Primary School Teachers in North-Western Nigeria: Policy Goals, Objectives and Challenges

EDOREN Teacher Synthesis Report

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EXCLUSIVE SUMMARY

The primary education system in North-Western Nigeria is facing a crisis, as pupils are severely struggling to learn English and numeracy in primary schools. A key reason for this is because of a set of major challenges preventing effective teaching in the classrooms.

This study provides a summary of evidence on the major issues facing primary teachers in the North-West of Nigeria. This is based on a synthesis of studies carried out over three years by research consortium EDOREN (Education Data, Research and Evaluation in Nigeria).¹ A summary of findings and main recommendations are grouped into three major teacher policy challenges:

1. **TEACHER NUMBERS**: Ensuring teachers are employed in adequate numbers across the country, capturing issues around recruitment and deployment.

2. **TEACHER COMPETENCY**: Ensuring teachers are well-trained, knowledgeable and have essential teaching skills, reflecting on the effectiveness of pre-service and in-service teacher training.

3. **TEACHER MANAGEMENT**: Ensuring teachers’ commitment and attendance through better management, particularly stressing on factors that affect teacher motivation.

1. **TEACHER NUMBERS**

   While most Southern areas have enough teachers to reach a 40:1 Pupil-to-Qualified Teacher Ratio (PQTR), almost 145,000 extra teachers are needed in North-West and North-East Nigeria.

   ![145,000 extra teachers](image)

   **145,000 extra teachers** are needed in North-West and North-East Nigeria.

¹ For an overview of all reports summarised in this document, see Table A1.1 in the Annex.
b. States should start preparing for future teacher needs. This will be higher due two factors:

i. Rapid population growth. According to recent birth statistics, school-age population in North-Western Nigeria is projected to grow at 4.5% per annum.

ii. Aims to realise Universal Basic Education. To make basic education compulsory will mean enrolling all age-six children in primary school, requiring many extra teachers.

c. Teacher recruitment is mainly restricted by states’ fiscal space. Primary school teachers are almost entirely funded through federal government allocations to LGAs, which puts an overall cap on total recruitments. Training more teachers alone will not increase recruitment, but will lead to teacher graduate oversupply and a lower teacher absorption rate.

d. Recruitment is undermined by political patronage of unqualified teachers, and poor matching as head teachers are often not involved in selection or consulted about staffing needs.

**EDOREN Recommendations on teacher recruitment:**

1. A large federal initiative should provide additional funding to hire qualified teachers and effectively target the extensive need for teachers present in Northern Nigeria.

2. Annual teacher recruitment plans should be developed by SUBEB, linking teacher needs to fiscal recruitment prospects. CoE student intake should be capped by this recruitment plan.

3. Ensure the best graduate teachers are recruited, through standardised procedures (e.g. written applications, interviews) or additional criteria (e.g. teaching skills demonstration).

Teacher deployment is a major concern in North-West Nigeria. Rural schools have fewer, less qualified teachers. Four reasons explain uneven staffing.

i. Teachers do not want to go to rural schools due to lack of facilities, difficult working conditions, increased workload and general remoteness of location.
ii. Given teachers' preferences for urban schools, politicians influence deployment processes.

iii. By recruiting only local staff, rural LGAs are more likely to appoint underqualified teachers.

iv. Newer LGAs have fewer teachers due to low new teaching establishments in recent years.

**EDOREN Recommendations on teacher deployment:**

1. The State could provide a rural incentive scheme to compensate teachers for a difficult personal and working environment, but should include a clear, narrow eligibility criterium.

2. Clear procedures for teachers' school postings need to be enforced to make deployment more transparent. An example is to adopt an initial two-year mandatory rural postings; bypassing such posting is immediately recognisable.

3. Reform Female Teacher Training Scholarship Schemes (FTTSS) into prestigious recruitment schemes for the highest-able female graduate teachers to teach in rural settings.

4. Prioritise additional teacher recruitment resources to LGAs with highest current PQTRs.

**2. TEACHER COMPETENCY**

Most primary teachers' in North-Western Nigeria have insufficient subject knowledge in English, Mathematics and Science. They also have limited ability to assess pupil progress and are making inadequate use of effective classroom practices.

**Teachers have insufficient subject knowledge in the following areas:**

- English
- Mathematics
- Science
While many teachers lack subject knowledge and pedagogical skills, most went through pre-service teacher training and received their NCE qualification. There are four main pre-service training problems at Colleges of Education preventing NCE graduates from grasping basic skills:

i. **Student teacher intakes**: Students admitted into the CoE often have low academic ability and do not always comply with selection criteria.

ii. **Limited CoE teaching quality**: CoE lecturers exhibit the same ineffective classroom practices as school teachers, and have insufficient teaching practice.

iii. **Major CoE resource constraints**: Insufficient funding contributes to large classroom sizes and reduces teaching quality through inadequate teaching inputs.

iv. **Student assessment failure**: Due to weak assessment, even student teachers who are insufficiently qualified are given NCE certificates.

**EDOREN Recommendations on pre-service teacher training**

1. Students' intake quality can improve by ensuring full adherence to entrance requirements. This should be externally assessed and verified to prevent political interference.

2. Lecturers' teaching quality can be improved by ensuring that they utilise and model the same pedagogical skills they are teaching throughout the class.

3. The State should cap intake based on a lecturer-to-pupil ratio (LPR) and teacher recruitment prospects so that student teachers benefit from sufficient human and physical resources.

4. Ensure strict adherence to CoE graduation requirements through external assessment.

- In-service training selection criteria are often not transparent, and open to outside interference. Especially in rural areas were politics and bribery mentioned in filling spaces.
- Teachers' in-service training may be inappropriate due to three reasons:

**a. Poor facilitation:** the facilitators of in-service training may be unable to provide adequate training as they have the same capacity needs as teachers.

**b. Inappropriate course content:** trainings are often inappropriate as teachers are given advanced skills without meeting prerequisite skills (e.g. English language knowledge).

**c. Unrelated to a teachers' school situations.** Trainings did not match up with the school realities in terms of classroom size, lesson times or available materials.

- Due to inappropriate training, teachers often only “superficially” learn new teacher practices. They act in ways that make them appear more effective without improving classroom practice.

**EDOREN Recommendations on in-service teacher training:**

1. Selection criteria should be explicit and transparent to aid cohesion among teachers.

2. Teacher trainers should be screened to ensure they have the necessary subject knowledge, pedagogical skills and use the approaches they are teaching throughout the training.

3. In-service teacher training should build on teachers' initial capacity levels. Given low current levels, English and mathematics are the main priority, followed by pedagogy.

4. The language of training should also be based on teachers' initial capacity levels. In absence of English language skills, in-service training should be taught in the most appropriate local languages (e.g. Hausa in many parts of North-West Nigeria).

5. Training should be focused on ensuring teachers can use the methods they teach. Efforts should ensure teachers develop a deep understanding of pedagogic concepts.
3. TEACHER MANAGEMENT

- Teacher absenteeism is a significant concern in Nigeria, but varies extensively across States. Yet, classroom absence can be a bigger problem than school absenteeism.

- Almost all head teachers try to reduce teacher absenteeism, but feel constrained by their limited formal powers. Head teachers have little input in teacher recruitment and transfer process, and no opportunity to influence teacher remuneration. Instead, head teachers use a range of informal strategies, but teacher disciplining is difficult and 'persistent offenders' are inadequately addressed.

- School inspections provide inadequate support to head teachers: they were 'shallow', with little feedback and insufficient LGEA follow-up.

**EDOREN Recommendations on teacher disciplining:**

1. School-Based Management Committees (SBMCs) should be allowed to annually review teacher contracts to hold teachers accountable and help reduce teacher absenteeism.

2. Provide more formal powers for head teachers over teacher recruitment, remuneration and transfer to enable them to better reduce teacher absenteeism.

3. Make LGEA inspection visits more detailed, relevant and responsive to head teacher needs.

- For teacher motivation, pay and career progression, low salaries are teachers' main concern, but are relatively high in states that have adopted the Harmonised Public Salary Scale. While higher teacher pay motivates, it also prevents additional recruitment. Teachers often prefer to tolerate shortages of learning and teacher resources in return for improved pay.

- Promotion criteria are based on qualifications and years of service alone, which many teachers find demoralising. Promotion is often seen as impossible without “knowing anybody”, while states have frequently suffered years delay in give promotion-related payment increases.
EDOREN Recommendations on teacher motivation, pay and career progression:

1. Higher salaries are an important motivational tool for teachers. To offer better teacher pay, states should aim to adhere to the Harmonised Salary Scales.

2. A careful comparison should be made between the motivational benefits of higher teacher salaries and the wider benefit of recruiting additional teachers.

3. E-payments have proved particularly effective and should be introduced in all States to ensure regular salary pay and prevent teacher absence due to salary collection.

4. All teachers should receive a pay slip explaining the breakdown of their salary and deductions, to reduce existing confusions and promote salary transparency.

5. Promotion should be more closely linked to the teacher's performance. This should be subject to an annual review by the Head Teacher and relevant LGEA officials.

Building an Effective System for Teacher Performance

- Different actors are responsible for the six teacher policy areas. Yet, actors tends to have a particular priority on which they will tend to focus at the expense of other policy areas.

- It is important that explicit effort is made to improving the interaction within the system to allow for better coordination across teacher policy areas. This requires more regular information sharing and mutual accountability.

EDOREN Recommendations to building a more effective system for teacher performance:

1. Encourage all education stakeholders to focus on the complementarities across teacher policy areas. This also requires finding a way to balance conflicting demands, and avoid a situation of following one objective entirely at the expense of other demands.

2. The education system should set up regular, repeated exercises to ensure regular information sharing between vital stakeholders across all teacher policy areas.

3. Information sharing should be enforced through mutual accountability so that if any party fails to provide necessary information, other parties will hold them to account in order to obtain necessary information for their own planning processes. Unless information sharing is incorporated and incentivised within the wider system, it is unlikely to take place.
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<td>Annual School Census</td>
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<td>B.Ed.</td>
<td>Bachelor of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>CoEs</td>
<td>Colleges of Education</td>
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<td>EDOREN</td>
<td>Education Data, Research and Evaluation in Nigeria</td>
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<td>ESSPIN</td>
<td>Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria</td>
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<td>FCE</td>
<td>Federal College of Education</td>
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<td>FTTSS</td>
<td>Female Teacher Training Stipend Scheme</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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<td>HAPSS</td>
<td>Harmonised Public Salary Scheme</td>
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<td>JSS</td>
<td>Junior Secondary School</td>
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<td>LGA</td>
<td>Local Government Area</td>
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<td>Local Government Education Authority</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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<td>NEP</td>
<td>National Education Policy</td>
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<td>NTEP</td>
<td>National Teacher Education Policy</td>
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<td>NGN</td>
<td>Nigerian Naira</td>
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<td>NUT</td>
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<td>PTR</td>
<td>Pupil-Teacher Ratio</td>
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<td>PQTR</td>
<td>Pupil-Qualified Teacher Ratio</td>
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<td>SESP</td>
<td>State Education Sector Plan</td>
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<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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<td>TDP</td>
<td>Teacher Development Project</td>
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<td>Teachers Salary Structure</td>
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<td>UBE</td>
<td>Universal Basic Education</td>
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Chapter 1: Introduction

An array of recent assessments in North-Western Nigeria suggest that pupils are severely struggling to learn English and numeracy in primary schools. For instance, when grade 3 pupils in Jigawa, Zamfara and Katsina² were asked to answer grade 2 questions, only 3% met the minimum English standard and only 6% met minimum numeracy levels (De et al, 2016). Even by the time pupils get to grade 4, a study in Jigawa, Kaduna and Kano found pupils are still struggling with grade 2 material and fewer than 25% answered English literacy questions correctly while less than 40% could answer grade 2 numeracy questions (Cameron, 2015).

