile. For these summaries a positive number means that school attendance is higher, which translates into an advantage in terms of OOSC. However, in some individual states the effect sizes may be negative, which is possible when girls are more likely to be in school than boys, or there are fewer OOSC in rural areas than urban ones.

According to Chart 2.12 the differences between males-females, rural-urban and wealthy-poor vary considerably across the states of the North Central zone. For example, in Niger and Kwara the wealthiest children are more than 80 per cent more likely to be in school than the poorest children. Another way of saying this is that the rate of OOSC is more than 80 per cent lower among the wealthiest families compared with the poorest families. However, in states such as Benue and Plateau the advantage for wealthy families is much smaller (less than 20 per cent).



Source: NDHS, 2008

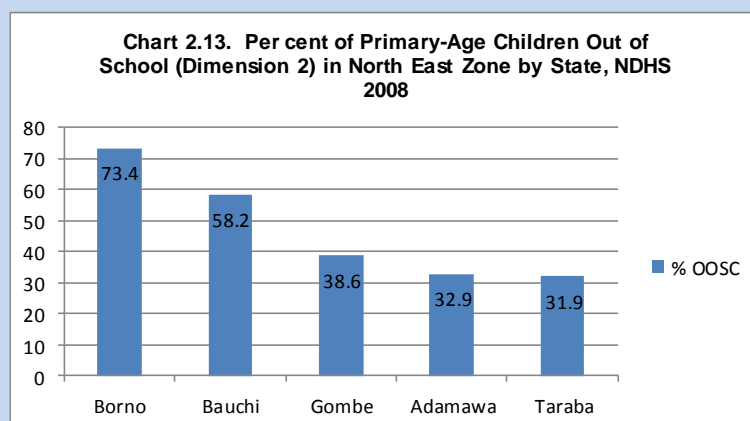
For gender and location the variation in effect sizes is also pronounced. In Niger boys are much more likely than girls to be in school (about 17 per cent), but in Plateau girls are actually (marginally) more likely to be in school (or marginally less likely to be OOSC). In the case of location there is a significant advantage for urban children in Niger, but Nasarawa there is no difference in attendance (or OOSC) between these two locations, and in Kogi the urban children are actually marginally more likely to be OOSC (denoted by negative effect size in Chart 2.12).

The variation in disparities between states within the same zone is another important result from a policy standpoint. Once again it highlights the limitations of “one size fits all” prescriptions. For example, in the North Central zone the issue of gender equity is very relevant in Niger and (to a lesser extent) Kwara and Nasarawa, but in the other states boys and girls fare about equal, and girls are even more likely to be in school in Plateau. This does not mean that gender equity is not a problem in Nigeria, just that policies need to be tailored to local conditions.

North-East

Chart 2.13 presents the state-by-state summary of OOSC in the North-East zone. This is another geopolitical zone with substantial variation between states in the percentage of primary-aged children who are not in school. The highest percentage of OOSC is found in the state of Borno (73.4 per cent), followed by Bauchi (58.2%). The remaining three states are grouped in the 30%-40% range, and include Gombe, Adamawa and Taraba.

Chart 2.14 continues the summary in the North East zone with a review of the breakdown of the out of school child population in each of the state. Once again it is important to analyse both of the summary charts (2.13 and 2.14) together. In the case of the North East zone the results for the OOSC classifications are not very different across the five states. In most cases the current group of out of school children is expected to remain out of school, and very few of them (less than 10 per cent) have already dropped out. However, there is some significant



variation in terms of how many are expected to enter school by the age of 17, which in turn does impact the analysis of OOSC by state. The results for Borno, which has the highest the percentage of currently out of school children in Dimension 2 (Chart 2.13), show that about 25 per cent of these children are expected to enter school eventually. Whereas in Gombe and Adamawa—which have fewer children current out of school—more than 95 per cent of the current OOSC population is expected to remain outside of school.

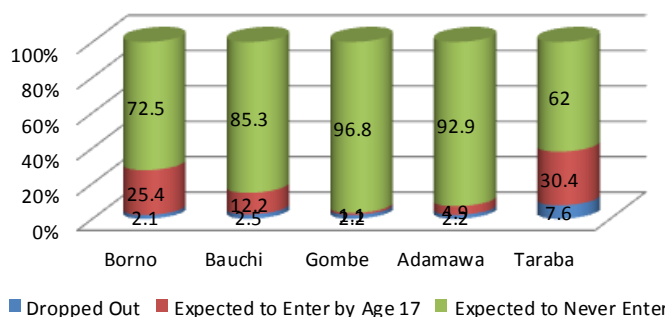
Finally, the results for Taraba not only show the lowest per cent of out of school children in Dimension 2 (Chart 2.13), but this state also has the highest percentage of children who are expected to enter school by the age of 17.

Chart 2.15 concludes the analysis of OOSC in the North East zone with a summary of the effect sizes for differences between males-females, rural-urban and rich-poor. As explained above, the effect sizes show the advantage for males versus females, urban children versus rural children, and wealthy children versus poor children in terms of the percentages that are classified as OOSC.

In the case of the North East zone all of the results by state are in the expected direction, meaning that boys, urban and wealthy children have consistently lower rates of being out of school.

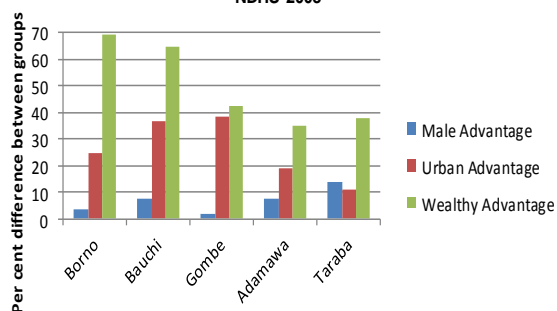
As is the case with all of the zones that are analysed, the largest differences in OOSC (or attendance) are between wealthy and poor families. In the North East zone these differences range from 35 per cent in Adamawa to almost 70 per cent in Borno. There are also some very large differences in OOSC between rural and urban residents. In the states of Bauchi and Gombe the rate of OOSC in Dimension 2 is nearly 40 per cent higher in rural areas than in urban ones, and in the case of Gombe this difference is about the same as the difference between the poorest and wealthiest families.

Chart 2.14. School Exposure of Primary-Age OOSC (Dimension 2) in North East Zone by State, NDHS 2008



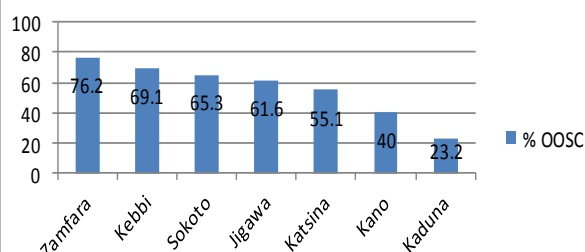
Source: NDHS. 2008

Chart 2.15. Summary of OOSC Effect Sizes by Gender, Location and Wealth in North East Zone (Dimension 2), NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS. 2008

Chart 2.16. Per cent of Primary-Age Children Out of School (Dimension 2) in North West Zone by State, NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS 2008

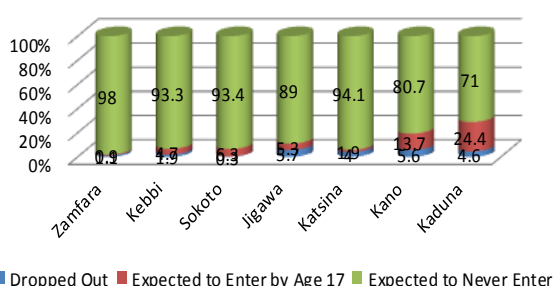
Finally, the results in Chart 2.15 confirm that boys generally are less likely to be classified as OOSC (or more likely to be in school). But the differences are not uniform, and in the case of Borno and Gombe the male advantage over females is marginal. Interestingly, the largest difference in OOSC rates by gender (12 per cent) is found in the state with the lowest rate of OOSC in the North East zone, which is Taraba.

North West Zone

Chart 2.16 presents the state-by-state summary of OOSC in the North-West zone. The pattern is similar to other zones, with substantial variation in OOSC rates by state. Zamfara, Kebbi, Sokoto, Jigawa, and Katsina all have averages above 50 per cent, which is considerably higher than the national average of around 30 per cent. The two lowest states are Kano and Kaduna, with 40 and 23.2 per cent OOSC, respectively.

The breakdown by school exposure for out of school children (Chart 2.17) shows that in the five states with the highest rates of OOSC, very few of the out of school children are expected to enter school by the age of 17. The only states where at least 10 per cent of these children are expected to

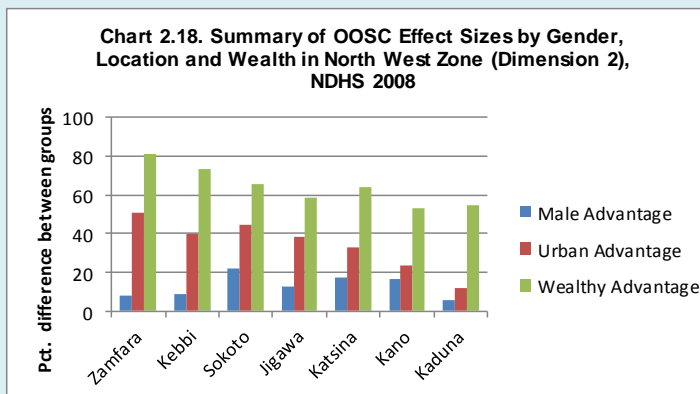
Chart 2.17. School Exposure of Primary-Age OOSC (Dimension 2) in North West Zone by State, NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

return are the two with the lowest rates of OOSC (Kano and Kaduna). In terms of dropout rates among Dimension 2 out of school children the results in the North West zone show that relatively few children in this age group have already been to school and left. The results instead suggest that the underlying problem with not being in school is never entering, as opposed to leaving early.

Chart 2.18 concludes with a summary of the effect sizes for differences between males-females, rural-urban and rich-poor. In the case of North West these gaps are quite large across most of the states and comparison groups. For instance, for the poor/wealthy comparison the advantage for wealthy children is between 60 and 80 per cent less OOSC in five of the seven states in the zone, while for location the advantage for urban children is between 35 and 50 per cent in these same five states.



Source: NDHS, 2008

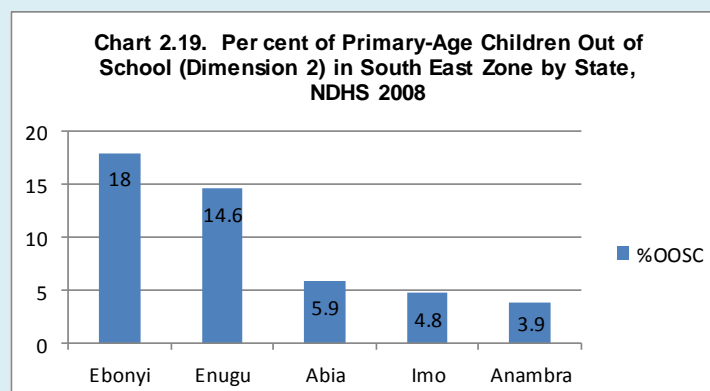
One result that stands out in the North West zone is for gender. In six of the seven states the male advantage versus females is above 8 per cent, and in three states the difference is above 15 per cent. This means that for this particular comparison (gender) the North West region has the highest level of inequality of the zones analysed so far.

South East

Chart 2.19 begins the descriptive summary of the southern region of Nigeria with a review of Dimension 2 OOSC in the South East zone. The results clearly show the

differences in school participation in the southern states compared with the northern states, as noted earlier in the national summary by zone (Chart 2.9). For instance, the per cent of primary aged children who are out of school is below 20 per cent in each of the five states within the South East zone. This does not mean that the results are uniform, as even in the relatively affluent zones there is still some important inter-state variation in school participation. In the South East zone the states of Ebonyi and Enugu have OOSC rates that are

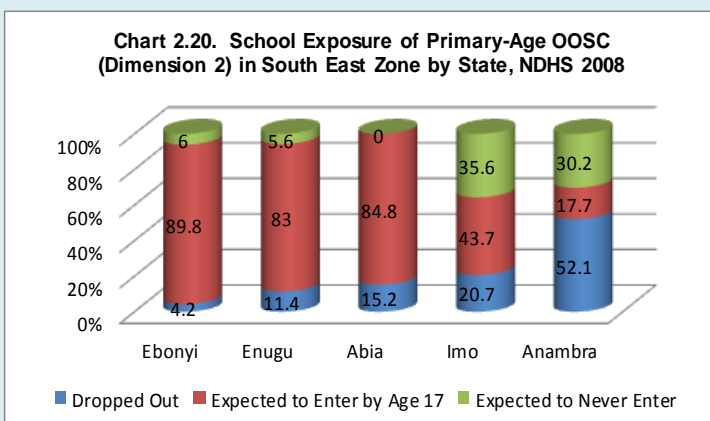
substantially higher than Abia, Imo and Anambra, but they are still lower than the national average.



Source: NDHS 2008

expected to enter school. This does not mean that Anambra has a high rate of dropout among young people, because Chart 2.19 shows that less than four per cent of primary-aged children in this state are not in school. Instead, the figures in Chart 2.20 simply show that of this very

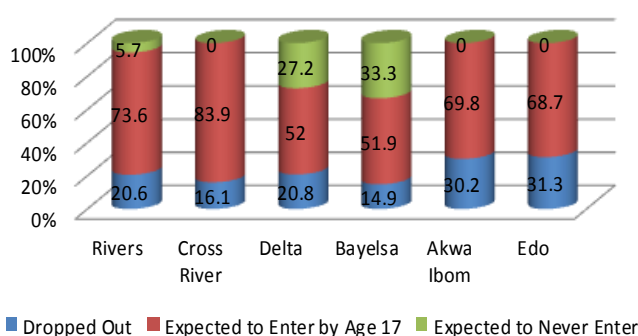
The breakdown by school exposure for out of school children (Chart 2.20) also shows very different results compared with the northern zones. The first result that stands out is that in the two states with the highest percentage of OOSC (Ebonyi and Enugu), a very high percentage of out of school children is expected to enter school. However, at the other extreme, the state of Anambra shows that most of the out of school children are dropouts, or are not expected to enter school.



Source: NDHS, 2008

Chart 2.21 reviews the gaps in OOSC between males, rural-urban and wealthy-poor children. Once again the overall results are very different from those detailed in the northern zones. First, for gender, there are hardly any significant differences between male and female OOSC rates in the South East states. In two of the states (Ebonyi and Anambra) girls are actually slightly less likely to be out of school in Dimension 2.

Chart 2.23. School Exposure of Primary-Age OOSC (Dimension 2) in South South Zone by State, NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

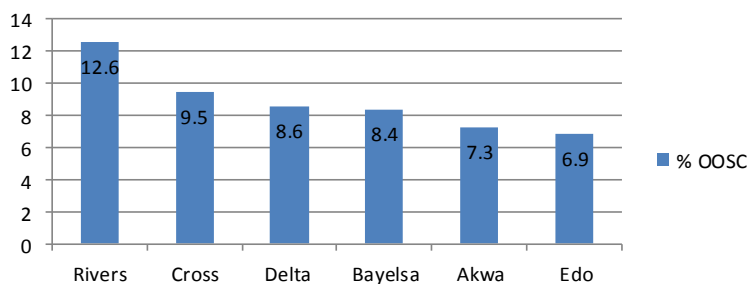
The largest difference is found in the state of Enugu where boys have about a 4 point advantage over girls in attendance rates.

The results comparing rural and urban children are somewhat surprising, and show significant advantages for rural children in the states of Ebonyi and Enugu. However once again the pattern is one of relative equity among groups, which is not surprising since school attendance rates in these state are quite high. Finally, for socioeconomic status the results are somewhat mixed. In the states of Ebonyi and Enugu the gap between the poorest and richest households is significant, and shows that poor households are 20-40 per cent more likely to be out of school than rich household. There is a slightly smaller

difference (15 per cent) in the state of Anambra. However, in Abia, Imo and Anambra there are very few households that are classified in the poorest socioeconomic quintile in the NDHS data, so these comparisons are somewhat problematic (which is why there is no information for Abia and Imo for this comparison).

Two results from this review of OOSC in the South East zone bear restating. First, the profile of OOSC among primary-aged children is very different compared with the northern zones summarized earlier, which certainly reflects larger differences between northern and southern regions in Nigeria. Second, when attendance rates are very high—and out of school children rates are very low—there is not much inequality in participation, which again is very different from other zones where more children are out of school, and there are very large differences in OOSC rates by gender, location and socioeconomic group.

Chart 2.22. Per cent of Primary-Age Children Out of School (Dimension 2) in South South Zone by State, NDHS 2008



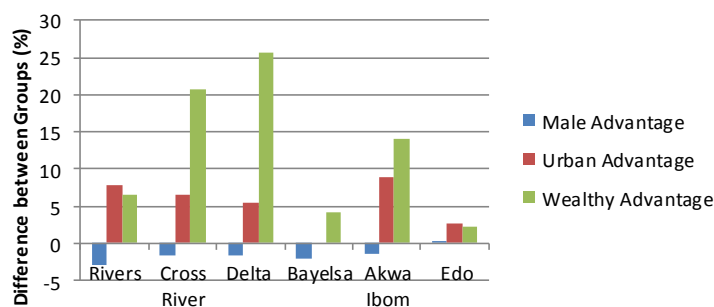
Source: NDHS 2008

South South

Chart 2.22 summarizes out of school children in Dimension 2 for the South South zone. The results are similar to those for the South East, and show very low rates of OOSC. Furthermore, the results are the more uniform among states within this zone compared with other zones that have been analysed. The highest rate of OOSC is found in the state of Rivers, but at 12.6 per cent this still ranks far below the national average. The rest of the states in the zone are all below 10 per cent.

The breakdown by school exposure for out of school children (Chart 2.23) is similar to the pattern in the South East zone, with most out of school children classified in the 'Dropped Out' and 'Expected to enter school by age 17' categories. Once again it must be noted that the percentages for dropped out do not suggest that dropout is a serious problem in these states. The relatively low percentages (between 15 and 30 per cent) are only applicable to a small group of OOSC children. The overall dropout rate in these states among out of school children is less than three per cent. However, it is important to note that in states where most children at least enter a primary school building, the chances for drop out do increase.

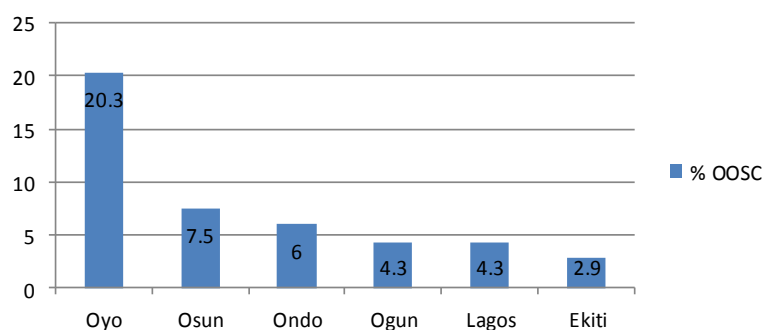
Chart 2.24. Summary of OOSC Effect Sizes by Gender, Location and Wealth in South South Zone (Dimension 2), NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

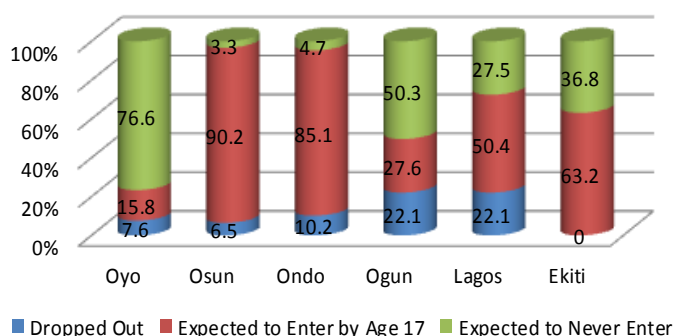
Chart 2.24 concludes with a summary of the differences between boys-girls, rural-urban and rich-poor children. For gender the comparisons continue to show little in the way of inequality, and in four of the five states in the South South zone the Male Advantage indicator is actually negative, which means that girls are less likely to be out of school than boys. The differences are not very large, so in effect boys and girls have similar rates of school participation in this region. This is another reminder of the importance of addressing issues of inequality on a zone by zone, or state by state basis: the overall advantage for males in Nigeria is not uniform throughout the country.

Chart 2.25. Per cent of Primary-Age Children Out of School (Dimension 2) in South West Zone by State, NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

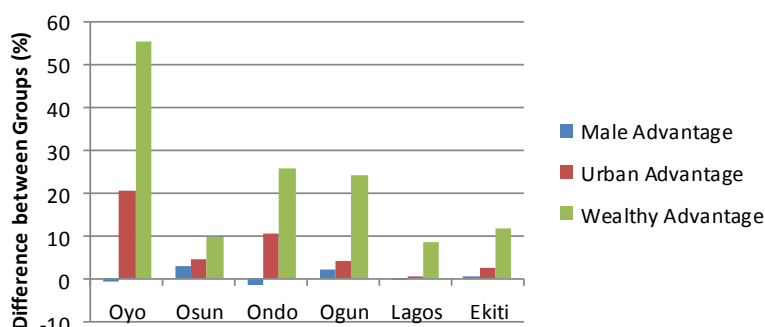
Chart 2.26. School Exposure of Primary-Age OOSC (Dimension 2) in South West by State, NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

already dropped out of school, or have not entered but are expected to do so by the age of 17. With such small proportions of out of school children, in all of the states except Oyo, these results for school exposure are not particularly significant because almost all primary-aged children are in school. Again the exception is Oyo, where a substantial percentage (76.6) of out of school children are not expected to ever enter school based on the UIS projection.

Chart 2.27. Summary of OOSC Effect Sizes by Gender, Location and Wealth in South West Zone (Dimension 2), NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

The results for the other comparisons in Chart 2.24 show some significant differences in OOSC rates between rural-urban areas, although again the differences are substantially smaller than those encountered in other zones. Finally, for socioeconomic status there are fairly large gaps in school participation between the poorest and wealthiest children in three of the five states (Cross River, Delta and Akwa Ibom).

South West

Charts 2.25 through 2.27 summarize the data for OOSC in Dimension 2 for the South West zone. The results are very similar to those for the South South zone, and generally show very low rates of OOSC in this region, with five states below 10 per cent for out of school children, and three states (Ogun, Lagos and Ekiti) below five per cent. The one exception in the South West zone is the state of Oyo, which has an OOSC rate in Dimension 2 of 20.3 per cent, which is much higher than its neighbours (although still lower than the national average).

In terms of school exposure among out of school children, Chart 2.26 shows once again that most have either already dropped out of school, or have not entered but are expected to do so by the age of 17. With such small proportions of out of school children, in all of the states except Oyo, these results for school exposure are not particularly significant because almost all primary-aged children are in school. Again the exception is Oyo, where a substantial percentage (76.6) of out of school children are not expected to ever enter school based on the UIS projection.

Chart 2.27 concludes with a review of inequality in the South West zone. For gender the results continue to show minimum differences in primary school attendance/out of school in the southern region, as the differences are generally below three per cent, and in some states girls are less likely to be out of school than boys. There is a significant difference between rural and urban OOSC rates in the states of Oyo and Ondo, and for socioeconomic comparisons again Oyo registers a very large gap between the poorest

and richest children (over 50 per cent). In the other states the differences are generally between 10 and 25 per cent.

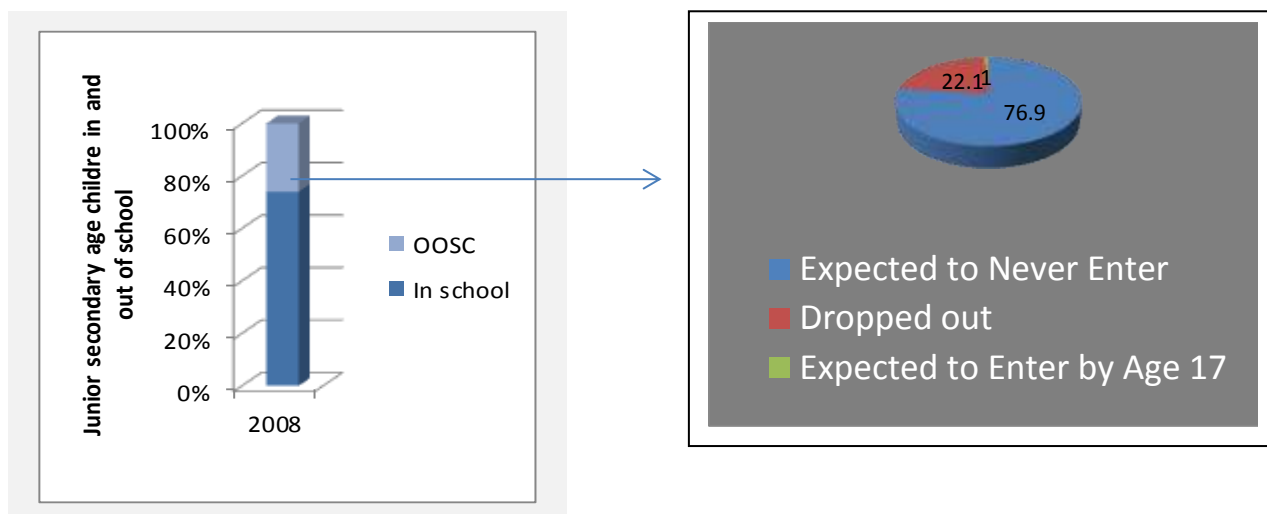
Dimension 3: National Summary

Chart 2.28 summarizes the overall figures for Dimension 3, which refers to junior secondary-aged children (12-14 years old). School attendance and out of school are based on either primary or secondary schooling, and do not refer to just junior secondary schooling; the same is true for dropout, which can be from any level, not just junior secondary.

