

**A QUALITATIVE ASSESSMENT OF THE ACHIEVEMENT OF GENDER EQUALITY
UNDER EDUCATION FOR ALL (EFA) GOALS: A STUDY OF LAGOS STATE,
NIGERIA**

By

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Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF
PHILOSOPHY, UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE, SOUTH AFRICA.

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January 2018

ABSTRACT

The importance of education cannot be overemphasized. Education has been identified as the most critical instrument for empowering individuals with the necessary knowledge and skills, which can give them access to productive employment. Also, the future of a country is based on the quality of education acquired by its citizens which helps in transforming it from pre-literate to contemporary nationhood. Many international treaties and initiatives in the world have made special provisions for education as a duty of every government which must be given to every citizen as of right, irrespective of gender or social class. Amongst these international initiatives is the Education for All (EFA) Goals, a time-bound global movement towards the provision of education for every one led by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). There are six goals in all. This study investigated one of the EFA goals, the goal 5. The aim of the study was a qualitative assessment of the achievement of gender equality goal under the Education for All (EFA) goals, a study of Lagos State, Nigeria. The theoretical framework of the study is informed by the Social Justice Theory and the Social Justice Praxis Theory. Scholarly works and literatures on girl-child education, gender and education, and gender balancing in education were reviewed. The study followed qualitative research approach which utilizes an interpretive research paradigm that provides a collective voice from the participants. The research area was purposively selected as Lagos State being a former capital of Nigeria and still the commercial nerve centre of the nation. Although it is the smallest state in Nigeria in term of size, it remains the most populous in the country with a projected population of 20,546,999 (13.5% of Nigeria's total population). A sample of 16 participants were purposively selected because they were the officers directly in charge of the implementation government policies on education in the State. The data was collected through in-depth recorded interview sessions and secondary data were sourced through official documents downloaded online and from Lagos State Ministry of Education. Based on the thematic analysis of the data collected, the study found out that the State government had established policies and measures to provide qualitative education for all the citizens on a non-discriminatory basis. Thus, the goal of gender parity in terms of enrollment of boys and girls has been relatively achieved in the state. However, there were still some challenges of equality in the learning process and outcome. The study therefore recommends that schools should be made attractive and conducive as possible to assist the educational attainment of any student. This could be achieved by promoting positive values and attitudes towards education, all the stakeholders in the education sector must be involved in the business of running the school. There should also be a form of resourcing and expansion of the school facilities through the Public - Private Partnership in education.

SUPERVISOR'S CONFIRMATION

I confirm that the thesis of this candidate was supervised by me and the thesis has been submitted with my authorization.

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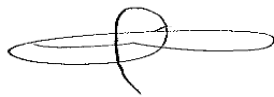
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DECLARATION

I, Adeleke Adawi Adeola hereby declare that this thesis, A Qualitative Assessment of the Achievement of Gender Equality under Education for All (EFA) Goals: A Study of Lagos State, Nigeria, is my original work, references made to published literature have been duly acknowledged.

I further declare that the thesis has not been previously submitted for any degree at any university.

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Date 26/01/18

DEDICATION

All forms of dedications, glorifications, adorations, praises, gratitude and thanks are due to Almighty Allah (*Subhanahu Wa Ta'ala*), the most Gracious, and the most Merciful. To HIM belong all the glory and thanks for my existence and the success of this work.

This thesis is dedicated to my darling husband – Funminiyi, and my brothers – Afolabi and Adedayo, for not only physically dragging me to register for a doctoral degree program but equally ensuring that I get all the necessary support required to acquire it.

And to my lovely children – Adedayo, Nimatullah and Ridwanullah, for their unquantifiable sacrifice all through the period of my pursuing this dream.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Unto Almighty God be the glory for great things HE has done. I am greatly indebted to so many people for this project though space will not permit me to list each of them. Therefore, I would like to tender my genuine apology from the onset to those individuals or groups that I may inadvertently leave out to acknowledge. Nonetheless, I appreciate all individuals and groups who assisted me in whatever form towards the actualization and completion of this study. I shall forever remain grateful to you all for your meaningful and positive contributions to my intellectual pursuits and career development.

Thanks to the Faculty of Education, University of Fort Hare, East London Campus for giving me the opportunity to embark on this doctoral research. I am greatly indebted to my supervisor, Professor Emmanuel Olusola Adu for his excellent and inspiring supervisions. Despite his busy schedule, he created time to read through my work many times, offering valuable suggestions and guidelines. My gratitude also goes to other lecturers in the faculty, most especially Professors M. L. Mokhele and M. C. Maphosa for their contributions and supports.

My sincere gratitude also goes to the Lagos State Government, Nigeria for granting me the leave to pursue my ambition of acquiring a doctoral degree. And to officials of the Lagos State Ministry of Education and the subsidiary offices for granting me the permission to conduct my interview sessions with them.

I appreciate and acknowledge Mr. and Mrs. Femi Atolagbe, who stood by my family all the way through and managed the home front for me during the period of my study in South Africa. My acknowledgement equally goes to the following people who have contributed in different ways to the success of my study. Mr. and Mrs. Remi Awoyera, Mr. Goodluck Ikhehide, Sulaiman Adedokun, Niyi Adeleye, Segun Titus, Ayo Ladokun, Dr. Oyenike Adeosun, Mrs. Adeshola Adedeji, Feyisara Daraloye, among others. To the Muslim Students Association (MSA), University of Fort Hare, I say Jazakhallahu khairan for the moral and spiritual supports. My friends and colleagues at the University of Fort Hare, who are too many to be listed here, you are all appreciated. And finally, to my “model teacher”, Moshood Issah, I am greatly indebted to you and I say a big thank you for all your efforts and supports towards the success of this work. God bless you all.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACHPR:	African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights
ACPF:	African Child Policy Forum
ACRWC:	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
AERA:	American Educational Research Association
AESPR:	Lagos State Annual Education Sector Performance Report
ANCOPPS:	All Nigerian Conference of Principals of Secondary Schools
APSHON:	Association of Primary Schools Headteachers of Nigeria
ASER:	Annual Status of Education Report
CADE:	Convention against Discrimination in Education
CASCEFA:	Civil Society Action Coalition on Education for All
CEDAW:	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women
CRC:	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CRL:	Child's Right Law
CSOs:	Civil Society Organizations
DFID:	Department for International Development
ECCDE:	Early Childhood Care Development and Education
ED:	Educational Districts
EDI:	Education for All Development Index
EDOREN:	Education Data, Research and Evaluation, Nigeria
EFA GMR:	Education for All, Global Monitoring Report
EMIS:	Education Management Information System

ESA:	Education Sector Analysis
ESSPIN:	Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria
FAWE:	Forum of African Women Educationalists
FGN:	Federal Government of Nigeria
FME:	Federal Ministry of Education
FRN:	Federal Republic of Nigeria
GCE:	Global Campaign for Education
GDI:	Gender-related Development Index
GEI:	Gender-specific EFA index
GEP:	Girl-child Education Project
GPI:	Gender Parity Index
HDI:	Human Development Index
IBILE:	Colony provinces of Ikeja, Badagry, Ikorodu, Lagos Island and Epe
ICERD:	International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination
ICESCR:	International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ICF EFA:	International Consultative Forum on Education for All
ICT:	Information and Communication Technology
IDP:	Internally Displaced People
IDPs:	International Development Partners
IECD:	Integrated Early Childhood Development
IEI:	Innovative Enterprise Institutes
IMF:	International Monetary Fund

KAP:	Knowledge, Acceptance and Practice
LASG:	Lagos State Government
LASGAT:	Lagos state Gender Advocacy Team
LASGEMS:	Lagos State Government Educational Management System
LGAs:	Local Government Areas
LIFE:	Literacy Initiative for Empowerment
LSNSC:	Lagos State Neighborhood Safety Corp
LSPE:	Lagos State Policy on Education
LSSCPP:	Lagos State Safeguarding and Child Protection Policy
LSSCR:	Lagos State School Census Report
LSUBEB:	Lagos State Universal Basic Education Board
MOE:	Ministry of Education
NAP:	National Action Plan
NCCE:	National Commission for Colleges of Education
NCNE:	National Commission for Nomadic Education
NEFAF:	National EFA Forum
NEP:	Nomadic Education Programme
NERDC:	Nigerian Education and Research Development Council
NICT:	New Information and Communication Technologies
NMEC:	National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education
NPE:	National Policy on Education
NSED:	National Strategy for Education Development

NTI:	National Teachers' Institute
NUT:	National Union of Teachers
OECD:	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PHCN:	Power Holding Company of Nigeria
PIC:	Project Implementation Committee
PISA:	OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment
PPR&S:	Policy, Planning, Research and Statistic Unit
PTA:	Parents Teachers' Association
QR:	Quick Response Number
RAYL:	Revitalizing Adult and Youth Literacy
REFLECT:	Regenerated Freirean Literacy and Empowering Community Techniques
SACMEQ:	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SBCRC:	School Based Community Relation Committee
SBM:	School Based Management
SBMC:	School Based Management Committee
SBTD:	School Based Teachers Development
SDGs:	Sustainable Development Goals
SERCE:	Second Regional Comparative and Explanatory Study
SESOP:	State Education Sector Operational Plan
SIGI:	Social Institutions and Gender Index
SNEP:	Support for Special Needs Education Programme

SUBEB:	State Universal Basic Education Board
TG/PS:	Tutor General/Permanent Secretary
TIMSS:	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TVET:	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UBEC:	Universal Basic Education Commission
UDHR:	Universal Declaration on Human Rights
UNDP:	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA:	United Nations Population Fund
UNGEI:	United Nations Girls' Education Initiative
UNICEF:	United Nations Children's Education Fund
UPE:	Universal Primary Education
USAID:	United States Agency for International Development
WASH:	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene Strategy
WDEFA:	World Declaration on Education for All

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the study

Education is fundamental for human development being a basic tool in the transformation and key to the sustainable development of a nation; it plays a vital role in bridging the humanitarian and developmental divide in the society. With quality education, an individual can better fulfil his or her own potential and fully contribute to the growth, strength and stability of the society (Domike & Odey, 2014). Additionally, it is universally acknowledged that principles of human development can only be achieved through sound education. Education is the most critical instrument for empowering individuals with the necessary knowledge and skills, which give them access to productive employment (Okeshola, 2012) thereby uplifting and sustaining them in their socio-political and economic environment (Okoro, 2011). The future of a country is based on the level of quality education acquired by its citizens (Otomiewo, 2011) helping to transform it from pre-literate to contemporary nationhood (Okoro, 2011). Education strengthens the nation's economic growth, productivity and advancement, and values and social cohesion (Orji, 2011). The educational system should shape and transmit attitudes, norm and values (Yaya, Arowosola & Asunmo, 2015).

The importance of education cannot be over emphasised. Being an illiterate is a form of handicap as one will be limited in vision. As in the general saying, 'illiteracy is a disease' and a form of poverty. Justifying investment in education, the United Nations Children's Education Fund (UNICEF), (2015) gave the most important reason to invest in education as - to improve the future of about 650 million primary-school-age children and 370 million children of lower secondary school age that are in the world today - irrespective of their condition: whether they are poor, live in conflict situations, or face discrimination because of gender, disability or ethnic origin. Education is an important engine for driving the technological and natural advancement in modern societies for it has been a major instrument of change and development (Shagari, Bello & Umar, 2013). An educated individual is economically, politically and socially empowered to demand for and exercise his or her other human rights and this helps a lot in reducing social inequality in society.

Despite the fact that education is essential for economic growth, productivity gains, personal and social development of an individual and the society at large¹, yet it continues to be given as a privilege, a form of luxury rather than as a right with about 1 billion people illiterate globally and 84 million children out of school. Even millions of those in school are not receiving quality education which often leads to them repeating classes or dropping out of school altogether (International Consultative Forum on Education for All (ICF EFA), n.d.). It is interesting to note that education has been linked to the concept of human rights².

Education is fundamental for human, social and economic development and it is a key element to achieving lasting peace and sustainable development. It is also a powerful tool in developing the full potential of everyone and in promoting individual and collective well-being. Accordingly, education serves as an empowerment right. It lifts marginalised groups out of poverty; is an indispensable means of realising other rights; and it contributes to the full development of the human personality.

Human rights cannot be given or taken away. They are the foundation for freedom, justice and peace in the world. The awareness that each individual, regardless of citizenship or territorial legislation anywhere in the world, has some basic rights that must be respected by others is a great idea. Human rights have been ethically applied for various purposes, ranging from resisting torture and arbitrary incarceration to demanding the end of hunger and of medical neglect. International human rights law sets out the obligation of states to

¹ In line with this truism, the Nigeria National Policy on Education stated that one of the cardinal objectives of education in Nigeria is the acquisition of appropriate skills, abilities and competencies both mental and physical as equipment for the individual to live and contribute to the development of his society (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2004). As a result, every citizen is entitled to receive education as a right while provision of such education is a duty of the Nigerian government. However, despite Nigeria's commitment to education for accelerated national development, there are still inequalities in access to education. Millions among the poor people are still excluded from the processes and outcomes of education (Okeshola, 2012).

² According to Ikeda (2011:22), "human rights are not brought into existence by treaties or laws, but through the efforts of ordinary people to correct the injustices they experience or see in the world around them. This means making sensitivity of human rights – our own and others".

respect, protect and fulfil human rights for all. These obligations impose specific duties upon states, regardless of their political, economic and cultural system.

Equality and non-discrimination are cross-cutting principles in international human rights law that guarantee the full enjoyment of human rights to everyone (Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action, 1993). Education as a right means education is being elevated to the level of fundamental right and the State is under obligation to protect, respect and fulfil this right to education which should be legally guaranteed for all without any discrimination. The State should also be held accountable for any violation or deprivation of this right³ (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2014a & UNICEF, 2016).

Education is seen as an empowerment especially when it comes to the provision of socio-economic rights; it is viewed as both a human right in itself and an indispensable means of realizing other human rights (Otomiewo, 2011). An individual can only access and claim other rights when he/she has the right education. As a fundamental right, the education right is inherent to all human beings and cannot be –or should not be - taken away from them but must be available to all citizens regardless of nationality, sex, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, language, or any other status.

Many international treaties in the world have made special provisions for education to be a duty of every government which must be given to the citizen as a right irrespective of gender or social class. The first of such treaties is the Universal Declaration of Human Rights-UDHR, 1948 (Article 26). Apart from the 1948 global document, the right to education has equally been widely recognised and developed by other international normative instruments elaborated by the United Nations, and these include the UNESCO Convention Against Discrimination in Education - CADE, 1960; International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination - ICERD, 1965 (Article 5); International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights - ICESCR, 1966 (article 13); United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child - CRC, 1989 (Article 28) and Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women - CEDAW,

³ For more details, see General Comment 13 on the right to education (paragraph 1)
- See more at: <http://www.right-to-education.org/node/3#sthash.T9IVIdAt.dpuf>

(Article 10). At the regional level, in Africa, such treaties include the African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights - ACHPR (article 17); the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child - ACRWC (Article 11) and the Protocol on the African Charter on Human and Peoples Right on the Rights of Women in Africa (Article 12).

All these international and regional instruments conceive education as a human right which must be guaranteed legally for all without any discrimination and which every state has the obligation to protect, respect and fulfil and to which such states must be held accountable for violations or deprivations of the right to education for their citizens.

1.1.2 Normative instruments on rights to education

There are various domestic, national and international instruments on the rights to education. The discussion on these instruments would start with the international instruments. Importantly, after the Second World War in 1948 the entire world came together to subscribe to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights popularly called UDHR which was adopted at the United Nations General Assembly in Paris on 10th December 1948 as General Assembly resolution 217(III) A. This is believed to be the first document in the International Bill of Human Rights thus laying the foundation of the human rights law and a common standard of achievements for all peoples and all nations (United Nations, n.d.). With the right to education as one of its priorities, UDHR envisaged that all citizens must be guaranteed equality and non-discrimination with respect to access to education in all ramifications and they are entitled to its full enjoyment.

The adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948 (Article 26) gave education formal recognition as a human right and helped to promote understanding, peace, tolerance and friendship among all nations of the United Nations (Otomiewo, 2011). Article 26 (1) states that, as a right to everyone, education shall be free and compulsory at least at the elementary and fundamental stages. The technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education equally accessible to all on the basis of merit. Recognizing the importance of education, Article 26 (2) states that education shall be directed towards the full development of the human personality and the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedom, while Article 26 (3) placed the right of choice of education of the children on their parents.

Since the adoption of UDHR, the right to education has been widely recognized and developed by a number of international normative instruments and as such incorporated into various regional constitutions. One of these instruments is International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). Dealing with right to education, Article 13 of ICESCR placed an obligation on the State to direct education towards the full development of the human personality (Otomiewo, 2011). This means everyone should have access to education in order to contribute effectively to society. The 4 A's were developed by the first UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to Education, Katarina Tomaševski, and adopted by the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in its General Comment 13 on the right to education (paragraph 6). To be a meaningful right, education in all its forms and at all levels shall exhibit these interrelated and essential features:

- (i) *Available* – Education should be free and there must be adequate infrastructure and trained teachers able to support the delivery of education;
- (ii) *Accessible* – The education system should be non-discriminatory and be made accessible to all irrespective of race or sex, and positive steps be taken to include the most marginalised. Being accessible means education should be within their reach both physically and economically;
- (iii) *Acceptable* – The content of education must be relevant, non-discriminatory and culturally appropriate, and of quality; schools are safe and teachers are professional. The type of education given must be acceptable to the individual and the individual must be able to comprehend and integrate what is taught in school to his/her daily life and the society at large; and
- (iv) *Adaptable* – Education evolves with the changing needs of society and challenges inequalities, such as gender discrimination; education adapts to suit locally specific needs and contexts. The type of education provided should consider the diversity of socio-cultural needs of each individual⁴ (Otomiewo, 2011).