Throughout this report, it is argued that a key reason the primary education system in the North-West is failing is because of a set of major challenges preventing effective teaching in the classrooms. Only by addressing these challenges, both individually and collectively, are primary learning outcomes in the North-West likely to improve. This study provides a summary of evidence on the major issues facing primary teachers in the North-West of Nigeria. This is based on a synthesis of studies carried out over three years by research consortium EDOREN (Education Data, Research and Evaluation in Nigeria).³

The primary audience for this report consists of educational stakeholders in North-West Nigeria. This includes the State Universal Basic Education Boards (SUBEBs), State Ministries of Education (SMoEs) and development partners active in this region (including various DFID projects, UNICEF, USAID and the World Bank). In addition, this report may be of interest beyond the North-West and have reflections for national education stakeholders such as the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC), the Federal Ministry of Education (FMoE) and development partners.

² While not technically state-representative, this study is believed to be indicative of wider patterns across North-Western Nigeria due to comparability with state-representative findings in Jigawa, Kano and Kaduna (Cameron, 2015).

³ For an overview of all reports summarised in this document, see Table A1.1 in the Annex.
1.1 The Importance of Teacher Policy within the Education System

Having a low-skilled teaching profession is one of the biggest limitations to improving quality of primary education. Students learn more when they are taught by more effective teachers (Aslam and Kingdon, 2011; Hanushek and Rivkin, 2006; Nannyonjo, 2007). Similarly, impact of other investments (e.g. textbooks or school management training) depend on teacher quality (Yoshikawa et al., 2007). Hence, in the words of Nigeria’s National Teacher Education Policy (FME, 2014) “no education system can rise above the level of its teachers”.

While important and true, the reverse point is equally true; the effectiveness of teachers is a clear reflection of a wider functioning education system. The role of all actors in the education sector is to support and assist what happens within the classroom so that learning outcomes improve. Without such a vital support system, teachers will not be able to teach effectively in the classroom.

Yet, teacher policy is part of a system involving many actors at different administrative levels. For example, teacher training includes interaction between many institutions: Federal, state and local government, donors, training institutes and Colleges of Education (Dunne et al, 2014). This even extends outside education. For example, as teachers tend to be a government’s largest personnel cost, recruitment issues align not only with Ministry of Education, but also with broader financial decisions of Ministries of Planning and Finance at state and federal level (World Bank, 2015). Teacher policy also often has a political component. Teachers play an influential role in the community, so their management is often closely tied to the most local politics. (Watts and Allsop, 2015). Hence, “no education policy is perhaps more complex, multidirectional, fragmented, and unpredictable than that regarding teacher management and development.” (Chang et al, 2014).

“Available studies suggest that the main driver of the variation in student learning in school is the quality of the teachers... Studies that take into account all of the available evidence on teacher effectiveness suggest that students placed with high-performing teachers will progress three times as fast as those placed with low-performing teachers”.

—Barber and Morshed, (2007)
1.2 Conceptual Framework: The Teacher Policy Cycle

To reflect the interconnected nature of issues facing primary teachers, Figure 1.1 provides a conceptual framework of the “Teacher Policy Cycle”. This is made up of three rings.

1. The outer ring reflects six distinct “Teacher Policy Areas”, which provide the main tools to improve teacher effectiveness: recruitment, deployment, pre-service training, in-service training, teacher discipline, and teacher motivation, pay and career progression. Each area is often dealt with by actors at different administrative levels of the education system.

2. The middle ring reflects “Teacher Policy Objectives”. While the
six policy areas are distinct often dealt with by separate actors, their policy objectives often strongly overlaps. This is reflected by the three main aims to achieve under the 6 policy areas:

- Teacher numbers aims to ensure sufficient teachers are employed in all schools; this covers the policy areas of recruitment and deployment.

- Teacher competency aims to ensure sufficient teacher subject knowledge and teaching skills; this includes the policy areas of pre-service and in-service training.

- Teacher management aims to ensure teachers are motivated and attend class; this includes areas of discipline and teacher motivation, pay and career progression.

Yet, the three aims also interact in important ways, reflected by the three grey areas:

- Teacher numbers complements with competency through the policy objective to recruit and deploy only the most competent teachers.

- Teacher competency overlaps with management by a need to continuously develop teacher skills through in-service training and classroom application.

- Teacher management relate to teacher numbers through a tension between attracting and retaining high-quality teachers with extra pay and promotion, and the aim to increase teacher numbers through additional recruitment.

3. The centre reflects how each policy's ultimate goal is to improve pupil learning. Hence, sufficient teacher numbers are important mainly in order to ensure adequate attention to each pupil. Teacher competency ensures effective classroom practice and teacher management is vital to ensure teachers are best utilising pupils' school time.

This document will thus present each policy area separately,
A main message in this report is to consider these six teacher policy areas jointly to better realise their underlying policy objectives, improve the effectiveness of the teacher workforce and ultimately improve pupil performance.

1.3 Overview
Throughout this document, we will look at how each of the main objectives set out in the inner ring of figure 1.1, can best be realised through each of the policy elements of the outer ring. For each section, it offers a brief outline the major policy objectives, followed by an overview of the main challenges faced and how this complements or clashes with the other policy areas, with finally a brief summary of recommendations to best address these challenges. These are grouped into three major teacher policy challenges.

Chapter 2 will focus on Teacher Numbers. This will highlight that there is a large shortage of teachers employed throughout the region, especially in the most rural schools (Humphreys and Crawfurd, 2014; Bennell et al, 2014). This issue ties into teacher recruitment and deployment policy and is vital to ensure teachers can offer adequate attention to each pupil.

Throughout Chapter 3, the challenge of ensuring Teacher Competency is raised. This will show how most teachers in the North-West have limited knowledge of English and mathematics, and use little 'effective classroom practice'. While a majority of teachers are qualified (National Certificate of Education), most are insufficiently prepared to teach in primary schools (Johnson, 2010; Johnson and Hsieh, 2014; De et al. 2016). This challenge of pre-service and in-service teacher training is thus limiting teachers' ability to ensure effective classroom practice for their pupils.

Chapter 4 deals with Teacher Management. Here, it will show how teacher absenteeism is a significant concern (DfID Nigeria, 2012; De et al, 2016). Its persistence is partly due to head
The study concludes with broader suggestions on building a more effective system for teacher performance. This will firstly stress the need to balance conflicting demands across each of the six policy areas, and avoid a situation of pursuing one objective entirely at the expense of other demands.

teachers' limited powers to hold absent teachers to account, but also relates to teachers' frustration and low morale (De et al., 2016, Watts and Allsop, 2015). Addressing the related challenges of teacher discipline, motivation, pay and career progression are vital to ensuring teachers are best utilising pupils' school time.

In chapter 5, the study concludes with broader suggestions on building a more effective system for teacher performance. This will firstly stress the need to balance conflicting demands across each of the six policy areas, and avoid a situation of pursuing one objective entirely at the expense of other demands. Secondly, this will emphasize the need to build an adaptive systems that offers better ways to integrate regular information sharing and provides mutual accountability systems between each of the education stakeholders at different administrative levels.
It is vital for pupil learning that all schools (including hard-to-staff, rural schools) have a sufficient number of teachers, as only then can a teacher provide adequate attention to each of their pupils. As shown in figure 2.1, increasing teacher numbers is influenced through teacher recruitment and deployment policy. Its complements\(^4\) with other areas through the policy objective to recruit and deploy only the most competent teachers\(^5\) and with teacher management in tension between increased teacher numbers and attracting and retaining quality teachers through higher pay.\(^6\)

This section provide an overview of the main challenges to

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\(^4\) These complementarities are in Figure 2.1 through the light-green areas.
\(^5\) In this section, competency is mainly identified as teacher ‘qualification’ (i.e. does the teacher have a National Certificate of Education). However, in section 3, this assumption is revisited and the NCE is shown to be an inadequate measure of competency.
\(^6\) This section will emphasis the perspective of attaining teacher numbers, while Section 4 will reflect on motivational side.
There is huge disparity across Nigeria’s zones in the number of teachers needed. As shown in box 1, Nigeria has a clear policy goal of 40:1 Pupil to Qualified Teacher Ratio (PQTR). To be in line with the policy goals set out in Box 1, Figure 2.1 illustrates the difference in pupil-to-qualified teacher ratios (PQTR), and figure 2.2 reflects additional teachers needed.⁷

2.1 Teachers Required and Qualified

There is a large primary teacher imbalance across the country. More teachers are especially needed in North-East and North-West Nigeria.

There is huge disparity across Nigeria’s zones in the number of teachers needed. As shown in box 1, Nigeria has a clear policy goal of 40:1 Pupil to Qualified Teacher Ratio (PQTR). To be in line with the policy goals set out in Box 1, Figure 2.1 illustrates the difference in pupil-to-qualified teacher ratios (PQTR), and figure 2.2 reflects additional teachers needed.⁷

Box 1: Policy Goals on Teacher Numbers

The National Education Policy (NEP) prescribes that in primary school, Pupil to Qualified Teacher Ratio (PQTR) should not exceed 40:1 and all primary teachers should have a minimum of a National Certificate of Education (NCE). (FME, 2004a)

The Southern Region mostly has adequate numbers of primary teachers. Only the South-East requires additional teachers. Fewer teachers and a 75% qualification rate lead to a 54:1 PQTR, so that over 13,500 extra qualified teachers (27% extra) are currently required.

13,500 TEACHERS REQUIRED

The Southern Region mostly has adequate numbers of primary teachers. Only the South-East requires additional teachers. Fewer teachers and a 75% qualification rate lead to a 54:1 PQTR, so that over 13,500 extra qualified teachers (27% extra) are currently required (Humphreys and Crawfurd, 2014).

⁷ Due to limited data availability, Figure 2.1 and 2.2 are based on 2009/10 data. While exact PQTR and teacher numbers may be out of date, the general trend across zones is still believed to be valid. For a full overview of the figures, see Table A2 in Annex 1.
Figure 2.2: Teacher Imbalances across Zones in Nigeria

Figure 2.3: Teachers required for 40:1 PQTR across Zones in Nigeria

Additional Qualified Teachers Required to reach a 40:1 Pupil-to-Qualified Teacher Ratio
The largest teacher gap lies in the North-East, which has the fewest teachers (PQTR 152.9:1) and the lowest qualification rate (43%).

The Northern Region has considerably fewer, and less qualified primary teachers. It urgently needs additional teachers. Only the North-Centre has sufficient teachers (40:1 PQTR). The North-West has a 90:1 PQTR and only 46% of teachers are qualified, so that 85,500 extra teachers are urgently needed (+58%). The largest teacher gap lies in the North-East, which has the fewest teachers and the lowest qualification rate (43%). Almost 60,000 extra qualified teachers are needed, which would double teacher numbers (Humphreys and Crawfurd, 2014).

