Suggested short title

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION PROBLEMS IN WESTERN NIGERIA

Iziren

PROBLEMS AND NEEDS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN WESTERN NIGERIA

by

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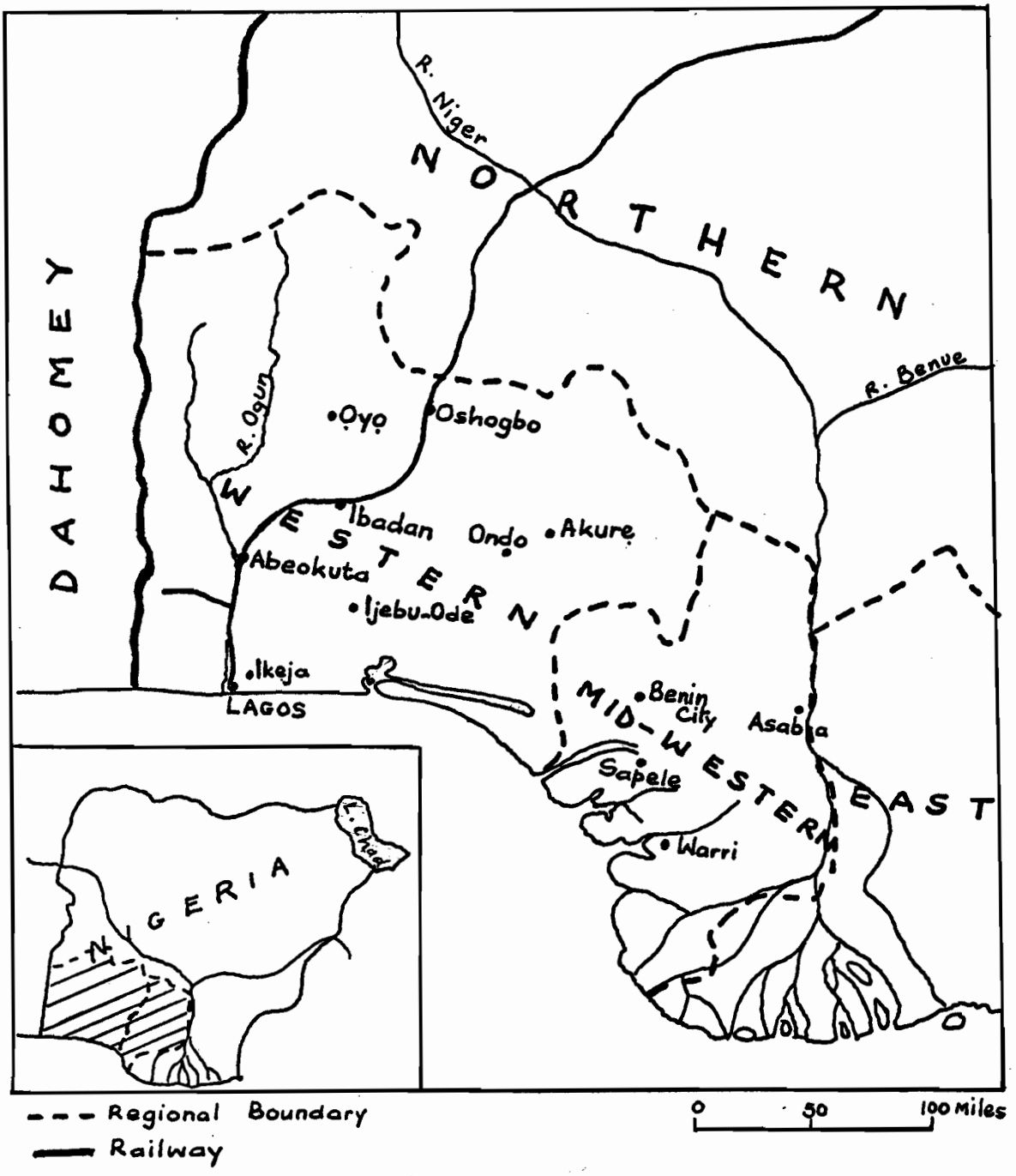
MAP OF WESTERN NIGERIA



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O. I.

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INTRODUCTION

Statement of Problem

From the mid-nineteenth century until 1952, education in Nigeria was largely the responsibility of religious denominations. But in 1952 the control of education passed to Regional Governments who then began to participate on a large-scale in educational matters. The Western Nigeria Government led the way with a Universal Free Primary Education scheme launched in January, 1955. The scheme increased the pupil enrolments in primary schools alone by 44.5 per cent[1] over the previous year. Today, education has become the biggest single enterprise in Western Nigeria; it absorbs over 45 per cent of the total budget and employs nearly 48,000

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[1]Figures and tabulated data in this study are taken or computed from the following two sources, except where otherwise stated:

A. Ministry of Economic Planning and Community Development, Annual Abstract of Education Statistics 1955-60. Ibadan: Government Printer, 1961.

B. Ministry of Economic Planning and Community Development, Annual Abstract of Education Statistics 1961-63. Ibadan: Government Printer, 1964.

For tabulated data, the letters A and B are employed as a means of differentiating between the two sources.

teachers to teach some 1.3 million pupils. But this vast enterprise is largely controlled by thirty different religious denominations[2] whose educational activities overlap those of government agencies, local education authorities, private proprietors and local communities. Operating almost entirely with government funds, the religious denominations (called "voluntary agencies"[3] for educational purposes) at present control about 71 per cent of the primary schools, 65 per cent of the secondary grammar schools, 76 per cent of the secondary modern schools and 75 per cent of the Grade II teacher-training colleges where primary and secondary modern school teachers are trained.

This situation of multiple authorities with overlapping functions in education has been the cause of several administrative, economic, pedagogical and sociological problems. Factors stemming from these problems combine to hamper educational advance and expansion, and to put education outside the framework of society's economic, cultural and political aspirations. A critical

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[2]See Appendix A for a list of the religious denominations and other agencies operating schools in Western Nigeria.

[3]Private proprietors are sometimes also referred to as "voluntary agencies." For the purposes of this study the term will be strictly confined to religious denominations.

examination of the official documents on education in Western Nigeria reveals that two major areas of investigation - the administrative and financial structures - are basic to an understanding of the problem situation and specifying the needs of educational administration. The major purposes of this study, therefore, are:

1. To describe and analyse the structural-administrative and financial problems hampering educational advance at the primary and secondary school levels in Western Nigeria;
2. To investigate the adequacy of the means (administration and finance) for attaining the economic, cultural and political goals of education as stated[4] in official policy papers. (The divorce of education from the realities of Western Nigerian life is generally presumed to be the major crisis facing that society today.[5])

To meet these purposes the following procedure has been adopted in this study.

1. The first Chapter places the "administrative problem"

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[4]See The Minister of Education, Proposals on Education Policy for the Western Region, Nigeria. Ibadan: Government Printer, July, 1952, pp. 10-14.

[5]See, for example, Ken Post, The New States of West Africa. Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1964, pp. 130-152.

in perspective through a brief description of the constitutional and historical setting of Western Nigeria, and a review of the literature on the problem of faulty administration in developing societies, including Western Nigeria.

2. In the second Chapter, the existing organizational and administrative structures for education are described, while the third Chapter describes and assesses the financial arrangements. These two Chapters may be viewed as belonging together since they are concerned mainly with background information.

3. The fourth Chapter analyses the problems and issues of educational administration in relation to administrative, educational and sociological factors.

4. In Chapter V a "model" of administration based on the "needs" of society and education is proposed as a guide to action.

5. Finally, Chapter VI summarizes the five preceding Chapters and concludes the study with remarks on its possible implications.

Personnel administration forms an integral part of this study, for it is partly through the inspection and supervision of educational services that the two Ministries of Education now in Western Nigeria exercise control over

education. Since the emphasis of this study is on the means of attaining the stated goals of education at the primary and secondary school levels (as has been stated), the details of administration in each particular school, the content of education and school curricula, and the details of the legal provisions for education do not receive major attention.

Confining such a study as this to two Regions in a Federal country where five governments co-exist may appear artificial and somewhat "provincial." But, from the point of view of the tasks set above, any part of Nigeria is still a microcosm of the whole, and problems of educational administration studied in one area can be projected to another area with minor changes in detail. Besides, primary and secondary education represent the largest single activity, below University level, in any part of Nigeria at the present time, and therefore it displays most clearly the problems of educational administration.

Methodology

This study falls in the category of a survey and descriptive research - the type that is probably most relevant to Nigeria's present-day educational condition.

An adequately-documented description and analysis of what exists appear to be basic pre-requisites in an education system before scientific or experimental studies. As a combination of survey and description, therefore, this study is based mainly on such primary sources as constitutional documents, Education Laws, official Reports and the Reports of Public Commissions on Education, official statistical abstracts and the writer's own personal knowledge of the situation.

Educated from primary school through university in Western Nigeria, the writer taught in a Grade II teacher-training college and in the school system of one of the large voluntary agencies (the Anglican Mission), and from 1960 to 1963 was an Education Officer in the Ministry of Education, Western Nigeria. For information on the latest developments in education since 1963 when the Midwestern Region was created, the writer exchanged personal communication with some officials at the headquarters of the regional Ministries of Education.

Secondary sources consulted range from articles, books and theses[6] on Nigerian education to publications and research relating to denominationalism[7] and manpower planning.

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[6]These are listed in the bibliography. Most of them were, however, found to be largely out of date, having been written ten to fifteen years ago.

[7]cf. J. E. Cheal, Investment in Canadian Youth: An analysis of input-output differences among Canadian provincial school systems. Toronto: Macmillan, 1963.

CHAPTER I

THE "ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEM" IN DEVELOPING SOCIETIES

Background to Western Nigeria

The problems of administration may be more realistically studied in the context of a particular society "since administration is part of the national culture."[1] But an adequate description of the background of the society under consideration, in this case Western Nigeria, would provide a frame of reference for an analysis. The historical and constitutional background of Western Nigeria will therefore precede a discussion of the "administrative problem."

Western Nigeria is set in the Federal Republic of Nigeria which covers an area of 356,669 square miles (about four-fifths the Canadian Province of Ontario), and has a population of 55.6 million according to the 1963 census.[2] This figure represented a 77.0 per cent increase

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[1] United Nations, Department of Economic Affairs, A Handbook of Public Administration, Current concepts and practice with special reference to developing countries. New York, 1961, p. vii.

[2] Federal Nigeria, VII, No. 4 (September, 1964), 11.

above the 1952-53 census data of 31.5 million people - a major reason why the over-all population figures provoked considerable political controversy and almost led to the break-up of the Nigerian Federation in 1963-64.

The federal form of government was adopted in Nigeria in 1951, following the results of a constitutional conference attended by Nigeria's leaders in London. Previous to that time Nigeria was a unitary state under British colonial rule. Authority was centred at the capital city of Lagos, and all activities of government, including those in education, were centrally directed. In 1951, however, a new federal constitution divided the country into Regions[3] with limited powers, all residual powers being vested in the Federal Government. This constitution proved difficult to administer and was therefore modified in 1954 by the transfer of residual powers to the regions.[4] Further constitutional amendments since 1957 have given the regions autonomy in most aspects of economic and social development, including education, health and local government, among others.

The present constitution leaves to the Federal

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[3]"Regions" in Nigeria are the equivalent of Provinces in Canada.

[4]See Nigeria (Constitution) Order in Council, 1954, Adaptation of Laws Order, 1954 (L.N. 131 of 1954). Lagos: Government Printer, 1954.

Government responsibility for defence, external affairs, police, customs and excise, currency and banking, main communications and some institutions of higher learning, such as the Universities of Ibadan and Lagos. Under the new Constitution, Nigeria became a sovereign state on October 1, 1960, and assumed a republican status after necessary constitutional amendments in October, 1963, within the Commonwealth.

Up till August, 1963, Western Nigeria was under the hegemony of one Regional Government. In that year the non-Yoruba people in the Midwestern part of Nigeria availed themselves of a constitutional provision to vote in a referendum for the creation of a Midwestern Region. The creation of the new Region in August, 1963, split Western Nigeria into two autonomous political entities in the Republic of Nigeria.[5] Western Nigeria should therefore be understood in this study as a geographical area lying west of the Niger-Benue Rivers,[6] and containing two governmental units.

In the 1963 population census, Western Nigeria had the following statistics: 12.7 per cent of the total

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[5]The other political entities, apart from the Western and Midwestern Regions, are the Northern and Eastern Regions, and the Federal territory of Lagos.

[6]All geographical data are shown on the Location Map, p. i.

area of Nigeria and 23.6 per cent of the total population (see Table 1).

TABLE 1

AREA AND POPULATION (1963) OF THE TWO REGIONS IN WESTERN NIGERIA

Region	Area in Square miles	Population
Western	30,095	10,265,846
Midwestern	15,281	2,535,839
Total	45,376	12,811,837

Source: Federal Nigeria, VII, No. 4 (September, 1964), 1.

Since the new Midwestern Region was until recently a component part of the Western Region, its educational "system" is still the same in all essentials as that of the latter Region. For instance, it still operates under the same Education Law. The annual reports on education, abstracts of education statistics and government policy papers and development plans covered the whole of Western Nigeria up to 1963 when the Midwest area became a separate Region. It has been thought necessary and significant, therefore, to include the two political Regions in a study based on Western Nigeria.

The Problem of Administration

The foregoing description of organization for political and administrative purposes in Nigeria provides a frame of reference for a discussion of the "administrative problem" in developing countries. Numerous studies on development in these countries "identify" adequate administration as a pre-requisite to economic and social advance. A major conclusion of a United Nations study in 1961 was that "administrative improvement is the sine qua non in the implementation of programmes of national development."[7] Most of the Reports of Missions of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, after surveying the resources and economic prospects of any of the developing countries, point out administrative obstacles to further progress. The Reports of Missions to Colombia, Cuba, Nicaragua, Uganda, Nigeria, all attest to this statement.[8] A report on Nigeria[9] in 1955 noted several administrative deficiencies.

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[7]United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, op. cit., p. 1.

[8]See Frederick W. Riggs, "Public Administration: A Neglected Factor in Economic Development," The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, CCCV (May, 1956), 70-80.

[9]International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, The Economic Development of Nigeria. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1955.

As Schatz[10] has pointed out, it was partly as a result of the recommendations in the report that Nigeria's Federal and Regional Governments then made some improvements in the administration and co-ordination of programmes for economic and social development. A mission of the World Bank currently in Nigeria is to study, among other things, "institutional arrangements and policies related to economic development" and is accompanied by an education adviser.[11]

In a similar vein to the reports of the International Bank Missions, a 1962 United Nations survey observed:

> There is a growing realization throughout the [African] continent that the administrative establishment must be radically improved if deliberate efforts to accelerate economic and social progress are to be successful, if coherent plans are to be drawn up and carried into execution.12

Recently, the authoritative West Africa stressed the same point when it editorialized:

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[10]Sayre P. Schatz, "The Influence of Planning on Development: the Nigerian Experience," Social Research, XXVII (Winter, 1960), 451-468.

[11]Reported in West Africa, No. 2504, Saturday, 29th May, 1965, p. 604.

[12]United Nations FAO Africa Survey, Report on the Possibilities of African Rural Development in Relation to Economic and Social Growth. Rome, 1962, p. 123.

> . . . What most African countries need most urgently is a strengthening of their administrations - an operation which is relatively inexpensive and offers political rather than financial difficulties.[13]

Many authorities who have devoted time and effort to studying the problems of the developing countries also stress the importance of administration in the implementation of any plan. Lewis, for instance, has observed that "a strong, competent, and incorrupt administration is the essential prerequisite for development planning;"[14] he contends that it is precisely this which is lacking in the majority of the developing countries. Galbraith, in a much-quoted article, considered "a reliable apparatus of government and public administration" so essential to development that he would deny the possibility of development without it.[15] Some analysts have even proposed that administration should be considered a factor of production in developing countries, along with capital, labour, and natural resources.[16] Fainsod seems to have clinched the arguments in a pointed observation:

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[13] West Africa, No. 2486, January 23, 1965, p. 1.

[14] W. Arthur Lewis, The Principles of Economic Planning. London: Allen and Unwin, 1959, p. 122.

[15] John K. Galbraith, "A Positive Approach to Economic Aid," Foreign Affairs, XXXIX, No. 3 (April, 1961), 446.

[16] R. Lekachman (ed.), National Policy for Economic Welfare at Home and Abroad. New York: Doubleday, 1955, p. 81.

> Planners talk eloquently of goals and objectives, but administrative implementation tends to be neglected in favour of resounding policy directives which carry no executive bite.[17]

In 1961, Curle affirmed the general character of the administrative problem in regard to education when he pointed out:

> The educational system of an under-developed country is subject to all the handicaps affecting development as a whole. The majority of such systems are loosely and ineffectively controlled by a weak national organization, which is capable neither of administering nor of protecting the system from those who would corrupt or use it for their own ends.[18]

In a subsequent publication in 1963 he pointed out that the whole matter of development in the developing countries

> . . . slides from the sphere of economics (or whatever technical field is involved) into that of administration, but behind administration are determining factors in the realm of sociology and psychology.[19]

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[17]Merle Fainsod, "The Structure of Development Administration," in Irving Swerdlow (ed.), Development Administration: Concepts and Problems. Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1963, p. 1.

[18]Adam Curle, "The Role of Education in Underdeveloped Societies" (An Inaugural Lecture delivered in February, 1961, at the University College of Ghana). The New Era, May, 1961, pp. 92-93.

[19]Adam Curle, Educational Strategy for Developing Societies: A Study of Educational and Social Factors in relation to economic growth. London: Tavistock Publications, 1963, p. 1.

Several more examples of similar views as the foregoing could be quoted to support the claim that among competent authorities inadequate administration is regarded as a major obstacle to the success of development programmes, including those in education.

There is evidence that the political authorities in the developing countries are aware that an "administrative problem" exists as a limiting factor in development. In his opening speech to the Banjo Commission in 1960, for instance, the then Premier of Western Nigeria requested the Commission to advise the government of Western Nigeria "on the best way of coordinating our educational system in order to ensure that the high level manpower so urgently required is produced in a speedy, efficient and economical manner."[20] In a report subsequently issued by the Commission it endeavoured to show that administration was part of the larger issue of education:

> . . . It is essential that some schools should be merged. . . . In our judgement it is morally wrong that public funds should be used to strengthen sectarian cleavages among the people. By proper cooperation among the voluntary agencies and by rationalization among them of their work in the various communities, things could be put on a proper footing.[21]

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[20]Quoted in Western Nigeria Government, Report of the Commission Appointed to Review the Educational System of Western Nigeria, 1960-61 (The "Banjo Commission Report"). Ibadan: Government Printer, 1961, p. 31.

[21]Ibid., p. 11.

Again, in 1962, the Ajayi Commission found that

> . . . Ministry control [of education] has slackened off to a point where it can be considerably tightened up without making it necessarily tighter than it was in 1947. Further, Ministry control of schools can be made effective without necessarily destroying the vital element of local initiative and the utmost local support. And the problem should be tackled now.[22]

Thus, it may be concluded that shortcomings in educational administration have been known for some time in Western Nigeria, and somewhat vague suggestions have been prescribed to solve the problem. Articles[23] have also sometimes appeared in the Nigerian press, pointing to the need to examine the present administrative practices in education. But there has been no major study[24] undertaken to identify clearly the administrative problems in education and prescribe solutions. Yet, the realization of manpower targets, like those set by the Ashby

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[22]Western Nigeria, Report of Commission of Inquiry into the rise in Fees charged by Public Secondary Grammar Schools and Teacher Training Colleges in Western Nigeria ("Ajayi Commission Report"). Western Nigeria Official Document No. 11 of 1963, June, 1962, p. 21.

[23]Two may be quoted: Tai Solarin, "Who Should Control Education in Nigeria," Daily Times, Nov. 5, 1964; Ayoola Adebisi, "I am for State Control," Daily Times, February 25, 1965.

[24]A thesis read by the writer merely restated the official policy on education. See Ben Udo Imoh, "The Administration and Organization of Schools in Nigeria," Unpublished M.A. Thesis, State University of Iowa, 1956.

Commission[25] will depend largely on educational expansion which will probably be haphazard and over-expensive (if it takes place at all) unless the present shortcomings in the administration of education are brought to light and resolved. In the words of an expert analyst:

> It is . . . essential for those advising governments on educational planning, as it is for those directly involved in planning, to review the administrative structure and bring some order into its activities before embarking on the planning operation.[26]

This study answers to the need which the quotation advocates.

To summarize, there appears to be a consensus among United Nations Agencies and experts from many walks of life that an "administrative problem" exists in the developing countries. This problem exists in most public activities no less than in education. In Western Nigeria, two Public Commissions have noted its existence in education, and some Nigerians have been critical of education for reasons connected with this problem. Major manpower targets would be unrealized unless education is

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[25]Federal Ministry of Education, Investment in Education. The Report of the Commission on Post-Certificate and Higher Education in Nigeria (Ashby Report). Lagos: Federal Government Printer, 1960.

[26]R. Diez-Hochleitner, "Educational Planning," in UNESCO, Economic and Social Aspects of Educational Planning. Paris, 1964, p. 93.

expanded, and expansion might be difficult and over-costly unless the administrative obstacles are identified and removed.

Before any further considerations, it is essential to know how education in Western Nigeria is organized and administered.

CHAPTER II

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION

Legal and Constitutional Framework

Before making a detailed analysis of the problems of educational administration in Western Nigeria, it will be necessary first to examine the constitutional and legal basis, and the structural framework of education.

As has been pointed out, the federal constitution introduced in 1951 regionalized education in Nigeria. From 1952 each region assumed responsibility for providing educational facilities within its area of jurisdiction up to and including post-secondary education below university level. New constitutional provisions in 1954 crystallized the trend towards the decentralization of powers which had begun since 1951. Education was now included on the "Concurrent list"[1] in the Constitution. The Federal

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[1] See The Adaptation of Laws Order: Nigeria Constitution Order in Council, L.N. 131 of 1954. Lagos: Government Printer, 1954.