⁴ For more details, see:

This is followed by the International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination. There was an international agreement in the year 1965 with the adoption of the International Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Racial Discrimination. In Article 5 of the Convention, an obligation was placed on the State to prohibit and eliminate any form of racial discrimination and guarantee that everyone is equal before the law irrespective of the race. The right to education was one of the rights recognized by this Convention (Otomiewo, 2011).

UDHR was supplemented and expanded with the adoption of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child in November 1989 which was later entered into force in September 1990. In its Article 28, the obligation of the right of the child to education was placed on the State and to achieve this, the State must make primary education to be free and available to all. The article also states that all forms of secondary and tertiary education shall be made available and accessible to every child.

The objectives that the right to education is set to achieve in the life of every child are highlighted in Article 29 of the CRC as follows; the development of the child's personality, talent, mental and physical abilities, the respect of human rights and fundamental freedom, the development of respect for the child's parents, cultural identity, language, values and the country of his or her origin, and the preparation of the child for reasonable life in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes and friendship among people and cultures (Otomiewo, 2011).

Similarly, women's right to education was provided for in Article 10 of the Convention on all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). States were obliged to institute measures to correct the view that women are less important or of less value than men by providing the same educational opportunities for women as their male counterparts and abolishing all existing laws, customs and regulations discriminating against women. The

[Primer 3](#) Human rights obligations: making education available, accessible, acceptable and adaptable (RTE, Katarina Tomasevski, 2001)

- See more at: <http://www.right-to-education.org/node/3#sthash.T9IVIdAt.dpuf>

equality should not only be in the form of access to education but also in all forms of educational opportunities that are available to their male counterparts (Otomiewo, 2011).

Having discussed some critical international instruments on rights to education, let me now examine some regional instruments on the rights to education. The first to be discussed is the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (ACHPR). Though not explained in details, Article 17 (1) of ACHPR states that every individual shall have the right to education. It is believed that the ACHPR will draw on interpretive guidance from article 13 of the ICESCR which has a detailed explanation regarding the right to education. ACHPR has been domesticated in Nigeria and now forms part of the law (Otomiewo, 2011).

Also, the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC) was adopted by the Organisation of Africa Unity (now African Union) on July 11, 1990 and it recognizes the rights and responsibilities of children. Article 11 expounds the right of every child to education which should be directed towards the personal, mental, talent and physical development of the child. Emphasising the importance of education as a preparation of the child for a responsible lifestyle in a free society with the spirit of understanding, tolerance, dialogue, mutual respect and friendship among people, article 11 (3) mandated the provision of such education by the State by making basic education free and compulsory for all.

Maintaining the dignity of the child is enshrined in Article 11 of the charter where the State is obliged to provide the type of education that is suitable to the ability of each child and preserve his or her African morals, traditional values and culture (Otomiewo, 2011). Appropriate measures are to be put in place with the view of achieving the full realization of this right and in particular to: offer free and compulsory basic education for all; boost the establishment and development of all forms of secondary education while making it free, available and accessible; put in measures that will encourage regular school attendance and reduce the rates of school dropouts; and special considerations to be given to the females, gifted and disadvantaged children to ensure equal access to education for all sections of the community.

Similarly, the Protocol on the African Charter on Human and People's Right on the Rights of Women in Africa. Just like CEDAW, this protocol seeks to eradicate any form of discrimination against women in the sphere of education and training by ensuring that equal opportunities are made available for women just like men. In Article 12 of the protocol, States were instructed to take steps to protect the girl-child against any form of abuse in school and to provide remedies for those that have been abused.

At this juncture, it is imperative to examine domestic instruments in Nigeria. The first domestic instrument of note is the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The constitution provides in section 18 (1) that the Nigerian government shall direct its policy towards ensuring that there are equal and adequate educational opportunities at all levels and eradicate illiteracy. To this end the government shall as and when practicable provide: free, compulsory and universal primary education; free secondary education; free university education; and free adult literacy programmes (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2011). Though this provision does not view education as a right but a functional objective and directive principle of State policy, since Nigeria has domesticated the ACPHR, the provision of education to its citizens must be treated as a fundamental right. There are no separation of rights; all rights are stated as fundamental rights and chapter 4 of the Nigerian Constitution states the fundamental rights accruable to each individual to include the right to life, the right to dignity of the human person and the right to personal liberty (Otomiewo, 2011).

The next domestic instrument in Nigeria is the Compulsory, Free Universal Basic Education Act. The provision of free, compulsory and universal basic education for every child of primary and junior secondary school age is placed on the shoulders of the state governments according to Section 2 of the Basic Education Act and the federal government is to only intervene by giving assistance to the state and local government according to Section 1 of the Act (Otomiewo, 2011). The UBEC Law, enacted in 2004, stipulated that "Every Government in Nigeria shall provide free, compulsory and universal basic education for every child of primary and junior secondary age" (Education for All, Nigeria Report, 2015: v). Accordingly, "Federal Government's intervention under this Act

shall only be assistance to the States and Local Governments in Nigeria for the purpose of uniform and qualitative basic education throughout Nigeria” (EFA Nigeria, 2015: vi).

Equally, the law stipulated free of charge services in public primary and junior secondary schools with penalties placed on persons caught charging or receiving fees in respect of primary and junior secondary education in public schools. Parents were also bound by the law to ensure their children and wards’ education not only by enrolling them in school but equally safeguarding that they complete at least the basic education cycle (EFA Nigeria, 2015:7).

All these instruments conceive education as a human right which must be guaranteed legally for all without any discrimination and which every State has the obligation to protect, respect and fulfil and to which such States must be held accountable for violations or deprivations of the right to education to their citizens.

UNICEF’s 2014–2017 Strategic Plan also reflected a rights-based approach to education:

The fundamental mission of UNICEF is to promote the rights of every child ... For UNICEF, equity means that all children have an opportunity to survive, develop and reach their full potential, without discrimination, bias or favouritism. To the degree that any child has an unequal chance in life – in its social, political, economic, civic and cultural dimensions – her or his rights are violated. There is growing evidence that investing in the health, education and protection of a society’s most disadvantaged citizens – addressing inequity – not only will give all children the opportunity to fulfil their potential but also will lead to sustained growth and stability of countries. This is why the focus on equity is so vital. It accelerates progress towards realizing the human rights of all children (UNICEF Executive Board 2015, IN4).

Similarly, at the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand (5-9 March 1990), all the delegates from the 155 countries, as well as the representatives from some 150 governmental and non-governmental organisations, agreed to make primary education accessible to all children and to massively reduce illiteracy before the end of the decade. Article 1 of the *World Declaration on Education for All* agreement which reaffirmed the concept of education as a fundamental human right and urged countries to intensify efforts to address the basic learning needs of all read:

Every person - child, youth and adult - shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs.....the scope of basic

learning needs and how they should be met varies with individual countries and cultures (WDEFA, 1990: ARTICLE 1 cited in UNESCO, 2016).

Though the majority of countries have taken steps to either ratify, sign or accede to these international treaties on the right to education, millions are still denied around the world due to factors including lack of resources, capacity and political will. Some countries are yet to integrate the right to education into their national constitution or provided the legislative and administrative frameworks to ensure that the right to education is realized in practice (Nudzor, 2015). States are bound by the provisions of these treaties immediately such states ratify them. It is on record that Nigeria in its commitment to the provision of education acceded and ratified all these international treaties and thus is bound by their provisions. Nigeria acceded to the ICESCR on the 29th of July 1993; ICERD on the 16th of October 1967; CRC on the 26th of June 1990 and further ratified it on 19th April 1991; CEDAW on the 13 of June 1985 and the protocol on the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa on the 16th of December 2003 (Otomiewo, 2011).

Apart from these human rights instruments, there are other prominent key international initiatives designed to address educational issues across the globe. In the year 2000 at Dakar, Senegal, the World Educational Forum was held with 164 countries in attendance. All committed themselves to achieve what is termed 'Education for All (EFA) Goals' to be achieved by 2015, that is, fifteen years after the summit (EFA Nigeria, 2015). The United Nations Girls' Education Initiative was also launched at the Dakar Forum by the then Secretary General, Kofi Annan, to further solicit for the participating countries and partners' commitment towards girls and women's education (Okoli, 2007). EFA is a global movement towards the provision of education for everyone led by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (Kuo, 2012). Another global policy is the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDG) adopted at the United Nations General Assembly in the same year, 2000, where 189 countries and 23 international organisations were in attendance (Millennium Development Goals, Nigeria Report, 2015).

1.1.3 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Education for All Goals (EFA): The meeting point

The two international initiatives and policies - EFA and MDG - by including education in their programme of action greatly underscore the importance of education to sustainable development. While the main substratum and philosophy of the EFA is directly on education in unmitigated terms, the UN MDG similarly gives education top priority in that it makes attaining universal primary education its second goal and promoting gender equality in education and empowering women its third goal which all countries of the world must set as their goal, work towards and progressively realize by the year 2015 (World Bank, 2014). The EFA goals are the global commitment to provide quality basic education for all children. The goals of EFA are to provide education to all people, children, youth, and adults (Kuo, 2012).

Achieving the EFA goals is critical for attaining all eight MDGs - in part due to the direct impact of education on child and reproductive health, as well as the fact that EFA has created a body of experience in multi-partner collaboration toward the 2015 targets. The EFA goals also contributed to the MDGs as goals 2 and 5 of EFA that are concerned with universal primary education and gender equality in education were incorporated into MDGs. Simultaneously, though two MDGs relate specifically to education none of the eight MDGs can be achieved without sustained investment in education; achieving the other MDGs, such as improved health, combating HIV/AIDS, decreased poverty and hunger, access to clean drinking water and ensuring environmental sustainability are critical to achieving the education MDGs. A strong educational system will have a great impact on the acquisition and dissemination of the requisite knowledge and skills needed and their effective application in addressing the challenges that cumulatively result in sustainable development (Okeshola, 2012).

It is of particular interest that in their unique terms both EFA and MDG highlighted the importance of gender in their goals and aspirations. Of particular note are Goals 2, 4 and 5 of the EFA and goal 3 of the MDG which explicitly used the words 'girl', 'women' and 'gender'. The implication of this is that every country is bound to be gender sensitive in the provision of education to their citizens and to place a high premium on girl/child education. Interestingly, Nigeria participated in both the Millennium Development Goals

and the EFA Summit where these lofty goals and objectives were adopted; therefore Nigeria is bound by these world initiatives and global directives (EFA Nigeria, 2015; Millennium Development Goals, Nigeria Report, 2015). The implementation of education MDGs and EFA goals in education should be considered as the least conditions for educational development in a country. For the purpose of this study, the focus will be on one of the EFA Goals.

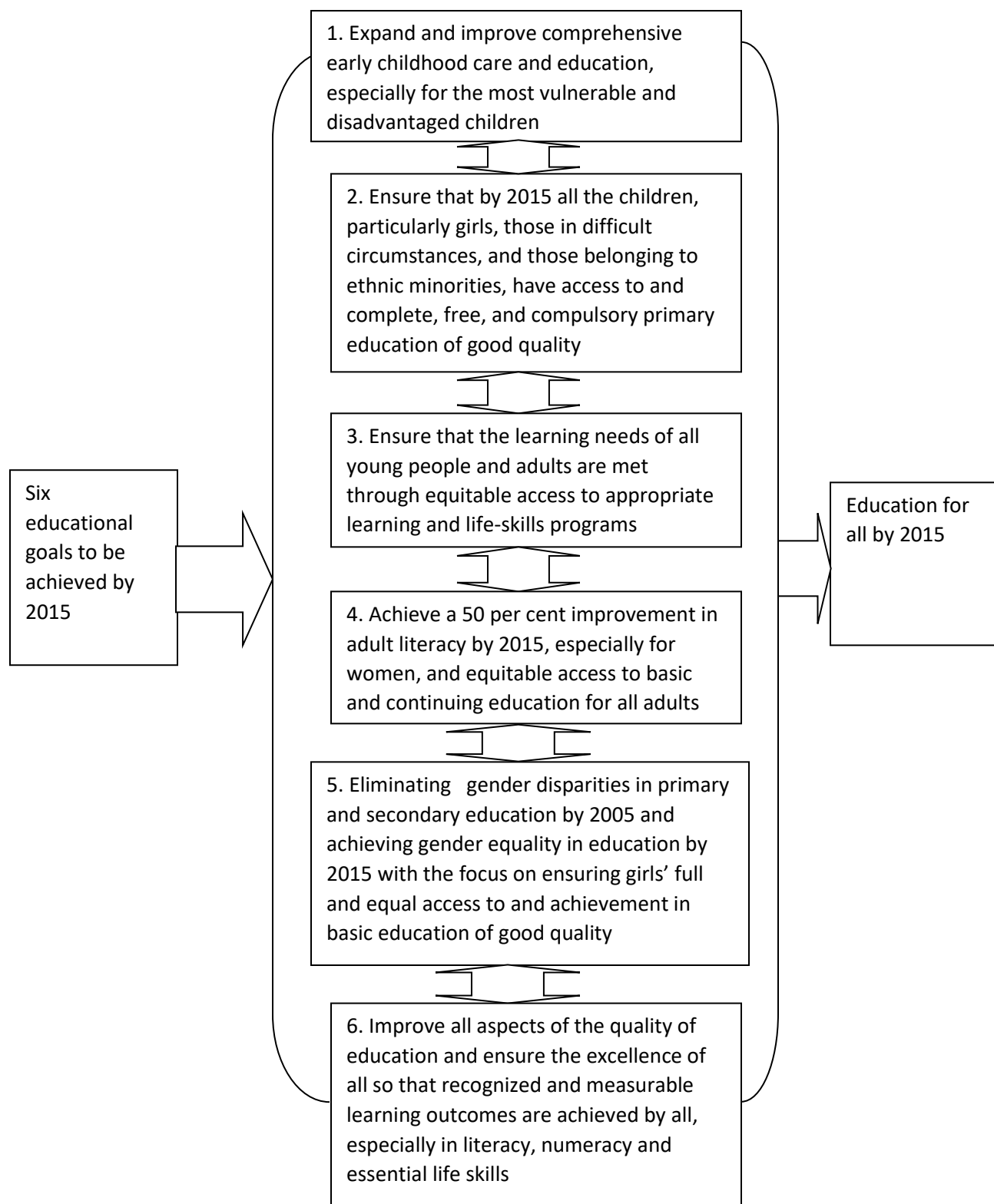
In 1990, a global commitment was made to provide quality basic education for all children, youth and adults at the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand. An expanded vision of learning was endorsed with a pledge to universalize primary education and massively reduce illiteracy by the end of the decade. Ten years after in April 2000, which coincides as the tenth year of the EFA, the international community met again at the World Education Forum summit held at Dakar, Senegal, to assess the progress so far with the EFA and it was observed that the reality did not live up to the promise, with many of the countries still far from reaching the set goals established at the World Conference on Education for All in 1990 (Education for All, Global Monitoring Report, 2015).

The Dakar forum had 1100 participants consisting of government from 164 countries, together with representatives of regional groups, international organisations, donor agencies, non-government organisations (NGOs) and civil society in attendance and they all agreed again on a Framework of Action called **Dakar Framework for Action** where they re-affirmed their commitment to achieving Education for All by the year 2015 (EFA GMR, 2015). The forum identified six key measurable education goals aimed at meeting the learning needs of all children, youth and adults by 2015⁵. It was unanimously agreed that UNESCO play the leading role and it was saddled with the responsibility of coordinating other agencies and organisations in the attempts to achieve the set goals (UNESCO, 2011a). The six goals established in The Dakar Framework for Action, 'Education for All: Meeting Our Collective Commitments' are represented in Figure 1. The

⁵ Goal 5, the gender equality goal has a key target - parity at the primary and secondary education level to be achieved by 2005.

monitoring of the achievement of the goals at the global, regional and sub-regional levels is carried out by international organisations such as UN, World Bank, IMF and OECD.

Figure 1. 1: The six Educations for All Goals



Source: Author's conception adapted from UNESCO (2016)

In line with the Dakar Framework for Action, UNESCO has developed the Education for All Development Index (EDI) to evaluate the progress made by each country. The EDI value for a given country is thus the arithmetic mean of the four indicators. Since they are all expressed as percentages, the EDI value can vary from 0 to 100% or, when expressed as a ratio, from 0 to 1. The higher the EDI value, the closer the country is to achieving Education for All as a whole. Although this research work is looking at the achievement of gender equality which is the **Goal 5** of the EFA Goals, also of relevant to the study are **Goals 2, 4 and 5**.

Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education, particularly for girls, ethnic minorities and marginalized children.

Goal 4: Achieve a 50 per cent reduction in levels of adult illiteracy especially for women by 2015.

Goal 5: Achieve gender parity by 2005 and gender equality by 2015 with the focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.

The achievement of the three goals are interwoven and related to each other, for they unambiguously use the words 'girl' 'women' and 'gender' to show the importance of being gender sensitive in the provision of education and to place girl-child education at a high premium. The indicator selected to measure progress towards the goal 5 is the gender-specific EFA index, the GEI, which is itself a simple average of the three gender parity indexes (GPI) for primary education, secondary education and adult literacy, with each being weighted equally. Therefore it encompasses the two sub-goals of the original EFA goal: gender parity (achieving equal participation of girls and boys in primary and secondary education) and gender equality (ensuring that educational equality exists between boys and girls), and the GPI for adult literacy. Gender parity in education is said to be reached when the gender parity index (GPI) is between 0.97 and 1.03. GPI is girls' gross school enrolment ratio divided by the corresponding ratio for boys.