Katsina State as example of North-West Nigeria's teacher recruitment challenge: +140% primary teachers needed now, and +224% needed over the next 10 years.

Katsina has over 1.5 million pupils in public primary schools but only employs 19,500 teachers, giving a . To meet a 40:1 PQTR, almost 140% more primary teachers are currently needed (an additional 27,000).

Alongside a present teacher shortage, States should also start preparing themselves for future teachers needs. This will be much higher due two factors pushing up enrolment:

1. Rapid population growth. According to recent birth statistics, school-age population in North-Western Nigeria is projected to grow at 4.5% per annum (Bennell, 2014).

2. Aim to realise Universal Basic Education (UBE). To realise UBE's focus on compulsory basic education, all age-six children are expected to be enrolled in primary school by 2025. To meet enrolment growth and attain 40:1 PQTR needs many extra teachers.

To maintain the current PQTR in Katsina by 2025 means recruiting +45% teachers (see figure 2.4). Between now and 2025, the population growth will cumulate to more than 45%
CHAPTER 2: TEACHER NUMBERS | Primary School Teachers in North-Western Nigeria: Policy Goals, Objectives and Challenges

Figure 2.4 Teacher Recruitment Needs in Katsina State (2012-2025)
Source: adjusted from Bennell et al, 2014

\[ \text{Status Quo: Keeping PQTR} \]

\[ \text{Realising UBE - ensuring} \]

**TEACHER RECRUITMENT NEEDS IN KATSINA STATE (2012-2025)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Teachers needed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>19,238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>22,258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>26,022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2019</td>
<td>31,975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2021</td>
<td>39,639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2023</td>
<td>49,653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025</td>
<td>63,222</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Growth in pupil enrolment expected in 2025

65% extra pupils. To maintain the PQTR, more than 8,800 extra teachers would be needed. To realise UBE in Katsina by 2025 would require a tripling (+224%) of the teacher force (figure 2.4). A combination of population growth and higher pupil intake to meet UBE is expected to lead to +65% pupil enrolment in 2025.

Satisfying teacher demand with a 40:1 PQTR would mean adding almost 44,000 extra teachers (from a current base of 19,500).\(^\text{10}\)

It will be financially unaffordable for most Northern States to achieve UBE

For Katsina to employ the necessary number of teachers to attain UBE by 2025 with 40:1 PQTR will require a fivefold increase in funding (from NGN 4.6 to 23.4 billion) (Bennell et al, 2014).

The main factor affecting the number of future teachers recruits is average teacher salary scale. The above financial projections assume that the average salary profile does not change up to 2025. If Katsina chooses to increase salaries to the Federally proposed Harmonised Public Salary Scheme

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\(^{10}\) Based on figures from 2012/13 and projections up to 2025. See Table A3 in Annex 1 for more details.
(HAPSS) (see section 4.2 for more details), this would increase the overall salary costs by at least 50%, thus requiring almost an eightfold increase in funding (Bennell et al., 2014). More likely, however, is that overall funding remains the same and salary adjustment will simply lower the potential number of future recruits (see below).

Given similar low teacher numbers, high population growth patterns and limited fiscal base, most other states in North-West Nigeria will also be unlikely to afford achieving UBE. This means that the Federal Government will have to take the lead and provide additional resources in order to achieve UBE in the near future.

2.2 Teacher Recruitment

Low teacher recruitment is due to fiscal constraints, not lack of teacher graduates

The main reason why States do not employ the number of teachers needed is because they do not have the fiscal space to do so. Primary school teachers can be State co-funded, but tend to be almost entirely funded through federal government allocations to LGAs. This puts an overall cap on total recruitments in each LGA (Bennell et al., 2014).

· There is an important trade-off between recruiting more teachers and providing additional pay to existing teachers. Each state has its own pay scales for civil servants including teachers. Yet, most States’ main source of funding is the (constant) source of Federal funds. Hence, they are faced with an important trade-off between allocating additional resources to recruiting more teachers or pay more for existing teachers (World Bank, 2015). While there are other factors at play,¹¹ this partly explains overall teacher numbers across States. For example, the State of Jigawa pays salaries more than twice as high as Kaduna, and resultantly has much fewer teachers per pupil (45:1) than Kaduna (29:1) (Humphreys and Crawford, 2014).

¹¹ For example, States’ internally generated revenue, and the overall primary school enrolment in relation to the federal grants.
Low teacher recruitment is not caused by insufficient teacher graduates. It is often assumed that training more teachers directly leads to increased recruitment, thus lowering the State’s PQTR.¹² This was also tried in Katsina; between 2008 and 2013, an annual average of 2,000 NCE teachers graduated. Yet, recruitment numbers remained constant. Only 900 teachers on average were recruited by the SUBEB during this period (45%). Hence, while increasing CoE enrolment can reduce NCE quality (see section 3.2), it does not increase recruitment and leads to teacher graduates oversupply (Bennell et al, 2014).

There is little interaction between a State’s teacher recruitment and CoE in take numbers. Student teacher admission numbers are set by the National Council of Colleges of Education (NCCE) and determined by CoEs’ overall training capacities. Training institutes thus have no way of knowing overall demand for teacher specialisations in subjects (e.g. Mathematics, Science, English), or broader areas such as ‘lower primary school’ CoEs also provide little effort to supply required teachers; they do not enforce the NEP’s intake policy of 60% sciences/40% humanities, due to student preference for humanities (Bennell et al, 2014).

Recruitment is undermined by political interference and poor school matching.

Political interference affects timing and number of teachers recruited. Recruitment variation is best explained through electoral cycles: governors use future recruitment resources to hire more teachers before elections, leading to pre-election spikes, followed by years of low recruitment. As shown in Figure 2.5, the majority of teachers in Katsina are appointed in the run-up to State and federal elections in 2007: around 4,500 teachers were recruited in 2006, compared to 4,000 during the next six years up to 2012.

¹² The ‘Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship’ (FTTSS) is an example of this idea (see section 2.2).
Elections also help explain low recruitment through the balance of power between LGAs, who often prioritise primary education, and States, who rarely do. In Katsina, absence of local government elections between 2007 and 2014 resulted in a loss of LGAs' de facto control over federal budget allocations to the Governor's Office. LGAs were unable to challenge a prevailing Katsina State policy: to allocate 70% of the State budget to capital expenditure, with only 30% remaining for recurrent expenditure (including teacher salaries). Underfunding thus resulted in mounting teacher shortages. Yet, now that the 2014 elections have taken place, LGAs are expected to be in a stronger position to regain control of their federal government budget allocations and so in a better position to recruit more teachers (Bennell et al, 2014).

Teachers that are recruited are not always those most needed, due to political interference. When increasing teacher numbers is impossible (e.g. due to fiscal constraints) it is vital that the best graduate teachers are recruited. This is more possible during periods of low recruitment, as it often coincides with graduate teacher oversupply (as shown above). Yet, from examples in Katsina and Kaduna, recruitment restrictions have reduced quality of teachers employed.

Here, a moratorium on civil servant employment since 2007 meant that the process became less based on formal interviews, and instead relied more on pressures from elites, traditional rulers and politicians. Unqualified teachers are employed on their recommendations, passing off fake certificates or impersonating other teachers. According to one SUBEB director, LGA chairmen 'handed out teaching jobs to their friends', most of whom unqualified (Bennell et al, 2014).

One LGEA officer reported a threat to have their Education Secretary removed from office if they did not comply with certain posting requests. Another Head Teacher mentioned: "Most of these politicians' candidates are not even interested in the teaching job they just want the salary, you won't even see them coming to school and you can't report them. Those that want to do the job and have the qualification are not employed" (Watts and Allsop, 2015).
Teachers recruited are not always those most needed due to ineffective school matching. Head teachers are often not consulted about their staffing needs and simply receive new teachers to fill numerical gaps in their establishment. This led to the example where one school had 20 Islamic teachers, but the head teacher was forced to recruit a volunteer maths teacher to meet demand after official requests were not addressed. (Watts and Allsop, 2015).

2.2.1 Current Efforts to Improve Teacher Recruitment

A number of programmes are in place at State and Federal level to improve teacher recruitment. Firstly, many States have recruitment strategies as part of their Educational Strategic Plans. For instance, Katsina State explicitly mentions “recruitment of more qualified teachers” as its first priority to improve educational quality and relevance (KSG, 2010). To assist in this, it has adopted a ‘Teacher Recruitment and Deployment’ (TRD) protocol. It has also made available NGN 1 million to each LGA in order to employ secondary school leavers as untrained (contract) teachers. These are provided with a monthly NGN 10,000 stipend and expected to enrol for NCE training. Little information is available on this scheme’s utility (Bennell et al, 2014).

The Federal Ministry of Education (FME) also has two major schemes to redress teacher shortages. Firstly, through the UBE Intervention Fund (UBE-IF), it provides funding for in-service training with the main aim to upgrade teachers' qualifications to NCE. This mainly occurs through distance learning programmes, vacation and 'sandwich' programmes; in particular the Pivotal Teacher Training Programme (PTTP) coordinated by the National Teachers’ Institute (NTI). While in-service teacher upgrading improves the PQTR, preliminary findings suggest PTTP’s programmatic aspects do little to improve teacher competence and its assessment and certification components are mismanaged (Gershberg et al, 2015).
Secondly, the Federal Teachers' Scheme\textsuperscript{13} was launched in 2006 to increase the share of NCE-trained teachers recruited to public schools. Here, UBEC and the SUBEBs collaborate to employ recent NCE graduates to teach in primary and junior secondary schools for two years (UBEC 2014a). It helps to alleviate the major funding constraint on recruiting teachers at the State and LGA levels by offering additional federal funding for teacher recruitment, while also providing recently-qualified teachers with temporary jobs and teaching experience. However, at best, it offers a short-term solution, as teachers' salaries would subsequently need to be taken on by local governments following the programme's two-year period. For this reason, many FTS teachers have difficulty in finding subsequent employment and struggle to be absorbed into the permanent teaching workforce (Humphreys and Crawford, 2014).

2.2.2 EDOREN's Recommendations to Improve Teacher Recruitment

- When only States and LGAs are fiscally responsible for teacher recruitment, it exacerbates pre-existing disparities. While some States (e.g. Lagos) already have UBE-compliant PQTRs, others (e.g. Katsina) need to triple the size of their primary teaching staff. Only a large federal initiative that provides additional funding to hire qualified teachers, can effectively target the extensive need for teachers in Northern Nigeria.

- An exception to the State recruitment embargo should be made for primary teachers, both to increase teacher numbers and bring back a formal system of teacher appointments.

- If increasing teacher recruitment is impossible (e.g. because of fiscal constraints), ensure that the best graduate teachers are recruited, through additional recruitment criteria (e.g. teaching skills). This is possible due to current graduate teacher oversupply within States.

- Standardised procedures (e.g. written applications, formal interviews) are essential to identify candidates and avoid non-professional influences to teacher appointment.

\textsuperscript{13} This scheme is implemented under the MDG Project and financed through the Debt Relief Grants.
professional influences to teacher appointment.

Annual teacher recruitment plans should be developed by the SMOE and SUBEB, linking overall teacher needs to a fiscally realistic prospectus of teacher recruitment. This should be matched with the overall CoEs intake, to improve the effective teacher absorption rate.

