The supply of, and demand for, primary and junior secondary school teachers in Katsina state (2014-25)

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Acknowledgements

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Executive summary

This report examines the supply, utilisation and demand for primary and junior secondary school teachers in Katsina State. It projects future demand for teachers under six different scenarios, and draws policy implications for various aspects of teacher training, recruitment and deployment.

Teacher supply

Teacher education: Katsina has two Colleges of Education and two Universities that train teachers. The NCE, taught by the CoEs, is the basic qualification required for primary and JSS teachers. Student intakes at these institutions are largely determined by available capacity rather than projected teacher demand. The National Education Policy’s stipulation that CoEs should have a science-humanities subject mix of 60:40 is not strictly enforced.

Staffing and resource use at teacher training institutions: Most lecturers at the CoEs have degrees, although less than 40% have postgraduate qualifications. Lecturers at the faculties of education at the two Universities are more qualified. Most have postgraduate degrees or PhDs. At both types of institutions, the majority of lecturers lack practical teaching experience.

The ratio of students to lecturers varies substantially across the institutions. At the Federal College of Education, it averaged 33:1 between 2005 and 2013, whereas at the Isa Kaita CoE, it currently stands at 300:1. Physical facilities are inadequate at both CoEs, marked by deficiencies in classrooms, laboratories and library facilities. This partly reflects inadequate state funding.

Teacher education programmes: The NCE suffers from a number of weaknesses. It is supposed to prepare teachers for primary and JSS-level teaching, but the NCE curriculum is not aligned to the primary and JSS curricula. This could change as a new curriculum is being introduced for the CoEs. The practical component of the NCE (under which final-year students are required to teach for at least one semester under the supervision of a lecturer) tends to be poorly implemented. Lecturers are overstretched (particularly at Isa Kaita); there are insufficient funds for them to visit schools; and students receive little mentoring or support from the schools that they teach at.

Teachers’ employment outcomes: Tracer surveys of CoE graduates have never been carried out in Katsina. However, the data suggests that they are not being fully utilised. Of the 10,000 CoE graduates in Katsina over the last 5 years, only 4,500 have been employed by the State Government.

Teacher utilisation

Teachers in post: Primary school student-teacher ratios in each LGEA in Katsina exceed the prescribed norm of 40:1, while at JSS, half the LGEAs have more than 40 students per teacher (and half fewer). Teacher shortages appear to have become more acute in recent years following State-sponsored enrolment drives. A significant share of teachers are not qualified. In 2013 only 58% of primary and 72% of JSS teachers were fully qualified. Unqualified teachers are required to enrol on qualification upgrading programmes but deadlines have not been enforced and the majority remain in post without having acquired the NCE.

Teacher deployment: There is considerable variation in staffing patterns across schools and LGAs. Amongst the 34 LGAs in Katsina, 6 have STRs of 60:1 or less while nine have STRs of over 100:1. None have the prescribed STR of 40:1. At the JSS level, half of LGAs have STRs of less than 40:1 (indicating that they are overstaffed) while 5 have STRs of over 80:1. Similar patterns are observed across schools within LGAs. This points to a lack of consistent staffing policies, as well as a disinclination amongst teachers to work in rural areas, and the decentralisation of primary education to LGAs which has meant that funding is subject to local priorities and resource availability. One implication of teacher shortages, coupled with uneven deployment,
is the prevalence of multi-grade teaching - 76% of primary schools in Katsina have less than one teacher per class.

**Future Teacher Demand**

**The kind of teachers that should be trained:** The short-term priority should be to ensure that all primary and JSS teachers have the NCE qualification. Over the medium-long term, Katsina should shift to a unified teacher training system under which all pre-service training is carried out by Universities, with the CoEs incorporated into the Universities. In addition, steps should be taken to boost the quality of teacher training, for instance by encouraging greater competition between service providers, enhancing service providers’ independence from the State, and setting performance targets.

**The number of teachers that will be required up to 2025:** Future teacher demand is projected using an adapted version of UNESCO’s widely-utilised EPPSIM model. First, enrolment is forecast under six scenarios based on three enrolment trajectories and two population growth scenarios. The three enrolment scenarios are:
- **Status Quo:** basic parameters (intake, repetition, dropout and transition rates) remain unchanged;
- **2025 UBE:** these parameters change gradually over time to achieve Universal Basic Education by 2025;
- **2030 UBE:** gradual progress is made towards achieving UBE by 2030.

The two population scenarios are:
- **Officialpop:** the school-age population grows by the Census estimate of 3% per year; and
- **Revisedpop:** the school-age population grows by 4.5% per year, in line with data on births registered.

These are then translated into teacher demand. Under the Status Quo scenarios, STRs remain unchanged. Under the UBE scenarios, STRs at the primary level gradually decline to 40:1 whereas at the JSS level they fall to 25:1. The table below summarises teacher demand at primary and JSS under each of the 6 scenarios.

**Table 0.1: Total requirement for teachers and % increase over 2012**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scenario</th>
<th>2025 target</th>
<th>% increase</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status quo-official pop</td>
<td>24,300</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status quo-revised pop</td>
<td>28,400</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2025 STR40-official pop</td>
<td>47,300</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2025 STR40-revised pop</td>
<td>63,200</td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2030 STR40-official pop</td>
<td>37,500</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2030 STR40-revised pop</td>
<td>50,200</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Junior secondary</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status quo-official pop</td>
<td>5,200</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status quo-revised pop</td>
<td>5,600</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2025 STR25-official pop</td>
<td>31,100</td>
<td>549</td>
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<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2025 STR25-revised pop</td>
<td>38,900</td>
<td>711</td>
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<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2030 STR25-official pop</td>
<td>22,100</td>
<td>360</td>
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<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2030 STR25-revised pop</td>
<td>27,000</td>
<td>476</td>
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The costs for these projections are set out in the graph below, reaching a total of NGN30 billion by 2027 (in current prices).
Figure 0.1 Projected additional salary costs for primary and junior secondary school teachers for the 2030 UBE scenario, 2014–2028 (NGN billions)
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<td>ASC</td>
<td>Annual School Census</td>
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<tr>
<td>B.Ed.</td>
<td>Bachelor of Education</td>
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<td>CoEs</td>
<td>Colleges of Education</td>
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<td>CONUASS</td>
<td>Consolidated University Academic Staff Salary Structure</td>
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<td>DHS</td>
<td>Demographic and Health Surveys</td>
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<td>EPPSIM</td>
<td>Education Policy Planning Simulation</td>
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<tr>
<td>FCE</td>
<td>Federal College of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>FTTSS</td>
<td>Female Teacher Training Stipend Scheme</td>
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<td>FUD</td>
<td>Federal University at Dutsinma</td>
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<td>GAR</td>
<td>Gross Attendance Rate</td>
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<td>GEP3</td>
<td>Girls’ Education Project (Phase 3)</td>
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<td>GER</td>
<td>Gross Enrolment Rate</td>
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<td>GIR</td>
<td>Gross Intake Rate</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>IGR</td>
<td>Internally Generated Revenue</td>
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<tr>
<td>JAMB</td>
<td>Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>IGCSE</td>
<td>International General Certificate of Secondary Education</td>
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<td>IKCE</td>
<td>Isa Kaita College of Education</td>
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<td>KSG</td>
<td>Katsina State Government</td>
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<tr>
<td>JSS</td>
<td>Junior Secondary School</td>
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<tr>
<td>LGA</td>
<td>Local Government Area</td>
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<td>LGEA</td>
<td>Local Government Education Authority</td>
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<td>MICS</td>
<td>Multi-Indicator Cluster Survey</td>
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<td>MLA</td>
<td>Monitoring Learning Achievement</td>
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<td>NCE</td>
<td>National Certificate of Education</td>
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<td>NCCE</td>
<td>National Commission for Colleges of Education</td>
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<td>NECO</td>
<td>National Examination Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<td>NEDS</td>
<td>National Education Data Survey</td>
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<td>NGN</td>
<td>Nigerian Naira</td>
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<td>NUC</td>
<td>National University Commission</td>
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<td>NUT</td>
<td>Nigerian Union of Teachers</td>
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<td>OVC</td>
<td>Orphans and Vulnerable Children</td>
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<td>PGDE</td>
<td>Post-Graduate Diploma in Education</td>
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<td>SESP</td>
<td>State Education Sector Plan</td>
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<td>SMOE</td>
<td>State Ministry of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>STR</td>
<td>Student–Teacher Ratio</td>
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<td>SUBEB</td>
<td>State Universal Basic Education Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>TDNA</td>
<td>Teacher Development Needs Assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>TEP</td>
<td>Teacher Education Policy</td>
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<tr>
<td>TETFund</td>
<td>Tertiary Education Trust Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>TSB</td>
<td>Teaching Service Board</td>
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<td>TSR</td>
<td>Teacher–Stream Ratio</td>
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<td>TSS</td>
<td>Teachers Salary Structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTPR</td>
<td>Total Teacher Post Requirement</td>
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<td>U5MR</td>
<td>Under-Five Mortality Rate</td>
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<tr>
<td>UBE</td>
<td>Universal Basic Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>UBEC</td>
<td>Universal Basic Education Commission</td>
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<tr>
<td>UMYU</td>
<td>Umaru Musa Yar’adua University</td>
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<tr>
<td>WAEC</td>
<td>West African Examination Council</td>
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1. Introduction

1.1. Study objectives

1.1.1. Overall objective

1. This study examines the demand for and supply of primary and junior secondary school (JSS) teachers in Katsina State, Nigeria. How teachers are currently utilised is a key determinant of overall teacher demand. The introduction of universal staffing norms for primary and junior secondary schooling (as part of the National Education Policy) is intended to create a uniform system for establishing school staffing needs and ensuring the efficient and equitable deployment and utilisation of teachers across the country. While some improvements have been made in Katsina State, it is apparent that significant inefficiencies and inequities still exist that the SMOE and SUBEB are keen to address, particularly given the major financial constraints within which the state education system has to function.

2. The four main challenges with regard to teacher demand and supply in Katsina State are:
   - acute shortages of teachers, with overall student–teacher ratios (STRs) for primary schooling over twice the official national staffing norm of 40:1;
   - the uneven deployment and poor utilisation of teachers across the state;
   - the current over-supply of teachers in relation to the financial capacity of the SMOE and SUBEB to recruit adequate numbers of teachers; and
   - the generally poor quality of teacher graduates, especially from the Colleges of Education (CoEs).

3. A detailed analysis of the demand for and supply of teachers is important in order to facilitate the implementation of the State Education Sector Plan (SESP) for Katsina State. This is a 10-year strategic plan which comprehensively addresses all aspects of schooling provision in the state including additional teacher requirements and teacher training. Projections of future teacher requirements in Katsina State have already been generated as part of the Education Policy Planning Simulation (EPPSIM) model, which is a key part of the SESP. These are reviewed, therefore, as part of this study.

1.1.2. Terms of Reference

4. The main objectives of the study as stated in the Terms of Reference provided by UNICEF\(^1\) are as follows:
   - Assess the current status of teacher supply, utilisation and demand.
   - Ascertain the extent to which there is a projected over- or under-supply of teachers.
   - Reach informed judgements and decisions regarding issues such as teacher training and funding that systematically integrate all relevant services.
   - Assess and correct any inconsistencies in policy that affect teacher supply, utilisation and demand.
   - Generate firm projections of teacher enrolment and supply needs and tentative projections setting out clearly the underlying assumptions for the projections.
   - Assess the changing nature of teacher deployment and attrition.

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\(^1\) The full Terms of Reference are presented in Annex A.
• Assess the utilisation of lecturers at CoEs and faculties/departments of education at universities as well as those trained by the National Teachers Institute and determine whether such staff are appropriately qualified and utilised.
• Match the initial teacher training enrolment (per subject) to the changing needs of schools.
• Project the cost of teacher remuneration.

5. We have extended the time period to 2025 in order to have a longer-term time horizon and shed as much light as possible.

1.1.3. Audiences

6. This study is expected to be useful for anyone connected with the management and training of teachers in Katsina. It was specifically commissioned for UNICEF’s Girls’ Education Project 3 (GEP3) around their support to teacher training and management in Katsina, but will also be of use to the Department for International Development (DFID), and the Teacher Development Programme (TDP), a DFID-funded project working to improve in-service and pre-service teacher training in six states including Katsina. It should also be of use to the Katsina State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB), State Ministry of Education (SMoE), and Colleges of Education in Katsina.

7. Other audiences include the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC), the Federal Ministry of Education (FMoE), other development partners working on education in Nigeria (including the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the World Bank), and national teacher institutions, as well as researchers in education in Nigeria (for whom it may form a model for other teacher supply and demand studies in other states).

1.2. Study design and implementation

1.2.1. Data collection and analysis

8. Information on all aspects of the supply and demand of primary school and JSS teachers was collected by the study team. The major data collection activities were as follows:

• Interviews with all departmental directors and other key personnel in the SMoE, SUBEB, the Teaching Service Board (TSB), the state and federal CoEs, and the faculties of education at the state and federal universities in the state.
• Interviews with other key stakeholders including the National Population Council and the Nigerian Union of Teachers. The full list of interviewees is presented in Annex B.
• Visits to a small group of schools in order to discuss a range of pertinent issues relating to the quality and relevance of teacher training, teacher commitment and motivation, teacher deployment, workloads and other staffing matters.
• Analysis of Annual School Census (ASC) returns and other relevant data, in particular the following household surveys: Multi-Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), the Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), and the National Education Data Survey (NEDS).
• Review of all relevant reports and other documentation including the SESP and related operational plans.

9. Most of the required data were successfully obtained. However, not all the requested ASC data were provided in the required format, which meant that some of the more detailed analysis of teacher utilisation could not be undertaken. Also, staff at the Federal College of Education (FCE) were on strike while the study was being conducted, which meant that it was not possible to collect all the
requested data. The methodologies used for the analysis of this data, in particular the projections of teacher requirements for the period 2014–2025, are discussed in each chapter.

1.2.2. Study implementation

10. This study has been undertaken by the Education Data, Evaluation and Research in Nigeria (EDOREN) project. It was requested by UNICEF Nigeria under the auspices of the Girls’ Education Project (Phase 3) (GEP3), which is managed by UNICEF and funded by DFID. The study team members were Dr Paul Bennell; Professor Sarah Anyawu, Department of Economics, Federal University of Abuja; and Mulika Lamido Dodo, Director, Silvercrest Education Consultants Ltd, Kano. The interviews and other data collection activities for this study were conducted over a two-week period in February 2014.

1.3. Report structure

11. Chapter 2 provides a brief overview of the situation of teachers in Nigeria, a review of existing teacher supply and demand studies, and an introduction to teachers in Katsina. Chapters 3-8 present the findings of the study, which are organised by three themes – teacher supply, utilisation and future demand (see Table 1.1). Chapter 9 concludes and Chapter 10 offers some recommendations. Annex C provides a detailed overview of basic education in Katsina.

Table 1.1 Report structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Content</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A: Teacher Supply</td>
<td>3 Enrolments and graduates from the four CoEs and faculties of education in Katsina</td>
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<td>4 Staffing, funding and resource utilisation at CoEs and faculties of education</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5 The design and delivery of teacher education programmes</td>
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<td>B: Teacher Utilisation</td>
<td>6 The recruitment, deployment and utilisation of primary and JSS teachers in Katsina</td>
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<td>C: Future Teacher Demand</td>
<td>7 Projected school enrolments</td>
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<td>8 Projected teaching post requirements and replacements</td>
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<tr>
<td>D: Conclusions</td>
<td>9 Conclusions</td>
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<td>10 Recommendations</td>
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2. **An overview of the situation of teachers in Nigeria and Katsina**

12. The supply and demand of teachers in Katsina needs to be seen in the context of the situation of teachers in Nigeria and the educational situation in Katsina. This section summarises the available literature on these issues in four brief sub-sections.

2.1. **Teachers in Nigeria**

13. The teacher education system in Nigeria has two main tiers. B.Ed. graduates are trained at state and federal universities and NCE teachers are trained at state and federal CoEs. Pre-service teacher training at the CoEs is intended primarily for primary schools and JSS while B.Ed. and other university graduates are expected to be employed in senior secondary schools.

14. The philosophy of the NCE programme is fully supportive of the goals of the National Policy on Education, which are to produce highly motivated and efficient classroom teachers and to encourage the spirit of enquiry and creativity in teachers. The National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) was established by Decree No. 3, of April 1989, as the agency responsible for the supervision of all aspects of non-degree teacher education in Nigeria.

15. A recent EDOREN review of the literature on basic education in Nigeria (Humphreys and Crawfur 2014) includes a discussion of teachers. Although the Federal Ministry of Education is clear that an effective teaching force is critical for learning, the review finds a number of challenges around teachers in Nigeria:

- Data on teachers and teacher qualification is poor; but
- From the data available only around two thirds of primary school teachers are qualified; and
- The shortage of qualified teachers is much more significant in rural, northern regions of the country; and
- There is substantial variation between states and LGEAs.
- Most female teachers are located in the south of the country, and few accept postings in rural areas.
- Teacher qualifications (the National Certificate in Education or NCE) are no guarantee of adequate knowledge or teaching skills.
- Teacher appointment and deployment tends not to be based on supply and demand, partly due to:
  - The lack of reliable data, but also
  - Political interference
- The shortages of teachers in some states and LGEAs lead to crowded classes and therefore poor teacher morale, low levels of learning, and student dropout.
- There is a mismatch between teacher specialisation and appointments, with, for instance, many primary teachers ending up at secondary schools.
- Pupil-teacher ratios (PTR) in the Annual School Censuses (ASC) do not always reflect the reality in classrooms, which often have higher PTR than suggested by the ASCs.
- Teacher motivation is low and attrition is high, largely due to:
  - Low and irregular payments,
  - The low status of the teaching profession, and
  - Promotion based on years of experience rather than competence or performance.
- Low teacher morale contributes to poor teacher professionalism, including absenteeism, especially in rural areas.
- Teacher professional development is extremely important for teacher motivation and performance; but
• Little is known about learning processes in teacher training institutions, and
• Teacher education tends to focus on technical rather than social aspects of teaching.
• The government and development partners are actively pursuing projects that improve teacher training.

2.2. Teacher supply and demand in Nigeria

16. There are very few recent high quality studies on teacher supply and demand in Nigeria. While some papers outline the general problem of teacher supply and demand in Nigeria (e.g. Omo-Ojugo 2009), the EDOREN literature review identified only one detailed study: Thomas (2011) on teacher supply and demand in Jigawa and Kwara, conducted for the Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria (ESSPIN), a DFID-funded project. This study was based on documentary review and interviews with key stakeholders, and found a severe shortage of qualified teachers in Jigawa but not in Kwara, notwithstanding some concerns around the quality of the Annual School Census data on which the findings are based. Specifically:

• Kwara had PTRs of 14:1 at primary and 19:1 at Junior Secondary School (JSS) for qualified teachers. However, some LGAs with much higher PTRs – up to 42:1 at primary level and 63:1 at JSS, with PTRs much worse in rural schools.
• Jigawa had a very high primary PTR overall: 96:1, while at JSS it was 30:1, again for qualified teachers.
• There was a substantial difference between the two states in the proportion of teachers that were qualified. 85% of teachers in Kwara were qualified, meaning holding an NCE or simply being graduates. Only 44% of teachers in Jigawa were qualified. Unqualified teachers mean those holding a grade two teaching certificate (the majority) and others. Anecdotal data suggest that qualification does not necessarily equate with effectiveness.

17. The study recommends that in order to rectify the situation, capacity needs to be strengthened in:

• pre-service and in-service teacher training and support from SUBEBs. Improvements in pre-service training were consider the activities most likely to lead to a sustainable improvement, given the low levels of quality of most teachers.
• processes for assessing need;
• processes for deployment; and
• processes for appraisal and promotion.

18. In addition to this study, Tao and Uwuamadi (2012) identify issues hindering the effective rural deployment of female teachers, and propose possible solutions. They identify six barriers: (i) Family, (ii) Living Conditions, (iii) Security, (iv) Mobility, (v) Working Conditions, and (vi) Salary, and propose a holistic package of solutions. However, in order to know more about how to improve deployment, we need to understand more about teacher supply and demand. Following Thomas (2011), the present study therefore aims in part to rectify the absence of quality teacher supply and demand studies in Nigeria.