There was an estimated 10.9 million children of junior secondary age in Nigeria in 2008, out of which 26.0% or 2.8 million were out of school. In this Dimension, the 'expected never to enter' category contributed the highest proportion (76.9% or 2.2 million) of OOSC, followed by the 'dropped out category (22.1% or 625,000) and finally the 'expected to enter at age 17' (1.0% or 28,944).

There are two important differences in the overall profile of OOSC at the junior secondary level compared with primary (see Chart 2.5). First, much more children have dropped out of school by this age, which is shown in the percentage of OOSC in this category (22.1% in junior secondary versus only 5 per cent in primary). Also, relatively few junior secondary-aged children who are not in school are expected to enter school by the time they are 17 years old (one per cent in junior secondary age versus 21 per cent in primary age). In other words, children have either entered school by the time they are 12 years old, or they are not likely to do so.

Chart 2.28: Magnitude and Categories of OOSC in Dimension 3 in Nigeria



Source: NDHS, 2008

Charts 2.29A and 2.29B summarize the national averages for Gender and location disparities in Dimension 3, respectively. A significantly higher proportion of junior secondary-aged females is out of school (28.4 per cent) compared with males (23.6%). Out of a total of 5.4 million females of junior secondary age, about 1.5 million, compared with about 1.3 million (out of 5.5 million) males. In terms of school exposure for OOSC children (not presented), the results show that the 'expected to never enter' category is predominant (males =73.6%; females=79.8%). This was followed by 'dropped out' category (males =24.8%; females=19.8%) and finally 'expected to enter by age 17' (males =1.6%; females=0.5%).

Chart 2.29A: Gender Disparity in OOSC in Dimension 3, NDHS 2008

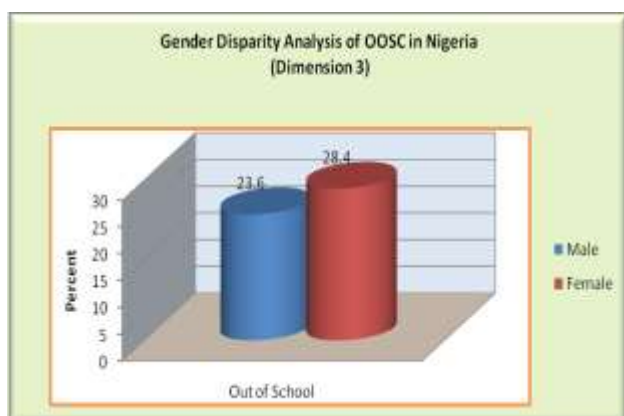
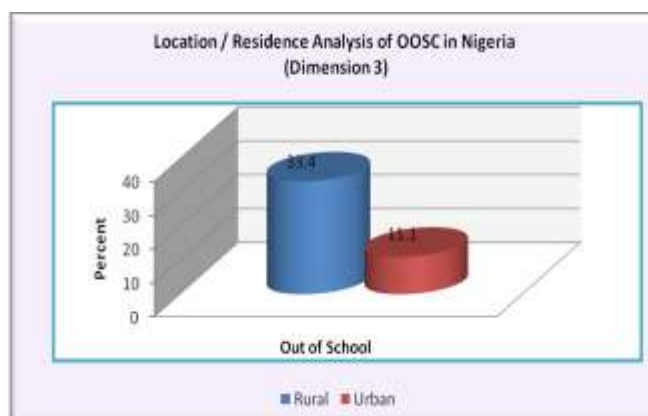


Chart 2.29B: Location Disparity in OOSC in Dimension 3, NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

With respect to residence (or location, Chart 2.29B), 33.4% (or 2.4 million) of the 7.2 million rural children of junior secondary age were out of school in the 2008 NDHS, compared to only 11.1% (or 400,000) of the 3.6 million urban children of junior secondary age. Consistent with other summaries at the junior secondary level, the most common category among out of school children is 'expected to never enter' (urban =60.1%; rural=79.7%), followed by 'dropped out' (urban =39.3%; rural=19.2%). The higher rate of dropout in urban areas is a result of more children entering school in these areas (at primary or junior secondary level), which increases the number of possible dropouts.

Similar to the trend in Dimension 2, analysis based on wealth quintiles revealed that 63.6% (or 1.3 million) of children in the poorest wealth quintile were out of school compared to only 3.8% (or 84,000) of the children in the richest wealth quintile (Chart 2.30A). In the poorest quintile the dominant category of OOSC (Chart 2.30B) was 'expected never to enter', which accounted for 88.6 per cent of the OOSC children. Among the richest children the most common category for OOSC was 'dropped out', but it should be noted that only about 4 per cent of wealthy children were not in school, so these dropout rates among the wealthy are actually very low.

Chart 2.30A: Wealth Disparity in OOSC in Dimension 3. NDHS 2008

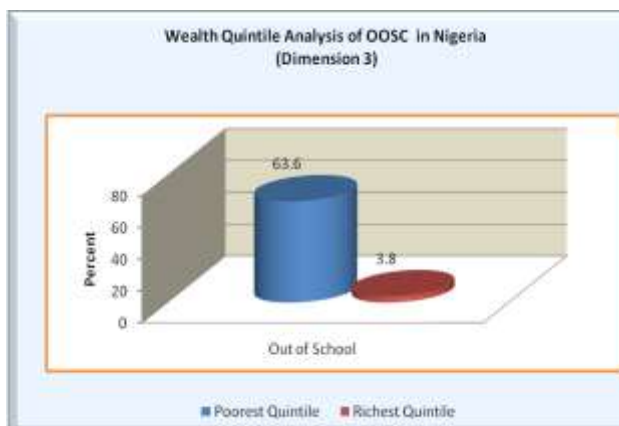
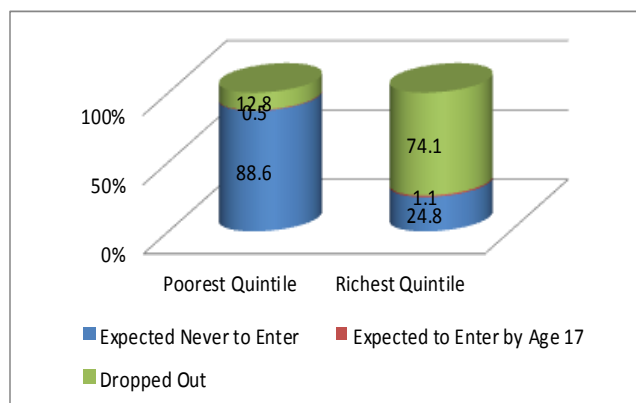
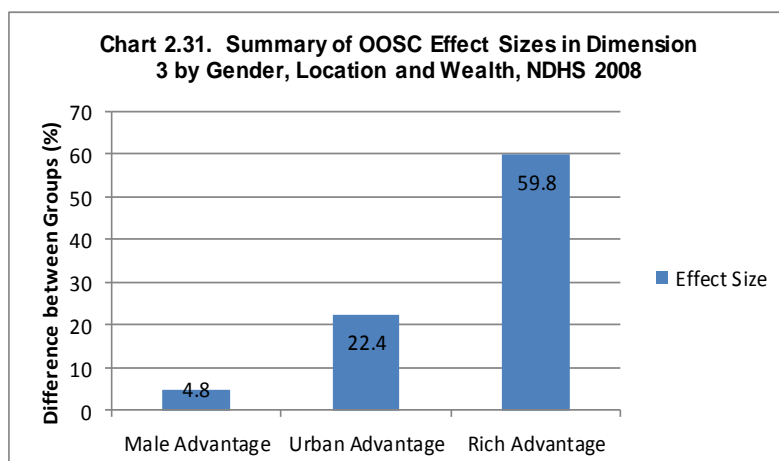


Chart 2.30B: Location Disparity in Categories of OOSC in Dimension 3, NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

Chart 2.31 replicates the effect size analysis that was introduced in the previous section for Dimension 2, this time applied to junior secondary-aged children. The results are quite similar to those found for primary aged-children (see Chart 2.8). For gender the overall average difference in OOSC is 4.8 percentage points, which means that the OOSC rate for boys is about five percentage points lower than for girls; another way of saying this is that boys in this age range are about five per cent more likely to be enrolled in school in the 2008 NDHS. The urban advantage—which is interpreted as urban children being more likely to be attending school, and less likely to be classified as OOSC—stands at about 22 per cent in Dimension 3. This is a sizeable difference between urban and rural areas, although it is about the same size as the difference between urban and rural OOSC in primary schooling. Finally, the largest difference is associated with socioeconomic status. The advantage for the wealthiest children vis-à-vis the poorest children is about 60 percentage points.



Source: NDHS, 2008

Table 2.7 summarizes Dimension 3 of the OOSC framework by zone and state. Not surprisingly, the results are consistent with the main findings from the national summaries (see Chart 2.28). Most children in the 12-14 year old age range are in school, and among those that are not in school there are really only two categories: those who have entered and dropped out, and those who have never entered, and are not likely to do so in the future. Finally, as was the case with

Dimension 3: Regional and State Comparisons

primary (see Table 2.6), there is substantial variation between geopolitical zones, and at least in some of the zones there are also sizeable differences between states.

Table 2.7: Magnitude and Categories of OOSC in Dimension 3 by Geo-political Zone and State

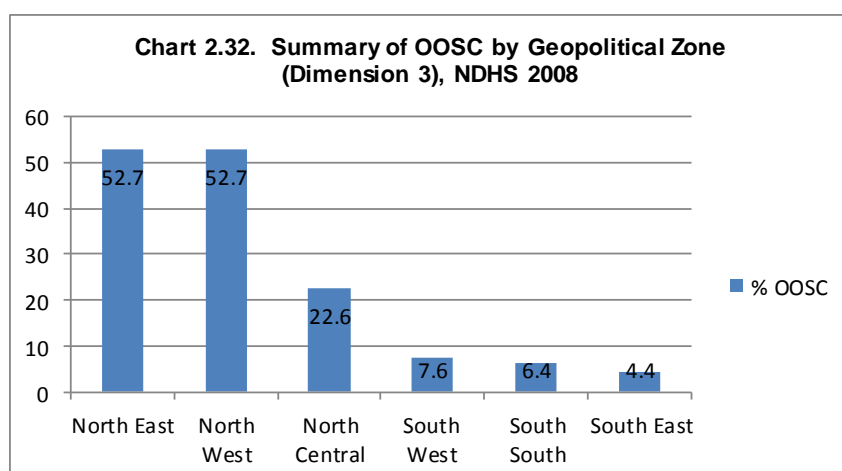
State number	ZONE	STATE	Total Population Junior Secondary Age	Out of School Children:		School Exposure of OOSC (%):		
				Number	Per Cent	Dropped Out	Expected to enter at age 17	Expected to never Enter
1	North Central	Benue	343,803	40,365	11.7	74.6	0.8	24.6
2		Kogi	260,083	17,935	6.9	49.6	3.5	46.9
3		Kwara	183,772	53,651	29.2	14.4	0.0	85.6
4		Nassarawa	144,952	26,216	18.1	46.2	0.0	53.8
5		Niger	305,799	159,926	52.3	4.8	0.0	95.2
6		Plateau	253,420	38,728	15.3	59.1	0.0	40.9
7	North East	Adamawa	247,544	74,228	30.0	16.0	4.1	79.9
8		Bauchi	375,085	245,469	65.4	14.1	0.9	85.0
9		Borno	323,090	224,067	69.4	6.7	0.0	93.3
10		Gombe	196,216	81,094	41.3	10.6	0.0	89.4
11		Taraba	178,271	48,449	27.2	47.8	0.0	52.2
12		Yobe	187,109	120,260	64.3	2.1	0.0	97.9
13	North West	Jigawa	325,656	210,065	64.5	18.2	0.0	81.8
14		Kaduna	476,873	106,366	22.3	27.6	0.0	72.4
15		Kano	754,115	333,736	44.3	24.4	0.0	75.6
16		Katsina	447,534	285,843	63.9	17.2	0.0	82.8
17		Kebbi	250,438	169,412	67.6	4.0	1.7	94.3
18		Sokoto	278,391	191,886	68.9	7.6	0.0	92.4
19	South East	Zamfara	249,589	168,512	67.5	3.4	0.0	96.6
20		Abia	226,203	6,079	2.7	79.6	0.0	20.4
21		Anambra	334,133	12,337	3.7	72.6	0.0	27.4
22		Ebonyi	176,130	8,233	4.7	93.0	0.0	7.0
23		Enugu	259,730	20,498	7.9	83.8	0.0	16.2
24		Imo	315,567	10,109	3.2	100.0	0.0	0.0
25	South South	Akwa Ibom	318,341	20,574	6.5	88.4	6.0	5.6
26		Bayelsa	137,332	4,657	3.4	73.0	0.0	27.0
27		Cross River	230,439	19,211	8.3	83.7	11.2	5.1
28		Delta	325,569	21,121	6.5	89.2	0.0	10.8
29		Edo	245,923	10,814	4.4	62.9	0.0	37.1
30		Rivers	413,547	29,672	7.2	64.9	21.4	13.7
31	South West	Ekiti	205,100	5,853	2.9	100.0	0.0	0.0
32		Lagos	577,199	36,494	6.3	83.6	0.0	16.4
33		Ogun	270,535	16,997	6.3	83.1	0.0	16.9
34		Ondo	276,443	6,682	2.4	32.8	0.0	67.2
35		Osun	277,972	9,201	3.3	72.5	0.0	27.5
36		Oyo	433,609	78,829	18.2	31.2	0.0	68.8
37		FCT	249,176	24,171	9.7	9.1	73.1	17.8

Source: NDHS, 2008

Notes: Shading refers to highest proportion (percentage) among OOSC population within each state.

Chart 2.32 provides a summary of Dimension 3 OOSC by zone. The results are consistent with those for primary-aged children (Dimension 2, see Chart 2.9), and show that the out of school children problem in Nigeria is concentrated in the northern zones, especially the North East and North West zones. Each has an

average for OOSC above 50 per cent, and these high rates of non-participation are mainly a result of never having entered a school (and not dropping out).



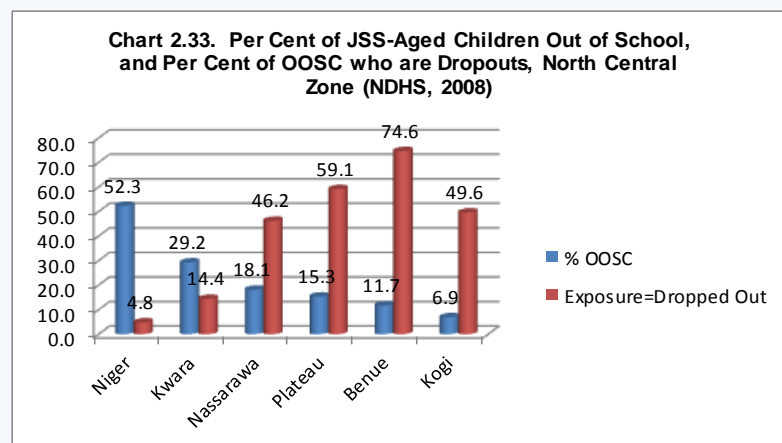
Source: NDHS, 2008

At the other extreme are the three southern zones (South South, South East and South West), where less than 10 per cent of 12-14 year olds are currently out of school. In these states the school exposure story is very different, as relatively few children have never entered school, and being out of school is mainly a result of having dropped out. Finally, the North Central zone has results that are in between the two other groups, with about one quarter of JSS-aged children out of school.

In the following sections the individual geopolitical zones are reviewed using a similar—although not identical—format as incorporated for Dimension 2. Each section begins with a summary of OOSC in Dimension 3 by state. However, instead of summarizing all three categories for exposure to schooling among out of school children (dropped out, likely to enter by age 17, and likely to never enter), only the dropped out proportion is summarized. As described in Chart 2.28, and in Table 2.8, the percentages of out of school children in Dimension 3 who are classified as ‘Likely to enter school by age 17’ is minimal (one per cent of OOSC). So there is little need to summarize all three categories, which requires a separate chart for each zone. Instead, next to the percentage of OOSC in each state, the per cent of OOSC who are classified as ‘Dropped out’ is presented. Finally, for each state within each region the three equity comparisons from the previous section are carried out: boys versus girls, urban areas versus rural areas, and the poorest children versus the richest children.

North-Central

Chart 2.33 begins the zone-specific summaries with the North Central zone. As shown above, this zone is in the middle in terms of OOSC rates for junior-secondary aged children. There are two sets of results to assess in Chart 2.33. The blue bars refer to the per cent of junior secondary aged children (12-14 years) that are out of school (% OOSC). The results show substantial variation across states in the North Central zone, as Niger has a very high rate of OOSC (52.3 per cent), followed by Kwara (29.2%). However, the remaining states are below 20 per cent, and in the case of Kogi only 6.9 per cent of these children are out of school. It is important to note, however, that according to the OOSC methodology, children are counted as “in school” if they attend primary or secondary education. Therefore a junior secondary age child who attends primary is not considered out of school.



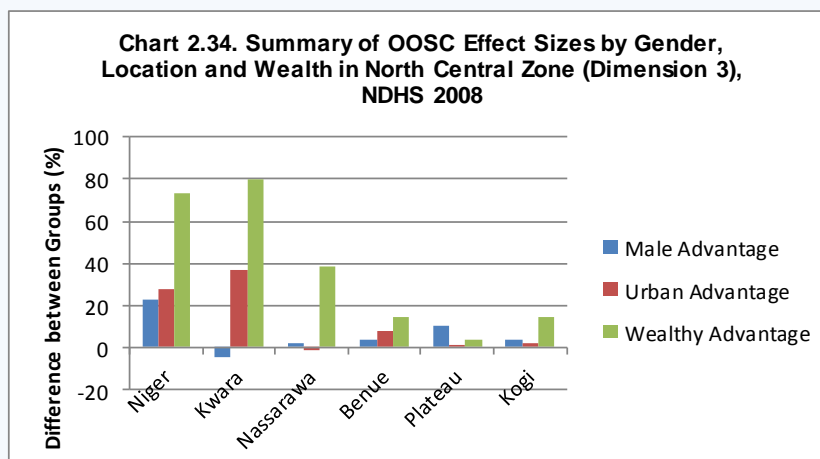
Source: NDHS, 2008

The more difficult results to interpret in Chart 2.33 are the red columns for dropped out. In the OOSC framework dropped out does not refer to the percentage of all junior secondary aged children who have dropped out of school, which is analysed in more detail in Dimensions 4 and 5. Instead, in Dimension 3 dropped out is one of the three categories used to summarize out of school children (also called exposure to school among OOSC). As was explained above, very few out of school children in Dimension 3 are expected to enter school eventually, so there are essentially only two categories of OOSC: dropped out and expected to never enter school.

The results in Chart 2.33 show an inverse relationship between OOSC rates and dropout rates. For example, in the state of Niger the dropped out rate is only 4.8 per cent, which more specifically means that 4.8 per cent of out of school children dropped out of school. This rate is low for the simple reason that most of the out of school children in Niger—which represent more than half of the eligible children (see blue column)—have never set foot in a school, and are not expected to do so in the future. However, we see that the dropped out rate is much higher in states such as Benue (74.6%) and Plateau (59.1%). Does this mean that these states have high dropout rates? The answer is no, as once again dropped out in the OOSC framework refers to the percentage of out of school children who have left school, not the total percentage of children who have left school. In the states with low levels of OOSC the dropped rate is high because in these states almost all children are entering school initially, but some are dropping out by the age of 14. In other words, unlike in high OOSC states like Niger, in states with low OOSC rates there are very few children classified as 'Expected to never enter school.'

Chart 2.34 summarizes the OOSC effect sizes by gender, location and wealth. The same format is used as in the previous section for primary aged children. The numbers represent differences in percentages of out of school children, where a positive number is the advantage for males, urban residents and the wealthiest. Negative numbers mean that girls, rural residents or the poorest families have lower rates of OOSC.

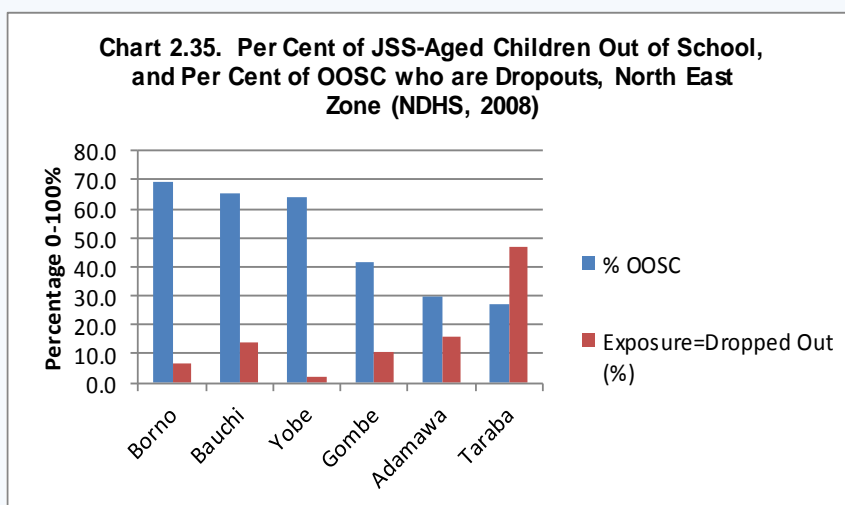
The results in Chart 2.34 are similar to those for primary aged children. In some states in the zone—especially Niger—there is a significant advantage for males versus females (meaning that girls have higher rates of OOSC). In Niger and Kwara there are also very large advantages for urban children versus rural children. And in all of the states (except Plateau) there is a significant advantage for the wealthiest children versus the poorest (at least 15 per cent). However, it is not the case that these differences are evenly distributed across the states in the North Central region. Once again the equity analysis is marked more by variation between states than it is uniformity, which is another reminder that policies intended to address 'gaps' in schooling outcomes need to take into account the scope of the problem in the specific area.



Source: NDHS, 2008

North-East

Chart 2.35 summarizes OOSC and dropouts (as per cent of OOSC) for the North East zone. Together with the North West this zone has the highest rate of out of school children for junior-secondary ages (12-14). This is shown by the three states (Borno, Bauchi, and Yobe) that have OOSC rates above 60 per cent, which is twice as high as the national average. But it is not true that all of the states in the zone have low school participation rates in Dimension 3, as Adamawa and Taraba have OOSC rates below 30 per cent.

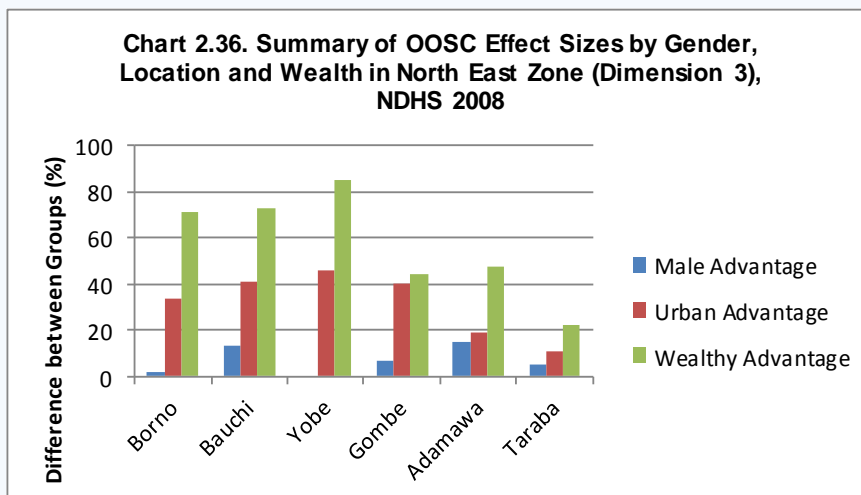


Source: NDHS 2008

Chart 2.35 also shows the inverse relationship between overall rates of OOSC and the dropped out category among out of school children. In the states with the highest per cent of children out of school in Dimension 3, the percentage of OOSC who have been to school but dropped out is very low: less than 15 per cent in Borno, Bauchi and Yobe. However, in the states where fewer children overall are out of school, the proportion of OOSC that have entered school but no longer attend is much higher: in Taraba the proportion of out of

school children who have left school is nearly 50 per cent. This does mean that dropping out is more prevalent in states such as Taraba where more children initially enter school. But the out of school children problem is much more serious in states such as Borno and Bauchi where large percentages of out of school-aged children have never entered a school.