Annual school-based needs assessments should be carried out, possibly using DSO/SSOs. This should be used by the CoEs to ensure adequate teacher students choose the necessary specialisations (e.g. in broad specialisations such as ‘Primary Education Studies’).

### Box 2: Policy Goals on Teacher Deployment

- The NEP stipulates “no school should exceed 40:1 PQTR” (FME, 2004a). This implies avoiding disparities and equalising teacher deployment within States and LGEAs.

- The National Teacher Education Policy (NTEP) holds that “special incentives shall be given to primary school teachers to be posted to rural or disadvantaged areas in form of rural posting allowances” (FME, 2014).

### 2.3 Teacher Deployment

#### 2.3.1 Teacher Deployment Inequities and Rural Hardship

Large teacher deployment inequities exist within states. For additional teachers to help pupil learning at the school level, teachers need to be equitably deployed within States (see Box 2). Yet, States often have wide disparities in their pupil-teacher ratios. For instance, in Kaduna, average PQTR is 47:1, yet across LGAs, this ranges from 17:1 to 91:1. Similarly, Jigawa’s average PQTR of 79:1 masks a range from 48:1 to 214:1 (Humphreys and Crawford, 2014).
Chapter 2: Teacher Numbers

Primary School Teachers in North-Western Nigeria: Policy Goals, Objectives and Challenges

Rural schools are more likely to have fewer, less qualified teachers and a higher share of male teachers. This is exemplified in the case of Kaduna. Here, 64% of teachers are qualified, but qualification also differs largely between LGAs. The two LGAs with most qualified teachers are urban (>80% qualified), while the two LGAs with the lowest teacher qualification rates (<45% qualified) are rural. Hence, “there is a huge problem of teachers going to and remaining in rural areas, while urban schools are full of teachers” (Watts and Allsop, 2015). This situation is made worse by the fact that many female teachers prefer to be employed in urban areas to be with their spouses (Adelabu, 2005). As such, most studies find that more rural locations have both more unqualified and more male teachers (Bennell et al., 2014).

There are four main ‘deployment problems’ that explain staffing inequities: teachers' reluctance, political involvement, 'indigenes' recruitment and LGA age.

• **Deployment problem 1: teachers do not want to go to rural schools.** Teachers are reluctant to be deployed to rural areas for a number of reasons. Teaching housing in rural areas might be unavailable, in poor condition or lack essentials such as running water and electricity. The working environment is also more challenging as classrooms may be constructed out of bush materials or corrugated iron sheets and there are limited teaching and learning materials available. Teachers also often have to teach multiple grades because of small school sizes and limited teacher numbers. This increases their workload and makes for a stressful environment. Lastly, poor roads and remoteness also prevent regular visits to other locations (e.g. to see spouses, family and friends). This last condition is particularly concerning to young females who are strongly committed to their spouses. As such, many teachers who are appointed simply fail to report for duty at their assigned schools (Bennell et al., 2014).

• **Deployment problem 2: political involvement worsens teacher deployment.** Given teachers’ preferences for urban schools, politicians often influence deployment processes. In Kaduna, State officials admitted that “there is a lot of political
interference. Everyone wants his father, brother or sister posted to the town” (Watts and Allsop, 2015). Teachers without political connections are often posted to rural areas or schools far away from home. Political appointments can also favour the appointment of men (Williams 2009; Dunne et al. 2013). Yet, it tends to be female teachers who refuse rural postings or ask for a transfer, usually on the grounds of needing to be with their spouse in an urban area (Adelabu 2005).

- **Deployment problem 3:** local councils employ local teachers who might be less qualified. LGAs are likely to recruit local 'indigenes' as teachers. While such a practice is understandable in a context of limited employment opportunities, it can also increase educational inequalities, as disadvantaged LGAs with lower numbers of teacher graduates are more likely to appoint underqualified teachers (Bennell et al, 2014).

- **Deployment problem 4:** newer LGAs have fewer teacher posts. Staffing level variations also reflect the LGA’s age. Older LGAs have inherited higher staffing levels, while newer LGAs have been particularly inconvenienced due to the relatively limited creation of new teaching posts since 2007, when many states adopted a recruitment moratorium (Bennell et al, 2014).

### 2.3.2 Current Efforts to Improve Teacher Deployment

The two most common options for States to improve their share of rural teachers relate to formalising their deployment procedures, and creating a teacher rural incentive scheme. Katsina State attempts to do the former by implementing a set of ‘Teacher Recruitment and Deployment’ protocols. It is important to assess if these protocols are effectively implemented, and if such formal measures can stand up to widespread examples of political interference in deployment. Katsina’s SMOE is also planning a ‘hardship' allowance (NGN 4,000–5,000 per month) for teachers in remote schools. Additional studies might be needed to see if this is large enough to overcome disadvantages of working in these
locations, or if alternative incentives (e.g. teacher housing) are more effective (Watts and Allsop, 2015).

Another initiative to improve female rural teacher deployment, is the UNICEF-sponsored ‘Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship Scheme’ (FTTSS). This offers scholarships to women in rural areas to train for the NCE at a State CoE, on condition that they teach in a rural school for two years after completing their training. States pledge to adopt additional student teachers, employ all new graduates and to deploy all graduates to their home villages. The scheme has operated in Bauchi, Katsina, Niger and Sokoto since 2008 and expanded to Zamfara in 2012.

The FTTSS’s impact on women’s participation in education has been limited primarily due to a low graduation rate. Over 7,800 women were awarded scholarships across five States. Yet a sample of tracked FTTSS students in Bauchi and Niger suggest that only 45% and 17% of FTTSS student teachers graduated after four years.¹⁴ Low pass rates were partly due to academic ability (student teachers thought courses were too difficult, lacked study skills and English proficiency), and partly reflected poor selection (some student teachers did not comply with selection criteria such as necessary minimum qualifications). Personal and political interests were also cited as factors influencing FTTSS candidate selection (Dunne et al, 2014).

Despite disappointing FTTSS completion rates, all ‘tracked’ FTTSS graduates were recruited. Given low overall recruitment in northern Nigeria highlighted in section 2.2, this is a significant achievement. Yet problems still persist. For instance, while all FTTSS graduates in Bauchi were deployed in rural localities, few were offered posts in their own communities. In Niger, some FTTSS graduates have been posted to urban or semi-urban schools. However, the ability to influence who gets recruited and sent to which schools might ultimately be a more important achievement for the program than training additional teachers. As such, it is suggested that “the processes from graduation to deployment need specific attention, to realise the FTTSS objective of getting more female teachers into rural schools” (Dunne et al, 2014).

¹⁴ See Annex A.4 for a full overview of the tracked FTTSS awardees from inception to deployment in Bauchi and Niger.
2.3.3 EDOREN's Recommendations to Improve Teacher Deployment

The following measures are proposed to address each of the four deployment problems.

1. **The State could provide a rural incentive (or ‘hardship’) scheme to compensate teachers for a difficult personal and working environment.** Many countries adopt this approach, but often interest group pressure ensured far more schools were classified as ‘rural’, and so the scheme had little influence on teacher redeployment (Gershberg, 2015). As such, it is advised that:
   - A clear, narrow definition is adopted of which schools are eligible for a rural hardship allowance to ensure it actually incentivises teachers to redeploy to rural areas.
   - Teachers’ non-salary incentives is prioritised to rural areas. For instance by offering housing or improving work conditions (e.g. providing additional learning materials, or deploying more teachers into a particular school to reduce each teacher’s workload).

2. **Political interference in teacher deployment reinforces regional inequities.** Hence:
   - Clear procedures for teachers’ school postings need to be implemented and enforced.
   - Make the deployment process more transparent, so teachers are less able to influence postings through political patronage. An example is to adopt an initial two-year mandatory rural postings; bypassing such posting is immediately recognisable (Cummings et al, 2016).

3. **Overcoming LGAs’ tendency to recruit only their own ‘local’ teachers.** The FTTSS tried to improve this by sponsoring rural women’s teacher training, but an oversupply of graduate teachers suggests teacher training might not be the most effective way to address this. A better focus is to build on the scheme’s success to affect recruitment and deployment by:
Rework the FTTSS into a 'prestigious recruitment scheme' for the highest-able female graduate teachers to work in particularly difficult rural settings. This could provide a powerful example of improving professionalism of primary school teaching by linking it to a formal, transparent and robust recruitment system that combines content knowledge and teaching skills (Watts and Allsop, 2015).

4. Because newer LGAs have fewer teacher posts, it is advised that any State-level and Federal teacher recruitment and deployment initiative should take current LGA postings as a guide and prioritise additional resource allocation to those LGAs who have the highest current PQTRs.
Students learn more when they are taught by more effective teachers (Aslam & Kingdon, 2011; Hanushek & Rivkin, 2006; Nannyonjo, 2007). As shown in figure 3.1, teacher competency requires an understanding of subject matter and pedagogical skills. This is influenced through pre-service teacher training and in-service training. It complements with teacher numbers through the objective to recruit and deploy only the most competent teachers to schools. It overlaps with teacher management through a necessity for teachers to continuously develop their skills through in-service training and continual application of practice in the classroom.

Figure 3.1 Teacher Competency within the Conceptual Framework

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15 Complementarities are illustrated in Figure 3.1 through the light-orange areas.
Most primary teachers' in North-Western Nigeria have insufficient subject knowledge in English, Mathematics and Science.

This section provides an overview of issues surrounding primary teacher competency in North West Nigeria. It first discusses skills and knowledge of primary school teachers in selected States. It then provides an overview of the state of pre-service and in-service teacher training, and discuss the main challenges to ensure teachers are equipped with the necessary skills to teach effectively.

3.1 Subject knowledge and Pedagogy

- While NTEP (box 3) explicitly calls for mastery of content knowledge, many teachers have insufficient subject knowledge. In a recent study for the Teacher Development Programme (TDP) (De et al, 2016), primary teachers' English, mathematics and science subject knowledge was tested in Katsina, Zamfara and Jigawa State. Based on the number of correctly answered questions, teachers were categorised into four 'achievement levels', shown in Figure 3.2.

**Box 3: Policy Goals on Teacher Competency**

- The National Teacher Education Policy (NTEP) stipulates: "Principle 4: in order for teachers to be able to teach effectively, they must have sufficient mastery of content and subject specific methods of teaching". (FME, 2014)

- Most teachers showed insufficient subject knowledge for all three subject areas.
  - For science, knowledge was most limited, with 63% scoring 'limited' levels, and 95% scoring 'limited' or 'emerging' levels. Only one teacher scored a sufficient science level.

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¹⁶The results in this study are mainly based on findings from Jigawa, Katsina and Zamfara. While these results are not representative within the state or outside it, they are comparable to state-representative findings in Jigawa, Kano and Kaduna (Cameron, 2015). For that reason, they are believed to be indicative of wider patterns across North-Western Nigeria.

¹⁷The Teacher Development Needs Assessments (TDNA) was administered to sampled teachers and head teachers. The English assessment asked teachers to write an English model letter and summarise two newspaper articles. A maths assessment required marking a grade 4 maths test covering addition, subtraction, division, decimals, computing time, measurement, unit conversions, fractions and reading of graphs. Science knowledge was assessed by asking teachers to prepare worksheets for grade 4 pupils.
- For English knowledge, 55% scored 'limited' levels, and 95% scored 'limited' or 'emerging' levels. Less than half a percent of teachers demonstrated sufficient knowledge of English.