2.3. Education policy and access in Katsina

19. This section briefly discusses education policy and access outcomes in Katsina. A more detailed analysis is in Annex C.

20. The Katsina State Education Sector Plan (SESP) 2011-2020 has objectives in line with national goals of universal basic education (UBE) of nine years (six years of primary education (P1–P6) and three years of junior secondary education (JSS1–JSS3)). With regard to teachers, the main SESP goals are (i) to
increase the number of qualified teachers through in-service education training to 3,312 by 2013 coupled with the progressive enforcement of the minimum NCE teaching qualification in primary schools; and (ii) reduce the STR to 60:1 in primary school and 40:1 in JSS through the recruitment of an additional 4,404 primary school teachers and 1,356 JSS teachers.

21. According to ASC data (on which see EDOREN 2013 for major quality concerns), there are currently 523 pre-primary only schools (early child care development centres), 2,209 pre-primary and primary schools, 237 junior and 230 senior secondary schools and 106 combined (junior and senior) secondary schools in the government sector in Katsina. Most schools are small, with 45% of primary and 67% of JSS schools having fewer than 500 students.

22. In general, educational outcomes in Katsina are very poor. Enrolments are increasing according to ASCs, and survey data\(^2\) suggest that enrolment and attendance rates may be increasing slowly as well, but primary net attendance ratios from survey data were still below 50% in 2011 (Mezger 2014).\(^3\) Primary gross attendance ratios are slightly higher, estimated at around 55% for girls and 72.5% for boys in the 2011 MICS, dropping to 27.2% and 45.1% at JSS level. Very few attend primary school, according to the 2010 NEDS. A substantial proportion of children (45%) have never attended school, compared with 31% for the country as a whole (NEDS 2010). Learning outcomes in Katsina are amongst the worst in the country: only 19% of children aged 5-16 can read and 38% are numerate, according to the 2010 NEDS.

23. Teacher competence is also extremely low: a 2014 Teacher Development Needs Assessment (TDNA) found that only three of the 2,281 teachers interviewed in GEP3 and control schools in Katsina had sufficient levels of professional knowledge to be effective in their classrooms, with 4.1% having ‘near sufficient’ levels and 32% emergent skills (Johnson and Hsieh 2014).\(^4\) 63.8% had insufficient levels of professional knowledge and skills to be effective in classrooms. These low levels of competence echo a 2008 study by Hardman et al that found pervasive use of a pedagogy of teacher-led recitation, rote and choral response, and passive pupils. This raises significant concerns about teacher supply.

2.4. Teacher development programmes in Katsina

24. This section briefly discusses the education programmes working on teachers in Katsina. DFID funds two programmes that are seeking to improve the quality of teachers in Katsina. GEP has been working in Katsina (and four other states) since 2008, with mixed success:

- Women were encouraged to take part in pre-service teacher training through the Female Teacher Training Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS). EDOREN has conducted research on the FTTSS that identified significant problems in the deployment of graduates to rural areas, in keeping with generalised findings on female teachers (Dunne et al 2014).
- School based teacher development (SbTD), and linked support to head teachers, sought to improve in-service teacher training through a cascade training model. A UNICEF review of the SbTD in 2013 found a number of problems with this support, including that the PRT at Primary grades 1 and 2 is extremely high, compromising the effectiveness of in-service training. This component is being remodelled from 2014 onwards to resemble more closely the Teacher Development Programme’s approach (see below).

25. The Teacher Development Programme (TDP) seeks to improve the quality of in-service and pre-service training in Katsina (and five other states), and will start implementing from 2014. The in-service model (the bulk of the TDP’s work) involves an innovative technology-based set of materials

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\(^2\) The 2008 and 2010 Demographic and Health Survey/Nigerian Education Data Survey (DHS/NEDS) and 2011 Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS). See Mezger 2014 for a discussion of the validity of comparisons between these surveys and a reworking of micro-data to improve comparability.

\(^3\) Net attendance ratios reflect the proportion of the school-age children currently attending school.

\(^4\) These data are not representative of Katsina state overall.
for teachers supported by head teacher support and support and monitoring from LGEA based
teacher facilitation and teacher development teams. The GEP3 SbTD component will take a similar
approach, extended to Islamic schools and with additional material for unqualified teachers.

26. Both the GEP3 SbTD and the TDP assume a certain level of deployment and basic teacher
competence. The present study explores some of the issues around deployment and supply in more
detail, and may be of value to these programmes by exploring some of their basic assumptions, and
offering the opportunity for focused intervention to complement them.
PART A: TEACHER SUPPLY
3. Teacher education policies and enrolments

27. This section provides an introduction to teacher educational policies and enrolments in Katsina. This includes an overview of teacher policy goals and the institutional framework around them, interviewees’ views of these goals and institutions, student teacher enrolment requirements, enrolments, intake quotas and quality, class sizes, repetition and dropout rates, and graduations. This provides the underpinning for the analysis of teacher supply.

3.1. Overview

3.1.1. Policy goals and institutional framework

28. Teacher education provision in Katsina State follows the National Education Policy, the Teacher Education Policy (TEP) and all the other key education policies of the Federal Government of Nigeria. The overall goal of the TEP is to produce quality primary and secondary school teachers. There are two Colleges of Education (CoEs) and two universities that train teachers in Katsina State. The CoEs are the FCE in Katsina and the Isaa Kaita College of Education (IKCE), which is located in Dutsinma. The two universities are the Federal University at Dutsinma (FUD) and Umaru Musa Yar’adua University (UMYU) in Katsina. The universities train high-level personnel for all sectors while the CoEs focus exclusively on the training of teachers for primary schools and JSS in accordance with the overall UBE policy goals. For the purposes of brevity, this section focuses on CoEs, but results for universities are presented in Annex D.

3.1.2. Stakeholder perceptions of policy goals and institutions

29. While there is widespread support among teacher educators for the goals and underlying principles of the TEP, they are acutely conscious of a number of major implementation challenges that still have to be surmounted. The most commonly cited among the management and lecturer interview respondents are:

- There is institutional misalignment of teacher education programmes with the prescribed school curriculum. In particular, some of the new teacher education programmes, such as special education, primary education, adult education, and early childhood care and education, are still not offered by universities at the degree level.
- In terms of minimum teacher qualifications, all newly appointed primary school teachers should have a NCE. However, this is still not strictly enforced.
- The overall quality of teacher education is poor and the learning environments for both teacher educators and school students are seriously inadequate.
- Lack of political will at all levels means that pressing problems concerning teacher supply, recruitment, retention, etc. are not being dealt with adequately.
- The Katsina State Government (KSG) is yet to comply fully with regulations of the Teachers’ Registration Council of Nigeria.
- Some state training institutions are not autonomous, especially with regard to state funding. At UMYU, salaries are being paid directly by KSG on a monthly basis.
- The National Policy on Education should have full legal backing so that it is enforceable through the courts.
- The teacher education curriculum is overloaded, especially at the NCE level. Student-teachers have to grapple with two teaching subjects in most cases, in addition to education and general courses, such as English language, mathematics, primary education studies, and information and communication technology (ICT).
• There is an urgent need to improve the relevance of teacher education programmes. In particular, teacher education should fully embrace ICT in order to be relevant in the 21st century and meet the contemporary needs of the society.

30. No systematic human resource planning is undertaken in order to establish annual student intake targets for the main areas of specialisation at either the CoEs or the faculties of education.

3.2. Student teacher enrolments and graduates

3.2.1. Enrolment requirements

31. Admission into the NCE programme requires credits in five subjects (including English language and mathematics) in the Senior Secondary Certificate Examination of the National Examination Council (NECO) or the West African Examination Council (WAEC) (Ordinary level). Two of the subject credits must be relevant to the course candidates wish to study. Credits in English and mathematics are required for all NCE courses in order to meet departmental requirements. In the past, various concessions were made, but this is no longer the case.

32. For school leavers who do not have the required credits, the two CoEs offer remedial and pre-NCE courses. Candidates with two and three credits are eligible for the remedial and pre-NCE courses respectively. The two CoEs have taken steps to tighten up their entrance requirements. In particular, FCE no longer allows students with five subject credits but without English and mathematics to enrol on the NCE course since most of them failed to obtain credit passes in these two subjects. IKCE also requires applicants to sit an aptitude test. The same treatment is given to students from all 34 LGAs in the state.

3.2.2. Enrolments

33. For most of the last decade, total annual NCE enrolments at IKCE have been in the range of 3,000–4,000. Total IKCE enrolment in 2013/14 is 3,916 (see Table 3.1).\(^5\) Intake quotas are set by the NCCE and are based on accreditation agreements. Intakes are largely determined by the overall training capacities of the CoEs rather than specific demands for new teachers by SOME and SUBEB.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3.1 NCE enrolments at IKCE, 2005/06–2013/14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005/06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006/07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008/09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009/10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010/11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011/12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012/13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013/14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: College records

\(^5\) Enrolment data for other programmes, in particular Remedial and Pre-NCE, were requested but not forthcoming.
34. Annual NCE enrolments at FCE have fluctuated quite markedly over the last decade. Enrolments were around 3,000–3,600 between 2011 and 2013 but, currently, are over double that number (see tables 3.2 and 3.3). The remedial programme is also quite large, with over 2,600 students currently enrolled. By contrast, the post-graduate diploma programme has only 150 students.

Table 3.2 Enrolment at the Federal CoE, Katsina, 2005–13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1,703</td>
<td>719</td>
<td>2,422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>1,342</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>1,898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>1,432</td>
<td>631</td>
<td>2,063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>1,123</td>
<td>631</td>
<td>1,935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>3,016</td>
<td>1,681</td>
<td>4,697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>1,701</td>
<td>1,025</td>
<td>2,726</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>1,892</td>
<td>1,171</td>
<td>3,063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>2,031</td>
<td>1,153</td>
<td>3,154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>2,409</td>
<td>1,169</td>
<td>3,578</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: College records

Table 3.3 FCE enrolment by programme and gender, January 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study type</th>
<th>Remedial</th>
<th>NCE</th>
<th>Post-graduate diploma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-time</td>
<td>1,719</td>
<td>925</td>
<td>3,921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,719</td>
<td>925</td>
<td>4,512</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: FCE, Katsina

35. Around one-third of students at both CoEs are women. The Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS) (which is a key component of the UNICEF Girls’ Education Project) sponsors the NCE training at IKCE of young women from rural areas where relatively very few female teachers are employed.

Intake quotas

36. There are no intake quotas by sex and subject area at FCE and IKCE. However, FCE, being a federal educational institution, has state quotas. The college is seeking to boost its enrolments. The National Education Policy’s NCE intake policy of 60% sciences and 40% humanities is not strictly enforced mainly because many students opt for humanities (which includes social sciences). There are no LGA quotas for either of the state-level teacher educator institutions.

Intake quality

The academic quality of the intakes at FCE varies by department. Generally, though, the academic quality is reasonable. Applicants without mathematics studies were formally given concessions, but now JAMB cannot give admission without credits in English and mathematics. At IKCE, the academic quality of intakes is considered to be acceptable. For the past two years, International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE) performance has improved in mathematics. However, students do not perform as well in English (see table 3.4).
Table 3.4 IKCE intakes with D grade and above in the English and mathematics IGCSE examinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session</th>
<th>English D</th>
<th>English C</th>
<th>English B</th>
<th>English A</th>
<th>Mathematics D</th>
<th>Mathematics C</th>
<th>Mathematics B</th>
<th>Mathematics A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005/06</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006/07</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/08</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008/09</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010/11</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011/12</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012/13</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IKCE, Dutsinma

Class size

37. Class sizes at IKCE are generally very large. In core education subjects, there can be more than 1,000 students attending lectures.

Repetition and dropout rates

38. Over 12,000 students dropped out of FCE between 2005 and 2013. The three main reasons for this are that students are only allowed to be placed on probation once, some gain admission to universities, and students must complete their NCE within five years. Although student dropouts at IKCE have increased over the last 10 years, the overall dropout rate was only 2.1% in 2012/13 (see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5 Student dropouts at IKCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Dropout rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005/06</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006/07</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/08</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008/09</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010/11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011/12</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012/13</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IKCE records

Graduates

39. Annual graduate outputs from IKCE have been in the region of 1,000 in recent years (see Table 3.6). The official results for 2011/12 and 2012/13 are still pending. Females accounted for 41% of graduates between 2009/10 and 2011/12. The first batch of 28 FTTSS students only graduated in 2011/12. Data from the FCE were not available.
Table 3.6 NCE graduates from IKCE, 2005/06–2011/12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2005/06</td>
<td>579</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006/07</td>
<td>589</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007/08</td>
<td>482</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008/09</td>
<td>804</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>1,079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>752</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>1,079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010/11</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>1,004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011/2012</td>
<td>501</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>891</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IKCE records
4. **Staffing and resource utilisation**

40. This section discusses staffing and resource mobilisation patterns for the two Colleges of Education in Katsina. Information on the two universities with faculties of education – and which also train a small number of teachers – are in Annex D. This covers teacher educator staff (qualifications, experience, pay, workload, attrition, and student teacher – teacher educator ratios), and funding for Colleges of Education (overall funding and physical facilities). This gives us a vital background on the key institutions contributing to the supply of teachers in Katsina state by training them.

4.1. **Teaching staff**

41. In 2013, a total of 479 education lecturers were employed at the two CoEs (FCE 272, IKCE 205).

4.1.1. **Qualification profiles**

42. The minimum academic qualification for lecturers at IKCE is a first degree. The minimum teaching qualification is a NCE, Professional Diploma in Education or PGDE. The lecturer qualification profile at IKCE is particularly weak. While nearly half (46%) have post-graduate degrees at FCE, only 17 (15%) of the 117 IKCE lecturers recruited since 2005 have post-graduate qualifications (see tables 4.1 and 4.2). One reason that there are so few lecturers with post-graduate degrees (especially doctorates) is that universities offer considerably better conditions of service and higher status. Pay levels at IKCE are particularly low (see below). While the lecturer qualification profile at FCE is improving, it is weakening at IKCE. Half of the IKCE lecturers with post-graduate qualifications only have a PGDE.

**Table 4.1 Qualification profile of FCE lecturers, 2005–13**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>219</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>272</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: FCE records

**Table 4.2 Qualification profile of IKCE lecturers by year of appointment, 2005–14**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th><strong>Total</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Higher National Diploma</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IKCE records

4.1.2. **Work experience**

43. The overall experience profiles of education lecturers at IKCE are quite weak, with the large majority of staff having less than 10 years of experience (see Table 4.3). There are no data for FCE. CoE lecturers generally lack practical teaching experience in schools. Both CoE and university lecturers generally lack practical teaching experience in schools.
Table 4.3 Years of service of education lecturers at IKCE, March, 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>&lt;5</th>
<th>5–10</th>
<th>11–15</th>
<th>16–20</th>
<th>&gt;20 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IKCE records

4.1.3. **Pay**

44. Table 4.7 shows the Consolidated Tertiary Institutions Salary Structure pay scales for teaching staff at IKCE.

Table 4.4 Annual salary for IKCE teaching staff (NGN million rounded)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary grade and position</th>
<th>Minimum amount (NGN million)</th>
<th>Maximum amount (NGN million)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7 Assistant lecturer</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Lecturer III</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Lecturer II</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Lecturer II</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Lecturer I</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Senior lecturer</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Principal lecturer</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Chief lecturer</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: College records

4.1.4. **Workload**

45. The workload for education lecturers at FCE is from 12 to 16 periods a week, which is quite low compared to other CoEs in Nigeria. However, the college is understaffed in some departments. By contrast, the workload at IKCE is very high, mainly because the School of Education includes general courses and there is such a large number of vacancies (over 40 in early 2014). For example, in the Agriculture Education Department, there are 47 courses per session handled by five staff, some of whom are holding administrative posts. In the Home Economics Department, five lecturers are responsible for 43 courses in a session. For technical education, the workload is also high; eight lecturers have to teach 79 courses per session (see Table 4.5 for other departments).

Table 4.5 Average workloads at IKCE by department, 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Workload hours/week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemistry</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer science</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated science</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical health education</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physics</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IKCE records

4.1.5. **Attrition**

46. The attrition rate at FCE has been low; there have been only 25 ‘departures’ during the last eight years (i.e. an average of three per year). Most attrition has been involuntary (i.e. deaths, retirements...
The number of deaths does appear to be quite high (see Table 4.6). Attrition has also been quite low at IKCE (see Table 4.7). The bulk of departures are resignations. Over the years, the college has lost a considerable number of staff (especially in 2007) to newly established educational institutions including FUD and UMYU.

### Table 4.6 Lecturer attrition at FCE, 2005–13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resignation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retirement</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract end</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total staff 2013</strong></td>
<td><strong>281</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: College records

### Table 4.7 Lecturer attrition at IKCE, 2006–13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resignation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retirement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: College records

4.1.6. **Student teacher ratios**

47. STRs at the FCE averaged 33:1 between 2005 and 2013. The STR at IKCE is around 30:1. The overall STR for the two education degree courses at FUD is 9:1.

4.2. **Funding**

4.2.1. **Overall funding**

48. The sources of funding for FCE are the federal government and consultancy. IKCE relies heavily on funding from the state government and the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund) (see Table 4.8). With nearly 4,000 students, the current NGN 35 million annual state allocations for recurrent funding is seriously inadequate. Capital funding is very limited given the urgent need to increase teaching and accommodation infrastructure. Moreover, only 63% of the Katsina State Government (KSG) capital allocation was actually released between 2010 and 2012. Unit recurrent funding from the state amounts to only around NGN 7,500 per annum. The college is obliged, therefore, to rely heavily on other sources, in particular internally generated income from student fees and other levies. The need

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6 Some transfers could also be involuntary in that they are management-driven.
to maximise internally generated revenue (IGR) is an important incentive for increasing student enrolments.

Table 4.8 Allocated and accessed funding at IKCE, 2010–12 (NGN million rounded)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Funding category</th>
<th>Allocation</th>
<th>Accessed/released</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KSG capital allocation</td>
<td>343</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSG recurrent allocation</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TETFund</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGR</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Na</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: College records

49. The issue of poor funding has seriously aggravated the problems of teacher education in Nigeria. Under-funding is reflected in the lack of current textbooks and journals, whose costs have become prohibitive, and also insufficiency of workshop equipment and laboratory materials. The much talked about ICT in colleges, which would have relieved the shortage of current texts and journals, is still a mirage in most cases. Interviewees feel that under-funding has also affected the quality of training, especially of NCE teachers at state CoEs.

4.2.2. Physical facilities

50. Based on researcher observations and interviews with staff, the classrooms at FCE are inadequate and not well-equipped although some departments have interactive boards. Laboratories are not adequate given the number of students. The library is very poorly stocked. Internet access is functional, but e-learning is yet to take off. Reasonable hostel accommodation for male and female student is available, as are sports and recreational facilities in the college. Maintenance is generally poor. The physical facilities at IKCE are seriously inadequate. The main challenges are as follows:

- Classrooms and laboratories are deficient in all respects – number, quality and size.
- Library facilities are very poor. There are no departmental libraries. However, journals and textbooks can be downloaded online.
- Internet access is poor and is not available in staff offices.
- Very limited funding (mainly loans) has been available to buy computers.
- The sporting facilities are in need of total rehabilitation.

51. Physical facilities and funding are better in the Faculties of Education at the two universities (see Annex D) than at the Colleges of Education. However, the data currently do not permit an analysis of whether this affects the quality of teacher training or the effectiveness of teachers produced.
5. Teacher education programmes: relevance, quality and outcomes

52. This section discusses the various aspects of teacher education programmes: the curriculum rationale and objectives, skills of teacher educators, quality assurance and assessment, continuous professional development for teacher educators, and employment outcomes. Again, information on universities is in Annex D.