The **Dakar Framework**, while ensuring the right to basic education, called on governments to develop responsive participatory and accountable systems of educational governance and management. The governments were encouraged to set forth:

- The development of comprehensive national education plans that are linked to national poverty elimination and development strategies;
- Strengthening of the capacity to monitor educational progress;
- Engagement of the civil society in the policy making and monitoring process;
- Improvement of the regulatory frameworks for the provision of education; and
- Decentralization of the educational management (EFA Nigeria, 2015:23).

The World Bank recognizes that achieving these goals requires supporting the full EFA commitment by all the member states, international organisations, bilateral agencies, civil society and the private sector. Thus EFA is being coordinated by five main development agencies: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the World Bank which ensures regular oversight and provides accountability. (EFA GMR, 2015). EFA is not only about having access to schooling but also having quality of education for all children.

It is an empirical fact that education is still denied to millions around the world due to various factors which include but are not limited to the lack of resources, capacity, and political will. Millions are being deprived and marginalized in the society due to lack of access to education. An estimated staggering number of 250 million children still lack education and can neither read nor write. This includes those who dropped out of school after spending few years in school. As of 2012, for instance, it is stated that over 58 million children were out of school due to various reasons. The majority of the dropouts are children who lived in conflict-affected countries in both Asia and Africa. Statistics of 2012 had it that in sub-Saharan Africa, girls accounted for 56% of out-of-school children. In 2011, only 60% of countries had achieved gender parity in enrolment at the primary level and 38% at the secondary level. In around one-third of countries, fewer than 75% of

primary school teachers are trained according to national standards. In 2011, around half of young children had access to pre-primary education, and in sub-Saharan Africa the share was only 18% (EFA GMR, 2015; World Bank, 2014).

Therefore in order to improve educational quality and learning outcomes, to improve access to primary schools and to attain gender equity, the importance of EFA Goals cannot be over emphasized. Education for All (EFA) is an international initiative with the sole aim of bringing education to every person in the world, particularly the children and illiterate adults.

In order to justify the need for EFA goals, it is imperative to present some progress towards the attainment of EFA goals in education across contexts:

(1) Goal 1 – Early Childhood Care and Education:

- (i) In 2013, 6.3 million children under the age of 5 died from causes that are mostly preventable despite a nearly 50% drop in child mortality rate.
- (ii) There was a considerable improvement in child nutrition. However, globally, in every four children, one is still short for his/her age – a chronic sign of deficiency in essential nutrients.
- (iii) Worldwide, 184 million children were enrolled in pre-primary education in 2012, a nearly two-third increase since 1999 (EFA GMR, 2015).

(2) Goal 2 – Universal Primary Education.

- (i) Primary school net enrolment ratio was estimated to reach 93% in 2015 from 84% in 1999.
- (ii) There was a significant improvement in the net enrolment ratio to about 20 percentage points from 1999 to 2012 in 17 countries, 11 of which were from sub-Sahara Africa.
- (iii) Though there was an increase in enrolment ratio, nearly 58 million children were still out of school as at 2012 with no visible progress in reducing the number.

- (iv) Rate of dropout still remains an issue despite the progress in access. In 32 countries, mostly in sub-Saharan Africa, at least 20% of children enrolled are not expected to reach the last grade.
- (v) One in six children in low and middle income countries – or about 100 million children – will not have completed primary school by 2015 (EFA GMR, 2015).

(3) Goal 3 – Youth and Adult Skills

- (i) There has been an increase in participation in lower secondary education since 1999 with an increase in lower secondary gross enrolment ratio from 71% in 1999 to 85% in 2012. This reflected improved transition rates and higher retention rates. The lower secondary gross enrolment ratio increased by at least 25 percentage points in Afghanistan, China, Ecuador, Mali and Morocco.
- (ii) There was a problem of inequality in the transition from primary to secondary school. For example, in the Philippines, just 69% of primary school graduates from the poorest families continued into lower secondary school, compared with 94% from the richest households.
- (iii) The majority of the 94 low and middle income countries with information have legislated free lower secondary education since 1999. 66 of them have constitutional guarantees while 28 enacted other legal measures. As of 2015, only a few nations charge lower secondary school fees, including Botswana, Guinea, Papua New Guinea, South Africa and the United Republic of Tanzania (EFA GMR, 2015)

(4) Goal 4 – Adult Literacy

- (i) With about 781 million illiterate adults, the rate of illiteracy dropped slightly from 18% in 2000 to an estimated 14% in 2015. This indicated that the Dakar target of halving illiteracy was not achieved.

- (ii) Out of the 73 countries with a literacy rate below 95% in 2000, only 17 halved their illiteracy rate by 2015.
- (iii) Progress was achieved towards gender parity in literacy but it was not sufficient. All 43 countries where fewer than 90 women for every 100 men were literate in 2000 have moved towards parity, but none of them will have reached it by 2015 (EFA GMR, 2015).

(5) Goal 5 – Gender Equality

- (i) 69% of the countries with data are expected to have reached gender parity at the primary level by 2015. But the progress is slower in secondary education, with 48% projected to be at gender parity in 2015.
- (ii) There was progress in tackling severe gender disparity with the number of countries having fewer than 90 girls enrolled in primary school for every 100 boys falling from 33 to 16 between the years 1999 and 2012.
- (iii) Amongst out-of-school children, girls are more likely than boys never to enrol in school (48% compared with 37%), while boys are more likely to leave school (26% compared with 20%). Once enrolled, girls are more likely to reach the upper grades.
- (iv) The poorest girls remain the most likely to never attend primary school in sub-Saharan Africa. In Guinea and Niger in 2012, over 70% of the poorest girls had never attended primary school, compared with less than 20% of the richest boys.
- (v) Boys also experience disparities in secondary education with wide gaps in some poor countries but with narrow or no gaps in many rich countries.
- (vi) There have been improvements in girls' education and progress in reducing gender gaps with the assistance from global and national advocacy but policies on child marriage and school-related gender-based violence still need to be strengthened.

- (vii) To improve the gender equality in schools, there is need for more recruitment of female teachers at all levels of education, textbook and curriculum reform, and training in gender-sensitive teaching.
- (viii) The greatest progress among the EFA goals has been achieved in gender parity with the influence of the third MDG, which has parity in education as one of its target but the actual progress towards equality is not yet clear (EFA GMR, 2015).

(6) Goal 6 – Quality of Education

- (i) 83% of the 146 countries with data at the primary education level had a decline in the pupil/teacher ratio. However, less than 75% of primary school teachers are trained up to national standards in one-third of these countries.
- (ii) 87 of the 105 countries with data have a pupil/teacher ratio below 30:1 at the lower secondary education level.
- (iii) 12 learning assessments were conducted according to national standards in 1990 but by 2013 the number had increased to 101 (EFA GMR, 2015).

Let us now examine the implementation of Education for All goals (EFA) in some countries.

1.1.4 Implementation of Education for All goals (EFA) across contexts

The Education for All principles has been implemented in Taiwan and the United State America. Although the goals of EFA are to provide education to all people from children, youth, to adults, some people may receive education in discriminatory environments, such as special schools, resource rooms, or self-contained classes. Inclusive education should be emphasised while we are reaching the goals of EFA. According to UNESCO (2010), inclusive education is based on the right of all learners to a quality education that meets basic learning needs and enriches lives. Focusing particularly on vulnerable and marginalized groups, it seeks to develop the full potential of every individual. The Dakar Framework for Action adopted by the World Education Forum has clearly identified that inclusive education is a key strategy for realizing education for all. Thus we should

promote not only education for all, but also education for all together, that is, an inclusive learning environment (Kuo, 2012).

Regarding the achievement of EFA goals, both the U.S. and Taiwan have policies and reports about their early childhood care and education, primary education, learning and life skills, gender, and quality of education. In terms of gender, both U.S. and Taiwan have laws to promote gender equity. For example, Taiwan has the Gender Equity Education Act and the U.S. has gender equity legislation as well but in terms of the challenges for policy-makers in inclusive education, there is still much to be done in both the U.S. and Taiwan (Kuo, 2012).

The U.S. education trends have significant influence on Taiwan's educational systems, especially inclusive education, but unlike the U.S., full inclusion in Taiwan has not been accepted by all people, including special education teachers (Wu, 2009). The principles of placement for students with special needs are mainly determined by the students' degree of disability. In general, students with a mild to moderate disability can be placed in general schools. Depending on their degree of disability, these students will be placed in regular classes, resource rooms, or special rooms, respectively. However, students with severe and profound disabilities will generally not be placed in general schools. Most of them are placed in self-contained classes, special schools, or home schools (Wu, 2009).

Also, the Education for All goals have been implemented some Arabian countries. According to the Global Gender Gap Report, countries of the Middle East and North Africa continue to lag behind global averages in education statistics. In the Global Gender Gap Index 2009 rankings, Tunisia is ranked 109th, while Egypt is 126th (Hausmann, Tyson, & Zahidi, 2009). Not only have both Egypt and Tunisia failed to improve, they have actually moved down in the rankings. However, they are not alone: the Middle East and North Africa region as a whole ranks last on the global index, having closed approximately 58 per cent of its gender gap (Megahed & Lack, 2011). This compares to around 65 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa and Asia; 67 per cent in Latin America and Eastern Europe; and over 70 per cent in Oceania, Western Europe and North America (Hausmann et al., 2009).

The gender gap in enrolment rates for Egyptian secondary education was 4.8 in 2004, which consequently reduces the opportunities for female participation in post-secondary education. Although this gap has decreased from 18.2 in 1990, the rate of gender reform in Egypt has been painfully slow (World Bank 2011). Though Tunisia is significantly smaller than Egypt, it has been a leader in the region in terms of gender equality and reform from the 1990s to the present. Since Tunisia gained independence from French rule in 1956, the Republic has actively promoted equality for its citizens, regardless of gender or faith. Therefore it is unsurprising that Tunisia had a gross secondary enrolment gender gap of -6.5 in 2003, which improved to -7.3 in 2008 (World Bank, 2011).

Similarly, the Education for All goals has been adopted in Sudan (North Africa). Just like governments of other member countries to the EFA commitment, the Sudanese government set up policies towards the achievement of the EFA and MDGs. These policies were then translated into actions for implementation in both national and local contexts. There was establishment of more basic and secondary schools for both boys and girls which therefore make education to be more accessible, inclusive and non-discriminatory (Elbla, 2011). The resultant effect of these policies has also led to a remarkable increase and progress in the enrolment rates of children within school going age in the last two decades. According to the Sudan Baseline Survey of 2008, the overall average gross enrolment rate reached 71.7% in 2007/2008, 77.7% for boys and 65.7% for girls (Elbla, 2011).

However, Sudan is still facing a major challenge of achieving the targeted goals of EFA and MDGS by the year 2015 when it comes to the issues of quality and equality. Equality, quality and relevancy of the education being provided have been identified as the real indicators for the achievement of EFA and MDGs (UNESCO, 2013) and not just the number of schools and children enrolled alone. But in the case of Sudan, there exists a 12% gender gap in basic education which is in favour of boys, and there are still a considerable number of children (both boys and girls) who are still outside the education system (Elbla, 2011:4). In fact, according to the author, the existence of a large number of children, mostly girls from the marginalized and least served communities such as nomads, internally displaced people (IDPS) and far remote villagers have always been

an issue of great concern to the education authorities in Sudan. Factors ranging from poverty and families' financial status, learning environments, untrained teachers, location and distance to school, socio-cultural practices and the negative societal attitudes towards education have been identified as key issues affecting the equality and quality of education in Sudan (Elbla, 2011).

In sub-Saharan Africa, the endorsement of the EFA goals and MDG goals by many countries have resulted in governments making pledges and instituting reforms to their educational systems to make them evolve from predominantly 'fee-charging' towards predominantly 'fee-free' status in recent times. Yet, in 2015 (the year in which the EFA and MDGs were to be met) it is becoming increasingly unlikely that education for all as expounded in both the EFA and MDG agreements will be attained, mostly as it has not been achieved through any of the previous, similar pledges. In most, if not all, participating countries, commitments encapsulated in policy documents do not appear to have translated into the needed changes in practice. As cited by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) report 2004, 30% of children in seven countries (Burkina Faso, Central African Republic, Congo, Djibouti, Eritrea, Mali and Niger) never even started school let alone attend regularly. Whilst this could be taken as an indication that the EFA agreement and the MDGs are not taking hold, the preponderance of available research evidence (e.g. Nudzor, 2012; Somerset, 2009; UNESCO, 2008) suggests that Africa is/was the only region where the end of primary education denoted exit from education for the majority of children.

To put these challenges into perspective, whereas it has been alleged that Eastern Europe and Latin America were on track towards meeting the EFA and MDG targets, or nearly so, sub-Saharan Africa was cited as lagging behind desperately and irreparably (Nudzor, 2012). So what is responsible for the inability of sub-Saharan African countries to attain EFA status? The preponderance of international and comparative education research evidence (Akyeampong, 2009; Nudzor, 2012) suggested that by 2015 the one policy strategy that many low-income countries had adopted to accelerate progress towards EFA and MDGs had been the introduction of fee-free primary education. However, what remained conspicuously under-developed, according to the literature, is

a thorough discussion of how sub-Saharan African countries are faring as far as EFA provision and delivery is concerned, particularly in the face of the political and democratic changes currently taking root in the sub-region.

Between 2000 and 2006 alone, some 14 so-called 'developing countries' formally abolished tuition fees for primary schools as a strategy for accelerating progress towards attaining EFA status (UNESCO, 2008). While this strategy is commendable in the sense that it has led to a reasonable surge in enrolment figures, it is becoming increasingly clear that the biggest challenges faced by low-income countries relate to getting children from disadvantaged and marginalized communities to enrol and complete primary education. In sub-Saharan Africa alone, about a third of primary school age children, the vast majority of them from poor, rural backgrounds and mostly girls, are said to be out of school (Lewin & Akyeampong, 2009; UNESCO, 2008). A review of existing literature (Akyeampong, 2009; Lewin, 2009; Lewin & Akyeampong, 2009; Nudzor, 2012, 2013a, 2013b; Somerset, 2009) indicated that the issue of poverty presents a huge challenge to sub-Saharan countries in their quest to make education, especially primary education, free, compulsory and universal.

A number of studies also revealed that compulsory education legislation is not necessarily a panacea for achieving UPE particularly in the absence of the collective influence of local authorities and peer groups (Little, 2008; Nudzor, 2012). In countries where UPE provision has been made compulsory, studies have shown that without strong local community advocacy and support, such legislation is rendered practically impotent.

More importantly, the government of Nigeria has made efforts to implement the Education for All goals. First and foremost, let me briefly summarise the geo-educational position of Nigeria in the sub-Saharan Africa. Nigeria is a country found in the West Africa sub-region sharing land borders with the Republic of Benin to the west, Chad and Cameroun to the east, and Niger to the north. The country's estimated population was 162,470,737 as at 2011, around 42.3% of which is between ages 0-14 while about 54.6% is aged 15 and above, and the country's birth rate is shown to be higher than the death rate with the percentage of both placed at 40.4 and 16.9 respectively (EFA Nigeria, 2015). Nigeria is a federation (consisting of 36 States and a Federal Capital Territory, Abuja) with three

tiers of government - the first tier is the Federal government, the second tier consists of the 36 State governments and the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja, which are then further sub-divided into 774 Local Government Areas (LGAs). These Local Government Areas form the third tier of government.

The Nigerian government set up its educational objectives in section 18 of her constitution and, interestingly, it captures the basic aim and objectives of the EFA goals, that is, that education should be made to reach all citizens. The constitution provides in section 18(1) that the Nigerian government shall direct its policy towards ensuring that there are equal and adequate educational opportunities at all levels in order to eradicate illiteracy and ignorance; and to this end the government shall as and when practicable provide:

- (a) free, compulsory and universal primary education;
- (b) free secondary education;
- (c) free university education; and
- (d) free adult literacy programme (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2011).