The Constitution contains two legislative lists - the Federal Government Exclusive List, and the Concurrent List. The latter list contains subjects like education concerning which the Federal and the Regional Governments could legislate in their respective areas of jurisdiction.

Government was henceforth to take responsibility for education only in the Federal territory of Lagos and operate the existing institutions of higher learning, such as the University of Ibadan in Western Nigeria and the Yaba College of Technology in Lagos. Each Regional Government was now to have full scope to legislate for education (including higher education), and to organize and administer its school system as it deemed fit.

The outcome of the new constitutional arrangements for Western Nigeria was that the Regional Government published a policy paper on education,[2] outlining the policy for education in the region. The policy paper declared:

> The main purpose of policy for the next few years may be simply stated as one of expansion and re-orientation. This implies an all-out expansion of all types of educational institutions. It connotes an increase in the number of primary schools, the establishment of more secondary schools, the inauguration of a number of training colleges, and the creation of technical institutes and commercial academies. It also means the provision of a new driving force.3

Plans formulated in the policy paper were later embodied in an education Law[4] which came into force on 14th April,

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[2]The Minister of Education, op. cit.

[3]Ibid., p. 5.

[4]Western Nigeria Ministry of Education, Education Law No. 6 of 1955. Ibadan: Government Printer, 1955.

1955. Among these plans was a free six-year primary education scheme which was introduced in January, 1955. The policy paper on education and the Education Law together marked the beginning of direct large-scale state participation in a service for which voluntary agencies had been largely responsible under British colonial rule. The Education Law of 1955 and subsidiary legislation[5] made under it thus form the main instrument governing the organization and administration of education in Western Nigeria.

Organizational Structure

The organizational structure of the school system as it is today is shown in Figure 1. There is a free six-year primary school course which children enter at the age of six. There are, however, a few private fee-charging institutions which bear such names as "nursery" and "kindergarten." In the Midwestern Region, according to a government announcement, fees will be charged in the last four years of the primary school course, beginning from January, 1966.[6] The present six-year primary school

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[5]All the separate items of legislation have now been consolidated in Government of Western Nigeria, Education Laws (Cap. 34). Ibadan: Government Printer, 1961.

[6]Reported in West Africa, No. 2498, Saturday, 17th April, 1965, p. 435.

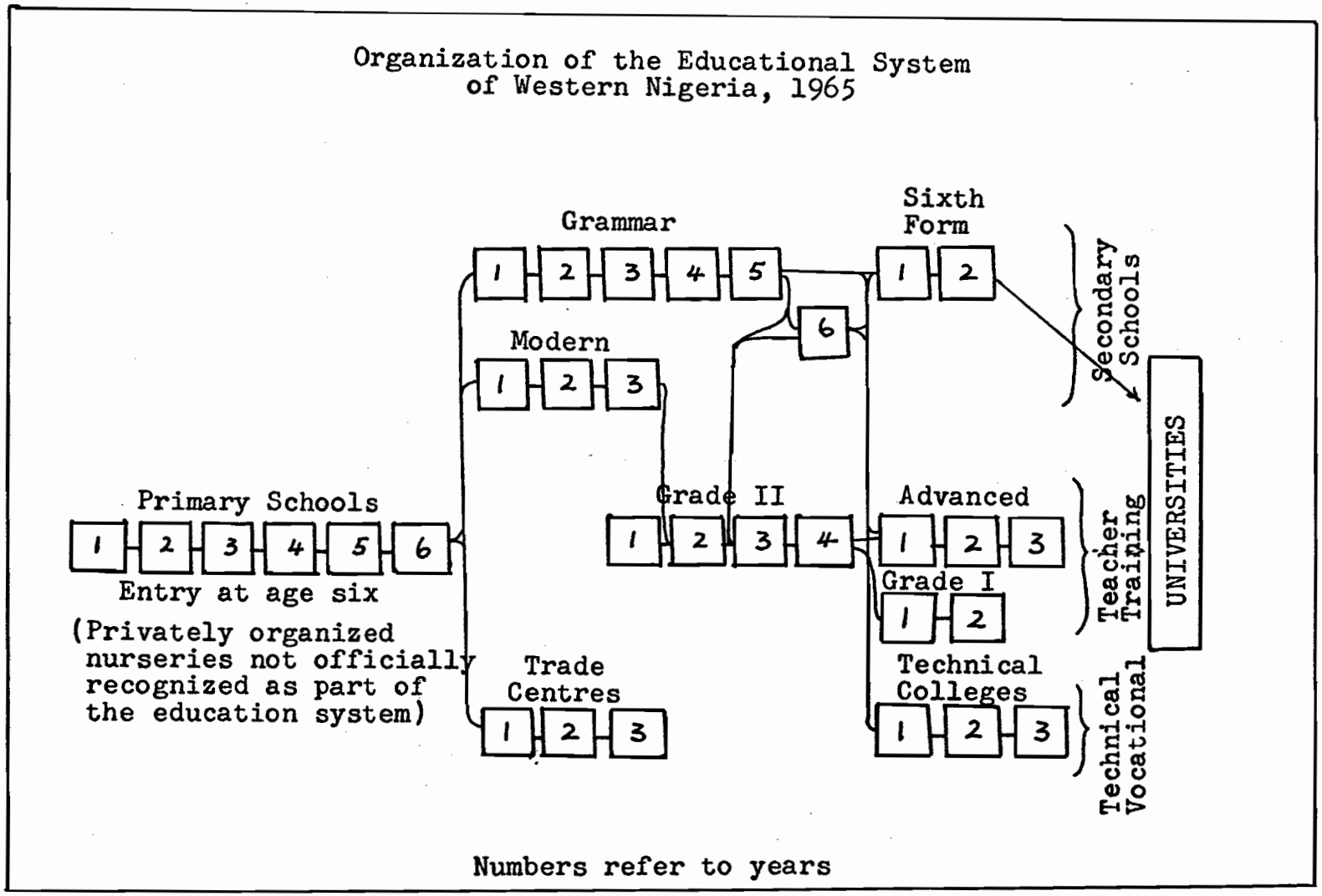

Figure 1

Adapted from Federal Ministry of Education, Annual Digest of Education Statistics No. 1, Vol. 2. Lagos: 1962, p. x.

course will become an eight-year course, thus abolishing the post-primary three-year secondary modern school course in the Midwestern Region.

The Universal Free Primary Education Scheme had the effect of rapidly increasing the number of pupils enrolled in primary schools as well as the number of schools constructed to accommodate them. These increases are expressed as percentages in Table 2, taking 1955 as the base year. Evidence of a rapid increase in primary school enrolments may be seen from a comparison of the figures for 1954 and 1955. In the 1954 school year there were only 456,600 pupils in the primary schools of Western Nigeria. But in 1955 the school enrolments soared to 811,432 - an over-all increase of 178 per cent over the previous year.

The rapid expansion of primary school facilities called for an expansion in the facilities for secondary education. To meet the demand, a tripartite pattern of post-primary education on the English model was instituted.[7] There were thus secondary modern schools, secondary grammar schools and trade/occupational centres. So that after six years in the free primary school

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[7]A comprehensive school sponsored by the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University was established in 1962-63 on an experimental basis.

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN PUPIL ENROLMENTS AND IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS CONSTRUCTED IN WESTERN NIGERIA, 1955-63

1955 = 100

Year	Percentage increase in pupil enrolments	Percentage increase in total number of schools constructed
1955	100.0	100.0
1956	112.0	103.0
1957	121.0	103.1
1958	127.9	104.0
1959	133.4	106.0
1960	137.9	100.7
1961	139.5	104.1
1962	137.0	100.1
1963	135.2	98.6*

Sources: See Footnote 1, page 1.
A - pp. 16-17.
B - pp. 5, 14.

* Decrease was due to the merging of small-unit schools which the Banjo Commission had recommended. This meant that some schools became vacant as their pupils were sent to other schools to form medium-sized units. See Government Western Nigeria, Banjo Commission Report, pp. 19-20, 82.

children have a choice of three kinds of post-primary education, depending on ability, financial circumstances and availability of places. The majority of primary school graduates enter the three-year secondary modern schools which were greatly expanded in 1955. "Modern classes," as they were called, had formed part of a few

girls' schools in Western Nigeria for a long time before 1955. It was in this year that deliberate attempts were made for the first time to set up secondary modern schools on the model of such schools in England. Table 3 shows the expansion that took place in these schools from 1955 to 1963 and the corresponding number of trade centres that were built.

The secondary modern schools were intended from the beginning to fulfil practical purposes:[8]

(i) to teach practical skills;

(ii) to teach elementary commercial subjects;

(iii) to extend the scope of the primary school.

But as these schools depend mainly on fees paid by students (they are not grant-aided) few of them have the necessary resources to give vocational and professional training even at the lowest level. The result is that most of them are no more than glorified primary schools offering an inferior type of academic education. As the Banjo Commission observed in 1961:

> Very few of the modern schools which we saw had adequate staff and few indeed offered any of the vocational courses. At the moment most of them only offer the purely academic course which provides only a 'polishing' of the education received at the primary level.[9]

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[8]Government of Western Nigeria, Banjo Commission Report, p. 5.

[9]Ibid., p. 6.

TABLE 3

EXPANSION OF SECONDARY MODERN SCHOOLS AND TRADE/OCCUPATIONAL CENTRES IN WESTERN NIGERIA, 1955-63

Year	Secondary Modern Schools		Trade/Occupational Centres	
	Pupils enrolled (hundreds)	Number of schools	Pupils enrolled	Number of Institutions
1955	44	180	60	1
1956	128	106*	131	1
1957	306	254	200	2
1958	435	262	250	2
1959	642	420	247	4
1960	751	533	194	4
1961	989	586	454	4
1962	1103	666	854	6
1963	1108	699	575	5**

Sources: See Footnote 1, page 1
A - pp. 12, 19, 49,
B - pp. 4, 16, 47.

* Reduction in figures due to consolidation of schools.
** Excludes data for Sapele Trade Centre, Midwestern Region.

A major reason for this inadequacy was lack of funds to provide equipment and employ suitable staff. Indeed, there were few teachers qualified to teach vocational skills. From 1961 to 1963 the proportions of teachers for "practical" subjects to total staff in these schools were 3.3 per cent, 2.7 per cent and 2.8 per cent respectively. Some schools have tried to make up for

their inadequacy by adding commercial courses, like typing, book-keeping, short-hand and office management, and students are allowed to opt for these after the first year.

The performance of the secondary modern schools would appear to be generally poor, presumably because of the many factors which combine to reduce their effectiveness as "educational" institutions. Among these factors may be mentioned:

(a) the very rapid expansion of these schools without sufficient planning and co-ordination;

(b) the poor administration and insufficient supervision of the schools as a result of their rapid expansion beyond the available administrative resources;

(c) the activities of private proprietors who appear to be largely unrestrained in the fees they charge. (In 1963, private proprietors operated 5.7 per cent of the total number of secondary modern schools.)

As Table 3 shows, the trade/occupational centres provide avenues for further education to secondary modern school graduates. Opportunities at these centres are very limited. The teacher-training colleges therefore offer places to these graduates to train for three years for the Nigerian Teachers' Grade II Certificate. A few students also enter farm settlements to be trained in

modern agricultural methods. Taken together, however, the opportunities available to secondary modern school graduates for further training amount to very little. Considering the number of pupils graduating from these schools each year and without opportunities for further training, it seems evident that there would be a backlog of graduates from year to year, and most of them would tend to migrate to urban centres to look for jobs. According to Callaway, "The young school leaver has great potentiality for improvement but no immediate qualification for many of the tasks of modern industry."[10]

It is partly because of their many inadequacies that the modern schools have become, for many pupils with wealthy parents, merely preparatory schools for entry to the academic grammar schools. The secondary grammar school is, however, the main avenue for academic education for primary school graduates. It provides a five-year course (six years in new schools) which leads to the West African School Certificate. This certificate is awarded by the West African Examinations Council which has branches at Lagos, Accra and Freetown.

Like the secondary modern schools, the grammar

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[10]A. C. Callaway, "School Leavers and the Developing Economy in Nigeria," in Nigerian Institute of Social and Economic Research, Conference Proceedings. Ibadan: December, 1960, pp. 62-63.

schools in Western Nigeria operate on the same basic principles as their counterparts in England. Admission is by competitive examinations followed by personal interviews. Two of the major problems of these schools are, first, that of devising objective criteria for admitting suitable candidates and, secondly, of expanding opportunity rapidly and widely enough for more pupils to gain admission. But smallness of size and the consequently high operating costs of each school appear to be the limiting factors to expansion. Table 4 shows the growth of these schools from 1955 to 1963 and the average enrolment per school.

In 1961, the Banjo Commission observed that many of these schools were operating below capacity. The Commission pointed out that

> . . . not enough use has been made of the facilities offered. The government institutions, which are fairly well equipped, are not operating at full capacity.[11]

This observation is supported by the data on Table 4. At the present time a single-stream school of five classes in Western Nigeria can only enrol a maximum of 165 students, or 33 students per class. In some cases, because of pupil withdrawals on economic grounds, most single-stream schools operate with fewer than the maximum

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[11]Government of Western Nigeria, Banjo Commission Report, p. 6.

TABLE 4

PUPIL ENROLMENTS, NUMBER AND SIZE OF SECONDARY GRAMMAR SCHOOLS IN WESTERN NIGERIA, 1955-63

Year	Pupil Enrolments	Number of schools	Average per school
1955	10,904	73	149
1956	12,621	91	139
1957	16,208	108	153
1958	18,754	117	160
1959	22,374	138	162
1960	25,755	167	158
1961	29,301	177	164
1962	33,528	189	175
1963	38,534	212	178

Sources: See Footnote 1, page 1.
A - p. 24;
B - p. 19.

number of students. The present trend is, however, towards double-stream grammar schools, but these are feasible only at considerable expenditure on boarding houses, classrooms and staff.

More than ten per cent of the total educational budget goes to support the grammar schools, apart from fees paid by students and what may be raised locally. In the 1962-63 financial year, for instance, 11.4 per cent of the total educational budget was paid in grants-in-aid to 189 grammar schools. But because of high operating costs, these schools charge several kinds of

fees to meet expenditures. In 1962, the Ajayi Commission not only discovered several abuses in the charging of fees; it also uncovered as many as 27 different forms of fees charged in one or other of the grammar schools.[12] These fees range from tuition and boarding fees to games fees, harvest fees, mosque fees and chapel fees. These fees inflate the over-all cost of secondary education in Western Nigeria, placing it beyond the means of the average parent. The result is that many students who would profit from attendance tend to be excluded, especially as entry is "almost entirely by purchase tempered by ability."[13]

In spite of the high operating costs of the grammar schools, education given in most of them is seen as "an activity outside the framework of the industrial and economic life of the people."[14] The Banjo Commission remarked that even the science learnt in those of them with laboratories is "very much out-of-date laboratory science" and not related to students' environment, nor in keeping with modern scientific knowledge.[15] One effect

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[12]Government of Western Nigeria, Ajayi Commission Report, pp. 8-12.

[13]John Vaizey, Education for Tomorrow. Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1962, p. 42.

[14]Government of Western Nigeria, Banjo Commission Report, p. 12.

[15]Ibid., p. 6.

of this is that the impact of the grammar school graduate on the economy is relatively small, especially as his opportunities for employment are few. These opportunities are, however, better than those available to the graduate of the secondary modern school. At present, the secondary grammar school graduate may seek employment in one of the Ministries and receive technical training in the training school of the government department where he is employed. Training schools exist for forestry, agriculture, surveying, veterinary science, public health, co-operatives and secretarial work.

Besides, there are opportunities for formal institutional training other than in the training school of a government department. The main ones are:

(i) A two-year sixth form course which leads to the Higher School Certificate of Cambridge University - Local Examinations Syndicate.[16] This is a pre-University course.

(ii) A three-year advanced teacher-training course

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[16]The H.S.C. examination is drawn and marked in England. The subjects consist of Economic and Public Affairs (of Britain), History, Geography, English Literature, Mathematics, the Physical and Natural Sciences, French, Spanish, Latin, Ancient History, Religious knowledge, Art and Music, and a Compulsory general paper consisting of Essays in English. A maximum of four subjects may be taken at advanced or principal level. Some Nigerians have described this and other oversea examinations as "educational colonization."

leading to the Nigerian National Teachers' Certificate which qualifies for teaching in a secondary school.

(iii) A two-year teacher-training course leading to the Grade II Teachers' Certificate.

(iv) A three-year course in a technical institute. There were only 199 places in technical institutes in 1962.[17]

Opportunities for institutional training are few (see Table 5), and financial considerations prevent many students from entering these training courses. Consequently, several grammar school graduates are to be found roaming the urban centres looking for jobs.[18]

Increase in the number of grammar schools has been accompanied by a corresponding increase in the opportunities available for further training. Advanced Teachers' Colleges were opened at Ondo in the Western Region, and at Benin City in the Midwestern Region in 1964 and 1965, respectively. In the latter region, a technical college is being built with a grant of £0.525

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[17]Federal Ministry of Education, Annual Digest of Education Statistics Series No. 1, Vol. 11, 1962. Lagos: Government Printer, 1962, p. 47.

[18]See Ken Post, The New States of West Africa. Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1964, pp. 82, 131, 148-152.

TABLE 5*

OPPORTUNITIES FOR SIXTH FORM WORK AND ADVANCED TEACHER TRAINING FOR SECONDARY GRAMMAR SCHOOL GRADUATES, 1958-1963

Year	Higher School Certificate Courses		Advanced Teacher Training Courses	
	Enrolment	No.of Schools	Enrolment	No.of Colleges
1958	180	6	-	-
1959	277	6	-	-
1960	356	9	-	-
1961	505	11	-	-
1962	923	18	124	2
1963	1358	20	203	2

Sources: See footnote 1, page 1.
A - p. 21.
B - p. 24

* Data for other institutions not available.

million from the British Government.[19] Furthermore, liberalization of admission policy has made it possible for many good grammar school graduates to gain direct entrance to the existing universities if they succeed in the entrance examinations. Here again, however, financial considerations tend to prevent many students from attendance, just as they hinder those who obtain admission in overseas institutions. It is difficult to say whether the gradual extension of opportunities for grammar school

[19]Reported in West Africa, February 6, 1965, p. 155.

graduates correlates with the right kinds of education. But it seems evident that opportunities are not expanding rapidly enough to meet the increasing demand.

Whatever progress has been made in the extension of opportunities for grammar school graduates, the problems of rapidly expanding opportunities to cope with demand, of re-orienting the content of education and of "Nigerianizing" curricula remain to be tackled at all levels of education. At present only about 2.9 per cent[20] of pupils leaving the primary schools are able to take advantage of this strategic level of education which most authorities now consider crucial to rapid economic and social development in developing societies.[21] A description of the administrative arrangements for education may help to indicate the major obstacles to expansion.

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[20]Harbison estimates that for the whole of Nigeria "less than 2 per cent of the age groups normally eligible can attend secondary schools. . ." See Harbison, "Human Resources and Economic Development in Nigeria," in Robert O. Tilman and Taylor Cole (eds.), The Nigerian Political Scene. Durham, N. C.: Duke University Press, 1962, p. 214.

[21]cf. W. Arthur Lewis, "Education and Economic Development," in UNESCO, Economics of Education - International Social Science Journal, XIV, No. 4 (1962), 689-694.

Administrative Structure

The administration of primary and secondary school education is carried out at the following levels of authority:

(1) The Regional level -

(a) Regional Advisory Board of Education

(b) Ministry of Education

(2) Below the Regional level -

(a) Local Education Authorities

(b) Voluntary Agencies

(c) Local Communities and private proprietors.

At the school level in each case there are Boards of Governors for each secondary grammar school, and school managers in the school systems of some educational agencies for primary and secondary modern schools.

The Ministries of Education in Western Nigeria are each headed by a political appointee - the Minister of Education. The Minister is advised by an Advisory Board of Education technically appointed by himself.[22] According to the Education Laws:

> There shall be established an Advisory Board of Education . . . which shall advise the Minister upon such matters connected with educational

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[22]Government of Western Nigeria, Education Laws, p. 135.

> theory and practice as it thinks fit and upon any questions referred to it.23

The Board consists[24] of five members from the Ministry of Education, ten members representing the interests of local education authorities, ten members representing the interests of voluntary agencies, two members representing the interests of the Nigerian Union of Teachers, and one member each from private proprietors and parent-teacher associations in each region. The Permanent Secretary[25] who is the executive head of the Ministry of Education in each region has a right to attend any meeting of the Board or of any of its committees.

The main functions of each Ministry, which executes the policy formulated for education, include the following:[26]

1. the administration of education through legislative ordinances;
2. the control of curricula and syllabuses in primary schools, secondary modern schools and teacher-training colleges;

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[23] Ibid.

[24] Ibid., pp. 135-136.