- For mathematics, knowledge was strongest, but still 60% of teachers scored only 'limited' or 'emerging' knowledge levels, and 8% demonstrated sufficient knowledge.

Teachers' knowledge and ability to assess pupil progress is also limited

- Teachers' knowledge of pupil assessment methods is also limited. When tested on ability to monitor pupils' academic progress, more than 80% of teachers demonstrated only limited knowledge of pupil assessment. Just 0.3% showed sufficient knowledge (De et al, 2016).

- A majority of teachers claimed students understood material when pupil assessments showed this not to be the case. Similarly, workbooks were often marked as correct when the quality of notes was poor. Most teachers could not explain what
methods they use to assess pupils' progress. Teachers did not know how to respond to different learning levels in the classroom and to ensure all students achieved at least a minimum level. The most common response was to repeat the same information in hope that students would absorb it (De et al, 2016).

**Teachers make insufficient use of the most effective classroom practices**

- In addition to having subject and assessment knowledge, teachers need pedagogic skills that best enable students to learn from their classroom. Based on international evidence, the four 'most effective classroom practices' were selected and used for classroom observations:¹⁸

1. Teachers make efficient use of potential learning time;
2. Teachers create an environment that is conducive to learning;
3. Teachers engage and involve students so they learn better and develop wider skills;
4. Teachers set clear goals for students and track progress against them.

- De et al (2016) observed lessons to assess whether these practices were being used:

1. A large amount of potential teaching time was lost due to lessons starting late and/or finishing early. Almost half of lessons observed were significantly shorter than the standard 35 minutes, although reasons for this are not clear. Homework was set in only about a quarter of observed lessons. Although this cannot identify all important aspects of time management, it suggests that teachers are not making best use of instructional time.

2. Teachers are creating a positive environment through praise. Four in five teachers used praise more than reprimands, thus trying to create a positive environment.

¹⁸ For more information, please see Siraj, Taggart, Melhuish, Sammons, & Sylva, 2014; Westbrook, 2013
3. Only 40% of teachers’ instructional time was described as effective classroom practice (figure 3.3). The remaining 60% was described as ‘neutral’ practices (e.g. on lecturing, dictating or leading class chants). This suggests that teachers’ methods should be more focused on comprehension, such as asking more open questions.

4. A majority of teachers struggle to set goals, assess pupil performance and track progress. More than half of the observed teachers summarised the lesson at the end, but less than a quarter revisited the lesson’s objectives. Also, as shown above, most teachers’ knowledge of pupil assessment methods is also insufficient (De et al, 2016).

3.2 Pre-Service training

The previous section shows that a large majority of teachers lack adequate subject knowledge, and insufficient pedagogical skills. A contributing factor to this may be the share of unqualified teachers. In De et al (2016), this was found to be around 35%. However, the remaining 65% of teachers assessed had received an NCE qualification, but still appear to lack the necessary teaching skills. This section uses additional EDOREN studies to identify why this might be the case.

3.2.1 Limitations to Pre-Service Teacher Training Programs.

There are four main problems in pre-service teacher training: student intake quality, CoE teaching quality, CoE resource constraints, student assessment failure.

As shown in figure 3.4, the main problems in pre-service teacher training can be split into four problems: the quality of student teacher intakes, limited CoE teaching quality, major CoE resource constraints, and moderation and assessment failing to ensure that only students who grasp all basic teaching skills can graduate with an NCE. These thus relate closely to the major policy goals for pre-service teacher training set out under the NTEP (Box 4).
The National Teacher Education Policy (NTEP), (FME, 2014) stipulates the following:

- “Principle 2: In order to produce capable teachers, admission and graduation requirements need to be reviewed to improve quality of entrants and graduates.

- Principle 3: in order for student teachers to be able to learn effectively, teacher education institutions must be equipped to prepare them adequately.

- Principle 5: Successful student teaching is a result of structured, effective and supportive supervision provided to the student teacher by a variety of educators.

- Principle 6: For teachers to be able to learn effectively, teacher educators must be sufficiently trained and capable of imparting and modelling desired knowledge, skills and attitudes”

**Box 4: Policy Goals on Teacher Deployment**

Figure 3.4 Four main problems in pre-service teacher training

- Students admitted into Colleges of Education often have low academic abilities, and few have a “genuine desire to become teachers”.
- Underfunding results in large classroom sizes, insufficient qualified lecturers and insufficient learning materials which reduces teaching quality.
- Lecturers in CoEs exhibit the same ineffective classroom practices widely observed throughout primary schools in Nigeria, with theory heavy and non-participatory lecturing styles.
- Student assessment is weak and even trainees who are insufficiently qualified are given NCE certificates.
Pre-Service Problem 1: Students admitted into the CoE often have low academic ability and do not always comply with selection criteria

- Students enrolling in initial teacher education often do so because they failed to be admitted for other courses (Ejieh 2005; Garuba 2006; Akinbote 2007; Allsop and Howard 2009; USAID 2009). Hence few students have a “genuine desire to become teachers” (Akinbote 2007).

- Many admitted students have limited academic ability. This is shown in the ‘aptitude test’ that CoE require entrants to sit.¹⁹ In one example in Katsina more than 40% of students scored a 'D' in Mathematics and more than half of all pupils only scored a 'D' grade in English.²⁰ (Bennell et al, 2014). In some cases students in their third or fourth year of college were unable to read passably in either English or Hausa. This also reflects a challenge faced by many student teachers to understand subject-material when it is taught in English (Dunne et al, 2014).

- Not all student teachers abide by the entrance requirements. In the case of Niger and Bauchi State, only 63% of student teachers met the criteria of five subject credits. Personal and political interference were cited as factors influencing candidate selection. Interviews with CoE staff members reflect that many students claiming to have the minimum qualifications do not have the marks required and are allowed access through fake qualifications.

Pre-Service Problem 2: Teaching quality. CoE lecturers exhibit the same ineffective classroom practices as school teachers, and have insufficient teaching practice.

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¹⁹ Admission into the NCE programme requires secondary school credits in five subjects, and credits in English and mathematics are required for all NCE courses.
²⁰ See Table A5 for more information.
- Limited teaching quality in CoEs that helps explain why student teachers are not provided with the necessary skills over the four-year course of an NCE. Classroom observations in CoEs revealed a theory-heavy lecturing style that was not pupil-centred, lacking in practical elements and non-participatory. There was no usage of blackboard or other teaching aids, and generally insufficient time for student questions. In terms of interaction, the most used practice was a teacher-based question and a chorus answer (Dunne et al, 2014).

- Student teachers appear to rely on teacher practices observed during their NCE, rather than using the teacher practices taught. The ineffective classroom CoE practices are the same widely observed throughout primary schools (see previous section). (De et al, 2016). As such, when advocating pedagogical methods, a basic prerequisite is ensuring lecturers themselves practise these approaches (Gershberg et al, 2015).

- Teacher trainings often leads only to superficial adoption of teaching approaches. Many teachers may know of a practice, but have limited understanding of why, how or in which situations teacher training methods are most beneficial. (Gershberg et al, 2015).

- Teaching practice is the most important to developing applied teaching skills, but CoEs are often unable to deliver this effectively. The main challenge for CoEs to provide effective teaching practice is related to high lecturer to student ratios. In Katsina, for instance, 'micro-teaching sessions' for each student are typically only 10 minutes long whereas lesson duration is 35–40 minutes in most schools. Most CoEs try to adapt to this problem through practice lessons at demonstration primary schools, but problems remain regarding assessment of teaching practice exercises (see below) (Bennell et al. 2014).
Pre-Service Problem 3: Insufficient funding contributes to large classroom sizes and reduces teaching quality through inadequate teaching inputs

- The main reason why CoEs have insufficient qualified lecturers, lack learning materials and insufficient classroom space is because of insufficient funding from State government and the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund). For instance, a Katsina CoE received NGN 35 million annually for recurrent expenditure; with 4,000 students this amounts to only around NGN 8,750 per student (Bennell et al, 2014).

- Because of insufficient funding, CoEs rely heavily on student tuition fees for revenue, which give them a strong incentive to increase student enrolments beyond their training capacity. Hence, low federal funding and unenforced enrolment caps are partly responsible for excessively large classroom sizes (Bennell et al, 2014).

- Class sizes at CoEs are generally overcrowded (e.g. Adekola 2007; Sherry 2008; Allsop and Howard, 2009, FME 2014). For instance, in Niger State, lecture halls designed for 400–600 students were found to host classes twice or three times this size. This was especially true for compulsory courses, General Studies in Education (GSE) and General Education, which focus on essential pedagogical skills and competencies. Large classroom sizes reduce teaching quality, as students even reported difficulties in hearing and seeing the lecturer. They also prevent lecturers from responding to individual student concerns (Dunne et al, 2014).

- Most lecturers at CoEs have limited professional and pedagogical knowledge. As universities offer better pay and are considered to have a higher status for lecturers with postgraduate degrees, CoEs struggle to recruit graduate teachers (Adelabu 2005; Adekola 2007; Allsop and Howard 2009). In Katsina State, for example, only 15% of CoE lecturers had postgraduate qualifications, while 80% completed only an undergraduate degree (Bennell et al, 2014). Some lecturers are graduates without teaching qualification (Burke 2009; Thomas 2011). With lower professional and pedagogical knowledge of lecturers, CoE teaching quality will likely suffer.
- CoEs have insufficient textbooks and poor (library) facilities. Student teachers reported that insufficient textbooks were their most important challenge (59%) (Dunne et al, 2014). Library facilities in general are poor and there are no departmental libraries. There were also insufficient workshop equipment and laboratory materials. Classrooms and laboratories are also deficient in all respects – number, quality and size (Bennell et al, 2014).

Pre-Service Problem 4: Due to weak assessment, even student teachers who are insufficiently qualified are given NCE certificates.

- Many CoE students are struggling with their course, but this is not reflected in the overall graduation statistics. Student teachers report that the courses were too difficult, resulting in exam failure and subsequent repetition (Bennell et al, 2014; Dunne et al, 2014). Yet, in Katsina, the dropout rate is below 2% and an estimated 80% of pupils graduated with an NCE.²¹ If students truly are struggling, this graduation rate seems too high. In comparison, Katsina's Federal College of Education (FCE) has a better qualified teaching staff and more resources, but their graduation rate is only around 50%.

- This suggests that for CoEs, student assessment is too weak and even student teachers who are insufficiently qualified are given NCE certificates. This is reflected by one respondent, who mentioned that “there are some teachers that cannot read out their names even though they have an NCE” (Morris et al, 2015). Stricter adherence to CoE graduation requirements is needed, and should be better verified by external inspectors.

- Overcrowding worsens assessment. College staff cite overcrowding as the main reason for poor assessment, because it places excessive demands on one lecturer to mark so many student papers. This has even led students to mark papers themselves: “In a class you will see that we are having up to 500–1,000 students and only one lecturer; one lecturer cannot

²¹ Students have 3–5 years to complete their NCE. In absence of cohort data, a proximate graduation rate is calculated based on a ‘hypothetical’ cohort that is one-third of enrolment (e.g. for ’10/11, enrolment was 3,608 with 1,004 graduates, so the graduation rate was 83.5% (1,004 / (3,608/3)).
mark all those papers. (…) One of the lecturers in education, he gave some of the students our scripts to mark, and I came in and saw them marking” (Dunne et al, 2014).