5.1. Curriculum rationale and objectives

53. The breadth and depth of the teacher education curricula and the quality of instruction and the overall learning environment determine the quality of the teacher graduates from the CoEs and universities. Well-trained, quality teachers must have adequate subject content knowledge, pedagogic knowledge and pedagogic content knowledge. Content knowledge is the knowledge of the subject matter or the content of the teaching subject. Pedagogic knowledge is the knowledge of the art of teaching – that is, the basic principles of teaching such as how to use the chalkboard, ask questions, write lesson notes and evaluate teaching. Pedagogic content knowledge is the knowledge of how to teach content, usually taught during subject methodology classes. It is the bridge between content and pedagogy.

5.1.1. Curriculum coverage and alignment

54. The focus of the CoE curriculum should be to prepare teachers for basic education (i.e. primary school and JSS). The core education course is compulsory for all students, who, in addition, have two subject specialisations. However, there are some major issues concerning the alignment between, on the one hand, the curricula of the CoEs and, on the other hand, the primary and secondary school curricula. The NCCE is in the process of introducing a new curriculum for the CoEs, which, if properly implemented, should ensure good alignment between the two sets of curricula.

55. The current NCE curriculum at IKCE is adequately adhered to with effective quality assurance and external moderation. In terms of curriculum alignment, the course is well structured, with the college closely following NCCE requirements with regard to minimum academic standards. Much greater attention is now being given to ensuring that the NCE curriculum is more closely focused on effective teacher preparation for primary schools and JSS.

5.2. Teaching skills

5.2.1. Practical teaching skills

56. Translating the skills acquired in college to effective teaching practice in schools is difficult. To address this, micro-teaching practice has often been a component of teacher education programmes, though is becoming less mainstream internationally. In Katsina, micro-teaching sessions for each student are typically only 10 minutes long whereas lesson duration is 35–40 minutes in most schools. FCE Katsina tries to get around this problem by getting students to teach full lessons at the college’s own demonstration primary school.

5.2.2. Teaching practice

57. Internationally, structured professional practice is a key feature of teacher education programmes. Its organisation and conduct determine the standards of practical experience acquired by the student-teachers. Supervision is by both institution-based supervisors and school-based cooperating teachers.
58. The establishment of the CoEs in Nigeria was a key recommendation of the 1981 National Policy on Education. One of the goals of teacher education is to produce highly motivated, conscientious and efficient classroom teachers for primary schools and JSS. Towards this goal, teaching practice has become the essential element in the preparation of teachers. Teaching practice provides formal practical application of the various theoretical elements required during college teaching and learning. All final year students must undertake supervised teaching practice for a minimum of one full semester (i.e. 26 weeks). Ideally, they are expected to complete a one-year internship, but this rarely happens. Given the practical difficulties of teaching practice, many lecturers and students feel that even one semester is too long.

59. Interviews and documentary analysis suggest that there are two main problems with teaching practice at IKCE. First, and quite intractable short-term, lecturers have far too many students to supervise so this is not done properly. Typically, they have at least 40 students. Supervisors are expected to visit each student at least three times but, in practice, only one visit is usually possible. Quite apart from student numbers, adequate funding is not available for lecturers to visit schools which often require overnight visits.

60. Second, the schools should provide strong ongoing mentorship and support to students, but most do not do this effectively. It is not clear what incentives are in place for mentoring to be taken seriously. Students generally find the school and learning environments in most schools very challenging and can, as a result, become discouraged.

61. NCCE minimum academic standards stipulate that all NCE students must complete a one-year internship. The Teacher Registration Council is supposed to pay graduate students during their internship, but this rarely happens. At FCE, all NCE students in the Business Education, Agricultural Education, Fine and Applied Arts, Home Economics and Computer Science Departments must complete two two-month industrial attachments. Finding appropriate organisations has been a major challenge.

62. Overall, there are a number of deviations from expected teaching practice and what actually happens.

5.2.3 Teacher competence and student learning outcomes

63. Section 2 briefly discussed teacher competence and learning outcomes in Katsina. A comprehensive assessment of teacher professional knowledge and skills and student learning outcomes was conducted in mid-late 2013 in Katsina and the other four states participating in GEP3. The expected ('benchmark') score for teachers is 80% or more. Only 2 out of the 2281 teachers sampled in primary schools in Katsina State achieved this level. Nearly two-thirds of teachers have 'limited professional knowledge' with test scores of less than 25%). Students were also comprehensively assessed based on 10 specific numeracy-related tests. Learning outcomes are very low. For example, only 6% of grade 4 and 26% of Grade 6 students could read a simple 11-word sentence.

5.3. Quality assurance and assessment

5.3.1. CoE affiliation arrangements

64. The CoEs have affiliation arrangements with universities in order to accredit and moderate their university level courses. FCE is affiliated with Ahmadu Bello University in Zaria and Bayero University in Kano for its B.Ed. degree programme. The Centre for Continuing Education and Professional Development at IKCE offers a PGDE which is affiliated with Ahmadu Bello University. The two universities are autonomous degree-awarding institutions and therefore are not formally affiliated with any other institutions.
5.3.2. Quality assurance

65. The NCCE was established by Decree No. 3, of April 1989, as an agency to supervise all aspects of non-degree teacher education and teacher professionalism in Nigeria. The enabling decree was later amended by Decree No. 12, of 1 January 1993. The NUC is responsible for the accreditation of universities.

66. The National Policy on Education states that no education system can rise above the quality of its teachers. The NCCE has become even more strategic given the fact that the NCE has become the basic minimum qualification for entering into teaching profession in Nigeria. It harmonises entry requirements and duration of courses at the CoEs, sets and enforces minimum standards and accredits all qualifications.

67. NCCE regularly carries out accreditation of all the programmes offered by CoEs. After accreditation exercise, a programme could be given full accreditation, interim accreditation or denied accreditation. This exercise ensures that these colleges meet the standards set by the Commission. The NCCE produces minimum standards for all programmes of teacher education, which contain the syllabi, staff/student ratio, credit hours demands, instructional materials and equipment, evaluation methods, etc. required to produce an effective NCE teacher. The minimum standards document is usually reviewed every five years.

5.3.3. Assessment methods

68. The 1981 National Policy on Education introduced the 6-3-3-4 education system, which stresses continuous assessment as the basis for the overall evaluation of school students. A combination of continuous assessment scores and end of semester examination scores yields the course grade. The grading system used by the CoEs and other NCE-awarding institutions as approved by the NCCE is as follows:

- 40% weighting for continuous assessment and 60% for semester examination; and
- continuous assessment of students by means of formal and informal tests with the formal ones given a greater weight.

69. Assessment should normally be in workshops, laboratories, studios and field assessments. Each student is expected to have a minimum of 75% attendance in each course before he or she is qualified to write the course examination(s).

70. CoE lecturers are required to give assignments and tests two–three times a semester. External moderation starts at the 200 level. The response to moderation is fairly good. The academic boards (and not senates) approve assessment results. At IKCE, at least two tests and one assignment are stipulated each semester because of the large student population. All continuous assessment must consist of two tests of about one hour in duration each. These include practicals, homework, quizzes and semester papers and projects.

5.3.4. Credit weighting systems

71. All four teacher education institutions have course credit systems. This is a quantitative system of organisation of the curriculum in which subject areas are broken into units which are examinable, and for which students earn credits. Courses are assigned weights called credit units, which consist of a number of student–teacher contact hours per week and per semester. Credit units are used in complementary ways: as a measure of course weighing and as an indicator of workload. A course may earn one or more credit units. One credit unit may mean one lecture hour per week for 15
weeks of the semester. Two credit units may mean two lecture hours per week or a one-hour lecture plus two hours practical per week per semester of 15 weeks.

72. At IKCE, a one-hour lecture per week per semester is equal to one credit hour. Two or more hours of practical work per week per semester is equal to one credit hour. A course must have a minimum of one credit hour while the maximum will start at four credit hours. The credit load is the number of credits/hours a student would take in the semester. The minimum number of credit hours is 18 while the maximum is 24.

5.4. Continuous professional development

5.4.1. In-service training for lecturers at CoEs

73. In-service training for lecturers at the CoEs and faculties of education is designed to add to the knowledge and skills that they possess. It is the training that the lecturer receives after the beginning of his or her career. The training fills gaps and equips the lecturer with the skills required to improve his or her performance.

74. In-service training is fairly intensive at FCE Katsina; with the assistance of TETFund, most of the staff are sent for overseas training. The college sponsors staff’s in-service training, especially the TETFund. Lecturers are eager to engage in professional development because of the financial support for M.Sc. and PhD degrees by TETFund. In-service training is encouraged at IKCE; some of the staff are currently in Malaysia for study, some benefit from the state government and the college sponsors some of its staff. However, shorter-term in-service training is quite limited and erratic.

5.5. Employment outcomes

75. No tracer surveys have ever been undertaken in Katsina State in order to establish the employment and other outcomes of either NCE or university education degrees. While it is expected that most NCE graduates from the CoEs should teach in government primary schools and JSS, it is widely believed that many do not do so. Some take up jobs in other sectors (especially police and immigration services in recent years) while many others remain unemployed. This is despite the fact that there are acute shortages of teachers in both types of basic education schools.

76. It is possible to gauge roughly the extent to which NCE graduates are not employed as teachers by comparing SUBEB and SMOE recruitment figures for primary school and JSS teachers during the last five years with the overall number of NCE graduates from the two CoEs during the same period. A total of around 4,500 teachers have been recruited during this period whereas total NCE graduates have numbered around 10,000, which implies that approximately 55% of graduates are not employed in government primary schools and JSS. Some may have found their way into senior secondary schools and others are known to be employed by private schools.

77. This suggests that currently there is little or no connection between the demand and supply of teachers. Effective demand (i.e. the actual state recruitment of teachers for replacements and new posts) has fallen far behind output of the teacher education institutions. Consequently, there is now a large (although unspecified) pool of unemployed and under-employed NCE graduates. The very large number of applicants for advertised posts (over 10,000 for the last recruitment round by SUBEB) indicates the extent of this problem.

78. The next part explores the second piece of the puzzle: teacher employment and utilisation, before projecting future demand for teachers and expenditure in Part C.
PART B: TEACHER UTILISATION
6. Teacher employment and utilisation

79. This section analyses the current teachers in post in Katsina, including teacher recruitment, deployment, utilisation, and motivation.

6.1. Teachers in post: an overview

80. This section explores the characteristics of teachers currently employed in Katsina primary and JSS schools, in terms of annual recruitment, age, gender, qualifications, and experience, and includes a comment teacher shortages.

6.1.1. Total employment

81. According to the 2012/2013 Katsina Annual School Census (ASC), a total of 19,531 teachers were employed in government primary schools in 2012/13. SUBEB payroll data do not fully record the occupational status of all employees, but as many as 24,200 teachers were employed as teachers in government primary schools in early 2014. Average annual recruitment of primary school teachers was 665 between 2007 and 2012, almost exactly half annual recruitment levels in the period 2000 to 2006. Only 84 teachers were recruited by SUBEB in 2012. Annual recruitment levels fluctuate markedly, with the bulk of government teachers being appointed in the run-up to state and federal elections, most notably in 2007 and 2010 (see Figure 6.1). In 2006/07 alone, over 4,500 teachers were recruited by SUBEB compared with 4,000 during the following six years. Consequently, the number of primary school teachers increased by only 2.3% between 2008/09 and 2012/13. The Katsina State Government (KSG) announced that 3,000 teachers would be employed in 2013 (although this had not taken place at the time of writing).

Figure 6.1 Annual recruitment of government primary school teachers, 1992-2012

The quality problems of the ASC have been discussed above and elsewhere (Findlay 2013).
82. ASC data indicate that 4,802 government JSS teachers were in post in 2012/13. A total of 3,171 were employed in 2008/09. Teaching Service Board (TSB) records highlight the unevenness of the recruitment process for government secondary school teachers. Around 1,600 new posts were created in 2004 and 2005 and then another 2,000 posts in 2009 and 2010. The replacement of teachers has not kept pace with teacher departures since the last major round of recruitment of secondary school teachers in 2010. Even so, employment growth has been somewhat higher among JSS teachers than primary school teachers; numbers in post increased by 7% between 2008/09 and 2011/12.

83. A key reason for the overall limited growth in teacher numbers and thus the current acute teacher shortage is the KSG policy (enshrined in law) that 70% of the state budget must be allocated to capital expenditure, with only 30% remaining for recurrent expenditure, of which civil servant (including teacher) salaries account for the large majority. A freeze on public sector employment has also been in place since 2007.

6.1.2. Age and gender

84. The average age of primary school teachers is 41 for females and 42 for males, with very little variation across LGEAs, especially among male teachers. According to the ASC, one-quarter of primary and one-third of JSS teachers are women. SUBEB payroll data show that 28% of primary school teachers were women in early 2014 compared to around 20% in the preceding three years. The preferential employment of graduates from the FTTSS accounts for some, but certainly not all, of this improvement. The proportion of female teachers was as high as 35% in the mid-1990s but then declined rapidly to only 16% in 2000–01, for reasons not yet clear. Women occupy few management positions.

6.1.3. Qualification and experience profiles

85. Only 58.4% of primary school teachers were fully qualified in 2013. By contrast, nearly three-quarters of JSS teachers are fully qualified (see Table 6.1). The continuing high proportion of unqualified primary school teachers is due to the very large numbers of unqualified teachers who were recruited (often without due process) in the mid-2000s and the relatively limited recruitment of qualified teachers since then. Unqualified teachers have been required to enrol on qualification upgrading programmes but deadlines have not been enforced and the majority remain in post without having acquired the NCE qualification. LGEAs and KSG have, understandably, not been prepared to deal with the political fall-out of dismissing large numbers of unqualified teachers. It is very difficult, therefore, to rapidly improve the qualification profile of teachers, which is a major issue, especially in those LGEAs where the majority of teachers are not qualified.

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8 By contrast, TSB records state that only 4,585 teachers were employed at both junior and senior secondary schools in 2013 (state indigenes 4,185 and contract officers 400).
### Table 6.1 Primary and junior secondary teachers by qualification level, 2012/13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>University with TQ</th>
<th>University without TQ</th>
<th>NCE</th>
<th>Dip. Ed./OND</th>
<th>TCII/ACE</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>% unqualified</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary</strong></td>
<td>375</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>8,824</td>
<td>2,539</td>
<td>5,420</td>
<td>2,045</td>
<td>41.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Junior secondary</strong></td>
<td>1,611</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>4170</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>1,324</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Percentage breakdown

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>University with TQ</th>
<th>University without TQ</th>
<th>NCE</th>
<th>Dip. Ed./OND</th>
<th>TCII/ACE</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>% qualified</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary</strong></td>
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<td>0.7</td>
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<td>12.8</td>
<td>27.2</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
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<td>72.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: TQ: teacher qualification. OND: Ordinary National Diploma. JSS includes teachers with multiple qualifications. TCII: Teachers’ Grade Two Certificate. ACE: Associate Certificate in Education.

Source: ASC

86. The average years of work experience for primary school teachers is 18 years for women and 17 years for men. Almost two-thirds of primary school teachers have more than 10 years of work experience, which is high compared to most other countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Fewer than 100 primary school teachers have been in their job for only one or two years.

#### 6.1.4. Teacher shortages

87. Adhering to the Federal Ministry of Education’s nationally prescribed STR staffing norm of 40:1 would mean that a total of around 38,230 primary school teachers should be employed, which is roughly twice the number currently in post. Similarly, a total of 5,025 JSS teachers should be employed compared to the 4,802 in post in 2012/13. In overall terms, therefore, teacher shortages are much less in JSS. The key issue here is the very poor distribution of JSS teachers across the state (see below).

88. Despite the much lower overall STRs for junior secondary education, it is widely believed that the staffing situation in JSS is considerably worse than in primary schools. In part, this is because there is an automatic replacement policy for primary schools and a significant (but unrecorded) proportion of JSS are staffed by seconded staff from LGEAs. In addition, subject-based teaching (which is the norm at JSS) is more teacher-intensive. The prescribed 18-period workload norm (see below) means that every JSS class requires the equivalent of two teachers as opposed to only one for primary schooling.

89. Teacher shortages have increased as a result of state-sponsored enrolment drives, which have driven class sizes up.

90. The overall vacancy situation does not fully reflect actual unfilled posts because it does not take into account non-budgeted posts. Primary schools rely on informal recruitment, which narrows the pool of potential candidates for each post if informal recruitment is more local than formal recruitment. Teachers above retirement age can also be employed on a temporary basis for hard-to-fill vacancies.

91. There is an over-supply of teacher graduates in some subjects (especially Hausa and Islamic studies), which is mainly due to the pattern of school leaving examination results.

92. In an effort to redress teacher shortages, KSG has made available to each LGA NGN 1 million in order to employ 100 secondary school leavers as untrained (contract) teachers. They are paid a stipend of NGN 10,000 per month. Little information is available about how these teachers are utilised.
6.2. Teacher recruitment

6.2.1. The recruitment process

93. The SUBEB now has overall responsibility for the recruitment and deployment of primary school teachers. Vacant posts are openly advertised and all eligible (i.e. qualified) applicants are tested and graded. LGEAs can nominate (indigenous) teachers but they can only employ applicants with a minimum of a ‘fair’ grade. The Teaching Service Board (TSB) is responsible for the recruitment, promotion, discipline and general welfare of secondary school teachers on behalf of the SMOE. The board was established in October 2003. It is headed by a chairman/CEO, five permanent members and three other members representing the state university, parent–teachers associations and the Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT).

94. Graduates from UNICEF’s Female Teacher Training Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS) are automatically appointed but this only occurs when recruitment for replacement teachers arises. The first batch of FTTSS graduates had to wait up to three years before they were recruited. There are also many regular NCE female graduates who are unable to find teaching positions.

95. Out of the 2,000 applicants selected by the TSB in 2010, more than 600 left before they could be formally appointed. This was because of large recruitment drives by the military and paramilitary, whose pay and other conditions of service are more attractive than those of the teaching service.

6.2.2. The political economy of teacher recruitment

96. Until 2002 when responsibility for recruitment was taken on by the SUBEB, LGEAs were fully responsible for the recruitment of primary teachers. However, it was felt that at this point not all recruitment was based on meritocratic criteria; nor was there any adherence to rational staffing norms. According to one SUBEB director, LGA chairmen ‘handed out teaching jobs to their friends’, most of whom were not qualified. Given low levels of teacher turnover and relatively limited recruitment, the school system is still seriously affected by the adverse consequences of this legacy of dysfunctional teacher recruitment. There are still some concerns that the recruitment and deployment of teachers are still influenced by political affiliation and personal relationships.

97. As noted earlier, over 4,500 primary school teachers were recruited prior to the 2007 elections. While some LGAs took full advantage of this opportunity, others did not. In some LGAs, conflicts and disagreements between LGEA educational secretaries and LGA chairmen meant that few, if any, teachers were recruited.

98. The absence of local government democracy during the last six–seven years has had major implications for teacher staffing. Constitutionally, each LGA has the authority to decide how much it wishes to spend on primary schooling in its locality. However, in the absence of local government elections since 2007, it is contended that LGAs have lost de facto control over the federal budget allocations to the Office of the Governor. Although hard evidence is not available, it is widely believed that the Katsina government has prioritised capital expenditure and that LGA federal budget allocations have been utilised for infrastructure projects, which has resulted in mounting teacher shortages.

99. With the prospect of a return to elected LGAs in the near future, LGAs will be in a stronger position to regain control of their federal government budget allocations and thus be in a position to recruit more teachers. This, in addition to the expected pre-election surge in teacher recruitment, should lead therefore to a considerable increase in the supply of teachers over the next one–two years.
6.3. **Teacher deployment**

100. Very sizeable variations exist in the staffing situation with regard to both primary and JSS teachers, both among the 34 LGAs across the state as a whole and among schools within each LGA. It is difficult, therefore, to discern any consistent pattern in how schools are staffed.

6.3.1. **State-level deployment**

101. SUBEB is now responsible for staffing primary schools on behalf of the LGAs. SMOE posts secondary school teachers to seven zonal offices. Zonal directors are then responsible for posting teachers to schools in their zones. Postings are decided upon according to requests from individual schools as well as the qualifications and areas of specialisation of the teachers who are available for posting.

