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PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP MODELS FOR THE PROMOTION OF ECONOMIC STABILITY AND ACCESS TO QUALITY EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the use of public-private partnership models (PPPM) for the promotion of economic stability and access to quality education in Nigeria. It adopted the qualitative design, using secondary data from multiple sources. The study revealed that PPPM is a veritable tool that could be used to improve economic stability, funding of education, equal access to good quality education; and reduction in the currently high percentage of the school-age population that are out of school and terrorist acts like insurgency, cultism, human trafficking, kidnapping, armed robbery and all sorts of criminal activities. The out of school children are vulnerable part of the population that could constitute ready markets for the insurgents. It is imperative for governments to use PPPM for the management of education projects, particularly those that the governments cannot fund well. Such ventures could improve funding of education and also access to good quality education and enrolment; and thus, reducing the population of children that are out of school. This would in turn reduce the crime rates across the country.

Keywords: Public-Private Partnership; Models; Promotion; Economic Stability; Access; Quality Education

Introduction

Nigeria is a conglomeration of about 354 nation states that have refused to fuse into a nation (Fabunmi, 2005). Her dwindling economic fortunes culminated into persistent economic instability, which has led to under-funding of education and also denied the school-age population equal access to good quality education and keeping about 35 percent of the school-age population out of school. This large population of out of school children in turn has created a slush pool (or ready market) from which criminal elements in the society recruits for terrorist acts such as insurgency, cultism, human trafficking, kidnapping, armed robbery and all sorts of anti-social activities. In view of this situation, the public-private partnership model (PPPM) is proposed as a solution to the problem, that is, using PPPM as a tool for improving economic stability, funding of education, guaranteeing equal access to good quality education as well as reducing the high percentage of children of school-going age that are out of school. In this way, insurgency, cultism, human trafficking, kidnapping, armed robbery and all sorts of criminal activities would be curbed or drastically reduced in the country.

Theoretical Issues

This section is presented under the following seven sub-headings:

I. Public-Private Partnership Model

Public-Private Partnership Model (PPPM) is quite different from private investments in education. PPPM is an arrangement where the government collaborates with private sector investors to fund or/and manage an educational project, whereas private investment in education refers to investments made by private individuals and organizations in the education sector with or without government collaboration. According to Kumshe, Magaji and Bani (2015), PPPM is a model under which a government service or private business venture is funded and operated through a partnership of government and one or more private sector companies. AbdulGaniyu, Abdullahi, Zawawi, Sodangi and Hammad (2014) observed that PPPM is a partnership that leverages private funding and the strengths of private entrepreneurship and management, for the maximum provision of public services in a climate of scarce resources. Furthermore, Ugwu (2012) explained that PPPM is an arrangement where private parties participate in or provide support for the provision of infrastructure or other public sector provided facilities. Thus PPPM involves a contract between a public sector authority and a private entity, in which the private entity provides a public service or project and assumes substantial financial, technical and operational risk in the project (Kumshe et al., 2015).

As a concept, the definition of PPPM varies depending on the degree of ownership of assets and capital ex-penditure by the private partners. Jomo, Chowdhury,Sharma and Platz(2016)argued that in the case of management contracts, the private partners have very limited or no capital expenditure, whereas in “the Design, Build, Own and Operate Model”, the private partners are responsible for the design, building, operation and financing of a capital asset. In such a PPPM, private partners receive payment from either the government directly (at regular intervals) or indirectly in the form of user charges, or both for delivering the services. Thus, there can be many variants of PPPM depending on the separation of asset ownership and risk-bearing between the public and private sector actors (Roehrich, et al. 2014).

PPPM is a contractual relationship between government and private sector organizations. At times the cost of using the service is borne exclusively by the users of such services and not by the taxpayer. In other types (notably the private

finance initiative), capital investment is made by the private sector on the basis of a contract with government to provide agreed services and the cost is borne wholly or in part by the government. The government contributions to a PPPM may be in kind, like the transfer of existing assets. Obozuwa (2011) claimed that a PPPM arrangement provides assets and delivers services by allocating responsibilities and business risks among the various partnering entities. In this arrangement, the government remains actively involved throughout the projects life cycle. The private sector is often responsible for the more commercial functions such as project design, construction, finance and operations.

According to Ugwu (2012), there are a set of formal and informal rules that govern the actions of the actors in the PPPM framework. This institutional infrastructure often contains unwritten codes of behaviour, which encourages cooperation and conflict resolutions; and also some formal enforceable legal rules that guarantee how the contractual obligations are enforced. It also describes a government service or private business venture that is funded and operated through a partnership between government and one or more private sector companies. Though, PPPM is not the procurement of an asset, the payment of a stream of services under specified terms and conditions. The existence of PPPM framework in a country will encourage private investors to provide financial investment infrastructure as required.

Objectives of Public-Private Partnership

Ugwu (2012) identified the following as objectives of PPP:

i. To deliver significantly improved public services, by contributing to increases in the quality and quantity of investment;
ii. To release the full potential of public sector assets, including state-owned businesses and hence private value for the tax payer and wider benefits for the economy; and
iii. To allow stakeholders to receive a fair share of the benefits of the PPP. This includes customers and users of the service being provided, the tax payers and employees at every level of the organization.