- Teaching practice assessment is also weak due to insufficient funds and large class sizes. Assessment constraints also exist for teacher practice. Student teachers' professional practice is meant to be supervised by the CoE and cooperating school teachers. All final year students are supposed to undertake supervised teaching practice for a minimum of one full semester (i.e. 26 weeks) and receive three visits from lecturers. In practice, due to funding constraints and the many students each lecturer has to supervise, students teach only a few weeks and receive only one or no supervisory visit (Dunne et al, 2014).

3.2.1 Current efforts to improve the quality of pre-service training

The National Teacher Education Policy (NTEP) (FME 2014) acknowledges many of the known shortcomings of teaching education and is attempting to rectify this at the policy level. Yet, implementation has been slow (FME 2011). The Presidential Task Team on Education (PTTE) identified this is partly due to shortage of information, lack of LGEA consultation, funding constraints to implement Teachers' Salary Scale and States' unwillingness to adopt the policy.

In addition, a number of donor-based programs have been active in this field. A USAID-funded Community Participation for Action in the Social Sector (COMPASS) project worked with CoEs in Kano, Lagos and Nasawara States. It supported review of the Primary Education Studies (PES) curriculum, pedagogical training for teacher educators, additional training in the English curriculum and establishment of a teachers' resource centre. Students in the PES courses were reported among the highest achievers in the end-of-course assessments and also performed better in teaching demonstrations. This was attributed to COMPASS inputs (USAID 2009).
The Teacher Development Programme (see previous section), also has an explicit CoE lecturer training component, which might also improve the facilities and lecturer qualification profiles and overall competencies at the CoEs (De and Pettersson, 2015).

### 3.2.2 EDOREN recommendations to improve the quality of pre-service training

In order to improve the quality of pre-service training, the four separate issues addressed above should be each be addressed.

- **Students' intake quality** can improve by ensuring all student teachers fully adhere to the entrance requirements. This should be externally assessed and verified to avoid interference.

- **Improve lecturers' teaching quality** by ensuring they use the pedagogical skills they teach.

- To ensure CoEs have sufficient human and physical resources to train pupils, the State should cap intake based on a pre-set pupil-to-lecturer ratio and a teacher recruitment prospectus. This should prevent CoEs to generate more revenue by increasing intake. To cushion CoEs' revenue drop when enrolment decreases, their annual allocation should increase accordingly.

- **Ensure stricter adherence to CoE graduation requirements**, which should be better assessed and verified by external inspectors.

### 3.3 In-Service training

#### 3.3.1 Limitations to In-Service Training

In order to upgrading the skills of existing teachers, in-service teacher training is an important policy priority (see Box 5). It is for this reason that significant investment is currently taking place through in-service training and support to teachers in school.
The National Teacher Education Policy (NTEP), (FME, 2014) stipulates the following:

- “Principle 7: If teachers have to stay motivated, they must have opportunities for continuing professional development, advancement and improvement in their chosen career.

- Principle 8: Like all professionals, teachers must constantly update their knowledge and skills if they are to remain relevant in a rapidly changing world.”

Yet, in-service teacher education is also subject to a range of challenges.

In-service training is popular but often faced with unclear selection criteria

- **Positions for in-service training are highly competitive.** Teachers want to participate partly due to career benefits (e.g. eligibility for promotions through higher qualifications). In part this is due to financial benefits, as teachers receive additional allowances for training. Although small in size they represent a significant boost to teachers’ earnings (Watts and Allsop, 2014).

- **Teacher selection criteria are often not transparent, and open to outside interference.** While demand for places on courses is large, supply is limited. LGEAs therefore select candidates on the basis of specified criteria. Yet, concerns often were expressed that participants on courses were not selected transparently, especially in rural areas. Rather, there were accusations that politics and bribery decided who would fill some spaces (Dunne et al, 2013).

Teachers’ in-service training may be inappropriate due to poor facilitation, inappropriate course content, or lack of ties to school experience.
- In many cases, the facilitators of in-service training may be unable to provide adequate training as they have the same capacity needs as teachers. Trainings are often provided by pre-service educators, who themselves have capacity-constraints (section 3.2). They may thus be unable to provide adequate training (Dunne et al. 2013).

- There is no benefit introducing skills for teachers who do not meet foundational prerequisite skills (e.g. English language knowledge). Yet, given low subject knowledge (see 3.1), trainings are often targeted at an inappropriate level and may thus be ineffective (De et al, 2016).

- Training may also be unrelated to a teachers' school situations. For example, one training provide done-hour lesson plans, despite classes being 35 minutes. Another training referred to pages in textbooks that are not available in many schools (De et al, 2016).

Trained teachers often only “superficially” learn new teacher practices

- Teachers following in-service training know of, and adopt teacher practices but superficially. Teachers who received in-service training could talk, for instance, about child-centred learning, but their understanding was limited to factual knowledge without understanding why, how or in which situations they are beneficial. They often implemented effective practice (such as group work), but in inappropriate places and ways. They could be said to be acting in ways that make them appear to be more effective without actually being more effective and improving learning outcomes. (De et al, 2016).

3.3.2 Current Efforts to Improve In-Service Training

Much of the effort for in-service training is provided through external support. Most notably, the DFID-funded ESSPIN (Education Sector Support Program in Nigeria), TDP (Teacher Development Program) and the UNICEF GEP3 (Girls' Education Programme).
Yet, as mentioned above, teachers often visit workshops to receive allowances, not to learn new methods, thus leading only to shallow adoption of new methods. In response, researchers have expressed a focus on classroom- and school-based inservicetraining (Hardman et al. 2008; Sherry 2008; Dunne et al. 2013). The PTTE also recommended more in-school and between-school supervision. However, due to teachers’ preferences, current SUBEB-funded in-service training still tends to be based on external trainings (FME 2011a).

3.3.3 EDOREN’s Recommendations to Improve In-Service Training

- **Selection criteria for in-service teacher training should be explicit and transparent.** This will enable trainings to be better targeted, thereby aiding cohesion within schools and among teachers so that they are better placed to learn from each other.

- In-service teacher training facilitators should be carefully screened to ensure they have the necessary subject knowledge and pedagogical skills. They should also be assessed to ensure they themselves are practising the approaches they are teaching throughout the training.

- **In-service teacher training should build on teachers’ initial capacity levels.** Given the low knowledge levels of English, mathematics and science subject knowledge (section 3.1), this should be the main priority, followed by adequate pedagogical skills.

- **The language of instruction for in-service teacher training should also be based on teachers’ initial capacity levels.** In absence of English language skills, in-service training should be taught in the most appropriate local languages (e.g. Hausa in many parts of North-West Nigeria).

- **Training should be focused on ensuring teachers can use the methods they teach.** Superficial understanding can provide no benefit and may harm learning outcomes because of confusion created. Efforts should ensure teachers develop a deep
Problems in teacher management are well known. As figure 4.1 shows, these firstly include issues around ‘teacher discipline’ related to teacher absenteeism and poor performance. Then, they also reflect ‘teacher motivation’ issues such as inadequate support services, irregular pay processes and opaque promotion practices. Teacher motivation relate to teacher numbers through a tension between attracting quality teachers through higher pay and increasing teacher numbers, and is linked to competency through teachers’ necessity to develop skills through classroom application and daily practice. This section offers an overview of the current status on teacher management. It starts with teacher discipline, followed by
teacher motivation, pay and career progression.

4.1 Teacher Discipline

While the NEP describes certain aspects of teacher management (Box 6), this document and other policies all specify varying responsibilities of various tiers of government and agencies. For example, instead of the LGEA, many teacher disciplining roles have been taken over by SUBEB or in other cases by the State Teacher Disciplinary Committee (World Bank, 2015). Policy documents also tend to duplicate and stress conflicting responsibilities related to quality assurance. Hence, greater clarity on division of tasks relating to issues of discipline and wider accountability, as well as major policy objectives on improving teacher management will be especially important.

Box 6: Policy Goals on Teacher Discipline

The National Education Policy (NTEP), (FME, 2004a) stipulates that:

- “Local Education Authorities shall be responsible for the appointments, promotion, discipline and transfer or primary school teachers”

- School management boards “shall serve as channels for promptly transmitting information in respect of curriculum, enrolment and quality of education(…)

- “The primary responsibility of inspectors shall be to diffuse information about tested and effective teaching methods; to obtain information in respect of difficulties experienced by teachers in schools and further provide advisory solutions through appropriate authorities.”
4.1.1 Teacher Absenteeism and Instructional Time

Teacher absence is a significant problem, but varies a lot across States

- For pupil learning to take place teachers have to be present in the school and classroom, and teach for the intended duration of time. Yet, recent evidence suggests teacher absenteeism is a significant concern in North-West Nigeria, and varies extensively across States.

- In Niger, teacher absenteeism was 16%-29% across three LGAs (DfID Nigeria, 2012).

- In Jigawa, Zamfara and Katsina State 14% of teachers were absent, with slightly lower rates in Katsina (13%) than in Zamfara (14%) and Jigawa (15%) (De et al, 2016). State averages mask large variation across schools. Some schools display no absenteeism, while in others more than one-in-three (33%) of teachers were absent (De et al, 2016).

- The main reported reasons for absenteeism related to individual and familial concerns such as illness (58%) or social/religious obligations including attending funerals (10%). However, other reasons can be influenced more through changes at the education system, such as salary collection (20%) late or non-payment of salary (6%) and transport costs (6%) (De et al, 2016).

Classroom absence can be a bigger problem than school absenteeism. Even when teachers are present, on average 20% of instructional time was lost.

- Loss of instructional time can also occur in the presence of a teacher. Such classroom absence in many cases accounts for larger losses in instructional time than school absenteeism.

²² The average daily absence rate was computed from teacher attendance records over the previous five working days.

²³ One examples is e-payment systems; they improve timeliness of salary payments and avoid teachers travelling to receive salaries.
- In Enugu and Kaduna State, teacher absenteeism was low (3.4% and 2.4%), however classroom absenteeism was much higher (13% and 6%, respectively) (Guerrero, 2012).

- In Jigawa, Zamfara and Katsina State, the average lesson length was considerably lower than a standard 35 minute lesson, with over 45% of lessons shorter than 30 minutes and an average lesson length of 28 minutes. This suggests that on average, 20% of instructional time for each lesson is lost (7 out of 35 minutes) (De et al, 2016).

### 4.1.2 Teacher Discipline

Almost all head teachers try to reduce teacher absenteeism, but feel constrained by their limited formal powers.

- Almost all head teachers (95%) in Jigawa, Zamfara and Katsina reported taking action to reduce teacher absenteeism in the last academic year. However, the levels of 'classroom absenteeism' observed suggest that these actions may not be effective (De et al, 2016).

- Most head teachers felt constrained by their formal powers to improve recruitment. Head teachers have little input in teacher recruitment and transfer process, and no opportunity to influence teacher remuneration (De et al, 2016).

Instead, head teachers use a range of informal strategies, but teacher disciplining is difficult and 'persistent offenders' are inadequately addressed

- Head teachers use a number of informal strategies to try to influence teacher behaviour. These include gifting of financial or in-kind rewards (financed out of the head teacher's own salaries); use of teachers attendance register to signal problems to LGEA; mobilisation of SBMCs in support of dispute with LGEAs; enforcement of continual assessment of pupils; and threats to strip teachers of positions of authority. As a last resort for 'persistent offenders', official complaints can be sent to the
LGA via the SSO for disciplinary action. This can take the form of a warning, suspension without pay or school transfer (Watts and Allsop, 2015).