102. STRs: The variation in STRs between LGAs is very large (see Figures 6.2 and 6.3). For primary schooling, six LGAs are relatively well-staffed, with STRs of 60:1 or less, although it is noticeable that none have the prescribed STR of 40:1. By contrast, nine LGAs have STRs of over 100:1. For JSS, half of all LGAs have STRs lower than 40:1 (and are, therefore, over-staffed with respect to the prescribed staffing norm of 40:1) while five LGAs have STRs of over 80:1.

**Figure 6.2 Student-teacher ratios for primary schools by LGA, 2012/13**

![Graph showing STRs for primary schools by LGA, 2012/13](source: ASC)
Figure 6.3 Student–teacher ratios for junior secondary schools by LGEA, 2012/13

Source: ASC

103. **Gender and marital status**: The deployment of women teachers across the state is very uneven. The proportion of women teachers is less than 10% in 10 LGEAs but over 30% in four LGEAs (see Figure 6.4). Almost 60% of primary school teachers in Katsina LGEA are women. A similar uneven spatial distribution of women teachers prevails among JSS.
Figure 6.4 Share of primary school teachers that are women, by LGEA, 2013

Source: ASC

104. **Age and experience**: Typically in the developing country context, younger teachers tend to be concentrated in harder-to-staff schools in rural areas, especially those in remote locations. However, in Katsina State, the degree of variation in the age and experience profiles of teachers among the 34 LGEAs is relatively limited. The average age of women teachers is only noticeably lower in Kusada and Sabuwa LGEAs, where some FTTSS graduates have been posted in the last three years.

105. **Qualifications**: The variations among LGEAs in the proportions of primary school teachers who are qualified are very marked, especially among female teachers (see Figure 6.5). In the large majority of LGEAs less than half of teachers are qualified. In eight LGEAs, less than one-third of women primary school teachers are qualified. The inter-LGA variation in the proportions of JSS teachers who are qualified is less marked, but is still considerable (see figure 6.6).
Figure 6.5 Share of female primary school teachers who are qualified, by LGEA, 2012/13

Source: ASC

Figure 6.6 Share of JSS teachers who are qualified, by LGEA, 2012/13
6.3.2. LGEA-level deployment

Even at the LGEA level, the staffing levels of both primary schools and JSS vary considerably. The scatter plots of enrolments and teachers at each primary school in Mashi and Baure LGEAs are typical (see Figures 6.7 and 6.8). The dispersion in these plots is striking, which is symptomatic of the lack of any consistent staffing policies for these schools. For example, in both of these LGEAs, the schools with around 500 students have anything between three and 19 teachers. If LGEAs strictly adhered to the 40:1 STR staffing norm, then the scatter plots would be a series of regular steps as enrolments increase (see above figures). The fact that nearly all the actual enrolment-teacher scatter plots are beneath these steps indicates that most schools are under-staffed with respect to the prescribed staffing norm. Even if LGEAs do not have the funding to reach the 40:1 STR target, concerted efforts to ensure that all schools under their management are consistently and equitably staffed would result in relatively little variation in the STRs for each school.

Figure 6.7 Enrolments and teachers at primary schools in Baure LGEA, 2012/13

Source: ASC
Given that the SMOE has overall control over the posting of all junior secondary teachers across the state, one would expect to observe a more uniform and consistent staffing pattern. However, as can be observed in Figure 6.9, the dispersion in the school scatter plots is as marked as for primary schools in individual LGEAs. Superimposing the stepwise scatter plot pattern that would prevail if all schools kept to the 40:1 staffing norm again serves to highlight the absence of any uniformity in staffing practices. Almost as many schools are over-staffed (plots above the steps) as they are under-staffed (plots below the steps).
6.3.3. **Key explanatory factors**

108. There are four main reasons for the markedly uneven staffing situation among primary and secondary schools. The interplay among these explanatory factors is both variable and complex. Firstly, there are relatively large numbers of hard-to-staff rural schools. Given a free choice, and in the absence of any additional financial or other incentives, most teachers are reluctant to work at schools in rural locations, which typically have no, or very poor quality, teacher housing with no running water or electricity and challenging work environments (often with classrooms constructed from bush materials or corrugated iron sheets). Poor roads are also a major factor. It is also often more stressful teaching in rural schools because teachers have to teach classes across multiple grades. By contrast, staff deployment is not generally a major problem in urban schools. SMoE is planning to provide a ‘hardship’ allowance (probably of NGN 4,000–5,000 per month) for teachers in remote schools, but this is probably too small to overcome the disadvantages of working in these locations. TSB and SMoE officials reported that many teachers who are appointed fail to report for duty at their assigned schools.

109. Secondly, the variation is the result of the perpetuation of historical differences in staffing levels between LGEAs and zones (in the case of JSS teachers) due to the relatively limited creation of new teaching posts during the last five–seven years. The number of secondary schools has doubled during this period but newly established schools have not been able to recruit nearly as many teachers as they require, given enrolment levels, as older schools.

110. Thirdly, the decentralisation of primary education at the LGA level has resulted in a wide range of de facto policies and practices with regard to this level of schooling. LGAs are free to decide how much priority they attach to primary education. The capacity of LGAs to support primary education also varies widely. Older and typically larger LGAs generally have more resources than smaller, more
recently localised governments. Decentralisation also means that staff mobility between LGEAs is very limited since teachers are appointed by the LGEA in which they posted.

111. The dominant practice among LGAs of only appointing indigenes of their LGA is another consequence of decentralisation. In the context of limited employment opportunities such a practice is understandable but it works against LGAs that have relatively limited numbers of teacher graduates coming through the CoEs and universities and increases the likelihood that untrained or under-qualified teachers will continue to be appointed.

112. And fourthly, it is generally difficult to deploy women teachers to most rural schools. Only 5% of women primary school teachers are single, which restricts their deployment outside of urban areas since, quite understandably, they are not willing to be separated from their husbands. Only in four LGEAs (Batsari, Ingawa, Kurfi, and Sabuwa) does this percentage rise above 10%. Thus, in the absence of major locational incentives, policies such as the FTTSS which encourage the increased recruitment of women teachers may well exacerbate the uneven deployment of teachers. SUBEB and SMOE are trying hard to rectify these acute spatial imbalances in the deployment of teachers but locational, social, political and economic factors are major constraints.

6.4. Teacher utilisation

113. The STR is the key indicator of teacher utilisation. It has two components, namely the student–class group (class size) and the teacher–stream/class group ratios. This latter ratio determines the overall teaching load of teachers. However, it is noticeable that there are no explicit class size norms and/or teaching period norms in Katsina State. This is a major issue because schools with the same STR can have very different class sizes and teaching loads. Ideally, therefore, there should be class size and teaching load norms, but this would considerably complicate teacher deployment and utilisation.

114. The SMOE’s Education Resource Centre has recently been seeking to standardise and harmonise period allocations across schools. School visits have ‘revealed so many lapses on the timetable regarding period allocations and minimum workload for teachers in state primary and secondary schools leading to poor management of apparently scarce teachers’.

6.4.1. Teaching modalities

115. As in most other national education systems, class-based teaching is the official policy at government schools. In other words, primary school teachers are expected to teach the prescribed curriculum for all subjects to the same class all of the time, which means that all teaching loads should be 40 periods per week with a uniform teacher–stream ratio (TSR) of 1:1. In practice, however, subject-based (‘rotation’) teaching with teachers specialising in specific subjects is relatively common, in particular in relatively well-staffed primary schools in the main urban areas. Although the SMOE has officially proscribed this form of teaching, this decision has yet to be widely implemented.

116. NCE teachers are only trained in two main subjects and, especially given their generally poor educational background, many find having to teach all the subjects in primary school very demanding. This is further compounded by the practice of teachers moving with the same class from P1 to P6, which requires teachers having to get to grips with a new curriculum every year.

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9 Teaching periods are equal to total timetabled teaching periods per week (40) divided by the teacher–class group ratio. For example, if this ratio is 1.5:1, then the average teaching load is 26.6 periods per week.

10 For example, one school with a STR of 30:1 can have an average class size of 60 with teachers only teaching 20 periods a week whereas another school with a STR of 30:1 could have an average class size of 30 and teachers teaching all 40 periods.

teaching is understandable given the considerable demands of the curriculum coupled with the generally poor education and training of teachers.

6.4.2. Teaching loads

117. The TSR varies very considerably between individual schools and between LGAs (see Figure 6.10). In 25 out of a total of 34 LGAs, the TSR is 1:1 or less, which means not only that teachers are fully occupied but also, because these schools have more streams than teachers, teachers have to cover more than one class/stream. In other words, multi-grade teaching is widespread even though relatively little of this type of teaching is reported officially. Tracking the same cohort through different grades is demand because teachers have to learn new curriculums each year for each subject.

118. By contrast, in the remaining nine LGAs, the overall TSR is greater than 1:1, which means that primary schools in the LGA have more teachers than streams and thus teaching loads are less than 40 periods per week. Given that subject-teaching tends to be more labour-intensive, it is in these schools where the greatest scope exists for subject-teaching. In the state as a whole, around 20% of primary schools have a TSR greater than 1:1 (and, officially, therefore are over-staffed), 4% have a TSR of 1:1 (where single class/grade teaching is likely to be the norm) and three-quarters of all schools have a TSR is less than 1:1 (and where, therefore, multi-grade teaching is, de facto, in operation).

119. If each stream had its own full-time dedicated class teacher, then with a total of nearly 25,000 classes/streams, around another 6,000 teachers would be needed over and above the current number in post. Even if this was achieved, the STR would still be over 60. Class sizes average almost 120 students across the state, ranging from 51 in Mani LGA to 206 in Dan Musa (see below).

Figure 6.10 Teacher-stream ratios for primary schools by LGEA, 2011-12

![Teacher-stream ratios for primary schools by LGEA, 2011-12](image_url)

Source: ASC
Teaching in JSS is subject-based. The expected teaching load norm, although not explicitly stated (and for this reason not widely known by teachers themselves), is 18 out of 40 periods per week. SMOE officials and school managers regard this as being a reasonable teaching load, especially given the very large classes in many schools. The TSR for JSS is 1:1.27, which implies that the average teaching load across the state is 31.5 periods per week. However, this varies very considerably across the 237 JSS. Most teachers work considerably more than 18 periods a week. In fact, teacher shortages are so acute that, in 40% of schools, teachers work all 40 periods per week and, in another 25% of schools, the average teaching load is between 25 and 39 periods. Only in fewer than 20% of schools is the average teaching load less than 18 periods. By international standards, the current workload norm of 18 periods a week is quite low.

6.4.3. Class size

The average number of students per classroom was 115 for primary schools in 2012/13. Again, however, the variation across LGEAs is very high (see Figure 6.11). The average class size in JSS is 72.

Figure 6.11 Average students per classroom at government primary schools by LGA, 2011/12

6.5. Teacher commitment

6.5.1. Vocational commitment and respect

Without detailed research including in-depth personal interviews and surveys, it is difficult to gauge accurately the level of vocational commitment to teaching of individual teachers. However, based on

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12 Ideally, it would be desirable to analyse the teaching load distribution of all teachers individually. While the data needed to do this are collected by the ASC, they could not be accessed for this study.
the small amounts of qualitative data collected for this report, there are various concerns with issues of commitment, and these could be explored further in more detailed study.

123. First, it is widely believed that teachers lack the levels of commitment and respect they had in the past. It is claimed that many school leavers opt for teaching because they do not have the exam grades to be admitted into their preferred subject areas.

124. More generally, there are mounting concerns both within the educational establishment and in the wider community that teachers in the state and in Nigeria as a whole are not performing well (especially given exam pass rates and low Monitoring Learning Achievement (MLA) and Teacher Development Needs Assessment (TDNA) scores). However, if teachers believe that they are already adequately competent, this could be a serious constraint in redressing this situation since they are less likely to be strongly motivated to improve their teaching skills.

125. The Teacher Registration Council has been established to increase teacher professionalism and standards. However, there are quite widespread concerns about the limited impact to date of the council.

126. These concerns are of course anecdotal, and it was not the purpose or design of this report to explore them. They are nevertheless included here because they form an important part of the challenge of teacher supply and demand.

6.5.2. Working and living environments

127. As in other professions, links between teacher effectiveness, motivation, and work conditions are well established in theory and evidence (Bennell and Akyeampong 2007, Naylor and Sayed 2014). Nigeria is no exception (Humphreys and Crawfurd 2014). A study in 2005 found “a teacher motivation crisis in Nigeria...the Nigerian education system appears to be staffed by teachers with poor morale and low levels of commitment to their work (Adelabu 2005: 20).

128. In Katsina, feedback from study interviewees and broader experience suggests that the working environment for many teachers is very challenging. In addition to the poor physical environment and the paucity of learning materials, high teaching loads and poor student behaviour appear to be key issues. In many schools, the management endeavours to equalise teaching loads, but where they are unequal, this can be quite de-motivating for those teachers who have appreciably heavier teaching loads. However, many respondents are concerned about the management capacities of school managers.

6.5.3. Teacher pay

129. Both primary and junior secondary teachers are on the same grade and salary scales as other public servants in the state. The overall design of the pay and salary structure includes good career progression and reasonable salary differentials between grades. Basic pay and allowances were consolidated in 2012 although science teachers still receive an additional allowance.

130. The overall level of pay for teachers in Katsina State is reasonable, unlike in most other developing countries, pay levels as such are not a major issue among teachers and their main trade union, the NUT. The two most frequent concerns expressed by teachers and their trade union are:

- the non-payment of promotion pay among primary school teachers\(^\text{13}\) (since 2010); and

\(^{13}\) This also includes unqualified teachers (on GL3 and 4) who have acquired the NCE qualification and should therefore be put on the GL7 pay grade. Promotion payments have been made to secondary school teachers.
- Teachers’ Salary Structure (TSS) allowances (also since 2010).

131. The introduction of the Harmonised Public Salary Scheme in 2010 resulted in an almost doubling of teacher pay. The main TSS allowance of 27.5% of basic salary for qualified teachers (12.5% for unqualified) is also quite generous. This has not been paid for the last three years but has recently been reinstated. The overall salary budget for secondary school teachers is slightly lower in 2013/14 than 2012/13 (NGN 5.7 billion and NGN 5.5 billion respectively) and a supplementary budget will be needed to pay for the TSS allowances.

132. The clear trade-off in ensuring that teachers are reasonably well paid is that little funding has been available to recruit new teachers and thereby ease the chronic shortage of teachers. It is likely that teachers themselves have been more prepared to tolerate the resulting larger classes and shortages of learning and teaching resources in return for much improved pay.

133. Each state has its own pay scales for public servants including teachers. The neighbouring state of Jigawa pays its teachers roughly double the pay of teachers in Katsina but salaries in Kaduna are lower. Figure 6.12 shows average primary school teacher pay by level of experience and the levels of pay which should be expected if a NCE teacher is regularly promoted every three years from GL7 (the entry grade) to GL14 (which is the top grade that an NCE class teacher can reach). The flatness of the actual pay–experience profile and the large salary gap in the potential/expected salary–experience profile are striking, which indicates that actual promotion prospects for primary school teachers are quite limited, coupled with the fact that promotion-related pay increases have not been paid for the last three–four years. While it is the case that promotion is a ‘privilege’ and not a right, teachers are still disgruntled when promotion-related pay increases are not paid.

Figure 6.12: Average monthly teacher pay compared to expected pay under the Harmonised Public Salary Scheme, by years of service, 2013
6.5.4. Teacher absenteeism

Overall, data on teacher attendance are difficult to obtain in Nigeria (Humphreys and Crawfurd 2014). In Katsina, teacher attendance was closely monitored in six LGAs for three months between September and November 2013, and reported absence was low. Attendance rates were consistently between 82 and 85% (i.e. teachers with no absences each month), with no sizeable differences between male and female teachers. Over three-quarters of absences are due to illness, attendance at in-service training courses and other official duties. The extent of poor timekeeping and low time on task needs to be further explored. Primary school student attendance rates are reported to have improved appreciably from 73% in 2009/10 to 88% in 2012/13.

14 It is still reported that teachers in remote areas often leave their classes for up to a week in order to collect their salaries from banks which are located in the urban areas.
PART C: FUTURE TEACHER DEMAND AND EXPENDITURE
7. Projected student enrolments

135. This section presents enrolment projections for primary and junior secondary schooling in Katsina State up to 2025. Robust projections should be based on detailed research and planning, which examine all the key determinants of enrolments and expenditures. As will be discussed below, there is always a degree of uncertainty in making projections of this kind. This is especially where the majority of children still do not attend and complete primary school and JSS, as is the case in Katsina State.

136. The enrolment simulations presented in this report are based on a slightly adapted version of the widely used UNESCO model. Two basic scenarios have been adopted for the current exercise, which have been called ‘status quo ‘and ‘2025UBE’. The status quo scenario assumes that no changes occur in any of the basic parameters that determine overall enrolment rates for both primary and junior secondary schooling (in particular, intake, repetition, dropout and transition rates). The 2025UBE target scenario, on the other hand, changes these parameters over time in order to achieve UBE by 2025 with an overall STR of 40:1.

137. The two key determinants of school enrolment are the current and future sizes of the primary and secondary school-age populations and, secondly, the proportions of these populations that will attend and complete school. The critical population parameter for modelling purposes is the number of children aged six who, under the UBE policy regime, are expected to enrol in primary school. The actual number of children who will attend school depends crucially on national policies, especially with regard to compulsory school attendance up to the age of 16, school quality, demand-enhancing measures and the grade repetition/promotion policy.

138. The four main school-level parameters that determine the numbers of children who will attend primary schools and JSS are (i) the annual gross intake rates (GIRs) of six-year-old children into primary school, (ii) grade-specific repetition rates, (iii) grade-specific dropout rates, and (iv) the transition rates from primary school to JSS. Target values have to be set for each of these parameters for each year over the next 10 years, which are based on federal and state educational policies.

7.1. School population projections

139. There are serious concerns about the accuracy of the available school-age population projections. The EPPSIM simulation exercise (which formed the basis for SESP planning in Katsina State) relies on projections of the school-age population which were made on the basis of the 2006 Population Census. These assume an overall population growth rate of 3.0% for Katsina State and use infant and child mortality data from the 1991 census. However, it appears that these population projections are too low since they yield female and male GERs for primary school of 83% and 122%, which are much higher than those derived from the most recent household surveys, which are likely to be considerably more accurate.

140. The only other source of more recent population data is birth registration records collected from health clinics around the state. There have been major improvements in the coverage and therefore the accuracy of these records in recent years, but demographers from the National Population Council in Katsina who compile these statistics estimate that that as many as 15% of births are still not captured. Assuming that this is the case, then around 400,000 children under the age of one were born in the state during 2013. The most recent estimates of infant and child mortality rates come from the 2013 DHS. The under-six mortality rate for the North-West Zone (of which Katsina State is a part) was 217 deaths per 1,000 in the 10 years leading up to the 2008 DHS. State-level estimates are not yet available from the 2013 DHS, but the Preliminary Report indicates that the national under-five mortality rate (U5MR) was 25% lower than in 2008. Assuming that a similar decline has occurred
in Katsina State (as result of better health care and nutrition), then the total number of 2013 births who will reach age six by 2018 will be at least 350,000 (and probably higher than this if U5MR continues to fall), which is almost 30% higher than the 2006 age six Population Census projections for this year.

141. In the light of this uncertainty around the official school-age population projections, the modelling exercise has adopted a second set of population growth projections based on the more recent birth registration statistics. This assumes that the actual age six intake population projections in 2018 are 25% higher than the census projections, which yields an average annual population growth rate for this age group of 4.5% per annum (based on the 2006 Population Census figure). Another issue is the large gender gap in the official age six Population Census projections (9% in 2012), which would normally be expected to be only a very few percentage points different. It has been, assumed, therefore, that the female population projections are identical to those for males for the age six group.