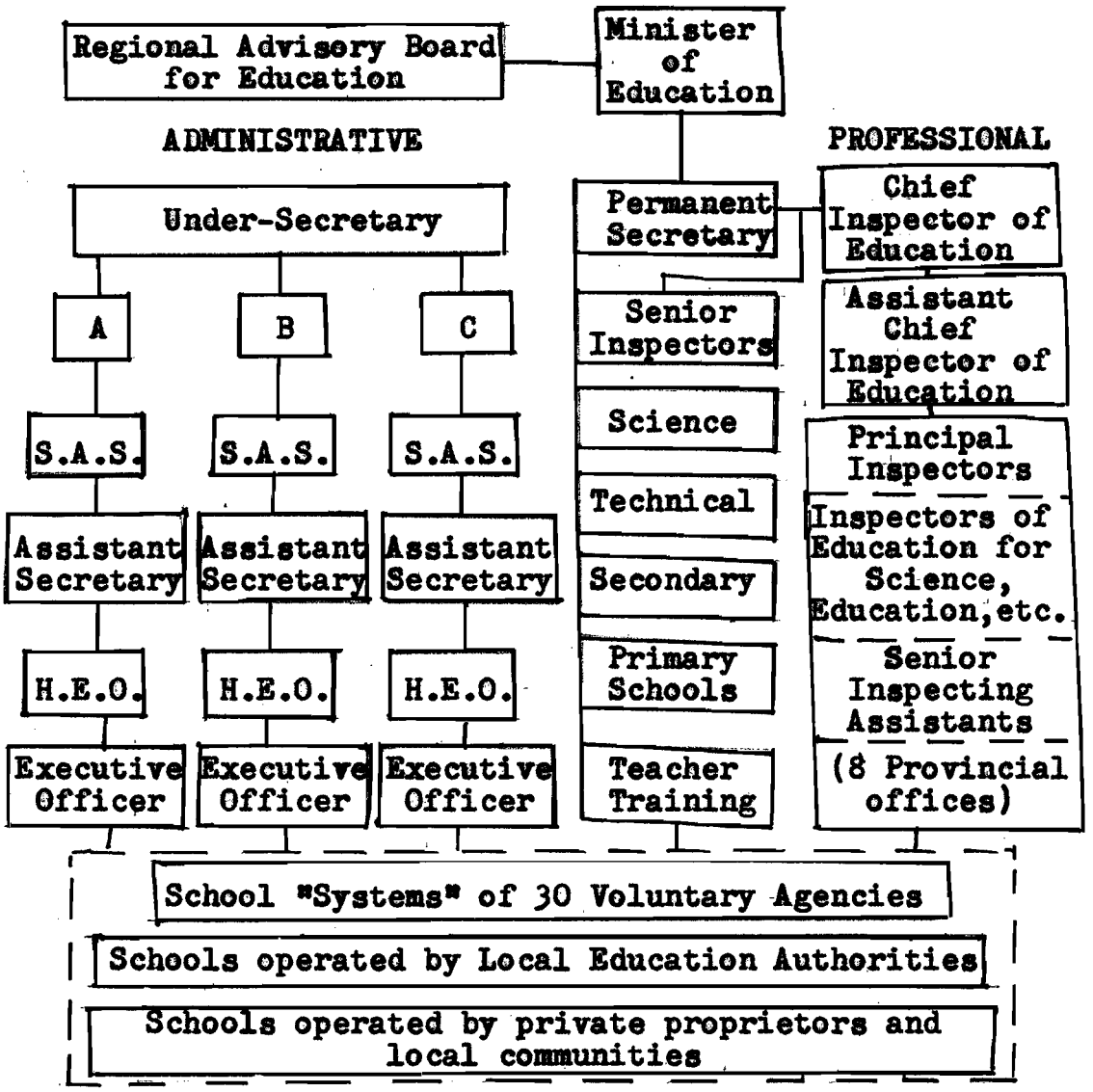
[25] This office corresponds to that of Deputy Minister in the Canadian governmental system.

[26] Some of these functions are stated in Government of Western Nigeria, Education Laws, pp. 143-160.

3. the publication and distribution of syllabuses, and the recommendation of textbooks for the use of teachers;
4. the operation of technical colleges, trade and occupational centres, rural education colleges, advanced teachers' colleges, and a small number of secondary grammar schools and Grade II teacher training colleges;
5. the publication and distribution of a teachers' periodical which suggests teaching methods and reviews new books;
6. the inspection of schools through an inspectorate branch.

For the purpose of performing these functions, each Ministry of Education is subdivided into two branches: administrative and professional (see Figure 2). The administrative branch is headed by an Under-secretary working under the Permanent Secretary. This branch deals with the business and financial affairs of the school "systems" of the various educational agencies. This branch also has ultimate control over educational planning and policy.

The professional branch, on the other hand, is headed by a Chief Inspector of Education, who advises the Permanent Secretary on the professional aspects of the work of the Ministry, and is responsible for co-ordinating



Abbreviations: S.A.S. = Senior Assistant Secretary
H.E.O. = Higher Executive Officer
A = Finance and Establishments
B = Primary and Secondary Education
C = Teacher-training

Figure 2

The Present Organization for the Administration of Education

school inspection. This branch has no executive or administrative functions as such; rather it is responsible for the efficient functioning of the inspectorate and all its branches.[27] In recent years the task of supervising teaching and inspecting schools has become sufficiently important for the inspectorate to be organized as a technical department with branches in eight provincial centres. Thus, there are now inspectorate offices at Abeokuta, Ibadan, Ikeja, Ijebu-Ode, Akure, Oyo in the Western Region, and at Warri and Benin City in the Midwestern Region. Inspectorate offices in provincial centres do not seem to have solved the problem of sufficiently co-ordinating a fragmented school system managed by a multiplicity of educational agencies whose activities overlap considerably. This is partly explained by the fact that the inspectorate staff is small compared with the large number of schools to be inspected. In 1959, for instance, there were only 101 Inspecting Assistants grouped under provincial inspectorates to inspect 6,518 schools.[28] The situation appears to grow more critical with the rapid expansion that has taken

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[27]See "Inspection of Institutions" in Government of Western Nigeria, Education Laws, pp. 169-170.

[28]Government of Western Nigeria, Banjo Commission Report, pp. 56-57.

place in primary and secondary education vis-a-vis the inspectorate. And it would hardly be prudent on economic and pedagogical grounds to expand the inspectorate beyond a certain optimum size, even if it were possible to find enough competent persons. Expansion involves expenditure in renting offices and paying increased staff allowances - money which might have gone to improve instruction in the schools; it also takes experienced staff from the schools.

The chief concern of the inspectorate is, however, below the regional level of administration. At this level are Local Education Authorities whose executive officers, the Local Education Officers, supervise the schools of their employing Local Authorities. Provision is made in the Education Laws[29] for the Minister of Education to appoint a local council as a Local Education Authority after consulting with the Minister of Local Government. Since 1956, when the Western Nigeria Government appointed 48 divisional and district councils as education authorities, Local Education Authorities have played an increasingly important role in educational administration side by side with other agencies. Their duties and powers are detailed in the Education Laws,[30]

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[29]Government of Western Nigeria, Education Laws, p. 137.

[30]Ibid., pp. 137-143.

but generally they are responsible for a varying number of primary and secondary schools. Table 6 shows that the proportion of secondary schools controlled by them has fluctuated while the percentage of primary schools controlled by them has varied little from 27 per cent of the total.

TABLE 6

PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS CONTROLLED BY LOCAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES FROM 1955 TO 1963

Year	Primary	Secondary	
		Grammar	Modern
1955	-	21.9	-
1956	-	19.8	30.4*
1957	27.5	20.4	30.2*
1958	27.6	21.4	18.7
1959	27.6	25.4	22.9
1960	27.6	25.1	23.6
1961	27.2	23.7	19.8
1962	27.2	24.9	18.6
1963	27.4	19.8	18.0

Sources: See footnote 1, page 1.
A - pp. 9, 10, 12.
B - p. 4.

* These include the old standards 5 and 6 of the Senior Primary School which the modern schools replaced in 1958. These classes (standards 5 and 6) were the top-most classes of the old 8-year school.

The data on Table 6 suggest that Local Education Authorities have been unable since 1956 to contribute significantly to the over-all expansion of secondary education. One probable reason for this is that L.E.A.'s have to compete with the voluntary agencies, some of which are relatively more experienced in educational matters. Besides, education is only one of the many responsibilities of an all-purpose Local Council which functions as a Local Education Authority. Consequently, the quality of the schools of any particular L.E.A. depends on a number of factors such as:

(a) the resources of the Local Council concerned;
(b) the efficiency of the Council's ad hoc Education Committee which is usually the education "authority" of the council;
(c) the scale of priorities of the council;
(d) the executive ability of the council's Local Education Officer.

There appears to be a high correlation between the resources of a council and the efficiency of its Education Committee on the one hand, and the quality of its schools on the other.[31] Most Local Councils in rural areas,

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[31] In the absence of complete data, it is difficult to quantify this statement. But this was generally the writer's observation as a field officer in the Ministry of Education, Western Nigeria, from 1960-63.

lacking in financial resources and administrative competence, tend to have sub-standard schools, especially where competition with the well-established voluntary agencies is keen. It would appear, then, that the activities of voluntary agencies hamper the expansion of the schools operated by elected bodies.

There are 30 large and small voluntary agencies whose educational activities overlap one another as well as those of Local Education Authorities, local communities and private proprietors. As Table 7 reveals, the majority of schools in Western Nigeria are controlled by the voluntary agencies.

As education expands and schools increase in number, there is a tendency for school proprietors, especially the religious denominations and private proprietors, to multiply correspondingly. Table 8 and the accompanying explanation illustrate this statement. Between 1955 and 1963, Moslem missions operating schools have increased from two to seven (see Appendix A). Within the same period, too, there have been four subdivisions of the Baptist Mission. Only the larger denominations[32] have remained fairly intact. But even these are homogeneous only within the boundaries of the

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[32]These are the Anglican Mission, the Roman Catholic Mission, the Methodist Mission.

TABLE 7

PERCENTAGES OF SCHOOLS CONTROLLED BY VARIOUS AGENCIES IN WESTERN NIGERIA 1962 AND 1963

Agency	1962			1963		
	Primary	Secondary		Primary	Secondary	
		Grammar	Modern		Grammar	Modern
Government	0.1	2.1	-	0.1	2.4	-
Local Authorities	27.2	24.9	18.6	27.4	19.8	18.0
Religious Denominations	71.2	65.1	77.2	70.8	65.1	76.3
Private and others	1.5	7.9	4.2	1.7	12.7	5.7
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: See footnote 1, page 1.
A - p. 4.

TABLE 8

COMPARATIVE PROPORTION OF SCHOOLS CONTROLLED BY RELIGIOUS AGENCIES IN 1958 AND 1963

Year	Primary	Grammar	Modern
1958	70.4%	61.9%	66.4%
1963	70.8	65.1	76.3
Absolute Increase	0.4	3.2	9.9

Source: see footnote 1, page 1.
A - p. 4.
B - p. 9.

existing political units and their educational activities tend to be confined to these units. Thus the subdivision of Western Nigeria into two distinct political entities means that each denominational agency has to duplicate its educational administration.

The implications of all this for educational administration becomes obvious when it is realized that the administrative organizations of the voluntary agencies in education overlap those of Local Education Authorities. This tends to aggravate the problems of finance, inspection and co-ordination of the education system as a whole. Each of the ten large religious denominations, for example, has an administrative organization comparable to that of a government department. A typical voluntary agency

administrative organization consists of a number of Education Secretaries or Education Advisers, Administrative Assistants and school managers, each with an office staff. All these officials and their offices are financed from public funds.[33] Their salaries are paid in accordance with a scale appropriate to their qualifications; they each receive special responsibility and transport allowances as prescribed by the regional governments.[34]

Before 1960, each of the educational agencies had its own staff of school supervisors to administer and supervise its own schools at the district level. But the Banjo Commission found the practice wasteful of public funds and recommended that it should be discontinued. Stated the Commission:

> Very many of the people who gave evidence before us urged in strong terms that the district supervisor system should be discontinued forthwith. Apart from their failure to supervise, they were accused of different kinds of disgusting malpractices, including the misdirection of government funds. Accordingly we recommend that the Minister should absorb into the inspectorate such of the supervisors as are fully qualified for the work of inspection and that the remainder should return to school to work as teachers.[35]

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[33]Government of Western Nigeria, Education Laws, Regulation 12, p. 190.

[34]Ibid., Regulation 12 (3), p. 195.

[35]Government of Western Nigeria, Banjo Commission Report, p. 56.

The government accepted this recommendation, but the predominance of voluntary agencies in education made it difficult to implement it in full. District supervisors who were presumed to be competent by their employing agencies were converted into Administrative Assistants.

These officers now do mainly administrative duties, school inspection having passed almost entirely to the Inspecting Assistants of the Ministries of Education. Thus, the Administrative Assistants receive school grants out of which they pay teachers' salaries and buy school supplies for their school systems. They also help the Ministries of Education to gather information and compile statistics about the schools under their charge. Their handling of finances for primary and secondary modern schools appears to encourage the "misdirection of government funds" for which their predecessors, the District Supervisors, were accused before the Banjo Commission in 1960. Evidence for this may be found among those of their number who operate secondary modern schools in competition with the schools of their employing agency. It would appear, therefore, that the administrative reform which created these officers has merely changed the title of the District Supervisor without improving administrative efficiency.

Besides the main educational agencies, however,

there are local community and private proprietors of primary and secondary schools. These schools form a small percentage of the total number of schools (see Table 9). While local communities appear to be more interested in building secondary grammar schools for their communities , private proprietors have shown more interest in building secondary modern schools which cost far less to start. Besides, secondary modern schools seem more lucrative since proprietors are relatively free to charge what fees they think students can pay.

TABLE 9

PERCENTAGES OF SCHOOLS OPERATED BY LOCAL COMMUNITIES AND PRIVATE PROPRIETORS IN WESTERN NIGERIA FROM 1955 TO 1963

Year	Primary Schools	Secondary Schools	
		Grammar	Modern
1955	-	16.5	-
1956	-	16.5	0.9
1957	1.6	13.9	2.2
1958	1.9	13.7	3.8
1959	1.8	11.6	3.8
1960	1.9	9.0	3.2
1961	1.4	8.5	3.2
1962	1.5	7.9	4.2
1963	-	12.7	5.7

Sources: see footnote 1, page 1.
A - pp. 9, 13.
B - p. 4.

Besides the officially recognized schools established by private proprietors, there is an unknown number of "illegal" schools scattered about Western Nigeria. They tend to be mostly the commercial type of school established by private persons in response to the great public demand for post-primary education. Virtually no government control or supervision is exercised over these schools, except that the government usually closes them on grounds of illegality and saving the public from exploitation. But the fact that parents patronize these schools when they are opened may be a reflection of the great demand for some kind of post-primary education, particularly one that would provide the educand with utilitarian skills. It may also underline the need to remove the existing administrative and financial obstacles to educational expansion.

As has been pointed out, each non-government secondary grammar school has a Board of Governors, and provision is made for this in the Education Laws.[36] Government institutions are "controlled and conducted in accordance with directions issued from time to time by the Minister."[37] Usually a school's Board of Governors

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[36]Government of Western Nigeria, Education Laws, pp. 157-160.

[37]Ibid., Regulation 52 (1), p. 157.

consists of fifteen members, one-third of whom are appointed by the Minister of Education to represent local interested and the remaining two-thirds by the proprietor.[38] Understandably, most of the members of voluntary agency schools' Boards of Governors reflect the religious beliefs of their denominations. Members are thus nominated by the proprietors on religious grounds rather than for their competence in education. As a lay authority, the Board of Governors of a particular institution administers that institution with the help of its executive officer, the school principal. The minutes of its proceedings are open to inspection by an official representative delegated by the Minister of Education.[39]

Making each non-government institution a unit of administration appears to give laymen an opportunity to participate in the educational affairs of their various religious denominations. It also enables local people to take part in "decisioning" in schools controlled by private proprietors, local communities and Local Education Authorities. There are, however, two major administrative

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[38]This was a "reform" resulting from the recommendation of the Ajayi Commission which opined that "the composition of the present Boards of Governors are too much in the exclusive control of the proprietors." See Government of Western Nigeria, Ajayi Commission Report, p. 30.

[39]Government of Western Nigeria, Education Laws, Regulation 56, p. 159.

weaknesses to which attention may be drawn. The first is that there is no specified limit as to the number of Boards to which an individual may be nominated by a proprietor. So that, in effect, it is possible for a proprietor to nominate practically the same people to sit on the Boards of Governors of almost all its schools and teacher-training colleges. This is possibly the only way to resolve the problem of finding enough "qualified" people to sit on the Boards of Governors of the 292 non-government institutions[40] in this category in 1963. Presumably, if these institutions expand to, say, 300, there would then be 300 fifteen-man Boards of Governors and most of the members would be people who, besides membership of an unlimited number of Boards, would have their full-time normal duties. In view of the fact that members receive sitting and travelling allowances from school funds when they attend meetings, it seems doubtful if the resulting increase in school expenditure - a possible source of increase in fees, however slight - justifies the arrangement.

The second administrative weakness is that among some religious denominations, notably the Roman Catholic mission, the institution of Boards of Governors is

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[40]The 292 were made up as follows: 207 non-government secondary grammar schools, 32 Grade II Colleges and 53 Grade III Colleges.

usually a formality to fulfil the requirements of the Education Laws. What happens in practice is that the schools of such denominations are directly under ecclesiastical control, and these schools are usually under the principalship of clergymen or priests.[41] In spite of these weaknesses the Ajayi Commission noted in 1962 that generally Boards of Governors "have so free a hand in the running of schools."[42]

A counterpoise to this freedom is the requirement that every meeting of a Board of Governors should have an official government representative in attendance to put forward government views and explain government policy. But as the Ajayi Commission has observed:

> Ministry representation on these Boards is provided for. But it is both inadequate and ineffective. It is inadequate because on a Board of Governors of fifteen members, the Ministry has only one official representative and decisions are by majority vote. The Minister is also supposed to appoint three other members, but in consultation with the proprietor, which in effect means that the proprietor nominates them.43

Furthermore, the official representative of the Ministry

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[41]Hardly any of the 47 Roman Catholic grammar schools, 7 Grade II teacher training colleges and 11 Grade III colleges in Western Nigeria in 1963 had a Nigerian principal.

[42]Government of Western Nigeria, Ajayi Commission Report, p. 20.

[43]Ibid.

does not always have time to attend even the most important meetings of Boards of Governors since these Boards are many and the official's own duties frequently coincide with the time most Boards hold their budget meetings.[44]

Primary schools and secondary modern schools usually do not have Boards of Governors. But among some voluntary agencies the former come under the surveillance of managers, usually clergymen, acting for their denominations. These managers pay occasional visits to sign registers and exhort teachers and pupils. Among the smaller denominations and private proprietors the managers also pay teachers' salaries and keep school accounts. In the case of secondary modern schools, the activities of the Administrative Assistants in the large denominations are superimposed on whatever control is exercised by local managers. This gives rise to considerable conflict of authority. Most private proprietors either appoint managers for their schools or run these schools themselves as private enterprises, collecting fees and other charges, and paying teachers out of the proceeds. It is the inspectorate staffs of the Ministries of Education that attempt to co-ordinate what appears to be a chaotic situation characterized by competition among the many educational agencies.

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[44] Ibid., p. 21.

To summarize, education in Nigeria became a regional responsibility in 1951, and in 1954 the Western Nigeria Government passed an Education Law which forms the basis of the organization and administration of education. There is a free 6-year primary school course followed by a tripartite secondary education. This is to be changed to a partially free 8-year primary school course in the Midwestern Region in 1966. Opportunities for school graduates are generally minimal, though gradually expanding, and unemployment is a major problem. In the administration of this education "system" governments, local authorities, religious denominations, local communities and private proprietors control schools. But the 30-odd religious denominations predominate in education. There are Boards of Governors at the grammar school level, while managers and Administrative Assistants control primary and secondary modern schools. These arrangements have their administrative weaknesses. Chief among them is the lip-service paid to "local initiative."

Perhaps a more fundamental weakness of educational administration and one which constitutes a major obstacle to educational expansion is the fiscal policy for education.

Sources of Revenue for Schools

Among the minimum conditions which non-government institutions must satisfy to qualify for grants are the following:[1]

(a) the institution must comply with the requirements of the Education Laws;

(b) the institution, besides being in the interest of the community, must be efficient, socially useful and educationally necessary;

(c) the institution must not be conducted for profit.

Some of the conditions stipulated are difficult to quantify, and schools have proliferated with little regard for some of these regulations. A few of the conditions have their weaknesses, too. For example, to deny funds to schools until a quality called "efficiency" is attained appears to be basically unsound and to leave too much initiative to whichever agency or private individual desires to found schools. Not only does this regulation unduly restrict educational expansion (as was noted earlier in the official attitude towards "illegal" schools), it is also somewhat comparable to denying a child an education until he can demonstrate that money spent on him will yield educational dividends.

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[1]See Extracts from the "Education Grants-in-Aid Regulations" in Appendix B.

Government grants to education have, however, increased over the years as a result of the rising number of grant-aided institutions, fluctuations resulting from major revisions of teachers' salaries, and payments for capital expenditures. Regional government expenditure on education has risen from approximately 38 per cent[2] of current regional expenditure in 1956-57 to over 45 per cent at the present time.

Regional grants paid to cover expenditure on education merely supplement recurrent expenses borne by local authorities from local rates, contributions made by local communities for educational purposes, and income from other sources.[3] In 1952-53, every Local Government Council in Western Nigeria was raising an education rate ranging in amount from 50 cents to 75 cents per adult male tax-payer.[4] This rate has gradually increased over the years and is generally additional to local taxes. Usually the education rate is accounted for separately and surpluses may be retained from one year to the next

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[2]Government of Western Nigeria, Ministry of Education Report. Ibadan: Government Printer, 1957, p. 21.

[3]In the absence of complete data, these cannot be quantified.

[4]Small amounts will be expressed in Canadian currency at the rate of £1 to $3.06. Tabulated data will, however, be left in their original form of pounds sterling.

by a Local Government Council. In addition to income from local government education rates, a few local communities and some voluntary agencies make financial contributions to education. Sometimes a local community decides to tax itself in order to build a secondary grammar school. In most cases, once the school begins to earn grants the financial contributions of the local community cease.

Among some religious denominations, some financial effort is made to expand their own school systems and thus attract more revenue from the government. So far as is known, only two out of the thirty religious denominations - the Baptist mission and the Roman Catholic mission - are making any significant financial contributions to education. Almost all of the remaining religious denominations depend wholly on the regional governments for financing their schools apart from income received from fees.