- **Teacher disciplining is ad hoc and 'persistent offenders' are inadequately addressed.** For Kaduna and Katsina, when teachers repeatedly demonstrate unprofessional behaviour, head teachers said that they would only offer teachers' advice'. There is no clear process for dealing with 'persistent offenders' and there is inadequate LGEA follow-up. Cases of collusion are also noted between teachers, the LGA or political leaders. One account held how “some people have Godfathers who stand for them, so even if you forward [a complaint to the LGEA], nothing can be done to them” (De et al, 2016). In extreme cases, however, teachers can be dismissed, as was the case when three male teachers were found guilty of sexually abusing schoolgirls in Adamawa (Dunne et al. 2013).

**School inspections provide inadequate support to head teachers: they were 'shallow', with little feedback and insufficient LGEA follow-up**

School inspections provide inadequate support to head teachers. In Jigawa, Zamfara and Katsina, school inspection was frequent (86% of head teachers reported being inspected at least twice by SUBEB, LGEA inspectors in the past month). Yet, information collected by inspectors was seen as too ‘shallow’ to assess quality and information collected is often unreliable. Feedback was rarely given to head teachers and LGEAs rarely respond to head teacher's requests for advice or support. One head teacher reported that for a serious case of teacher absenteeism (8 out of 15 teachers were repeatedly absent), general inspectors were unable to address the issue. Action was not taken until the SUBEB Chairman visited the school. (De et al, 2016). This goes against the set-out NEP objectives for school inspection (see Box 6).
4.1.3 Current Efforts to Improve Teacher Discipline

Teacher disciplining has mainly been devolved to sub-national level despite an existing national teacher ‘code of conduct’ called the “Professional Standards for Nigerian Teachers” (TRCN 2011). This is supported by the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN), a national body aiming to control and regulate the teaching profession at all levels. To investigate allegations of misconduct, the Teacher Investigation Panel (TIP) was instituted in 2007, open to any member of the public to register a complaint about a teaching professional. Such complaints are then to be investigated by the Teacher Disciplinary Committee (TDC), which exist at the national and State level. Yet, there is no available evidence on the frequency or nature of the allegations that have been made and by whom (Humphreys and Crawford, 2014).

4.1.4 EDOREN’s Recommendations to Improve Teacher Discipline

- Enhanced school influence over teachers can reduce teacher absenteeism. Given the widespread persistence of unprofessional teacher behaviour, it is commonly believed that insufficient measures are taken to ensure teacher discipline, partly due to insufficient school-based influence. A similar case was originally true across India. As shown in Box 7, a large community participation scheme was utilised to reduce teacher absenteeism. However, only when school committees were given clear roles and formal powers over teacher management did States manage to reduce teacher absenteeism.

This implies the following suggestions for Nigeria:

- Nigeria’s equivalent for VECs, School-Based Management Committees (SBMCs) can only provide an effective teacher oversight role if additional powers are given to them.

- Additional SBMC training and defining of roles might be required to ensure these have the necessary capacity to
The case of teacher absenteeism became a big political case after one study found 25% of teachers were absent from school, and half of all teachers were absent from classrooms. To reduce teacher absenteeism and monitor school quality, a community participation scheme was adopted through Village Education Committees (VECs).

Yet, across State governments there were large variations in the power provided to VECs. For instance, in the State of Nagaland, VECs were directly disbursing teachers’ salaries. In other States, VECs could hire and fire contract teachers. In most States, however, VECs had little control even over contract teachers and their role was restricted to community sensitisation activities.

Based on this, Gershberg et al (2015) note three main preconditions for these VECs to reduce teacher absenteeism:

1. Only States that adopted far-reaching powers to the VECs (e.g. power to influence salary disbursements or terminate teachers’ contracts) reduced teacher absenteeism; for others, there was no clear impact.

2. Adequate capacity and clarity about the VEC’s role in teacher management was also vital.

3. Teacher discipline can improve even more if teacher contracts are reviewed every year, rather than being automatically rolled over (as most commonly the case within the civil service).
effectively support and discipline its teachers.

- Annual review of teacher contracts offers an important tool for school committees to hold teachers accountable and can help reduce teacher absenteeism.

In addition, the following recommendations are made:

- Provide more formal powers for head teachers over teacher recruitment, remuneration and transfer to enable them to better reduce teacher absenteeism.

- Make the SUBEB/LGEA inspection visits more detailed, relevant and responsive to head teachers' needs.

4.2 Teacher Motivation

4.2.1 Teacher Motivation, Pay and Career Progression

Evidence suggests that teacher absenteeism can often be attributed to teachers' frustration, inability to cope with circumstances for which they were inadequately trained and their ensuing low morale (Sherry 2008; Dunne et al. 2013). One assessment of teacher motivation showed that 16.3% of primary school teachers were not satisfied with their job (UBE, 2012).

The National Teacher Education Policy (NTEP), (FME, 2014) stipulates the following:

- "Principle 1: In order to attract competent people into the teaching profession, there must be adequate incentives"

- "Principle 7: If teachers have to stay motivated, they must have opportunities for continuing professional development, advancement and improvement in their chosen career."
Low salaries are teachers’ main motivational concern, but are relatively high in states that have adopted the Harmonised Public Salary Scale.

- When asked for teachers’ largest concern in Kaduna and Katsina State, their ‘meagre’ salaries were most mentioned (Watts and Allsop, 2015). **Due to low pay, teachers felt undervalued in relation to other civil servants** (e.g. health workers) and private sector workers with higher salaries. Pay dissatisfaction was expressed most in urban areas (given higher living cost), and meant some teachers were actively looking for work in other professions. According to one Katsina teacher “most teachers have a small business because their salary is not enough and sometimes they don't do their work well because of that” (Watts and Allsop, 2015).

- Yet, another study found “overall level of pay for teachers in Katsina State is reasonable” and “pay levels as such are not a major issue among teachers and their main trade union, the NUT” (Bennell et al, 2014). Indeed, Katsina’s introduction of the Harmonised Public Salary Scheme in 2010 resulted in almost a doubling of teacher pay.

- **Teacher salary and remuneration practices vary considerably across States.** For instance, Jigawa has almost double of Katsina’s salaries, but Kaduna’s salaries are lower. The main allowance of 27.5% of basic salary for qualified teachers (12.5% for unqualified) is relatively generous. In some States, teachers are paid a range of allowances including housing, meal subsidies, teaching allowances and transport. However, most teachers felt these allowances to be insufficient: “Allowances do not match the realities on ground”. In addition, many States can go for several years without paying out such allowances (Watts and Allsop, 2015).
While higher teacher pay motivates, it also prevents additional recruitment

- A general recommendation is often made for States to adhere to the (Teachers) Harmonised Public Salary Scales (HAPSS). However, it should be kept in mind that there is a clear trade-off between higher teacher salaries and additional teacher recruitment (see section 2). Teachers are often aware of this, and while contesting to larger classroom demands, prefer to tolerate shortages of learning and teacher resources in return for improved pay (Bennell et al, 2014).

Salary payment can be improved through E-payments and by providing pay-slips

- Salaries are paid on time due to E-payments. Another cause for demotivated teachers is delayed salary payment. Yet, in Kaduna and Katsina, a recent switch to electronic payments of salaries and allowances has significantly improved the timeliness of payments. In Katsina, a head teacher mentioned “Its primary teachers that receive their salary first before any other civil servant (...) this seriously motivates primary school teachers” (Watts and Allsop, 2015). It is also acknowledged that it prevents head teachers from making arbitrary deductions, and has considerably reduced instances of leakages and fraud.

- Confusion exists about deductions. Some teachers were worried about ‘unexplained and inconsistent’ deductions, as teachers do not receive a pay slip explaining the breakdown of their salary and deductions. Introduction of the Consolidated Salary Structure (CSS) also led to confusion because not all teachers were aware it also incorporated allowances previously paid separate to their salaries. All these issues can be dealt with by providing an electronically-generated pay-slip, documenting all allowances paid and deductions made. This would offer greater transparency and guidance, and is particularly needed in rural schools where the most confusion currently exists around salaries and deductions (Watts and Allsop, 2015).
Bad promotion criteria, delays and political involvement demoralise teachers

- **Bad promotion criteria can demoralise teachers.** Promotion criteria are still based largely on qualifications and years of service: “both good and bad teachers get promoted together, which many teachers find very demoralising” (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007).

- **When States conform to proposed step-wise promotion of teachers, they often fail to give payment increases in time.** Many teachers “remained on the same salary grade level and have not been promoted for 7–9 years (5.9%) or for over 10 years (9.6%)” (FME, 2005). This is supported for Katsina in Figure 4.2, showing a large difference in expected (HAPSS)²⁴ pay and actual primary school teacher pay. This reflects both the limited promotion prospects for primary school teachers and the common failure to pay promotion-pay.

- **Promotion opportunities are seen as impossible without “knowing anybody”**. Head teachers in Kaduna noted that after obtaining a qualification, promotions and matching salary increases were delayed or impossible without “knowing anybody”. One teacher complained junior colleagues were promoted to senior positions ahead of them due to political connections. These issues were more common for teachers in rural schools. (Watts and Allsop, 2015).

²⁴ Under the Harmonised Public Salary Scheme (HAPSS) an NCE teacher should be promoted every three years from GL7 (the entry grade) to GL14 (which is the top grade that an NCE class teacher can reach).
4.2.2 Current Efforts to Improve Teacher Motivation

The FME recognises that teacher motivation is in part due to low pay, inadequate teacher support and inadequate school infrastructure (FME 2014). Hence, the NTEP notes that “a professional career ladder shall be developed and linked to the Teacher Salary Structure, taking into account seniority as well as results of performance-based evaluations (e.g. tests, observation of teaching assessment of teacher products, etc.) in order to provide rationale for advancement”. It is unclear how this proposal is currently being taken forward.

Head teachers, in collaboration with LGAs use a range of financial incentives and rewards to keep teachers motivated. These include confirmation of appointments, paid annual leave, transport allowances, annual leave allowances, meal subsidies, seasonal bonuses, payment of overtime allowances and rent allowances (FME, 2005). However, it is not clear how effective these incentives have been (Watts and Allsop, 2015).

4.2.3 EDOREN’s Recommendations to Improve Teacher Motivation

In order to improve teacher motivation, the following recommendations are made:

- Higher salaries are an important motivational tool for teachers. To offer better teacher pay, states should adhere to the harmonised salary scales.

- Given a trade-off between teacher pay rises and teacher recruitment (see section 2.1), a careful comparison should be made between the motivational benefits of higher teacher salaries and the wider benefit of recruiting additional teachers.

- E-payments have proved particularly effective and should be introduced in all States to ensure regular salary pay and prevent teacher absence due to salary collection.

- All teachers should receive a pay slip explaining the breakdown
of their salary and deductions, to reduce existing confusions and promote salary transparency.

- Promotion should not be based on qualifications and years of service, but be linked to the teacher's performance. This should be subject to an annual review by the Head Teacher and relevant LGEA officials.
Chapter 5: Building an Effective System for Teacher Performance

The primary education system in North-Western Nigeria is facing a crisis, as pupils are severely struggling to learn English and numeracy in primary schools. A key reason for this is because of a set of major challenges preventing effective teaching in the classrooms. This study provides a summary of evidence on the major issues facing primary teachers in the North-West of Nigeria. This is based on a synthesis of studies carried out over three years by research consortium EDOREN (Education Data, Research and Evaluation in Nigeria).