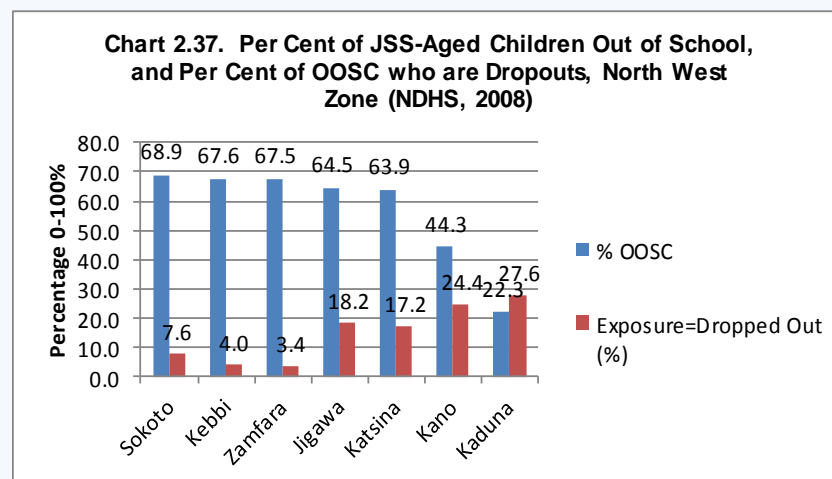
Chart 2.36 concludes the review for the North East with a summary of the effect sizes by gender, location and wealth. Once again the results for gender are mixed, with the states of Bauchi and Adamawa showing significant advantages for boys in Dimension 3, but in the other states the differences are relatively small. For location and wealth the effect sizes are very large in the states with the highest percentages of out of school children (Borno, Bauchi and Yobe). But these differences are smaller in the states where more children are in school, which is as expected since effect sizes are only large in states where many children are classified as OOSC.



Source: NDHS, 2008

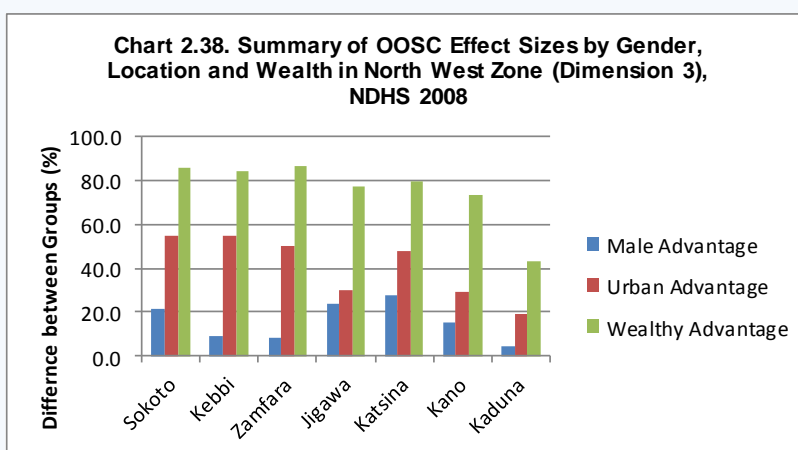
North-West

Chart 2.37 summarizes OOSC and dropouts (as per cent of OOSC) for the North West zone. The results are similar to those for the North East zone, which is not surprising since they have the same overall percentage of out of school children in Dimension 3 (52.7%). Five of the seven states in the zone have OOSC percentages above 60 (Sokoto, Kebbi, Zamfara, Jigawa and Katsina), which are some of the highest OOSC rates in the country. The states of Kano (44.3%) and especially Kaduna (27.6%) are lower, although OOSC is still a problem even in Kaduna. The results in Chart 2.37 also show more dropout in states with lower percentages of OOSC, which again is mainly explained by the fact that more children are entering school in these states, so it is possible for more of them to leave school early. In states like Sokoto the overwhelming problem remains one of children never entering school.



Source: NDHS, 2008

Chart 2.38 reviews the effect sizes for comparisons by gender, location and wealth. The results show that North West zone has the largest inequalities in school attendance among junior secondary-aged children. For gender the data show that boys



Source: NDHS, 2008

are 10-25 per cent less likely to be classified as OOSC compared with girls in six of the seven states. Only in Kaduna do boys and girls have relatively similar rates of OOSC. The results for location also show very large differences in OOSC between rural and urban areas, with effect sizes (% difference) that are between 40 and 60 per cent in four of the seven states. And finally, for wealth the gap between poor and rich is enormous, and is roughly 80 per cent in 5 of the seven states. Again, only in Kaduna are the effect sizes relatively small, which is not surprising since this state has the lowest rate of OOSC in the zone.

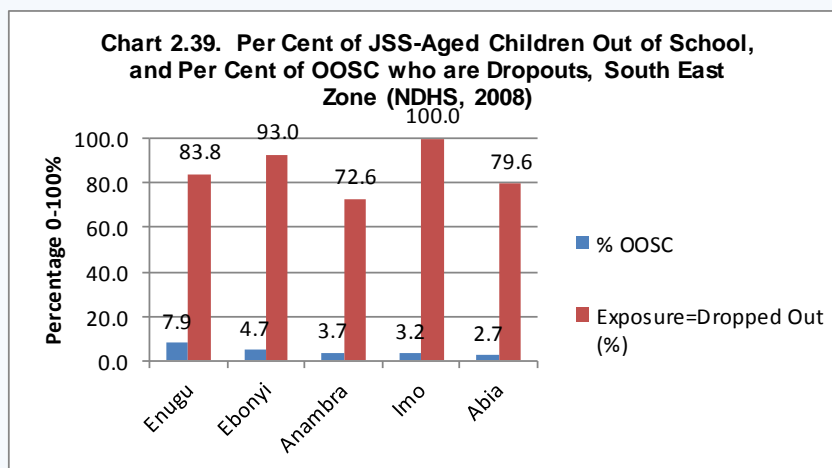
South East

Chart 2.39 summarizes OOSC and dropouts (as per cent of OOSC) for the South East zone. Once again the differences between the northern and southern zones are substantial. In all five states in the zone the percentage of junior secondary-aged children who are not in school is below 10 per cent. This is a huge difference compared with the states in the North East and West zones. The results in Chart 2.39 also show that very high percentages of out of school children are dropouts. This again does not mean that dropout rates are high in these states, just that among children who are not in school, most of them attended school but then left. Among the total junior secondary-aged population in this zone, the overall drop rate is less than four per cent.

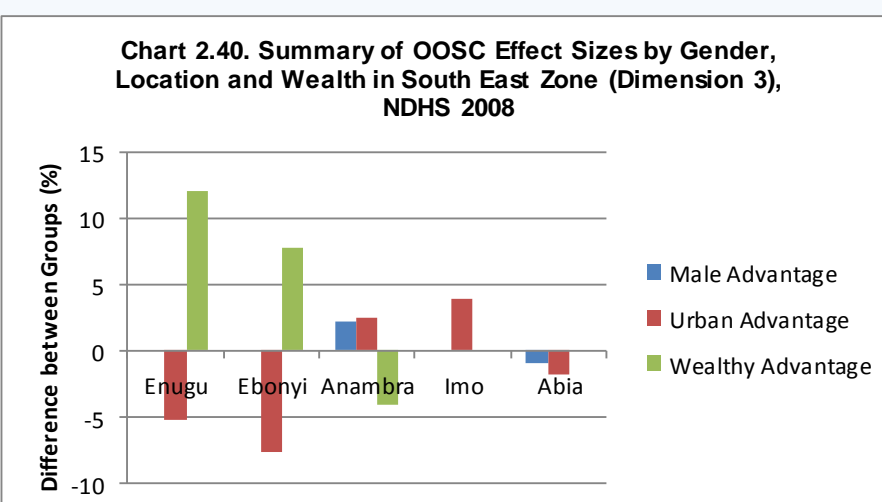
Chart 2.40 concludes with a summary of effect sizes for the South East zone states. For gender there are no significant differences between boys and girls in terms of OOSC. For location the results actually show that rural children are less likely to be out of school in three of the five states (Enugu, Ebonyi and Abia). And finally, for wealth there are only two states where the wealthiest children are significantly less likely to be out of school (Enugu and Ebonyi). But in general the results for the South East zone are very different from their northern counterparts where very large differences exist between different groups of children.

South South

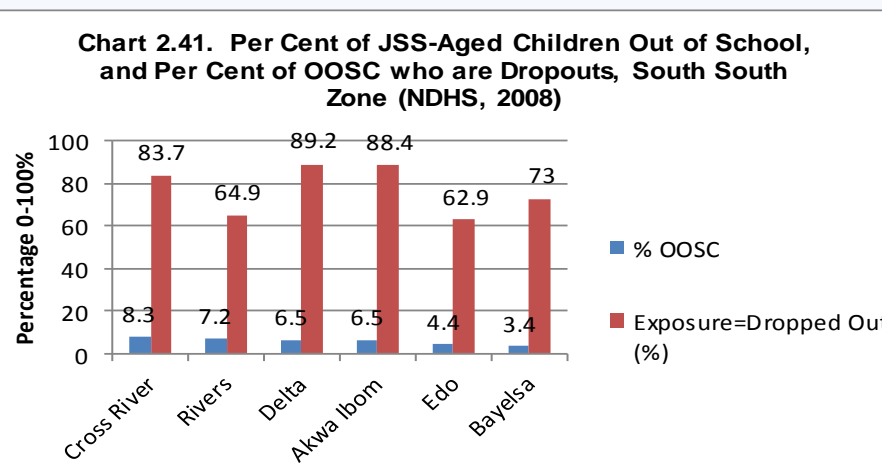
Chart 2.41 summarizes OOSC and dropouts (as per cent of OOSC) for the South South zone. The pattern is similar to that



Source: NDHS, 2008



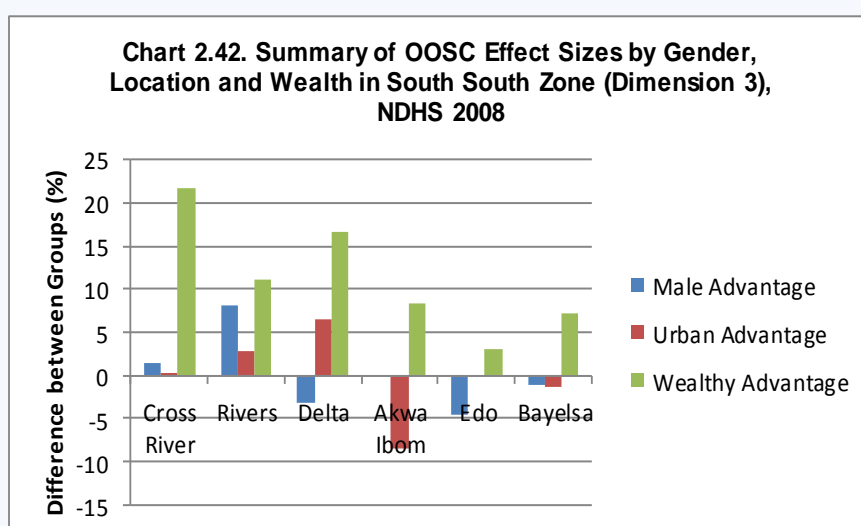
Source: NDHS, 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

encountered for the South East zone. All six states in the region have out of school children rates below 10 per cent, which is far below the national average. As expected, most of the children of junior secondary-age who are no longer in school have already dropped out.

Chart 2.42 continues with the summary of effect size comparisons by gender, location and wealth in the South South zone. These results are also similar to the other southern zone. For gender the differences are not consistent, as boys are significantly less likely to be out of school in Rivers, but girls have the advantage in Delta and Edo. Location comparisons are also somewhat mixed, as urban children do better in Rivers (marginally) and Delta, but rural children have a substantial advantage in Akwa Ibom. Finally, for poor-rich comparisons the results clearly show an advantage for wealthier children, but compared with other zones and states the effect sizes are not large. The biggest difference is found in Cross River, where the wealthiest group of children are about 20 per cent more likely to be in school (or 20 per cent less likely to be classified as OOSC). However in the remaining states in the region the wealth advantage is less pronounced, and varies between 3 and 17 per cent.



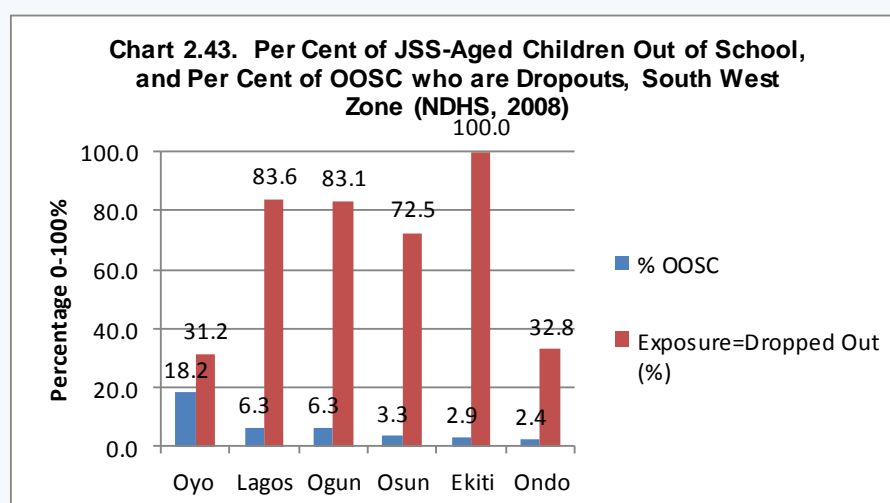
Source: NDHS, 2008

Source: NDHS, 2008

South West

Charts 2.43 and 2.44 conclude the review of OOSC in Dimension 3 with the South West zone. Compared with the other southern zones there is slightly more variation within the South West zone. For example, the state of Oyo has an out of school children rate in Dimension 3 of 18.2 per cent, which is much higher than any of the other states in southern zones. Also, in Oyo only about 30 per cent of the out of school children have dropped out of school, and the rest are classified as 'Likely to never enter school.' This highlights a problem with initial access to school in this state. The remaining states in the zone have very low rates of OOSC in Dimension 3. And, consistent with other states with low rates of OOSC, almost all of these children have dropped out of school. The exception is Ondo, where a significant proportion of out of school children are classified as 'Likely to never enter school.' However, in this state nearly 98 per cent of junior secondary aged children attend school at some level, so again these numbers for dropout and likely to never enter are applicable to a very small percentage of the overall school aged population.

Chart 2.44 summarizes the effect size comparisons for the South West zone states. One result that stands out is the very large advantage for wealthy children compared to poor children in the state of Oyo (effect size=95 per cent). Also, in Oyo there is a sizeable difference in OOSC rates between urban and rural areas (rural areas have 23 per cent more OOSC). For the remaining comparisons the results are generally consistent with other states in the southern zones. For example, there are significant wealth advantages in Lagos, Ogun, Osun and Ondo, which is a reminder that even in states with low rates of OOSC there are still likely to be poor families who lag behind their more wealthy counterparts. Finally, in terms of



Source: NDHS, 2008

gender differences the results in Chart 2.44 show there are no substantial differences between boys and girls in terms of school participation in Dimension 3.

Dimensions 4 and 5: At risk of dropping out of primary or junior secondary school

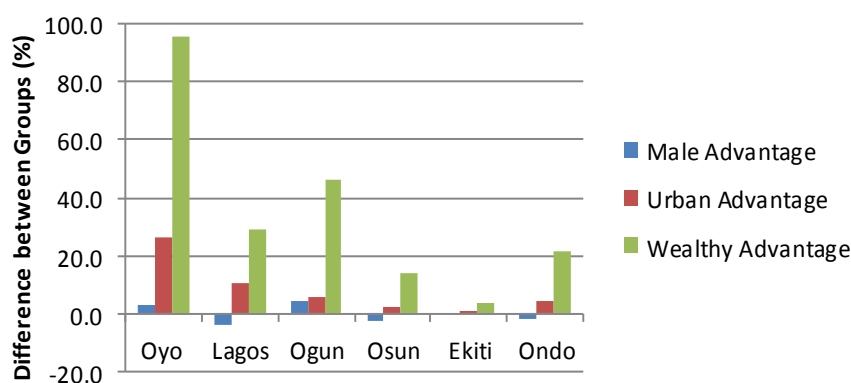
The Out of School Children framework assesses the risk of dropout at the primary and junior secondary levels on the basis of actual dropout rates from these levels. Dropout was already briefly reviewed in Section 2.1 of the report, both on an overall (i.e. has a child who ever enrolled in school dropped out) and year-on-year basis. In this section the year-on-year dropout measure is incorporated to measure dropout risk in Dimensions 4 (primary level) and 5 (junior secondary). This is defined as the percentage of children enrolled in the given level in the previous year who are no longer enrolled in school at any level. The definitions of Dimensions 4 and 5 are level, rather than age, specific. This means that any child, of any age, enrolled in primary is included in the analysis, and not just those who are of correct primary school age; the same is true for junior secondary. This is an important difference compared with Dimensions 1-3 where the results were based on specific age groups (6-11, 12-14) and not actual schooling levels.

The dropout risks presented in this section are different from the dropout proportions that were presented in previous sections as part of the summary of Out of School Children. Dropout in this section measures the dropout rate for the entire population of children who were enrolled in primary or junior secondary school in the year previous to the NDHS data collection. Whereas for the OOSC category summaries (called school exposure) dropout refers to the proportion (or percentage) of the total of out of school children who dropped out of school, which in some states is a very small part of the total population. So a dropout rate in this section of 5 per cent means that of the entire student population in that level (primary or junior secondary), 5 per cent have left school after having been enrolled the previous year. Whereas 5 per cent dropout in the previous sections meant that 5 per cent of Out of School Children for a given age group were dropouts, not that 5 per cent of that entire group of young people were dropouts.

Dimensions 4 and 5 are analysed together in one single section. Each is reviewed on a national basis, including disparity analysis where comparisons of dropout rates are compared across gender, location and socioeconomic category (wealth). Then a brief review is provided by zone in order to show state by state averages. However, the disparity analysis is not incorporated in the zone- and state-specific reviews.

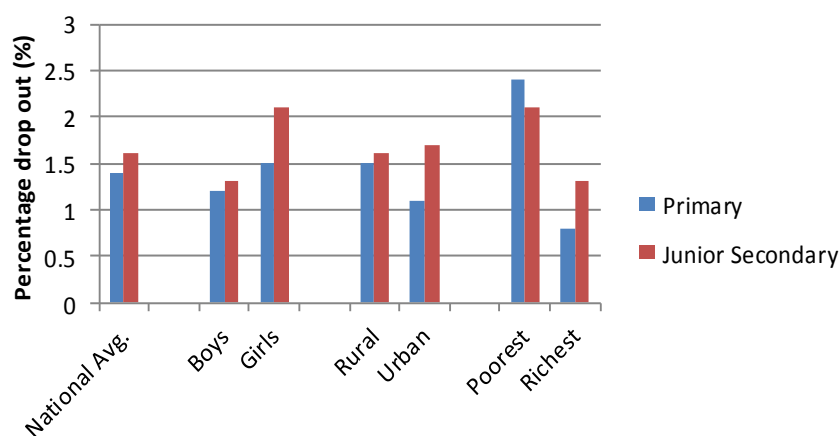
Finally, it is important to keep in mind the limitations of the dropout measure in countries where large numbers of children never enter school (such as Nigeria). It has already been shown in the review of Dimensions 2 and 3 that dropout proportions of Out of School Children are higher in states with lower rates of out of school

Chart 2.44. Summary of OOSC Effect Sizes by Gender, Location and Wealth in South West Zone (Dimension 3), NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

Chart 2.45: Dropout Risk Dimensions 4 and 5, NDHS 2008



Source: NDHS, 2008

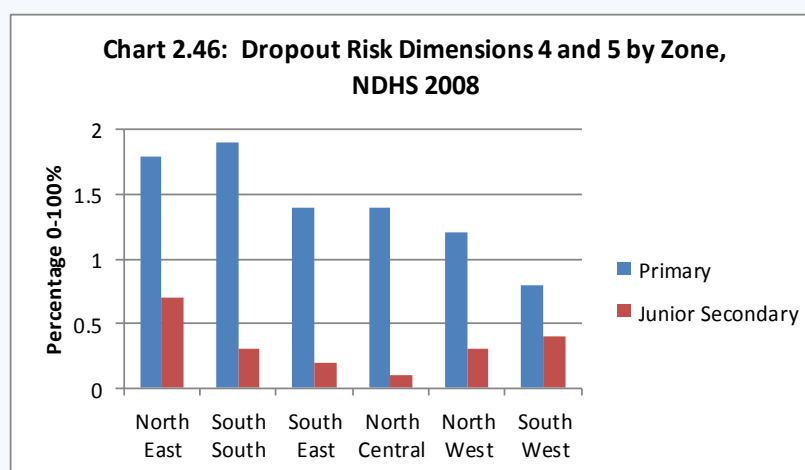
children. This is because almost all children are entering school in these states, which increases the number of potential dropouts. However, in the poorest states many children are not even entering school, and as a result dropout rates tend to be very low. For this reason the summary of the risk of dropout is less detailed compared with the review of Dimensions 2 and 3 in the previous section, especially for the state and zone summaries.

Chart 2.45 summarizes dropout risk in Dimensions 4 (primary level) and 5 (junior secondary) based on the 2008 NDHS data. The results are consistent with the summary presented before (Section 2.1), and show that the rate of dropout—defined here as the percentage of students who are not enrolled in the current school year after having been enrolled in the previous school year—is relatively low. At both the primary and junior secondary levels the dropout rate is about 1.5 per cent. In other words, very few children who are in school are leaving, which in turn highlights the importance of getting children initially enrolled because the evidence from this study is that once they do enter a school building they are likely to continue studying for the duration of the primary cycle, if not longer.

The comparisons in Chart 2.45 show that disparities in dropout risk are not very large in Nigeria. Again, as explained above, this does not mean that school attendance rates are evenly distributed throughout the country, as some states (and zones) have very high percentages of children who never set foot in a school. But among those who do at least enter school, the chances of dropping out are very low, and do not vary much by gender, location or socioeconomic status. The results in Chart 2.45 show that the dropout risk is between 1 and 2.5 per cent for all categories, and the only category with an effect size (or difference) greater than 1.5 per cent is the comparison of rich and poor primary school students (rich students are less likely to dropout).

Chart 2.46 summarizes the primary and junior secondary dropout risks by zone. The results again show very little variation, as the zone-specific averages vary between 0.8 and 1.8 for primary risk (Dimension 4), and 0.1 and 0.65 for junior secondary (Dimension 5). There is also no real clear pattern in terms of the relationship between out of school children (OOSC) and dropout risks. The zone with the highest dropout risk for Dimensions 4 and 5 is the North East, which also has very high rates of out of school children. But the North West zone—which also has high rates of OOSC—has one of the lowest combined levels of dropout risk across primary and junior secondary levels.

Because of the relative lack of variation in the dropout risk outcome by zone and groups (gender, location, etc.), the more detailed review by state is condensed down to two charts that provide state averages for primary and junior secondary dropout risk by general region. Chart 2.47 begins with the northern part of Nigeria, which includes 19 states divided across three zones (North East, North West, North Central). The states are ordered from highest dropout risk, which is calculated by summing the primary and junior secondary percentages, to lowest (left to right).

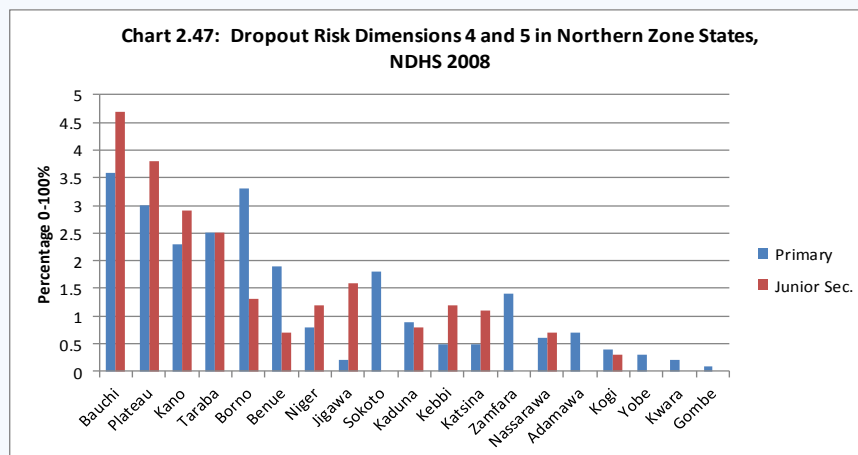


Source: NDHS, 2008

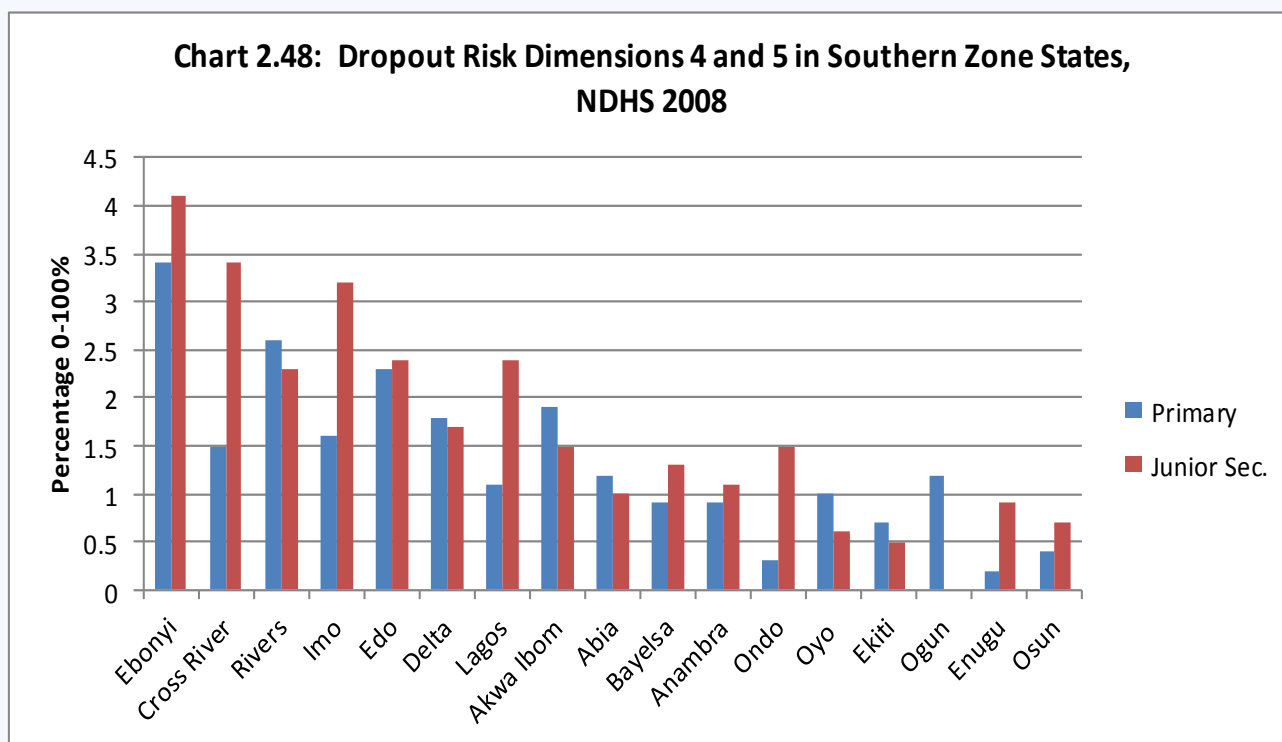
Five northern states have total dropout percentages near or above five per cent: Bauchi, Plateau, Kano, Taraba and Borno. How do these five states rank in terms of out of school children (OOSC)? The results from the previous section show that they are not easily grouped into a single category, as states like Taraba and Plateau have relatively low rates of OOSC, while Bauchi and Borno have high rates of children out of school.