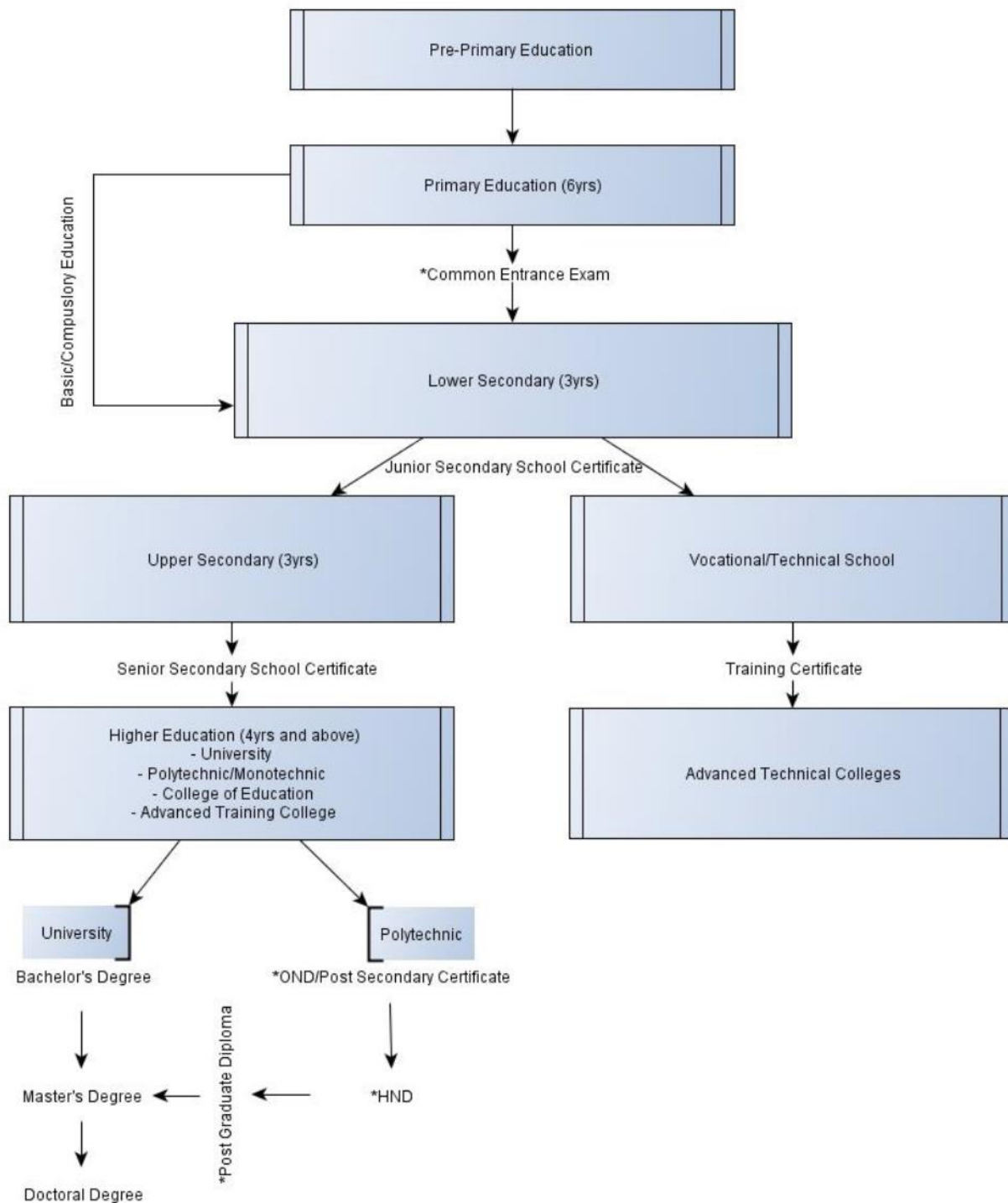
Nigeria as a party to most of the international treaties and covenants owes it as a duty to its citizens the provision of education as a right; however, this is not enforceable because the right is only provided for as a directive principle of State policy in the constitution. It is stated in Section 18(3) of the constitution that the government shall make efforts to reduce the level of illiteracy by providing education as soon as when practicable, which means that the provision of basic education to the citizens of each State shall be based on the availability of resources within the individual State.

1.1.5 Nigeria Educational System

Based on the National policy on Education (NPE) first published in 1977 and subsequently revised in 1981, 1995 and 1998, 2004 and 2006, the current educational structure of Nigeria is structured on what is referred to as the 9-3-4 system of education, a modification of the 6-3-3-4 post-colonial system (Figure 1.2). The two systems (6-3-3-4 and 9-3-6) were meant to align with global and pan-African trends of compulsory education up to the end of junior secondary schooling and also to echo the goals of EFA and MDGs as they replaced the dysfunctional colonial system of education which was not

achieving equity and incremental development of education in the country (Onwuameze, 2013) with the policy system of equipping students towards the development of capacity for self-reliance in the economic, occupational, and other related spheres. With this current system, students are to spend nine years of basic and compulsory education (this consist of six years of primary schooling with the award of a school-leaving certificate, and three years of junior secondary school with the award of junior secondary school certificate), three years of senior secondary school (with the award of a senior secondary school certificate) and, lastly, four years of tertiary education. In 2013, while reviewing the system further, an additional one year was included into primary education to formally incorporate the pre-primary education thus making the first ten years of education a continuum of 10 years of basic schooling offered in an all-in-one scheme (EFA Nigeria, 2015). The adult and non- formal education programmes, Almajiri education programmes and education for out-of-school children and youths are all included in the basic education structure. The Nigerian educational structure is depicted in figure 1.2:

Figure 1. 2: Current Educational Structure in Nigeria



Source: Onwuameze, (2013: 12)

Education in Nigeria is on the concurrent legislative listing, that is, both the Federal and State governments can pass laws on it and, by law, basic education should be free and compulsory for all citizens while secondary schools should be made available though not compulsory. However, in reality, there still remains inequalities in access to education in the country, with the general operation and management of schools left in the hands of the private organisations, the State governments or the Federal government. Pathetically, education is still used to perpetrate inequalities with millions of poor people still being excluded from the processes and outcomes of education (Odukoya, 2009).

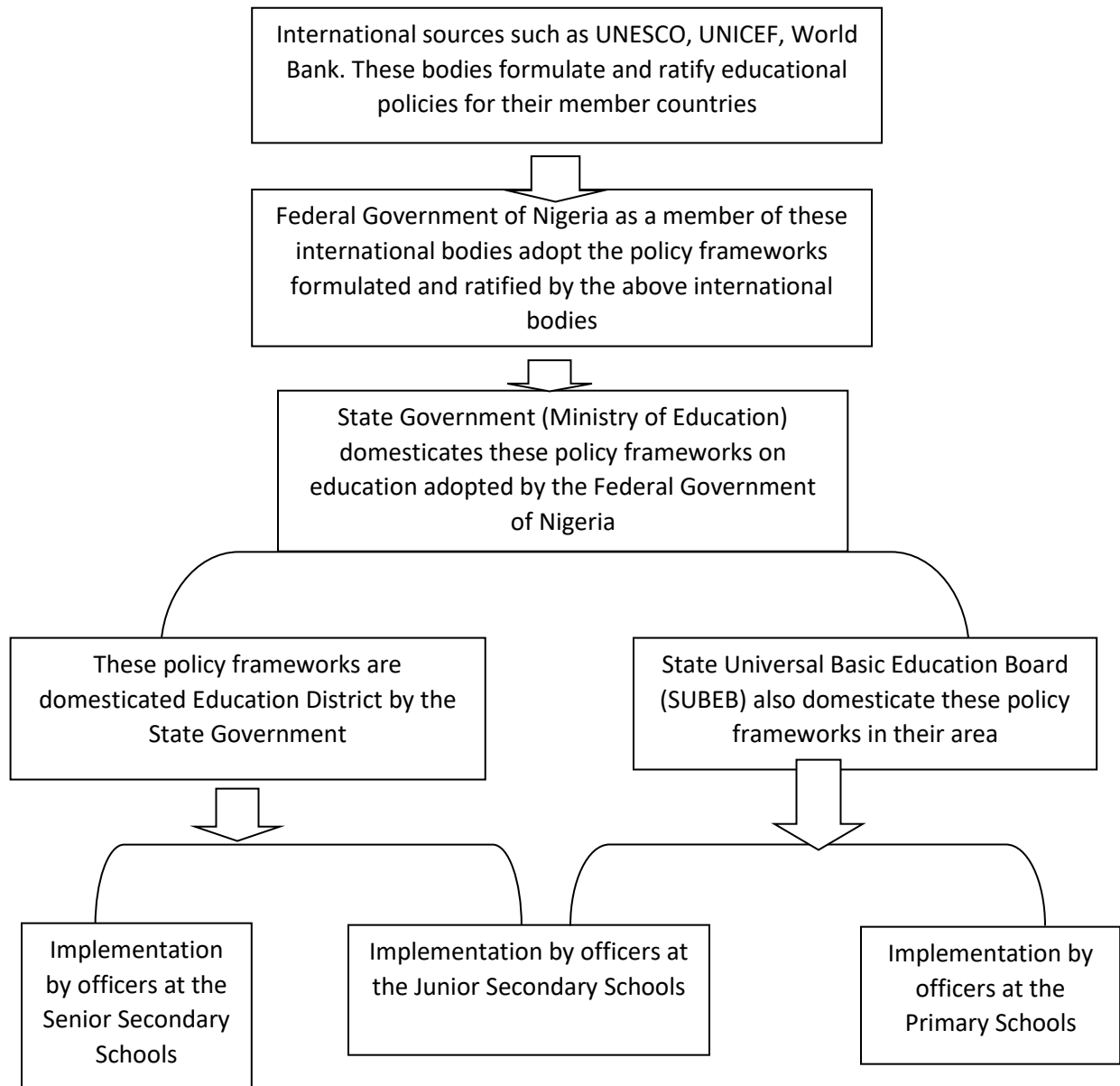
For the government owned schools - usually referred to as public schools - the State governments and the Local Government Areas (LGA) are the key providers of basic and secondary education as well as adult and non-formal education with the assistance of annual budgetary allocations from the Federal government, while the Federal government handles the tertiary institutions. Though the budgetary allowances from the Federal government to the States were meant for the development and provision of quality education for the people of each State, some States are, however, still lagging behind in the provision of quality basic education, with reports of many and extreme cases of violation of the right to basic education in such States (Otomiewo, 2011). Consequently, because the provision of education was neither free nor compulsory, especially in such States, the children were left at the liberty of their parents' choices in determining whether they get education at all, and the type of education they get.

Also, there has been a drastic reduction in spending on education in Nigeria because of the reduction in the annual budgetary allocations from the federal government due to the severe decline in the oil market since the early eighties and the recent global economic recession. These developments have resulted in a lot of factors such as strikes in universities/public schools, unpaid teacher salaries, degradation of educational facilities and so on, all of which accounted for declining literacy rates (Odukoya, 2009). However, for the very few parents that have the economic power to afford the fees of the private organisations, they send their children to private schools which are fully owned, managed and operated by these private organisations with government only playing monitoring and regulatory roles.

Nigeria is running a federal system of government. Sources of policy could be derived from international instruments/organisations (such as UNESCO, UNDP, UNICEF, World Bank, etc.), sharing the same objectives and goals (e.g. EFA Goals, MDGs) in common with other countries of the world. Once the federal government has adopted the policy, each component state in the Federation will then domesticate the same policy in the State through the main agency (EFA Nigeria, 2015). For instance, in the case of educational policy such as the EFA Goals, the main agency is the Ministry of Education in the State. The State Ministry of Education then has two separate but interdependent bodies under it for implementation of the policies.

In the case of Lagos State, which is the case under study, the two bodies are the Education Districts and the State Universal Basic Education Board (Lagos State Policy on Education, 1988). They give the directives and exercise oversight functions for the implementation of the policies in both secondary and primary schools respectively while the actual implementation will be carried out by the officers (Principals/Head Teachers and teachers) in the school.

Figure 1. 3: Hierarchical Structure of Policy Implementation in Nigeria



Source: Author's concept

Even before the World Education Forum in 2000 that brought about the EFA Goals, several attempts have been made by past governments in Nigeria (both at the Federal and States levels) to make education free and accessible to all the citizens, especially

with the provision of basic education to all children from age six irrespective of gender, but such programmes have stagnated due to poor implementation and execution, and economic recession amongst other factors (Otomiewo, 2011; Okoli, 2007). During the colonial Nigeria period, successive governments made attempts at universalizing primary education in the country, having recognized the importance of primary education as the foundation of the education system. Then, the Macpherson Constitution of 1951 made education a regional matter with each of the regions - Eastern Region, Western Region, and Northern Region - given the freedom to enact laws and make policies on education. This then resulted in the announcement of the Eastern Regional Government's introduction of free universal four-year junior primary education covering Infant 1, Infant 2, Standard 1 and Standard 2 which was later changed to an eight-year free primary education programme. Though this scheme was not launched until 1957, the pupil enrolment which was 904,235 in 1956 went up to 1,209,167 in 1957 (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

Equally, the policy of expansion, a six-year free primary education scheme, was launched on January 17, 1955 by the Government of the Western Region with 392,859 children in 6274 schools participating. In Lagos, the then federal territory, the universal primary education started in 1957 with 50,182 pupils in 96 schools participating. However, not all the programmes survived due to lack of proper planning; also, the Northern Regional Government did not initiate a similar programme of universal primary education (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

In the post independent era, the successive governments' efforts were still not focused on the provision of free, universal and compulsory basic education to the citizens. Some of the previous educational policies were reviewed and improved upon while some were totally scrapped and replaced by new ones to bring about the achievement of the set goals on universalizing primary education in Nigeria. The introduction of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) scheme in September 1976 by then General Olusegun Obasanjo, Head of State and Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces; the Nomadic Education Programme (NEP) of 1989 by the then Military President, General Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida to make sure that the UPE programme got to the hard-to-reach nomadic populations; and the Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme of September

1999 by former civilian president, Chief Olusegun Obasanjo, were some of such programmes embarked upon by the previous governments.

With the high level launch of the EFA campaign in 1999 a lot of activities were introduced into the EFA environment for the identification and mobilization of its stakeholders and the review of the implementation strategies. In the bid to meet the target of the 2015 EFA commitment, the government of Nigeria initiated the process of coordinating, planning, and assessment of EFA by creating an EFA Unit within the office of the Minister of Education, headed by a National Coordinator appointed from the civil society. This unit oversees the coordination of the activities of the National EFA Forum, facilitates the preparation of a fully participatory National Action Plan (NAP) for EFA, and also ensures the formal relationships among all the stakeholders in the EFA enterprise within and outside Nigeria (EFA Nigeria, 2015). The Education Sector Analysis (ESA) project was also initiated during the same period to help in the identification of the persistent challenges in the country's education system and the offering of short, medium and long term solutions to them.

A comprehensive national educational plan was developed which spelt out the national objectives of education at all the levels of education and the curriculum to achieve these objectives at each of the levels - Early Child Care and Education, Primary, Junior Secondary, Senior Secondary, and Tertiary. In order to improve the capacity for monitoring the performance of the educational system, the Education Management Information System (EMIS) was established. EMIS is charged with the responsibility of the collection, integration, processing, maintenance and dissemination of data and information to support decision making, policy analysis and formulation, planning, monitoring and management at all levels of the education system.

In year 2000, national targets to be achieved by 2015 were set on each of the six EFA goals, which included but were not limited to the following:

Goal 1: Early Childhood Care and Development

- Allocating and spending of 30% of the National Budget on Early Childhood Care and Development Programmes by the year 2010 and a comprehensive multi-sectoral family and child care development policies and funding by 2015.
- Increasing the enrolment of eligible children in participatory early childhood programmes from the current 18% to 70% by the year 2015.
- Ensuring that by the year 2015 no less than 70% of children going into the primary schools would have participated in at least one year of an early childhood care and development programme.
- Sensitizing and creating full awareness in at least 50% of the parents on prevention practices in relation to HIV/AIDS by the year 2000 and educating at least 70% of the parents on comprehensive childcare practice by 2015 (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

Goal 2: Universal Basic Education (UBE)

i.) Primary Education

- A 100% full-time enrolment of all children of school-going age (6-11), including all school entry-age girls into the primary school or an equivalent education programme by the year 2006.
- A 50% increase in the mainstreaming of the number of children with disabilities into primary school by 2015.
- 90% increase in the transition rate from primary to junior secondary school by year 2015.
- 80% reduction in the number of working school age children by 2015 and the provision of access to relevant basic education for those that will still be working (EFA Nigeria, 2015)

ii.) Junior Secondary Education

- Provision of access to information, education and services necessary for the reduction of vulnerability to HIV/AIDS to 95% of the youth and adults by 2010.
- Accessibility to formal and non-formal life-long education by all young people and adults by 2015.
- The attainment of the national standards set for literacy, numeracy and problem solving with gender parity in 80% of the youth and adults of age 15 and above by year 2015.
- A 10% yearly incremental basis in the provision of children's access to junior secondary school from 50% in 2001 to 100% by 2006 (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

Goal 3: Youth and Adult Skills

In year 2000, there was no target set for the 2015 attainment of this goal (EFA Nigeria, 2015)

Goal 4: Adult Literacy and Non-Formal Education

- Development of access programmes for all out-of-school youth, including pregnant girls and young mothers by 2002.
- A reduction in the number of illiterates in Nigeria by half (25 million) by 2015.
- Progressively recruiting and training additional 260,000 adult literacy instructors by 2010.
- The provision of an additional 100,000 training centres through the renovation of existing facilities and construction of new ones for the delivery of adult literacy classes and centres for nomadic education by 2010 (EFA Nigeria, 2015)

Goal 5: Eliminating Gender Disparities through the Education of Women and Girls

- A reduction from 10% to 0.9% in gender disparity in enrolment in all education programmes by year 2005.
- Attainment of the national standards set for literacy, numeracy, and problem-solving in 80% of all girls and women aged 15 and above by the year 2015.
- By the year 2015, 80% of all girls and women will be enrolled in a school-based or equivalent learning/education programme and equally have access to relevant basic education, with a special focus on hawkers, housekeepers, and groups of hard to reach women and girls.
- By 2015, with the use of new information and communication technologies (NICTs) in women education centres, the disadvantaged groups such as pregnant girls and young mothers will have flexible access to relevant programmes of education (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

Goal 6: Quality of Education

i.) Quality and Relevance of Learning

- The review of the national curricula by year 2002 to bring about clearly defined, context specific and appropriate learning outcomes with clear mechanisms towards their achievement.
- In order to ensure and monitor quality, there will be capacity development for the generation of appropriate and up-to-date data on all aspects of enrolment, learning and outcomes.
- Ensuring 80% relevance and gender sensitivity of the learning resources to learners, and being in the language and form easily understood by the teachers and learners.
- Increasing the status and quality of life of learners by 2015 through a 70% reduction in malnutrition, the achievement of full immunization, and the development of actions through the poverty reduction strategies that raise the

standard of living of Nigerians to an acceptable level to enable effective engagement in quality programmes (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

ii.) Resource Mobilization

- Increasing the percentage of the national budget expended on education by 2015 from the current under 10% level to the 26% recommended by UNESCO.
- Continuous collaboration and engagement with civil society and the private sector in the generation of inputs in the support of educational programmes.
- Staying commitment to the National EFA Action Plan as part of the process of leveraging additional international resources according to the Dakar Summit promise (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

To achieve the set target by the year 2015, the government instituted some policies and programmes, adjusted some and even totally reformed some of the existing creatively and locally-relevant activities in the educational sector. The general UBE programme, for instance, was introduced to help in raising the level of awareness and general education of the entire citizenry the resultant effect of which will bring about reduction in poverty and re-inforce participatory democracy in the society. The policy on UBE was then further reviewed and modified to add one more years to the basic education cycle in order to assist most parents that cannot afford educational care at that level and to capture the importance of early child care development and education (ECCDE) as an essential investment in basic education and the bedrock of Nigeria's educational programme, thereby bringing ECCDE into the EFA process. Equally, most of the state governments, if not all, have introduced free and compulsory primary and secondary schools for both male and female children in their States and have also enacted the child rights and protection acts against the withdrawal of the girl-child from school and the prevention of school age children from hawking or other child-labour activities. Strategies that focus on alternative income sources and enhance family earning while reducing dependence on child labour have been introduced as part of Nigeria's Poverty Reduction Programmes (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

Several educational policies have also been instituted to increase female access to educational and developmental processes, and make education more inclusive for both genders. There has been a progressive move towards the legal and practical removal of discriminating laws, harmful traditional practices and cultural barriers to women and girl-child access to education. For instance, the Federal Government Girls' Colleges were established by the federal government to ensure at least the minimum of basic education for all irrespective of gender and that females are being carried along in the process (AbdulKareem et al., 2011). Equally, the setting up of the Women Education Unit at the Federal Ministry of Education and the creation of the National Policy on Women 2000 were some of the initiatives of the government at the federal level towards balancing the gender gap in education and educational outcomes between males and females. The curriculum content has also been developed to enhance respect for women and children with the inclusion of content that encourages peace, mutual respect and cultural tolerance and understanding (EFA Nigeria, 2015). With the determination of sensitizing and strengthening the delivery processes of these policies and programmes, the professional training and retraining of the teachers are being regularly carried out by the relevant agencies.