Public-Private Partnerships Models (PPPM)

The Canadian Council on PPP and Kumshe et al (2015) the identified following types:

1) **Build, Operate and Transfer:** This is similar to Build, Own and Operate Model. It only differs from it to the extent that the asset is transferred to the government after a certain period of time, reasonable enough for the private investor to have recouped its investment; contracting out involves the provision of certain technical

services by public sector to an external private company.

2) **Build-and-Transfer:** This model entails a contractual arrangement whereby government undertakes the financing and construction of an infrastructural project and after its completion hands it over to the private sector for operation and management. This model is suitable for the construction of any infrastructural project, including critical facilities that will be difficult for both community and individuals to monitor or manage.
3) **Build-Finance:** This is when the private sector constructs an asset and finances the capital cost only during the construction period.
4) **Build-Lease-and-Transfer:** It is a model which involves a contractual arrangement whereby the private party undertakes the financing and construction of an infrastructure/project and upon its completion hands it over to the Government Agency on a Lease arrangement for a fixed period, after the expiry of which ownership of the project is automatically transferred to the government agency. This is to ensure effective monitoring.
5) **Build-Own-Operate:** Here, the private sector finances, builds, owns and operates a facility or service in perpetuity. The public constraints are stated in the original agreement and through on-going regulatory authority.
6) **Buy-Build-Operate:** This model entails the transfer of a public asset to a private or quasi-public entity usually under contract that the assets are to be upgraded and operated for a specified period of time. Public control is exercised through the contract at the time of transfer.
7) **Concession:** This is when a private sector concessionaire undertakes investments and operates the facility for a fixed period of time after which the ownership reverts back to the public sector.
8) **Design-Build-Finance-Maintain:** Under this arrangement the private sector designs, builds and finances an asset and provides hard facility management or maintenance services under a long-term agreement.
9) **Design-Build-Finance-Maintain-Operate:** This is when the private sector designs, builds and finances an asset, provides hard and/or soft facility management services as well as operations under a long-term agreement.
10) **Finance Only:** It is a private entity, usually a financial services company which either funds a project directly or uses various mechanisms such as a long-term lease or bond issue.
11) **Operation & Maintenance Contract:** This is when a private operator, under contract, operates a publicly-owned asset for a specified term. The ownership of the asset remains with the public entity.

12) **Operation License**: This is a model under which the private operator receives a license or rights to operate a public service, usually for a specified term.
13) **Private Finance Initiative:** This model provides capital assets for the provision of public services. It is suitable for the management of a large number of infrastructural projects; and gives the private sector strong incentives to deliver infrastructural services on time and within budget. It also enables the government or public authorities to spread the cost of public infrastructure/ projects over several decades.

II. Human Capital Theory

Human capital theory is of the view that the greater the investment in education, the more the benefits to the individual or nation. Fabunmi (2005) argued that the huge post-war investments in education which was made by the government of Japan and the quick recovery of the country from the ravages of the Second World War led to the development of the human capital theory. Scholars of economics of education continue to link investments in education to enhancement in knowledge, skills, productivity and income. The term human capital theory was noted to have been used by a United States' labour economist, Jacob Mincer, about 62 years ago (Mincer, 1958), in a paper which dwelt on income differentials in the American society (Chiswick, 2003). The main proponents of this theory and those who made substantial contributions to the theory, are two Nobel prize-winners, Theodore Schultz and Gary Becker. There are two foundational pillars to this theory, the first of which is concerned with linking differential income distribution to education claiming that it can be best explained by establishing a causal connection between wages and individuals' levels of education (and training). The second being the view that education and training were the most important means through which the quality of the workforce could be improved. Workers with higher qualifications did not earn more by chance. It is the quality of their work that makes them to earn more.

In the early days of human capital theory, researchers focused on exploring the extent to which earnings could be linked to educational attainment. Longitudinal studies were undertaken which compared the earnings of high school graduates as opposed to college graduates in the USA (Chiswick, 2003). The results of the studies suggested that, at the very least, there was a positive relationship between highest level of education experience and higher wages. The costs of a college

education could be understood as an investment which would later generate financial rewards in the form of comparatively higher wages. It is good to note that the costs of education included not just those of fees and living expenses, but also the opportunity costs of foregoing earned income during college years.

III. **Quality of Education**

Quality implies meeting the set or desired objectives in terms of content, process and output. Good quality education is a prerequisite for achieving the fundamental goal of equity. Placing emphasis on how to increase children's cognitive development by improving the quality of their education is paramount as these children are the future leaders of any nation. According to Amanchukwu (2011), good quality education is a prerequisite for good governance. Good governance also enables quality education. Most parents believe that the school system will help their children develop their potentialities in life. This can only be achieved if such children had access to good quality education.