Fees, especially at the secondary school level of education, are an essential source of school finance in Western Nigeria. According to the "Education Grants-in-Aid Regulations"[5] they are supposed to be covered by an "assumed local contribution" of $45 per boy and $30 per girl enrolled in a secondary grammar school. But, in

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[5]See Appendix B, Regulation 11 (b).

practice, fees tend to be much higher than this minimum, and proprietors generally adjust fees to the needs of their schools. It was as a result of abuses resulting from the charging of fees that the government appointed the Ajayi Commission in 1962 to inquire into fees charged by secondary grammar schools and teacher training colleges in Western Nigeria. The Commission discovered several abuses. It claimed that of all possible sources of school income

> . . . school fees are the easiest and cheapest to collect because there is hardly anything for which the average Nigerian is willing to make sacrifices to pay for so much as education for his children or relations.[6]

While this observation may be partially correct it seems that most parents would be reluctant to tax themselves beyond a certain limit, especially now that most children graduating from school are unable to find employment. Besides, these parents are already making contributions other than fees for books, uniforms, boarding expenses, and payments as local rate-payers. Incomes foregone, that is, the sacrifice of possible earnings by the child to supplement family income, become particularly heavy if, in addition to actual financial sacrifices made, the child is unable to find a job after graduation from

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[6]Government of Western Nigeria, Ajayi Commission Report, p. 22.

school. Fees, therefore, may tend to:

(a) limit enrolment;

(b) encourage early withdrawal, considerably reducing the school's pupil-retention potentiality;

(c) bear heavily on families which are large or have small income;

(d) limit the effectiveness of education by its encouragement of pupil wastage.

It can hardly be assumed therefore that every parent will regard education as a form of investment; many would tend to regard it as a consumption item which drains off scarce resources in the form of monetary expenses and real income.

Allocation of Grants - Expenditure

However, fees and other income from other sources supplement financial allocations to schools from regional sources. In allocating funds to primary schools, the following are taken into consideration:[7]

(a) a sum of 75 cents for each unit of the average number of pupils enrolled;

(b) a sum of $30 for each unit of the approved number of class teachers employed in the school;

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[7]See Appendix B, Regulation 8.

(c) a sum equal to the salaries of the total number of staff;

(d) grants for special purposes such as buildings.

Since 1955 the free primary education in Western Nigeria has absorbed a large proportion of total regional government expenditure on education. Table 10 reveals that from the period 1955-56 to 1962-63 between 37.6 per cent and 69.5 per cent of the total annual expenditure on education has gone towards primary education. In spite of this relatively high expenditure on primary education the Banjo Commission was astonished at "the scantiness of equipment and teaching apparatus in those primary schools visited" in spite of the fact that Local Authorities were supplementing regional grants paid to these schools.[8]

A number of factors may account for the observed poverty of the primary schools. These schools are mostly small unit schools chiefly because of the large number of competitive agencies operating them. Each proprietor has to provide a full range of services, sometimes at a bare minimum, for each school. In 1963, for example, the 6311 existing primary schools[9] enrolled 1.1 million pupils -

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[8]Government of Western Nigeria, Banjo Commission Report, p. 5.

[9]70.8 per cent of the total number of primary schools were operated by some thirty voluntary agencies.

TABLE 10

GRANTS-IN-AID TO PRIMARY SCHOOLS AND ESTIMATED TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION IN WESTERN NIGERIA FROM 1955-56 TO 1962-63

Year	Grants-in-Aid - Primary Education (A)	Estimated Total Expenditure on Education (B)	Percentage (A/B)
	£'000	£'000	%
1955-56	2,100	5,471	38.4
1956-57	3,357	8,924	37.6
1957-58	3,640	8,734	44.3
1958-59	3,990	-	-
1959-60	5,000	8,416	59.5
1960-61	4,980	8,950	55.5
1961-62	6,144	8,850	69.5
1962-63	5,757	9,538	59.2

Sources: see footnote 1, page 1.
A - pp. 52-53.
B - p. 52.

an average of 174 pupils per school. Local Education Authorities were able then, as now, to supplement government grants to these schools from local sources. But the private proprietors and the voluntary agencies depended (as they still do) almost entirely on regional grants for current and capital expenditures. Since there is competition among the voluntary agencies to found schools, and the smaller ones find it difficult to maintain schools that fulfil the requirements for grants (such as having a

certain number of pupils per class, an adequate pupil-teacher ratio and a number of staff with prescribed minimum qualifications), there is always a tendency for these agencies to inflate or deflate statistics, as the case may be, to satisfy government regulations. The effects of competition among educational agencies and manipulation of statistics seem to suggest that considerable economic waste is going on at the primary level of education. The over-all effect is probably that the costs of primary education are inflated without any compensatory improvements in the quality of instruction.

The same principles used in allocating funds to primary education apply in the case of secondary schools but with changes in detail. According to the "Education Grants-in-Aid Regulations," grants to a non-government secondary school "shall be an amount equal to the net expenditure of the institution for the appropriate year."[10] The net expenditure is determined according to the formula:

$$G = \$y + \$18x - \$(45b + 30g)$$

where G = total regional grants;

y = the salaries and allowances (approved scales only) of all staff, according to a definite class-staff ratio;

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[10]See Appendix B, Regulation 11.

x = total number of pupils enrolled at the institution;

b = number of boys;

g = number of girls.

Thus, a sum equal to $45 for each male pupil enrolled and $30 for each female pupil enrolled is deducted from the aggregate sums payable as regional grants to each non-government secondary grammar school. Special provisions are, however, made to pay "special purposes" grants to cover certain items of expenditure.[11] There is also provision for the payment of grants to cover expenses on the training of staff for service in non-government institutions.

Since each of these institutions is taken as a unit for the purposes of grants, regional expenditure tends to increase more than proportionately as schools expand. As Table 11 reveals, the yearly percentage increase in grants paid to grammar schools since 1957-58 has been consistently in excess of the corresponding yearly percentage increase in the number of grammar schools. The full implications of the financial situation may be appreciated when it is realized that regional grants form only a part of the total income of schools from such other sources as school fees, local council and

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[11]See Appendix B, Regulation 19.

TABLE 11

PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN SECONDARY GRAMMAR SCHOOLS AND IN REGIONAL GRANTS FROM 1955-56 TO 1962-63

(Base year 1955-56 = 100)

Year	Percentage increase in Grammar Schools		Percentage increase in regional grants	
1955-56	100		100	
1956-57	124.5	(24.5)*	104.0	(4.0)
1957-58	148.0	(23.5)	132.6	(28.6)
1958-59	160.0	(12.0)	145.0	(12.4)
1959-60	189.0	(29.0)	174.5	(29.5)
1960-61	228.0	(39.0)	264.8	(90.3)
1961-62	242.0	(14.0)	238.3	(26.5)
1962-63	259.0	(17.0)	318.0	(79.7)

Sources: Computed from (a) Data on Table 4;
(b) Government of Western Nigeria, Ajayi Commission Report, pp. 48-49.

* Figures in brackets represent percentage increase over previous year.

local community contributions, and contributions from certain grammar schools.

The inflationary costs of education at the secondary level have necessitated the adoption of such temporary expedients as "economy measures" to reduce the amounts paid to each institution, or limit the growth of secondary schools by additional regulations. The "assumed local contributions" deductable from the net grants paid to a school were raised from $18 early in 1962 to $45 in respect

of boys and $30 in respect of girls. Furthermore, new conditions have been laid down for the opening of grammar schools. After obtaining approval to open a new school the agency concerned must deposit $15,000 with each Ministry of Education. This money is spent partly in running the school until it qualifies for grants. The purposes of this restriction and of the "economy measures" are:

(a) to regulate the growth of grammar schools, and

(b) to relieve the regional governments of "heavy financial burdens."[12]

The official comments on the Ajayi Commission Report indicated that the expansion of secondary grammar schools would be artificially restricted as a way of alleviating the financial problem, rather than attacking the roots of the problem. The government, for instance, commented:

> The growth of some schools has been unregulated and Government has been forced to shoulder heavy financial burdens.[13]
>
> Government expenditure on education generally has been rising steadily since the introduction of the Free Primary Education in the Region in

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[12] "Comments of the Western Nigeria Government on the Ajayi Commission Report," in Government of Western Nigeria, Ajayi Commission Report, p. v.

[13] Ibid.

> 1955. . . . Care must therefore be taken regarding the approval of more schools and in putting new ones on the public list.[14]

It is obvious from these official statements that fiscal problems have become an obstacle to educational expansion. A solution of these problems appears to lie in first tracing their possible causes.

A Critique of Grants-in-Aid

Two sources of these problems may be suggested:

(a) the present fiscal policy in relation to education, especially the concept of "assumed local contributions;" and

(b) the over-all administrative structure of education in which a multiplicity of educational agencies operates.

Phillipson,[15] who originated the idea of "assumed local contributions" in 1948, appeared to have assumed that there would be regular and considerable local financial support to education in Nigeria just as it is in England. As he pointed out:

> It is desirable to recognize the school as serving a particular community and as being at least in part a charge on that community served, a first step towards that ultimate

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[14] Ibid., p. vi.

[15] See Sydney Phillipson and W. E. Holt, Grants-in-Aid of Education in Nigeria. Lagos: Government Printer, 1948.

> division of cost between national taxation and local rates which is the ultimate, though at present remote objective.[16]

This statement seemed to have ignored the fact that the bulk of the educational institutions in Nigeria are controlled (as they were in 1948) by over 43 non-elected and non-representative religious denominations. This is unlike the situation in England where popularly elected councils control education. In the circumstances, therefore, the effect of the predominance of "voluntary" agencies in education could hardly be one that would bring financial contributions from local community sources. For this reason the idea of "assumed local contribution" appears to rest on improbable assumptions.

Perhaps a more fundamental weakness of the Phillipson grants-in-aid formula was the lack of provision for its periodic and regular adjustment or revision. The weakness in a formula which defines the services of a crude "equalization programme" in terms of "assumed local contributions" appears to be that the definition is correct only for one moment in time. The infinite number of variables in a changing society, such as Nigeria's, appears to have made the Phillipson formula for financing education inadequate. This has become progressively so with lapse of time. With the regional governments

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[16] Ibid., p. 88.

capable of paying only a fixed, though high, proportion of educational expenditure, and most of the educational agencies contributing almost nothing, the situation has arisen whereby the latter maintain educational services at a bare minimum, especially as their efforts are wastefully dispersed and there is considerable financial irresponsibility. The government itself admitted in 1962 that "high overheads in some schools force proprietors to all sorts of devices to supplement grants paid to them."[17]

Financial irresponsibility appears to be manifest in financial abuses and in poor accounting procedures. In 1962 the Ajayi Commission reported:

> We observed that in quite a number of cases, grants due to some institutions are paid in the first instance to the proprietors. Often, the proprietor credits the amount to his account from where he pays out various sums to the institutions under their [sic] proprietorship as just an arm of the Church or Mission, or one department of individual proprietor's business concerns.[18]

The Commission also noted several infractions of the Regulations against conducting a school for profit[19] when it found:[20]

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[17]Government of Western Nigeria, Ajayi Commission Report, p. v.

[18]Ibid., p. 16.

[19]See Appendix B, Regulations 3 (1c) and 6 (d).

[20]Ajayi Commission Report, pp. 15-16.

(a) a managing proprietor drawing an honorarium of some $2900 from each of two institutions, even though managing the two was not his full-time job;

(b) a proprietor paying from school funds an acting allowance, house rent and a driver's salary to a manager who, apart from the school, looked after the proprietor's business concerns;

(c) a proprietor levying a regular charge on a number of institutions under his proprietorship to defray the expenses of his ecclesiastical office;

(d) proprietors of a school who resigned their interest to another body in which they still had an effective voice, for a compensation of $36,000.

This sample of abuses would seem to indicate that some proprietors run schools mainly for profit. The complexities of co-ordinating a fragmented school system makes it difficult to detect and check such practices.

Besides, the system of administration of school accounts is not effectively controlled. As pointed out by the Ajayi Commission:

> Each public institution is supposed to appoint an auditor who must be approved by the Minister but the approval is largely a formality, and the auditing a casual affair. Most of these auditors merely assist the institutions to compile their statements of income and expenditure and do not bother to enquire whether or not payment is proper according to regulation, or properly vouched.[21]

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[21] Ibid., p. 21.

In a comment, the government appeared to have admitted that the accounting procedures of the schools were "inadequate and ineffective." Continued the comment:

> This practice may probably have been consciously followed in the past in view of the fact that the greater percentage of the financial responsibility of the administration of schools was borne by the voluntary agencies.22

With poor accounting procedures as a basic problem to be tackled, it is almost impossible to proceed to the assessment of education on the basis of other criteria that may suit a developing economy. For example, assessment of the cost of dropouts, of non-promotion and failure rate to the educational enterprise as a whole appear to be necessary. But the precise data required for such cost-accounting would be difficult to obtain from educational agencies which manipulate school statistics to increase their share of grants. Perhaps a combination of standardized accounting procedures and cost-accounting would encourage attention to the output and efficiency of the educational enterprise than at present. It is highly probable, too, that a better fiscal policy as well as better educational services would depend very largely on a rationalization of the administrative procedures for education.

To summarize, two main issues are related to the

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[22] Ibid., p. vi.

finance of education: income and allocation of revenue. Income is derived from government grants, local council and other contributions, fees and foreign aid. Fees have their disadvantages, but they tend to reduce slightly the grants payable to each particular school from regional sources. These grants go to primary schools as flat grants, while secondary grammar schools receive them according to a formula based on the concept of "assumed local contributions." Taking each school as a unit in the administration of grants introduces an inflationary trend in school financing, especially as the crude "equalization programme" in use is out of date. In addition, there exist the problems of financial abuses among some voluntary agencies, poor accounting procedures and lack of cost-accounting.

All these problems need to be solved through the rationalization of administration. But before considering the needs of administration, it is necessary to examine more critically the problems of educational administration as a whole.

CHAPTER IV

PROBLEMS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

In considering the problems of the present administrative practices in education, three basic questions need to be answered:

(1) Education being the biggest enterprise in Western Nigeria, is it efficiently administered with due regard to the balanced use of scarce resources?

(2) Does the present structural framework for education produce the kind of education required for balanced development? Does the educand in fact receive an "education"?

(3) Do the present administrative arrangements consider social factors as well as human relations - essential ingredients for successful administration?

In answer to these questions it may be convenient to evaluate the present structural framework for education on administrative, educational and sociological grounds.

Administrative Problems

Education is the biggest single enterprise in Western Nigeria as in many developing societies. In 1963 some 46,127 teachers were employed to teach nearly 1.25 million pupils in the primary, secondary modern and secondary grammar schools alone. During the same period no less than 45 per cent of the total expenditure for Western Nigeria went into education. These massive investments of resources demonstrate the importance attached to education. But it remains to be seen to what extent the administrative arrangements for education helped or hindered the efficient and economical use of these investments.

It has been pointed out that at the regional level each Ministry of Education is divided into two branches - the administrative and the professional. Apart from such division of authority resulting in rivalry and a diffusion of effort, almost all the officials in the administrative branch are educational administrators by accident. Most of them became administrators by learning on the job and thus had a chancy and haphazard introduction to the complex job of educational administration. Because of the common assumption that administrative skills acquired on the job can readily be transferred to any field, they are rotated from one Ministry to another. In a comment on

this situation in 1961, the Banjo Commission urged:

> . . . we emphasize the undesirability of frequent changes of administrative officers between the Ministry of Education and other Ministries. This sort of transfer needs to be drastically reduced, for it causes confusion and slows up action.[1]

The frequent rotation of officers from Ministry to Ministry means that hardly any officers gain more than "bureaucratic" skills, and bureaucracy may considerably slow the tempo of educational change.

In the division of powers between the two branches at the regional level, most authority for the execution of educational decisions resides in the administrative branch[2] - the branch that appears to have the least sensitivity to educational needs. An educational decision from the professional branch could be rejected by the administrative branch "for lack of funds," or for being "impracticable." A factor that is likely to contribute to this is that it is generally these "administrators by accident" who tend to be inhibited by stereotyped procedure and inflexibility, and to think that their authority is at stake when the professional men press a demand which they consider urgent. Thus, unhealthy rivalry between the administrative and the professional

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[1]Government of Western Nigeria, Banjo Commission Report, p. 12.

[2]Ibid., p. 55.

cadres tends to weaken the administrative control of the Ministries at the regional level. It may also delay the execution of policies already formulated. The Banjo Commission recommended that "in matters of a purely professional nature the professional arm should have the last say."[3] It was thought that in this way some of the existing problems would be minimized.

What was not realized, however, was that there existed a more important barrier to efficiency at the regional level - the excessive "layering" of authority which breeds bureaucracy and red-tape. Each of the two branches at the regional headquarters of the Ministries has at least five layers of authority, ranging from the Executive Officers to the Under-secretary (Administrative Branch), or from the Inspecting Assistants to the Assistant Chief Inspector of Education (Inspectorate Branch) (see Figure 2, page 39). Sometimes a file may travel from the lowest level up to the highest, causing unnecessary delay to what may require speedy action. In this connection Fainsod makes an observation which is pertinent to the situation in Western Nigeria:

> One hears frequent complaints of delay, resulting from congestion of decision-making at the center and excessive centralization of power in the secretariats. An understandable distrust

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[3] Ibid., p. 56.

> of the quality of lower level administration has led to this reluctance to delegate authority.4

It is highly probable that the reluctance of the colonial administrators to delegate authority has now been taken over by their Nigerian successors who understudied them. But the great difference is that while the colonial administrator was usually briefed for his job and was usually spontaneous, flexible and confident, his Nigerian successor tends to stick to book rules and official instructions codified in "General Orders." There is little flexibility in a situation where administrative duties and the problems of administration increase in complexity, and require creative and flexible minds to wade through them.

And there are very few people available who are trained for these duties. Harbison[5] has estimated that shortly after Nigeria's independence in 1960, some 30,000 people - one-third of them expatriates - were carrying the burden of administrative decisions and top-level policy decisions for the whole of Nigeria. This

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[4]Merle Fainsod, "The Structure of Development Administration," in Irving Swerdlow (ed.), Development Administration: Concepts and Problems. Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1963, p. 11.

[5]Federal Ministry of Education, Investment in Education. The Report of the Commission on Post-School Certificate and Higher Education in Nigeria (Ashby Report). Lagos: Federal Government Printer, 1960, p. 60.

figure represented less than 0.1 per cent of the total population. Even if the manpower target of 54,700 set by the Ashby Commission were achieved by 1970, it "would raise the percentage of high-level manpower to a little less than two-tenths of one per cent of the population in 1970."[6] The whole problem comes back to that of education.

However, under the present circumstances of acute shortage of trained manpower, the diffusion of effort at the regional level of educational administration and the layering of authority appear to be evident weaknesses. Such administrative weaknesses as these increase the tasks of internal co-ordination at the highest level of authority, reducing the effectiveness of central control and direction.[7] The Ajayi Commission observed in 1962:

> Ministry control is no longer as effective as it used to be, and this at a time when the rapid expansion is bringing to the control of education at the local level more and more people with less and less experience.[8]

Thus, as the Ajayi Commission also noted, administrative weaknesses have manifested themselves at a time when the

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[6] Ibid., pp. 62-63.

[7] Whether central control and direction might have been a good thing is a question whose answer seems evident from the obvious chaotic character of the administrative structure.

[8] Government of Western Nigeria, Ajayi Commission Report, p. 20.

burden of new administrative responsibilities have greatly increased.

This "burden" is mainly associated with the proliferation of educational agencies and the greatly increased number of schools. It has been shown that the fragmentation of the school system and duplication of effort are the results of the contradictory educational objectives among the various educational agencies. The Inspectorate Branch, which is expected to co-ordinate the activities and school systems of these agencies, has never been able to solve the problem of inadequate staff. This is evidenced by the present situation in Midwestern Nigeria where there are only thirty-four inspectors of all grades in the Inspectorate Branch of the Ministry of Education to inspect 2200 educational institutions and co-ordinate the activities of over twenty denominational agencies.[9] Admittedly, there are also twenty Administrative Assistants, but these do mainly routine administrative duties with their denominational school systems.

The implications of these administrative inadequacies for education are many. Among them may be mentioned the following:

(i) Effort and personnel that might have been spent on

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[9]Information obtained by letter from the Inspectorate Branch of the Ministry of Education, Midwestern Region, Benin City, June, 1965.

developing and improving the quality of education are dissipated in attempts to co-ordinate the activities of numerous agencies.

(ii) The governments resort to piece-meal "reform" measures in the hope that these would remove the obstacles hampering educational advance.

(iii) The regional authorities fail to provide sound educational leadership and to develop a unified co-ordinated direction through the integration of educational services.

A factor which contributes to the complexities of co-ordinating educational services is this: with every increase in the number of schools there tends to be a corresponding increase in the number of educational agencies, whether religious denominations or private proprietors. Consequently, "more and more people with less and less experience" tend to be drawn into lower level administration. This is particularly true with the Boards of Governors at the school level. The result of this could be, and probably is, that the machinery of educational control at the lowest level comes under mediocre educational leadership. This is probably true of the school systems of most religious denominations where school managers are, by training and orientation, religious evangelists rather than educational administrators.

For most of these managers, the administration of education is a side-line occupation depending more on native wit than on specific knowledge about the purposes of the school. The Ajayi Commission pointed out that the case for Government oversight over the educational work of the religious denominations "is that their primary purpose is evangelization not education."[10] But the governments of Western Nigeria are handicapped by their own diffusion of effort which renders school inspection ineffective owing to its inadequacy and inefficiency.