Unfortunately, while some of the States of the federation made serious attempts towards the provision of basic education to their citizens, the situation in other States are so pathetic that some of their primary and secondary school students are still studying under trees and dilapidated buildings and structures, yet the State governments are not making any serious efforts to redeem the situation due to corruption. There is also the problem of unequal access despite intensive efforts on the part of the governments at various levels to improve female participation in education and redress gender inequalities in education enrolment and retention. Studies (Saleh & Kwache, 2012) have shown a wide gender gap in the primary gross enrolment rate (GER) to be in favour of boys. There is therefore the challenge of achieving gender parity as well as ensuring access and retention of all children in school in order to achieve the set goals of the EFA.

According to the EFA Nigeria (2015) report, some of the cross-cutting constraints hindering the government's efforts towards achieving the EFA targets include inadequate

public enlightenment and social mobilization; a dearth of data as well as inadequate and inaccurate data for planning and monitoring purposes; poor learning environments and facilities; inadequate numbers of teachers generally and qualified teachers specifically with overcrowded classrooms and poor teacher/pupils ratios; a burgeoning population which, coupled with poor data, made for a disaster in planning; inability to achieve any form of gender parity in enrolment, retention, achievement, completion rates as well as in teacher recruitment; inadequate funding; and poor management of human, material and financial resources (EFA Nigeria, 2015:11).

With its Strategic Plan, the Federal Ministry of Education initiated programmes for boosting access and enhancing quality in basic education. Massive campaigns were carried out to boost access and enrolment in the North and South to address the challenge of low girl-child and low boy-child enrolments respectively and a committee on Madrasah education was set up with a national framework for its operations (EFA Nigeria, 2015). According to this report, other strategies included:

- I. **The National EFA Action Plan:** While showing its commitment to the EFA, the government instituted an inclusive, empowered, and participatory National EFA Forum and equivalent structures at lower levels within the country. A participatory National Action Plan (NAP) was also developed to set out the ways through which the country would achieve its EFA targets in the context of its own culture, history, and development priorities.
- II. **The National EFA Forum/State EFA Forum:** A National EFA Forum (NEFAF) was inaugurated in 2001 by the Nigerian government to show the commitment toward achieving the EFA by 2015. The Forum which is being chaired by the Minister of Education and has the Commissioners of Education from the 36 States and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) as members formed a consultative and high-level decision-making body on the Education for All process in Nigeria. There were also other members of the forum which were drawn from the civil society organisations (principally the Civil Society Action Coalition on Education for All (CASCEFA), Federal Ministry of Education Parastatals that are EFA vehicles,

consultants, members of the organised private sector, International Development Partners, and other stakeholders in the education sector.

- III. **Nigeria Country Yearly Report Card on EFA:** The National Action Plan (NAP) was developed from the Nigeria EFA Country Report of year 2001 which set the country's EFA goal targets to be achieved by 2015. The report focused clearly on position statements, objectives, targets, indicators and responsibilities for achieving the Dakar goals, and involved the participations of the critical stakeholders, including civil societies, the private sector, and IDPs in all aspects and at all levels of education in Nigeria. Subsequently, from year 2002, a yearly document - EFA Report Card - is being produced by the EFA Unit of Federal Ministry of Education to showcase all the activities of the Ministry towards the achievement of EFA by 2015 including the challenges encountered during the process. A multi-pronged approach was adopted in delivering the EFA process due to its multifaceted nature.

Other institutions within and outside the education sector were also involved in the process with programmes being offered outside the education sectors with the target of delivering mass education both at the formal and non-formal sector. Specific institutions were charged with the primary responsibility of delivering on Nigeria's EFA commitment and are saddled with the implementation of the national policies to bring about the attainment of the goals within the established milestones and overall timeframe. These institutions include the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC), the National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE) and the National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education (NMEC) (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

Other institutions whose services are also connected with the successful delivery of the EFA are the National Teachers' Institute (NTI), Nigerian Education and Research Development Council (NERDC), the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) and the Teachers' Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN). Equally, the civil societies have been involved in the policy-making and monitoring of the delivery process of the EFA goals in the country. The Nigerian government has been in active collaboration with International Development Partners (IDPs) like UNICEF, DFID, UNESCO, USAID,

JICA, World Bank as well as civil society organizations (CSOs) and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) towards the achievement of the EFA/UBE goals especially in the area of girls-child education (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

The free Universal Basic Education (UBE) was launched in 1999 in fulfilment of the government's commitment to the international obligation to the 1990 Jomtien Declaration but the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) was only established in 2001 to achieve uniform and qualitative basic education in the country while the UBE and other Related Matters Acts were enacted in 2004 to give a legal framework for the operation of UBEC and as part of the key reforms towards the EFA commitment (EFA Nigeria, 2015:136). According to the report, other reforms that were influenced by the EFA commitment include:

(a) Change in National Education System: In the year 2012, there was an introduction of an expansion in the educational system by an additional one year in order to augment the achievement of EFA goal 1. The educational system consequently changed from the 6-3-3-4 system to a ten-year continuum of a 1-6-3-3-4 system of education of three (3) components. That is, 1 year of early childhood care development education (ECCDE), 6 years of primary education and 3 years of junior secondary education.

(b) Early Childhood Care Development Education: There were massive grassroots sensitization, advocacy and mobilization programmes being carried out across the country on the activities on ECD and the development of the Integrated Early Childhood (IEC). Also, the institutionalization of one year ECD as part of the education system resulted in the establishment of ECCE Centres in all public and primary schools to guarantee stronger foundational transition from pupils to primary schools. All the relevant ECCE materials such as the policy, integrated ECD Policy, the National Curriculum/Training Guide, criteria for establishment of centres and care-givers and toy-making manuals were all translated into thirteen (13) indigenous languages.

(c) Introduction of Almajiri Education: Another major reform influenced by the EFA was the establishment of the Almajiri education for the integration of basic education into the quranic schools and provision of access to education for children at risk of exclusion irrespective of gender, religious background or social status. This has led to the construction of 125 model boarding schools in 27 States of the Federation.

(d) Establishment of the National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE): Another reform was the enactment of the Act establishing the NCNE which was revised in year 2004 to streamline the activities of the Commission into UBE. The NCNE has the legal empowerment of offering educational opportunities to the nomadic pastoralists and migrant fisher folk through the provision of basic literacy classes and business/financial management to empower the learners.

(e) Girl-child Education Project (GEP): The project was initiated to accomplish goals that are related to the girl-child while increasing girls' enrolment and completion of basic education. There was a collaboration with UNICEF for the achievement of this programme especially in the Northern States of the country.

(f) Back-to-School Programme for Boys: Large scale drop-out rates among the boys mostly in the South-East and South-South States of the federation were addressed by the establishment of special basic education schools to incorporate vocational skills relevant to the socio-economic environment of the concerned States.

(g) Support for Special Needs Education Programme (SNEP): There has been the establishment of special needs schools for the promotion of inclusive education and to increase the access to basic education for children with special needs. A National Diagnostic and Assessment Centre for special children has been established in the FCT for the screening, assessment and placement of children with special needs in schools and the government has also provided the financial support, through the UBEC, to public schools and school providers for the expansion of the programme and to provide necessary facilities.

(h) Establishment of the Nigerian Education Management Information System

(NEMIS): There was the establishment of the Nigerian Education Management Information System (NEMIS) for the generation of data for effective planning and monitoring of education programmes in the year 2007 at the federal level. This has equally been replicated in the various States across the country within their ministries of education as EMIS centres.

(i) School Based Management Committees (SBMC): School Based Management Committees (SBMC) were also established to improve school governance.

(j) Adult and Non-Formal Education: A 4-year (2011-2015) programme on Revitalizing Adult and Youth Literacy in Nigeria was launched which was aimed at strengthening the capacity of national institutions for the design and delivery of quality literacy programmes with the integration of skills development and wealth creation. Youths and adults were the targets of the programme with special focus on the difficult to reach groups such as girls and women.

There has been an enhancement in teacher development with various programmes being established to improve the teaching and quality of teachers produced. Some of the reforms include: the professionalization of the teaching profession and establishment of minimum standards of teaching; review of the curriculum of teacher training institutions and development of national benchmarks for uniformity of curriculum context of the teacher training institutions; ICT integration into teaching programmes; instituting regular in-service training programmes together with proficiency in ICT skills; and the establishment of a Federal Teachers' Scheme (FTS) to address the challenges of teacher shortage and distribution of quality teachers in basic education. 15,000 FTS teachers (10,000 for Primary and 5,000 for Junior Secondary Schools) were recruited in 2013 (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

Other reforms included the formation of an Evidence Based Quality Assurance Instrument by the Federal Inspectorate Services; a school curriculum review to include, among others, vocational and entrepreneurial skills that will help in improving the educational quality and bridge the gap between education acquired and the current demands of the

labour; and a 4-year (2011-2015) Strategic Plan for the Development of the Education Sector (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

One of the major barriers in the documentation of the progress towards the achievement of the EFA goals in Nigerian is the scarceness and, sometimes, the inadequate and inaccurate data or even complete absence of data required for planning and monitoring purposes. The 2002 Global Monitoring Report (GMR) has shown Nigeria to be one of the sub-Saharan Africa countries without data on Universal Primary Education (UPE), no data on Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and Net Enrolment Ratio (NER), and one of the 11 African countries that may not achieve the goal on universal primary education (EFA Nigeria, 2015:v). According to the report, the analysis of progress towards the goal of universal primary education (UPE) had only been based on country's net enrolment ratio which was less than 80%.

However, notwithstanding this barrier, some of the brave steps taken and milestones reached on all of the EFA goals in Nigeria include the following:

(1) Goal 1 – Early Childhood Care and Development Education (ECCDE):

The realization of the target on Early Childhood Care and Development Education (ECCDE) was made possible through: (1) The necessary provision in the UBE Act of 2004 for the accommodation of Early Childhood Education within the framework of basic education and (2) the 2007 National Policy for Integrated Early Childhood Development (IECD) which laid emphasis on the importance of inter-sectoral collaboration to enable the Nigerian child appropriate all its rights as stipulated in the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (Federal Ministry of Education, 2013).

The 2013 policy review of the National Policy on Education to include one year into the basic education cycle consolidated the official extension of basic education in Nigeria to ten years. This led to an appreciable increase in the establishment of more ECCDE centres to offer a solid foundation along with smooth transition from pre-primary schools to primary schools. Consequently, the number of public ECCDE centres across the country increased from 20,698 (35% of 58,595 total primary schools) in 2009 to 30,901 (50% of 61,305 total primary schools) in 2013 (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

Table 1. 1: Number of ECCDE Centres 2009 - 2013 (Public Schools)

Year	ECCDE Centres
2009	20698
2010	23249
2011	31459
2012	28565
2013	30901

Source: EFA Nigeria (2015:26)

The increase in the number of ECCDE centres made a positive impact on the number of pupils enrolled in the ECCDE programmes. Though the total number of pupils enrolled in both public and private schools showed a marginal increase from 2,089,406 in 2006 to 2,715,077 in 2010, with extensive mobilization and creation of awareness among the populace on the importance of sending their children and wards to the pre-schools created in the primary schools there was a quantum leap in enrolment from 2,183,918 in 2011 to 2,994,734 in 2013 in the public schools (EFA Nigeria, 2015).

Table 1. 2: ECCDE/Pre-primary Enrolment in Public and Private Schools 2006-2007

Year	Public	Private	Total(Public/Private)
2005/2006	1367326	322080	2089406
2006/2007	2048082	637821	2685903
2007/2008	1610175	494845	2105020
2008/2009	1827657	718283	2538366
2009/2010	1819752	873571	2715077

Source: EFA Nigeria (2015:27)

Table 1. 3: ECCDE Enrolments for 2011-2013 (Public Schools)

Year	Enrolment
2011	2,183,918
2012	2,297,257
2013	2,994,734

Source: EFA Nigeria (2015:28)

Also, to ensure that the teachers and care-givers handling the ECCDE centres are adequately and professionally trained for the job, the National Commission for Colleges of Education developed the infusion of Early Childhood Care and Education into the NCE curriculum in Nigeria. Most of the conventional Colleges of Education in Nigeria now have the Department of Early Childhood Care and Education and the Department of Primary Education, and they issue the Nigerian Certificate of Education (NCE) Pre-primary to their graduates.

(2) Goal 2 – Universalization of primary education

The provision of access to basic education through the birth of the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) and the UBE programme has led to a lot of progress especially in the children's enrolment in schools. The children also have a fundamental right to free primary schooling of good quality. Some of the provisions put in place to give access, equity and quality dimensions to the EFA Goal 2 include: free and compulsory basic education for all children of school going age; provision of mid-day meals in some States to enhance children's access to the retention and completion of the school cycle; and establishing that a parent who does not enrol his/her child/ward in school contravenes section 2 (2) of the UBE Act, and, therefore, commits an offence (EFA Nigeria, 2015:44-45). The out-of-school children and other identified vulnerable groups were also not left out. There was the Almajiri Education Programme, the Boys' Education Programme and the Girl Child Education Programme in addition to other targeted projects.

The provision has equally led to an improvement with an increase of five per cent in the number of primary schools in Nigeria, rising from 58,595 in 2009 to 61,305 in 2013; while the number of Junior Secondary Schools (JSS) increased from 10,410 in 2009 to 11,874

in 2013 (EFA Nigeria, 2015). However, in terms of the quality of education given at these two levels of basic education, more still needs to be done as it is still being generally rated to be below standard (Federal Ministry of Education, 2013). Improvement was also noticed in the enrolment rate in the country between 2000 and 2010, though with some declines in between the years. The total enrolment of males and females in 2000 was 19,151,438. By 2003, primary school enrolment peaked at 25,773,044 but by 2008 there was a decline; the figure dropped to 19,992,309 only to increase again by 2010 to 20,663,805 (Table 1.4). Also, in order to improve the teaching quality, a series of National Teachers' Orientation workshops were held for training of head teachers, teachers, supervisors and coordinators to assist in the enhancement of their knowledge, skills and competences through exposure to new and innovative teaching methods.

Table 1. 4: Enrolment in Primary Schools by Gender, 2000-2012

Year	Male	Female	Total
2000	10,738,025	8,413,413	19,151,438
2001	10,583,411	8,457,812	19,041,223
2002	11,070,610	8,791,071	19,861,681
2003	14,434,764	11,338,280	25,773,044
2004	11,824,494	9,571,016	21,395,510
2005	12,189,073	9,926,369	22,115,442
2006	12,492,091	10,369,793	22,861,884
2007	11,683,503	9,948,567	21,632,070
2008	10,768,742	9,223,567	19,992,309
2009	10,791,896	9,288,980	20,080,876
2010	11,027,686	9,636,119	20,663,805
2011	11,705,330	10,420,087	22,125,417
2012	12,571,483	10,905,456	23,476,939

Source: EFA Nigeria, 2015:46

There was also a progressive increase in enrolment at the junior secondary level of basic education from 2,277,291 in 2000 to 3,624,163 in 2005. The figure however dipped to

2,934,972 in 2006, only to rise again in 2007 to 3,476,063 (Table 1.6). Boys' enrolment was noted to be higher than girls over the period (EFA Nigeria, 2015:48).