The quality of education revolves around three key elements, which are the relevant content; access and outcome; and observance of individual rights or due process. Good quality education is that education that is relevant and adapted to the needs of the society (Ndiomu, 1989). It should meet the standards in terms of health, growth, and physical survival in a complex and globalized world. This implies that education is worthwhile when it is able to empower the recipients with relevant skills, knowledge, ideas, values and attitudes needed for them to make informed decisions and live self-sustaining lives.

IV. Access to Education

This refers to the extent to which people who are of school-age have access to education. According to Okeke (2009), access to education means free and unlimited, unhindered and unfettered opportunities at each level of education to obtain knowledge, skills, and abilities available at that level needed to optimally participate and contribute to development in the society. Agile (2018) is of the view that access to education is the opportunity that every Nigerian child ought to receive freely from their parents or guardians that owe them the responsibility to enroll and facilitate the entry as well as encourage and sustain the enrolment of the learner in appropriate education programme. According to the National Policy on Education (FRN, 2013), every Nigerian child should have full access to good quality education.

It is desirable to give equal educational opportunity to all. The idea of equal educational opportunity is that the delivery of education to individuals ought to be completely based on capability. This implies the elimination of all non-natural barriers to education whether parental status, race, geographical location, religious belief or social status. The employment process or admission to schools should not be determined by race, religion, ethnic, social or economic affluence, but ability and competence.

Obanya (2009) is of the view that equality or equity implies equal treatment and equal advantages to individuals in the society. Ofoha (2010) suggested that the idea of equality with regards to education means equal rights to all regardless of any circumstances by way of birth, race, sex, tribe or physical challenges. Equal educational opportunities are one of the contemporary controversies which have kept both philosophers and sociologists of education very busy in their search for solutions to some of the crises in education. Meyer & Bradley (2013) advocated for freedom of educational attainment and its full access. This means unbiased and robust educational opportunities at every stage, polishing of knowledge, skills, and abilities to participate in the improvement of the society.

The desire for equal educational opportunity for all citizens is a very laudable one which should be acclaimed by all those who are concerned with national development (Ekechukwu, 2018). Facilitating equality of education opportunities, both in theory and in practice is a hurdle which all states must resolve, if voice is to be given to the fundamental principle of non-discrimination and equality for all in education (Ofoha, 2010). As a result, all states are obliged to lay emphasis on the application of the principles of equality in education at all levels.

V. Out of School Children

Education is a fundamental human right. However, almost 1 out of every 3 children of basic school age is out of school. This situation is as worrisome as it is alarming. According to Agusiobo (2018), in Nigeria, 10.5 million children of school-going age were out of school; the highest number in the world, followed by Pakistan. In the year 2011, 62% of children aged 36 -59 months were deprived of early childhood education nationwide. The prevalence of out of school children among the states in Nigeria varies from 93% in Borno State to 6% in Lagos State. This situation is even worse and more worrisome now,

when one considers the gender gaps with regards to these out of school children which currently indicate that 51.61 percent of the children out of school are girls (Fabunmi, 2019). Instructively, most of them live in the northern part of Nigeria.

VI. Terrorism

Terrorism can be seen as a deliberate employment of violence aimed at causing a general feeling of apprehension and fear amongst the populace often for political purposes (Fabunmi, Ndagana, Bulama, Alimba and Sakiyo, 2019). According to Kilcullen (2006), terrorism is the use of violence to achieve political objectives. The term terrorism goes beyond insurgency as identified by Kilcullen to also include engagement in other criminal activities like kidnapping, armed robbery, banditry, cultism and all sorts of criminal activities. It is no longer news that the terrorist activities which began in the North East Geo-Political Zone of Nigeria has spread to other parts of the country. Never mind if it is referred to as herdsmen attacks, kidnapping and robbery. Boko Haram insurgency is a form of terrorism which was spreading at an alarming rate. The impact of terrorism often goes beyond the actual location of the incident (Kilcullen, 2006; Rourke, 2008). Terrorism and other forms of transnational political violence are in many ways more threatening today than ever before as civilian casualty continues to increase (Rourke, 2008). In Nigeria, Boko Haram insurgency began in the year 2002. However, it metamorphosed into a violent group in 2009. The insurgents claim to fight for the entrenchment of an Islamic Caliphate in North Eastern Nigeria. The region comprises six states. These are: Adamawa, Borno, Bauchi, Gombe, Taraba and Yobe. Out of these, the worst hits are Borno, Adamawa and Yobe states. As the crisis peaked, other states in the country were not totally spared from the spates of attacks from the insurgent group with Nigeria's neighbours like Cameroon, Benin, Niger Republic, and Chad coming under as much fire.

The immediate consequence of the Boko Haram insurgency was the displacement of several people from their natural habitats. More than 1.5 million people were displaced from their aboriginal homes in North Eastern Nigeria (Fabunmi et al. 2019). Between the year 2011 and 2016, the population of the region continued to be decimated, because of the war between the patriotic military forces of Nigeria and fighters of Boko Haram insurgent group. It is fundamental to note that insurgency retards development (Obinna, 2011). All levels of

government were alarmed, because of the socio-economic impact on their domains. Insecurity repels investment initiatives (Akhain, 2012). Insurgency poses one of the greatest economic problems found in different countries in varying degrees. It affects the policies of government and also retards economic development (Ifijeh, 2011). The economy of the North East Zone has been devastated and destroyed by this seemingly intractable problem. It has disrupted economic activities (NBS, 2014). Commercial banks in Nigeria, particularly those located in the North Eastern part operate under the atmosphere of fear, given the incessant attacks and robbery (Fabunmi et al. 2019). As the Boko Haram insurgency continued to terrorise North-Eastern Nigeria, many already displaced people relocated to safer places. As a result, several businesses had to wind up and many manufacturing companies relocated from the region.