The conflict of interest among the numerous educational agencies and the resulting fragmentation of the school system, over-lapping of authorities and duplication of services tend to increase educational costs. And these increases are not always justified by any evident increase in administrative efficiency, or in educational output (educational output being defined as the number of pupils who receive a functional education). As an example, the Western Nigeria Government had planned in 1957 that 10 per cent of the primary school population would enter secondary grammar schools, 13 per cent would go to secondary technical schools and 77 per cent to

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[10]Government of Western Nigeria, Ajayi Commission Report, p. 19.

secondary modern schools.[11] But in 1962-63 only 2.9 per cent of the primary school population were in secondary grammar schools, and this proportion was absorbing 11.3 per cent of the total educational budget, excluding the contributions made by local councils, some religious denominations, a few local communities and direct local labour, and fees paid by students. At the same time, only 11.1 per cent of primary school graduates were in secondary modern schools while the remaining 86 per cent were potential job-seekers whose schooling had not fitted them for the job market. All this suggests the need for expansion, but expansion will entail considerable outlay under the present administrative arrangements.

The government itself admitted the existence of fiscal obstacles to educational expansion in its first progress report of the 1962-68 Development Plan which stated:

> Many projects earmarked for execution in 1962-63 were not pursued due primarily to lack of funds. Capital allocation for education during the period was £2.030 million, actual expenditure on education was £3.022 million, an increase of about £1.0 million.12

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[11]See Government of Western Nigeria, Ministry of Education Report. Ibadan: Government Printer, 1957, p. 21.

[12]Western Region of Nigeria - Ministry of Economic Planning and Community Development, Western Nigeria Development Plan, 1962-68, first progress report. Ibadan: Government Printer, 1964, p. 34.

Elsewhere in the report it was stated that government policy was to raise the standard of teaching in the primary schools where over 1.2 million children were receiving free primary education.[13]

> Provision of capital of £0.8 million appeared in the plan, but only the completed projects of the previous plan period were executed during 1962-63. The Ministry declared that there was no capital expenditure on this project during 1962-63.[14]

Thus, everywhere in the educational scene the same financial obstacles to further expansion were reported. Meanwhile, with a vast increase in the number of pupils in the schools, the number of teachers has risen far beyond the resources available for training them and for providing those employed with employment benefits. The number of children capable of benefitting from secondary education has increased far beyond the facilities available for training them (see Table 2, page 24). Yet not enough resources are available for expansion, nor for developing industries to provide them with employment. The inner contradiction in Nigeria's development planning which is generating a dangerous and vicious circle has been pointedly expressed by Callaway:

> . . . the more that is spent on education from Regional budgets, the less there is left to

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[13] Ibid.

[14] Ibid., p. 25.

spend on recurrent costs of further capital outlay that could provide employment.[15]

The present financial obstacles to educational expansion and, coincidentally, to economic development, appear to be the logical outcome of an ill-conceived educational policy in Western Nigeria. This policy permits educational agencies which carry financial responsibility ranging from very little to nil to control the majority of educational institutions. It has been shown, for example, that almost all the educational agencies operating schools depend entirely on the government for funds for their educational work. Consequently, in a society where capital is scarce relative to manpower, educational plans mobilize capital[16] rather than human beings, since the people in general are excluded from participation in educational decisions and policy-making, and are, therefore, largely apathetic.

It is obvious that the most important resource in the developing countries, including Nigeria, is manpower,

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[15]Callaway, op. cit., p. 64.

[16]Mobilization of capital rather than people is thus in imitation of the priorities given to factors of production in the advanced countries where capital has always been more abundant than human beings. Consequently, in these countries most development plans are capital-intensive. This seems logical. In 1964-65, for instance, Canada's GNP was $49.7 billion for a population of 19.4 million people; the United States had $624 for 200 million people. Nigeria, meanwhile, had $4.337 billion for 55.6 million people.

and people might continue to be abundant relative to capital for several years, if not for centuries. At the present time, population tends to outrun capital accumulation and even development; and people are economically poor not because of the absence of resources but because the human resources to develop the material ones are poorly developed.[17] As Curle points out in regard to the human resources in these countries:

> . . . among these millions there must reside a vast reservoir of talent, talent which could transform half the globe but which locked up untrained and inert within the traditional economy, actually retards development.[18]

It may be concluded from the foregoing that, although capital is necessary and important, there are economic and social reasons why educational development plans in Western Nigeria should be labour-intensive. For one way in which the capital costs of development may be reduced is to encourage local communities to contribute labour. But this is hardly possible in the absence of popular involvement in the decision-making process under the present administrative structure.

Wasteful competition among educational agencies,

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[17]Adam Curle, "The Role of Education in Underdeveloped Societies," The New Era, May 1961, p. 90.

[18]Ibid., p. 89.

the malpractices[19] stemming from this, the expenditure of public funds on maintaining the administrative offices of numerous religious denominations in a country which is not a religious Establishment - all combine with others both to swell the costs of education and to create fiscal obstacles to educational expansion. Under these circumstances, it seems difficult for any government to meet the overwhelming popular demand for education without first breaking the bottlenecks to further progress. One way of doing this is to broaden the base of educational administration and cease to make education an enterprise for religious denominations. There is an even more important reason why there may be a crucial need for this: the educational implications of present administrative arrangements.

Educational Implications

Following from the previous section is the question whether the present administrative structure serves the purposes of education. Does it produce "education" for the child and for society? (The real test of the soundness of an educational set-up might be to determine what

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[19]Some of these, like the practice of inflating or deflating school statistics, have been noted. More detail is given, however, under the next section on Educational Implications, with support from the Banjo Commission Report.

happens to the child and to society.) It has been noted that multi-denominationalism partly accounts for the fragmentation of the school system, producing considerable administrative overlap. A Canadian Royal Commission has observed that "denominational interests are given priority over educational interests in any situation where the two are in conflict."[20] This would seem to be amply illustrated by the situation in Western Nigeria where competition among voluntary agencies leads to the perpetuation of small inadequate schools and the wasteful use of scarce resources. Table 12 gives an idea of the extent of fragmentation in the school system. Much is undoubtedly hidden in these statistical averages. But when they are compared with Table 4 (page 30) and the account of school sizes accompanying it, the averages in Table 12 sufficiently indicate the extent of fragmentation in the school system of Western Nigeria.

A direct illustration of the priority of religious over educational interests comes from the secondary modern schools. In 1961 the Banjo Commission noted:

> . . . We have had too much evidence of the effect of sectarian division upon the provision of Secondary Modern Schools in many areas, resulting in overproduction of schools, each too small to provide the variety of courses

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[20] Report of the Royal Commission on Education in the Province of Alberta, 1959. Edmonton: Queen's Printer, p. 271.

TABLE 12

TOTAL AND AVERAGE ENROLMENT PER SCHOOL LEVEL, 1963

Type	Total Number of Schools	Total Enrolments	Total Number of Teachers	Average per School	
				Pupils	Teachers
Primary	6,311	1,099,418	38,856	173.5	6
Secondary Grammar	212	38,534	2,157	186.5	10
Secondary Modern	699	110,796	5,114	158	7
Grade II Colleges	35	5,918	371	169	11

Computed from: see footnote 1, page 1.
B - pp. 4, 17, 19, 25-27, 30-33, 38.

> which the children need, . . . we feel compelled to state that in the interests of the young men and women of Western Nigeria these sectarian obstacles to proper secondary education must be unhesitatingly swept away.21

The Commission then urged the Ministry of Education to enforce the centralization of schools in the interests of efficiency and economy.[22] But at the time the Commission made its observations there were only 533 secondary modern schools in Western Nigeria. The religious denominations controlled 75.9 per cent of these schools. By 1963 when an increase of 13.1 per cent occurred in the number of secondary modern schools, the religious denominations increased their control by 0.4 per cent; their share then came to 76.3 per cent of the total. Thus, although the Ministry of Education had tried to act on the Banjo Commission recommendation on school consolidation to improve services, the attempt only improved the average enrolment per school from 142 in 1960 to 158 in 1963. This would seem to suggest that the basic problems of fragmentation, duplication of services and a wasteful use of resources remained unsolved. The question, then, is: How far does the priority of religious over educational interests help or hinder the

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[21]Government of Western Nigeria, Report of the Commission Appointed to Review the Educational System of Western Nigeria 1960-61. Ibadan, 1961, p. 25.

[22]Ibid.

provision of effective education?

The conclusions of a recent study by Cheal[23] could be used as criteria for assessment, with due allowance made for cultural differences. The study found significant differences between Canadian provinces and within them in educational "input" and "output."[24] Educational "output" was defined in terms of the pupil-retention rate of the school system and achievement in examinations; educational "input" was defined in terms of effort to support schools, and investment in teachers' salaries. Hypothesizing that the degree of denominationalism might be one of the significant factors causing the differences, the study found:

(1) A negative correlation of $r^2 = .533$, at the .05 level of significance, between the two variables (a) degree of denominationalism, and (b) educational output in terms of pupil retention rate;

(2) A negative correlation of $r^2 = .828$, at the .01 level of significance, between the Roman Catholic proportion of the population in each province and the ranking of the province in educational output.

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[23] J. E. Cheal, Investment in Canadian Youth. An analysis of input-output differences among Canadian provincial school systems. Toronto: Macmillan, 1963.

[24] Ibid., pp. 105-112.

Quebec and Newfoundland, the highest provinces in degree of denominationalism, were found to have the highest drop-out rates. "It strongly suggests," concluded the study, "that the greater the degree of denominationalism in a provincial school system, the lower will be the expected retention rate or output."[25]

Even allowing for cultural, economic and environmental variables between Canada and Nigeria - variables whose effects might be positively in favour of, or adversely against Nigeria[26] - these conclusions could have implications for the efficiency of education in Western Nigeria. Here, the degree of denominationalism in education surpasses that in any Canadian province. While Western Nigeria has thirty religious denominations in education, the province with the highest degree of denominationalism in Canada, i.e. Newfoundland, has six religious denominations in its school system. In Cheal's study, Quebec, with its "dual" system, and Newfoundland come lowest of all Canadian provinces in educational input and output, while British Columbia with no denominational characteristic in its provincial school system comes highest.

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[25] Ibid., p. 105.

[26] A local factor such as the spread of literacy in a largely illiterate society could be positive, while a factor such as the super-imposition of the missionaries over the local cultures could be adverse or negative, depending on the way it is done.

Applying similar criteria but changing the details for Western Nigeria, educational "input" may be defined as:[27]

(i) the resources - finance and "teaching power" - invested in education; and

(ii) the financial effort of educational agencies.

Educational "output" may be defined in terms of "returns" to investment, i.e., pupil achievement in final examinations, and the relationship between the education provided and the educational objectives of the governments of Nigeria.

It has been shown that the governments of Western Nigeria bear almost all the burden of educational financing, including the payment of the salaries of teachers at all levels of education. Some of the large voluntary agencies, however, make financial contributions. The Baptist Mission, for instance, runs Baptist teacher training colleges without grants from the Ministries of Education.[28] Also, the Roman Catholics derive a part of their funds from the pooled salaries of their teachers in religious orders. These salaries are paid by the government according to these teachers' qualifications. But

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[27]In the absence of complete data it is thought that an analysis can be based on these tentative definitions.

[28]Government of Western Nigeria, Ajayi Commission Report, p. 6.

the financial effort made by some agencies does not overcome the disadvantages of multi-denominationalism manifested in small school populations, poor facilities, narrow subject offerings and under-utilization of teaching power.

And then there is the fact that most of the voluntary agencies depend entirely on the government for financial support because they do not have independent sources of income from which to subsidize their institutions.[29] Inadequacy of school units and lack of sufficient funds leads to the practice of inflating school enrolments (as has been mentioned earlier) to increase "Other Expenses" grants reckoned at 75 cents per pupil. This is what led the Banjo Commission to talk about "the recognized and widespread evil of competitive clusters of small primary schools,"[30] and to urge:

> Where, as is often the case, it seems, there is the sort of sectarian competition for pupils which leads to inefficiently run small schools, to unnecessarily small classes, to falsification of registers, to the encouragement of under-age entrants and to other abuses, it is essential that some schools should be merged.[31]

Thus, although some of the voluntary agencies make some financial effort, the disadvantages of multi-denominationalism

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[29] Ibid., p. 5.

[30] Government of Western Nigeria, Banjo Commission Report, p. 10.

[31] Ibid., pp. 10-11.

far outweigh the value of this effort. Chief among these disadvantages is that, in the face of many short-staffed schools, teacher exchange is seldom practised among the various denominational schools - a factor which impairs the quality of education. Although all teachers are paid from regional funds, specialist teachers in one agency's school cannot offer their services in a neighbouring school or schools of another agency. In some cases of acute need, the short-staffed school may make private arrangements with the specialist teachers of the other school to give lessons to its pupils. These lessons are generally given during the free periods of the hired teachers who are paid a bonus.[32] If the government approves this item of expenditure the hiring school is reimbursed when "adjustment grants" are paid. An example like this would seem to show that the available qualified teachers in the school system of Western Nigeria are inefficiently organized and wastefully deployed. Only 56.5 per cent of the teachers in primary and secondary schools in 1963 were trained, and only 2.5 per cent of the total number of teachers were graduates. Mainly because the interests of multiple educational agencies

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[32]The writer knows a case where a Nigerian teacher of English was receiving a bonus equal to half of his salary for giving lessons in English in a neighbouring school. Whether this was approved as "recognized expenditure" was not however known.

tend to override those of education, the few qualified teachers are poorly distributed; this brings in its train a whole range of problems - inadequately-staffed schools, restricted educational programmes, ineffective education.

What, then, are the "returns" to these "inputs"? One way of answering this question is to assess the "returns" to effort in terms of percentage passes in school examinations.[33] The data for 1962 may be used as an illustration, as shown in Table 13. Although the data on this table cannot lead to conclusive evidence of poor returns to educational investment, it does provide an indication of what happens. Of the 43.2 per cent passes in the West African School Certificate in 1962, 18 per cent were repeaters. Only 5.5 per cent of the total obtained Grade I Certificate, i.e., "honour" passes. Mostly Grade I and Grade II West African School Certificate holders are admitted to the Sixth Form course on the results of an entrance examination. Yet only 2.7 per cent of those admitted passed all four subjects in the Higher School Certificate examination in 1962. In the case of the secondary Modern School the 24.2 per cent of the total number of candidates who passed the final

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[33]Examination results are probably not the best way to assess the "returns" to educational investments in a developing society, but they provide the most objective yardstick to measure the effectiveness of teaching in the schools.

TABLE 13

"RETURNS" TO EDUCATIONAL INVESTMENT IN TERMS OF SCHOOL ACHIEVEMENT FOR 1962

School Level	Examination	Percentage Passes
Primary School	First School Leaving Certificate	72.5
Secondary Modern School	Secondary Modern Certificate	24.2
Secondary Grammar School	West African School Certificate	43.2
Sixth Form	Higher School Certificate	2.7 (4 subjects) 39.7 (3 ") 24.6 (2 ")
Grade II Teacher-training	Grade II Certificate	41.6

Source: Federal Ministry of Education, Annual Digest of Education Statistics, Series 1, Vol. II, 1962. Lagos, 1962, pp. 67, 68, 71.

examination included repeaters. This generally low educational output appears to demonstrate the disadvantages of multiple educational control, which have been analysed.

Pupil achievement in examinations provides the most objective, if somewhat narrow, measure of the efficiency of school teaching. What is, perhaps, more important is the "content" of education in a developing society. Here "content" may be understood as (i) the stated educational objectives of the government, and

(ii) the over-all economic and social goals of society.

As far back as 1952 the Western Nigeria Government laid down its educational policy with the following aims:[34]

1. To enhance every aspect of economic well-being.
2. To man the machinery of the state. ("The art of government must be learnt.")
3. To develop indigenous African culture in harmony with Western civilization.
4. For the scientific approach to permeate every stage of the educational programme.

Two quotations sum up the objectives of the government in education:

> The principles that must be given due consideration in any educational policy today are economic, political, cultural. . . . [Nigerians] can only admire and desire an education which raises their standard of living, enhances their economic status, liberates their minds and gives them national or corporate self-respect.35

The "Addis Ababa Conference" on Education in which Nigeria participated reaffirmed these same principles:

> The leaders of education speaking of their countries' needs have stressed a second major

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[34]Minister of Education, Proposals for an Education Policy for the Western Region, Nigeria. Ibadan: Government Printer, 1952, pp. 12-13.

[35]Ibid., pp. 10, 15.

> aspect - the desire to accelerate the reorientation of the education patterns and systems to the economic and social needs of their individual areas. They wish to give proper stress in education at all levels and by all means possible to their own culture. As the students of Africa are exposed to the scientific and cultural aspects of the outside world, they need to be thoroughly grounded in a firm knowledge of their cultural heritage. The education for the future citizens of Africa must be a modern African education.[36]

In contrast to the stated cultural, economic and political goals of education, the denominational agencies have their own aims in education. The Roman Catholics, for instance, have their own "Charters" of education in the papal encyclicals one of which states that "there can be no true education which is not wholly directed to man's last end. . . ."[37] Some of the other Christian missions as well as the Moslem missions in education presumably have their own aims too. In that case, the conflicting denominational aims in education may conflict with the stated aim of fostering an "African" culture, and the religious slant given to the subjects of the curriculum in each denominational school system could serve to underline this fact. Thus, it may be stated

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[36]UNESCO, Final Report - Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa. Addis Ababa, May 15-25, 1961, p. 3.

[37]The Divini Illius Magistri of Pope Pius XI. Quoted by Neil G. McGluskey, Catholic Viewpoint on Education. New York: Doubleday and Company, 1962, p. 61.

that the colonial system which fostered multi-denominationalism in education helped to create a "colonial-style" education which is mainly literary and academic, and largely divorced from the realities of African life. It would seem that it is this type of education which the missionaries were, by tradition and training, best fitted to give, as it was also cheap.

A purely literary education suited the economic and administrative needs of the colonial power and the early missionaries - needs which were mainly for clerks and primary school teachers. Therefore a system of schools largely controlled by missions and interspersed with a few government schools were sufficient to produce the type of manpower needed. While this kind of literary education probably has its value, it has, thus far, produced massive urban migration and unemployment which Callaway calls the most urgent social and economic problem in Nigeria today.[38] The massive unemployment among the graduates of all levels of schooling in Western Nigeria at the present time threatens to make a travesty of Western schooling so common in India, the Philippines and elsewhere in Asia. The dilemma is that the denominational

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[38]A. C. Callaway, "School Leavers and the Developing Economy in Nigeria," in Nigerian Institute of Social and Economic Research, Conference Proceedings. Ibadan: December, 1960, p. 60.

agencies which control the bulk of the school system are not much interested in the economic problems of unemployment, nor, indeed, in economic problems as such. Their training and orientation are rather towards religious questions. So that a situation has been created in which these agencies "educate" the young, and society which pays for this education is called upon to bear the economic burden of a dysfunctional education. The extra financial burden of re-educating these youths for useful jobs also falls on society.

Of recent, economists are stressing that the problem about the relationship between education and economic growth is not "whether education is a prerequisite to growth, but what kinds, at what levels, in what quantities, how organized, and how administered."[39] Balogh has stressed that "education" is not a homogeneous factor in economic and social development.[40] He continues:

> The very assumption that education can be a homogeneous input is absurd. Teaching of a certain classical type might have not merely no positive results on output, it might even impede it. . . . The isolation of education from other measures

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[39]Vincent M. Barnett, "The Role of Education in Economic Development," in Hobert W. Burns (ed.), Education and the Development of Nations. Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1963, p. 17.

[40]Thomas Balogh, "The Economics of Educational Planning: Sense and Nonsense," Comparative Education, I, No. 1 (October, 1964), 6.

> and the aggregation of all types of education obscures the type of education needed for, or conducive, to development.41

Views such as the foregoing point to the need to examine more closely the present content of education which religious denominations largely control. For, although it fosters literacy it may be merely the overseas equivalent of the traditional patterns of education among the Yoruba, Bini, Urhobo and other ethnic groups in Western Nigeria. Traditional education among these groups had, besides failure to promote economic growth and a dynamic social development in the past, merely anchored societies to their traditional ways of life, breeding no fresh ideas. In this connection, Vaizey has pointed out that the imitation of overseas models of education in the developing countries - a thing which the denominational agencies specialize in doing - "is even more inappropriate than it seems on purely sociological and anthropological grounds."[42]

The emphasis of the present school curricula, especially at the secondary and post-secondary level, on cultural and social presuppositions which bear only tenuous relation to students' daily lives might not be

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[41] Ibid.

[42] John Vaizey, "Economics of Education - Introduction," UNESCO, International Social Science Journal, XIV, No. 4 (1962), 628.

the kind of education that trains the mind for critical and analytical thinking. Herskovits has observed that the schooling brought to the African was European schooling, with curricula and objectives drawn from the background of the metropolitan countries, and oriented toward the experiences of children there.[43]

> When transplanted to Africa, they set up far-reaching discontinuities between the school and the rest of the African child's social and cultural environment. This, perhaps, more than anything else, accounted for the stress on rote memory which came to characterize the schooling of Africans, and which gave rise to the charge that Africans were unable to do creative or critical thinking.[44]

It seems evident, therefore, that the "cultural dilemma" of the Nigerian school child stems from the failure of the school to provide continuity with early family training and fit schooling to the child's contemporary world. These factors, combined with learning in a foreign language and denominational religious teaching[45] may, and probably do, result in lack of motivation which is of crucial importance for the effectiveness and success of education in any society. And lack of

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[43]Melville J. Herskovits, The Human Factor in Changing Africa. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962, p. 223.

[44]Ibid.

[45]See, for instance, Henry Zentner, "The Impact of Religious Socialization and Social Class on School Drop-Out and Academic Achievement." (Mimeographed) paper read at the annual meeting of the Canadian Political Science Association, Charlottetown, June 13, 1964.

motivation may be a major factor, among others, in the high dropouts or low school-retention rate, in Western Nigeria.[46]

The conclusion that has emerged from this analysis is that Nigerians have valued schooling from the beginning for its utilitarian purposes: to obtain employment, to live in the city, to join the élite class. For society as a whole, it was to join the twentieth century. Literary education satisfied this need in the past. But with the increase in the number of schools and the failure of the old "colonial-style" education to fulfil the same expectations as before, the demand for functional education, that is, education for employment rather than "education for education's sake," has become more insistent. The present administrative framework for education, which permits some thirty denominational agencies to control over 70 per cent of the primary schools, about 76 per cent of the secondary modern schools, and sixteen of the thirty to control 65 per cent of the secondary grammar schools, constitutes an obstacle to the development of a functional education. In other words, there is an ideological discrepancy between the educational objectives of society at large and those pursued by religious denominations who control the majority of schools.