Table 1. 5: Enrolment in Junior Secondary Schools by Gender, 2000-2012

Year	Male	Female	Total
2000	1,264,903	1,012,388	2,277,291
2001	1,431,633	1,148,535	2,580,168
2002	1,746,909	1,203,823	2,950,732
2003	2,083,699	1,600,945	3,684,644
2004	1,972,637	1,535,291	3,507,928
2005	1,984,387	1,639,776	3,624,163
2006	1,653,753	1,281,219	2,934,972
2007	1,944,843	1,531,220	3,476,063
2008	2,150,037	1,784,024	3,934,061
2009	2,413,235	2,022,016	4,435,251
2010	2,703,938	2,306,289	5,010,227
2011	2,410,817	1,902,347	4,313,164
2012	2,408,578	2,061,459	4,470,037

Source: EFA Nigeria, 2015:47

The EFA Nigeria (2015) report has, however, noted that the apparent increase in both primary and junior secondary enrolment between 2009 and 2013 was only in absolute terms and not a representation of any significant progress toward the UPE target of 2015.

(3) Goal 3 – Youth and adult skills

The technical and vocational education and training (TVET) were seen as the major drivers in achieving this goal, being the strand of education that empowers youth and adults with competences and skills for self-employment and income generation. Thus, the vocationalisation of the new national senior secondary school curriculum with effect from the 2011/2012 academic session was targeted towards bringing out the importance of

youth and adult skills and ease its interpretation and implementation across the states of the nation. Other specific programmes developed by the government towards the achievement of this goal include: (i) Literacy by Radio as well as gender and life skills programmes. (ii) Each-one-teach-one programme, the Regenerated Freirean Literacy and Empowering Community Techniques (REFLECT), the Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE), and an adaptation of UNESCO's global strategies framework for collaborative action to enhance literacy efforts in countries with over ten million illiterate adult population. (iii) Introduction of Vocational Enterprise Institutes (VEI) and Innovative Enterprise Institutes (IEI) in order to promote school leavers' employability through reskilling, to fill the gap created by the low absorptive capacity of existing tertiary institutions and to equally broaden access to TVET (EFA Nigeria, 2015:70).

(4) Goal 4 – Adult literacy

The literacy programmes have been offered largely through non-formal means. The Nigerian government in ensuring its commitment to the rights of all citizens to education and knowledge in order to live meaningful lives has strengthened the institutional structures for effective delivery of adult literacy. A Basic Framework of Action was developed to meet the basic learning needs and to be implemented by national agencies, the States and local governments. Programmes were initiated with a lot of progress made. Some of them include: (i) REFLECT- "Regenerated Freirean Literacy through Empowering Community Techniques"; (ii) "Literacy by Radio" programme; (iii) Establishment of model literacy centres; (iv) Promotion of indigenous languages in literacy delivery; (v) Curriculum development; (vi) E-Learning Package for Literacy and Community Based Learning; (vii) Public-private partnerships; (viii) Revitalizing Adult and Youth Literacy (RAYL) and (ix) Advocacy and Sensitization Campaign (EFA Nigeria, 2015:90).

(5) Goal 5 – Gender equality

The EFA GMR (2013) distinguished between "gender parity" and "equality in education" thus: gender parity denotes equal enrolment ratio for girls and boys while equality in education means a schooling environment that is free of discrimination and provides equal opportunities for boys and girls to realize their potentials. Therefore, looking at

gender equality will not only be measuring attainment of parity in enrolment of boys and girls but will also include other measures put in place to ensure that the school environment is safe and the facilities are available. Great positive results have been achieved here with a lot of educational opportunities being purposively created to improve and increase girls' and women's participation in education in Nigeria. Some of the progress includes: (i) Formulation of Gender Policy on basic education in year 2007; (ii) Formulation of State Education Sector Operational Plan (SESOP) in some States, with the details of the entire plans for proper functioning of the school; (iii) Development of School Based Teachers Development (SBTD) Pedagogy Model for the enhancement of the teaching and learning processes; (iv) Establishment of Female Teachers Training Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS), a form of scholarship scheme for young indigent girls from various disadvantaged communities to be trained as teachers; (v) Provision of learning kits for 10,000 girls to boost retention in school, and thereby improving access and gender parity; (vi) Formulation of the Girls' Education Movement (GEM) and girls' clubs in schools to inculcate their rights and encourage speaking out and (vii) Improved child-friendly school environment facilities by the construction of separate toilet facilities for boys/girls in schools including for students living with disabilities (EFA Nigeria, 2015:110).

(6) Goal 6 – Quality of education

The length and value of the children's schooling experience could be greatly influenced by how they are taught and how much they learn. This simply implies that the quality of teaching the children receive in school is dependent on the quality of the teaching-learning process. In terms of the availability of qualified teachers, the available data showed the number of professionally qualified teachers in all subject areas in Primary Schools as 350,233 (43.68%) in 2010 which increased to 465,885 (60.59%) in 2011. For the Junior Secondary Schools it was 124,124 (55.59%) in 2010 and 204,231 (74.59%), an increase of about 19% within a year (EFA Nigeria, 2015). However, according to the 2013 State of Education Report, the availability of teachers is still seen as being problematic as the teacher gaps for attaining the EFA goals are still placed at several thousands; the numbers of teachers required in most of the States, especially in the fundamental subjects, are still far more than what is available. Also, the teacher/pupil ratio

in the public primary schools was 1:36 in 2010 while the qualified teacher/pupil ratio in the same year was 1:60. Then in 2011, the ratios were 1:38 and 1:66 for teacher/pupil and qualified teacher/pupil respectively. In 2012, the teacher/pupil ratio of 1:43 was recorded for public primary schools and 1:70 for the qualified teacher/pupil ratio (FME, 2013).

1.1.6 Lagos State, Nigeria

Lagos State is one of the 12 States created in Nigeria by virtue of Decree No.14 of 1967, precisely on May 27, 1967. Previously, it was a British colony (1861-1960) and, later, the country's capital (1914-1991). It is located in the south western part of the country. Territorially, it is made up of the old Federal Capital Territory of Lagos and the colony provinces of Ikeja, Badagry, Ikorodu and Epe ('IBILE') all of which formed the State's administrative divisions. Though it is the smallest State in Nigeria in term of size or area, the State is a sprawling urban centre whose unique endowments and strategic location have attracted domestic and international immigration, producing a mega-city of immense dynamism, complexity and opportunity. It is the most populous and urbanized State in Nigeria, with a population of over 15 million people (Campbell, 2012; Lagos State Education Yearbook, n.d.).

Lagos State is the most economically vibrant state in Nigeria and can boast of the highest number of resource personnel and infrastructures for the State has the highest concentration of manpower in sub-Saharan Africa, with 53.5% of its habitants belonging to the working class (Lagos State Education Yearbook, n.d.). According to the yearbook, the State is estimated to be growing at between 6% and 8% annually, making it one of the fastest growing cities in the world, growing ten times faster than New York and Los Angeles. The current population is said to be about half that of Kenya, almost the same as that of Cameroon, and more than the combined population of 32 sub-Saharan African countries.

The formal Western-type education started in Lagos State on September 24, 1842 with the arrival of Rev. Thomas Birch Freeman and Mr and Mrs Williams De-Graft of the Wesleyan Missionary Society in Badagry. However, the handing over of the FME School Library Service at Yaba to the State on April 1, 1967 by the Federal Ministry of Education

on the attainment of a corporate status as a State marked the first major education-related event in the life of the new Lagos State. The State's Ministry of Education, formally commissioned as the Ministry of Education and Community Development in April 1968 took over the management of the library. Some of the earliest and reputable educational institutions established and managed by the ministry under a system of Grants-In-Aid include:

- C.M.S. Grammar School Lagos (1859)
- Methodist Boys' High School (1870)
- Baptist Academy, Lagos (1885)
- Igbobi College, Yaba (1932)
- Eko Boys' High School, Mushin (1913)
- Anwar-ul-Islam College, Agege (formally Ahmadiyya College, 1948)
- Annsar-ud-Deen College, Isolo (1957) (Lagos State Education Yearbook, n.d.:25)

The launching of the free universal primary education in the State in the year 1957 had 50,182 pupils registered in 96 schools (EFA Nigeria, 2015), with the number increasing to 207,126 children (108,314 male and 98,812 female) in 402 public primary schools and 19,538 children in 55 secondary schools by the following year (1968) and by 1969, 40,422 children registered for Primary One in the five administrative divisions of the State against the 1970 school year (Lagos State Education Yearbook, n.d.).

The policy thrust of the then Governor of the State through the creation of an enduring and relevant education system, curriculum renewal, expansion of educational facilities, decentralization of administration and management of education, emphasising science and technical education as well as training and welfare of teachers laid a sound foundation for the education development of the State. The two systems of primary education (the six-year system of the old Western Region and the eight-year system which was then in operation in the old Federal Territory of Lagos) were merged into a six-year system and the management of the education was guided by the Lagos State

(Applicable Laws) Edict 1968. The Edict made the Education Laws Cap. 34 of the Western Region of Nigeria 1959 and relevant amendments applicable to Lagos State (Lagos State Education Yearbook, n.d.:26).

Successive governments in the State have made various policies and efforts to cater for the educational needs of the children in the State, taking note of its rapidly increasing population. Some of these achievements include amongst others: establishment of more schools; provision of an effective, efficient and responsible administration for the education system at all levels; provision of equal educational opportunities for all children of school age in the State irrespective of social class, gender, tribe or religion; ensuring the highest possible quality in content and standard of education in the State; provision of easy access to education for all children of school age; provision of free education to the children which gives a form of relief for parents and guardians from the crushing financial burden of paying for the education of their children; involvement of major education stakeholders in educational governance; reform of the Post-Primary Teaching Service to enhance the careers of teachers and for more effective management; launching of the Support Our Schools' initiative to attract positive support from corporate bodies, individuals and non-governmental organizations; and the resuscitation of the reading culture through drastic upgrading and updating of the facilities of the State Library Board.

In consonance with the educational objectives of the Federal Government of Nigeria, several policies have been embarked upon by each state of the federation to ensure that citizens have access to quality education without discrimination as to gender, political or ethnic consideration. Following the hierarchy of policy implementation in Nigeria (Figure 1.3), the Lagos State Government domesticated the establishment of the State Education Information System - known as Lagos State Education Information System (LEMIS) - charged with the responsibility of collecting, integrating, processing, maintaining and dissemination of data and information to support decision making, policy analysis and formulation, planning, monitoring and management at all levels of the education system within the State (Lagos State Education Yearbook, n.d.).

Equally, the Education Sector Analysis (ESA) project and the National Educational Plan were also domesticated in the State by setting up the Lagos Education Strategic Plan (ESP) to provide an overview of education sector policies, objectives, targets and strategies in order to transform the Lagos State Educational system to cope with 21st century realities and demands of learners. The ESP serves as a coherent sector-wide framework to guide education reform in the State and it's focused on the following sub-sectoral as well as cross-cutting areas: Early Child Care and Development, Basic Education, Senior Secondary Education, Adult and Non-formal Education, Special Education, Technical and Vocational Education and Tertiary Education. The cross-cutting areas are structured around the following key priority areas:

(a) Access and equity:

- (i) Expansion of classroom physical facilities for enhancement of the teaching-learning atmosphere
- (ii) Making schools fully functional through provision of functional and better equipped libraries, toilets, furniture, etc.
- (iii) Improvement in completion ratio by addressing issues of retention
- (iv) Establishing a framework for monitoring learning achievement
- (v) Reduction in the rate of failure through quality teaching, supported by quality teachers, quality facilities and quality school environment

(b) Curriculum relevance:

- (i) Production of more students who are well-informed and innovative
- (ii) Enhancement of the status and attractiveness of Vocational Education
- (iii) Orientating graduates towards the world of work focusing on employable skills
- (iv) Introduction of life-long learning and preparation for responsible citizenship
- (v) Building of entrepreneurial skills to create wealth and alleviate poverty

(c) Policy, planning and management:

- (i) Fully roll-out EMIS (LASGEMS)
- (ii) Streamlining of institutions/departments/units to eliminate overlaps of functions
- (iii) Establishment of policy formulating technical committee
- (iv) Institutionalization of an Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) Framework at the SMOE/ District/ LGEA level
- (d) Education finance:
 - (i) Increase funding
 - (ii) Strengthen effective utilization of funds
 - (iii) Strengthen planning and resource management by improving the MTSS process
 - (iv) Improve budget outcomes through a performance management system
 - (v) Increase parental and community involvement in the management of schools
 - (vi) Explore the increased delegation of financial management to schools for the use of UBE intervention funds (Lagos State Annual Education Sector Performance Report, 2010:3)

The ESP is expected to assist in poverty reduction and economic development processes by bringing about radical transformation of the schools thus assuring effective and functional education, improved student attainment, teaching and learning and school governance and management. For effective and efficient implementation and delivery of the State's priority initiatives in the educational sector and to offer functional and qualitative education to all citizenry in line with the Education for All (EFA) Goals and the Millennium Development Goals (MDG), the Medium Term Sector Strategy (MTSS) was equally put in place. The MTSS document is centred on five major goals: the early childhood care and development education, basic education, secondary education technical and vocation education (TVE), and tertiary education (Lagos State Annual Education Sector Performance Report, 2010:4).

Also, recently on the 26th May 2015, the Lagos State Ministry of Education adopted a policy titled Lagos State Inclusive Education Policy. The policy statement is to “put in place an all-inclusive education programme that will facilitate the expansion and improvement of a comprehensive education, especially for all out-of-school children. In a bid to attain the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of “education for all” (in respect of all children, particularly children with disabilities, the girl-child in difficult circumstances, those belonging to ethnic minorities and hard to reach communities) through access to free, qualitative and compulsory basic education” (Lagos State Policy on Inclusive Education Policy, n.d.: 2). In similar vein, Lagos state Gender Advocacy Team (LASGAT), as an assembly of organisations and individuals working for gender equality, women’s empowerment and social inclusivity in Lagos State, have come together in solidarity to advocate and influence policy directions in the State giving prominence and significance to gender and girl child education each year. The International Day of the Girl Child is celebrated on 11 October, a day designated by the United Nations for promoting the rights of girls and addressing the unique challenges they face.

However, the fact still remains that while there has been significant progress in improving girls’ access to education over the last two decades, many girls, particularly the most marginalized, continue to be deprived of this basic right. Girls in many parts of the country are still unable to attend school and complete their education due to safety-related, financial, institutional and cultural barriers. Even when girls are in school, perceived low returns from poor quality of education, low aspirations, or household chores and other responsibilities keep them from attending school or from achieving adequate learning outcomes. The transformative potential for girls and societies promised through girls’ education is yet to be realized (Lagos State Gender Advocacy Team LASGAT, 2012). Therefore this research is relevant in order to evaluate how far or near Lagos State has complied with the EFA goal of gender parity, or if the State has met with the targeted goal.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Globally, there is an education and learning skill crises. About 60 million primary school-age children and 71 million adolescents do not attend school (United Nations, 2013) and according to EFA GMR (2013/4) 51% of the 31 million girls who were still out of school as at 2011 are expected never to be enrolled. Even in countries with overall high

enrolment, a significant number of children leave school early. In fact, out of the world's 650 million children of primary school age, 130 million are not learning the basics of reading, writing and arithmetic (Brookings Institution, 2013; United Nations, 2013). In another report, globally, 250 million children – mostly from disadvantaged backgrounds – are not learning the basics due to lack of attention to education quality and a failure to reach the marginalized while over 100 million young women in the low and lower middle income countries cannot read a single sentence (EFA GMR, 2013/4).

Of the 75 million primary-aged children not in school, 55% are girls, roughly three-quarters live in sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia, and some 40 million are in conflict-affected countries or emerging states. Also, the sub-Saharan Africa region remains the furthest behind with the slowest progress towards achieving parity in primary and secondary education having 92 girls for every 100 boys at the primary education level and 84 girls for every 100 boys at the secondary level while East Asia and the Pacific reached parity (EFA GMR, 2015). According to EFA GMR (2013/4), as at 2011 only 60% of countries had achieved parity in primary education while a lower percentage of just 38% had achieved parity in secondary education. The result was even poorer among the low income countries with just 20% achieving gender parity at the primary level, 10% at the lower secondary level and 8% at the upper secondary level. The report further projected that, following the current trend, many countries will still not have reached gender parity by 2015 with just about 70% of the countries achieving it at the primary level and 56% at the lower secondary level.

The relationship between gender and poverty has also been identified as a potent source of exclusion, with the poorest girls being left behind in the educational progress. The effect of poverty on gender education especially in the sub-Saharan Africa will make the achievement of universal primary completion only to be achieved in 2069 for all poorest boys and in 2086 for all poorest girls (EFA GMR, 2013/4). The report has also shown that tens of millions more children drop out of school before grade five due to over- crowded, unsafe, poorly equipped and poorly managed schools and inadequately trained teachers. If current trends continue, 58 out of the 86 countries that have not yet achieved universal primary enrolment will fail to do so by 2015 (World Bank, 2014). Standing between these

children and the classroom is a lack of funding for quality basic education to help them overcome the barriers to school such as tuition fees, disabilities, lack of sanitation, and poorly qualified teachers. The U.S. and other world powers have been called upon to do more in supporting the developing countries towards the elimination of school fees and other barriers to education and work in closer partnership with poor countries that are committed to providing education for all children (World Bank, 2014).

Nigeria is bound by its commitments to the EFA goals, being one of the 164 countries that pledged their commitment to the World Policy on Education in 1990 at Jomtien. Nigeria was also at the Delhi Declaration, held on 16 December 1993, where leaders of nine most populous developing nations of the world agreed with the goals set in 1990 with the determination to implement the goals and make international collaboration to raise their support for the effort of these countries substantially to expand basic education services (Islam & Rahman, 2008). Also, Nigeria was among the 189 countries that assembled together in 2000 to adopt and sign the United Nations Millennium Declaration, committing themselves to its goals, particularly the areas that impact on education which is the subject matter of this work.