The incessant and progressive invasion of North Eastern Nigeria by the rampaging insurgents has collaterally destibilised the citizens within the zone. They were dislocated geographically, economically, psychologically and socially. Most residents had to move away from their homes to take up shelter in government IDPs' camps set up in different parts of the country. At the various camps the IDPs had to depend on the government, corporate bodies, NGOs and philanthropic individuals for their sustenance from 2009 when the activities of the insurgents snowballed into full blown war with government till the year 2017. Following the dislodgement of these insurgents from the region, and the gradual return of peace to the areas that were hitherto most volatile, it becomes incumbent on the government to put in place a rehabilitation process that will heal the wounds of insurgency completely.

Earlier studies indicate that education could be used to heal the wounds of war. Japan suffered severe military attacks during the Second World War. Sequel to Japan's huge investments in education, the country witnessed quick economic development. "Consequent upon the quick recovery of Japan from the ravages of the Second World War, economists of education began to link investment in education to both national productivity and economic development" (Fabunmi, 2005:96). Obviously, provision of technological education and skills will empower the IDPs. They will no longer be available for recruitment as

foot soldiers of the sect (Fabunmi et al. 2019).

VII. Funding of Education

Fabunmi (2019) was of the view that the "development of a country depends on its investments on education. Inflation may not enable the increase in budgetary allocations to be meaningful; hence need to devise some other methods of determining the actual value of budgetary allocations. A stable foreign currency can be used to determine the actual value of the allocations. The United States currency is the most stable currency; hence, it is often used to determine the actual value of allocations". He made a comparison of the national budgets of selected countries (including Nigeria) for the year 2017; and concluded that education is underfunded in Nigeria. He observed that China and Malaysia allocated 21.7% of the 2017 budget to education. Ghana allocated 16.7% and Nigeria allocated just 6.1 % to education that same year.

Exigent Issues

This section is presented precisely under five exigent themes, namely, economic stability, funding of education, equal access to education, out of school children and contributions of education to economic development in Nigeria.

i. Economic stability

This refers to the extent to which the economy of a person, organization, country or state is stable and growing persistently. This implies that economic stability does not connote stagnancy, but steady growth without fluctuations. The fluctuation in the real value of the national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of Nigeria is an indication of economic instability, as indicated below.

Table 1: Fluctuations in national income

Year	Exchange Rate	Gross Domestic Product		Fluctuations
	$ to ₦	₦	$	$
2005	131.27	22,269.98	169.65	Base Year
2006	128.65	28,662.47	222.80	53.15 (Increase)
2007	125.81	32,995.38	262.26	39.46 (Increase)
2008	118.55	39,157.88	330.31	68.05 (Increase)
2009	148.90	44,285.56	297.42	32.89 (Decrease)
2010	152.83	54,612.26	357.34	59.92 (Increase)
2011	162.34	62,980.40	387.95	30.61 (Increase)
2012	157.19	71,713.94	456.23	68.28 (Increase)
2013	159.14	80,092.56	503.28	47.05 (Increase)
2014	182.06	89,043.62	489.09	14.19 (Decrease)
2015	198.82	94,144.96	473.52	15.57 (Decrease)
2016	314.88	101,489.49	322.31	151.21 (Decrease)
2017	259.76	113,711.63	437.76	115.45 (Increase)

Source: Computed from National Bureau of Statistics 2018 Data

Table 1 shows fluctuations in the real value of the national income of Nigeria, using the GDP(in the United States dollars) data for 2005 to 2017. This is very worrisome as it points to an unstable economy.

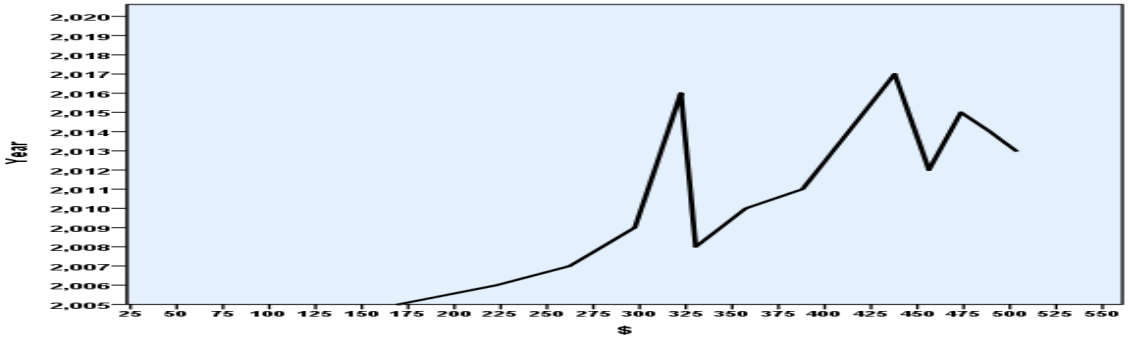


Figure 1: Graphical Illustration of fluctuations in GDP

Figure 1 presents a clearer image of the fluctuations in the real value of the national income of Nigeria, using the GDP (in the United States dollars) data for 2005 to 2017. The zigzag movement of the curve is very worrisome as it also points to an unstable economy.