At the other end of the scale, five northern states have combined dropout risks below one per cent: Gombe, Kwara, Yobe, Kogi and Adamawa. These states also have out of school children averages that vary from low to high. So there is still no clear relationship between OOSC and dropout risk, which is not surprising since the dropout rate is generally very low in all of the Nigerian states.

Chart 2.48 concludes the analysis of Dimensions 4 and 5 with a summary of state dropout risk averages in the southern zone states. The results show little variation between states in these zones, as all 17 states are in the 0.5 to 4.0 per cent range.



Source: NDHS, 2008

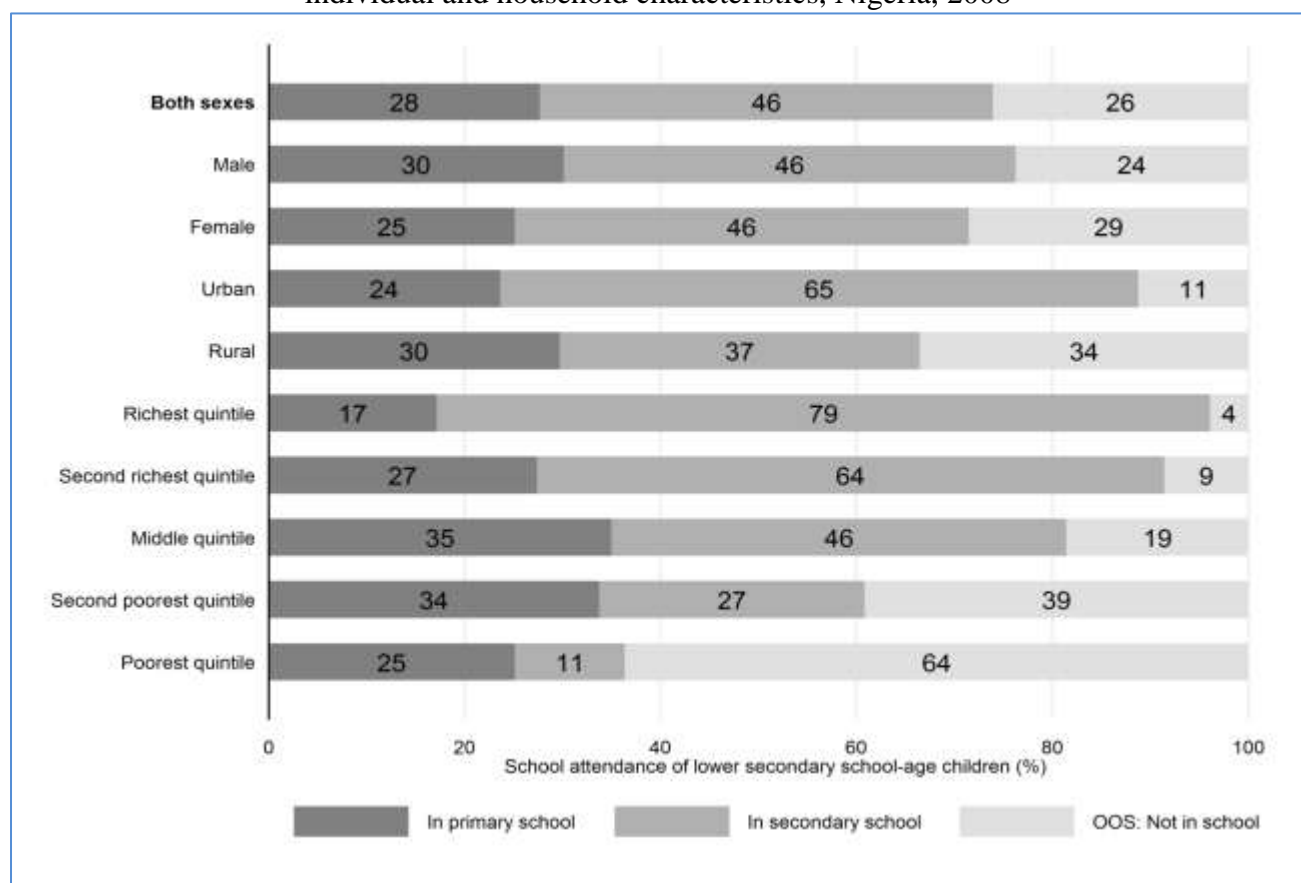


Source: NDHS, 2008

Chart 2.49, which is taken from a recent UIS summary on education in Nigeria (UIS, 2013), helps shed some additional light on school attendance dynamics by level. The results show that a significant percentage—28 per cent overall—of children of junior secondary age are enrolled in primary schools.

Chart 2.49: Are children attending the intended level of education for their age?

Percentage of lower secondary school-age children in and out of school, by level of education and individual and household characteristics, Nigeria, 2008



Source: UIS, 2013; NDHS, 2008

Out of School Children and Child Labour in Nigeria: A Brief Review

Discussions about the underlying causes of out of school children—which are returned to in more detail in Chapters 3 and 4 of this document—often cite child labour as an important influence on whether or not children are participating in school. On the face of it the argument is a simple one: children who have to work are not likely to have the time, or resources, to attend school. However, in reality many children are active in some form of work in the home, on farms or in the local marketplace, *and* they are also attending school. This does not mean that child labour does not have negative consequences for these children who are able to do both, especially when their work activities reduce the time they have for homework, rest, or preparation for class. But the important point is that there is not always a sharp trade-offs between work and school for young people.

Based on the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) from 2007 the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) prepared a detailed review of child labour in Nigeria. Their results confirm that child labour is widespread in the country. For example, 32.6 per cent of children aged 5-11 are engaged in some form of economic activity for at least one hour per day. Among 12-14 year olds, about 13 per cent report economic activities of 14 hours or more per week. The overall child labour rate—which is defined based on a mixture of work activities in the home and in economic production—among 5-14 year olds is estimated at 29 per cent.

Table 2.8 (below) is taken from the UIS report, and summarizes child labour rates by child and family categories, and also presents the percentage of child labourers who are out of school. Not surprisingly, these child labour rates vary significantly by family and child characteristics, especially urban-rural (more work in rural areas), age (older children more likely to be working), and household wealth and education. Importantly, even in the wealthiest households and those where the mother has secondary education or higher, significant numbers of children are likely to be engaged in some kind of work activity.

Among the children aged 5-14 who are classified as child labourers, on average about 40 per cent of them are not in school (Table 2.8, right half). Can we conclude that these children are not in school because of the

work demands on their time? The data do not allow us to reach that conclusion, since children engaged in child labour activities may have already left school due to some other reason. Nevertheless, the data in Table 2.8 clearly show that child labour is a risk activity, meaning that children who are engaged in this kind of work are more likely to be out of school compared with the general population, although the overall out of school children rate in primary and secondary school is in the 25-30 per cent range (see previous sections).

The out of school rate among child labourers varies substantially by category. For example, not only are rural children aged 5-14 more likely to be classified as child labourers compared with urban children (32 versus 21 per cent), but within the child labourer category a much higher percentage are out of school (43.3% versus 28.5%). This suggests—again we cannot draw definitive conclusions on cause and effect—that the child's work in rural areas is more detrimental for their schooling. There are also very large regional differences in Table 2.8. One result that stands out is that in the North East region, which actually has a child labour rate that is slightly below the national average, almost 90 per cent of working children are out of school. This again points to differences in the nature of the labour activities that are being performed, which in the case of the North East region appear to have a very strong negative impact on the child's ability to attend school.

Table 2.8: Child Labour and out of school children, Nigeria, Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS 3) 2				
Percentage of children aged 5-14 years involved in child labour who are out of school				
	Child Labour ¹		Child labourers who are out of school ²	
	Percentage	Sample size (n)	Percentage	Sample size (n)
Total	29.0	11,992	40.4	5,296
Sex				
Male	29.3	6,145	38.4	2,585
Female	28.7	5,847	42.4	2,711
Region				
North central	39.2	2,834	23.1	670
North east	26.2	2,574	89.6	2,305
North west	26.7	2,865	60.7	1,928
South east	25.8	948	13.2	131
South south	38.1	1,790	10.5	185
South west	23.4	981	8.7	77
Area				
Urban	21.0	2,042	28.5	759
Rural	32.0	9,950	43.3	4,537
Age				
5-11	33.7	10,539	40.9	4,647
12-14	15.4	1,453	37.1	649
Mother's education				
None	30.1	7,490	57.2	4,557
Primary	33.0	2,628	15.8	403
Secondary and higher	22.4	1,647	9.8	170
Non-standard	20.5	226	63.2	165
Household wealth quintile				
1- Lowest	34.4	3,274	68.2	2,337
2	33.6	3,348	51.0	1,825
3	29.2	2,494	27.8	748
4	27.2	1,898	14.0	271
5- Highest	17.2	978	10.8	115
Religion of household head				
Christian	29.9	5,209	13.7	783
Muslim	28.1	6,502	63.1	4,410
Traditional	37.3	252	36.1	100
Other religion	78.5	5	0.0	0
No religion	34.6	24	7.2	3

Source: UIS Child Labour summary, Table CL2

1. See UIS summary for definitions of children in child labour

2. The numerator to estimate the percentage of children in child labour who are out of school includes children aged 5-14 out of school who, during the week preceding the survey, were involved in child labour (See footnotes to Table CL.1 for definitions of children in child labour). The denominator is the total number of children in child labour.

2.3. Analytical Summary

In 2008 the estimated primary age and junior secondary age populations of Nigeria were 24.7 million and 10.9 million respectively. Based on the NDHS data analysis presented here, out of the total primary age population, about 7.3 million children (constituting 29.6%) who were supposed to be in primary school were out of school [Dimension 2]. About 26% of the children who were supposed to be in junior secondary, or about 2.8 million children, were out of school [Dimension 3]. On the aggregate, about 10.1 million children who are supposed to be in basic education were not in school [Dimensions 2 and 3 combined]. These figures suggest that whereas one out of every three primary age children is out of school, one out of every four junior secondary age children is out of school.

The OOSC framework is not only useful for identifying how many children are out of school in both numeric and percentage terms, but it is also useful for classifying out of school children into three important categories: dropped out, likely to never enter school, and likely to enter school by the age of 17. In both Dimension 2 (primary school age) and 3 (junior secondary school age), the category for *expected to never enter* was the most predominant. In fact, in Dimension 2, three out of every four OOSC were in the *expected to never enter* category, versus only about one out of every four OOSC was found in the *expected to enter by age 17* category. In Dimension 3, three out of every four OOSC were in the *expected to never enter* category, while very few out of school children (close to zero per cent) were expected to enter school by the age of 17.

Dimensions 4 (primary) and 5 (junior secondary): measure dropout risk, based on actual dropout rates in these levels. Overall, the results show that dropout rates are very low in Nigeria, in both primary and junior secondary levels. This leads to a very important conclusion: the more serious problem with out of school children in Nigeria is never entering school, as opposed to entering and leaving early (i.e. dropout). In other words, when children enter school they tend to stay throughout the primary cycle, if not further. Therefore the overarching challenge facing basic education in Nigeria is improving access and initial primary school enrolment.

Another important dimension is inequality in educational outcomes, as there are a number of significant differences in out of school rates between males and females, rural and urban residents, and the richest and poorest children. In terms of relative weights, wealth appeared to exert the strongest influence on the likelihood to be out of school, followed by residence and then gender. In other words, irrespective of the Dimension of Exclusion, substantially higher proportions of the OOSC were children from the extremely poor families and those who reside in the rural areas. Therefore, OOSC appears to be more of a poverty and rural phenomenon with slight gender undertone. More specifically: boys are about five per cent less likely to be classified as Out of School Children in both Dimensions 2 (primary) and 3 (Junior secondary); urban children are about 23 percentage points more likely to be in school compared with rural children in both Dimension 2 and 3; and the richest children are about 60 percentage points less likely to out of school compared with the poorest.

The above trends were subject to wide geographical or regional/zonal variations. The burden of Dimension 2 OOSC was either high or severe in all the states in the three geopolitical zones in the North except for three states in the North Central zone [Kogi, Benue and Plateau] that had a low burden. In the South, the reverse was the case. The burden of Dimension 2 OOSC was low in all the states in the three geopolitical zones in the South except for one state in the South –West (Oyo) that had a high burden. For Dimension 3 OOSC, the burden was either high or severe in all the states in the three geopolitical zones in the North except for four states in the North Central zone [Kogi, Benue, Nassarawa and Plateau] that had a low burden. In the South, the reverse was the case. The burden was low in all the states in the three geopolitical zones in the South.

Overall, the comparisons by zone and state point to a country with two education contexts. In the southern zones and states almost all children enter school at some point, and those that are out of school are, in the majority of cases, dropouts. In the northern zones and states, by contrast, substantial percentages of primary- and junior secondary-aged children are not in school. Furthermore, in most cases they have never set foot in a school—and are never expected to do so.

The very different results by zone are a cogent reminder of the need for flexibility in addressing problems related to out of school children, as this problem is not uniformly spread throughout the country. The results for comparisons by gender, location and socioeconomic status help make the same argument, as boys fare substantially better in some states and zones, but in others there is gender parity, or even some advantages for girls.

In the following chapters the policy side of this discussion takes center stage, building on the empirical foundation provided in this chapter. The issue of out of school children—and how to get them into school—is clearly a complicated one, and requires considering a wide range of underlying causes, and possible solutions.

3. Barriers and Bottlenecks

3.1. Introduction

The barriers and bottlenecks affecting children's education are formidable and in many cases very diverse. Parents who would ordinarily enrol their children in school find it difficult to do so, and when they manage to enrol the children, circumstances that are often beyond their control force them to withdraw the children from school before they are due to graduate. Some of these barriers predispose the children to attend school irregularly, perform poorly and eventually drop out from school, and to become Out-Of-School Children (OOSC). These barriers and bottlenecks vary relative to the age of the children as well as their class level in school. They influence families' demand for the education of their children.

Demand for education denotes the willingness and ability of families to enrol their children in school and sustain their support in ensuring that the children attend school regularly, and complete their education. The various factors that make parents unable to effectively demand for the education of their children constitute the demand driven barriers and bottlenecks forcing them not to enrol their children in school, or making the children to drop out from school without completion. Apart from parental demand for education of their children there are also other sources of barriers and bottlenecks. In all, the barriers and bottlenecks are rooted in the socio-cultural environment, family socio-economic status, quality of education offered by school, safe school environmental considerations, political dimensions of education, economic values placed on education by parents and their children, school governance and funding of education. This chapter presents the ramifications of these barriers and bottlenecks that keep children out of school under the broad themes: socio-cultural demand side barriers and bottlenecks, economic demand side barriers and bottlenecks, supply side barriers and bottlenecks, political, governance, capacity and financing barriers and bottlenecks.

3.2. Socio-Cultural Demand Side

The socio-cultural demand side for education is the willingness and ability of families/households, based on their perception of the importance and value of education, to enrol their children in school, and sustain their support until the children successfully complete their education. Based on their socio-cultural environment and value system, families may disregard education or oppose it outright, so much so that their children lose the opportunity to access basic education, even if it is free. In this case, families' demand for the education of their children would be weak or non-existent. The barriers and bottlenecks in the socio-cultural demand side of education are many and some of them quite critical. This section examines some of these barriers and bottlenecks with a view to illuminating their ramifications and influences on the OOSC phenomenon in Nigeria.

Too young to attend school: Parental perception of the right age at which their children should enrol in school is an important factor contributing to non-enrolment of children in basic education. This perception is quite critical in pre-primary and primary schooling in which over-aged children often enrol. The idea that the child is too young to enrol in school often leads to failure to enrol despite the child's age. This study confirms information in the literature, (NDES, 2010:62). A breakdown of the findings of this study into the categories of OOSC shows that at the point of initial school enrolment, 74.0% of the OOSC belongs to the category of the 'Expected to never enter', 21.0% belongs to 'Expected to enter late by age 17', while only 5.1% belong to the dropout category. Many children are thus out of school because parents are either unwilling or ignorant and unaware of the official school entry age when children should be registered in school. The low percentage of dropout category is consistent with the low dropout rate in Nigerian schools, especially in the southern geopolitical zones of Nigeria, (NEDS, 2010).

Early Marriage: Gender disparity analysis of available data has revealed that more females (32.4%) are out of school than males (26.9%). Of the females in the OOSC category, 77.7% is in the category of 'Expected to never enter' while 69.8% of the males in the OOSC group belong to 'Expected to never enter'. These differing male and female proportions can be accounted for by the several factors that differentially influence female access to education.

In several parts of Nigeria, early marriage is still very common, and it influences female access to basic education very adversely. In some states in the northern geopolitical zones of Nigeria, some parents give out their daughters early in marriage, to the detriment of the children's education and training. Some studies, SAGEN -1 (E-2005), Njoku (2007), have identified early marriage as a major hindrance to girls'

access to education in some parts of the northern states of Nigeria. The belief in some communities within this zone is that girls should marry early to avoid bringing shame on their families, should they become pregnant while still in their father's house. Parents encourage their daughters to get married as soon as they attain puberty (9-13 years of age). This cultural practice effectively compromises the education of girls, causing them to attend school irregularly and therefore performing poorly, and eventually dropping out from school or being forcefully withdrawn from school by parents for marriage.

The report of a study commissioned by UNICEF A' Field Office, involving 10 states in the south-south, south east and Benue state (Okeke et al E- 2008) also revealed that early marriage is an important factor of children not enrolling in school or dropping out from school in several other states outside the northern geopolitical zones. For instance, in Ebonyi, Enugu, Cross River, Akwa Ibom and Benue States early marriage among girls is a strong factor influencing their access to, retention in and completion of basic education.

Moreover, in some sub-cultures, the mother of the girls has to provide bride wealth with which the young girl would start her own home. This cultural practice called '**GARA**' is widespread in some parts of the northern states. In poor families, for instance, it is very difficult to provide the GARA. The girl-child is therefore made to carry on some economic activities like hawking in order to raise money with which to buy and accumulate household utensils that would be used for the GARA. Girls in this situation may not enrol in school, and would definitely be unable to attend school regularly, participate effectively in school work or achieve highly in school work. They are at high risk of dropping out of school to get married or due to poor academic performance and the attendant class repetitions.

'Western' education perceived as incompatible with Islamic Education: The finding that 77.8% of female and 69.8% of male OOSC belong to the category of 'Expected to never enter' is indicative that many parents do not make attempt to enrol their children in school. There are still communities in which 'Western' education is perceived as anti-Islamic, and therefore rejected. Many parents prefer Quranic education for their children. According to CASSAD (2005), Mallams, the instructors in Quranic schools, teach the children to shun Western education. In many parts of the northern geopolitical zones, prejudices against Western education, especially for the girl-child is strong. Some studies, Okeke and Rufai (2004), SAGEN 1, (E- 2005), and Njoku (2007) indicated that there is the notion that educated girls tend to be wayward or harlots and disrespectful or non-submissive to their husbands. Such Western educated girls and women are seen to be incapable of raising their children in Islamic tradition. Based on these prejudices many parents prefer Quranic education for their children, especially the girls. These prejudices have far reaching influences on the educational decisions of parents about their daughters, who are often prevented from enrolling and attending school.

Sectarian crisis which often takes place mainly in states causes social dislocation and internal displacement of people. Although there is no data to show the impact of this spate of ethno- sectarian crises on loss of educational access and opportunity for schooling completion by children, the impact is obvious and incontrovertible. The displaced children often lose their educational opportunities and may never get back to school at the end of the crises.

Large Family size: Many Nigerian families are large with many school-aged children to be catered for by the parents. Fecundity is still very high, particularly in northern geopolitical zones where polygamy is accepted and permitted by religion. Many parents at the traditional level of wisdom beget many children who they believe would serve as farm hands. With education not actually free of financial and other costs on the part of parents, the number of children to be catered for well exceeds their financial capacity, (Okeke et al, 2008, CASSAD, 2005). Consequently some of the children are withdrawn from school and made to learn some trades or to participate in the family business such as farming, hawking, street trading, begging etc, (Njoku, 2001, & 2007). It has been observed in gender studies that whenever educational resources are scarce, it is the girl-children who are first withdrawn from school due to differential valuation of male relative to female children in the family, (Njoku, 2001, SAGEN 1, 2005).

Lower status accorded the Girl-child in the family: The findings of this study indicated that more females (32.4%) than males (26.4%) were OOSC in 2008. That more females belong to OOSC is not totally surprising because of gender discrimination at the family level. Several studies have found that girls are accorded lower status in the family, (Njoku 2007, Okeke, Okwo and Oreh, 1996, CASSAD 2005). Some parents believe that it is the male child that would inherit them and perpetuate the names of their families, while the female children would naturally be given out in marriage to other families. Parents therefore tend to invest more in the education of their sons than the education of their daughters. Thus if children have to be withdrawn from school due to financial crunch, it is the female children who are withdrawn first before the males (Okeke and Rufai,

2004). This cultural attitude to females' education at the family level may explain at least in part the higher proportion of females among OOSC in Nigeria.

Data from the 2007 MICS (NBE & UNICEF, 2007) and NEMIS (FME, 2007) indicate wide disparities in primary school enrolment indicators across the states, national geopolitical zones, socio-economic groups, and urban/rural locations. There are also gender disparities in enrolment across the nation. The largest gender disparities are observed in the northern geopolitical zones (NSC 2006). There is near gender parity in most of the southern geopolitical zones. Thus the preponderance of gender related OOSC is in the northern geopolitical zones of Nigeria, while the southern geopolitical zones indicate better scenarios. The Northwest and Northeast zones have the worst cases with regards to OOSC. The two zones account for over 50% of all OOSC in Nigeria (SITAN, E-2010). Majority of out-of-school children are found in rural communities, and girls dominate the numbers. It has been observed that Hausa girls from the northern parts of Nigeria face some of the world's most severe deprivation of right to basic education. About 97% of 17 - 22 year olds among the girls have had fewer than 2 years of formal education. Just 12% of primary school age Hausa girls attend primary schools, (SITAN, E-2010).

Peer Pressure: Peer pressure is one the important factors strongly influencing the dropping out of children from basic education, (Njoku 2001, 2007, CASSAD, 2005, Okeke et al, 2008). Children tend to drop out from school if their peers or friends start dropping out. When a pupil drops out from school into some economic activities, the pupil would visit his/her former school with an air of wealth: new dress, telephone handset, money for snacks, sunglasses, etc. The in-school children would then ask how she/he has managed to become wealthy, and the dropout would explain. Some of his friends would then plan their own exit from school to "join in becoming wealthy persons", (CASSAD, 2005, Okeke et al, 2008). Peer pressure as a factor of dropping out from school is common among boys (CASSAD 2005) as well as girls (Njoku, 2007). Sometimes children at risk of dropping out would meet informally and discuss their frustration with schooling, and subsequently plan and drop out as a group, citing lack of interest as their main reason for not continuing to complete their education (Njoku 2001, NEDS, 2010).

Children with Special Needs and OVC: Special needs can refer to mental and physical disabilities, but also includes orphans and vulnerable children (OVC). However, based on the DHS data there is relatively little information available to assess the impact of special needs and OVC status on outcomes like school attendance. According to the 2008 NDHS, roughly 14 per cent of Nigerian families report having at least one child with special needs, or who is classified as OVC; of these families, most report only one or two children in this category. However, school attendance rates in these households with OVC children are not significantly different than in other households. Again, given the limitations in the NDHS data for assessing this topic, this kind of quantitative summary is clearly not sufficient, and more qualitative sources of information on how these children fare are likely to be more useful for assessing the impact of this issue in the country.