In spite of these commitments and duties on the part of the Nigerian government, and various steps being taken to give equal gender opportunity to education, studies have shown that Nigeria has the highest number of children out of school in the world and the education pendulum is swung to the male gender with the females still lagging behind in education. Moser (2014) reported that more than 10.5 million children are out of school in Nigeria, most of them (60%) from the northern part of the country and most of them girls. EFA Nigeria (2015) showed that about 49% of Nigeria's estimated population of over 162 million is female, out of which 38% lack formal education while only 25% is recorded for the males in this category. Also, 130 million children worldwide have no access to primary education of which 81 million are girls. More than 75% of the 3.4 million children out of school are girls. In 2009, around 35 million girls were still out of school compared to 31 million boys. In Nigeria, 4.5 million girls are out of school as against 4 million boys as at 2011 (Abdulrazaq, 2015).

Akindele (2014) identified some challenges facing Education for All and Education Related Millennium Development Goals in Nigeria to include limited access to schools; inadequate infrastructural facilities in schools; inadequate funds; inadequate, low quality and non-commitment of teachers; wastage; corruption; inappropriate planning and implementation; unstable/non-implementation of educational policies and increase in population. Geo-Jaja (2006) in his view submitted that one of the most challenging and pressing issues facing education policy-makers at local and global levels is the provision of an equitable and affordable quality education for all. But to Islam & Rahman (2008), the major problem is in the policy formulation as well as implementation stage, while to Okeshola (2012), the problem facing the delivery of education in Nigeria is several years of neglect compounded with inadequate attention to policy frameworks within the sector. Policy implementation is a big challenge due to inadequate budgetary allocations from the government at all levels, deep-rooted corruption, gross inefficiency and wastefulness. This study, therefore, assessed the achievement of gender equality under Education for All goals in Lagos State, Nigeria.

1.3 Research question

For better understanding of the situation in Lagos State, Nigeria, and as a guide to how far the issue has been addressed, the researcher sought answers to the following questions.

1.3.1 Main research question

To what extent has the implementation of gender equality under EFA goals been achieved in Lagos State, Nigeria?

1.3.2 Sub-research questions

- (i) In what ways do EFA goals address the issue of gender inequality in schools in Lagos State, Nigeria?
- (ii) What are the challenges facing the implementation of the gender equality goal in Lagos State, Nigeria?
- (iii) What are the implications of the gender equality goal for education policy making in Lagos State, Nigeria?

1.4 Objectives of the study

The purpose of this study was to assess the achievement of gender equality under EFA goals in Lagos State, Nigeria, and:

1. To find out how EFA goals eliminate gender inequality in schools in Lagos State, Nigeria.
2. To identify the challenges facing the implementation of the gender equality goal in Lagos State, Nigeria.
3. To establish the implications of the gender equality goal for education policy making in Nigeria.

1.5 Significance of the study

This study assessed the achievement of gender equality under the EFA goals in Lagos State, Nigeria. This type of research would help in identifying if the discrepancies between boys and girls in terms of access, participation and attainment in educational activities have levelled out within the schools in Lagos State. The study would help in identifying the level of achievement of the goal in the State. The findings of this study might also help to identify factors militating against the achievement of this goal, if any, in order to address them. By this way, this study would contribute to the understanding of gender equality in Nigerian schools.

The study would also contribute to the existing body of literature on girl-child education most especially in Lagos State, Nigeria, while identifying the various cultural factors, barriers, and challenges influencing the girl-child education as most existing literature is focused on the northern States of the country. Recommendations and suggestions from the study could be of benefit to all stakeholders (government, teachers, parents, students and the general public) in the education sector and bring the desired changes. The study could make direct inputs and provide general guidance or new insights indirectly into the decision-making processes, especially with the educational policy makers and the implementers for the results of the study can be used to systematically adjust the policy to guarantee the full access and participation of girls in education. In this manner, this study would benefit both national and international bodies in formulating and

implementing the policies on attaining education for all. This research study could also be an opener for further research in educational policy making and implementation.

1.6 Delimitation/scope of the study

The research study was conducted in Lagos State, Nigeria. It was limited to personnel in the institutions charged with the primary responsibility of delivering on Nigeria's EFA commitment in Lagos State; the State Universal Basic Education Commission (SUBEB), the Lagos State Ministry of Education, the Lagos State Education District and the National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education (NMEC). The study focused on the examination of the achievement of gender equality under EFA goals in Lagos State, Nigeria.

1.12 Assumptions of the study

This study was guided by the following assumptions:

- The participants have adequate knowledge of the phenomenon under study and are in the right position to participate in the study.
- Despite being civil servants and having pledged the oath of secrecy, the participants generally will be as honest as possible to give correct and adequate information, although some participants may not be forthcoming in answering some sensitive questions for fear of divulging official secrets.
- The participants represent the offices involved in implementation of the EFA goals, and thus the target population.
- The outcome of this study and subsequent recommendations may help in improving the girl-child's access to education, thereby closing the gender gap in the education attainment between males and females, and helping to achieve the goal of education for all.

1. 7 Definition of key terms

- **Education:** the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values necessary for people to survive, to improve the quality of their lives, and to continue learning. In addition, education is the method of transmitting accumulated knowledge, skill and values from one generation to another in a society. Education can also be defined as a

learned experience or act that influences the character, worldview or physical ability of a person. It can also simply be described as “the process of acquiring knowledge about something”, “process of learning”, “being empowered”. In this study, education refers to the process an individual uses to seek knowledge to improve his or her quality of life.

- **Educational policy:** General principles, regulations and rules governing, influencing and determining the decisions on how to educate the children, where to get them educated, where to get them employed, who to teach them and how to finance their education. In the study, it refers to rules and regulations guiding education and educational outcomes.
- **EFA:** Education for All (EFA) is a global movement towards the provision of education for every one led by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). The term will be used as such in the study.
- **EFA goals:** a global commitment to provide quality basic education for all children. The goals of EFA are to provide education to all people, including children, youth, and adults. The term will be used as the global agreement reached at the World Education Forum of Dakar, Senegal, in the year 2000 towards making education available and accessible to every individual worldwide with no discrimination in terms of race, colour, location, religion or gender.
- **Gender:** the behavioural and attitudinal differences of feminine and masculine aspects of varied personalities. It is not limited only to biological sex, but also includes the roles, responsibilities, attributes, attitudes and factors that differentiate males and females, and what it entails to either be a male or a female and their relationship with each other. The term will be used with same assumption in the study.
- **Gender equality:** the establishment of equal benefit of opportunities and equal chances of participation, success, for both men and women in realizing their full potential, and not hindering their individual ambitions, aspirations and roles irrespective of being born a male or female. In the study it will denote giving equal educational opportunities and chance of participation to both boys and girls.

- **Girl-child:** a female child born to the family, community, society or nation. In the Nigerian context, girl-child has been defined as a person below 14 years of age; a biological female offspring below 18 years of age or a young female person. For this study a girl-child is simply a young female child.
- **Policy implementation:** the process of interactions between the setting of goals and the actions geared to achieving them. For this study, it is the achievement of gender equality under education for all goals.

1.8 Outline of the study

The study is organised in five chapters:

The foregoing chapter covers the introduction and overview of the study. It lays the foundation for the research work and includes the statement of the research problem, the research questions, the research objectives, purpose of the study, significance of the study, delimitations of the study, limitations of the study and definition of the operational terms.

Chapter two expounds the theoretical framework that underpins the study and the review of related literature to provide a more detailed context for the research work. The researcher reviews literatures related to gender education and achievement of equality to provide enough information and evidence to which the findings of this study may be correlated and validated.

Chapter three presents all the processes involved in the designing, collection and analysis of the data for the study. The justification for the research methodology, design, approach, methods and instruments are discussed here.

Chapter four contains the presentation, analysis and interpretations of the data collected. Emerging units of meanings and themes are analysed and recorded.

Chapter five has the summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations based on the findings.

1.9 Summary

Education has been identified as a very important tool in the empowerment of the individual which will help in enhancing the socio-economic power of the individual, irrespective of the gender, and the society at large. There was therefore a global consensus for states to make the provision of free and accessible education available to its citizens as a fundamental human right irrespective of gender, ethnicity, social status, colour or political affiliations. This consensus was acceded to by various countries through the signing and implementation of policies and initiatives geared towards the achievement of the Education for All goals. Nigeria was one of the countries that signed this consensus. The succeeding chapter focused on a broad review of available literature to gain a deeper insight and understanding of issues on girl child education and factors influencing gender balancing in education.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the review of relevant literature regarding the achievement of gender equality in education based on the consultation of local as well as international sources. The chapter is in two sections, the first focusing on the theoretical framework underpinning the study and the second focusing on the review of the relevant literature.

2.2 Theoretical framework

There are two theories that are apposite to this study; on the issue of implementation - the Top-down theory while on the effect of implementation is the social justice praxis theory and social justice theory.

2.2.1 Top-down theory

This theory was advocated by Popple (1995), Cooksey and Kikula (2005), Hill (2011). According to Hill (2011), the top-down theory is based on the assumption that the policy implementation begins with the decisions taken by the central government with clear objectives. In line with this is the system theory, which puts public policy as input and policy implementation as output. The policy objectives which are often unclear or sometimes contradictory in reality but are assumed to be clear at all levels of the chain of command are being carried out by the designated arm of the government. The theory put a minimal or no focus on the lower officials, though it is generally acknowledged an ideal theory, seeking perfect implementation (Chompucot, 2011).

A classic rational model, which is based on the top-down theory, is considered an ideal model. It is based on the assumption that for policy implementation to be effective is dependent on the good plans, control, clear objectives and mission, system of reward and punishment, work standards, and evaluation system put in place. Critics of the model however claim it is too idealistic - not considering the roles of the implementers of the policy (Chompucot, 2011). They argue that policy outcomes are not necessarily related to policy objectives, that policy implementation should actually begin with the implementer (at the bottom) level since the bottom level staff are more aware and know more about

problems than the top level staff. EFA goals are clear education policies that should guide the implementers to accomplish the policy goals.

While the top-down theory explains the issues of implementation of the EFA goals, it does not deal with the effects of the implementation of the policy. Consequently, social justice theory is however adopted as a complimentary theoretical tool to address the theoretical gap in top-down theory. The social justice theory and the social justice praxis theory as products of implementation are therefore fully discussed to provide a detailed theoretical framework that helps in contextualizing the study.

2.2.2 Social justice theory

Social justice is a complex term, and this has made it extremely difficult to conceptualize. Novak (2000:1) agreed with this when he argued that “whole books and treaties have been written about social justice without ever offering a definition of it. It is allowed to float in the air as if everyone will recognize an instance of it when it appears”. While commenting on the difficulty in conceptualizing social justice, Rizvi (1998:47) viewed that “the immediate difficulty one confronts when examining the idea of social justice is the fact that it does not have a single essential meaning – it is embedded within the discourses that are historically constituted and that are sites of conflicting and divergent political endeavours”. The difficulty in giving all-encompassing and inclusive definitions of social justice presents a formidable challenge to policy makers in coming up with educational policy and programmes that would help in ensuring fairness and justice in all spheres of the school system.

This point was buttressed by Moule (2005) when she stated that social justice was prioritized in education programmes and policies, but the fundamental bottleneck and challenge to most education administrators is how it would be implemented and enforced. She added that having prioritized social justice in education policy making processes, the next question is: which agent(s) of the government should be responsible or held accountable for the implementation and enforcement of the policies and programmes? To him, this challenge emanates from lack of proper conceptualization of the ideology of social justice in education. Hytten and Buttez (2011:9) argued that due to uncertainty

surrounding the denotation of social justice in education, stakeholders in education have exhibited different “level of commitment” towards achieving the goal of education for all.

Similarly, Zollers, Albert and Cochran-Smith (2000) submitted that complicated and differing opinions among educators regarding the constitution of social justice as well as understanding of its ideals and precepts undermine the efficacy of educational programmes designed consciously and purposively for achieving social justice in education. They said most policy makers in education agreed on the ideals of just, equity and fairness, but they disagreed on the appropriate approaches or methods for achieving these three ‘ideals’. For instance, most education planners and administrators strongly agreed that “fairness is the sine-qua-non of a socially just society” (Zollers et al., 2000:5).

However, what constitutes fairness was interpreted differently. They also vehemently believed that change was crucial and critical in education for social justice (like deconstruction of the existing knowledge system that favoured the education of certain groups in the society at the expense of others). But they are often at loggerheads on what form, patterns and direction that social change should take. Who should initiate change? How and who should deconstruct and reconstruct new thinking about education for the purpose of achieving the goal of education for all? According to Hytten and Bettez (2011:10), given that there is both confusion and conceptual looseness in the social justice literature, one thing that seems useful is to get a better sense of how people are calling upon the idea and the range of priorities and visions they hold. It is difficult to sort through the social justice literature with any real confidence as so many different discourses and theoretical movements claim social justice visions, sometimes centrally and sometimes peripherally.

Scholars and practitioners in the field of education consider social justice as the fundamental objective of schooling, and it should serve as the benchmark for evaluating and assessing the effectiveness of schooling in every socio-cultural context (Marshall & Oliva, 2006; Micheli & Keiser, 2005). Many schools today in virtually all social contexts have been incorporating the concept of social justice in their mission statements and long-term objectives (Hytten & Bettez, 2011). According to Murphy (1999:54), social justice is one of the “three powerful synthesizing paradigms” in educational administration in our

contemporary society. As maintained by Hytten and Bettez (2011:7-8), “the phrase social justice is used in school mission statements, job announcements and educational reform proposals, though sometimes widely disparate ones, from creating a vision of culturally responsive schools to leaving no child behind”. Most scholars are unanimous in their belief that schools should be an arena of equality of opportunities.

However, in spite of the relative importance of the term ‘social justice’ in school reform and administration, social exclusion and seclusion of certain groups, mostly girls, are still persisting in our society. As argued by Michelli and Keiser (2005:xix), any school administrator that based his/her school programme on social justice “is increasingly seen as superfluous, complicating, and even threatening by some policy makers and pressure groups who increasingly see any curriculum not tied to basic literacy or numeracy as disposable and inappropriate”. It cannot be gain-said that school curriculum should be influenced or determined by social justice. This is one of the essential conditions or criteria for evaluating how democratic a political or civil society is.

Put differently, achieving social justice in schools is fundamental and central to every democratic society. As stated by Hytten and Buttez (2011:8), the centrality and significance of social justice in education cannot be over-emphasised, and the role of democratic government should be “providing education for all, irrespective of gender, ethnic, religion, race, socio-demographic and any other graded social markers”. In this section, different and divergent theoretical arguments and positions on social justice in education would be systematically reviewed and analysed within the context of the research questions and objectives of this study.

2.2.3 A review of social justice discourse in education

The term ‘social justice’ is generally used to include social, economic, cultural, civil and political rights. The social justice framework is an approach directed at correcting/ resisting the unfairness and inequity in the society by promoting freedom and possibility for all. It focuses attention on how people, policies, practices, curricula, and institutions can be used for liberating rather than oppressing the least served by decision making. Social justice could be referred to as the rational and objective relation between the individual and the society with issues relating to the distribution of wealth, opportunities

for personal activity and social privileges stated in unambiguous and equitable terms (Banai; Ronzoni & Schemmel, 2011). The coining of the term has been credited to a Jesuit priest - Luigi Taparelli - in the 1840s which later spread during the revolutions of 1848 with the work of Antonio Rosmini-Serbat (Clark, 2015).

Social justice has been described as establishing an ideal balance between the joint responsibilities of a society and the responsibilities of individuals in it to contribute to a just society (Ho, 2011). However, there is the issue of where the ideal balance lies? It has also been described as efforts to: (i) increase fairness in the distribution of resources (in the educational sector, this means to ensure equity in terms of availability, accessibility, acceptability and quality); (ii) promote values that recognize all people as equal by ending discrimination against all groups; and (iii) involve people to participate in policy and implementation processes that affect their lives, and being transparent and accountable with how decisions are made and the impact on the society (Klugman, 2011:147).

There has also been a universal form of social justice taught by the world's great religions like Buddhism, Christianity, Judaism and Islam which laid emphasis on the importance of universal human value by encouraging sharing, equal treatment, not benefitting at the expense of others, especially the disadvantaged groups in society, the evils of greed, and rulers being righteous, fair and just to their people (Baldry & McCausland, 2008). But the failure of the religious institutions to put in practice what they preached also created a form of hierarchy with women and the lower classes being at the receiving end. The paucity of a single essential meaning of the term usually give policy makers difficulties when putting ideas into practice at the implementation level and this mostly leads to uneven levels of commitment. Questions are usually raised with differing views of what social justice meant, for example, (i) What is fairness in the society? (ii) What are the loci of change in the society? (iii) What constitute rights and liberties in a society? Scanning through the works of some of the classical and contemporary philosophers under the banner of social justice may help in examining the concept and its importance in achieving gender equality in education in the society⁶.

⁶ Educational policies and programs are now being set up to bring out the importance of social justice in their mission, yet in practical terms it is often unclear how this influences the outcome of such programs. There is a kind of

2.2.4 Classical contributions to the social justice discourse in education

It is pertinent to start classical contributions to the social justice discourse with the philosophical contributions of Socrates to our understanding of social justice in human society. Socrates was one of the foremost Greek philosophers. He espoused that individuals in a state of nature are inadequate to satisfy their individual needs. Each individual thought that if he/she forms a civil society with other members, his/her needs would be met. According to Socrates “a city...comes into being because each of us isn’t sufficient but is in need of much...So, then, when one man takes on another for one need and another for another need, and, since many things are needed, many men gather in one settlement as partners and helpers, to this common settlement, we give the name city” (369 BC). Thus, individuals believed that in a political society he/she would enjoy equal opportunities to common goods, such as education. He implicitly argued that denial of certain sections of a civil society the ultimate rights to education represents a violation of collective agreement from the part of the government. This means that it is the moral and legal responsibility of the government to achieve the goal of education for all in a civil society.