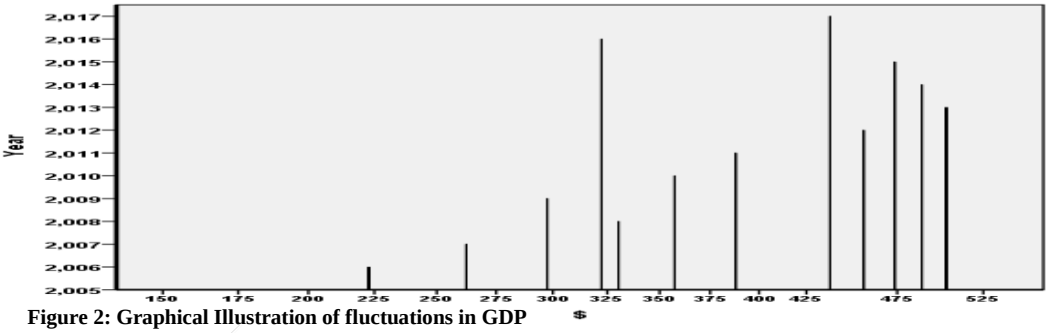


Figure 2: Graphical Illustration of fluctuations in GDP

Figure 2 is a bar chart which lends additional credence to the fluctuations in the real value of the national income of Nigeria, using the GDP (in the United States dollars) data for 2005 to 2017. The sharp differences in the heights of are also very worrisome as they point to an unstable economy; and certainly, these are not good enough for industrial growth of the country.

ii. Funding of education

The development of a country depends on its investments on education. Inflation may not enable the increase in budgetary allocations to be meaningful; hence there is need to devise some other methods of determining the actual value of budgetary allocations. A stable foreign currency can be used to determine the actual value of the allocations. The United States currency is the most stable currency; hence, it is often

used to determine the actual value of allocations.

Table 2: National and education budgets from 2005 to 2018 in Naira

Year	Exchange Rate (₦ to $)	National (₦)	Education (₦)
2005	131.27	1,799,938,243,137.97	120,035,527,799.21
2006	128.65	1,899,987,922,466.93	167,278,378,749.45
2007	125.81	2,309,223,949,982.80	189,199,774,928.78
2008	118.55	2,647,492,865,643.00	218,032,707,518.89
2009	148.90	2,649,543,000,000.00	224,676,889,661.00
2010	152.83	4,427,184,596,534.00	271,023,009,062.42
2011	162.34	4,971,881,652,689.00	356,495,828,145.24
2012	157.19	4,877,209,156,933.00	409,531,390,348.17
2013	159.14	4,987,220,425,601.00	431,789,137,839.19
2014	182.06	4,695,190,000,000.00	495,283,130,268.30
2015	198.82	4,490,000,000,000.00	483,183,784,654.00
2016	314.88	6,077,680,000,000.00	480,278,214,688.64
2017	259.76	7,441,000,000,000.00	455,770,201,889.21
2018	364.00	9,120,334,988,225.00	651,226,697,523.00

Source: *Federal Ministry of Education (FME), 2018*

Table 2 indicates the national and education budgets of Nigeria. The data covered a period of 14 years (2005 – 2018). The US dollar values of education budgets and national budgets are often used to illustrate the funding of education among regions or countries. It's good to note that budgetary allocation to education reached a peak in the year 2018 with an allocation of the sum of ₦651, 226, 697, 523. 00 to the sector. However, we should note that the actual value of these allocations is lower than that of the ₦495, 283, 130, 268. 30, which was allocated to the sector in the year 2014, using the US dollar values of$2,720,439,032 for the year 2014 and$1,789,084,333 for the year 2018.

Table 3: National and education budgets from 2005 to 2018 in US ($)

Year	Exchange Rate (₦ to $)	National ($)	Education ($)
2005	131.27	13,711,725,779	914,417,062
2006	128.65	14,768,658,550	1,300,259,453
2007	125.81	18,354,852,157	1,503,853,230
2008	118.55	22,332,289,039	1,839,162,442
2009	148.90	17,794,110,141	1,508,911,280
2010	152.83	28,968,033,740	1,773,362,619
2011	162.34	30,626,349,961	2,195,982,679
2012	157.19	31,027,477,300	2,605,327,249
2013	159.14	31,338,572,487	2,713,265,915
2014	182.06	25,789,245,303	2,720,439,032
2015	198.82	22,583,241,122	2,430,257,442
2016	314.88	19,301,575,203	1,525,273,801
2017	259.76	28,645,672,928	1,754,581,929
2018	364.00	25,055,865,352	1,789,084,333

Source: *Computed from Federal Ministry of Education (FME), 2018 Data*

Table 3 shows the actual value of budgetary allocations using annual education and national budgetary data. The US dollar values of budgetary allocations to education reached a peak in the year 2014 with a budgetary allocation of $2,720,439,032.