3.3. Economic Demand Side

Economic demand side barriers and bottlenecks are the factors contributing to the number of OOSC which have to do with socio-economic needs of the children and their families. These needs are rooted in the socio-economic status of people. This has far reaching implications on the demand for education of children in the family. Wealthy families can generally afford the education of their children, and prevent poverty inspired symptomatic activities and behaviour that impede children's access to education and retention in school till completion and graduation. But poor families cannot do likewise; their children are embattled by many economic related or poverty inspired constraints that often result in their failure to access basic education or dropping out from school after enrolment, without completion and graduation.

Poverty of the Family: Parental level of wealth or family's socio-economic status is a critical factor in demand for education, especially in countries such as Nigeria where though basic education is free, but sometimes encumbered by hidden costs. Children from poor families constitute most of the observed proportions of the un-enrolled and dropouts at all levels of basic education in Nigeria, (CASSAD, 2005, SITAN, 2007, Okeke, Nzewi & Njoku, 2008).

The South-South (58.0%) and South-East (51.2%) geopolitical zones led the other regions in the proportion of dropouts based on monetary cost of schooling. The North West (17.9%) and North East (30.9%) have the lowest proportion of primary school dropouts based on monetary cost (NEDS 2010). This may not be totally surprising because the northern geopolitical zones appear to make more effort to implement free basic education than the other zones.

It should be noted that the costs of education to parents are not just the fees; the costs include indirect costs and opportunity costs. According to UNICEF, WB, ADEA et al (2009), the cost of education is multidimensional and may include:

1. Direct fees, such as school fees paid directly to the school or school system [tuition, examination, activity – (clubs, sports, and science practicals), building or building maintenance fees, school development fees, boarding fees, PTA levies, etc.];
2. Private expenses such as books, stationery, uniforms, transport, snacks/meals; and
3. Opportunity costs such as loss of child labour at home, errand support, care of siblings. Others may include assistance to physically challenged parents or relations or family friends.

The 2010 NEDS statistics show that more than 75% of Nigerians who have never been in formal schooling are from the lowest three wealth quintile groups. Parental poverty impacts heavily on the academic performance of school children. When children from poor families enrol in school they often go to school without breakfast. A hungry child is malnourished, likely to be sickly, becomes a victim of poor intellectual development and experiences learning difficulties. Such a child performs poorly in school work and will very likely fail examinations and repeat classes. It has been shown that poor academic performance and repetition of classes are some of the strongest factors that predispose children to dropping out from school in Nigeria, (Strategic Partners and Centre for Youth Affairs and Development –SPCYAD-, 2002). When they fail examinations and repeat classes, they get frustrated and become uninterested in schooling.

Residence or Location: The study has revealed that location or residence is an important factor in the incidence of OOSC. Up to 36.7% of primary-aged children in rural areas are OOSC compared to 13.1% in urban areas. In the rural areas, 76.9% of OOSC primary-aged children belonged to 'Expected to never enter' category, compared to 60.8% in the urban areas. But a smaller proportion of OOSC in rural location (19.4%) belong to 'Expected to enter late at age 17' compared to 30.3% in urban location. On the other hand the urban location had a greater share of 'dropped out' category (9.0%) than rural location (4.5%). This implies that initial school enrolment is much more neglected in rural communities than in urban communities, and at the same time, fewer of the un-enrolled enter school later than in urban areas. The factors that cause late enrolment in urban areas may include higher levels of domestic work and street trading which engage urban based children. Working as children may also explain the higher proportion of urban based 'dropped out' category of OOSC. NEDS 2010 report indicated that monetary-cost related factors of dropping out of school accounts for 40.4% of urban-based dropouts, and 30.9% of rural-based dropouts.

Child Labour: Child labour (CL) is one of the manifestations of/response to symptoms of poverty. When children are made to work, they cannot be enrolled in school, and if they are enrolled anyway, they attend school very irregularly, and are at high risk of dropping out of school. Learner/student employment correlates strongly with dropping out of school (UNESCO, 1998). The more the number of hours the learner works, the higher his/her risk of dropping out of school, (Finn, 1993). Thus CL constitutes critical barriers promoting the rampant and unabated OOSC syndrome in Nigeria.

Out-of-School Children are involved in all manners of labour, ranging from the very tough ones in the cottage industries and plantations, to the ostensibly easy ones in the homes and streets, in both urban and rural communities. They are in the informal sector of the economy where the provisions of the Labour Act are neither monitored nor enforced. The children working as domestic labourers are most invisible and are hard to reach, a fact that hides them as OOSC.

Children are trafficked in their thousands from rural communities to urban areas or even to foreign lands for exploitation of their labour. Most of the domestic child labourers originate from the South-East, South-South and some from the South West, (Ezewu and Tahir, (E-1997), Falayajo et al (E-1997). Child labour and child trafficking disrupt school enrolment, school attendance, scholastic achievement, and exacerbates dropping out from school.

Street and park hawking is by far the largest single form of CL in Nigeria. It accounts for over 50% of total urban CL. Both boys and girls are involved as street workers mainly in the southern zones of Nigeria. But in the northern zones, girls dominate street hawking while the boys engage mainly as beggars and other categories of labour. (Falayajo et. al, 1997).

One major issue in child labour and its impact on children's access to basic education is the high demand for girl-child labour. Girl-children are perceived to be more obedient, hardworking, submissive and trustworthy than the boy-children. Consequently the demand for girl-child labour, especially as domestic labour is very high. This results in more girls being recruited as domestic labourers, sales persons, baby sitters or even as sex workers. This may partly explain the higher proportions of girls than boys among the OOSC in Nigeria.

Pursuit of material Wealth by Youth: Following the perceived low returns on education in terms of immediate employment or cash (CASSAD 2005), the costs of education in a depressed economy, and the changing societal values whereby much social recognition is accorded to people with financial wealth, young people no longer see real value in education. In the immediate term they want financial wealth which they perceive as a source of social recognition and upward social movement. The children thus decide early to pursue wealth without completing their basic education, (CASSAD 2005, Okeke et al 2008). Consequently, there is high dropout rate in states where formal education is not highly valued. This is the prevailing situation in the states in the south-eastern geopolitical zone and in some urban communities in the northern and western geopolitical zones of Nigeria, (CASSAD, 2005, Okeke et al 2008, Okeke, Oreh and Okwo, 1996).

The pursuit of financial wealth in preference to basic education is more prevalent among boys; girls are involved to a lesser extent. School dropouts in this category usually prefer apprenticeship education from where they would graduate after a short training and become ready for making money through different economic activities, (Oranu, 2004).

Limited employment opportunities for school leavers: Parents expect their children to secure some kind of white collar job after schooling at basic level. Frustration arising from lack of prospects for employment of their children tends to make parents consider formal education as a waste of time and financial resources, and therefore not useful, (Njoku, 2007, CASSAD 2005). The idea that many parents feel that education yields nothing to them and their family in the short term promotes negative attitudes to the education of their children generally, and exacerbates non-enrolment or withdrawal of children from school by parents. It appears that parents' myopic view of the values of education is indicative of ignorance.

Low Parental Literacy Status: Low parental literacy status is an important barrier to children's education. Due to ignorance and illiteracy, some parents do not place the education of their children in the appropriate place in their scale of priorities of responsibilities. That a child is not enrolled in school or is withdrawn from school before completion may not be due to poverty, but rather due to lack of parental understanding of the importance of education in human survival and success. Due to illiteracy, some parents, especially in the northern states of Nigeria, indicate little understanding of the need for the education of their children. This ignorance is compounded through religious indoctrination that creates suspicion of Western education, (CASSAD, 2005).

3.4. Supply Side Barriers

Supply side barriers and bottlenecks are the factors of OOSC arising from the supply side of education: lack of school facilities and infrastructure, shortage of teachers or poor quality of teachers and teaching etc are on the supply side of education. They can very severely influence children's access, retention, completion, and dropout rates from school, as well as other educational choices made by parents and guardians for their wards/children.

Inadequate Implementation of Pre-primary articulation Policy to public Primary Schools: Many public primary schools especially in rural communities are yet to implement the policy on articulation of pre-primary sections to themselves, (SITAN, 2010), thereby making pre-primary schools inaccessible to majority of under-5 children. This is because most of the schools have no accommodation and no teachers or caregivers for the ECCD classes that would be added. The non-comprehensive implementation of this policy would definitely undermine the objective of bringing ECCD close to the people, especially in rural communities of Nigeria. Thus pre-primary schools are still far from the pre-school children.

Shortage of Teachers and Caregivers at all levels of Basic Education Schools: There is acute shortage of trained caregivers and qualified teachers for the ECCD as well as the mainstream sections of primary schools in many states of Nigeria. Many primary schools in most states in Nigeria do not have enough teachers, and the categories that would take charge of ECCD classes are absolutely lacking (SAGEN 1 & 2, E-2005, and School Census E-2008). Only nine states out of 36 and FCT have pupil-teacher-ratio that is below 40. All other states have PTR of more than 40, and 11 states have more than 50 pupils to one teacher, (School Census, E-2008). The implication of this is that the teachers are likely to be overwhelmed by large number of pupils in each class; some of the classes invariably have no teachers. This is why multi-grade teaching is practiced in many schools, (SAGEN 1, E-2005).

The supply of teachers and caregivers from teacher education institutions in the country is low. Some 25.4% of primary school teachers nationwide are unqualified, (School Census E-2008). Many states have worse scenarios than the national average. The pupil-to-qualified teacher ratios (PQTR) for the various states are

very high. Only 15 states have PQTR of 100 or less, while 10 states have PQTR of between 101 and 200; the rest of the states have PQTR of above 200, with a ratio of 364 in Kebbi state being the highest. (School Census, E-2008). The implication of the above statistics is that many children go to school but find no teachers to teach them. The situation of lack of adequate number of teachers or unqualified teachers does not help children's real and meaningful access to basic education. This has the tendency to cause and increase school dropout rates. If there are pupils but no teachers to teach them, the children would invariably drop out of school. The situation of teacher scarcity is worse for junior secondary schools than primary schools nationwide, and many states are hard hit in this regard. The poor quality of teachers employed in schools, especially private schools can only deliver poor quality education. This has tended to erode parents' confidence in all the levels of basic education. The ripple effect is withdrawal of children from school or outright non-enrolment because parents believe that the children waste their time in the school. Such children that have dropped out from school sometimes find apprenticeship in some artisanal trade to pursue or while away their time, (CASSAD, 2005).

Safety/Security of the children: The safety and security of children is paramount to parents. Parents usually do not tolerate any uncertainties about the security of their children, and in most cases would not hesitate to withdraw their children from school due to real or imagined security threats, especially when the girl child is involved. The magnitude of the impact of parents' fear of insecurity on the rate of children's non-enrolment or dropping out from school is yet to be determined. But it can be said without fear of contradiction, that in most cases of parental fear about the safety and security of school children, parents prefer to keep their child at home and out of school and out of harm's way (Njoku, 2007).

Less than 10% of primary schools nationwide have perimeter walls, hedges and security gates (School census, E-2008). School gates and fence would normally protect the children from intruders, kidnappers, or certain accidents. Schools that are near major highways pose security threats to children due to motor accidents that may cost the lives of children while in school.

When the school is far from the home of the child as often is the case in rural areas of Nigeria, parents are usually apprehensive of what may happen during the long trek between the school and the home. When schools are in areas noted for heavy traffic, kidnapping, robbery and rioting, many parents keep their children at home or make them attend school irregularly based on their perception of security situation, (UNICEF A' Field, E-2009). The current sporadic cases of bombings, especially in northern Nigeria, claimed by a sectarian group that is anti-Western education are bound to act as a serious barrier to children's participation in formal schooling. NDES (2008) data indicate that 11.1% of rural population as against 4.2% of urban population consider children's safety as a big problem. In terms of geopolitical zones, North East 17.6%, North West 16.8% and North Central 9.4% consider children's safety at school as big problem. Only 1.3% of South West, 3.4% of South- South and 5.2% of South East consider children's security as a big problem in their schools. Thus more parents and guardians in the northern geopolitical zones perceive children's security at school as a big problem than those in southern geopolitical zones. This is bound to affect children's enrolment in schools.

Sexual Harassment: Sexual harassment is one of the security concerns of parents about their daughters who are in school. Parents seriously frown at sexual harassment of school girls, and they do not hesitate to withdraw their daughters from school if such harassment happens in the school. Fear of sexual molestation of young girls in school by male teachers or school mates forces some parents to withdraw their daughters from school, (Njoku, 2007, Ohia, 2009, 2011). Although sexual harassment is a serious misconduct in the school, it appears the school regulations do not have stiff penalties against perpetrators. Sexual harassment should not be a reason for withdrawing the girl-child from school, thereby making her lose the right to education and development. It is rather appropriate for parents to insist that perpetrators of sexual harassment of school girls should be disciplined severely. Therefore school regulations on sexual harassment have to be strengthened and enforced fully.

Perceived Irrelevance of School Curriculum: Many parents and their children are dissatisfied and have very negative perception of what the school has to offer the children in terms of knowledge and requisite skills for survival, (Okeke et al, 2008, CASSAD 2005). This perception is very prevalent in the south east and northern geopolitical zones of the country. Children and their parents especially from the lower wealth quintile appear to prefer technical education which would give them practical or technical skills which they would deploy for self-employment immediately on graduation (Njoku, 2002). Majority of basic education schools nationwide have very academic curriculum. The technology components of the primary and junior secondary school curricula are not properly implemented as designed due to teacher incompetence, and children graduate without reasonable practical/technical skills which are employable for pecuniary purposes. In primary schools teachers hardly implement the handicraft curriculum which is designed to enable learners acquire useful technical skill for survival (Njoku 2002). This is why many children in the south east dropped out of formal

schooling in order to join apprenticeship to learn some artisanal trades, (Okeke et al 2008, Oranu, 2004, CASSAD 2005).

Incessant and prolonged teachers' strike actions and low teacher Commitment: Nigeria witnesses several occasions of protracted industrial strike action of teachers on yearly basis. Basic education teachers in public schools in various states of Nigeria are often on industrial action over their conditions of service. Sometimes the strikes are allowed to last very long – as long as 18 months strike actions have taken place in Anambra and Imo States. During such strike actions, the pupils are forced to remain at their homes pending the time the teachers are back to work. During such prolonged periods of absence from school, some of the school children, especially those in upper primary and junior secondary levels, get involved in some economic activities that initiate the process of their dropping out from school, (Okeke, Ore and Okwo, 1996, CASSAD, 2005). The commitment of teachers to their jobs is often inadequate due to their perception that their emoluments are not commensurate to the amount of work they have to do as teachers. Many teachers are known to be part-time traders or involved in some business activities “to make ends meet”, (Njoku 2007). Such distracted teachers would not be able to implement the curriculum effectively. This invariably negatively affects children's learning outcomes and may drop out if their confidence in the school is severely eroded.

Low Status of the Teacher: The Nigerian teacher is generally poorly remunerated, and the payments of their emoluments are irregular and fairly unpredictable, (Nworgu, 2011). The teachers are perceived to be poor by the society, including the learners. In a society that is materialistic like Nigeria, the poor teacher is generally disregarded and he/she is of low esteem. The lowly image of the teacher negatively affects the interest of the learners in education generally. The image of the poor teacher does not represent the opulence the children aspire to live in. The children, especially in the south east geopolitical zone have many examples of uneducated people who are very rich in material possession, and they easily lose interest in basic formal education, dropping out to pursue material wealth through apprenticeship scheme.

School Health Facilities and Learner Sickness: Children's sickness is one of the critical factors of out-of-school status of sizable proportion of children. Okeke et al (2008) showed that sickness accounts for about 8% of non-enrolment, about 30 % of irregular attendance to school and 10% of dropping out from school in basic education in states of UNICEF's A Field zone. NEDS (2010) data indicate that 35.4% and 36.8% of male and female pupils respectively miss school due to illness. 40% of rural and 34.6% of urban based school children miss school due to illness. Children's illness often originates from malaria, malnourishment, unhygienic environment, consumption of unhygienic food/water and environmental airborne infections.

Most of Nigeria's primary schools do not have any health facility for the children. Extracts from 2006 school census statistics revealed that the proportions of schools with such health facilities as:

- *Health clinics, range from 4.65% in Taraba State to 13.24% in Adamawa State;*
- *First Aid Boxes, range from 5.27% in Taraba State to 41.55% in Federal Capital Territory, Abuja;*
- *Full Time Health Worker, range from 0% in Jigawa State to 4.55% in Ogun State;*
- *Information on HIV/AIDS, range from 0% in Jigawa State to 74.69% in Enugu State.*

The near complete absence of health facilities in basic education schools constitute a major barrier to children's regular school attendance and completion of basic education cycles.

The HIV/AIDS pandemic is another critical barrier to children's access and participation in basic education. Njoku (2003) showed that many children are withdrawn from school because their parents died of HIV/AIDS, rendering them orphans, and therefore very vulnerable. Also many children who look after their parents or siblings who are ill with HIV/AIDS, or who are stigmatized because their parents died of HIV/AIDS do not attend school regularly. Such children (the OVCs) are at very high risk of dropping out from school. The NEDS (2010) survey indicates that 7.7% of male respondents and 6.9% of female respondents agreed that children in the community fail to attend school regularly due to HIV/AIDS pandemic.

Learner Unfriendly School Environment: Learner friendliness is still at low ebb in basic education schools in Nigeria are learner unfriendly. Sanitation is generally poor, separate toilet facilities for male and female pupils have not been established in most school (SAGEN 1, E-2005). Portable water points are virtually absent in schools. School census data of 2008 reveals that majority of schools in most of the states lack safe water points. Many schools still lack adequate number of classroom space and overcrowding is a major problem, appropriate furniture for the learners is inadequate with the result that significant number of children have to bring their own chairs to school or sit on the bare floor, adequate teaching and learning resources, (SITAN, 2007, 2010, SAGEN 1 E-2005). Textbooks to pupil ratio in pre-primary and primary levels of basic education in the states of the Federation, range from 0.02 to 0.07 (or 2 book to 100 pupils to 7 books to 100 pupils), and 0.03 to 0.38 (or 3 books to 100 pupils to 38 books to 100 pupils) respectively, (school census E-2008). Lack of

teaching/learning resources inhibits effective learning, academic achievement, creates high failure rate, high repetition rate and high dropout rate. Lack of teaching /learning resources is a major barrier to retention and completion rate in basic education.

Lack of Provision for the children with disabilities: There is hardly any provision for the physically challenged learners. The teachers are not trained to understand and recognize the special need of the challenged children in normal classrooms in Nigeria. In term of infrastructural facilities, the challenged learners in normal classrooms are not provided for. The classrooms are for instance not built to admit wheel chairs. There are no instruments for testing sight, or hearing effectiveness in the schools, and nobody seem to care or put them into consideration. They are thus marginalized in many significant ways. (American Institutes for Research, E-2008). They are at risk of dropping out of school.

Poor and inadequate Infrastructural Facilities: The infrastructural facilities in basic education schools are far from adequate. The Pupil to Classroom Ratio (PCR) is very high in the states (School Census, E-2008). The PCR varies from one classroom to 110.6 pupils in Delta State, to one classroom to 317.9 pupils in Bauchi State. Nine states have PCR below 200 pupils to one classroom. Other states have ratios that are much higher, reaching as high as 317.9 in Bauchi State. The above statistics indicate that at basic education level, Nigerian classrooms are highly overcrowded. In the circumstance, the teacher cannot be effective or efficient in curriculum delivery. Only little learning may take place, and the quality of education offered by the school would be low.

There is also lack of such basic facilities in schools, as toilets for the students. Evaluation of child friendly schools in Nigeria revealed that these schools have inadequate toilet facilities, including separate toilets for girls. The lack of separate toilets for females in basic education schools often puts the girls at risk of dropping out of schools.

Weak or Non-existent Social Protection for Vulnerable Children: Vulnerability in children is not simply an issue of financial/material poverty; the condition also embraces a wide variety of other social and environmental factors. There is the need for systematically implemented government policies on social and educational security - children who lose their parents, who are victims of parental quarrels or broken homes or family instability, who are victims of domestic violence, societal conflict, social exclusion etc. For instance, albinos and children with hunchback are severely discriminated against in normal schools by their school mates, and there is no programme in place to ensure that such children are retained in school and enabled to complete their education. Thus, weak provision or total absence of social protection policy is a critical barrier to the education of vulnerable children.

3.5. Political, Governance, Capacity, Financing

Politics is a critical factor in the supply of and demand for education in any country. What the political leaders of a country regard as important educational problem is seen and treated as such. Thus, government priority in the areas of education is critical to what educational practitioners get engaged to implement. Whatever aspect of education the government decides to fund, that aspect becomes the priority for the society, even if there are other areas that urgently need to be addressed.

The capacity of government to implement educational policies may be limited due to inadequate resources available for all the projects and programmes which government has to carry out for the people. Therefore, the policy decisions of government and their implementation can contribute towards getting every eligible child into school or forcing them out of school, to become out-of-school children. In what areas can politics, governance, capacity and financing constitute barriers and bottlenecks toward the attainment of universal basic education?

Low Level of Political Will: The UBE Act of 2004 is not being properly implemented in Nigeria. The compulsory component of the UBE law is not enforced due to lack of political will to do so on the part of government. If the three tiers of government in Nigeria decide to implement UBE based on its acclaimed compulsory nature, there would not be out-of-school children. It means that once a child is of school age, that child must be in school by law, irrespective of other considerations, otherwise the laws of the land are being violated. In the same vein, state and local governments in Nigeria are not implementing the policy that every public primary school should articulate to itself a pre-primary section. The policy has been enacted but its implementation to achieve the vision of the policy makers is weak. Consequently an overwhelming proportion of Nigerian children have no access to ECCDs and primary education.

Politicization of Basic Education: Politics is generally believed to be a very important consideration in appoints to posts of responsibility in the education sector, right from federal through the states, to local government levels. This has a negative effect on executive capacity. A systematic process of professionalization would enrich policy articulation and implementation.

Weak School Level Management: Many schools in some states of the federation are yet to form effective and functional School Based Management Committees (SBMCs) for their schools. Consequently the host communities of the schools, who are major stakeholders, have little or no influence in the way their schools are managed, and they also contribute little or nothing to the development of the schools. Such communities watch their children's school buildings collapse and the whole premises overgrown with weeds. The schools become child unfriendly, leading to children refusing to attend school or dropping out from school, (SITAN, E-2010).

Inadequate supply of relevant books in Basic education schools: Many of the state are not supplying basic books to their schools. Without the appropriate books, learning outcomes would likely be compromised in schools, leading to repetition and dropping out from school. School Census (E-2008) shows that most of the states have high Pupil to Core Textbook ratios. The ratios of Pupil to Core Textbooks (PCTBR) range from 2.04 pupils to one book in Zamfara State to 29.4 pupils to one core textbook in Delta State. Other states have PCTBR between the ranges. The truth is that core textbooks that are so essential to the attainment of the objectives of UBE are grossly inadequate.

Poor Teacher Capacity Development Programmes: In Nigeria, there is no consistent teacher capacity development programme which ensures that the teachers in basic education are continuously retrained on pedagogic skills and content knowledge for effective curriculum delivery. The current retraining programme being organised by the National Teachers Institute (NTI) is funded by the MDGs Office in the Presidency. It appears to be quite ad hoc because it is not institutionalized. For instance, if MDG Office stops funding the whole programme may fizzle out. An institutionalized teacher capacity development would be such that any teacher that is employed should know by regulation when she/he should go for capacity building and refresher programme. In this way teacher effectiveness would be assured and poor curriculum delivery would cease to be a serious barrier to children's access, retention and completion of their basic education.

Poor Financing of Education: Nigeria's basic education is poorly funded by the various tiers of government. Key informants from the Ministry of Education and its parastatals are of the view that basic education is well funded but that most of the budget is spent on overheads. Consequently, funds hardly get to the school level, and the impacts are not felt. Pro-poor expenditure on social sectors is not general practice. Not only has social expenditure, including expenditure on Education, declined between 2005 and 2010, but expenditure is also far below the requirements of the sector.

Table 3.1: Nigeria's Education Spending 2005 – 2010

Year	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Education Budget (%GDP)	3.3%	3.5%	3.6%	3.6%	3.6%	3.2%
Education Expenditure (%) expenditure of all budget	11.4%	13.1%	12.0%	12.3%	11.8%	9.5%

Source: Government spending data, 2005-2011

For the six years under consideration Nigeria's budget for Education was consistently well below 4% of her GDP.

3.6. Analytical Summary

Nigeria's basic education is beset with numerous bottlenecks and barriers that keep eligible children out of school. The OOSC constitute a significantly large proportion of the school-age population. The ways several clusters of barriers and bottlenecks have operated to impede children's educational access, retention and completion have been described for purposes of illumination. The ramifications of these barriers and bottlenecks have shown that each of them can be solved if the governments responsible for UBE are able to mobilise both human and financial resources, which should effectively be deployed to tackle and eliminate the barriers and bottlenecks. The demand side barriers and bottlenecks depend substantially on the supply side barriers and bottlenecks. For instance, if the schools have effective and well-motivated teachers, are

child friendly, have sufficient teaching and learning resources, and are effectively managed, children are likely to be attracted to enrol. They would most likely enjoy their schooling and would most likely be retained in school and successfully complete the basic education cycle. It is therefore advisable that the supply side barriers and bottlenecks should be tackled head-on so that the demand side barriers and bottlenecks are equally eliminated at the same time. Tackling the two clusters of barriers and bottlenecks simultaneously is the viable option.