7.2. Key school parameters

7.2.1. Gross intake rates

142. Given the uncertainties surrounding population projections, there are currently no consistent and accurate data currently available on which to estimate GIRs for primary schooling in Katsina State. On the basis of the 2006 Population Census projections, the school GIR for primary school (P1) was 98% for girls and 121% for boys in 2012. Given that the overall net attendance rate for primary education was only 48% in 2011 (based on MICS raw data), coupled with relatively low dropout rates, these intake rates estimates would appear to be too high.15

143. Estimates of GIRs can be derived from household surveys. From the 2008 DHS, 60% of 11–14-year-old girls and 36% of boys had never attended school, which (with minimal dropouts reported in the 6–10 age group) implies that the GIRs were around 40% and 64% for girls and boys respectively. Taking the lower 95% confidence minimum estimates of never attenders (i.e. the minimum possible estimate) increases the GIRs to 54% and 77% respectively. For the second population growth scenario, the GIRs in 2012 are 80% for girls and 98% for boys. These still appear to be high but are more plausible. This is because (i) female primary school enrolments grew at nearly 7% per annum between 2008/09 and 2012/13, which, with a primary school-age population growth rate of around 4% per annum, would imply that the GIR would have, on average, increased three percentage points each year during this four year period and (ii) the results of the school mapping exercise in six LGAs in late 2013–early 2014 yields much lower estimates of never attender rates (9–14% in five LGAs and 22–27% in Batsari), which implies that the GIRs are in the region of 75–85% (see Table 7.1).16

15 Gross intake rates and attendance rates are reasonably well linked when dropout rates are low.
16 The data from the community exercise should be treated with some caution. In particular, the number of reported girls, especially in the older age groups, is consistently appreciably lower than the number of reported males.
### Table 7.1 Schooling status of 12–14-year-old children in six LGAs in Katsina State, late 2013–early 2014 (rounded percentages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LGA</th>
<th>Never attended Female</th>
<th>Never attended Male</th>
<th>Dropped out Female</th>
<th>Dropped out Male</th>
<th>In school Female</th>
<th>In school Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Batsari</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baure</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faskari</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kankara</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kankia</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rimi</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Calculated from raw data in Community Mapping Report, 2014

144. SESP has only three-year enrolment objectives for the period 2010–12. The Girls’ Education Project 3 initial objective for Katsina State is to increase female enrolment in primary school from 582,568 in 2010 to 840,093 in 2019, an increase of 44%. The corresponding target increase for JSS is considerably more modest — from 66,956 in 2010 to 82,193 in 2019, a 23% increase. Given that there are no corresponding enrolment targets for boys, it is not possible to develop a separate modelling scenario based on official enrolment targets.

145. For the UBE target enrolment scenario, it has been assumed, therefore, that with the progressive enforcement of compulsory basic education and the adoption of measures that target ‘hard to reach’ children, all age six children in Katsina State will enrol in primary school and JSS by 2025. This is in accordance with the strong commitment of state government to the attainment of UBE. The UBE Bill is expected to provide legal teeth for enforcing the compulsory aspect of the policy, but this is yet to be implemented. For JSS, a second target enrolment scenario has been adopted which assumes that all children will not be enrolled in JSS until 2030. The reason for this is that the projected enrolment increases to achieve the 2025 UBE target are very large and, even with the highest levels of political commitment, are therefore unlikely to be attainable.

146. The reasons given by parents for their children not attending school in GEP3’s community mapping exercise (2013) suggest that major steps will need to be taken to ensure greater attendance in the future. In particular, sizeable minorities of respondents in the recent community mapping exercise cited their preference for Qu’ranic schools and ‘no interest’ in schooling as the main reasons for not enrolling their children in government primary schools. Costs of education and early marriage are likely to be even more serious barriers for JSS attendance.

#### 7.2.2. Repetition and dropout rates

147. The impact of changes in grade repetition on future enrolments will be minimal for both primary and secondary schooling since repetition rates are already very low. Average grade repetition rates among girls and boys attending primary school were less than 1% in 2011/12. However, the rates of non-reporting of repeaters by schools as part of the ASC are very high, which means that these rates may be under-estimated.

148. In the past, primary school dropout rates have been reported to be very low. The grade-specific primary school dropout rates for the North-West Region (of which Katsina is part) which have been estimated from the 2010 NEDS are all under 1%. However, cohort analysis of 2011/12 and 2012/13 grade enrolments from ASC data suggests that dropout rates are currently much higher (see Figure 7.1). In the absence of any other reliable data, these dropout estimates have been used for the modelling exercise.

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27 This has been revised in the November 2014 GEP3 logical framework to include only %age increases in female enrolment.
7.2.3. Transition rates

149. The primary school (P6 enrolment) to JSS (JSS1 enrolment) transition rates for both girls and boys are currently around 30%. The trend appears to be downward, which reflects the lack of capacity among the 240 JSS to absorb the rapid increases in primary school graduates.

150. The EPSSIM model has target transition rates of 65% males and 70% females by 2019. In line with the target UBE2025 scenario, the simulation model assumes steady linear increases in the current female and male transition rates to 100% by 2022.

7.3. Projected enrolments

151. For each of the two main enrolment scenarios, Figure 7.2, Figure 7.3, and Table 7.2 present projected enrolments for primary and junior secondary schooling for the period 2012 to 2025/2030. As can be observed, for both schooling cycles, the differences between the status quo and UBE2025 projected enrolments are very large, especially for junior secondary education, where GERs are currently well below 50%. Even delaying the attainment of UBE until 2030 will still require a 250–300% increase in JSS enrolments. The enrolment differences between the official and revised population projections are also very sizeable, which highlights the critical importance of accurate population projections.
Table 7.2 Projected target enrolments for primary and junior secondary education by scenario, Katsina State (rounded ‘000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scenario</th>
<th>Enrolment 2025</th>
<th>% increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statusquo-officialpop</td>
<td>1,920</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statusquo-revisedpop</td>
<td>2,241</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025UBE-officialpop</td>
<td>1,891</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025UBE-revisedpop</td>
<td>2,529</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior secondary education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statusquo-officialpop</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statusquo-revisedpop</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025UBE-officialpop</td>
<td>778</td>
<td>287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025UBE-revisedpop</td>
<td>973</td>
<td>384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2030UBE-officialpop</td>
<td>719</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2030UBE-revisedpop</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: % increase between 2012 and 2025 (rounded percentages)

Figure 7.2 Projected primary school enrolments by scenario, 2012–2027
Figure 7.3 Projected JSS enrolments by scenario, 2012–2027
8. Teaching post requirements and replacements 2014–25

8.1. Modelling scenarios

152. In addition to projected enrolments, the other major set of determinants of teacher demand is how teachers are utilised in schools. As discussed earlier, the two key factors are teaching load and class size, which together determine the STR: the lower the teaching load and the smaller the class size, the greater the numbers of teachers who will be required and vice versa. There are three teacher requirement projection scenarios, namely:

   (1) The status quo, where current STRs remain unchanged.
   (2) Target staffing norms, where the overall primary school STR falls linearly to the prescribed official STR of 40:1 in 2025. With regard to JSS, it has been assumed that the teaching load norm is increased to 25 periods per week and the class size target is 40 students by 2025. This translates into a target STR of 25:1 (i.e. 1.6 teachers are required to teach the full JSS curriculum to 40 students).
   (3) Reaching of the target STRs for both primary and junior secondary education only in 2030.

8.2. Teaching post requirements

8.2.1. Primary schooling

153. Figure 8.1 presents the projected number of teaching posts required for primary schooling in Katsina State between 2012 and 2025 for each of the six staffing scenarios. With no change in either current enrolment parameters or STRs (the status quo scenario), total teacher post requirements (TTPRs) for primary schooling increase from 19,200 to 24,300 (a 26% increase) during this period based on official population projections; and to 28,400 (46%) based on the revised population projections. If, on the other hand, the target UBE enrolment and 2025 STR targets are both adopted, then TTPRs increase to 47,300 (146%) based on the official population projections; and to 63,200 (229%) based on the revised population projections. The corresponding increases for the 2030 STR target scenarios are 37,500 (95%) and 50,200 (161%) for the official and revised population scenarios (see Table 8.1).
8.2.2. Junior secondary schooling

154. With no change in either current enrolment parameters or STRs (the status quo scenario), TTPRs for JSS increase from 4,800 to 5,200 (8%) during this period based on official population projections and to 5,600 (17%) based on the revised population projections (see Figure 8.2).

155. If, on the other hand, the target 2025 UBE enrolment and STR targets are both adopted, then TTPRs increase to 31,100 (549%) based on the official population projections and to 38,900 (711%) based on the revised population projections. The corresponding increases for the 2030 enrolment and STR target scenarios are 22,100 (360%) and 27,000 (476%) for the official and revised population scenarios. These projections highlight the enormity of the challenge of attaining UBE over the next 10–15 years. Even delaying UBE (and attaining an STR of 25) until 2030 will still require four–fivefold increases in the number of JSS teachers.
Table 8.1 Total teaching post requirements and % increases for primary and junior secondary education by scenario, 2012 to 2025

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scenario</th>
<th>2025 target</th>
<th>% increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status quo-official pop</td>
<td>24,300</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status quo-revised pop</td>
<td>28,400</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2025 STR40-official pop</td>
<td>47,300</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2025 STR40-revised pop</td>
<td>63,200</td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2030 STR40-official pop</td>
<td>37,500</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2030 STR40-revised pop</td>
<td>50,200</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Junior secondary education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status quo-official pop</td>
<td>5,200</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status quo-revised pop</td>
<td>5,600</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2025 STR25-official pop</td>
<td>31,100</td>
<td>549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2025 STR25-revised pop</td>
<td>38,900</td>
<td>711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2030 STR25-official pop</td>
<td>22,100</td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025 UBE and 2030 STR25-revised pop</td>
<td>27,000</td>
<td>476</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8.2 Total teacher requirements for junior secondary schools, 2012–2025

8.3. Teacher replacement

8.3.1. Overall attrition

The replacement of teachers due to attrition (or ‘wastage’) is the other main source of teacher demand. For primary school teachers, three main types of permanent attrition are officially recorded in Katsina State, namely retirement, resignation, and death. Table 8.2 summarises the departures of primary school teachers based on SUBEB administrative records. Annual attrition averaged 1.6%
during these two periods. The EPPSIM simulation model assumes that the overall teacher attrition rate is 3%, which is, therefore, an over-estimate. Precise data are not available but there does not appear to have been any marked upward or downward trend in primary school teacher departures during the last five years or so.

Table 8.2 Teacher attrition from government primary schools, 2010 and 2012/14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>‘Withdrawal’</th>
<th>Retirement</th>
<th>Death</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May 2012–Feb 2014*</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The figures for this period have been annualised

157. According to TSB records, overall attrition among secondary school teachers was 2.2% in 2013. This includes teachers at senior secondary schools who are mainly university graduates and may, therefore, have higher resignation rates given greater mobility. However, the modelling exercise has been based on this overall attrition rate for both groups of teachers. The trend in ‘departures’ has been slightly upward in the last three years (see Figure 8.3).

Figure 8.3 Attrition amongst secondary school teachers, 2007-13

Source: Teaching Service Board

8.3.2. Resignation and mortality

158. Resignation (‘withdrawal’) rates are very low among primary school teachers (averaging 0.2% per annum in the two periods under scrutiny), which is a consequence of the limited employment opportunities outside of teaching. According to SMOE data, they are only slightly higher for secondary school teachers (0.3% between 2010 and 2012). It is unlikely that teacher resignation rates will increase significantly in the future, mainly because employment opportunities in both the public and private sectors will continue to remain limited.

159. The mortality rate among primary and secondary school teachers is 0.6% and 0.4% respectively. Given improvements in medical support and nutrition coupled with younger teacher age profiles, these rates should fall in the future.
160. For modelling purposes, the combined resignation and mortality rate for primary school teachers has been set at 0.6% per annum.

8.3.3. Retirement

161. The compulsory retirement age for government school teachers in Katsina State is 60, but teachers can retire with full benefits after 30 years of service. Given the current age profile of primary school teachers (based on payroll data), full-term retirements will be between 150 and 200 per annum up until 2018 and will then be consistently around 250–300 up until 2027 (see Figure 8.4). These retirement data have been directly incorporated into the modelling exercise. No age data for individual JSS teachers could be obtained, although this data is collected as part of the ASC.

162. It is KSG policy that all staff in director positions must retire at the end of a second tenure of four years. This has led to the early retirement of competent and experienced managers.

Figure 8.4 Expected annual teacher retirements from primary schools, 2012–2027

8.3.4. Dismissals and abscondments

163. Information on dismissals could not be obtained. A total of 14 secondary school teachers absconded between 2010 and 2012. No data was available for primary school teachers, but overall numbers are also reported to be small. It seems unlikely that the rate of dismissals and abscondments will increase appreciably over the next 10 years, especially if improvements can be achieved in teacher management at the school level.

8.3.5. Untrained teachers

164. Given that 42% of primary and 25% of JSS teachers are not fully qualified, the replacement of untrained teachers is another potentially sizeable source of demand for new teachers. Efforts to upgrade unqualified primary school teachers have had mixed results in the past. Ideally, all these
teachers become fully qualified teachers through systematic in-service training as quickly as possible. Similar deadlines have been set in the past but have not been adhered to. However, given the political sensitivity of such actions, no attempt has been made to model directly the additional demand for replacement teachers.

8.4. Annual recruitment targets

This section presents estimates of projected annual recruitment targets for primary and JSS teachers for the period 2014–25. Projected annual recruitment comprises two components: namely additional teacher posts and annual replacement for teacher attrition. As noted earlier, teacher demand to replace currently under-qualified teachers over the next 5–10 years has not been incorporated into these recruitment targets, but again this will need to be done once the SUBEB and SMOE have established firm qualification upgrading policies for these teachers and associated replacement policies and targets in order to phase out unqualified teachers.

8.4.1. Primary education

Figure 8.5 and Figure 8.6 show target annual recruitment of primary school teachers for each of the six scenarios between 2013 and 2027. Under the two status quo scenarios, an additional 12–17,000 teachers will need to be recruited over the next 15 years compared to 31–48,000 teachers under the two 2025 UBE and 2030 STR40 scenarios. In other words, around three times as many teachers will have to be recruited in order to attain universal primary education by 2025 (with STRs only reaching 40 by 2030). Replacement teachers account for 33–47% of total recruitment under the two status quo scenarios but less than 20% for all four UBE scenarios.

Figure 8.5 Projected annual recruitment targets for primary school teachers by scenario, 2013–2027
Figure 8.6 Five-year recruitment targets for primary school teachers, 2013–2027

8.4.2. JSS education

167. Figure 8.7 and Figure 8.8 show target annual recruitment of junior secondary teachers for each of the six scenarios between 2013 and 2017. Under the two status quo scenarios, an additional 2-3,000 teachers will need to be recruited over the next 15 years compared to 30-40,000 teachers under the two 2030 UBE and 2030 STR25 scenarios. In other words, around 15-20 times as many teachers will have to be recruited in order to attain UBE by 2030 with STRs for JSS of 25:1 in 2030. Replacement teachers account for 54–70% of total recruitment under the two status quo scenarios but only 15–16% for all of the four UBE scenarios.
Figure 8.7 Target annual teacher recruitment for JSS teachers, 2012–2025

Figure 8.8 Five-year recruitment targets for JSS teachers, 2013–2027
8.5. The recruitment strategy

8.5.1. Recruitment sources

168. There are three sources of teacher recruitment, namely qualified teachers who are currently unemployed and want to work as teachers, the group of currently enrolled teacher trainees, and new intakes of teacher trainees in the future. Robust enrolment targets for the teacher training institutions over the next 10–15 years can only be established once more detailed information is available on the number of unemployed teachers who are potentially available to be recruited for new teaching appointments. Anecdotal evidence suggests that there could be well over 10,000 NCE graduates who are currently unemployed and still want to pursue teaching careers. In addition, there are currently around 11,300 NCE teacher trainees at the two CoEs and 1,300 B.Ed. students at the two universities (making a total of around 12,500 who will be completing their (pre-service) training over the next three–four years).

169. Figure 8.8 shows the combined total recruitment required for primary and JSS teachers up to 2027. The total additional training requirement for this period is derived by deducting already trained but unemployed teachers and currently enrolled teacher trainees (estimated at 22,500) from these totals. The average annual number of additionally required teacher graduates is actually negative for the two status quo scenarios but is between 4,000 and 6,250 for the two 2025 target enrolment and STR scenarios and 3,000–5,000 for the two 2030 scenarios is around 4,000 per annum.

Table 8.3 Total teacher recruitment required for primary and JSS, 2013–27

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Status quo officialpop</th>
<th>Status quo revisedpop</th>
<th>2025UBE/STR25 officialpop</th>
<th>2025UBE/STR25 revisedpop</th>
<th>2030UBE/STR25 officialpop</th>
<th>2030UBE/STR25 revisedpop</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>19,183</td>
<td>19,230</td>
<td>20,364</td>
<td>20,504</td>
<td>20,031</td>
<td>20,171</td>
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<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>19,118</td>
<td>19,265</td>
<td>21,474</td>
<td>21,939</td>
<td>20,781</td>
<td>21,224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>18,983</td>
<td>19,280</td>
<td>22,626</td>
<td>23,598</td>
<td>21,496</td>
<td>22,426</td>
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<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>19,180</td>
<td>19,682</td>
<td>24,122</td>
<td>25,839</td>
<td>22,493</td>
<td>24,127</td>
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<td>2018</td>
<td>19,739</td>
<td>20,823</td>
<td>26,869</td>
<td>30,837</td>
<td>24,238</td>
<td>27,935</td>
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<tr>
<td>2019</td>
<td>20,329</td>
<td>21,780</td>
<td>28,776</td>
<td>34,263</td>
<td>25,559</td>
<td>30,556</td>
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<td>2020</td>
<td>21,006</td>
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<td>31,143</td>
<td>38,353</td>
<td>27,207</td>
<td>33,610</td>
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<td>2021</td>
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<td>34,671</td>
<td>43,836</td>
<td>29,556</td>
<td>37,473</td>
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<td>2022</td>
<td>22,482</td>
<td>25,181</td>
<td>38,321</td>
<td>49,513</td>
<td>31,871</td>
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<td>2023</td>
<td>23,158</td>
<td>26,315</td>
<td>41,755</td>
<td>55,005</td>
<td>34,351</td>
<td>45,310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2024</td>
<td>23,853</td>
<td>27,499</td>
<td>45,831</td>
<td>61,157</td>
<td>37,224</td>
<td>49,717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025</td>
<td>24,569</td>
<td>28,737</td>
<td>50,394</td>
<td>68,064</td>
<td>40,441</td>
<td>54,637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2026</td>
<td>25,306</td>
<td>30,030</td>
<td>51,092</td>
<td>69,824</td>
<td>44,166</td>
<td>60,276</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2027</td>
<td>26,065</td>
<td>31,381</td>
<td>53,019</td>
<td>73,522</td>
<td>48,206</td>
<td>66,687</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.5.2. Recruitment targets by qualification

170. The development of a high-quality teaching profession in Katsina State (as elsewhere in Nigeria) hinges critically on increasing the share of teachers who are well-trained and committed university graduates. For the modelling exercise, it has been assumed that the recruitment of university teacher graduates (B.Ed. and PGDE) increases to 25% for primary education by 2025 and 100% for junior secondary education by this date. Figure 8.9 show projected annual recruitment of primary and JSS teachers by qualification level from 2014 for the 2025 and 2030 projection scenarios based on these assumptions. It can be observed that the recruitment (and thus teacher trainee graduates) increases rapidly for university graduates, peaking at over 5,000 in 2024 and then falling off quickly once these
qualification intake targets have been attained. They would however continue to increase at the same rate if the increase in the share of university-trained primary school teachers continued to increase at the same rate as the preceding period. NCE graduate recruitment also continues to increase rapidly for primary school education to 4,000 per annum by 2024, and then declines once UBE has been attained. Junior secondary education remains at around 500 per annum up to 2024 and then declines once the 100% university intake target has been met in 2025.