Table 4: Nigeria's national and education budgets from 2005 to 2018

Year	Budget (₦)		Percentage (%)
	National	Education	
2005	1,799,938,243,137.97	120,035,527,799.21	6.67
2006	1,899,987,922,466.93	167,278,378,749.45	8.80
2007	2,309,223,949,982.80	189,199,774,928.78	8.19
2008	2,647,492,865,643.00	218,032,707,518.89	8.24
2009	2,649,543,000,000.00	224,676,889,661.00	8.48
2010	4,427,184,596,534.00	271,023,009,062.42	6.12
2011	4,971,881,652,689.00	356,495,828,145.24	7.17
2012	4,877,209,156,933.00	409,531,390,348.17	8.40
2013	4,987,220,425,601.00	431,789,137,839.19	8.66
2014	4,695,190,000,000.00	495,283,130,268.30	10.55
2015	4,490,000,000,000.00	483,183,784,654.00	10.76
2016	6,077,680,000,000.00	480,278,214,688.64	7.90
2017	7,441,000,000,000.00	455,770,201,889.21	6.13
2018	9,120,334,988,225.00	651,226,697,523.00	7.14

Source: FME (2018) Data

Table 4 indicates the percentages of annual education budgets to national budgets. Percentage budgetary allocations to education reached the peak in the year2015 (10.76 %). All the percentages of budgetary allocations to education are far below the 15 – 20% allegedly recommended by UNESCO. Onigbinde et al. (2018) claimed that UNESCO advised governments to allocate, at least, between 15 and 20 percent of annual budgets to education. The inability of scholars to locate the original UNESCO document has created confusion and made the claim to be doubtful. In view of the high returns which investments in education yield and given its positive contributions to the economy, devoting a substantial proportion of the annual national budget to education becomes the wisest option open to a country looking to achieve rapid development in all facets of its national life.

Implications of underfunding of education

Any nation that fails to invest maximally in education cannot get maximal returns from its investments in education. The sectoral GDP as an indicator of the contribution of education to the economy could be used to explain the low contribution of education to the nation's economy. The GDP that a sector makes in a particular year could be used to measure its financial contribution to the national economy; hence the use of sectoral GDP for analysis in this section. Several other contributions of the education sector are not considered here. For instance, the sector caters for the provision of skilled manpower needs of the economy.

Table 5: Contributions of education to economy

Year	Education GDP (N billions)	National GDP (N billions)	Percentage (%)
1981	3.40	144.83	2.35
1982	4.31	154.98	2.78
1983	4.53	163.00	2.78
1984	4.76	170.38	2.79
1985	5.00	192.27	2.60
1986	5.25	202.44	2.59
1987	5.49	249.44	2.20
1988	6.73	320.33	2.10
1989	7.49	419.20	1.79
1990	8.29	499.68	1.66
1991	9.89	596.04	1.66
1992	25.48	909.80	2.80
1993	37.09	1,259.07	2.95
1994	42.97	1,762.81	2.44
1995	49.65	2,895.20	1.72
1996	51.13	3,779.13	1.35
1997	55.38	4,111.64	1.35
1998	90.78	4,588.99	1.98
1999	104.15	5,307.36	1.96
2000	205.95	6,897.48	2.99
2001	260.17	8,134.14	3.20
2002	273.22	11,332.25	2.41
2003	300.57	13,301.56	2.26
2004	336.66	17,321.30	1.94
2005	383.82	22,269.98	1.72
2006	437.57	28,662.47	1.53
2007	491.61	32,995.38	1.49
2008	580.59	39,157.88	1.48
2009	694.10	44,285.56	1.57
2010	826.67	54,612.26	1.50
2011	1,110.72	62,980.40	1.76
2012	1,252.72	71,713.94	1.75
2013	1,549.93	80,092.56	1.94
2014	1,804.40	89,043.62	2.03
2015	2,116.35	94,144.96	2.25
2016	2,445.95	101,489.49	2.41
2017	2,590.86	113,711.63	2.28

Source: Computed from NBS (2018) Data

Table 5 indicates the financial contributions of the education sector to the national economy over a period of 37 years (1981–2017). The sectoral GDP at the current basic prices was used to measure the sectoral contributions. The financial contributions of the education sector to the national economy were very low in 1996 and 1997 when it was 1.35% for each of the two years. It reached a peak in the year 2001 when it rose to 3.20%.

iv. Equal access to education

Access to education could be deduced through the literacy rate, percentage of

school-age population that are out of school; that is, out of school children. The low literacy rate of 65.1 % indicates that a large proportion of the population do not have access to education (FME, 2018). The enrolment ratio illustrates the extent of access to education that the citizens of a country enjoy.