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[46]Callaway, op. cit., p. 64.

This ideological discrepancy relates to the question of citizenship training. As the Western Nigeria Government's policy paper declared in 1952, "The Art of government must be learnt."[47] But the idea of citizenship training in education is foreign to mission schools whose orientation is mainly religious rather than socio-political. And the religious hierarchies administering some of these schools draw their inspiration from the religious capitals of Europe. It is possible therefore that the contradiction between the stated goals of education and the objectives of denominationalism may actually be increasing the forces of conflict in society.[48]

Sociological Issues

Since administration is concerned with the control and direction of living in a social organization it may be regarded as a social process.[49] In the case of

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[47]Minister of Education, Western Region, op. cit., p. 12.

[48]See, for example, David Scanlon, "Church, State and Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: An Overview," International Review of Education, IX, No. 4 (1963-64), 438-446.

[49]See Jacob W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social Process," in Andrew W. Halpin (ed.), Administrative Theory in Education. Chicago: Midwest Administration Centre, 1958, pp. 150-165.

educational administration it should perhaps reflect the culture of the society it serves to be able to turn traditional patterns of thought and action from impediments into assets. A basic postulate of good administration, therefore, might be to create conditions in which people can live together with the minimum of friction.

But just as the content of education was largely divorced from the realities of the child's world, so was its administration. Consequently, the present administrative arrangements for education seem to ignore, as in the past, human relations broadly conceived. This is, perhaps, a carry-over from the paternalism of the British colonial administration. The colonial administration fostered among local Nigerian communities in the south the tendency to regard the government as chiefly, if not solely, responsible for all initiative, possessing unlimited funds and, therefore, the source of almost all developments coming to them.[50] To the Nigerian villager, the Christian missions, protected and subsidized by the government, were only an arm of a benevolent administration. So, if schools were springing up here and there, it was because the government wanted them.

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[50]See Colonial Office Advisory Committee on Education in the Colonies, Report: Education for Citizenship in Africa. London: H.M.S.O., 1948, p. 9.

Furthermore, in giving predominance to "voluntary" religious bodies in the development of education, the British colonial administration seemed to have allowed administrative expediency in educational matters to override cultural considerations. For the effect of missionaries operating schools was that many aspects of African ways of life that were, and are still, highly esteemed came under disapproval in the classroom and on the pulpit. Whereas African cosmology emphasized re-incarnation and communal living, the missionaries emphasized heaven and hell, and individual salvation.[51] Herskovits observes that the rewards of literacy in a higher standard of living were apparent to Africans and, to them, "Europeans seemed agreed on the importance of schooling."[52] But, then, the relation between these rewards and religious adherence seemed tenuous, and the African did not fail to notice the basic conflict of values among the religious denominations in their approach to the supernatural - an approach which affected the control of education and bred multi-denominationalism.

Under such circumstances as the foregoing it is

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[51]A major aim of the early missionaries, however, was to supplant the local beliefs and values which they considered "pagan" and "primitive." See Colin M. Turnbull, The Lonely African. New York: Doubleday & Co., 1963, pp. 65-70.

[52]Herskovits, op. cit., pp. 245-246.

hardly surprising that local communities were generally indifferent to educational development, though not to the need for it. It may be hypothesized that many village people would develop a built-in reluctance to co-operate with agencies whose innovations threatened the balance of the existing social order. Thus, years of educational management and control by denominational agencies, with reference only to the "government" and to their overseas principals, has tended to foster among local people an attitude of apathetic dependence on the government. In the case of local government, this appears to have become less true today; for here, the local people are beginning to understand through their elected representatives that development involves two things: a willingness to develop and ability to pay.

What appears to have reinforced public indifference to educational problems is the general emotional connotation of the concept of "administration." In the minds of most people in Nigeria, especially in rural areas, administration connotes a command relationship between the people and a distant over-bearing authority - no doubt a relic of colonialism. Most government workers in rural areas appear to have inherited the "élite psychology" from the colonial period. This is still manifested in government school inspectors bearing down

on teachers in village schools, sanitary inspectors harrassing villagers and village elders, and agricultural extension workers bossing farmers they are supposed to help. In consequence of this, the citizen, even with self-government, is still overtly dependent on the government agent, be it a missionary or government worker, who substitutes in his mind the colonial officer whose word was hardly questioned.

In general, the outcome of past developments and present human relations in administration would appear to be general apathy and inertia. In education where decision-making rarely involves the people below the regional level of administration, there is indifference towards educational problems and financing, though there is great pressure on the governments to provide more education. It is apparent that in the absence of effective and vigorous leadership at the local level, broad-based rather than narrowly confined to religious groups, little real progress can be stimulated from a central source which is hard-pressed for funds and for competent personnel to co-ordinate services.

Although education is now generally regarded as a potent instrument of social change, such change can hardly be effective unless people are given a chance to become part of that process of change. For educational

systems to be effective it might be necessary for indigenous people to participate at all levels in the formulation of broad policies. At present, with schools largely controlled by missions rather than by Nigerians, it would appear that the people of Western Nigeria have little opportunity to become part of the process of change initiated through education. As Lewis has pointed out:

> . . . the taxpayer must be educated politically and given responsibility. Unless the members of a free society are involved in changes, and understand the nature of changes and developments taking place they are unlikely to co-operate or accept financial responsibility for education.[53]

It might be argued, as did the Cambridge Conference on African Education in 1952,[54] that most of the voluntary agencies (except the Roman Catholic mission) are now African in outlook and merely draw their inspiration from overseas bodies. But whatever the indigenous character of these agencies, they are mostly unrepresentative, in a democratic sense, of a large segment of the communities in which they operate. And it is unlikely that a majority of local people will continue to accept a situation in

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[53]L. J. Lewis, "Education and Political Independence in Africa," Comparative Education Review, V, No. 1 (June, 1961), 43.

[54]The Nuffield Foundation and the British Colonial Office, African Education: A Study of Educational Policy and Practice. Report of a Conference held at the University of Cambridge. London: Oxford University Press, 1952, pp. 143, 150.

which they participate in local government but cannot do the same in educational matters. As the Ajayi Commission reported in 1962, "the missionary element in the Anglican and Methodist Churches is now much less than it used to be" and few of the voluntary agency sponsors of schools do in fact have independent sources of income from which to subsidize their institutions.[55] So that the absolute dependence of these agencies on the tax-payer who is effectively shut off from participation in educational matters may be more imprudent than it seems at first sight. It is true, however, that at the school level of administration and on denominational Education Boards Nigerian members of the voluntary agencies (except the Catholics) play an active role. But the form of participation in a social service like education, which absorbs a great deal of the scarce resources of society, seems less important than its spirit and effectiveness. Two illustrations may be given to support this statement. The criterion for membership of Boards of Governors at the school level is religious adherence which is usually defined by (a) regular church attendance, (b) regular payment of church dues, and (c) being a communicant. Most members lacking any experience in educational

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[55]Government of Western Nigeria, Ajayi Commission Report, p. 5.

matters, or because they are appointed to too many such Boards, tend to resign their responsibilities to the school principal. The result is that, in effect, the executive, professional and policy-making aspects of the school's administration fall on the principal. Thus, the principal would frequently design policy and merely secure the acquiescence of the Board members. In the case of institutions under Catholic control, it has been pointed out that the appointment of Boards of Governors is usually a legal formality.

The members of a developing society are unlikely to show much concern for any development which does not appear to involve them. This has frequently been stressed already. One may imagine from a knowledge of the psychology of human nature that there is a great difference in attitudes towards a development process in which the community is actively involved and one in which it is pathetically dependent on a benevolent government or mission. In either case, the community wants the development. While in the first instance it is able to share in the problems and limitations of development, in the second instance it is insulated from these problems by a paternalistic body. This is what happened in 1955 in Western Nigeria when the government launched a massive Free Education Scheme and allowed Christian denominations

which represented 36.2 per cent[56] of the population to control 65.3 per cent of the primary schools (1956), 60.5 per cent of the secondary modern schools (1956), and 49.5 per cent of the secondary grammar schools (1955). The number of Christian denominational agencies has since greatly increased; they have also maintained their lead in the number of schools controlled by them. They controlled 63.9 per cent of the primary schools in 1963 (a decrease of 1.4 per cent below the 1956 figure), 71.7 per cent of the grammar schools and 69.3 per cent of the secondary modern schools. The failure of the governments of Western Nigeria to involve the people at large in educational development has had a number of results, namely:

(a) the people are still not educated politically to take the initiative and accept responsibility in educational matters, precisely what the governments' colonial predecessors failed to do;

(b) since almost all the voluntary agencies depend wholly on government subsidies and grants for their educational work, the present administrative arrangements for education have become a bottle-neck to expansion.

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[56]Moslems accounted for 32.4 per cent and others 31.4 per cent of the population. See Summary Tables in Federation of Nigeria, Population Census of Nigeria, 1952-53. Lagos: Government Printer, 1953.

(c) a people so long nurtured on dependence on the government and the voluntary agencies for the provision of education demand more education without the willingness to make financial sacrifices.

One major obstacle to the involvement of local communities in education under the present circumstances is itself intimately linked with the role of education in a developing society. Will an education system controlled by a multitude of agencies not breed divisiveness, thus increasing the forces of conflict in a developing country searching for unity? Ashby has pointed out that:

> The paramount social problem facing an emergent country is cohesion - social, political, technological, and intellectual. . . . If the country is to be viable and be united in the modern world, cohesion must envelope the nation and ultimately some federation of nations. One of the instruments to achieve this cohesion is education.[57]

As has been noted, what the present administrative structure of education fails to consider is human relations. For it gives education over to the control of largely unrepresentative agencies with contradictory educational approaches and objectives. Under this arrangement it is unlikely that education will function as an effective cohesive force. In a multi-ethnic and multilingual Nigeria, it seems reasonable to expect education,

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[57]Eric Ashby, "The Administrator: Bottleneck or Pump?" Daedalus, Spring, 1962, p. 264.

through its administration, to reconcile the ethnic, social and political forces existing in society, rather than add those based on creed. There is at the moment a tendency in Western Nigeria for local people to talk about "their" schools and "ours" when defining the difference between voluntary agency schools and those provided by Local Authorities.

To summarize this analysis, educational administration as it exists at present has been evaluated on administrative, educational and sociological grounds. Administratively, diffusion of authority at the regional level coupled with inhibitory bureaucratic practices and the general shortage of trained manpower tend to aggravate the complex problems of co-ordinating a fragmented school system. Moreover, increase in schools leads to a corresponding increase in educational agencies, resulting in mediocre educational leadership at the lower levels of administration. Consequently, educational expansion is cost-raising and frequently encounters financial obstacles. Educationally, there is an apparent imbalance between educational aspirations and the administrative means, especially as low educational output correlates with degree of denominationalism. Also, education is largely divorced from the realities of the economic and political environment. Sociologically, the present administrative

practices ignore human relations. The persistence of colonial paternalism, the ideological discrepancy between the values of society at large and those of existing schools and the unpleasant connotations of "administration," all serve to reinforce local indifference and dependence. On the whole education appears to function as a divisive rather than as a cohesive force. It seems necessary, therefore, to investigate the "needs" of educational administration with a view to building a new administrative framework.

CHAPTER V

NEEDS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

What appears to have emerged from the foregoing analysis is the need for an administrative "model" which would provide the means for revamping education in Western Nigeria. Model-building in administration is, however, a difficult process,[1] especially as it cannot easily be quantified. But the model could bear a close relation to the realities as well as the dynamics of society. For, according to a United Nations study: "In the long run, every country has to solve its administrative problems in its own way, since administration is part of the national culture."[2] In view of this and in the light of the preceding analysis, three major considerations appear to be fundamental in building a model of educational administration in Western Nigeria; namely,

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[1]See, for example, Herbert A Simon, "Some Strategic Considerations in the Construction of Social Science Models," in Paul F. Lazarsfeld (ed.), Mathematical Thinking in the Social Sciences. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1954.

[2]United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, op. cit., p. vii.

(a) What is socially desirable and possible;

(b) What is educationally appropriate;

(c) What is administratively viable and efficient, and, therefore, sound in economic and financial terms.

The first consideration relates to the dynamics of social, economic and political changes, evidenced in nationalism, urbanization, cultural processes. Nationalism is a powerful factor in a Nigeria which has recently emerged from colonialism. It manifests itself in the control of local government and local customary courts by local people, while expatriate officers are retained mainly as technical advisers. Nationalism also reveals itself in the demand of Nigerians for "cultural-spiritual independence"[3] and in the deprecation of "cultural imperialism."[4] Allied to nationalism (a socio-political factor) is economic change which is causing an unprecedented population drift to urban centres. In Western Nigeria, however, the effect of urban migration has been to strengthen the already existing urban character of

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[3]Ayoola Adebisi, "Who Should Control Education in Nigeria?" The Nigerian Students Voice - Journal of Research, News and Analysis, II, No. 3 (April, 1965), 11-12.

[4]Tunde Ojo, "Nigeria and the West: The Limit of Acculturation," The Nigerian Students Voice, II, No. 4 (June, 1965), 29.

society.[5] The number of towns with 20,000 or more inhabitants was 47 in the 1952-53 census as compared with 16 in 1921; this represented 29 per cent of urban centres of this size in the whole of Nigeria.[6]

The second consideration relates to the need to develop a structural framework through which the declared purposes and goals of education may be more easily achieved. These purposes and goals have been stated to be political (citizenship training, and the promotion of national and social cohesion), material development and cultural progress. According to a United Nations report, for example:

> The development of a new culture, which will be both African and modern, is without question one of the most challenging and complex problems of the contemporary world.[7]

It seems reasonable that education should play a major role, far more than at present, in this "most challenging and complex problem" of cultural development.

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[5]Joseph J. Spengler, "Population Movements and Economic Developments in Nigeria," in Robert O. Tilman and Taylor Cole (eds.), The Nigerian Political Scene. Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1962, pp. 177-179.

[6]Ibid., p. 177. Comparable figures for North and East were 3.6 per cent and 6.3 per cent, respectively.

[7]United Nations, "Subsaharan Urbanization," in Report on the World Situation, Chapter viii. Quoted by Spengler, Ibid., p. 179.

The third important consideration in developing an administrative model for education in Western Nigeria is concerned with:

(a) the need for administrative efficiency through the consolidation of schools as a way of reducing waste;

(b) the need to use the available manpower and financial resources with optimum effectiveness. Since there is a scarcity of capital relative to labour and educational budgets are already high, it seems essential that innovations should be cost-reducing rather than capital-intensive; and they should mobilize public support and manpower. As Harbison and Myers have pointed out:

> One means of keeping capital costs of education within limits is to encourage or even require the local communities to construct . . . buildings with their own labour and with local materials. Indeed, the participation of villages in constructing their own schools would be an effective means of engendering enthusiasm for education.[8]

As this study has shown, however, this view seems impossible to realize as long as denominational and private agencies dominate education at the primary and secondary levels, to the exclusion of local people from the decision-making process. When this is added to the

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[8]Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers, Education, Manpower and Economic Growth: Strategies of Human Resource Development. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964, pp. 98-99.

colonial heritage of dependence on the government, it may be seen why public enthusiasm for education is rather for more educational opportunities than for financial or other active support.

These three considerations mean that proposed innovations would move away from a faithful copying of foreign models in educational administration. As the Cambridge Conference warned in 1952, there is danger in copying schemes of educational administration from the United Kingdom "rather than devising those which will be appropriate to local conditions and needs."[9]

The Administrative Model

Administrative Units Below the Regional Level

In the light of the foregoing considerations, it is proposed that large units of school administration be established, each with a school council. These school councils would be:

A - Urban School Councils for towns with, say, 50,000 inhabitants or more, and their periphery.

B - Rural District School Councils for small towns and combinations of villages which have little foci of

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[9]The Nuffield Foundation and the British Colonial Office, op. cit., p. 44 (Section 263).

population concentration.

C - Divisional Education Councils centred on the 27 existing political divisions[10] in Western Nigeria.

The boundaries of Urban and District School Councils would be coterminous with the present boundaries of Local Government Councils. Thus there could be one or more school councils in a large local government area, and a local government unit covering a rural area would co-exist with a District School Council.

In order to encourage local people to contribute voluntary labour to educational development, such as school construction and preparation of school sites for building purposes, there would be Education Committees in every village constituting a Rural District School area. These committees would play advisory and consultative roles. Not only would this ensure a sense of popular participation in education, it would also help to create understanding among village people.

It is expected that most of the School Councils in the Western Region which has a long tradition of urbanization,[11] would be urban. Urban and District School councils would be of almost equal number in the Midwestern

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[10]See Appendix C for the 27 Divisions by name.

[11]William Bascom, "Urbanization Among the Yoruba," American Sociological Review, LX (March, 1955), 446-454.

Region where population is generally dispersed.[12] In all areas in Western Nigeria, where there are widely dispersed communities with little foci of population concentration, local loyalties tend to be strong. When this is added to the fact that transport facilities are usually lacking, the problem of the location of large unit or central schools may arise. In such circumstances, the need for administrative efficiency may yield place to geographical and social factors. It would still be possible, nonetheless, to centralize the primary schools in each particular community or village.

Composition of Administrative Units

It is proposed that educational authorities should be widely representative of the population but have a strong local council representation. They would thus be more than merely ad hoc committees of local government councils, as the present Local Education Authorities are. Each Urban and Rural District School Council would be made up of:

(a) Members appointed by the local government council from among themselves. (This would help to ensure co-operation between school councils and local

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[12]See O. Iziren, "Settlement in Otuo: A Study in Rural Settlement Northwest of Benin Province." Unpublished paper submitted for undergraduate work in geography based on field work, University of Ibadan, 1960.

government authorities.)

(b) Members representing the local population, elected or appointed. Here, it would be possible to appoint teachers and government workers, who belong to a school council area by birth, to participate in educational matters. In a society where educated people are few, teachers and government workers form the "élite corps" and are in the best position to enlighten illiterate citizens about education.

Membership of councils would vary according to the size of each council, but in order to ensure efficiency it is proposed that this should not exceed, say, eleven. Eleven members for the largest school council would help to ensure adequate representation.

Divisional Education Councils would be planning bodies composed of:

(a) delegates of urban and rural district school councils in a political division; and

(b) government and non-government representatives with interests in education.

Responsibilities of Administrative Units

The responsibilities of school authorities and the powers they assume would have regard to the size and resources of the school area.

The Divisional Education Councils would endeavour to see educational and developmental needs in terms of whole geographical and political areas, and attempt to reconcile the prevailing sectional interests in a division. As planning bodies, the Divisional Education Councils would:

(a) collect information on economic and social needs, and demands, and transmit such information to school councils within the divisions;

(b) gather data related to post-primary and post-secondary educational needs, and plan the establishment of polytechnical institutes for technical, scientific, agricultural, vocational and general education;

(c) bring together industrial, technical and educational authorities from time to time to confer on possible action in relation to developmental trends, methods of appraising the educational enterprise, and selection of personnel for further training, and employment of school leavers.

Urban and District School Councils would endeavour to see educational and developmental needs in terms of whole areas of towns and rural areas. In villages, the Village Education Committee would see the same needs in terms of Community development in which the people participate in "grass roots" planning. In this way,

education would function as a joint social and communal enterprise among all sections of the population, and the energies of whole communities would be harnessed to the developmental process. As a United Nations Study pointed out in 1960:

> Speedy educational advancement usually occurs where there is the broadest participation of inhabitants in political bodies empowered to establish educational policies and to vote educational budgets.[13]

In general, school councils would be charged with duties, and would exercise additional powers with the approval of the Minister of Education. All functions would be performed by deliberation and decision-making within the framework of the general policy on education laid down by each Ministry of Education.

A. Duties.--The School Councils would:

(a) assume the duties of the existing Local Education Authorities in their respective areas, and manage all the schools within their areas of jurisdiction;

(b) ensure that the schools are conducted according to regional laws and regulations, and that the prescribed programme of studies is followed;

(c) assess and draw up inventories of the educational

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[13]United Nations, Special Study on Educational Conditions in Non-Self-Governing Territories. Analysis of information transmitted to the Secretary-General, 1956-58. New York, 1960, p. 2.

needs of the school district, and determine the course of action to implement the educational programme.

(d) maintain existing schools, and construct new ones.

(e) make recommendations to the government about types of schools and the possible adaptation of curricula.

(f) prepare estimates, raise funds locally to supplement government grants, and keep adequate financial records;

(g) buy school equipment in bulk and distribute to the various schools;

(h) recruit teachers and non-teaching staff, allocate them to various schools and pay their salaries;

(i) recommend to the Ministry the discipline of staff;

(j) prepare statistical information and reports on the school system;

(k) sponsor adult education and literacy campaigns, and encourage local arts and crafts, and music in the schools.

B. Powers.--To enable school councils to provide services beyond the required minima it is proposed that additional powers be conferred on them. These powers would be exercised at their discretion and with the approval of the Minister of Education. Among these additional powers may be:

(a) provision of text books and other school supplies to

pupils in the school area;

(b) award of scholarships and bursaries for post-secondary training;

(c) dismissal of pupils for misconduct or other serious offence;

(d) suspension of teachers for misconduct or incompetence, with recommendation to the Minister on appropriate disciplinary measures;

(e) arrangement to borrow money for educational purposes, or for specialized programmes in education;

(f) establishment of libraries in co-operation with Local Government Councils.