4 Strategic Interventions

4.1. Introduction

Nigeria has been taking a good number of steps to address the formidable challenges that keep substantial proportions of her children out of school. These initiatives have targeted OOSC issues related to socio-cultural demand side, economic demand side, supply side, management and governance and, budgeting and finance.

4.2. Socio-Cultural Demand Side

Socio-cultural demand side policies and strategies are policies and operational strategies aiming to overcome the challenges posed to children's enrolment and completion of basic education by socio-cultural barriers and bottlenecks. In Chapter Two, a number of barriers and bottlenecks in this category were identified and discussed. In this section, policies and strategies aiming to remove the barriers are examined with a view to replicating best practices in the effort to improve children's enrolment, retention and completion of basic education in Nigeria. Some of these policies and strategies include:

Ban on the withdrawal of girls from school for marriage: Some states in the northern geopolitical zones of Nigeria, with wide gender gaps in access to basic education, have legislated against withdrawal of school girls for early marriage purposes. Interviews on the status of GEP project revealed that parents who contravene the laws banning the withdrawal of girls from school are prosecuted, the marriage is nullified and the girls returned to complete their schooling. The four Girls' Education Project II (GEP II) states are implementing this legislation. The interview also revealed that several other states have adopted the model and joined in the implementation of the legislation as part of the fruits of the dissemination of best practices. Parents are beginning to understand that it is illegal to withdraw under-aged girls from school to give them out in marriage.

Intensive Advocacy to, Sensitization and Mobilization of Religious and Traditional Leaders: Most of the socio-cultural attitudes which constitute formidable barriers and bottlenecks to children's education (school enrolment and retention), are rooted in the traditional culture and religious beliefs of the people. The custodians of these cultural and religious attitudes are the leaders of the people who decide on what is right or wrong in their communities. Intensive, evidence-based and high level advocacy, sensitization and mobilization of these leaders have resulted in changes in these negative attitudes and behaviour, leading to more positive attitudes to western education, increased school enrolment and completion rates, and reduced dropout rate. This strategy has been adopted by operators of GEP to change attitudes to girl-child education and training. This is a major achievement of the GEP I & II projects which are being implemented in the states with very large gender gaps in enrolment in basic education, (GEP II Evaluation Report, 2010).

Establishment and growth of Female Teachers Trainee Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS) in Rural Communities: Rural communities in many states in the northern geopolitical zones indicated the largest gender disparity in favour of the males in school enrolment, retention and completion rates. Interviews of key operators in GEP II project revealed that FTTSS is a strategy whereby girls in the rural communities would be given scholarship to train as teachers and be bonded to teach at least for three years in their rural communities before they can leave. In this way, they would serve as role models to other females in their communities who would understand that education and training would enhance their conditions in life as well as their life chances. This strategy has worked very effectively in improving females' school enrolment and retention in GEP pilot states. With female teachers in charge, parents are less worried about security of their daughters in school, while the girls aspire to be like their teachers, fellow female from the same community. The success of FTTSS in bringing and retaining the girls in school has led to rapid adoption and spreading of the strategy in most northern states of Nigeria (GEP II Evaluation Report, 2010).

The FTTSS strategy which has proved to be very effective in bringing girls to school and in retaining them, due to the presence of female teachers acting as role models can be replicated if the South East zone trains and brings to school male teachers who would act as role models to boys. This is necessary since one of the reasons why boys drop out from school is that the school is dominated by girls and female teachers. The minority position of the boy-child in South East basic education schools tends to make them think that schooling is for girls while business and acquisition of material wealth is for real men, (Nworgu, 2011).

Integration of Formal School Curriculum into Quranic Education: Much success has been recorded with the on-going integration of formal school curriculum into Quranic education in states of the northern geopolitical

zones of Nigeria. Although the Mallams who controlled Quranic education initially resisted the integration of formal school subjects into their schools, they have understood that Western education is not in competition with Islamic education as the two offer different and useful knowledge and skills. Many Mallams have been trained in formal school subjects and they teach in their Quranic schools, not just the Quran but also school formal subjects. The breakthrough in this regard is that the graduates from the Quranic schools now have knowledge and skills in Mathematics, English language, basic Science, Social Study and Life Skills, in addition to ability to recite the Quran. The Mallams are made to earn salary like other teachers, and there is no need to send the children into the streets to beg for alms for the sustenance of the Mallams. The on-going integration has therefore the potential of eliminating or considerably reducing dropping out from school, and the dehumanizing street begging. It is hoped that the pool supplying the Almajiri in Nigeria would dry up and the menace of Almajiri would stop. Already the number of Integrated Quranic Education (IQE) centres in northern Nigeria and the enrolment of children have increased considerably as shown in the Table below:

Table 4.1: Number of IQE Centres under SUBEBs, Enrolment and Number of Teachers in UNICEF CFO States: 2008/2009

S/N	State	No of IQE Centres	Enrolment			No of Teachers		
1	Kaduna	5108	152,991	43,256	196,247	7586	-	7586
2	Katsina	8708	404,550	117,056	521,606	13,073	-	13,073
3	Kebbi	76	27,417	6,943	34,360	158	5	163
4	Kogi	24	3478	3013	6491	179	191	362
5	Kwara		98,348	92,619	190,967	8,596	11,323	19,919
6	Niger	10	1604	962	2566	35	4	39
7	Sokoto	76	11,843	12,276	24,119	302	9	311
8	Zamfara	12	3754	423	4177	32	-	32
9	FCT	2	140	60	200	2	2	4
	TOTAL	14,014	704,125	276,608	980,733	29,963	11,534	41,497

Source: SUBEBs

Education and Security of children Accused of Witchcraft: In various parts of Nigeria, many children are often accused of being witches or practicing witchcraft on people. Such children are often thrown out of their homes and from the school. The Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development, (FMWA&SD) which has the mandate to deal with issues on social protection, has taken up this challenge by establishing homes in different parts of Nigeria for these children accused of witchcraft. The children attend school from these homes before they are returned to their communities after some time.

4.3. Economic Demand Side

Economic demand side interventions are aimed at eliminating the factors of OOSC contributed by socio-economic conditions of school aged children and their families. The policies and strategies in this respect are intended to reduce the costs of education and their impact on the child and her/his family. They are pro-poor policies and strategies implemented by government or non-governmental organisations to insulate the poor from the impact of the costs of education, and thereby enable children from poor households to enroll and benefit from basic education. Such policies or strategies that enable the poor to access their right to education eventually eliminate the conditions that put the children at risk of getting into child labour or being trafficked as domestic labour or for outright exploitation. This section identifies such policies and strategies, their functioning and influences to reduce the population of OOSC in Nigeria.

Free and Compulsory Basic Education in Nigeria: The Federal Government of Nigeria launched the Universal Basic Education (UBE) in September, 1999. In 2004, the Act making UBE free and compulsory was signed into law. With the introduction of UBE and the establishment of implementation framework and machinery, there has been a significant surge in school enrolment at basic education level. In 2007 UBE was extended to formally include Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCD), and Non-Formal Education (NFE). In 2007, a stand – alone policy on ECCD, intended to integrate sectoral inputs, was approved. With fast approaching deadlines for the achievement of EFA and MDGs, governments in Nigeria have been making spirited efforts to

effectively implement UBE. Two per cent of federal revenue has been set aside to support states in the effective implementation of UBE. Basic education is on the Concurrent Legislative List, and its implementation resides with the state and local governments, while the federal government only provides policy directions and plays a supporting role.

However, the “free and compulsory policy” in the UBE Act has not been effectively implemented in many states of Nigeria. Some states still collect charges from learners in basic education schools under different pseudo names. In such states school enrolment and completion rates are still dampened by high costs of education.

It is apparent that states in the northern zones of Nigeria have done comparatively better than states in the southern zones in terms of effectively implementing “free and compulsory” UBE. The South-East and South-South zones appear to be the poorest in the effective implementation of the free and compulsory UBE.

Establishment and Funding of Girls’ Education Project (GEP) (2005-2007) & (2008-2011): GEP is a pilot project that was informed by the gender policy of the government. It is a two-phase project (GEP I & GEP II) piloted in some states with large gender gaps in favour of males in basic education. It was funded by DFID and implemented by FME with UNICEF technical support. The pilot project proved to be very effective in improving girls’ enrolment, attendance and completion of basic education. The GEP project initiated a number of effective strategies for enhancing girls’ education. Many states in the north that were not among of the GEP pilot states have adopted the GEP principles, like the Female Teachers Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS), SBMCs in all schools, Whole School Development Planning (WSDP) etc., and are implementing them effectively. For instance, 21 states have adopted the FTTSS and the enrolment of girls in rural communities is improving rapidly and steadily. There is already a gender policy in basic education.

Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT): This is a strategy whereby some money is granted to indigent families/households on the condition that their children are enrolled and retained in school. The cash transfer is meant to take care of the opportunity costs of allowing the children go to school. The CCT strategy is being implemented by MDG/NAPEP office, 113 LGAs out of 774 LGAs nationwide, and the committee on GEP. UNICEF is supporting CCT through helping to put in place effective mechanism for its implementation in two pilot states. Interview of individuals from NAPEP reveals that over 1,000 households have benefited from CCT in each state of the federation. Thus this strategy has proved to be effective but it needs close monitoring and enforcement of the conditions for sustainability and for its full benefits to be realised.

4.4. Supply Side Interventions

The supply side interventions are intended to improve the conditions that support children in school while reducing or eliminating the risk factors of their dropping out of school. These supportive conditions can be made available through government policies and programmes, actions of communities, NGOs or even individuals. This section identifies what policies and strategies that are in place and functional to reduce children’s risk of becoming out of school children. Some these are discussed below.

Capacity Building of Teachers: Since 2006, the National Teachers Institute (NTI) has been conducting annual primary school teachers’ capacity strengthening in the core subjects of the primary education curriculum. The NTI is being funded by Millennium Development Goals funds and the Debt Relief Gain fund. An in-depth interview of the Officer-in-Charge of MDG teacher capacity building revealed that since 2006 when the teacher capacity building programme started, 549,180 basic education teachers have had their pedagogic skills and subject matter content knowledge improved through refresher programmes. The programme is continuing and would soon be scaled up to include teachers of junior secondary schools nationwide. This programme is intended to improve teachers’ effectiveness in curriculum delivery, thereby reducing children academic failure, class repetition and risk of dropping out of school. The NTI-MDGs teacher capacity building programme is intended to improve curriculum delivery in the classroom. It is criticised as being over-centralised and costly. Post-workshop interviews of some participating teachers indicate that the teachers are happy with the programme which they praise as a welcome development in their carrier. Also, a strategic capacity development plan for ECCD teachers and caregivers has been drawn up by NTI, and implementation is expected soon.

In a similar vein, the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) is implementing a programme on basic education teacher capacity building for primary and junior secondary school teachers. This national programme involved credible teacher education institutions as the primary consultants in the various zones of the nation. Also state Ministries of Education have currently stepped up teachers’ capacity building at various levels of basic education. State Education Resource Centres (ERCs) have been very useful in this regard and

could be effective in coordinating grassroots teacher capacity development. For greater impact and conservation of resources, the various teacher capacity development activities need to be coordinated and streamline to avoid repetition of content on the same clients or recycling the same beneficiaries while others are yet to be supported.

There is huge duplication of activities in the area of teacher capacity building. There is no systematized and institutionalized teacher capacity development such that when a teacher graduates from training, she/he should know when she/he is due for capacity development and should seamlessly be granted leave to go for the programme. The NTI which has the mandate for teacher capacity building does not seem to have any programme for this purpose. The NTI which is not a college of education is awarding diplomas and certificates through its distance learning programmes, which appears to be outside its mandate. Many states refuse to employ products of NTI Distance Learning Study (DLS) programme as unqualified and ineffective as basic education teachers.

Capacity Building for NFE Instructors: National Mass Education Commission (NMEC) is conducting capacity building for NFE instructors to improve on their skills in andragogy and management of learners. State Agency for Mass Education (SAME) is also involved in the capacity building of NFE instructors in some states.

UBEC Intervention in Teacher Recruitment: Many states have inadequate number of teachers for effective implementation of basic education. UBEC has intervened in basic education teacher supply through the Federal Teachers Scheme (FTS) which is intended to assist states in recruiting NCE teachers for basic education. States identify the NCE holders in their areas and UBEC would recruit them to teach in rural schools after building up their capacity in workshops. UBEC sponsors the teachers on FTS for two years after which the states are expected to absorb them into their regular teaching staff on regular salary. Unfortunately, some states have not been absorbing the teachers who served with them. Such unfortunate FTS teachers are demobilised at the end of their two year temporary employment with UBEC, while the states where they worked would wait for a new batch of FTS teachers from UBEC to teach in their schools.

Increased In-take of Students by Colleges of Education: Colleges of Education have been mandated to increase their yearly turnout of teachers and they are committed towards achieving the mandate. The colleges are to rapidly increase teacher turn out especially for pre-primary and vocational education. They have subsequently adjusted their curriculum at the instance of the coordinating National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), to enable teachers- in-training specialise in areas based on the level of basic education of interest to them. For instance teachers and caregivers for pre-primary and primary levels are trained as subject generalists, to reflect the curriculum they are expected to implement. Teachers for junior secondary level as trained to be subject specialists to reflect the curriculum they would implement in their schools of deployment. Teacher education curriculum is closely aligned to the curriculum of the level of basic education in which the teachers would be employed after training. The whole arrangement is meant to improve the quality and capability of the teachers in curriculum delivery. Thus, the NCCE and the COEs it oversees are about to be restructured to offer five levels of teacher education for pre-primary, primary, junior secondary, NFE, and Special Education..

i: Several states are retraining their education inspectors and supervisors for more effectiveness on their jobs. The National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) has been engaged by several states to train the Head Teachers, Junior Secondary School Principals, inspectors and supervisors of schools. The Federal Inspectorate Service (FIS) of the FME appears to be bogged down by a weak structure that has rendered it ineffective in discharging its mandate. The FIS is being restructured into an independent Quality Assurance Commission.

There are some developments in inspectorate practice which are making a positive impact. The integration of global best practices, such as Whole School Evaluation (WSE) into inspectorate activities in a number of states, with the support of UNICEF/DFID, through the Girls' Education Project (GEP), is a good example

Application of the Principles of Child Friendly School (CFS): The CFS was initiated by UNICEF in pilot schools across the nation. The principle is Child Rights-based and includes making the school and classroom environment safe, attractive to children, and conducive for inclusive teaching and learning. The idea is that child friendly schools breed school loving children. After the introduction of CFS in pilot schools across the nation many schools adopted the principles and practised them, and improved their school environment. Facilities like water, children's sitting arrangement, sanitation and health facilities etc. were introduced into schools. Ebonyi state is one of the states where the CFS principle assumed the status of policy because the host communities got involved in its application and implementation. All the GEP states applied the CFS principle and it is helping to increase school enrolment, retention and completion.

CFS principles are being mainstreamed into state education sector plans. Already 18 states which were technically supported by UNICEF, have developed child friendly, equity focussed, and Rights- based Education Sector plans, which are being implemented. Eleven other states are in the process of developing their own Education Sector plans.

Introduction of more Relevant School Curricula: The Nigeria Educational Research and Development Council (NERDC) has revised the Basic Education curriculum to make it more relevant to the needs and aspirations of the learners in their communities. While curricular contents that are considered not so critical have been deleted to reduce overload, very important emerging issues such as Family and HIV/AIDS education, Environmental concerns, Conflict Resolution etc have been fused across the various school subjects. The curricula now tends to emphasize vocational education which would enable learners acquire some functional skills that are useable for providing service and earning a living. This tends to accommodate the desires of pupils who would have been at risk of dropping out in quest of apprenticeship training. Teachers' Guides have also been prepared to enable the Basic Education teachers implement the curricula effectively. Also, curricula for NFE and pre-primary education have been revised and ready for states and Local Education Authorities to purchase and give their schools/teachers.

Social Protection of Children: The Federal Government of Nigeria has taken some actions to manage child labour. The National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons (NAPTIP) and Related Matters law of Nigeria bans the employment of children below the age of 18 years. Desirable as the law is, its implementation is weak since ordinary observation indicates that child labour is pervasive in Nigeria. However, NAPTIP has made many arrests and charged offenders to court. On the other hand, the National Policy on Child Labour which is expected to tackle the problem of child labour from years earlier than 18 has not been produced and the envisaged policy level sensitization, awareness-creation, mobilization and advocacy for confronting Child Labour (CL) has not been attained, while the relevant sections of the laws prohibiting trading by children under 14 are not being implemented.

The "Hawking by Children Edict Cap.58 Law of Nigeria" which prohibits hawking, display of goods for sale, or roaming about in the street, market or any open public place in the states is another law on child protection that is not being implemented. It is sad to note that these efforts have made marginal or no impact on improving child welfare or specifically reducing incidence of child labour and street children. This is largely because these measures have been uncoordinated, not well implemented and largely un-enforced (UNICEF, 2006). If these laws were enforced or implemented, child labour and exploitation would be minimized while children's school enrolment, retention and completion would improve in Nigeria.

However, the Lagos state government is promulgating laws to control child labour so as to free the children to participate in state guaranteed schooling and development. The Lagos State government has a law banning street hawking in the state, and the law is being implemented vigorously. Some communities in Ebonyi State have their own regulations against child trafficking. These communities formed Mothers' Unions which have regulations that no child of their community must be taken out of their community to a foster home anywhere else, and if a child must be taken out, it must be to a relation's home and there must be proof that the child is currently enrolled in school wherever she/he may be. Mothers who contravene this regulation are severely sanctioned, stigmatized and ostracized in their communities. The regulations by the powerful Mothers' Unions have effectively stemmed child trafficking in Ebonyi State which used to be the source of domestic child workers (DCW) for most middle and upper class families in major cities in Nigeria.

The Federal Ministry of Women Affairs has established drop-in homes for children who are accused of witchcraft. They attend school from these drop-in homes, before being returned to their communities after discussions. Additionally, this ministry has different programmes and divisions for rescuing and restoring trafficked children. The ministry has drop-in centres in the six geopolitical zones of Nigeria, as well as homes for trafficked children.

Policy on Articulation of Pre-primary School to Every Public Primary School in Nigeria: This policy is intended to eliminate the cost of pre-primary education, and bring pre-primary school facility as close to the people as possible, thereby tremendously increasing access and enrolment. Most states have been implementing this policy, but many schools do not have classroom space for the pre-primary section when articulated. More disturbing is the dearth of caregivers and teachers who would take up the duty positions in the pre-primary sections of the primary schools. Since the articulation policy went into operation in 2007, the enrolment in pre-primary education has soared.

4.5. Management and Governance

Management and governance are factors that do impact on the enrolment, retention, achievement and completion rates of children in basic education. There are usually policies or administrative decisions and actions which can enhance the attainment of the objectives of basic education through improvement in school enrolment and reduction of school dropout rates. This section presents some of the management and governance policies and strategies in place that have helped to improve school enrolment and reduce school dropout rates at basic education level in Nigeria.

Integration of Pre-primary section to every public primary School: The 2007 policy on articulation of pre-primary to every public primary school in the country is in line with streamlining all segments of basic education for effective administration, funding and monitoring and evaluation. The articulation policy is on-going. However, the paucity of pre-primary teachers and care givers, as well as classroom space, is a challenge that needs to be resolved.

Disarticulation of Junior Secondary from Senior Secondary School: In order to properly streamline basic education, in 2006, the government issued a policy that junior secondary school section be disarticulated from senior secondary schools. The implication is that all the components of basic education (Pre-primary, Primary, Junior Secondary and Adult and Non-Formal) are identifiable within the lower levels of education for administrative and funding purposes. Most states have completed the implementation of this disarticulation policy. However one matter arising is that there is squabbling in some states and schools over sharing of assets and facilities between the junior secondary and senior secondary schools that used to be one school. Some of these assets are school laboratories and workshops, sports facilities, agricultural land, classrooms etc.

State Education Sector Plan and Operational Plan (SESP-SESOP): UNICEF has between 2008 and 2012 supported 31 States in developing state education sector plans and operational plans (SESP – SESOP). The process is participatory and the product is Rights-based, child friendly focused, and systematic. Implementation of the plans would lead to effective deployment and management of available resources for the development of education in the states. A good number of states are already using the plans to inform education project and programme selection, budget and budget implementation. The GEP states have been in the forefront of using their SESP-SESOP. In these states, education projects and programmes are no longer based on expert opinion but on concrete evidence-based priorities which would yield the objectives envisioned in the plan.. One of the priorities of the education sector plans is to improve access, inclusiveness, , attendance, achievement, retention and completion rates in basic education. Thus the education sector plans are effectively aimed at reducing or eliminating the incidence of OOSC in the states.

Establishment of School Based Management Committees: There is extant policy directing all basic education schools to establish School Based Management Committees (SBMCs). The SBMCs serve to take ownership of their school, mobilize the community in the interest of the school and fight the various factors hindering children's access, retention, and completion of basic education in their community. They are composed of male and female members of the school's host community, who shall participate in the planning and execution of the programmes of their school. They are expected to plan for their school, and select project priorities based on the needs of their school.

The SBMCs have introduced Whole School Development Planning (WSDP) in the GEP states.. In the GEP states, SBMCs members were trained on their mandates, and empowered adequately to execute their mandates. They have ensured the planning of school projects, effective and prudent management of school resources, accountability in financial management, and conflict resolution in their schools. In 2008, NIEPA coordinated the development of a participatory SBMC training manual which was applied in the training of SBMCs in GEP states. The DFID has also developed an SBMC training manual which derives from the peculiar needs of its various interventions under EPSSIN. In general, DFID interventions in basic education are to improve governance and service delivery through strengthening effectiveness of utilization of resources in basic education.

Establishment of NFE Centres: The spate of male dropout from formal education in the South East is being tackled through the establishment of many NFE centres within accessible places like Mechanics' villages, markets and large workshops. The NFE teaching timetable is made flexible enough to enable the learners attend to their businesses and have opportunity for the programmes of the centres.

NFE as a "second chance" opportunity for dropouts or the un-enrolled to access basic education is facing some challenges in many states of the Federation. Interviews of officials of some State Agencies for Mass

Education, (SAME) and National Mass Education Commission (NMEC) revealed that many states and LGEAs are not funding the NFE programme. The instructors are often not paid their stipends and they abandon the NFE centres, with the result that the learners disperse in frustration. Consequently some of the NFE centres had to close down.

4.6. Budgeting and Finance

Funding is critical to the success of any programme implementation towards the elimination of OOSC. How have governments individuals, NGOs, FBOs, IDPs etc. worked to provide funds for the elimination of OOSC in Nigeria?.

Establishment of Basic Education Intervention Fund in UBEC: No less than 2% of Federal revenue has been set aside for federal intervention in the implementation of UBE. This fund is reserved with UBEC which disburses it to every state based on the states bringing approved budgets of basic education projects for which the fund is required. Each state would then provide a matching grant which would be combined with the intervention grant in order to access the UBE fund. The moneys are released annually to the states with timelines for achieving the budget objectives/deliverables. Then UBEC would visit the state to verify that the fund has been expended as planned/budgeted. All states and FCT have benefited from this fund which is used for building of new schools, renovation of dilapidated structures in old schools, construction of new classroom blocks, toilets, provision of water, provision of books and other teaching/learning resources, establishment of laboratories and workshops, teachers capacity building, creation of CFS environment in schools, etc. This fund has contributed immensely towards achieving the objectives of UBE in Nigeria.

Unfortunately, however, due to lack of transparency and the misapplication of the funds, many states find it difficult to access the entire funds allocated to them. **Over 37.9 Billion Naira is yet to be collected** by states to which the money has been allocated since 2006. Such states did not properly account for the funds released in previous grant releases. Their funds therefore continue to be in storage until the states give proper account of the ones they received earlier. Accessing this huge amount of money would be very useful for effective implementation of free and compulsory basic education in all states of the Federation.

Funds from Debt Relief Grant (DRG): Part of basic education fund comes from DRG. All states get a share of this fund to support the implementation of UBE.

Funds from IDPs: International Development Partners such as UNICEF, JICA, USAID, DFID, etc, have consistently contributed to the funding of basic education in Nigeria. The total amount they have contributed individually and collectively is not available from our data sources. Apparently the amount would be huge considering what the IDPs have achieved in basic education in Nigeria. The IDPs fund particular programmes like the GEP project, or provide technical assistance in the initiation and management of particular programmes such as the Child Friendly School Initiative (CFSI).

4.7. Analytical Summary

This chapter has discussed the key strategic interventions introduced at different times and in different forms by different bodies to address challenges related to promoting access to basic education, improving school retention and completion rates, and reducing dropout rates. The interventions have focused on improving demand for education through reduction or elimination of barriers and bottlenecks originating from the socio-cultural contexts of children in their communities, the socio-economic status of families, supply side issues in basic education, and educational governance at micro and macro levels.