Table 6: 2015/2016 out of school children

S/No	Item	Male	Female	Total
1	School-age Population	15,414,612	15,118,571	30,533,183
2	Primary School Enrolment	10,232,168	9,590,204	19,822,372
3	Population of those out of the school system	5,182,444	5,528,367	10,710,811
4	Percentage of those out of the school system (%)	33.62	36.57	35.08

Source: Computed from FME (2017:34)

Table 6 illustrates the proportion of out of school children to school age male and female populations for the 2015/16 session. It shows that 33.62% of the boys and 36.57% of the girls were out of the school system. When the two populations are pulled together, it gives 35.08 % for the whole country. These figures are high, particularly because, the desired level is 0.00 % of Out of School Children. This seems unachievable, but there are countries with less than 1.00 % of this category of children.

Male-female enrolment ratio

Male-female enrolment ratio relates the number of female pupils to that of male pupils, that is, how many female pupils will a male pupil get, if the female pupils are to be shared equally among the male pupils.

Table 7: 2015/2016 Male-female school enrolment ratio

S/No	Gender	Enrolment	Ratio
1	Male	10,232,168	1.00
2	Female	9,590,204	0.94

Source: Computed from FME (2017) data

Table 7 shows the male-female enrolment ratio for primary education in 2015/2016 session. It gives a ratio of one male pupil to 0.94 female pupil. The females were under represented. The ideal situation is one ratio one (1:1), which is very rare. The school-age population rarely gives a perfect ratio of one to one.

Physical infrastructure

The National Policy on Education (FRN, 2013) prescribed a class size of 30 for primary schools. The class size is a good indicator of pupils' access to physical facilities, particularly classrooms. The lower the class size, the better the school system is adjudged to be. FME (2014) prescribes a class size of 30 pupils as the upper limit allowed.

Table 8: 2008 Available Furnished Classrooms in Public Primary Schools

S/N	State	Enrolment	Available Classrooms	Average Class Size
1	Abia	295,151	8,114	37
2	Adamawa	458,143	7,627	61
3	Awka Ibom	762,638	10,183	75
4	Anambra	771,526	13,730	57
5	Bauchi	805,270	5,460	148
6	Bayelsa	351,877	3,239	109
7	Benue	554,709	14,003	40
8	Borno	565,240	6,378	89
9	Cross River	422,643	8,655	49
10	Delta	377,545	12,319	31
11	Ebonyi	550,299	9,316	60
12	Edo	272,575	9,711	29
13	Ekiti	219,712	7,086	32
14	Enugu	377,797	11,417	34
15	Gombe	344,025	4,211	82
16	Imo	769,004	11,845	65
17	Jigawa	460,026	7,662	61
18	Kaduna	1,030,309	10,836	96
19	Kano	1,717,961	16,466	105
20	Katsina	1,244,448	9,022	138
21	Kebbi	407,576	5,878	70
22	Kogi	873,857	6,152	143
23	Kwara	325,419	7,218	46
24	Lagos	490,352	12,574	39
25	Nasarawa	346,160	3,772	92
26	Niger	496,912	7,921	63
27	Ogun	641,879	11,691	55
28	Ondo	962502	7,277	133
29	Osun	497,532	13,543	37
30	Oyo	914,892	16,014	58
31	Plateau	676,063	9,254	74
32	Rivers	311,701	6,309	50
33	Sokoto	387,791	7,752	51
34	Taraba	533,130	7,081	76
35	Yobe	531,699	4,360	122
36	Zamfara	327,469	2,780	118
	FCT (Abuja)	218,686	2,734	80
	Total	21,294,518	319,590	67

Source: *Computed from FME (2016) Data*

Table 8 indicates the average class sizes by state in 2007/2008 session. The table reveals that Bauchi State had the highest class size of 148, while Edo State had the least class size of 29.

Teacher supply

The teacher supply situation could be illustrated with the use of Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR). In Nigeria, the approved PTR at the primary school level is 30 students to one teacher. It could be used to explain the level of a teacher's concentration per pupil.

The lower the PTR, the better the school system is adjudged to be.

Table 9: 2015/2016Pupil-Teacher-Ratio (PTR) in schools

S/N	State	Enrolment	Number of Teachers	Pupil-Teacher Ratio
1	Abia	118,544	7,139	17
2	Adamawa	485,266	12,710	39
3	Akwa Ibom	824,212	8,492	98
4	Anambra	411,244	8,387	50
5	Bauchi	781,543	16,023	49
6	Bayelsa	99,614	4,676	22
7	Benue	393,709	11,987	33
8	Borno	524,280	9,690	55
9	Cross River	161,835	8,044	21
10	Delta	296,469	9,307	32
11	Ebonyi	312,149	8,890	36
12	Edo	246,045	5,875	42
13	Ekiti	87,818	7,406	12
14	Enugu	174,327	10,415	17
15	Gombe	407,957	12,631	33
16	Imo	942,252	10,656	89
17	Jigawa	619,054	12,408	50
18	Kaduna	1,420,956	34,004	42
19	Kano	2,722,843	45,802	60
20	Katsina	1,477,255	19,435	77
21	Kebbi	412,011	11,885	35
22	Kogi	485,365	7,781	63
23	Kwara	201,956	12,849	16
24	Lagos	421,835	10,577	40
25	Nasarawa	737,462	8,146	91
26	Niger	625,693	21,726	29
27	Ogun	649,522	10,131	65
28	Ondo	805,200	7,541	107
29	Osun	315,553	8,011	40
30	Oyo	1,442,978	19,534	74
31	Plateau	523,137	14,088	38
32	Rivers	166,510	5,657	30
33	Sokoto	652,431	14,066	47
34	Taraba	468,324	13,619	35
35	Yobe	682,781	9,237	74
36	Zamfara	478,385	9,315	52
37	FCT (Abuja)	473,933	5,108	93
	Total	**22,050,448**	**453,248**	**49**