Each school council would be assisted in its duties by a resident executive officer appointed by the Ministry of Education. It is proposed that the executive officer should be called the Supervisor of Education.

The Supervisor of Education

As the principal executive officer of the school council and the representative of the government, the Supervisor would perform administrative and supervisory duties. He would, for example,

(a) be the school council's secretary and be in charge of the council's education office;

(b) be assisted in the office by a council Bursar who would disburse school grants, pay teachers' salaries

and supply school materials;

(c) provide educational leadership for schools and teachers, as well as carry out school supervision.

In his supervisory duties, the Supervisor of Education would be assisted by school principals in the school area and by Local Education Officers. But, in general, the Supervisor of Education, apart from being the liaison between the Ministry of Education and the school council, would take responsibility for the success of the educational programme in the school area. This whole arrangement as proposed will obviate the need for any special or elaborate sub-departmental inspectoral division which, in reality, represents a diffusion of authority at the regional level.

Administration at the Regional Level

It has been pointed out that the diffusion of effort at the regional headquarters and the excessive layering of authority tend to slow down action and to increase the difficulties of co-ordination. In the new structure of administration, each Ministry of Education would be stream-lined to perform the following functions:

(a) Co-ordination of the work of school councils;

(b) Over-all planning, evaluation and research;

(c) Assessment of the efficiency of education through research and the reports of school councils;

(d) Provision of teacher training;

(e) Determination of financial regulations and the payment of equalization grants;

(f) Determination of the curriculum.

These functions would be exercised through regional officers. But in place of a vertical gradation of authorities with considerable over-lapping and duplication (see Figure 2) there would be a horizontal division of authority according to services to be performed, as shown in Figure 3. Each educational service would be organized around a Director as head. Thus, there would be the following divisions:

(a) Instruction and Curriculum (to be charged to a Chief Inspector of Education);

(b) Planning and Research;

(c) Administration and Co-ordination (including legislation);

(d) Polytechnical and Special Education;

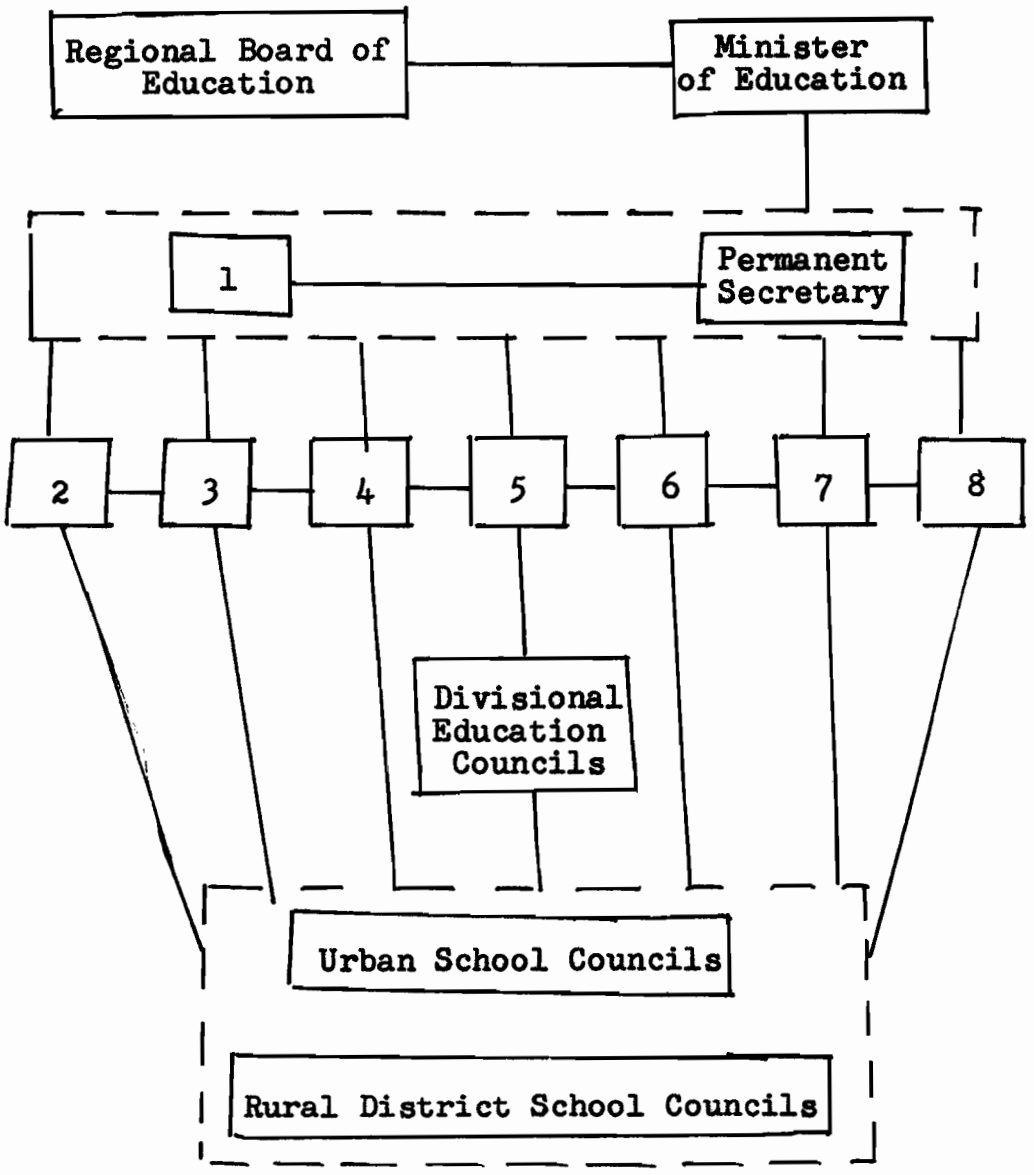
(e) Adult Education;

(f) Registration and Examinations (to be charged to a Registrar);

(g) Finance;

(h) Teacher Education.

Organized in this way, the offices of these eight officers and that of the Permanent Secretary in the Ministry of



1 - Administration, Co-ordination, Education Laws
2 - Instruction and Curriculum
3 - Planning and Research
4 - Adult Education (Elimination of Illiteracy)
5 - Polytechnical, Special and Further Education
6 - Finance
7 - Registrations and Examinations
8 - Teacher Education

Figure 3

Proposed Organization for Educational Administration

Education would co-ordinate the work of all school councils. The present layering of authority that hampers administrative efficiency would be considerably minimized. Officers now congregated in the Inspectorate branches at regional capitals and provincial offices would man the Education Offices of School Councils as Supervisors of Education and Local or District Education Officers.

The Regional Boards of Education would be reconstituted to reflect the new structure of administration. Membership would thus include:

(a) delegates representing Urban and District School Councils;

(b) Members appointed by the Regional Governor for their interest in education;

(c) the nine Chief Officers at the regional level, including the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education, and representatives of other Ministries.

In this way, the Regional Boards of Education would cease to be narrowly confined mostly to the Education Advisers and Secretaries of religious denominations. The functions of these Boards would be mainly the same as now, viz., to advise the Minister on educational matters and to deliberate on questions of general interest related to education.

When administration is thus streamlined at the regional level, each Ministry of Education would be able

to fulfil its role as a service Ministry, supplying trained manpower to other Ministries and to the economy. One way in which all Ministries might co-ordinate educational effort would be in centralizing post-secondary professional and technical training in polytechnical institutes. The establishment of these institutes as co-operative enterprises between Ministries and Divisional Educational Councils would help to focus attention on the inextricable relationship between education and general development. And if a rapid increase is made in the trained manpower available for development, this would in turn lead to an accelerated improvement in educational conditions.

The Place of Denominational Schools

The question might be asked: what happens to the numerous denominational schools in the proposed administrative structure for education? Since the existence of these schools is a socio-political fact, it is proposed that they retain their denominational character while operating within the administrative framework of the school council area in which they are located. Thus, denominational schools would exist as units rather than as "systems" within the proposed administrative structure, and religious denominations would cease to exercise administrative and supervisory functions over education.

The gradual integration of these schools into a public school system would serve to minimize, if not prevent, any conflicts that might otherwise arise.

Financial Administration in the New Structure

What would be the financial implications of the proposed innovations? One of the major weaknesses of the present administrative structure, as has been noted, is the tendency for educational development to be capital-intensive. Each small-size school is regarded as a unit of administration for fiscal and educational purposes. Funds are distributed as "flat grants" (that is, the same amount is provided per pupil enrolled and per teacher) with little regard for the principles of equalization and educational need. Consequently, increase in the number of schools has meant a corresponding increase in educational expenditure. Failure to improve standards in existing schools and expand educational opportunity has been attributed to fiscal barriers.

It has been noted, too, that the principles on which the present system of educational finance is based were formulated in 1948. There has been no major revision of these principles since, even though schools have multiplied many times. What seems to be required, therefore, is a new fiscal arrangement to incorporate such

principles as educational need, equalization of educational opportunity between towns and rural areas, and public support. The unit for fiscal purposes would also have to shift from single schools to whole areas to give meaning to the principles of educational need and financial ability.

An Equalization Programme[14]

Implementation of a basic or minimum programme in educational finance would demand efforts to ascertain:

(a) educational needs;

(b) ability to support schools in various towns and rural areas within each region.

Understandably, factors associated with both issues are numerous and would be difficult to objectify in Western Nigeria where statistics are still too few. In the absence of reliable objective criteria, "needs" might be estimated empirically at the beginning, taking account of such factors as:

(a) the size of adult and school age population;

(b) the type and quality of educational services required as a minimum;

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[14]This would be a variation of the Foundation Programme of educational finance operating in some Canadian provinces and parts of the United States. See John E. Corbally, School Finance. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc. 1962, pp. 123-144.

(c) the enrolments in primary and secondary school levels;

(d) the number and qualifications of staff required and their cost.

In measuring ability, the following factors would be taken into account:

(a) the educational rate payable by the adult population;

(b) estimated income from an equalized maximum rate of school fees;

(c) estimated income from taxes levied on economic enterprises in a school area.

The next step after defining needs and measuring ability would be to define the Equalization Programme according to a simplified formula:

$$X = Y + R$$

where

X = the total cost of education needs for the whole region;

Y = the income from fees and taxes from all school areas, including possibly foreign aid funds;

R = the total amount of regional funds to cover the difference between X and Y ($R = X - Y$)

All income from fees and taxes and regional funds would

be paid into a Regional Education Fund, and from this fund grants would be paid to school areas according to need.

The Equalization Programme would guarantee minimum education for all pupils. At the same time, it would allow individual areas to exceed the prescribed minima through voluntary labour to construct schools and release funds for other educational objectives. Special efforts would also be made to use regional funds to raise standards in rural areas where poverty is likely to exclude many pupils with ability from attending school.

There is a need, however, to investigate and tap other sources of educational income if standards are to be improved and educational expansion is to take place for manpower needs. One such source is contributions made voluntarily in rural areas for local needs; another is local taxation for educational purposes. There is some evidence that local people will contribute towards education if they are given responsibility. In 1952, the Cambridge Conference reported:

> Africans have also generally assured us that they would contribute much more readily than otherwise if the contributions were made locally for local needs and if African local authorities had a share in supervision of the spending. We conclude therefore that African local authorities . . . should be given the duty of financing as much as possible the cost of education in their several areas.[14]

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[14]The Nuffield Foundation and the British Colonial Office, op. cit., p. 131.

The fact that several local communities in Western Nigeria make voluntary contributions to build schools would seem to support this observation. In many cases, because of lack of government encouragement, the community hands its school over to a voluntary agency that promises to staff it and there local enthusiasm ends. It can be hypothesized that local enthusiasm will find expression in a readiness to contribute voluntarily when the base of educational administration is broadened. In cases where special forms of local taxation for educational purposes are introduced, local people could be required to substitute labour where they are unable to pay the tax.[16] Vaizey has suggested that there is a strong case for developing special forms of local taxes for education "in a situation where a substantial forward leap in educational expenditure is required."[17]

Other sources of income like loan schemes for capital works in education are novel. But Urban School Councils would be in a position to borrow money on easy terms to finance special programmes in education. The payment of grants on the principle of equalization and

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[16]See, for example, Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers, op. cit., p. 99.

[17]John Vaizey, "Principles of Educational Finance." Conference on Educational Finance, Institute of Education, McGill University, September, 1964, p. 11 (mimeographed).

the discovery of new sources of revenue would help to relate educational needs to local resources and relieve pressure on regional budgets. There are, besides, vast manpower resources which can be mobilized for educational purposes if only the base of administration is broadened.

Implementation of Proposals

Four measures would seem to be required in attempting to implement the proposed needs of administration: administrative, experimental, consultative, and legislative.

(1) As an administrative measure, the Ministry of Education would be reorganized and services grouped around the Permanent Secretary and the eight chief officers proposed for each region.

(2) Unified administrations at the regional level would be in a position to introduce the new administrative structure below the regional level in selected areas on an experimental basis.

(3) Meanwhile, the population would be educated politically on their responsibility for education and the need for active participation in educational matters. After years of dependence on the government for schools, political education would seem necessary

for a people who otherwise would be ill-prepared to assume financial responsibility.

(4) Finally, effective political leadership operating simultaneously at political and administrative levels would be required to promote the administrative reforms in education through the enactment of legislation.

There would be problems of transition, but still a "crash programme" of administrative reforms appears to be essential if the present administrative structures are not to become entrenched institutions that would be difficult to change later on.

Rationale for Proposed Innovations

The proposed structure of administration may be said to lie along a continuum between centralization and decentralization. Excessive decentralization seems undesirable in Western Nigeria, as in other developing societies, where a high priority is set on education to produce manpower. And administrative efficiency, effective planning and organization are required for the purpose of producing manpower in a competitive world. But, as has been shown in this study, education in Western Nigeria is not receiving sufficient attention ideologically. It

is characterized by the same "lack of a system" as the colonial authorities maintained, even after nearly a decade of internal self-government.[18] Some of the major advantages that may be claimed for the proposed administrative model are:

(1) Popular participation in education.

(2) The development of a framework for an "African" education.

(3) The possibility of research and evaluation of the educational programme.

(4) Economy in the use of scarce resources as well as a more efficient use of foreign aid.

(5) Greater security for teachers and their easier recruitment and retention.

(1) Local participation in educational administration would result in (a) local self-direction and initiative in providing educational services, (b) involvement of the population in educational finance, and (c) public understanding of educational problems. All this would, in turn, engender co-operation between the schools and educational agencies in raising the whole level of community life. In this way, education would function as a co-operative enterprise, embracing local people,

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[18] Western Nigeria was granted internal self-government on November 17, 1957, while the whole of Nigeria became independent on October 1, 1960.

administrators, local authorities and regional governments. As Callaway has pointed out:

> The big lesson to be learned in Nigeria is the art of "development from below." Far too little is known about taxable capacity locally, and far too few steps have been taken towards harnessing local enthusiasm to pay for development.[19]

Nicholls has stressed the same point in noting that one of the greatest needs of the developing countries is a policy of encouragement of local responsibility and "the creation of conditions under which local community leadership can be discovered and become effective."[20]

The existence of Local Education Authorities in Western Nigeria does not appear to have resulted in "harnessing local enthusiasm" for education. This may be because local government councils appointed as Local Education Authorities operate through ad hoc Education Committees. These committees seldom represent a cross-section of the population; first, because representation on councils and, hence, on committees is usually on a political party basis, and, secondly, because citizens who might be interested in education but not in politics

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[19]Callaway, op. cit., p. 65.

[20]William W. Nicholls, "Accommodating Economic Change in Under-developed Countries," American Economic Review, XLIX, No. 2 (May, 1959), 63. See also, The Nuffield Foundation and the British Colonial Office, op. cit., p. 180.

often do not have a chance to participate. Besides, education is merely one of a number of functions which a multi-purpose local government council performs. What this means in Western Nigeria is that, among the poorer and less efficient local councils, education is not accorded a sufficiently high place in the order of priorities. There is a tendency to think that it consumes so much capital and manpower needed for providing more tangible things like roads, markets, health services and water-supply. It seems evident, therefore, that increased responsibilities for education below the regional level cannot be left to ad hoc Education Committees. If councils wholly responsible for education carry these responsibilities, local government councils would then be freer to devote themselves to problems of health and sanitation, public works and community development.

(2) The democratization of educational administration as proposed would set the stage for evolving an "African" education. Several authorities have called for the development of a distinctly African education. Bigelow, for instance, regards "the development of educational systems attuned to the needs and desires of free African societies" as the next goal in African

countries after independence.[21] Brown advocates an education that takes account of the economic, cultural and political needs of African societies.[22] In connection with the same issue, Griffiths has posed a series of questions:

> What will Africans do with their inheritance in colonial education? Will they be able to evolve something vital, realistic and their own? Or will they go in for more and more and more of the old kind of education, ending up with that travesty of the Western school so often seen in Eastern countries?[23]

It seems evident that "something vital, realistic" and African would more easily evolve in Western Nigeria when the administration of education is democratized. It may be hypothesized, therefore, that the proposed administrative structure would promote the development of an education system "attuned to the needs and desires of free African societies."

(3) The move toward the building of a truly African education requires research into educational

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[21]Karl W. Bigelow, "Problems and Prospects of Education in Africa" (The Inglis Lecture, 1964), in Education and Foreign Aid. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1965, p. 44.

[22]Godfrey N. Brown, "The Meaning of African Education," The New Era, XLIV, No. 7 (July-August, 1963), 155-158.

[23]V. L. Griffiths, Review of Okechuckwu Ikejiani (ed.), Nigerian Education, Longmans of Nigeria, 1964, in Comparative Education, I, No. 2 (March, 1965), 125.

problems.[24] At present, little research (if any at all) has been conducted in education in Western Nigeria, despite the vast resources involved in building, financing and managing schools. Little effort is made to evaluate the educational enterprise, the effect of government expenditure, the content of school courses and the reasons for high percentages of failures in local and overseas examinations. One reason for this little attention to research is the tendency to measure annual progress in education by the number of classrooms built and pupils enrolled rather than by the quality of instruction given.[25] As Roller and Morphet have pointed out:

> Any plan of organization and administration needs to be studied and evaluated periodically to determine the extent to which it is functioning satisfactorily. New discoveries and changes in society may necessitate changes not only in education but in the plan or procedures used in organization and administration.[26]

The proposed administrative model takes into consideration the need for evaluation. It is realized that with critical teacher and classroom shortages, with educational expenditures increasing rapidly, and with burdensome

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[24]Bigelow, op. cit., p. 70.

[25]Harbison and Myers, op. cit., p. 99. See also pp. 78 and 80.

[26]Theodore L. Reller and Edgar Morphet, Comparative Educational Administration. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1962, p. 20.

surpluses in manpower due to unemployment, there is great need for evaluation of educational procedures and results. A Planning and Research division at the regional level would ensure planning of the educational programme, and research in educational problems and procedures.

(4) Economy in the use of limited resources is probably one of the most important advantages that would result from the proposed administrative model. For example, it would be possible to achieve the economies of large-scale operation through the integration of educational services in whole cities or districts. Such services as school medical welfare, the use of school vans, the provision of school libraries, the organization of athletics and physical education, and school meals would be rationalized. The resulting improvements in business administration and efficiency would in turn ensure greater output from educational investments.

Personnel factors related to large school areas would probably do more to ensure superior educational programmes, equalized educational opportunity and local financial support than merely voting additional regional funds for education under the present administrative structure. For example, more effective use of administrative and professional leadership would ensure supervision for educational improvement rather than

inspection (as at present) to enforce adherence to routine and regulations. Moreover, supervision would be kept close to the schools where instruction is being given.

All this would need a planned system of school finance which would incorporate an equalization factor to offset variations among areas in the ability to support education. Thus, with a minimum programme in educational finance as proposed, school councils would be able to build multi-purpose educational units. These would achieve such purposes as:

(a) providing higher quality and more specialized instruction than at present;

(b) permitting greater efficiency in the use of services and staff;

(c) generally enhancing the educational programme.

It is highly probable that all this would result in a reduction of costs for the same kinds of educational programmes, or better educational returns for the same expenditures.[27] But, in the long run, educational

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[27]Studies in the United States have shown that equivalent programmes in education cost less per pupil as the size of schools and school districts increases. See, for example, Leslie B. Chisholm and M. L. Cushman, "The Relationship of Programs of School Finance to the Reorganization of Local School Administrative Units and Local School Centres," in R. L. Johns and E. L. Morphet (eds.) Problems and Issues in Public School Finance (National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration). New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1952, pp. 65-105.

teachers combined, such as low status, lack of prestige, insecurity of tenure, lack of criteria for promotion, mean that most teachers work under frustrating material and psychological conditions which lead to unrest[30] and a high staff turn-over in schools. The Ashby Commission relates:

> Over and over again we were told about the constant migration of teachers away from teaching, so that there is a continual turn-over of staff.[31]

"The cumulative effect of all these factors," observed the Banjo Commission, "sabotages efficiency in the schools and produces low standards of education."[32] Research evidence supports this observation. Cheal, for instance, states that

> . . . A teacher does not achieve his full potential until he has had a few years of experience, and, furthermore, that it is very difficult to develop a carefully planned, continuous educational experience for pupils in schools where there is a high staff turn-over.[33]

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[30]This refers to the strikes and frequent threats of strikes among teachers in Nigerian schools. The 1964 teachers' strike largely fizzled out for various reasons connected with the weak organization of the Nigeria Union of Teachers, the attitude of the educational agencies and the regional governments. The regional governments appear to continue to regard teachers as employees of religious denominations rather than of government.

[31]Federal Ministry of Education, Ashby Report, p. 17. See also Griffiths, op. cit., p. 125.

[32]Government of Western Nigeria, Banjo Commission Report, p. 48.

[33]Cheal, op. cit., p. 62.