While efforts at improving access and completion rates through off-loading the socio-cultural, demand side and supply side and educational governance barriers and bottlenecks are making some progress and yielding some positive results, child protection issues that should target poverty reduction and implementation of extant laws have not been given the necessary push. Thus, family poverty and the concomitant child labour, child trafficking, child exploitation are still operating in a situation of free reign, thus contributing to further worsening the OOSC situation in Nigeria.

5. Social Protection Systems

5.1. Introduction

The living standards of Nigerians have been described as very poor. Of the over 75 million Nigerians living below the poverty line of one USD per day, 22 million belong to the 'core poor' (Armando Barrientos, 2006). Poverty is a critical indicator of human vulnerability. The vulnerable segment of the population are the people who survive on the fringes of society, finding it very difficult not only to feed and maintain normal body weight, they usually cannot afford education and health services for themselves and their family members. Poverty is the precursor of many social ills affecting children's rights adversely: OOSC syndrome, child labour, child exploitation, child trafficking, child domestic work, child prostitution etc. Poverty is the principal factor impeding children's access to basic education and pushing those that managed to enrol out of school before completion. The vulnerable in society needs social protection to access the basic needs of life to survive and possibly break the inter-generational vicious cycle of poverty.

One critical point of any credible attempt to break the vicious cycle of poverty is the education and empowerment of the new generation of the poor, their children. But the attempt of the poor at education, if ever, is often not fruitful because their children constitute the potential never-expected-to-enrol, late school enrolment and dropouts. Therefore any effort to eradicate out-of-school syndrome should recognize the major factors that put significant segments of the population of school aged children at high risk of not enrolling in school or dropping out from school when they have enrolled. This chapter would examine the social protection systems that are extant in Nigeria with a view to illuminating their influence on access of the poor and marginalized to basic education.

Social protection consists of policies and programmes designed to reduce and mitigate poverty among the poor and vulnerable, by improving their ability to protect themselves from economic shocks within the system (NAPEP, 2009). As defined in UNICEF's 2008 Child Protection Strategy, child protection systems comprise 'the set of laws, policies, regulations and services needed across all social sectors – especially social welfare, education, health, security and justice – to support prevention and response to protection related risks'. These definitions underpin the focus of this chapter. More specifically, mapping, impact, cross-sectorality and financing of social protection systems are discussed in this chapter.

5.2. Mapping

Mapping in this context is the identification of the social protection institutions/agencies which implement policies or carry out activities that protect the weak and vulnerable in the society, and thereby enhance their access to education. The Federal Government, the state governments and the local governments are key players in the social protection systems. However, NGOs, CBOs and FBOs also carry out activities that can be regarded as social protection activities. Some of the institutions involved in social protection policy formulation and implementation are briefly identified with their activities below.

Federal Ministry of Education (FME)

The FME has several policies and strategies that are social protection in nature. These policies and strategies target the weak and poor in society, with a view to enabling them access basic education and break the intergenerational cycle of family poverty. Some of these policies and strategies are:

Abolition of School Fees for Basic Education: In September 1999, former President Olusegun Obasanjo launched UBE and in 2004, he signed the UBE Act into law. By this Act, universal basic education was declared free and compulsory for all Nigerian children irrespective of circumstances of birth, religion, ethnicity, geographical location or gender. The declaration of free and compulsory basic education was strongly applauded by the general public as a pro-poor policy. All the states and local governments adopted the free and compulsory education policy. The extension of UBE to include pre-primary, adult and non-formal education and nomadic education implies further extension and spread of social protection of the vulnerable poor in all situations from costs of education.

However, the implementation of free and compulsory UBE has not been on the same scale in all the states. Some states were able to give free education while others have not been able to make education completely free because some fees are still charged on the learners/parents. As the policy mature more states are yielding to giving real free and compulsory basic education to the children.

School Feeding programme: School feeding programme was promoted by the FGN in collaboration with UNICEF on a pilot scale in 12 states of the federation. UNICEF prepared the school feeding manual and guidelines and gave technical support for implementing the programme. It is called Home Grown School Feeding and Health Programme (HGSFHP)

School feeding was intended to enhance children's nutrition and health status while attracting them to school so as to boost school enrolment and retention. Thus school feeding helps to reduce malnutrition and under-weight among the children, as well as improve their school attendance and academic learning outcomes.

The introduction of school feeding in schools in the pilot states resulted in a surge in basic school enrolment. After the pilot activities, the FME did not sustain the laudable programme; it suspended and discontinued it. However, some states like Ebonyi state which adopted a more sustainable strategy by using the women in the host school communities (The Mother's Club/Union) to supply and prepare the meals still carry on with the programme without waiting for the state government to give subvention for it. They contribute the food items and prepare it in turns for their children. Consequently Ebonyi state has recorded high enrolment and retention rates in primary schools where school feeding is sustained. Example of such a school is Community Primary School Ndufu-Igbudu, Ikwo LGA, which has recorded about 40% increase in enrolment and 0% dropout rate since the inception of the weekly school feeding in 2006. Indeed, children from neighbouring schools transfer to CPS Ndufu-Igbudu on account of school feeding and child friendly school practices of the school. Also Osun State has been able to sustain the school feeding programme; and it is producing good returns on school enrolment, attendance and completion rates. In Bauchi State, some communities still continue the school feeding programme. The states implementing GEP sustain the school feeding as part of the GEP programme. SITAN 2010 called for the reintroduction of the Home Grown School Feeding programme, which it described as a good idea because it encourages school enrolment, attendance and retention.

Free Books: Free books are often regarded as part of free and compulsory basic education. Many states give the learners free books, at least in the core subjects of basic education but some other states do not. Some states buy the books and keep them in the school library or store from where every child is given books on loan. The children return the books to the library or store at the end of each session when another set of books for the higher class is given. In this way children have books to read to improve their performance so as to avoid failure, repetition and the risk of dropping out of school. The supply of free books to children in the school is one important way of reducing costs of schooling and supporting the vulnerable children to enrol, remain and complete their basic education. However, as observed in Chapter Two, the pupil-to-core textbook ratio is still very high in most states.

Free Uniforms: Some states, especially in the northern geopolitical zones of the country have a programme of free school uniform for children in basic education. This goes a long way to reducing the costs of schooling and enhance enrolment and retention.

Bursary and Scholarship grants: Many state governments through their ministry of education give their indigenes that are currently in schools (higher than basic education) bursaries and partial or full scholarships to continue with their education and training. The bursaries and scholarships given to children/students would enable parents have more cash to support the basic education of younger children, and to provide their other needs for survival. Many states register their indigenes in public examinations. The Federal Ministry of Education has a scholarship board which organizes scholarship awards to Nigerian students at the tertiary level of education. There are some agencies such as the Petroleum Trust Development Fund, Shell Petroleum, and others in the oil industry that award scholarships to Nigerians, especially in the areas of science and technology education and training.

School Health Programme: The School Health Programme was on the front burner as part of the Child Friendly School Initiative advocated and promoted by UNICEF and introduced in Nigerian schools by states and LGEAs. The School Health Programme depends more on the internal arrangements and activities of the schools than on external efforts by agencies or organizations. The main thrust is on sanitation, environment, potable water, proper healthy feeding habits, personal cleanliness/hygiene and useable toilet facilities disaggregated by gender. Under the School Health Programme, primary healthcare services (Immunizations) are also administered to the children while at school. The main philosophy behind the School Health Programme is to make children take care of their own health and develop health skills because it is the healthy child that can sustain school attendance and high academic achievement. In this way the risk of dropping out of school is minimized. Formally School Health Programme is very weak in Nigerian schools. The proportion of schools that have Trained Health Personnel (like a Nurse), Sick Bay, Clinic or First Aid Boxes with resources in them is very small or infinitesimal.

Programmes of the Health Ministry: The Ministry of Health implements some policies and carries out some activities that are social protective in nature. The health sector programmes that would impact on OOSC status of Nigerian children include the Public Health Insurance programmes and the Primary Health Care programme.

The National Health Insurance Scheme: In 2006 the government introduced the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS). The scheme is pro-poor and intended to make health services accessible to Nigerians regardless of their socio-economic status. It will go a long way to ease the health needs of the poor and vulnerable groups in the country, and would definitely impact positively on school enrolment and attendance rates, while reducing school absenteeism, poor achievement and dropout rate. The NHIS is expected to reduce the population of children at risk of dropping out of school due to loss of parents or guardians, or due to the children's morbidity and illness.

The Primary Health Care Programme: The Primary Health Care programme is critical to child survival and development, particularly the poor and vulnerable children in the society. Some of the Primary Health Care programmes include the National Programme on Immunization against child killer diseases, Advocacy on exclusive breast feeding in the early months of the life of the child, Guinea Worm Eradication Programme, Advocacy and Sensitization on HIV/AIDS, prevention of mother – to – child transmission and free distribution of antiretroviral drugs. Primary health care programmes assist the poor and vulnerable in many ways to survive and to take care of their children. The government effort to prevent the transmission of HIV/AIDS indirectly impacts positively on OOSC reduction efforts by preventing children from becoming orphans.

It should be noted that although immunization of children against killer diseases is free, there is gender interference in this service. Interview of researchers and stakeholder groups revealed that in parts of northern Nigeria, mothers would present their sons for immunization but fail to present their daughters. Possibly the erroneous perception that immunization serves as a process of birth control or family planning persists in part of the north. It is inconceivable that the girl-child is denied immunization for any reasons.

Free Health Care for Under-5 children: In their forum, the northern governors adopted to give free prenatal and neonatal health care to all mothers and their under-5 children, and to people above 70 years of age in the northern states. Thus free antenatal services in public hospitals and up to 40 days postnatal care of mothers are rendered in these states. This is a pro-poor policy and it is helping the vulnerable to survive.

National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS): National Health Insurance Scheme is a social protection strategy aimed at making health services accessible and affordable to both the wealthy and the poor. The NHIS is a contributory scheme; hence it only applies to the formal sector at present. The informal sector in which the poor and vulnerable operate is not yet covered by NHIS. To reach all and sundry, Community Based Health Insurance Scheme (CBHIS) has been designed with technical support from UNICEF. CBHIS is designed to reach the poor wherever they may be. The health insurance schemes work in a way that the registered sick only pay a small proportion of health delivery costs while 80% or more is paid for by the insurance cover.

National Pension Scheme: The National Pension Scheme is contributory, and therefore serving the formal sector at present. The informal sector is not yet covered. It should be noted that the pension scheme is very useful as a social protection policy. In an era of the HIV/AIDS pandemic the pension scheme is very important for OVCs. If a parent should die of AIDS for instance, their pension benefits could be used to sustain the children in school, thereby preventing their dropping out of school.

National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP):

The National Poverty Eradication Programmes (NAPEP) was formed in January 2001 to eradicate poverty in Nigeria by 2010. NAPEP integrates four sectoral schemes: Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES), Rural Infrastructural Development Scheme (RIDS), Social Welfare Services Scheme (SOWESS) and Natural Resources Development and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS). NAPEP has offices in all 36 states and FCT, and all 774 local government areas in the country. The supervising body is the National Poverty Eradication Council (NAPEC) chaired by the President for policy formulation, coordination, monitoring and review of all poverty eradication activities in the country. Thirteen ministers whose ministries are involved in poverty alleviation activities are members of the NAPEP committee. The prominent activities of NAPEP in social protection are:

1. **Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT):** This is a programme designed to assist the abject poor in society, through accredited NGOs and its state offices, National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) identifies the very poor and vulnerable families in the communities.

These families are given sustaining grants and trained in some trade for one year. After the training the benefiting families are given substantial grants (₦84, 000 to ₦ 100,000) to start a business on the condition that their children must be maintained in school until the completion of their education. Another condition which the Ministry of Health considers as a critical area of synergy between NAPEP and the ministry is that benefiting families from CCT should access free health services provided by government such as immunization, voluntary and confidential HIV screening, etc. Many families have benefited nationwide. Interviews of some officers in NAPEP revealed that since inception, over 1,000 poor families have benefited from NAPEP- administered CCT in each state of the federation. This means that at least 37, 000 persons have been assisted in Nigeria by NAPEP. The Girls' Education Programme also gives poor parents cash grants on condition that their daughters are supported to remain in school until completion.

2. **Micro-Finance Credit:** NAPEP gives micro-finance credits to individuals or groups who have some projects with promising feasibility. NAPEP has supported many NDE graduates with micro-finance credit for the establishment of their businesses. Currently NAPEP is implementing Multi-Partner Micro-Finance (MP-MF) programme which is in partnership with the Federal Government, State governments, and Oceanic Bank Plc. Beneficiaries submit a feasibility study which is processed and if granted based on feasibility, will be given a soft loan of up to one million Naira. Many unemployed graduates from higher institutions and NDE have benefited from this soft single digit-interest loan. Working with Micro Finance Institutions, Cooperatives, CBOs and FBOs, NAPEP's grassroots structure ensures that the credit reaches the targeted population of the poor. Rural women and youth in all states of the Federation have particularly benefited from the MP-MF programme of NAPEP. The loan repayment rate is not stressful to the beneficiaries.
3. **Village Solution Scheme:** Village Solutions Scheme is a village community-driven development programme in which the community is guided in their economic development efforts that involve modernizing the villages and promoting income generating activities. The village community development associations which the village is encouraged to organise themselves into are given technical expertise and enabling environment. NAPEP coordinates the associations by bringing in Federal government, state government, local government, International NGOs, FBOs, financial institutions to partner with the village community development associations. A total of 228 communities have been participating in this programme nationwide.
4. **KEKE-NAPEP Scheme:** Started in 2001, the Keke-NAPEP scheme was designed to eliminate the menacing Area Boys in Nigerian cities by giving them gainful employment in the transport business. Over 3,000 Keke-NAPEP tricycle vehicles were distributed in 2001. Today more than a million Nigerian youths are employed in the Keke-NAPEP transport business.

Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development (FMWA&SD)

FMWA&SD is the ministry whose major mandate is social protection and human development. The mandate on child development and protection are domiciled in this ministry. Nigerian children are highly vulnerable not only to income poverty but also to a wide variety of other economic and social factors many of which are consequences of poverty. These include urbanization and migration; child labour, sexual abuse, child trafficking, health shocks, environmental degradation, domestic violence, family instability and fragmentation, societal violence, rioting and conflicts, social exclusion and discrimination, harmful traditional practices based on cultural and religious values, and orphan hood and loss of family. FMWA&SD therefore has its hands full of child protection and development challenges. Its major activities on social protection are:

1. **Advocacy for the Signing of the Child Rights Act:** It was the FMWA&SD that pushed hard for the Federal government to accept and sign into law the Child Rights Act (CRA). This Act is so important that without it the ministry would find it very difficult to meet a critical mandate; enforcement of the right of the child for child protection. Since the signing of the CRA in 2003, the FMWA&SD has been working extremely hard to get the states and FCT to sign the same act. At least 24 states and FCT have signed the Act and started implementing it. Advocacy and sensitization continues to get every state sign the CRA.
2. **Establishment of Family Courts in the States:** The FMWA&SD is currently in top level advocacy to get the states that have signed the CRA to establish Family Courts for the trial of infringements on the rights of the child. So far, only seven states and FCT have established the Family Courts for determining cases of infringement of the rights of children in the states. For the ministry, Advocacy continues so as to get all the states establish the Family Courts.
3. **The National Child Policy (NCP):** The NCP is a document prepared in 2007 by the FMWA&SD containing an aggregation of various child related policies, setting out objectives to be achieved under the four clusters of rights: Survival rights, Development rights, Protection rights, and Participation rights based on an analysis of the context of the Nigerian child. These policies serve as guidelines for the effective implementation, coordination, monitoring and evaluation of child right issues in the country. Activities on the rights of the child are evaluated based on the four clusters of the NCP.
4. **Preparation of the National Plan of Action on CRC/CRA, 2009 – 2015:** The National Plan of Action (NPA) on CRC/CRA is a collaboratively prepared document by the various ministries, departments and agencies of federal and state governments, as well as civil society stakeholders and development partners, involved in the implementation of child right issues in Nigeria. The document covers the various issues that have to do with child protection and development. It provides an institutional framework for effective coordination, monitoring and evaluation of programmes implementation.
5. **Preparation and production of National Guidelines and Standards of Practice on OVC:** This document is an important milestone in national response to Nigeria's OVC. All institutions, NGOs, CBOs, FBOs, individuals etc have a compendium on guidelines and standard practices expected in handling issues related to OVC. The document informs stakeholders and all service providers on OVC what services to provide and standards to be met, emphasizing that all services should be rights-based and in the best interest of the child.
6. **Establishment of Homes for Settling Abused Children in the States:** The FMWA&SD has promoted the establishment of homes in each state and FCT where abused children are settled before reintegration with their families. The children may be those that are abandoned by their parents, or those that ran away from their home due to maltreatment and suffering, or those that are lost and being looked for by their families. When such children are located they are given a temporary home while their troubles are managed. While they are in the homes they would go to school or learn some skills. As soon as their parents are located, the issues of the children are discussed and arrangements are made to reintegrate the children with their families/homes.
7. **Establishment of Shelters/Drop-in Centres for Trafficked Children:** Each geopolitical zone of the federation has a drop-in centre or shelter for temporary settlement of trafficked children. These centres are built by FMWA&SD for joint use with NAPTIP and ILO. The ministry, in collaboration with NAPTIP and ILO has different mechanisms for tracking child trafficking. Anti-trafficking networks have been established in the states to track traffickers in persons, especially women/girls and children. The trafficking homes are well equipped to support children's health, education and vocational skills acquisition. For instance the trafficking homes created by state governments (like in Cross River

State) have everything to assist children and even adults to learn formal school subjects, Non-formal education or vocational subjects.

8. **Establishment of Drop-in Home for Children Accused of witchcraft and Thrown out by Family:**
This is a recent development in many states, especially Akwa Ibom and Cross River states. Young children are accused of being witches and wizards and thrown out of the home or inhumanly physically punished to inflict serious bodily injuries. The FMWA&SD and other stakeholders, including NGOs have risen to the challenge. The ministry has established a home/shelter in Akwa Ibom to take in these victims, with a view to reintegrate them with their communities/families. Meanwhile the victims go to school from their emergency shelter. The Akwa Ibom State government has recently promulgated a law banning accusation of children to be witches and wizards. People convicted under this law would be sentenced to 10 years imprisonment.

National Agency for the Prohibition of Traffic in Persons (NAPTIP): NAPTIP was established as an Agency by Act of the Federal Government in August 2003, as a derivative of sections of the constitution prohibiting trafficking in persons. It came as a response to fight human trafficking. The Federal government has signed cooperation agreements with countries sharing borders with Nigeria and others which are seen as the main destinations of victims of trafficking originating from Nigeria. NAPTIP has established anti trafficking networks in at least 22 states to fight the problem. Strong partnership have been developed with various stakeholders and agencies like the Police, Immigration, Customs services, etc. The Nigeria Immigration, the Police, and the Custom Service have special Units dedicated to checking human trafficking.

5.3. Impact of the Social Protection Systems

The social protection systems have no doubt made an impact in helping children realise their right to basic education. However, much still has to be done by the agencies and ministries involved if the poor and vulnerable children are to be enabled to complete their education and move ahead to actualization and breaking the inter-generational cycle of poverty.

FME: The abolition of school fees has very positive impact on school enrolment and completion at basic education level. Although some states are still charging some levies using pseudo names, the cost of schooling has considerably reduced for the poor in most states, especially in the northern geopolitical zones of Nigeria. There has been increasing enrolment and retention in basic education. A survey by NPopC shows that the percentage of money contributed to the school by parents and guardians has declined from over 14% in 2004 to about 5% in 2010. This decline is due to free education being implemented, and it is favourable to the poor and vulnerable in the society, (NDES, 2010).

The states that are implementing free education as designed have been giving free books to the learners. One of the items on the shopping list of states that access their funds from UBEC are books. They use part of the funds to provide books for at least the core subjects of primary and junior secondary schools. Evidence from field visits indicates that learners have books. The books-to -pupil ratio is gradually increasing in all states.

The scholarships and bursaries offered by some state governments help learners meet their educational needs in school without overstressing the parents. The Federal scholarship has benefited thousands of Nigerian youth, particularly young women whose chances are increased through affirmative policy action. Also such sources of scholarship as the PTDF and the oil industry are also making impact in enabling the learners meet their educational needs, and freeing the resources of the family to take care the educational needs of the young children in basic education.

Many states are also striving to make their basic education schools child friendly in order to attract children and retain them. Most state governments have been supplying school furniture, providing sports facilities, improving school sanitation and providing water in order to improve quality.

MDG Office

The MDG office in the presidency has carried out many interventions in line with social protection which are part of its mandate. The Office has achieved significantly towards the attainment of all its mandates.

In 2009, core sectors of Primary Healthcare and Water & Sanitation were retained in the frontline activities, and additional opportunities for investment in economic programs were introduced, including the national Conditional Cash Transfers program, agriculture in support of the Federal Ministry of Agriculture's RAISE program, and literacy, skills and economic empowerment

From 2007 to 2009, the Conditional Grant Scheme (CGS) or CCT has been funding, among others:

- Construction/rehabilitation of 2,844 primary healthcare centres and 10 health training institutions;

- Training of over 6,000 healthcare workers;
- Training of over 20,000 people in skills/agricultural extension;
- 1,500,000 Long-lasting Insecticide-treated nets;
- 3,524 Solar-powered, 399 motorized and 6,031 hand pump boreholes;
- 3,128 VIP toilets.

These interventions have reached at least 20 million people nationwide (MDGs Nigeria 2011).

Ministry of Health: The Primary Health Care delivery has made considerable impact in the life and survival of children. Most parents, especially in northern Nigeria no longer resist immunization as a negative political issue being used for birth control. Nigeria polio rate has decreased very significantly. There are regular immunization campaigns and the poor families bring out their children willingly, having been convinced of the safety and importance of the immunization of U5 children.

The National Health Insurance Scheme is on course. A large segment of the population has adopted it, but it appears the poor who need it most are excluded because the Health Insurance is contributory. It is meant for the people in the formal sector. More advocacy and sensitization are needed to enable more Nigerians embrace the scheme. To reach all and sundry, Community Based Health Insurance Scheme (CBHIS) has been designed with technical support from UNICEF. CBHIS is designed to reach the poor wherever they may be. This has not come on stream yet. The health insurance schemes work in a way that the registered sick only pay a small proportion of health delivery costs while 80% or more is paid for by the insurance cover.

NAPEP: NAPEP has no doubt made and continues to make significant impact in poverty eradication in Nigeria. There is evidence that in the states, local government councils, villages/communities the activities of NAPEP have impacted on the poor and vulnerable. The Conditional Cash Transfer scheme (CCT) is applied and monitored through the grassroots network of NAPEP. It has ensured that 100,000 children who would have been out of school are retained in school. The Agency hopes that there will be 150% increase in this scheme for more children to benefit soon.

The Agency's Poverty Solution Magazines reported that monitoring information from the states and LGAs indicates that the CCT has made tremendous impact in communities. The Keke-NAPEP scheme is also a tremendous success in empowering youths in transport business all over the Federation. Many more youths are still getting into Keke-NAPEP- inspired transport business. Keke-NAPEP was launched with 3,000 vehicles. Today more than a million Nigerian youths are self-employed in the transport business using Keke-NAPEP.

Reports from the states and LGAs indicate that the Village Solution Scheme, the Multi-Partner Micro Finance Scheme, etc have all done very well in poverty eradication efforts. Large numbers of rural women have benefited from the scheme and started viable businesses with the credit grant from NAPEP. Over 13billion Naira has been mobilized for micro credits in the communities in this country. Apparently NAPEP has adequately designed, effectively coordinated, monitored and mainstreamed implementation activities of states and LGAs on poverty eradication in Nigeria. The agency has continued to ensure that poverty eradication principles are factored into state and LGA policies and programmes for sustainability.

FMWA&SD: This ministry has successfully pushed and advocated for the signing of the Child Rights Act. This is a major achievement since it is the basis for most other activities developed for the protection of Nigerian children.

The ministry has also made impact in persuading state governments to sign the CRA so as to find a basis for enforcing the rights of the child in the states. Only 24 states and FCT have signed and advocacy is continuing to get all the states to sign the CRA. Most of the states that are yet to sign the CRA are in the northern zones of Nigeria.

The FMWA&SD is pressing for the establishment of Family Courts in all the states of the federation where cases involving child abuse can be tried and resolved in the interest of the child. So far seven states and the FCT have established the Family Courts. Advocacy continues to get all states establish the Family Courts. The National Child Policy (NCP), National Action Plan (NAP) on CRC/CRA 2009 – 2015, and National Guidelines and Standards of Practice on OVC have been prepared and produced by the FMWA&SD. These are major achievements as these documents serve as blueprints for effective administration and coordination of issues related to CRA.

FMWA&SD has taken major steps establishing homes/centres to take in for resettlement abandoned children, trafficked children and the children that have been thrown out of their families on accusation of witchcraft. These homes and centres are in the states and geopolitical zones.

NAPTIP: With the establishment of NAPTIP in 2003, the 2003 Law Enforcement and Administration Act provides a legal framework for prosecuting trafficking cases up to the High Courts. The registration of victims through NAPTIP made it possible to develop a better understanding on the dynamics of trafficking in the different states. The high endemic states have been identified and are closely monitored. The number of rescued victims has increased over time, and these victims are housed by the homes established by the FMWA&SD for that purpose. The traffickers are arrested and prosecuted. Their assets are acquired and sold by NAPTIP and the proceeds used to take care of the victims, including their resettlement and rehabilitation.