**Figure 8.9** Projected annual recruitment of primary and junior secondary teachers by qualification level, 2014–2025

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### 8.5.3. Intake and enrolment targets by qualification level

171. Based on the annual recruitment targets above for the UBE 2030 scenario (with revised population projections), Figure 8.10 shows projected enrolment intake targets for teacher trainees at the universities and CoEs for the period 2014–2032. (It is important to note that these projected intake targets are for basic education only and do not, therefore, cover future graduate teacher requirements for senior secondary education.) CoE intakes should remain at their current level until 2025 but then should decrease rapidly until 2031, when they reach zero and the NCE qualification is finally phased out. Intakes for university-based teacher education courses (B.Ed. and PGDE) should increase rapidly to around 3,500 between 2020 and 2025 and then be maintained at 3,000 until at least 2032.
172. Target projected enrolments, assuming that all university-based teacher trainees are enrolled on three-year B.Ed. courses, are presented in Figure 8.11. A key policy decision is what target enrolments should be for undergraduate B.Ed. and post-graduate PGDE courses which are one year in duration rather than three years. The available supply of school leavers with the minimum eligible entry qualifications is likely to be a critical constraint (at least for the next five years), which means that steps need to be taken to encourage university graduates to enrol for PGDEs. If, for example, one-half of university teacher trainees graduate from PGDE courses, then target projected enrolments would decline appreciably (see Figure 8.12).
Figure 8.11 Target enrolments for university and college of education teacher trainees for the 2030 target enrolment and STR scenario, 2014–2032

Figure 8.12 Target enrolments for B.Ed. only, and 50% B.Ed. and 50% PGDE, for the UBE 2030 scenario, 2014–2032
8.5.4. JSS teacher recruitment by subject area

173. Additional teacher requirements for junior secondary education by subject area are presented in Table 8.4. These have been estimated according to the period requirements of each subject in the new curricula based on 12 compulsory subjects and three optional subjects (see Figure 8.13). For example, English is allocated six periods out of a total of 40 periods per week, so the full-time equivalent teacher requirement for English is 15% of projected total teacher demand (new posts plus replacements). Additional subject teachers will also need to be recruited in order to fill existing vacancies, but data on these were not available.
Table 8.4 Target teacher recruitment for junior secondary education by subject area for the UBE 2030 scenario, 2014–2027 (full-time equivalents)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English studies</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>113</td>
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<td>199</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>184</td>
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Given the complexities of timetabling at the school level coupled with the fact that JSS teachers normally teach two subjects, this can only yield very approximate estimates of subject teacher demand, which will require detailed analysis before they can be used for operational planning purposes. In smaller schools, it is not possible to employ individual subject teachers for the minor subjects and teachers in the core subject areas have to cover these. Again, therefore, adjustments will be made in the requirement estimates of these core teachers in order to take account of this.

8.6. Projected expenditure

8.6.1. Projected salary costs for additional teachers

Projected additional salary costs for the additional teachers who will be need to be recruited to meet the 2030 UBE target scenario are presented in Figure 8.14. The salary costs of these teachers has been based on the current average salary-experience profile for each teacher (as discussed in chapter 6) and assumes that this salary profile does not change during the next 10-15 years. If salary projections were based on the expected salary (HAPPS)-experience profile projected salary costs for additional teachers would be at least 50% higher.

The projected size of the additional salary costs highlights the enormous challenge that remains of achieving quality UBE over the next 15 years. Given the limited fiscal base in the state, it may be that the Federal Government would need to take the lead in meeting these costs.

8.6.2. Training costs for additional teachers

Robust, detailed estimates of unit training costs for teachers are required in order to be able to make meaningful projections of projected training costs for each of the main planning scenarios. Information on current unit costs is patchy and, even if it was, would not form an adequate basis for
making training cost projections because the current resourcing of teacher education varies considerably between the four main teacher education institutions and, in the case of IKCE, is seriously inadequate. More detailed research is needed, therefore, to be able to establish what the necessary minimum funding is required in order to train teachers to an acceptable standard. Many key factors need to be taken into consideration in particular prescribed staffing norms and minimum qualification requirements for lecturers as well as any significant economies of scale that could be reaped through the restructuring of the teacher education system in the State. It is recommended, therefore, that a detailed study of teacher education unit costs is undertaken as part of the development of a long-term teacher education strategy for the state.

Figure 8.14 Projected additional salary costs for primary and junior secondary school teachers for the 2030 UBE scenario, 2014–2028 (NGN billions)
PART D: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
9. Conclusions

177. This study has addressed the supply of and demand for primary school and JSS teachers in Katsina State. The conclusions can be summarised as follows:

9.1. Background

- Overall, there are a number of substantial challenges around teachers in Nigeria, and in general quite poor data to illuminate them. There has been one previous detailed teacher supply and demand study conducted by Thomas (2011) for ESSPIN on Kwara and Jigawa, which found a wide range of STFs and qualifications.

- Learning outcomes and teacher performance in Katsina state are poor. Primary NARs are below 50% (Mezger 2014); only 19% aged 5-16 can read (NEDS 2010); and 64% of surveyed teachers in GEP3 schools in Katsina (not a representative set of schools) had insufficient skills and knowledge to be effective in classrooms (Johnson and Hsieh 2014).

9.2. Teacher supply

- Katsina state has two Colleges of Education and two universities that train teachers. These are the Federal College of Education (FCE) in Katsina and the Isa Kaita College of Education (IKCE) in Duntzima. Interviews with staff and students at these institutions suggest support for the State’s Teacher Education Policy, but identify some management challenges around it.

- The two Colleges of Education train almost all of the trained teachers in the State: around 3,000 students are enrolled in each every year. Around one third of these student-teachers are female. The quality of intake varies, though generally reasonable.

- Graduation rates are quite low, though this appears to be due to repetition rather than dropout. Around 1,000 students graduate from the IKCE, though dropout rates are low at 2.1%. At the FCE, 12,000 students dropped out between 2005 and 2013.

- Many of the teaching staff at the Colleges of Education are not fully qualified. Only 15% of IKCE teachers had a post-graduate qualification, and most have fewer than 10 years’ experience. This may be related to the poor pay.

- The Colleges have to rely on various sources of funding, and poor funding underlies some significant limitations to their infrastructure. These limitations include classrooms, libraries, sports facilities and internet connections.

- Teaching practice at the Colleges often deviate from expectations and seem unlikely to be adequate to prepare teachers for schools. This includes teacher-educators having to supervise a large number of student-teachers, limited mentoring, and the normal absence of a functioning internship programme.

- Employment outcomes for Colleges of Education graduates are largely unknown, but there is a belief that many do not take up primary or JS teaching posts. A comparison of SUBEB recruitment data with graduation data suggests around 55% take up primary or JS teaching posts. There are many unemployed or under-employed teacher graduates.

9.3. Teacher utilisation

- SUBEB payroll data show 24,200 teachers were employed as teachers in government primary schools in early 2014, of which 28% were women. Average annual recruitment of primary school teachers was 665 between 2007 and 2012, almost exactly half annual recruitment levels in the period
The Supply of and Demand for Primary and Junior Secondary School Teachers in Katsina State, 2014–25

2000 to 2006. Only 84 teachers were recruited by SUBEB in 2012. Annual recruitment levels fluctuate markedly, with the bulk of government teachers being appointed in the run-up to state and federal elections, most notably in 2007 and 2010.

- **Low growth in teacher numbers is largely explained by Katsina State Government budget policy.** A key reason for the overall limited growth in teacher numbers and thus the current acute teacher shortage is the KSG policy (enshrined in law) that 70% of the state budget must be allocated to capital expenditure, with only 30% remaining for recurrent expenditure, of which civil servant (including teacher) salaries account for the large majority. A freeze on public sector employment has also been in place since 2007.

- **Far fewer teachers are employed than official national student teacher ratios prescribe.** Adhering to the Federal Ministry of Education’s nationally prescribed STR staffing norm of 40:1 would mean that a total of around 38,230 primary school teachers should be employed, which is roughly twice the number currently in post. Similarly, a total of 5,025 JSS teachers should be employed compared to the 4,802 in post in 2012/13. Teacher shortages have increased as a result of state-sponsored enrolment drives, which have driven class sizes up. Class sizes average almost 120 students across the state, ranging from 51 in Mani LGA to 206 in Dan Musa.

- **The variation in STRs between LGEAs is very large.** While most primary schools are under-staffed, at JSS level almost as many schools are over-staffed as they are under-staffed. Primary schooling, six LGEAs are relatively well-staffed, with STRs of 60:1 or less, although it is noticeable that none have the prescribed STR of 40:1. By contrast, nine LGEAs have STRs of over 100:1. For JSS, half of all LGEAs have STRs lower than 40:1 (and are, therefore, over-staffed with respect to the prescribed staffing norm of 40:1) while five LGEAs have STRs of over 80:1. There are four reasons for this variation:
  - there are relatively large numbers of hard-to-staff rural schools.
  - the variation is the result of the perpetuation of historical differences in staffing levels between LGEAs and zones (in the case of JSS teachers) due to the relatively limited creation of new teaching posts during the last five–seven years.
  - the decentralisation of primary education at the LGA level has resulted in a wide range of de facto policies and practices with regard to this level of schooling.
  - it is generally difficult to deploy women teachers to most rural schools.

- **Despite the much lower overall STRs for junior secondary education, it is widely believed that the staffing situation in JSS is considerably worse than in primary schools.** In part, this is because there is an automatic replacement policy for primary schools and a significant (but unrecorded) proportion of JSS are staffed by seconded staff from LGEAs. In addition, subject-based teaching (which is the norm at JSS) is more teacher-intensive. The prescribed 18-period workload norm means that every JSS class requires the equivalent of two teachers as opposed to only one for primary schooling. Moreover, the distribution of JSS teachers across the state is very poor.

- **Teaching loads are very high.** The Teacher-Stream Ratio (TSR), a measure of the number of teachers to each class or group, varies very considerably between individual schools and between LGAs. In the state as a whole, around 20% of primary schools have a TSR greater than 1:1 (and, officially, therefore are over-staffed), 4% have a TSR of 1:1 (where single class/grade teaching is likely to be the norm) and three-quarters of all schools have a TSR is less than 1:1 (and where, therefore, multi-grade teaching is, de facto, in operation). In 25 out of a total of 34 LGAs, the TSR is 1:1 or less, which means not only that teachers are fully occupied but also, because these schools have more streams than teachers, teachers have to cover more than one class/stream.

- **Nearly half all primary teachers are not fully qualified.** Only 58.4% of primary school teachers were fully qualified in 2013. By contrast, nearly three-quarters of JSS teachers are fully qualified. The continuing high proportion of unqualified primary school teachers is due to the very large numbers of unqualified teachers who were recruited (often without due process) in the mid-2000s and the relatively limited recruitment of qualified teachers since then.
Teacher pay is reasonable in theory, but limited promotions in practice may lead to demotivation. Both primary and junior secondary teachers are on the same grade and salary scales as other public servants in the state. The overall design of the pay and salary structure includes good career progression and reasonable salary differentials between grades. Basic pay and allowances were consolidated in 2012 although science teachers still receive an additional allowance. However, actual promotion prospects for primary school teachers are quite limited, coupled with the fact that promotion-related pay increases have not been paid for the last three–four years.

9.4. Future teacher demand

- **Student enrolment rates are projected to increase substantially by 2025**; from around 1.5 million currently to between 1.9 million and 2.5 million for primary and 200,000 to 1 million for JSS, depending on the data and the assumptions used. This will require substantially more teachers to even maintain the status quo.

- **Total teacher post requirements are substantial by 2025**, though they vary widely depending on the population projections and targets used. To cope with growing student populations at primary level, total teacher post requirements in 2025 increase from the current number of 19,800 teachers to between:
  - 24,300 primary teachers with official population projections and status quo enrolment and STRs; and
  - 63,200 primary teachers with revised population projections and UBE enrolment and STRs.

  Similarly to cope with growing student populations at JSS level, total teacher post requirements in 2025 increase from the current number of 4,800 teachers to between:
  - 5,800 teachers with official population projections and status quo enrolment and STRs; and
  - 38,900 teachers with revised population projections and UBE enrolment and STRs.

  Including the need to replace teachers who leave their jobs, the projections for annual teacher recruitment requirements from 2014-2025 indicate that to meet UBE enrolment and official STRs by 2025 the number of qualified teachers recruited every year will need to grow from around:
  - 1,000 to 8,000 annually for primary teachers; and
  - 600 to just over 5,000 annually for JSS teachers.

- **Up to 74,000 new teachers will need to be recruited by 2025 in Katsina**. In the model, these are expected principally to be primary NCE graduates, and JSS university graduates comprising a larger share of JSS teachers. A shift to increased university teaching of education – in line with international norms – would imply a rapid growth in enrolment in universities, and a rapid tailing off, after 2025, of intakes in NCEs.

- **The growth of this workforce has significant fiscal implications**. On the basis of available data, we can conclude that recruiting, training and paying these teachers would imply additional annual costs by 2025 of up to NGN18 million for primary teachers and just over NGN12 million for JSS teachers.

In summary, two major sets of conclusions emerge from this study. First, with respect to teacher supply, the overall quality and relevance of teacher education is poor as is evidenced in particular by the results of the latest teacher assessment and student learning tests. And secondly, with respect to teacher demand, chronic shortages exist of teachers particularly at primary schools where overall student-teacher ratios are double the prescribed level. At the same time, however, given the limited recruitment of teachers in recent years (due to recurrent budget restrictions and other constraints), there has been an over-supply of teacher graduates with the result that the pool of unemployed graduates has increased significantly.

Despite the impressive progress that has been made to date, the attainment of UBE with the prescribed STRs over the next fifteen years will require at least a fivefold increase in funding in order
to employ the projected numbers of teachers that will be required. Additional funding will be required for the construction of new schools and related facilities as well as school running costs and support services. It is likely that only a major initiative by the federal government based on detailed state-level strategies will be able to meet this challenge.
10. Recommendations

180. The discussions and conclusions above generate a set of indicative recommendations, which are supported and developed further by wider international experience. These recommendations may be of use to the Katsina State Government, GEP3, the Teacher Development Programme, DFID and others seeking to work on teacher development in Katsina. However, it is clear that considerably more research and analysis is required in order to develop a robust set of policy recommendations in this key area. In addition, there are a number of key policy decisions that need to be addressed by the state government and all other major stakeholders concerning the training and utilisation of teachers.

181. Although it is beyond the remit of this study to outline a programme of changes to teacher policy in Katsina, this section presents some tentative recommendations that derive from both the study and the recent international literature on teachers. These recommendations span both additional research and policy change, and cover teacher recruitment, teacher management, and teacher education.

10.1. Teacher recruitment

182. The future demand for teachers was outlined in Part C of the report: up to 74,000 additional teachers will need to be recruited, trained and deployed into schools by 2025: or nearly 6,000 each year, at a very substantial additional cost. It is beyond the scope of this report to go beyond noting that this will be required in order to meet both official policy and international norms: and both of these are recommended, recognising of course that this will not be straightforward politically or fiscally.

183. In order to inform this growth, it is recommended that:

- The SMOE and SUBEB jointly develop capacity to develop clear, well-conceived annual plans for future teacher requirements based on a detailed understanding of the actual and desired utilisation of teachers for the school system as a whole. Additional analysis is also required to develop detailed estimates of the numbers of subject teachers that will be needed in order to staff both junior and senior secondary schools.
- The teacher education enrolment planning system becomes demand-driven (rather than supply-driven) in order that the current serious mismatches between the supply of and demand for teacher graduates are reduced.

10.2. Teacher management

184. Rectifying staffing imbalances in the spatial deployment of teachers is a major challenge in order to ensure that all children in Katsina State receive the same quality education. We recommend, therefore:

- the development of a comprehensive, high priority strategy, which directly addresses the key constraints that are currently preventing the efficient and equitable deployment of teachers.
- research to identify the hardest to staff schools and LGEAs and evaluate the cost-effectiveness of possible interventions, which target both push and pull factors.

185. One possible solution to spatial imbalance would be to introduce a new cadre of qualified contract teachers, who would be on short-term (two- to three-year) appointments and who would be expected to be posted to hard-to-staff schools. However, in those countries where such parallel employment schemes have been introduced, they have been resisted by teachers and their trade unions.
186. Localising the recruitment of teacher trainees has been found to be an effective strategy for easing deployment problems in some countries. LGEAs could become more proactive in encouraging and supporting school leavers in schools and localities which are particularly hard to staff to become teachers. These school leavers should be given priority by at the CoEs when admitting new student intakes. However, they would be obliged to belong to the initial posting scheme once they qualify and be expected to teach at schools in their home areas. This is the underlying rationale of the FTTSS. However, to date, it has proved difficult to ensure that FTTSS graduates are posted to their designated schools.

- Both B.Ed. and NCE courses could be revised in order that they are focused on the development of the attitudes and competencies (knowledge and skills) that are necessary for effective class-based teaching in rural schools.

187. The implementation of the initial posting scheme is dependent on housing of a reasonable quality with basic services (running water and electricity) being available at hard-to-staff schools. A key component of the teacher staffing strategy is, therefore:

- to identify what these housing needs are and secure the necessary funding in order to meet them in the shortest time possible.

188. Incentives could be created to shift teachers from over-staffed to under-staffed LGEAs. More generally, there is widespread support for the re-introduction of location allowances for hard-to-staff schools. However, experience from other countries suggests that these allowances have to be quite substantial relative to basic pay in order for them to be an effective inducement. Given, therefore, acute financial constraints faced by the SMOE and SUBEB, it is recommended:

- To conduct very careful analysis of the cost-effectiveness of any new set of locational incentives. Financial inducements should only be considered for those schools and possibly LGEAs as a whole where persistent and acute staffing problems remain. It’s not clear at this point which of these solutions are favoured by teachers or LGEA staff.

Curriculum implementation and timetable management

189. Subject-teaching is more teacher-intensive and is not usually considered appropriate for primary education, especially in the younger grades. The current practice of teachers following their classes from P1 to P6 is very demanding since the teacher has to get to grips with new subject content across all subjects every year. Two suggestions could therefore be to:

- phase out subject-teaching once teachers have received adequate in-service training to cope better with the subject content and pedagogical demands of the curriculum, and for primary school teachers to teach the same grade every year.
- Give serious consideration at JSS level to increasing the workload norm from a current (quite low) 18 periods a week to at least 25 periods a week (i.e. five periods out of eight per school day), which would be more common internationally. Even at this level, the average teaching load in more than two-thirds of schools is still higher than this.
- In addition, teacher utilisation could be considerably improved as a result of closer adherence to the prescribed period requirements, better timetable management by school principals and inspectors and the rationalisation of very small primary schools and JSS.

190. The JSS curriculum has 12 compulsory subjects (34 periods/week) and between one and three electives (two periods per week each). This curriculum is over-crowded and, given the current staffing norms, makes it particularly difficult for smaller schools to employ the required number of subject teachers. Consideration should be given, therefore:
to reducing the number of core subjects. Around six–seven subjects is the norm in the majority of developed and developing countries.

191. Very small schools usually have considerably higher unit costs. Any scope for increasing the size of schools in a cost-effective manner should, therefore, be explored.

192. Systematic, high-quality management training for inspectors, school principals and heads of departments would result in major improvements in resource utilisation and teacher performance. It is recommended, therefore:

• To review the current management training scheme (which is being supported as part of GEP3).

193. Given that the available evidence (Humphreys and Crawfurd 2014; Dunne et al 2014, and the distribution of STRs and teacher-stream ratios in Katsina) suggests that there are a number of challenges with the management and deployment of teachers:

• further work could assess teacher management and deployment practice. This is being planned and is underway in Katsina and Kaduna (Allsop 2014).

10.3. Teacher education

194. The remainder of this section discusses teacher education. Specifically, having already discussed how many new teachers should be trained to meet the demand for additional teaching posts and the replacement of existing teachers, we now ask what kind of teachers should be trained in the future? This draws on this study, but also on a reflection on international experience.

195. The poor quality of teaching threatens to undermine the entire human resources development strategy in Katsina State. It profoundly affects all levels of the education and training system and, moreover, is very wasteful in terms of the resources committed to teacher education. It is recommended, therefore, that:

• the state government and SUBEB establish a joint task force which will develop a comprehensive teacher improvement strategy. This task force should review and build on the findings and recommendations of this study.