Thus, in the circumstances prevailing in Western Nigeria, it is difficult to recruit and retain good teachers, and the services of overseas teachers tend to be wastefully utilized. It would seem that the present administrative structure of education is largely to be blamed for this. It seems evident from this fact that the status of the teaching profession would perhaps be enhanced if education becomes a public enterprise with a viable administrative structure. An organization with adequate facilities is more likely to attract qualified and competent teachers than one which is fragmented. With greater security of tenure and improved living conditions for teachers in a new administrative structure, there would perhaps be greater stability in the teaching profession. Under the new structure, the existing critical shortages of qualified teachers can be met by arranging for city and district specialists, like engineers, agriculturists, medical men, research workers, to teach in multi-purpose educational institutions, or brief teachers in in-service training centres. This would further enhance the status of the teaching profession since these specialists are the status officers in a developing society.

In education, "teaching has a multiplier effect unsurpassed by that of any other occupation."[34] Under

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[34]Bigelow, op. cit., p. 69.

the present framework of administration in Western Nigeria, this effect is probably negative, since the result of poor teaching by ill-equipped and poorly motivated teachers may be merely to proliferate non-functional education (the "old kind of education" mentioned by Griffiths) and to compound the social, economic and political ills of society in Western Nigeria.

To summarize, a proposed model of educational administration has to be related to the social context and take account of the dynamics of change. In view of this, such model should be cost-reducing in Western Nigeria, mobilize labour and enjoy popular support. The model here proposed would have a three-tier arrangement: urban and rural-district school councils, intermediate Divisional Education Councils and the regional level. Membership of school councils would be carefully selected and would be about eleven. The responsibilities and powers of councils would also be carefully defined, having regard to their sizes and resources. Each council would be headed by a regionally-appointed Supervisor of Education as executive officer. At the regional level, administration would be stream-lined for efficiency and ease of co-ordination. Denominational schools would be integrated with the public school system and religious denominations would cease to exercise supervisory and

administrative functions. Fiscal arrangements within the new structure would incorporate a "minimum programme" to equalize educational opportunity. In general, this model would ensure popular participation, help to develop an "African education, provide much-needed research facilities, economize scarce resources, and make possible the easier recruitment of competent teachers.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

There is a consensus of opinion among competent authorities that an "administrative problem" exists in the developing societies of the world, including Western Nigeria. Some of the authorities sampled, notably Leckachman and Galbraith, have proposed that because development is subject to a high degree of administrative ineptitude, administration should be regarded as a factor of production in these societies. As these problems may best be studied in the context of a particular society, they are analysed in this thesis in respect to education at the primary and secondary levels in Western Nigeria where two governments now co-exist.

At present, the two governments operate under the same education laws, but each has responsibility for providing educational facilities within its area of jurisdiction. In the school system a six-year free primary education (to be changed to a partially-free eight-year primary school in the Midwestern Region in

1966) is followed by a tripartite secondary school education; namely, secondary grammar and modern schools and forms of technical education. Opportunities available to school graduates for further training are limited. For the secondary school leaver, however, they include entry to teacher-training colleges, government employment, sixth form courses or technical colleges, depending on financial ability and the grade of certificate. But a majority of school graduates migrate to towns in search of jobs which do not exist and for which their schooling has not equipped them.

In the administration of this education, there is in each region a Ministry of Education which is divided into two branches: administrative and professional. The former is generally more powerful and is concerned mainly with the business and financial affairs of education while the latter deals with school inspection. At the regional level, too, a Regional Advisory Board of Education advises the Minister. Below the regional level 30 religious denominations dominate education, controlling about 71 per cent of the primary schools, 65 per cent of the secondary grammar schools and 76 per cent of the secondary modern schools. Local Education Authorities operating as ad hoc Committees of Local Government Councils come next to religious denominations in the size

of the school system they control. The regional governments, local communities and private proprietors control a relatively small proportion of the schools. At the school level, Boards of Governors largely nominated by school proprietors and with inter-locking membership, control policy at each secondary grammar school level, while denominational Administrative Assistants and school managers administer primary and secondary modern schools.

All educational agencies recognized by the government derive most of their funds for educational work from government grants-in-aid, and a majority of them depend wholly on public funds, paid according to a formula which assumes "local contributions." Apart from "special purposes" grants, each teacher and each pupil is taken as a unit in calculating the amount of grants payable - a fact which leads to statistical manipulations among educational agencies with unviable school systems.

In general, the problems of educational administration are evaluated on administrative, educational and sociological grounds. Administratively, there is diffusion of authority at the regional level as well as a layering of authority. The resulting problems of internal co-ordination, the general shortage of trained personnel and the complexities of administering a fragmented school system, all combine to reduce the effectiveness of regional leadership in education. Besides, the

practices of lower-level administrators have not endeared "administration" to village people, and the latter are not encouraged to participate in decision-making nor in financial responsibility.

The existence of a multiplicity of mutually-exclusive educational agencies tends to reinforce the indifference of local people besides producing such problems as:

(a) competition to found schools in order to attract more grants and thereby creating financial obstacles to educational expansion;

(b) proliferation of small schools resulting in a wasteful duplication of educational services and overlapping of effort in restricted geographical areas;

(c) general fragmentation of the school system.

As an example of financial obstacles to educational expansion, only 2.9 per cent against the projected 10 per cent of primary school leavers are able to enter secondary grammar schools. In addition to fees and income from various sources, this proportion absorbs 11.3 per cent of the total educational budget.

Judged on educational grounds, the present administrative arrangements for education encourage multi-denominationalism which, in turn, gives priority to religious over educational matters. Consequently,

education is generally divorced from the aspirations of society. Educational output is generally low, and financial inputs are unrelated to the degree of control. Evidence that educational returns correlate with degree of denominationalism comes from research. In Western Nigeria, the results of inappropriate curricula and the orientation of education are seen in poor motivation, high wastage rates in the school system and low pupil achievement. Thus, "education" is generally at variance with the stated economic, cultural and political goals of society.

Sociologically, the present administrative structure perpetuates the paternalism of the colonial period, fostering the same local dependence on the government agent. Besides, the unpleasant connotation of administration, the lack of political education and the ideological discrepancy between mission education and society's aspirations perpetuate an ambivalent attitude toward educational development among local people. A basic need then is to build a new administrative framework for education.

This implies an administrative model for education. Such a model would need to take account of the variables in society as well as the changes taking place. It is proposed therefore that urban and rural district school

councils would rationalize the administrative structure. These councils would be broadly representative and contain strong Local Government Council representation. They would be administered by regionally-appointed Supervisors of Education, and the present denominational schools would come under the school councils in the areas of their location, though they would retain their denominational character. At the regional level, administration would be stream-lined for efficiency and easier co-ordination. At the intermediate level there would be Divisional Education Councils to take charge of polytechnical education.

For the purposes of financing education under the new administrative structure, Regional governments would merge all incomes for educational purposes, channel them into a general fund and charge all educational appropriations to school councils against this fund. Such unitary budgeting for education might help to equalize financial burdens and educational opportunity to a large extent.

A rationalized administrative structure may engender popular participation, provide a framework for developing an African education, economize resources, make possible periodic evaluation of the educational programme, and provide greater security and motivation for teachers.

Conclusion

Western Nigeria, like most developing societies, is faced with considerable educational tasks at the same time as it is struggling to achieve rapid economic and social development. In this connection, the Free Primary Education Scheme launched in 1955 was the first major attempt in ex-colonial Africa to achieve a "break-through" in development. In providing education for all children of school-going age the Western Nigeria government was inevitably, if unconsciously, raising the level of expectations of a large segment of the population whose talents would have remained, as usual, "locked up and inert in the traditional economy." Raising the level of understanding and expectations of the population in a developing society through education seems to be a major prerequisite to development. For no society with a high degree of illiteracy has been known to achieve rapid economic and social development in the modern world. It may be assumed, therefore, that the key to the survival of the developing countries in the modern world is investment in their most abundant resource - manpower - in order to develop the material ones.

But, according to the hypothesis of this study, the educational enterprise is subject to a high degree of administrative ineptitude, and administrative inadequacies

are manifest in the wasteful use of scarce local resources, the fragmentation of school systems and the inefficient deployment of external aid funds and teaching personnel. Consequently, further educational advance, and, therefore, the much-needed break-through in economic and social development, are hampered by administrative and fiscal obstacles.

The critical need would appear to be to systematize and strengthen the administration of the educational enterprise in order to free education from obstacles hampering its development and advance. In the absence of this, injections of foreign aid in the form of funds and teaching personnel may merely be compounding the economic and social ills stemming from the "old education." This study may therefore have implications far beyond the boundaries of Western Nigeria to the whole country, to the ex-colonial countries of Africa which are burdened with similar administrative problems in education, and to advanced countries which give foreign aid to develop education. It is highly probable that if foreign aid were to concentrate on helping recipient countries to break administrative bottle-necks, administration would be more easily systematized and rationalized. It might be possible, then, for education to function more efficiently and to be better goal-oriented than at present, with

little extra financial effort than is at present being made. And where foreign aid is an addition to local resources, it would achieve maximum effectiveness within the frame-work of a stream-lined educational administration both in Western Nigeria and in other developing societies where the educational enterprise bristles with administrative problems.

Appendix A

EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES OPERATING SCHOOLS IN WESTERN NIGERIA, 1965

Public Agencies

1. Regional government
2. Local Education Authorities
3. Local Communities

Voluntary Agencies (Christian Missions)

1. Anglican Mission
2. Roman Catholic
3. Methodist
4. Baptist
5. Pilgrim Baptist
6. First Baptist
7. African Church
8. Christ Apostolic Church
9. Apostolic Church
10. Salvation Army
11. Seventh Day Adventist
12. United Native Church of Africa
13. Swedenborg Mission
14. United Mission
15. United African Methodist Mission
16. Assemblies of God Mission
17. Zion Mission
18. New Eden Church
19. Zion Cherubim and Seraphim
20. Ethiopian Church
21. United Missionary Church of Africa
22. African Baptist

Voluntary Agencies (Moslem Missions)

1. Ansar-U-Deen
2. Ahmadiyya
3. Islamiyya
4. Islamic Mission
5. Muslim Society
6. Nawair-Ud-Deen
7. Zafar-U-Deen
8. Zamratul

Private

1. Private Proprietors

(continued)

Appendix A (continued)

Most of these educational agencies depend exclusively on the Regional governments for financing their schools, and all are grant-aided from public funds.

Source: Ministry of Economic Planning and Community Development, Annual Abstract of Education Statistics 1961-63. Ibadan: Government Printer, 1964, pp. 62-79.

Appendix B

EDUCATION GRANTS-IN-AID REGULATIONS* EXTRACTS

3. (1) For the purposes of these regulations the Minister may, after consultation with the Board, approve any voluntary agency which satisfies the following conditions:

(a) is registered under the Land (Perpetual Succession) Ordinance, or is a body corporate having perpetual succession and the power to hold land; and

(b) owns one or more schools situated within the Region which in the opinion of the Minister are prima facie deserving of a grant-in-aid on the grounds of efficiency, social usefulness and educational necessity; and

(c) supplies to the Minister proof that no school established or conducted by it is conducted on a profit-making basis; and

(d) gives an undertaking that any extension of its educational activities will comply with the requirements as to any areas of operation laid down by the Minister; and

(e) supplies to the Minister proof that it follows a policy of education acceptable to the Regional Government, and where such a voluntary agency is a group of persons, supplies proof of common resources and a common policy of education; and . . .

4. (1) For each school year a grant shall, unless the Minister in any case otherwise directs, be made by the appropriate authority in respect of each primary school, of which an approved voluntary agency is the proprietor, which is declared by the Minister to satisfy the conditions specified in regulation 6.

* Government of Western Nigeria, Education Laws [Cap.34]. Ibadan: Government Printer, 1962, pp. 185-195.

(continued)

Appendix B (continued)

5. (1) For each school year a grant shall be made by the Minister to each local education authority and to each local authority -

(a) in respect of each primary school maintained by it which in the opinion of the Minister, satisfies the conditions specified in regulation 6; and

(b) in respect of each primary school assisted by it in accordance with regulation 4.

(2) For each school year a grant may be made by the Minister to the Governors of a higher institution -

(a) of which an approved voluntary agency or local education authority or local authority is the proprietor; and

(b) which satisfies the conditions specified in regulations 6 and 7.

6. The following conditions shall be satisfied by a primary school, or higher institution in order that a grant may be payable in respect thereof -

(a) the requirements imposed by or under the Law on public primary schools, or public higher institutions, as the case may be, shall be complied with;

(b) the institution shall be in the interest of the community to be served;

(c) the institution shall be kept on a satisfactory level of efficiency and shall be open to inspection by an Inspector;

(d) the institution shall not be conducted for profit;

(e) the proprietor shall have a valid title to or interest in the land on which the institution is situated;

(f) without prejudice to such requirements as may be imposed on institutions by regulations made under the Law -

(i) the instruction shall be in accordance with a suitable curriculum and syllabus framed with due regard to the ages, abilities and aptitudes of the pupils, to the periods for which they may be expected to remain at school, and to the organisation and circumstances of the school;

(continued)

Appendix B (continued)

(ii) the premises shall be suitable for an institution and accommodation provided thereat shall be adequate and suitable having regard to the number, ages and sex of the pupils attending the institution;

(iii) accounts shall be kept of the revenue and expenditure of the institution which accounts, together with all books, papers and moneys relating thereto, shall at all reasonable times be available for inspection by an auditor approved for the purpose by the Minister;

(g) teachers whose salaries are part of the recognised expenses of the institution shall be paid at the prescribed scales of salary which are appropriate to their qualifications and at the proper incremental points in that scale having regard to their length and conditions of service;

(h) the number of teachers shall be reasonably proportionate to the number of pupils and the composition and qualifications of the staff shall comply with the maximum and minimum requirements specified by the Minister; and

(i) no teacher in the institution whose salary forms part of the recognised expenses of the institution shall be permitted to engage in any vocation or occupation which in the opinion of the Minister interferes with the proper conduct of his scholastic duties.

7. In addition to the conditions specified in regulation 6 a higher institution shall satisfy the following conditions:-

(a) the number of attendance periods during the year in respect of which the grant is made shall be at least three hundred and sixty:

Provided that such less number as the Minister may determine shall be sufficient if it is necessary to close the institution during part of the year owing to infectious disease or other unavoidable cause, or if the institution is earning a grant for the first time and is not opened until after the beginning of the school year;

(continued)

Appendix B (continued)

(b) the composition and qualifications of the staff shall comply with the minimum requirements prescribed by Table I; and

(c) in the case of a training college, the course of training provided shall be in preparation for an examination for a teacher's certificate approved by the Minister.

8. (1) The grant-in-aid payable in respect of a primary school in accordance with regulation 4 by a local education authority or a local authority shall consist of the recognised expenses of the school together with -

(a) a sum for each unit of the average number of pupils on the register of the school at the end of the second term in the appropriate school year;

(b) a sum for each unit of the approved number of class teachers employed in the school in that year.

(2) The recognised expenses of a primary school shall be calculated by adding together -

(a) the sum equal to the amount of the salaries of the non-expatriate staff approved in respect of the school, computed in accordance with the prescribed scales of salary;

(b) the expenses in connection with the expatriate staff approved in respect of the school, computed in accordance with the prescribed scales of allowances; and

(c) the amount of any allowance payable to the head teacher of the school in accordance with the prescribed scales of allowance.

(3) (a) The sum payable in respect of pupils shall be at the rate of five shillings for each unit.

(b) The sum payable in respect of class teachers shall be at the rate of ten pounds for each unit.

(continued)

Appendix B (continued)

11. (1) A grant-in-aid of a higher institution, other than a training college, shall be an amount equal to the net expenditure of the institution for the appropriate school year.

(2)The net expenditure of a higher institution shall be calculated as follows -

(a) there shall be added together -

(i) the sum equal to the amount of the salaries of the non-expatriate staff approved in respect of the institution, computed in accordance with the prescribed scales of salaries:

Provided that the number of staff in respect of which any sum is so computed shall not exceed the maximum number of staff specified in Table I;

(ii) the expenses in connection with the expatriate staff approved in respect of the institution, computed in accordance with the prescribed scales of allowance:

Provided that the number of staff in respect of which any sum is so computed shall not exceed the maximum number of staff specified in Table I;

(iii) the amount of any allowances payable to members of the staff with special responsibilities in accordance with the prescribed scales of allowance;

(iv) a sum not exceeding six pounds for each unit of the average number of registered pupils on the register at the institution for the appropriate school year:

Provided that such sum shall not be used to defray any expenses incurred in the boarding of pupils.

(v) such sum (if any) as may be approved for the provision of a reserve fund for future development;

(b) there shall be deducted from the aggregate of the amounts specified under sub-paragraph (a) of this paragraph -

(i) a sum equal to fifteen pounds for each unit of the average number of male pupils on the register of the institution for the appropriate school year;

(ii) a sum equal to ten pounds for each unit of the average number of female pupils on the register of the institution for the appropriate school year.

(continued)

Appendix B (continued)

(3) A provisional calculation of the net expenditure shall be made for each year from the estimated expenditure of the institution prepared by the governors thereof in advance of the year to which the grant relates and approved by the Minister and such provisional calculation shall provide for a fixed grant payable quarterly and such grants shall be adjusted on the basis of the actual expenditure disclosed when the accounts of the school to which the grant relates are closed.

12. (1) For each school year the Minister may make a grant to a local education authority, a local authority or an approved voluntary agency in aid of the administrative and supervisory expenses of such local education authority, local authority or approved voluntary agency.

(2) A grant made to an approved voluntary agency and a local education authority or a local authority in aid of administrative expenses shall be the equivalent of the total actual expenditure approved by the Minister for the purpose.

(3) A grant made to a local education authority, a local authority, or an approved voluntary agency in aid of supervisory expenses shall be computed in accordance with Table II.

13. (1) A provisional calculation of grants-in-aid of local education authorities and grants-in-aid of primary school, training college or administrative and supervisory expenses shall be made by the authority by which the grant is payable in advance of the school year to which the grant relates and such provisional calculation shall provide for a fixed grant payable in such instalments as the Minister may direct.

(2) The amount paid in accordance with a provisional calculation shall be adjusted after the end of the school year to which it relates:

Provided that in the case of grants-in-aid of primary schools the provisional calculation may be adjusted after such period as the Minister may direct.

(continued)

Appendix B (continued)

17. (1) Notwithstanding anything in this Part, if the Minister is satisfied that the employment of a person in an institution or on the administrative or supervisory staff of a voluntary agency, local education authority or local authority -

(a) would not be conducive to the efficiency of the institution or the administration or supervision of of the education provided by such voluntary agency, local education authority or local authority, as the case may be; or

(b) would hinder the implementation of the educational programme of the Government of the Region; or

(c) would involve a breach by the person employed of any agreement entered into by him to serve as a teacher in an institution or on any such administrative or supervisory staff;

he may direct that a grant to that institution under any of the preceding regulations or a grant-in-aid of supervisory and administrative expenses shall not include any amount which would otherwise be payable in respect of the salary, expenses or allowances of such person.

(2) Before giving a direction under sub-paragraph (a) or (b) of paragraph (1) of this regulation the Minister shall consult with the proprietors and, where the Minister thinks fit, the managers or governors of the institutions concerned.

19. (1) Grants may be paid to an approved voluntary agency, local education authority or local authority in aid of all or any of the following special purposes:-

(a) the building of institutions other than secondary modern schools;

(b) the building of secondary modern schools which satisfy the following conditions:-

(i) the requirements imposed by and under the Law on secondary modern schools;

(ii) the conditions specified in paragraphs (b) to (i) inclusive of regulation 6;

(c) science equipment;

(continued)

Appendix B (continued)

(d) special equipment;

(e) marriage training schools;

(f) special educational treatment;

(g) adult education, including literacy classes;

(h) the payment of expatriate staff on temporary engagement for the improvement or establishment of trade vocational departments in schools; and

(i) any other special educational purposes which, in the opinion of the Minister, may from time to time be regarded as calling for financial support.

(2) Such grants shall be of such amount and made under such conditions as shall be determined from time to time by the Minister.

(3) The provisions of regulation 15 shall apply in relation to a grant made under this regulation as they apply to a grant made under Part II.

TABLE I

(Regulations 7 (b) and 11 (2))

PART A

Secondary Grammar Schools: Minimum Staff

(i) The minimum number of graduate teachers required on the staff of a Secondary Grammar School or part of a Secondary Grammar School is one for every ninety pupils or part thereof on the register, the total number of graduates and other teachers being such as there is not less than one teacher for every thirty pupils on the roll.

(ii) Teachers who have not any of the following qualifications may not teach above Class II of a Secondary Grammar School without the special permission of the Minister: a University degree recognised by the Minister, a pass in an Intermediate examination of London University or other approved Intermediate degree examination, a Yaba Diploma, a Ministry of Education Certificate, a Higher School Certificate of an approved examination syndicate, a Teachers' Senior Certificate.

(continued)

Appendix B (continued)

TABLE I

PART B

Secondary Grammar Schools: Maximum Staff

No. of Classes	Assistants	+ Principal	Total Staff
4	5	1	6
5	7	1	8
6	8	1	9
7	10	1	11
8	11	1	12
9	13	1	14
10	14	1	15
11	15	1	16
12	17	1	18
16	23	1	24

In special cases approved by the Minister an extra member of staff may be allowed.

Where staff is employed in a secondary grammar school both on a whole time basis and a part time basis, any question which may arise as to whether the maximum or minimum numbers required by this Table have been complied with shall be determined by the Minister.

Appendix C

POLITICAL DIVISIONS IN WESTERN NIGERIA

Western Region	Midwestern Region
Badagry	Aboh
Ekiti	Afenmai
Egba	Akoko-Edo
Egbado	Asaba
Epe	Benin
Ibadan	Ishan
Ife	Isoko
Ijebu	Urhobo Central
Ikeja	Warri
Ikorodu	Western Ijaw
Ilesha	
Okitipupa	
Ondo	
Oshun	
Owo	
Oyo	
Remo	

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