Source: Computed from FME (2017:23) data

Table 9 shows PTR of primary schools in Nigeria by state, using the 2015/2016 enrolment data. In order to avoid fractions, the figures were rounded up. Ekiti State had the lowest PTR of 12 pupils, while Ondo State had the highest PTR of 107 pupils. The high PTRs in virtually all the states

point to under-funding of education and low integrity of our school system.

v. Out of school children

These are the school-age children that are currently not enrolled in school due to a variety of reasons. A UNESCO Policy Paper No 4 (2012) reported that in 2010 there were 19 countries with more than 500,000 out of school children. A number of these countries are in Sub-Saharan Africa- and noted that Nigeria alone is home to10.5 million out of school children i.e. 3.6 million more than in 2000. Fabunmi (2019) observed that 35.08 percent of the children of school-age population were out of the Basic School system in the 2015/12016 school session.

Table 10: 2015/2016 out of school children

S/No	Item	Male	Female	Total
1	School-age Population	15,414,612	15,118,571	30,533,183
2	Primary School Enrolment	10,232,168	9,590,204	19,822,372
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4	Percentage of those out of school	33.62	36.57	35.08

Source: Computed from FME (2017:34)

Table 10 illustrates the proportion of out of school children to school age male and female populations for the 2015/16 session. It shows that 33.62% of the boys and 36.57% of the girls were out of school. When the two populations are summed, it gives 35.08 % for the whole country. These figures are high, particularly because, the desired level is 0.00 % of Out of School Children. This seems unachievable, but there are countries with less than 1.00 % of this category of children.

Integrity Management

The principles of integrity management should be adopted in school administration at all levels (Fabunmi, 2019). The *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2010) defined integrity as "the quality of being honest and having strong moral principles." Garner (2009) quoting *Black's Law Online Dictionary* defines integrity as "soundness of moral principle and character, as shown by one person dealing with others in the making and performance of contracts, and fidelity and honesty in the discharge of trusts." Integrity management, can therefore, be defined as the transparent and prudent or judicious use of resources to achieve the set objectives of an organization or country, following due process as stipulated in the extant laws". The extant laws of Nigeria (1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria [as amended]; 2007 Procurement Act; 2007 Education Act, Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC) Act; Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) Act; financial regulations of the different educational institutions, education codes, edicts and ordinances) contain provisions that management at all levels can use in the course of running the affairs of their organisations. The major hurdles are greed,

reprehensible acquisitiveness and lack of political will.

Implications for Management and Policy

The discussion thus far has very serious implications for both government as well as corporate establishments:

1) There is need for the government to make frantic efforts to step down fluctuations in the national economy. Though the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of Nigeria was rising yearly within the period of study (2005 – 2017), the real value of the GDP was fluctuating. This is not good for the economy.
2) The funding of education should be improved. Available data revealed that education is underfunded in Nigeria. Taking into consideration the role of education in the acceleration of economic development, there is need for all level of government to devote greater percentages of their annual budgets to education. UNESCO has suggested that not less than 15 percent of the annual budget should be allocated to education.
3) Greater access should be provided to good quality education at all levels of education with a view to reducing the rising population of out of school children in the Nigeria. The policy of compulsory attendance of Universal Basic Schools should be enforced in Nigeria. Attendance should be encouraged with social supports and funds for the indigent pupils, if not all the pupils.
4) The Presidency should ensure that insurgency is confronted with greater sincerity and political will. All those that breached the fundamental rights of citizens and rule of law should be arrested and prosecuted. These efforts should not stop with the insurgents and other armed bandits. It should be extended to those in government. This will make the citizens to believe the desire of the government to stamp out all forms of criminality.

Conclusion

The discussion thus far suggests that PPPM is a veritable tool that could be used to improve economic stability, funding of education, equal access to good quality education; and reduction in the currently high percentage of the school-age population that are out of school and terrorist acts like insurgency, cultism, human trafficking, kidnapping, armed robbery and all sorts of criminal activities. The out of school children are vulnerable part of the population that could be constitute ready markets for the insurgents. The human capital theorists have established a positive relationship between education and economic development. This makes it imperative for governments to use the PPPM for the management of education projects, particularly those that the governments cannot fund well. Such ventures could improve funding of education and also access to good quality education and

enrolment; and thus reducing the population of children that are out of school. This would in turn reduce the crime rates across the country.

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