196. The creation of a world-class teaching profession should be the overriding vision which guides attempts to improve teacher training and teaching performance in the classroom. A key factor in the success of the newly industrialising countries in Asia (in particular Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan, and Malaysia) and elsewhere (for example, Brazil, Poland and Ireland) has been the outstanding performance of their education and training systems coupled with the willingness of both public and private sector organisations to ‘learn from others’. The Katsina State Government could, therefore:

• compare Katsina with and learn from successful countries as a crucial step in fulfilling its ambitious economic and social development goals.

10.3.1. An informed and educated state

197. A high-quality labour force is essential, especially in order to become competitive in global markets for both agricultural and non-agricultural products and services. More generally, human resources are increasingly the key determinant of economic growth and overall development. Good progress has been made in developing the education sector in Katsina State during the last 20 years, but major challenges remain. In particular, the quality of primary and secondary education remains considerably below that of the high and middle-income countries with which the state and Nigeria as
a whole must compete. As noted earlier, the results of the 2013 MLA and TDNA for Katsina State show that the levels of learning achievement in reading and mathematics among children and teachers are very poor and thus far below the international average. The main policy implication is, therefore, that:

- more concerted and sustained efforts to improve learning achievement in both primary and secondary schools are urgently needed. Ensuring adequate numbers of properly trained teachers is key.

10.3.2. A unified, graduate teaching profession

198. Nearly all OECD and other developed countries have unified, university-trained teaching professions. As elsewhere, the Katsina teaching profession should be unified based on a medium-long-term vision of an all university graduate teaching force throughout the school system. This will entail a comprehensive restructuring of the teacher education system with state and federal universities taking direct responsibility for teacher education and the phasing out of the independent diploma-level colleges of education. The medium–long-term goal for the schooling system in Katsina State should be, therefore, that:

- all primary and secondary school teachers should be professionally trained university graduates.
- the key medium-long-term goal should be to increase the minimum qualification requirement for all teaching at primary and secondary schools to degree-level – either B.Ed or non-education degree with PGDE.

199. Concerted efforts are needed immediately to improve the relevance and overall quality of the pre-service training offered to school teachers by the CoEs, especially at IKCE, which is seriously under-funded and has poorly qualified and experienced lecturers. The recently launched Teacher Development Programme (which focuses on 14 LGAs) along with the related state-wide I-TDP should, if properly supported, lead to appreciable improvements in teaching quality. However, additional support is urgently needed to improve the facilities and lecturer qualification profiles and overall competencies at the CoEs.

200. The prevailing degree-diploma (NCE) qualification segmentation between primary and secondary school teachers is the consequence of the under-developed state of the education system in Nigeria at the time of the rapid expansion of the school system in the 1970s. The persistence of this qualification divide continues to exacerbate the inferior status of both primary and junior secondary education, which, in turn, undermines the overall development of basic education as a whole. The relatively old age profile of primary school teachers in Katsina State provides a window of opportunity to begin to recruit more university graduates as these teachers retire. It is recommended, therefore, that:

- junior secondary education move to all university graduate intakes as quickly as possible. In the longer term, primary school teaching should also become a graduate profession.

201. Any new strategy for teacher training will require very extensive discussion among all the major stakeholders backed up by more detailed research. However, it is clear that the two top priorities in the short term, i.e. the next 10 years, are (i) to ensure that all primary school and JSS teachers are fully qualified, i.e. have the NCE qualification, and (ii) increase the recruitment of university-trained teachers in both primary schools and JSS. Despite the 2012 deadline, over 40% of primary school teachers are still unqualified. It is therefore recommended that:

- Unqualified teachers should be replaced with qualified teachers, with only the most able unqualified teachers being retained.
• More support should be given to NCE teachers who want to upgrade to the degree level.
• There should be an age limit (probably 45 years) and only teachers with demonstrated commitment and excellent teaching performance should be granted study leave.
• The main goal in the longer term, i.e. over the next 25 years, should be to phase out the NCE altogether so that all newly trained teachers will be university-trained with either B.Ed. or PGDE professional qualifications. It is recommended, therefore, that 25% of teacher intakes into primary schools are university graduates by 2025 and that all intakes into JSS are graduates by 2025.
• Immediate steps to improve the quality and relevance of pre-service teacher training are taken, particularly at IKCE which is seriously under-resourced and has relatively poorly qualified and experienced lecturing staff.

10.3.3. A unified teacher education system

Universal principles of public sector reform

202. The basic principles for effective public service delivery are now well established and form the basis for public sector reform programmes worldwide. Ensuring that the right kinds of incentives are in place is central to all forms of service provision. The six main features of efficient and effective public service delivery are: competition between service providers, choice among service users, independence of service providers to manage their own resources, separation of funding from service provision, clear performance targets and performance-related rewards for both organisations and individuals, and independent monitoring and evaluation of services provided. These six features are discussed in relation to Katsina below. It is recommended that:

• a reformed teacher training system in Katsina State is based on these universal principles and features of efficient and effective public sector service provision.

203. Competition between service providers: Currently, there are few competitive pressures in the training market for teachers in Katsina State. Training institutions (the two CoEs and the two universities) have assured intakes and funding is not performance-related. Competition is more likely if:

• independent training institutions exist in both the public and private sectors, which compete for both publicly and privately funded student clients on the basis of both quality and cost.

204. Choice among service users: Individuals should be free to choose where they study. This has always been the case for prospective teacher trainees in the state, and this could be expanded in the future to include not just public training institutions, but also privately owned training centres.

• Further work would be required to understand whether there is demand for privately-operated teacher education institutes.

205. Independence of service providers: It is now widely accepted that teacher training is not part of the core business of ministries of education and that teacher training institutions should be free to manage their own training programmes independently of central government rules and regulations.

206. Separation of funding from provision: There is currently no organisational separation of the funding and actual provision of teacher training in Katsina State. Such a separation would help to create the right incentives among service providers to provide high-quality services to a separate client group.

207. Performance targets, rewards and monitoring: Neither the CoEs nor the departments of education have clear performance targets with funding being based on performance.
Proposed restructuring

208. The overall structure of the teacher education system in Katsina State needs to be comprehensively reformed. This restructuring should be undertaken in accordance with the above-stated principles of public sector delivery and also the projected level of demand for teachers in the future. The dominant global model for the restructuring of national teacher training systems is, historically, for freestanding CoEs (most of which were part of ministries of education) to be merged with existing or new faculties of education at appropriate universities. Where excess training capacity exists, smaller, less efficient colleges are closed down altogether (see Schweille and Dembele, 2006 and Tatio, 2007). This institutional reform model has formed the basis for the restructuring of teacher training in many countries. In South Africa, for example, teacher training reform in the mid-1990s achieved its major objectives of rationalising the supply of teacher trainees, improving standards of professional training, and significantly reducing overall training expenditures (see Jansen, 2005).

Pre-service teacher training

209. No serious consideration has been given to date to significantly increasing the number of graduate teachers in primary school in Katsina State. This is despite the fact that a considerable number of NCE teachers are currently studying for B.Ed.s. The minimum requirement is that they must have been in post for two years and have passed civil service examinations (which apparently most do). However, given the current situation, the likelihood that many of these in-service graduates will return to primary school teaching is low (despite equal pay and other conditions of service between primary and secondary teachers).

- It is recommended that all pre-service teacher training becomes the direct responsibility of the two universities which would train both primary and secondary school teachers across all the main subject specialisations. The existing CoEs should be incorporated into the universities and could, in fact, become the education campuses of these universities.
References


Terms of Reference

Justification

There is growing call by key stakeholders’ and senior policymakers at Federal and state levels and other key stakeholders in Nigeria to align teachers’ supply and demand. Many teachers in the rural areas in northern Nigeria do not meet the minimum quality standards, and, although a large recruitment of NCE teachers is coming out of the state teacher colleges and universities, considerable dissatisfaction exist with their deployment. Schools in the rural areas are often in need of more qualified teachers, particularly female, but in many cases qualified teachers not willing to teach there.

The scenario is coupled with a rising population, inefficient government investment in front line public services and years of neglect of the Nigerian education system in a poor northern states. Education indicators are amongst the lowest in Sub-Saharan Africa, particularly for girls. Currently it is estimated that there are 8-9 or 10.5 according to (GMR 2012) million school aged children not attending school, a disproportionate 48 percentage are girls. The Federal Government and the state governments have committed to fulfill its obligation to improve comprehensively the quality of both primary and secondary education in the country. In particular, it is essential to ensure that there are adequate numbers of better trained and motivated teachers in order to achieve the government’s ambitious goal of Universal Basic Education (UBE). There has been a significant increase in investment in the basic education through Federal and state governments but the challenge remains the low quality of education outcomes in the northern states and the inequities in teacher deployment.

The Girl Education Program in Nigeria (GEP 3) is an eight year DFID funded program and is a part of a suite of programs aimed at improvement of the quality of education for girls in northern Nigeria. GEP3’s aim is to improve the social and economic opportunities for girls and women in selected states. GEP 3 project has six outputs areas, these are increased parental demand for support to girls’ education; increased basic education opportunities for girls; improved teaching and learning processes and environment; increased and more effective participation of women in providing education; effective governance at school, LGEAS, state and national level; and enhanced knowledge management. It is currently operating in five States (Bauchi, Katsina, Niger, Sokoto, and Zamfara).

Objectives and Tasks of Work

Objectives of the consultancy

The primary purpose of this study is to examine the current and future teacher supply and demand at primary and junior secondary school in line with the teacher education and development policies and practices from the year 2012 to 2020.

The main objectives of the study are as follows:

(i) Give a brief overview of the teaching force in primary and junior secondary schools with emphasis on the numbers of teachers disaggregated by gender, state and LGEA teacher qualification and experience profiles.
(ii) Propose projections of the number of trained primary and junior secondary school teachers required over the next 3 to 5 years, including the alternative option and costs of upgrading of currently untrained teachers.
(iii) Calculate the costs of any additional teaching posts and teacher training that are required.

Major tasks to be completed in the study, in order of sequence are as follows:

1. Agree the purposes of the consultancy, a methodology and deliverables with EDOREN and the relevant state authorities.
2. Review existing studies on teacher supply and demand, in particular studies in other states of Nigeria.
3. Assess teacher recruitment and deployment policies in the State (issues for consideration should include Federal the State and the role of the TRCN). This will include an examination of:
   - Methods of determining needs at school level;
   - Criteria for appointment/deployment;
   - Selection and appointment processes.
4. Provide projections for the number of required teachers over the next 3 to 5 to seven years on the basis of State norms for pupil: teacher ratios.
5. Set out the implications for the colleges of education and other training providers.
6. Set out the financial implications of the findings (the tradeoff between quantity, quality and pay in relation to the resource envelope), on teacher supply needs and professional development in Katsina State.
7. Produce an interim report and summary presentations as the basis for a workshop with state officials, teachers and their Union representatives.
8. Facilitate a workshop to consider the above findings and to discuss and validate the findings of the report.

**Methodological Approach:**
- The principal focus of the study will be on teachers supply and deployment.
- Details of the methodological approach proposed will need to be presented and discussed between UNICEF and EDOREN teams.
- The results of the study should include data, which both satisfies high levels of reliability and validity and provides a reasonably representative picture of teacher supply and deployment in Katsina. Other forms of data presentation can also be utilized to enrich the overall advocacy on understanding of teacher supply and demand issues.
- The methodology used should be established and based on sound principles which have credibility within the academic community and should already have been well tested and validated by similar published research of very high published quality.
- Data must be collected in a reliable way, so the data can be used to inform the State Katsina Ministry of Education and other stakeholders in teacher deployment process.

**Specific factors that will guide the sample size and location:**
- The nature of the study, which is highly qualitative in focus, does not lend itself to the sample sizes associated with large scale surveys. Neither would such large scale samples be realistic in terms of costs.

**Expectation of the proposals**
- It must be emphasized that the above are only suggested parameters. The EDOREN Expert will need to specify how he or she proposes to carry out the study to generate the required data and analysis.
- A list of key indicative costs and the required number of research assistants should be attached.

**Other areas to be considered**
Three important areas should be considered when designing and carrying out the study are: (1) maximizing stakeholder participation, (2) ensuring accountability and ownership, (3) procedures and logistics.

**(1) Stakeholder Participation:**
- The principal stakeholder – SMOE is clearly committed to this study. UNICEF is also working very closely with all stakeholders and the state colleges of education on teacher issues.
While the study is commissioned by UNICEF, the study will also be overseen by the State Ministry of Education. The Colleges of Education will also be a key partner in helping to facilitate the research and subsequent dissemination processes.

(2) Accountabilities:

- The lead EDOREN expert will be the team leader, working alongside 1 national counterpart from the SMOE, and XXX research assistants selected from the colleges of Education.
- The MOE will appoint a senior Ministry staff member to oversee the study at the state level and to ensure smooth collaboration with Local Government Education Areas.
- The research assistants will be assigned and trained in their specific roles by the lead researcher, with the support of the core team drawn from the SMOE, State College of Education and National Teacher Training Institute (NTI).

(3) Procedures and Logistics:

- As noted earlier the study will be carried out in Katsina State.
- The final report can be completed and workshop held to disseminate the findings by the EDOREN expert.
- Time will be allowed for both for preparatory and writing up stages.

Expected Deliverables

1. Agreement on the objectives and approach with senior State officials.
2. An interim report of findings prior to the workshop.
3. A set of conclusions/outcomes from the workshop.
4. A final report setting out the connections between teacher supply and demand, and measures to increase professionalism and motivation and providing step projections for the next seven years.

Desired background and experience

- The lead consultant must be an expert in this area of research.
- He or she must also have more than 8 years’ experience of conducting large scale research in poorly resourced primary schools that are typical of Sub-Saharan Africa.
- He or she must be well aware of ethical issues in carrying out such research and identify and address these issues in the research proposal.
- The team leader must also be a good facilitator and communicator of the findings of the study and have the capacity to train Tanzanian counterparts in the methodology used.
- Practical knowledge of teacher management issues in Nigeria.
- Ability to manage change through other people Possession of inter-personal skills and the ability to deploy them as and when necessary

Ability to provide constructive guidance and feedback to other professionals

Scope of the study

The study will be limited to primary, Junior secondary and Secondary school teachers in Katsina States. Institutions to be visited include State Ministry of Education, SUBEB, Colleges of Education, Federal College of Education, and Universities, Primary Schools, Junior Secondary Schools, and Secondary Schools.

Period: The period of the study is estimated to take 8 weeks period.
## Annex B  List of people interviewed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>ORGANISATION</th>
<th>DESIGNATION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Sunusi Mamman</td>
<td>Katsina State University, now called Umaru Musa Ya’adua University, Katsina</td>
<td>Dean of Students, Dept. of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alh. Aliyu Idris Funtua</td>
<td>Federal College of Education, Katsina</td>
<td>Deputy Provost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. N. Francis Audu</td>
<td>Federal College of Education (FCE) katsina</td>
<td>Academic Director of Planning Research and Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Girl Child Educ. &amp; Child Devt. WTC Road Katsina</td>
<td>Special Adviser to the Governor on Girl Child Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Mani Ahmed</td>
<td>Katsina State University</td>
<td>Dean, Faculty of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof. C. C. Okam</td>
<td>Katsina State University (now UMYU)</td>
<td>HOD, Education Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof. Johnson O. Fatokun</td>
<td>Federal University, Dutsin-Ma, Katsina State</td>
<td>Dean, Faculty of Science &amp; Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Musa Usman Mani</td>
<td>Isa Kaita College of Educ., Dutsin-Ma, Katsina State</td>
<td>Deputy Provost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. U. F. Audu</td>
<td>Federal College of Education</td>
<td>Director of APRS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engr. U.A. Nurudeen</td>
<td>Katsina State University or UMYU</td>
<td>Director of Academic Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr Muhammad Dikko Ali</td>
<td>FCE Kastina</td>
<td>Deputy Provost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr Umaru Sanda</td>
<td>FCE Kastina</td>
<td>Dean Faculty of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Muazu</td>
<td>FCE Kastina</td>
<td>PRO, Info. Unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Umar Mamman</td>
<td>Katsina State University</td>
<td>Isa Kaita, COE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Binta Muhammad Y</td>
<td>HOD Psychology</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Special Adviser to the governor of Kastina State on Higher Education Kastina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr. Abubakar</td>
<td>FCE, Katsina</td>
<td>Statistician, APRS Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr Aliyu</td>
<td>Principal Revenue Officer</td>
<td>FCE, Katsina</td>
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<tr>
<td>Badamasi Ja’afar</td>
<td>ICT Officer</td>
<td>COE Isa Kaita</td>
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**Isa Kaita COE, Dutsinma Group Discussion.**

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</table>
Annex C     An overview of basic education in Katsina

C.1 Katsina state

Katsina State was created in 1987 out of the defunct Kaduna State, with Katsina as the state capital. It is made up of Daura and Katsina Emirates, which featured prominently in the establishment of the historical Seven Hausa Kingdoms (Hausa Bakwai). The state occupies an area of around 24,000 square kilometres and had a population of 5.8 million at the time of the last national Population Census in 2006.\(^\text{18}\) It is bounded by Kano and Jigawa states to the east, Kaduna State to the south, Sokoto and Zamfara states to the west, and the Niger Republic to the north. The major ethnic groups are Hausa and Fulani. Islam is the predominant religion and the main occupations are farming, cattle rearing and crafts. Administratively, the state is divided into 34 local government areas (LGAs), covering the three senatorial districts of Daura, Funtua and Katsina.

C.2 The school system: an overview

C.2.1 Historical background

Katsina is known historically as the ‘cradle of learning’. Islamic schools and other centres of scholarship were in existence as far back as the 14th century. The famous Gobarau Islamic Learning Centre and Mosque (Gobarau Minaret) was constructed during the reign of Sarkin Katsina Muhammadu Korau (1348–1398). It was the centre of learning for the whole of Western Sudan. With the advent of Western education, Katsina also took the lead in Northern Nigeria with the establishment of one of the earliest education centres, the Katsina Training College, in 1922.

C.2.2 Overall policy goals and objectives

Based on state planning documents, the Katsina government fully supports the national policy goal of universal basic education (UBE) of nine years (six years of primary education (P1–P6) and three years of junior secondary education (JSS1–JSS3)). The SESP (2011–2020) for Katsina State translates national policy into specific state education objectives. With regard to educational attainment, the key aspiration is the attainment of quality UBE of nine years. Multiple interventions have been adopted in order to increase access and quality of schooling.

With regard to teachers, the main SESP goals are (i) to increase the number of qualified teachers through in-service education training to 3,312 by 2013 coupled with the progressive enforcement of the minimum NCE teaching qualification in primary schools; and (ii) reduce the STR to 60:1 in primary school and 40:1 in JSS through the recruitment of an additional 4,404 primary school teachers and 1,356 JSS teachers. Currently, around 250 NCE teachers are studying for university degrees.\(^\text{19}\)

The transition from primary school to JSS is supposed to be automatic (i.e. not dependent on primary school terminal examination results), in line with the federal and state policy of UBE. However, as a result of overcrowding in many JSS in Katsina State only around 80% of primary school leavers are currently being allowed to progress to JSS.

\(^{18}\) With an estimated annual population growth of 3.0%, the projected population in 2014 is 7.3 million.

\(^{19}\) They are on full pay while studying and also receive allowances of around NGN 10,000 for books and other training-related expenses.
C.3 Schools and enrolments

C.3.1 Number and type of schools

Federal education policy is to promote a 6+3+3 schooling system based on the nine-year basic education cycle followed by three years of senior secondary schooling. As is the case for every state, there are two main types of schools in Katsina State which provide basic education: primary schools (P1–P6) and JSS (JSS1–JSS3).

The ASC response rate is 100% for government schools but only 29% for (registered) private schools, and a desk review of the ASC in several states including Katsina noted some significant problems in the quality of data (EDOREN 2013). In the government sector, there are currently 523 pre-primary only schools (early child care development centres), 2,209 pre-primary and primary schools, 237 junior and 230 senior secondary schools and 106 combined (junior and senior) secondary schools. The number of primary schools has remained relatively stable during the last decade whereas the number of secondary schools has virtually doubled. With regard to non-formal education, the Katsina State Government (KSG) has supported the establishment of two (all boarding) Tsangayas and four Almajri schools. The ASC reports that there are 34 Islamiya Integrated schools (10 primary, 24 secondary) and 86 nomadic schools. Most of the very large number of Qu’ranic and Mallam do not use the official school curriculum.