The introduction presented the “Teacher Policy Cycle” conceptual framework. This reflects six distinct “Teacher Policy Areas” and three “Teacher Policy Objectives” to improve pupil learning. Chapter 2-4 then provided a summary of main challenges across the three major teacher policy challenges: Teacher Numbers, Teacher Competency and Teacher Management. Each section then also provides a set of specific recommendations, which are recapped in the Executive Summary.

While the issues set out in the three chapter above are distinct, the conceptual framework shows that they are all part of one education system and that the effectiveness of teachers is a clear reflection of this wider functioning education system. In this section, we take a wider scope and argue there are two main ways the education system can better improve teacher performance.

5.1 Balancing conflicting demands across the teacher policy areas.

Throughout this report, it showed that there are many different actors responsible for different teacher policy areas. Yet, each actor also seems to have a particular priority, on which it will tend to focus, at the expense of other policy areas. Hence, which areas are prioritised is reflected by the particular power-balance across different education stakeholders.

An example of this is MoE/SUBEB’s main teacher policy concern is for increasing teacher numbers by filling as many teacher
establishments based on teacher-pupil ratios (see 2.1). However, this often comes at the expense of teacher competence. Recruits are frequently underqualified due to political interference (see 2.2), and recruitment is based on NCE-qualification alone which does not satisfy teacher competency requirements (see 3.1). A similar scenario is the case at Federal level. In December 2015, President Buhari announced to recruit 500,000 unemployed graduates and NCE holders as primary teachers. This enormous number will inevitably lead to recruitment of less competent teachers and prevents using such scarce resources for possibly more pressing concerns, such as improving competency of current teacher workforce or increasing teacher pay. Excess focus is thus placed on teacher numbers over teacher competency or management.

Another example can be found related to teachers wanting to receive in-service training because of the pay (see 4.2), but with little intention to adopt new teaching skills, which affects both the selection and outcome of training (see 3.3). This is a case of teacher management aims trumping teacher competency objectives. A powerful case of the contrary can be found in Kaduna, where the State has halted all in-service training to assess teacher capacity. Based on that, training will be adjusted and resumed based on actual need. This can ensure that both capacity and management objective can be better realised simultaneously.

In sum, to improving the effectiveness of the teacher workforce, it is important to ensure that all education stakeholders focus on the complementarities across the teacher policy areas. This also requires finding a way to balance conflicting demands, and avoid a situation of following one objective entirely at the expense of other demands.

5.2 A system based on regular information sharing and mutual accountability

While it is easy to advocate for a better balancing of teacher policy priorities, the reality is that different actors are responsible for the various teacher policies across the education sector. This

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allows for individual organisations to easily fall into the trap of focusing on their core area and makes coordination more difficult. For that reason, it is important that explicit effort is made to improving the interaction within the system to allow for better coordination across teacher policy areas. This requires more regular information sharing and mutual accountability.

Throughout this report, multiple examples are provided of where improving such information sharing is urgently needed. The first case is in teacher recruitment; this requires schools’ direct involvement in needs’ assessments, linked with SUBEB offering transparency of its recruitment prospects. Both should feed into CoEs’ intake figures (see 2.2). Another example relates to teacher performance assessments. Instead of the current situation of limited teacher oversight, head teachers should be required to provide more regular discussion and review of teachers. However, this would also require the LGEA inspectorate and the SUBEB to provide the much needed support to head teachers, and follow up wherever recommendations are made (see 4.2).

In both cases, three separate parties are involved, each with potential gains from collaboration. As such, all should be involved in regular, repeated exercises to ensure information flows between them. The system should also be structured in such a way that if any party fails to provide the necessary information, the other two parties have an incentive to hold them to account, ensure it is provided and utilised throughout their planning processes. Unless such information sharing is incorporated and incentivised within the wider system, it is unlikely to take place.

5.3 Towards the future

This report started with the finding that pupils in North-Western Nigeria are severely struggling to learn English and numeracy in primary schools. To bring a change to this situation, this report argues that the most important focus is to improve the effectiveness of the teaching workforce.
However, this can be challenging as teacher policy is intricate, interconnected and complex. Yet, through a gradual focus on solving a range of technical issues, powerful change can be made across all the teacher policy areas of recruitment, deployment, pre-service and in-service training, disciplining and teacher motivation. In addition, education stakeholders can build a more effective system by seeing the teacher policy cycle as a whole, balancing conflicting demands across areas, and ensuring the system incentivises information sharing and mutual accountability.

Education Ministries and SUBEBs in the North-West of Nigeria are thus faced with a crucial decision. Teacher effectiveness can be improved, and the potential for quality improvement in primary schools is phenomenal. However, to do so will require decisive action and a break from the past focused on teacher numbers alone. Whether it will succeed in building a more effective system for teacher performance is to be seen. Yet, this will be the most important decision to the success of the next generation and in determine the North-West's future role in Nigeria.
EDOREN Studies


OTHER Studies


Katsina State of Nigeria, (2010), 'State Education Sector Plan (SESP) 2011-2020'.
**Table A.1: Overview of EDOREN Reports included in this Synthesis Report**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EDOREN Report</th>
<th>Brief Description</th>
<th>Regional Focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Comparative Review of Basic Education Reforms.</strong> (Gershberg et al, 2015)</td>
<td>“To lay the groundwork for a detailed, systematic review of Nigeria’s UBE reforms by taking stock of what we know about the implementation and outcome of these reforms, and putting them into comparative international perspective.”</td>
<td>Nigeria, Brazil, India, Indonesia, South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Review of the Literature on Basic Education in Nigeria:</strong> Issues of access, quality, equity and impact. (Humphreys and Crawfurd, 2014)</td>
<td>“The review examines empirical studies from 2000 to 2013 that relate to educational access, quality, equity and impact in basic education. Most literature refers to public primary education, predominantly in northern Nigeria, with an emphasis on girls’ education since this has been the focus of recent development efforts, which have produced most of the available documents.”</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Managing Primary Teachers in Kaduna and Katsina States.</strong> (Watts and Allsop, 2015)</td>
<td>The study focused on four key areas of management: recruitment and deployment; pay and remuneration; training and support; and aspirations and expectations.</td>
<td>Kaduna, Katsina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Operational Research Study on Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS).</strong> (Dunne et al, 2014)</td>
<td>“How successful has the Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship Scheme been in getting trained female teachers into schools? What are the barriers to programme completion, posting and retention in schools? What alternative strategies constitute a pathway to increase participation of women in providing education?”</td>
<td>Bauchi, Niger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Supply of and Demand for Primary and Junior Secondary School Teachers in Katsina State.</strong> (Bennell et al, 2014)</td>
<td>“This examines supply, utilisation and demand for primary and junior secondary school teachers. It projects future demand for teachers under six different scenarios, and draws policy implications for various aspects of teacher training, recruitment and deployment”.</td>
<td>Katsina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Impact evaluation of Teacher Development Programme (TDP)’s In-service Teacher Training: Mixed methods baseline report</strong> (De, et. Al., 2015)</td>
<td>“This baseline survey provides a quantitative assessment of the status of pupil learning levels and teacher effectiveness in public primary schools in some of the most educationally disadvantaged regions in Nigeria (Jigawa, Katsina and Zamfara), and attempts to disentangle the drivers of poor teaching and learning by looking at teachers’ motivation, ability and context; the role, incentives and abilities of Head Teachers towards school leadership and management”</td>
<td>Jigawa, Katsina, Zamfara</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Numbers missing from Plateau State. Source: Adjusted from Humphreys and Crawfurd (2014)*
### Table A.2: Overall teacher demand in Public primary schools by Zone, 2009/10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>Pupil Enrolment (millions)</th>
<th>Total Teachers</th>
<th>% Teachers Qualified</th>
<th>PTR</th>
<th>PQTR</th>
<th>Additional Teachers Required (40:1 PQTR)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NW</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>147,390</td>
<td>46.1%</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>90.4</td>
<td>+85,553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NE</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>48,893</td>
<td>42.8%</td>
<td>65.4</td>
<td>152.9</td>
<td>+59,074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>105,619</td>
<td>75.7%</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>-954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SW</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>87,539</td>
<td>98.5%</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>-16,476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>49,283</td>
<td>77.4%</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>54.3</td>
<td>+13,605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>81,070</td>
<td>55.4%</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>-2,663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>19.05</td>
<td>519,794</td>
<td>65.1%</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>+137.864</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Numbers missed from Plateau State. Source: Adjusted from Humphreys and Crawfurd (2014)*

### Table A.3: Pupil-teacher ratios in Public primary schools and JSSs in Katsina, 2012/13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>Pupil Enrolment (millions)</th>
<th>Total Teachers</th>
<th>% Teachers Qualified</th>
<th>PTR</th>
<th>PQTR</th>
<th>Additional Teachers Required (40:1 PQTR)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>1.529</td>
<td>19,531</td>
<td>58.4%</td>
<td>78.3</td>
<td>134.1</td>
<td>26,824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>4,802</td>
<td>72.4%</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td>57.8</td>
<td>1,548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>1.730</td>
<td>24,333</td>
<td>61.2%</td>
<td>71.1</td>
<td>116.3</td>
<td>28,372</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adjusted from Bennell et al, 2014

### Table A.4: Projected enrolments and teachers required for primary/JSSs in Katsina

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Scenario</th>
<th>Pupil Enrolment (’000)</th>
<th>Teachers Required</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Status Quo</td>
<td>1,529</td>
<td>2,241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Universal Basic Education</td>
<td>2,529</td>
<td>+65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS</td>
<td>Status Quo</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Universal Basic Education</td>
<td>973</td>
<td>+384%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adjusted from Bennell et al, 2014
**Table A.4: Projected enrolments and teachers required for primary / JSS in Katsina**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>FTSS Student in CoE</th>
<th>Dropouts</th>
<th>Dropouts (%)</th>
<th>Graduated</th>
<th>Graduated (%)</th>
<th>Deployed</th>
<th>Deployed as % of FTSS Award</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Semi-urban</td>
<td>Unclear</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAUCHI</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'08/09</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>43.1%</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>33.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td>266 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'09/10</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>71.6%</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>28.1%</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>44.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44.9%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| NIGER |                    |          |              | Rural | Semi-urban | Unclear |
| '08/09 | 170                | 15       | 8.8%         | 54    | 31.8%        |          | 9 (9.5%) |
| '09/10 | 396                | 16       | 4.0%         | 41    | 10.4%        |          | 3 (3.1%) |
| Total  | 566                | 31       | 5.5%         | 95    | 16.8%        |          | 83 (87.4%) |
|        | 16.8%              |          |              |       |             |         |

Source: Adjusted from Dunne et al, 2014

**Table A.6: English and Mathematics grades from assessment for CoE in Katsina intake**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Mathematics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009/10</td>
<td>45.1%</td>
<td>41.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010/11</td>
<td>47.5%</td>
<td>42.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011/12</td>
<td>63.6%</td>
<td>31.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012/13</td>
<td>52.7%</td>
<td>32.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>52.2%</td>
<td>37.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adjusted from Bunnell et al, 2014
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