NAPEP: NAPEP is not a stand-alone poverty eradication agency of the government. It partners with other agencies and institutions for its success. NAPEP, an agency of the Federal government, partners with state governments and LGAs in its activities. It also partners with micro finance institutions to give credit to beneficiaries of its various schemes. The integration of NGOs, CBOs and FBOs in its operations such as the identification of the abject poor, who would benefit from conditional cash transfer in the communities is a good and enduring approach.

NAPTIP: NAPTIP has established partnerships at the international, national, state and community levels. The Agency has a Board of Directors, an Executive Secretary, five divisions and two units, mainly composed of staff on secondment from the various other units involved in the fight against trafficking in persons. These are the Police, Immigration, Attorney General's office, FMWA&SD, Ministry of Information, and the mass media. The Agency provides liaison functions between government agencies and NGOs, CBOs etc involved in victims rehabilitation, community awareness raising and action against human trafficking. On the international scene, the Agency works in cooperation with countries with which Nigeria has cooperation agreements on the issues of human trafficking. NAPTIP coordinates victim assistance services with government ministries, NGOs and international agencies, such as the International Organization for Migration, UN Office on Drugs and Crime, the ILO, UNICEF, among others. NAPTIP also works with other governments, international organizations and civil society organisations to establish a centre for the maintenance and analysis of records from all agencies and organizations working on Trafficking in Persons (TIP) issues. .

Need for Synergy

By the nature of social protection policies, strategies and activities, one department, ministry or agency may not succeed in carrying out all the necessary protection activities in society. There is a dire need for synergy among various ministries, departments and agencies, CSOs, NGOs, CBOs, FBOs etc for effective implementation and management of social protection issues in the society. The different groups have to work in tandem for success to be achieved

5.4. Financing

The field of social protection spans the education, health, social and agricultural sectors. Social protection is cost-intensive. In Nigeria, much of the funds for social protection come from government budgetary allocations to the ministries, departments and agencies involved in social protection activities. At the state and local government levels, the funding also comes from budgetary allocation. A study by Hagen-Zanker & Tavakoli (2011) shows that Nigeria's expenditure on social protection between 2005 and 2010 falls quite below international agreements to which Nigeria is signatory. For instance the highest government spending as percentage of GDP on education, health and agriculture between 2005 and 2010 are respectively 3.6%, 2.3% and 1.7%. Thus the aggregate for social sector comes to about 6.1%, as the highest for the period. In 2010 all the above ministries had decreases in budgetary provisions as percentage of GDP. The social sectors, consisting of health, education and social protection without civil servant schemes, amounted to 5.8% GDP and close to 20% government expenditure on average in 2005-2010. Education has the highest budget share out of all social sectors, with average expenditure of close to 12% of government expenditure. Health expenditure is around 7% of government expenditure on average

According to Hagen-Zanker & Tavakoli, (2011) it is clear that pro-poor expenditure or spending on social sectors is not a priority for the Nigerian government. Not only has social expenditure declined between 2005 and 2010, but expenditure is also lower than required according to international agreements to which Nigeria is signatory, namely: the 2001 Africa Union (AU) agreement that 15% of government expenditure should be on the health sector, the Education For All Initiative, signed in 2000, that governments should be spending 20% of government expenditure on education, and the 2003 Maputo agreement of the AU that 10% government expenditure should be on Agriculture.

Donor Aid as part of social protection budget is very small in Nigeria, relative to national budget on this sector. Between 2005 and 2010, Overseas Development Assistance (ODA) to Nigeria for social protection represented approximately 3% of government expenditure on this sector, (Hagen-Zanker & Tavakoli, 2011).

5.5. Analytical Summary

Social protection systems are located in most ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs) of the government. The Federal Ministry of Education (FME), Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development (FMWA&SD), Federal Ministry of Health (FMH), Federal Ministry of Agriculture (FMA), National Security Services, such agencies as the National Poverty Eradication Programme, National Agency for the Prohibition of Traffic in Persons and other related matters (NAPTIP) have been identified as key to social protection. These ministries and agencies play critical roles in ensuring social protection, especially as it affects vulnerable children and their families. Reducing their vulnerability entails empowering them to survive; and education and training are the most viable instruments of empowerment.

There are success stories of the impact of the various agency initiatives in the area of social protection. However, action research and monitoring-evaluation related studies are still needed to be able to assess the impact of the different interventions on the people, and most importantly, the contribution of social protection activities to reducing Nigeria's OOSC burden

Cross-sectorality would still need a heavy boost, even though there have been some hint of fruitful collaboration among bodies like. NAPEP, NAPTIP and FMWA&SD.. IDPs (notably UNICEF, ILO, and Interpo) are known to be making valuable contributions to social protection.

Funding is a key challenge to all the duty bearers in social protection. Nigeria has to operate a budgetary paradigm shift from heavy personnel and overhead costs to adequate human needs funding

6. Conclusions

The Education sector in Nigeria has witnessed key reform initiatives in response to the EFA and Millennium Development Goals. Significant among these were revisions of the National Policy on Education, the free compulsory 9-year Universal Basic Education Programme and the enabling legislation the UBE Act of 2004, the road map. There have been Presidential summits and task forces on Education all aimed at improving the efficiency of the sector. The thrust of these reforms has been to widen access, improve quality and eliminate inequalities in both access and quality. The recent pronouncement by the Honourable Minister of Education shortly after her swearing-in for the second time on 1st July, 2011 that access and quality will be top priorities for the Ministry under her leadership reflects continuity rather than a shift in policy thrust.

Some of the specific strategic initiatives (programme and policies) targeting the widening of access at the basic education level includes:

- Child-Friendly School Initiative (CFSI);
- Girls Education Project (GEP);
- Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education Programme (UBE);
- Articulation of ECCDE to public primary school;
- Supply of infrastructure and teaching and learning materials;
- Capacity building for Basic Education teachers;
- Basic Education Teacher Quality Improvement Scheme ;
- Development of Basic Education curriculum (BEC);
- Campaign for Girls Education in the North and Boys' Education in the South;
- Introduction of School-based Management Committees (SBMC);
- Home Grown School Feeding Programme (HGSFP);
- Development of State Sector Plan and Operation Plan (SESP-SESOP);
- Rural Female Teachers Scholarship Scheme;
- Improvement of Quality Assurance in Basic Schools.

There are also some strategic interventions in the other social sectors – health, agriculture, women and social development – that have that could impact access.

The study shows that the attainment of EFA and the MDGs in Nigeria by the year 2015 is threatened by its huge OOSC burden. The threat is compounded by the existence of two distinct education access zones in the country, with the northern states trailing behind the southern states. Gender is still an issue, with a poor level of girls' participation particularly in the northern states, while adolescent boys' disaffection with schooling is a strong challenge in the south east zone. Rural areas are disadvantaged almost everywhere. All over the country, wealth and socio-economic status confers a definite advantage in terms of enrolment, attendance and completion. There has been quite an impressive list of initiatives to address the demand and supply side barriers and bottlenecks impeding the attainment of EFA and the MDGs in the country, but these have yielded mixed results. The initiatives are being carried out by a wide variety of agencies, with little coordination among them and so very little synergy dividend. Efforts to fast track the elimination of the OOSC phenomenon, as a route towards attaining EFA and the MDGs would require concerted and urgent efforts along the following lines:

1. Overarching national/sub-national development guidelines that seriously address the challenge of poverty, to take care of a factor that the study has identified as the number one bottleneck.
2. a strategic re-focussing of the UBE programme (at national and state levels), with OOSC as corner stone and paying specific attention to the demand and supply side bottlenecks identified by the study
3. Targeted funding that adequately address the bottlenecks
4. Scaling up of the special initiatives by all partners (such as the GEP initiatives) and – in particular – initiatives addressing the challenge of geographical/national disparity
5. Addressing the gender challenge from both ends: special attention to GIRLS' participation along with responsive programmes on boys' dropout in the south-east.
6. Establishment of a functional coordinating mechanism among all actors to enhance synergy and reduce multiplication of disparate interventions
7. Policy dialogues to address the question WHY HAVE PREVIOUS STRATEGIC INTERVENTION NOT QUITE SUCCEEDED, as a way of avoiding past mistakes and re-conceptualising and refining strategies for responding to the challenge of OOSC

8. A data collection framework (and database) specifically for analysing Out of School Children (OOSC) to facilitate monitoring, research and policymaking for this important group; more research is also required to understand why estimates for out of school children and dropout rates vary substantially by data source;
9. Second Chance or Alternative Education Programmes: The study shows that nationally, the bulk of OOSC are in the 'expected-to-never-enter' followed by those in the 'dropped out' category. The only way to reach these children is to expand provisions for Second Chance education. Existing structures and programmes for Second Chance education are weak and need to be further strengthened. For example, the management structures at the national level - NMEC and NCNE as well as those at the state and local government levels are poorly funded and under-staffed with little or no synergy among them. The NFE centres suffer serious resource and human capacity deficits that they cannot function efficiently. All these require increased funding and improving staffing for agencies concerned with Second Chance education at the national, state and local government level with greater synergy among the three levels. Multiple modes of Second Chance Education programmes including Open Distance Learning programmes with e-learning options should be implemented.
10. Enforcement of relevant legislations : Legislations such as the UBE Act and Child Rights Act that guarantee or promote children's right to Education should be enforced
11. Early Detection and Treatment of At-Risk Children: The at-risk children constitute the OOSC of the future. Therefore the best strategy for eliminating OOSC is to focus on the early detection and treatment of at-risk children in primary and junior secondary schools. Unfortunately, at the moment little or no attention is directed at this category of children either at the level of research or practice. This leaves us with the option of adopting a 'curative' rather than a 'preventive' approach. A preventive approach as suggested here will not only be more effective in dealing with the OOSC phenomenon, but it will also be cost-effective.
12. More in-depth research studies will be necessary for us to gain insights into the complex variables that generate social and educational exclusion in a society such as Nigeria. Only limited variables could be addressed in the present study owing to the constraints imposed by the CMF. Even at that it was not possible to explore the intersections or interactions of these variables. In the same vein, studies on the impact of specific interventions are either lacking or limited with the result that evidence-based programming and intervention for OOSC will be difficult.

Annex 1

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Annex 2

Study on Out-of-School Children (OOSC) in Nigeria -

A study being conducted within the global methodology framework on OOSC FGN/UNICEF programme of cooperation (2011-2012)

Interview guide for key informants and policy makers

Introductory Note

This interview is designed to capture the input of stakeholders on major issues of concern to the Study on OOSC in Nigeria which is being conducted within the Global Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) provided by UNICE and UIS. The main goal is to elicit information which will provide more insight into the social protection systems in Nigeria, including:

- 1) The main social protection policies and strategies in place and the extent to which they function as a system.
- 2) A deeper understanding of how the social protection policies and strategies in place that address the needs of the OOSC population, evolved over time.
- 3) A better understanding of social protection policies and financing and how they evolve over time.
- 4) Documenting the key political, economic, and social factors that facilitated or blocked the creation and strengthening of certain social protection policies and strategies.
- 5) Learning more about the successes/failures of integrated, multi-sector approaches to social protection that have been implemented (or attempted).

UNICEF defines Social Protection as “the set of public and private policies and programmes aimed at reducing the economic and social vulnerabilities of children, women and families, in order to ensure their access to a decent standard of living and essential services”. Based on this definition, social protection, policies and strategies can be grouped under the following main categories:

Social transfers - long-term predictable transfers and safety net/ humanitarian responses. These include Cash transfers (including pensions, child benefits, poverty-targeted, seasonal), Food transfers, Food and fuel subsidies, Nutritional supplementation, Public works

- Programmes to ensure economic and social access to services such as User fee abolition, Social and health insurance, Exemptions, vouchers, subsidies, Birth registration, Provision of ARVs, Specialized services to ensure equal access, e.g. for people living with disabilities.
- Social support and care services – human resource intensive support at child or household level. These services include Family support services, Home-based care, Childcare/ECD, Referrals.

Legislation and policies to ensure equity and non-discrimination in children and families’ access to services and employment/livelihoods such as Minimum and equal pay legislation, Employment guarantee schemes, Maternity and paternity leave, Removal of discriminatory legislation or policies affecting service provision/access or employment, Inheritance rights.

Interview Guide on Social Protection Systems in Nigeria

Section A: Overview

1. What Social protection policies and strategies are in place in Nigeria? What is the main priority of these policies and strategies? (For example: are there a large number of policies and strategies in place to increase primary school enrolment?) How are the barriers and bottlenecks faced by OOSC population addressed by the existent policies and strategies?
2. What options were considered in constructing a first set of social protection policies and strategies?
3. Who were the critical actors in bringing about the social protection policies and strategies?
4. What were their positions? Why did they support/oppose introducing these new policies and strategies?
5. Has there been any resistance/or particular challenges with regards to the introduction of certain policies and strategies?
6. In the last ten years, what social protection policies and strategies have been introduced in Nigeria? Which have been reformed, expanded, etc.? Do these specifically address the needs of the population of OOSC/ or improve education outcomes. (Note: this question is mainly to gather an understanding of what changes have taken place in the last 10 years and what kinds of policies and strategies are being introduced?)

7. Do you know what factors influenced the creation of or changes in these policies and strategies? E.g. Economic development? Poverty reduction? Human rights? Social cohesion? Etc. What were the arguments?
8. Has coverage changed over time? Was it different from what was intended? Were policies and strategies/benefits targeted to particular populations or segments of the population? Did benefits increase/decrease over time as coverage expanded?
9. How did these policies and strategies evolve? Is there a specific order in which certain kinds of programs were introduced?(Example : A School feeding program combined with a cash transfer program- how and what order was the cash transfer program introduced, did the program evolve from being a school feeding program first and was the cash transfer component added at a later stage? If so what factors determined the development, evolution and structure of the social protection programs?)
10. Have there been any institutional, legal and policy innovations/reforms in Nigeria that have been implemented to scale up/out specific social protection policies and strategies?
11. If so what factors attributed to its scale up? Was it determined by its impact or other factors? (e.g. a law introduced to create a new cash transfer program; a special tax/fund created to finance investments in education; election of new party; economic crisis; a new agency created to coordinate social protection interventions, etc).
12. Were the politics for the adoption of certain social protection policies and strategies different from the politics of sustaining them? In what ways?

Section B: Impact -Related Questions

13. To what extent does the education sector view Social Protection (or specific SP policies and strategies) as relevant to achieving education outcomes, and why?
14. Is there information on how children, particularly OOSC (or those at risk), and their families, view the benefits or issues with these policies and strategies?
15. What do you see as key Social Protection interventions which would reduce the number of children out of school – either through changes to existing policies and strategies or potential new policies and strategies? How does this link to the analysis of barriers and bottlenecks?

Section C: Financing related questions

Specific Policy and Strategy Related Questions

16. Which Ministry or Agency has the main responsibility to ensure adequate financing of this policy and strategy? (Example – this question will be related to a specific policy/ strategy in place – typically those that are inter-sectoral in nature or have many agencies involved)
17. Was financing (of program) a key issue? How were they (specific policies and strategies) initially financed?
 - PROBE: UN Agency funding? NGO funding? Bilateral agreements?
18. Was this different from how older SP policies and strategies were financed or similar? If different, why?
19. How are these policies and strategies currently financed?
 - PROBE: Are these financed through loans? Special taxes or fees? Or the general budget?

Overall Financing Questions

20. Did the financing of new social protection policies and strategies in education require cutbacks or constraints in the growth of other social protection policies and strategies? Did specific social protection program funding require reallocation within the education sector?
21. Did the financing of other Social protection policies and strategies result in cutbacks or changes in funding in education?
22. Which financing mechanisms are considered more pro-poor/pro-equity than others? What role does the political economy play in determining the objectives of the different financing mechanisms? (For example: tax based financing versus contributory health insurance- which is considered more pro-poor? Any literature on evidence of these financing mechanisms?)
23. How much does the public sector spend each year on each component of the social protection system? And, if any, what is the private sector contribution?

Section D: Cross-Sectoral Approaches

24. How strong are synergies across different parts of the system – vertically and horizontally? What are/were the obstacles and how were they overcome (or if not overcome, for what reasons)?

25. What are the different types of mechanisms used to facilitate coordination? How do they work? Are they effective in promoting coordination?
26. How involved is the education sector in Social Protection strategy development, implementation and financing? To what extent does the Ministry of Education collaborate with others on Social Protection? To what extent are education interests reflected in the overall framework/approach? What do they see as the challenges/obstacles to a cross-sectoral approach?
27. Are cross-sectoral Social Protection policies/frameworks in place, how/when were they developed, and to what extent do they effectively support an integrated approach?
28. How are different sector interests in social protection policies and strategies negotiated, and to what extent do different sector ministries see social protection as a) in their interest/beneficial to outcomes they are trying to achieve, and b) part of their own mandate?

Section E: Gaps and the Way Forward

29. Where are the key gaps in SP policies and strategies in place? Is the interest of the education sector (and also specifically do they address the needs of OOSC population) represented both intra and inter sectorally? (from an education sector perspective) Do they view the social protection policies and strategies in place as being beneficial?
30. What is the future of social protection policies and strategies in place to address the need of the OOSC population?
31. Is support for Social Protection changing? How?
32. What are the concerns going forward?

Annex 3

Study on Out-Of-School Children (OOSC) In Nigeria - a study being conducted within the global methodology framework on oosc fgn/unicef programme of cooperation (2011-2012)

Questionnaire for Stakeholders on OOSC – Barriers, Bottlenecks, Policies And Strategies

Introductory Note

This interview is designed to capture the input of stakeholders on major issues of concern to the Study on OOSC in Nigeria which is being conducted within the Global Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) provided by UNICE and UIS. The main goal is to capture and integrate in the OOSC Study, the works of relevant agencies on barriers and bottlenecks as well as the best practices on policies and strategies that promote schooling in relation to the 5DE. Specifically, you are to provide evidence arising from your organization's activities and programmes with respect to each of the listed issues/concerns. Such evidence could be in the form of summary data/statistics, concise statements/descriptions with citation of sources, documents/publications etc

Section A: Barriers

- (1) List and attach (where possible) sources of data and documents for evidence on Demand side socio-cultural and economic barriers
 - a. -----
 - b. -----
 - c. -----
 - d. -----
 - e. -----
 - f. -----
 - g. -----
- (2) List and attach (where possible) sources of data and documents for evidence on Supply-side (or school-based) barriers
 - a. -----
 - b. -----
 - c. -----
 - d. -----
 - e. -----
 - f. -----
 - g. -----
- (3) List and attach (where possible) sources of data and documents for evidence on bottlenecks that impede the implementation of successful policies and strategies
 - a. -----
 - b. -----
 - c. -----
 - d. -----
 - e. -----
 - f. -----
- 4 What evidence of good practice and results exist on Policies and Strategies at federal and state levels which promote and enhance schooling among the five categories of OOSC in relation to the following?

Policy/Strategy Area	Best Practices	Impact on Schooling
Socio-Cultural Policies And Strategies		
Economic Policies And Strategies		
School-Related Supply Side Policies And Strategies		
Management And Governance		
Budgeting And Finance Policies		

(5) Education Finance Data

Total public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP.	
Total public expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure.	
Public education expenditure as a percentage of total government education expenditure, by level.	
Public expenditure per student by level as a percentage of GDP per capita.	
Public expenditure per student, by level (PPP US\$).	
Educational expenditure by nature of spending as a percentage of total educational expenditure on public institutions, by level.	

(6) What are your recommendations and strategies for policy actions in respect of OOSC?

(7) What are your recommendations for further research on educational policies and Strategies in respect of OOSC?

(8) Particulars of Officer Completing Questionnaire

Name	
Position	
Department	
Ministry/Agency/Organisation	
Telephone	

Annex 4: Additional Statistical Tables

Table A1: Adjusted net enrolment rate (ANER), by sex and level of education, with GPI

Adjusted net enrolment rate				
	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Gender Parity Index
Level of Education				
Primary	86.80	76.62	81.79	0.88
Junior secondary	38.80	33.25	36.07	0.86
Both Levels	62.80	54.93	58.93	0.87

Source: FME NEMIS, Nigeria, Digest of Education Statistics, 2006-2010

Table A2: Repetition rate by grade at the primary and junior secondary level of education, by sex and other characteristics

Primary education							Junior secondary education		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Residence									
Urban	2.3	2.1	2.5	1.8	0.8	4.4	8.3	4.5	6.6
Rural	2.7	2.3	1.7	1.7	1.5	4.7	6.1	4.9	4.5
By SES:									
Poorest	2.8	1.4	1.5	1.4	1	4.1	6.1	3.6	5.1
Second	2.7	2.9	2.7	1.3	1.2	4.9	6.6	6.0	5.3
Middle	2.8	2.2	1.8	1.4	1.2	5.4	7.8	5.1	4.7
Fourth	2.6	2.3	2.3	2.5	2.0	3.3	8.0	4.0	5.6
Richest	1.8	2.0	1.5	1.7	0.4	5.2	5.3	4.6	5.7

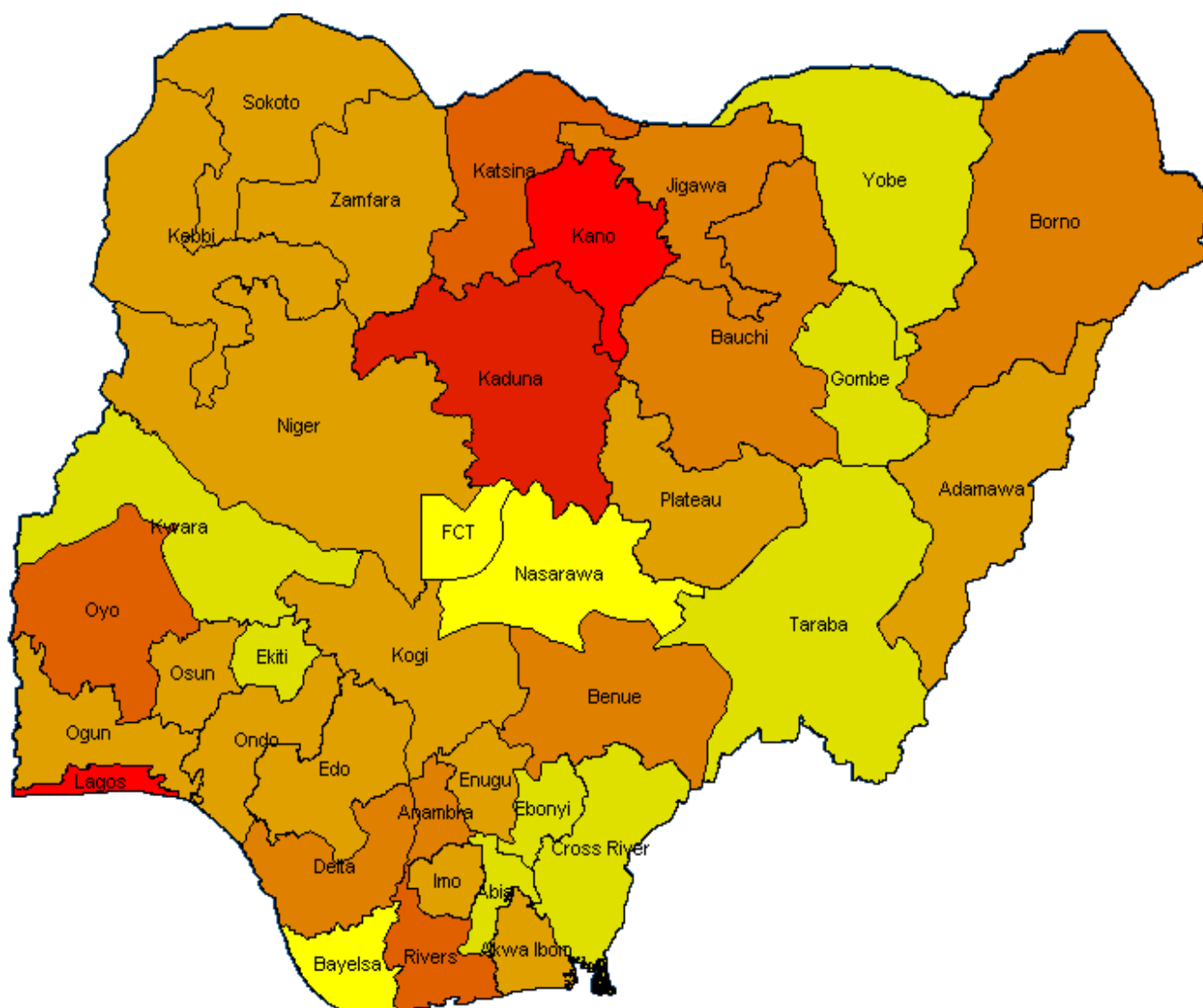
Sources: Nigeria, DHS database, 2008

Table A3: Survival rate to the last grade of primary education and to the last grade of junior secondary education

	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Survival rate at the last grade of primary education	62.70	56.68	60.68	0.90
Survival rate at the last grade of junior secondary education	78.76	68.02	73.67	0.86

Source: Calculation with 2007 data from FME NEMIS, Nigeria, Digest of Education Statistics, 2006-2010

Map of Nigeria



For more information:

Visit our Website: www.unicef.org

Or contact:

Alice Akunga, Chief Education
Plot 617/618, Diplomatic Drive,
Central Area District
PMB 2851
Garki FCT Abuja
Nigeria