C.3.2 School size and utilisation

The majority of primary schools and JSS in Katsina State are quite small by international standards, which has major implications for staffing and resource efficiency. One-third of JSS have fewer than five teachers and nearly two-thirds have fewer than 10 teachers.

Enrolment size distribution of primary schools and JSS in Katsina State, 2011/12 (rounded percentages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enrolments</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>JSS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101–250</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>251–500</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>501–750</td>
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<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>751–1,000</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,001–1,500</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,501–2,000</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,000+</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ASC

C.3.3 Enrolments and enrolment rates

According to data from the Annual School Census, a total of 1.55 million pre-primary and primary and 201,000 junior secondary students were enrolled in government and private schools in 2012/13. Primary school enrolments increased by 37% in between 2006/07 and 2012/13 (see Figure 2.1) while JSS enrolments increased by 28% between 2009/10 to 2012/13. There is some mobility among the school-aged population due to rural–urban migration and learners moving from relatively low to high performing schools within and between local government education authorities (LGEAs). Private enrolments are

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20 Tsangayas and Almajri schools are Islamic educational institutions, covering institutions of varying size, formality and integration with national curriculum.

21 Enrolment in nursery schools was only 72,036 in 2012/13, up from 41,004 in 2008/09.

22 JSS enrolment data for earlier years was not available.
relatively small, but as noted above are likely to be seriously under-reported. The gender parity index for primary school enrolments in 2012/2013 was 0.70 (up from 0.56 in 2006/07) and 0.65 for JSS enrolments (up from 0.55 in 2009/10).

**Female and male enrolments in primary and junior secondary schools in Katsina State, 2006/07–2012/13**

Based on official population projections (which are not without quality problems), ASC data indicate that the gross enrolment rate (GER) for primary education was 83% for girls and 122% for boys in 2012/13. However, as discussed below, the official projections for the school-aged population are likely to be seriously under-estimated. According to household survey data from the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), in 2011 the primary school gross attendance rates (GARs) were 55% for girls and 72.5% for boys. The corresponding GARs for the 2008 DHS were 41.4 for girls (i.e. a 13.6 percentage point increase) and 63.3% for boys (i.e. a 9.2 percentage point increase (see Figure 2.2). Thus, the primary education GAR for girls increased by 13.6 percentage points in this three-year period, which (if true) is very impressive, and 9.2 percentage points for boys.

The ASC-based GER for junior secondary education for 2012/13 was 37% for girls and 45% for boys. Again, however, the GARs calculated from data in household surveys are much lower and are likely to be more accurate. The GAR for JSS for girls increased from 9.3% in 2008 to 27.2% in 2011 and, for boys, from 41.3% in 2008 to 45.1% in 2011 (see Figure 2.2).

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23 However, it should be pointed out that the 95% confidence intervals for these estimates are quite large, i.e. between 15 and 20 percentage points.
Gross attendance rates at primary schools for girls and boys in Katsina State in 2008 and 2011


Separate attendance/enrolment rate estimates for JSS are not available from any of the three main household surveys. MICS indicates that the net attendance rate for secondary schooling as a whole in Katsina State doubled between 2007 and 2011 from 13% to 27%.

Figure 2.3 shows the age-specific enrolment rates for females and males in the 6–16 age range, which have been calculated from the 2008 DHS and 2011 MICS. These enrolment profiles again highlight the very significant increases in enrolment rates during a short three-year period when concerted efforts were being made to improve schooling access by SUBEB and KSG. Even so, in 2011, only 51.2% of girls and 52% of boys aged 14 were still in school, which indicates that there is still a long way to go before the official policy of nine years of free and compulsory basic education for all up to this age is achieved.

24 Given the sizeable range of enrolment estimates based on 95% confidence intervals, these age-specific enrolment profiles have to be treated with considerable caution.
Age-specific enrolment rates for girls and boys in Katsina State based on 2008 and 2011 household surveys


C.4 Out-of-school children

There are two categories of ‘out-of-school’ children, namely those who have never attended school and those who enrol in school, but drop out before completing reaching JSS3 (i.e. the full nine years of compulsory basic education).

C.4.1 Never attenders

The 2008 DHS shows that 36.3% of boys and 60.1% of girls aged 11–14 in Katsina State had never attended school (see Figure 2.4). Unfortunately, more recent state-level household survey data on out-of-school children is not available. More research on just exactly which children never attend school and the reasons for this is required in order for effective policies to be designed to ensure that all children enrol in school. The table below shows that nearly half of the parent respondents in the community mapping exercise in six LGAs in Katsina State indicated that the main reason for not sending their children to school is a ‘preference for Quaranic schools’ (see UNICEF, 2014). If this is the case, then reducing the costs of education may not have a major impact on reducing the number of never attenders, especially among girls.
Share of children and young adults who had never attended school in Katsina State in 2008

Source: DHS 2008.

Four main reasons why parental respondents in the GEP3 community mapping exercise do not send their children to school, late 2013–early 2014 (rounded percentages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LGA</th>
<th>Preference for Qu’ranic education</th>
<th>No interest</th>
<th>Can’t afford</th>
<th>Distance to school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Batsari</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baure</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faskari</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kankara</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kankia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rimi</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GEP3 Community Mapping Exercise

C.4.2 School dropout rates

According to the ASC, dropout rates for primary schooling are very low, but they are likely to be seriously under-reported in many schools (as is indicated by the fact that many schools report zero dropouts, which seems very unlikely). Unfortunately, the sample sizes for the number of households surveyed in Katsina State are too small to be able to derive statistically robust dropout estimates (See Mezger 2013).

C.5 Access policies

C.5.1 Compulsory education

The attainment of UBE of nine years remains the key education policy objective in Katsina State. To this end, KSG wants to make school attendance compulsory for all children aged up to 16. However, the UBE Bill
which will enshrine this in law has yet to be implemented, and international experience suggests that this is difficult to realise in practice.

### C.5.2 Orphans and vulnerable children

There are no reliable up to date estimates of the number of orphans and vulnerable children (OVC) in Katsina State. It is widely reported that OVC are often excluded from school because of lack of money. However, the 2008 DHS for the North Central States (to which Katsina belongs) shows only very small differences in attendance rates between children according to their parental status. It is not known what proportion of OVCs receive support for their schooling.

Recent data on the number of (‘disabled’) children with additional learning needs does not appear to be available for Katsina State. For Nigeria as a whole, it is estimated that around 15% of children have some form of disability. UBE policy objectives with regard to children with special/additional learning needs are based on the principles of inclusive education. However, very little information is available on enrolments and learning outcomes among this group of learners in Katsina State. The SESP does, however, have has specific objectives with regard to special education.

### C.6 Education financing and expenditure

Public funding for the education sector comes from three main sources: state funding (mainly for secondary and higher education), local government funding (for primary education) and counterpart funding by the federal government through the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC)/SUBEB (for both primary schools and JSS). The federal government allocations to LGAs account for almost all salary and other recurrent expenditure for primary education.

#### Public expenditure on education in Katsina State, 2008–12 (NGN billion)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Funding source</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State government</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local government</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBE-Intervention Fund</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Trust Fund</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donors</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: State annual budget and SUBEB financial reports 2009–12

The current breakdown for SMOE between recurrent and capital expenditure is now around 70:30 compared with less than 5% allocation to capital expenditure five years ago.\(^{25}\) There has been a very large increase in funding for capital projects in the state as a whole (see below) and a major school infrastructure programme. In particular, the number of secondary schools has doubled since 2007. Both primary and secondary schooling is completely free in Katsina State, which includes examination fees (which amounted to NGN 600 million in 2012/13).

State government allocations to basic education are for funding UBEC matching grants and running costs as well as infrastructural developments and the payment of teachers’ salaries in all secondary schools. State funding for JSS running and personnel costs is managed by SMOE. As in every state in Nigeria, there are

\(^{25}\) Interview with SMoE official.
little or no data on local government expenditure on education other than the overall allocation from the joint account of the state.

The UBE-Intervention Fund is for infrastructure (70%), textbooks and other learning materials (15%), and teacher professional development (15%). The funding is split between pre-primary (5%), primary (60%) and junior secondary education (35%). Basic education funding from the UBE-Intervention Fund takes the form of quarterly disbursements that comprise equal matching grants from UBEC and state government and account for about 5% of total funding sources for the sub-sector. The fund is managed and accessed by SUBEB, which prepares a quarterly action plan for UBEC approval.

KSG funding for basic education increased from NGN 10 billion in 2008 to over NGN 17 billion in 2012 (representing average annual nominal and real growth rates of 15% and 2% respectively). However, the overall share of education in the total state budget fell from 29.5% in 2008 to 23.5% in 2010, the latest year for which data were available.
Annex D  Teacher supply and education at universities

D.1  Institutional framework

The two universities are the Federal University at Dutsinma (FUD) and Umaru Musa Yar’adua University (UMYU) in Katsina. The universities train high-level personnel for all sectors. UMYU is the main state university, and presently admission is restricted to indigenes of the state. However, some LGAs in Katsina State are better placed to send graduates than others. For example, Katsina and Funtua LGAs are relatively well endowed with senior secondary schools and so have relatively very high intakes to the university.

FUD follows the National University Commission’s basic admission requirements of five subject credits in no more than two sittings, including mathematics and English. No concessions are given. Besides the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB), applicants are further screened. They are required to sit the Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination aptitude test and, if successful, are called for interview.

There are slight variations in the UMYU admission procedures. The minimum requirement for admission is five credits, including mathematics and English, in two sittings of either WAEC or NECO. Those qualified applicants are given admission and must take English and mathematics. Mathematics is compulsory for science programmes. English with credit is compulsory for humanities programmes, but all must have a pass in mathematics. Unqualified students must go for remedial programmes and also sit for WAEC. The remedial programme lasts for one year. If they pass the remedial programme, they must continue with WAEC and pass deficient subjects before they are admitted. In all subject areas, all minimum requirements must be met, but in some courses (such as Hausa, Arabic and Islamic studies), the department can accept a pass in mathematics.

Overall, there is consistency and uniformity in admission requirements. WAEC is the basic requirement and NECO is also accepted.

D.2  Enrolments

Education enrolments at FUD are small. Only 52 students were enrolled in 2013/14 (39 for the B.Sc. and 13 for the B.A. education programmes). The Faculty of Education at UMYU comprises the Departments of Education and Library and Information Science. Most of the current 1,238 education students are enrolled on the B.Ed. three-year degree course, with only 17 studying for the Post-Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) and 61 Master’s students. Current enrolments are almost double the university’s projected enrolment target for education (which was 700 in 2012). Education enrolments at UMYU nearly doubled between 2009/10 and 2012/13.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total education students at UMYU, 2010–13 (insert totals)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UMYU, Katsina

State of origin: Around half of the education students at FUD and two-thirds at UMYU are state indigenes.

Education enrolments at FUD are low mainly because of the relatively low status of education compared to the other major subject areas. Furthermore, NCE student intakes are still required to complete the full three-year B.Ed. degree.
The academic qualification profile of intakes at FUD is good. With only a state catchment, UMYU tends to have lower academic performance intake levels.

Student dropout from the Faculty of Education at FUD is negligible. Probation is, however, a key issue, with one in 15 students on probation. By contrast, student dropouts and spillovers (repetition) are major problems at UMYU. However, dropout rates have declined appreciably during the last five years.

**UMYU education student dropouts, 2005–12**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dropout %</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UMYU records

Annual B.Ed. graduate outputs from UMYU were in the range of 230 to 280 between 2009 and 2012. Around 20% of students gained upper second degrees (see Table).

**B.Ed. graduates from UMYU by class of degree, 2009–12**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree class</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper second</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower second</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Faculty of Education, UMYU

**D.3 Staff**

In 2013, a total of 44 education lecturers were employed at the two universities (FUD 15, UMYU 29). Lecturing staff from other faculties are also heavily involved in teaching education students.

The qualification profiles of education lecturers at the two universities are much stronger than at CoEs, with the large majority of staff at both institutions possessing post-graduate qualifications (see tables below). Most FUD education lecturers have either a doctorate (68%) or a Masters’ degree (20%). The qualification breakdown of the 29 full-time staff at the Department of Education at UMYU is PhD (48.3%), M.Ed. (34.5%) and B.Sc. (17.2%).

**Qualification profile of lecturers at FUD, 2011/12–2013/14**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>2011/12</th>
<th>2012/13</th>
<th>2013/14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.Sc.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.Sc.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: University records
The overall experience profiles of education lecturers at FUD are generally quite weak, with the large majority of staff having less than 10 years of experience (see table). The data for UMYU are too incomplete to draw any conclusions.

Years of service of education lecturers at FUD, 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>&lt;5</th>
<th>5–10</th>
<th>11–15</th>
<th>16–20</th>
<th>20+ years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: University records

FUD lecturers are paid according to the Consolidated University Academic Staff Salary Structure (CONUASS), which is applicable in all federal universities in Nigeria. It can be observed that these salaries are much higher than the salaries paid to IKCE teaching staff. Most state (including UMYU) and private universities have also adopted CONUASS.

Salary structure for lecturers at FUD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Annual salary (NGN million rounded)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>4.6–6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior lecturer</td>
<td>3.1–4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer 1</td>
<td>2.1–2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer 2</td>
<td>1.7–2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant lecturer</td>
<td>1.5–0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate assistant</td>
<td>1.3–1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: University records

The typical workload at FUD is six to eight hours per week, which is low mainly because FUD has only recently been established. In the past, teaching loads at UMYU have been moderate. However, they are currently exceptionally high because many lecturers are away on study leave. The high teaching workload has led to high levels of stress and poor productivity. It is one of the reasons that the Academic Staff Union of Universities went on strike. Most of the professors and readers are on contract to cover for staff on study leave.

Staff attrition is low at UMYU (see Table). The main reasons for this are relatively high unemployment among academics in the country as a whole, and at UMYU better morale and effective discipline, with clear
rules and regulations to which staff and students must adhere, than elsewhere. To date, only one education lecturer at FUD has resigned.

Lecturer attrition from the Department of Education, UMYU, 2011–13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resignation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retirement</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract end</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>2</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *excluding contract end; Source: University records

The overall STR for the Department of Education at UMYU doubled from 25:1 in 2008/09 to 49:1 in 2011/12, which is quite high. The department relies heavily on team teaching with three–five lecturers handling the same course with up to 300 students.

The main funding sources for FUD are the federal government, TETFund and IGR (i.e. sales of admission forms and registration fees). Although students do not pay tuition, there are a number of charges that they must pay. Student charges at the FUD increased from around NGN 0.5 million in 2010 to NGN 3.1 million in 2013. Information could not be accessed on government funding, dues, the TETFund and ‘special interventions’. State funding for UMYU remained at around NGN 1 billion between 2010 and 2012. Federal government funding allocation through the TETFund increased significantly from NGN 22 million in 2010 to NGN 340 million in 2012 (see Table). By contrast, KSG only released NGN 241 million of capital funding between 2010 and 2012.

Sources of funding for UMYU, 2010–12 (NGN million rounded)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Funding category</th>
<th>Allocation</th>
<th>Accessed/Released</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KSG capital allocation</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recurrent allocation</td>
<td>962</td>
<td>1,007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TETFund</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGR</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UMYU records

FUD is currently housed on a temporary site. The planned move to a permanent site is already overdue. In terms of physical facilities, FUD currently has no major problems:

- Classrooms are well-equipped with chairs and tables and (internet-connected) smart boards together with projectors.
- Laboratories are adequate. Science education students do their practicals with other science students.
- FUD is one of the cheapest universities in Nigeria. It has internet access for 24 hours a day.
- The returning students pay annual fees of NGN 39,000, but they take care of their own food. The university provides transport to take them to their hostels. All can live on campus if they wish to do so.

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26 It is not possible to estimate unit costs for education students at the two universities mainly because a significant part of the B.Ed. degree course is taught by lecturers in other departments.
• There is a single general library in addition to a well-stocked e-library facility.
• Computer and internet access is continuous. Staff and students have their own well-equipped ICT labs.

The facilities at UMYU are reasonably adequate given the age of the university and current enrolment levels:

• There are sufficient classrooms and most are well-equipped. However, the university needs an examination hall and larger lecture theatres in order to accommodate future enrolment expansion.
• Laboratories are generally adequate. The Department of Education has a language lab and micro-teaching labs.
• The Department of Education has no ICT centre, but the internet can be accessed in all offices.
• The university has hostels for females. Currently, all students can be accommodated on campus. New male hostels are now being built.
• Staff offices are well-equipped with fridges, air conditioners, cabinets, and bookshelves.

D.4 Teacher education at universities

Generally speaking, the content and delivery of the teacher education programme at FUD is quite adequate and effective. Its overall philosophy and objective are to train competent teachers who can teach science subjects in both junior and senior secondary schools using modern innovative teaching techniques. The curriculum synopses are based on the National University Commission (NUC) benchmarks. Students are required to take courses from the cognate faculties so that they have good knowledge of the subject area. In addition, there are courses on teaching methodology which are taught by the Faculty of Education. Nonetheless, concerns still persist that the core subjects, areas of subject specialisation, and school-based studies are still not appropriately balanced.

The basic facilities and infrastructure at FUD are sufficient for effective curriculum delivery although the Faculty of Education has still to be accredited to offer courses at the 400 level. UMYU was established in December 2006. The Department of Education is part of the Faculty of Education and has lead responsibility for the B.Ed. degree programmes, which have the following broad objectives:

• acquisition of the skills for effectively teaching the subject specialisation in secondary schools;
• understanding and acquisition of the concept of teaching as applied to the classroom;
• acquisition of knowledge of developmental needs of children, the individual as a citizen, and society;
• acquisition, understanding and display of knowledge of the philosophical, sociological, historical and economic bases of education including a knowledge of the factors that influence education;
• proper understanding of the National Policy on Education;
• acquisition of the necessary skills and abilities for performing the varied functions of the teacher;
• ability to display confidence and competence in practical classroom teaching and management; and
• ability to display creativity and resourcefulness in teaching including the ability to display new teaching techniques and devices in the classroom wherever possible.

The curriculum content is adequate to meet the goals of the programme.

D.4.1 Teaching skills

FUD education students have yet to undertake teaching practice and so it is not possible to assess their teaching skills. At UMYU, students are taught practical skills and these are assessed.
Teaching practice at FUD is only 12 weeks (in two six-week blocks at the 300 and 400 levels). The course load is three units and all students must pass their teaching practice in order to graduate. Teaching practice is a six-credit unit course at UMYU. It is mandatory for all final year (400 level) students. Students are formally required to be assessed at least three times by their supervisors, but this rarely happens.

Course evaluation at UMYU is based on 30% continuous assessment and 70% end of semester examinations. As a rule, lecturers are expected to give a minimum of two continuous assessment assignments for course. They have, however, a free hand in choosing the measuring instruments they intend to use. At the end of each semester, students are expected to sit examinations in all the courses for which they registered at the beginning of that semester and they must have 75% class attendance for each course. Examination scripts, marking schemes, results and student projects are all externally moderated.

**D.4.2 Continuous professional development**

In-service training for teaching staff at FUD is strongly supported. Six staff from the Faculty of Education are currently being sponsored for doctoral and four for Master’s degrees. At UMYU, in-service training is the responsibility of the state government. The university has a bold plan for this and eight lecturers from the Education Department are currently studying for post-graduate qualifications both within and outside Nigeria.
This EDOREN report provides an overview of the supply of, and demand for, primary and junior secondary school teachers in Katsina state for the years 2014 to 2025. It projects future demands for teachers under six different scenarios, and draws policy implications for various aspects of teacher training, recruitment and deployment. This study was carried out by EDOREN on behalf of the UNICEF Girls’ Education Project, Phase 3 (GEP3), which is funded by UK Aid.

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