The contribution of Plato to the social justice discourse was contained in his book entitled “The Republic”. Plato viewed social justice as being lawful and fair. In The Republic, Plato advocated for equal opportunities for women. Although he agreed that women are the weaker sex, they should have equal opportunities (educational opportunities as men).

pretentious commitment to social justice in education with the general belief that schools should help to provide equality of opportunity for everyone but rather than resolving the patterns of social segregation and oppression of the larger society, schools often reproduce them. There also exist real disparities in access to social and institutional power between relationally positioned group members in the educational settings (Sensoy & DiAngelo, 2009). However, there are some backlashes against its use in schools due to its debatable, ambiguous, and ideologically weighted nature. Some of the critiques argue that education beached on a pledge to justice and the cultivation of democratic citizenship “is increasingly seen as superfluous, complicating, and even threatening by some policymakers and pressure groups who increasingly see any curriculum not tied to basic literacy or numeracy as disposable and inappropriate” (Michelli & Keiser, 2005, cited in Hytten & Bettez, 2011:8).

Nonetheless, there are various scholars (Counts’ (1932); Bell (1997); Hackman (2005); Murrell (2006) cited by Hytten & Bettez, 2011:8) who argued ardently and centered social justice issues in their work for their centrality to schooling in a democratic society. In recent years, the social justice has been adopted as a purpose of the human rights education by the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action, 1993. The declaration affirms that “Human rights education should include peace, democracy, development and social justice, as set forth in international and regional human rights instruments, in order to achieve common understanding and awareness with a view to strengthening universal commitment to human rights” (Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action, 1993).

They should have equal and fair access to social good as men. They should not be hindered from reaching the pinnacle of the social political order of society. He argued that they are only weak in body, but not in soul. It is within the soul that intelligence and virtuosity resides. There is no moral justification as to why women should not be virtuous and intelligent. He said it is through education that women develop their potential intelligence and virtuosity. A society that denies women access to education is an unjust and unfair one. He upholds the notion that in a just society there should be commonality of responsibilities between men and women, and the only way that this could be achieved was through equal educational opportunities (Plato, 1992:125-131). Plato appeared to assert that giving women the chance to be educated is an alienable right for women and it is one of the basics of the common goods (Plato, 1975, 1981, 1987, 1992).

Subsequently, Aristotle's contribution to the social justice discourse was contained in his "*Nicomachean Ethics*". To Aristotle, social justice denotes fairness. His main strong point was redistributive social justice, which implies a political community must ensure that the burdens and benefits are distributed equally among members. To him, social justice cannot be said to have been achieved when some sections of a society are favoured at the expense of others. If this argument is correct, then blocking women's access to school amounts to unfairness. Notwithstanding, the place of women in society within the context of Aristotelian conception is at divergence with his conception of what social justice denotes. Aristotle also espoused the idea of corrective justice to denote the social injustices perpetrated against certain groups in a society in the past. Going by this, the historical denial of women's right to education should be corrected by radicalizing their inclusion and enrolment into schools so as to reduce, as quickly as possible, gender disparity and inequalities in educational opportunities. However, it should be noted that Aristotle was not completely egalitarian, unlike Plato (Aristotle, 1991, 1998).

While Plato emphasised equality of opportunities, Aristotle advocated for the proportionality of opportunities (Aristotle, 1999: 67-74, 76). He critiqued democracy as inherently unjust because it tends to treat unequals as equals. The point of Aristotle is that access to education should be determined on the basis of abilities and potentialities of members of a political society (a polis). He said men are naturally superior while women

are naturally inferior. To Aristotle, social justice is distribution of the society's resources 'according to merit', that is, sharing and distribution of resources should be fair and appropriate based on the individuals' position on the hierarchical social order. Individuals are to get resources based on their social status or position in the society; unequals in the social hierarchy are to be treated unequally (Ho, 2011). However, policy-makers still find hitches with the application of Aristotelian conception of social justice for its failure to address what constitutes appropriateness and what measures to use in determining proportionality, equality and merit in the allocation of society's resources. This theory works within the social structures of the society rather than challenging it (Ho, 2011).

Augustine argued that a just society is one that is based on the idea of equality. He maintained that every human being is equal. Nobody should be placed above others (Augustine, 1984:874-875). Another classical contributor to social justice discourse was Thomas Aquinas. Aquinas' (1947, 1988) conception of justice was contained in his book entitled "*Summa Theologica*". Just like Aristotle, he advocated for proportionality in opportunities in a civil society. He said natural law must take precedence over human law. Social good, like education, should be based on human naturally endowed capacity. God does not create everybody intelligent or virtuous. There is a degree of intelligence. He argued for the application of the principle of proportionality in the distribution of common goods, like educational opportunities in society (Aquinas, 1988:137). By his principle of proportionality, he asserted that women should be subjects of men politically and economically because women are "defective and misbegotten" (Aquinas, 1947: 466-467). Given them equal opportunities as men amounts to injustice to men because they are no match to men. This is what he called 'excess justice' to women and 'deficient justice' to men, both of which imply social injustices (Augustine, 1959, 1984, 1993, 1994).

Hobbes' (1994) contribution to social justice discourse is in his book entitled "*The Leviathan*". According to Hobbes, individuals willingly surrendered their natural right to a group of people or a person because they realized that they could not attain their purpose in a state of nature. By transferring their natural rights to the Leviathan, they expected security of lives and property and fair distribution of the common good, among which is education. We can see that a civil society is contractual (Hobbes, 1994: 261-262). Men

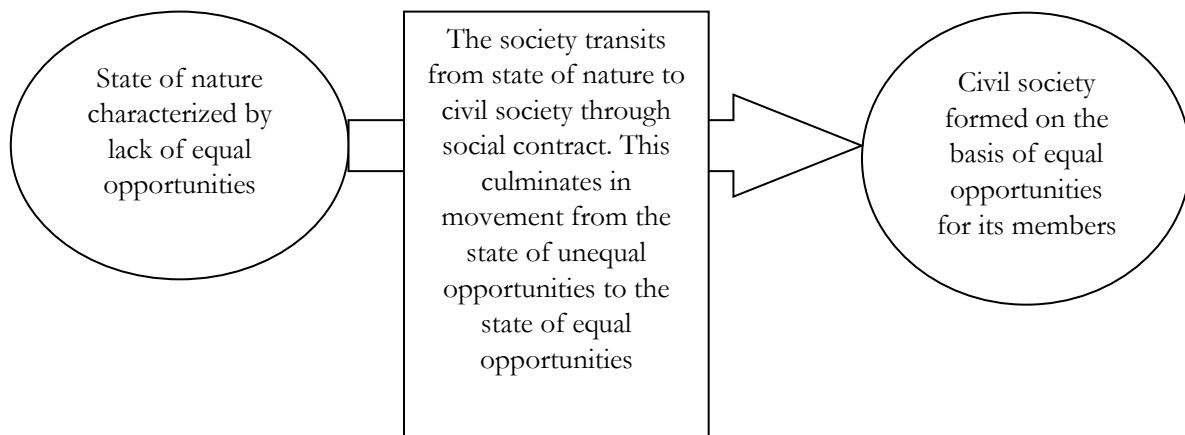
are living in a state of nature which is naturally unjust. Only the strong survived through tramping on the weak. The unjustness of the state of nature made people surrender their natural rights to the Leviathan (body of individuals or an individual). During the process of establishing civil society through contracts, agreements were struck on how to share the common good in society, and such agreements were bounded on all members or parties involved. Locke's (1980) contribution to this discourse was contained in his book entitled "Second Treaties of Government". Also, Rousseau (2003) in his work entitled "Social Contract" added his philosophical inputs to this discourse of social justice.

Hume (1994, 1983), in his works on "Essay" and "Enquiry Concerning the Principle of Morals", argued that the political leaders of civil society should provide public utility, for instance education for all its members. To Hume, this is the heart of justice. However, he conceded that perfect egalitarianism is impracticable, unachievable and even pernicious to the social fabric of society. Thus, government should strive to provide nearly perfect equal opportunities for all members of a civil society. Kant's (1963, 1991, 1994, 1999) contribution was evident in his work entitled "Grounding for the Metaphysics of Morals". In this work, Kant used the concept of *Rechtslehre*, which literally means 'doctrine of rights', 'doctrine of justice' or 'doctrine of law'. Using Kantian exposition of the concept of justice, it could be argued that since education is a right, every member should have access to it irrespective of gender, ethnicity, and other qualifications. It is the right of members and it is the duty of civil society to provide this unfettered right for its members.

Mill (1962, 1963, 1988, 1997) established the tradition of utilitarianism. Mill proposed the "principle of utility", which he later called "greatest happiness" (Mill, 1962:33-34). Based on this principle, government should provide greatest happiness to the greatest number of people.

Applying this Mill's conception of social justice to this study implies that government should make education accessible and affordable to greatest number of its citizens, including women. In essence, with the provision of education to all citizen on equal basis, the society could be changed from the state of nature characterized by lack of equal opportunities to a civil society formed on the basis of equal opportunities for its members as illustrated in Fig 2.1.

Figure 2. 1: Modelling Social Contract Theory in Education



Source: Author's conceptions

Mill rejected the notion of equality as one of the components of social justice discourse. Perhaps he thought that human beings have varied abilities and potentialities. In his “The Subjection of Women”, he asserted that “the principle which regulates the existing social relations between the two sexes – the legal subordination of one sex to the other – is wrong in itself, and now one of the chief hindrances to human improvement; and that it ought to be replaced by a principle of perfect equality, admitting no power or privilege on the one side, no disability on the other” (Mill, 1997:1, 26, 101). This denotes that he called for equal opportunities. Unlike the contemporary feminist scholars who are agitating for human rights for women, Mill solicited for the maximization of “human happiness” and freedom “that makes life valuable” (Mill, 1997:1, 26,101).

Marx (1994) contributed to the social justice discourse. Rizvi (1998) argued that Marx took social democratic perspectives in his exposition of social justice discourse. By social democratic perspective, Rizvi (1998) means that Marx argued that social justice could be said to have been achieved when the needs and interests of various groups that made up society have been fairly and adequately satisfied. A society cannot be said to be just and fair on its members when certain social groups are alienated, marginalized or discriminated against. He also linked this analysis of social justice discourse to his analysis of societal evolution. For instance, in capitalism, Marx highlighted two social

groups: the bourgeoisie and the proletariat. The bourgeoisie are the owners of the means of production and distribution. They employ labour, and paid them what Marx regarded as “subsistence wage”.

On the other hand, the proletariats are the working class. They own no property and no factories. They only have their labour to offer in exchange for what Marx referred to as a “subsistence wage”. The relevance of Marx’s analysis of social justice in our contemporary educational system is quite evident. The school system has become capitalistic to the extent that the poor and the under-privileged have been structurally denied the opportunities of schooling. Most students dropped out of the school because of the inability of their parents to pay school fees and other educational charges. In Marx’s view, the actualization of social justice in education would be a “tall dream” in as much as the “capitalistic mode” is the dominant socio-economic order of our contemporary society. Going by Marx’s analysis, it could be surmised that socialist principles have to be entrenched in place of the capitalist system (Marx, 1994).

While reflecting on the classical contribution to the social justice discourse, Hytten and Bettez (2011:11-12) stated that:

As this strand of writing is primarily philosophical, it relies heavily on offering broad criteria, principles, and constructs for thinking about justice. For instance, we could see justice as a matter of distribution (how to do we equitably allocated resources and rewards), recognition (how do we create conditions in which all cultural ways of being are valued), opportunities (how do we ensure a level playing field for competition), and for outcome (how do we make certain that successes are fairly distributed in relation to populations). The goals in this strand of social justice work include defining terms, making distinctions, offering categories, grounding claims and tracing their implication.

2.2.5 Neo-classical contributions of social justice discourse in education

Counts (1932) contributed significantly to the idea of social justice in school administration. He called all principal stakeholders, such as school administrators, teachers, government, non-governmental organisations, and the parents, among others, to work harmoniously to produce a new social order in school that would be based on

equity, fairness, and justice. Also John Dewey argued that the school curriculum and education should be grounded “in a rich and participatory vision of democracy” (Hyttén & Buttez, 2011:8). What this denotes is that educational policies and programmes should be such that they provide fair and just social space as well as empowering less-privileged or marginalized segments of the society, especially the poor and women. To Dewey, the goal of education should be promotion of access to education and removal of impediments to equitable opportunities to schooling. In other words, policy makers in education should design education policies and programmes that would facilitate the deconstruction of social landscapes and mindscapes that hinder the attainment of an equitable and just society through education.

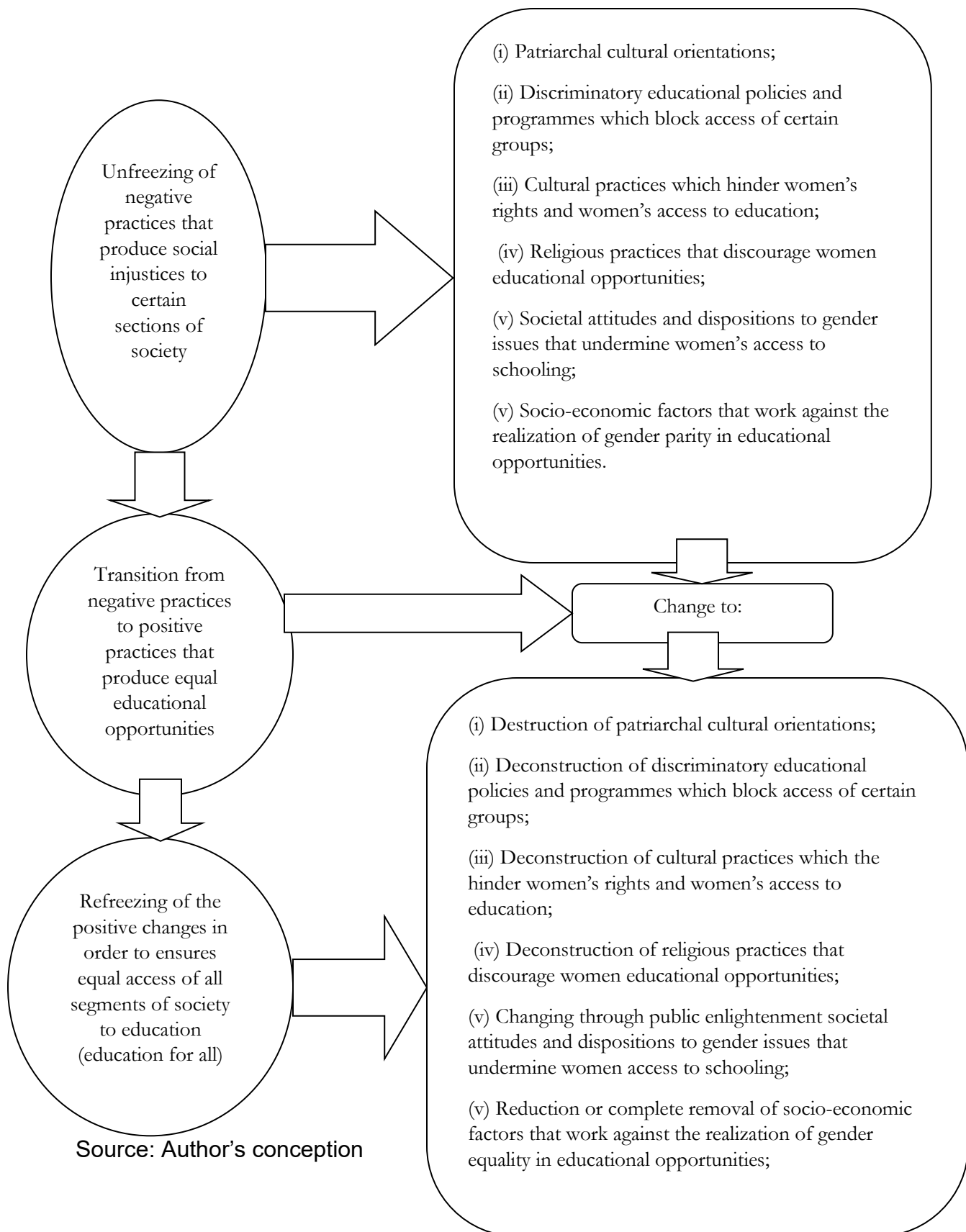
The restoration, re-entrenchment and maintenance of social equality and social justice in human societies was Kurt Lewin (1890-1947) main concern and focus thus he set forth an argument within the framework of social justice for overcoming any form of detrimental judgments or actions against out-groups or racial groups. His work (“3-Step Model”) on three-model of social change though not overtly a model of social justice in the real sense has bearing in the sociological analysis of social justice. This was contained in his “Unfreeze-Change-Freeze” theory. This model offers a high-level framework to change. It offers an approach to implement a change effort by the change agent (government in this case) in a way that is as smooth as possible (Morrison, 2014).

(1) Unfreeze – “ready to change”. Unfreezing means getting people to drop old habits, beliefs or ways of doing things and pick up new ways of reaching their objectives. In the educational sector, it means dropping the patriarchal injustices in school to allow equal opportunities for all irrespective of gender. To set the wheels of change in motion, the practices and processes on ground had to be reassessed. Change – “implementation”.

(2) This involves putting in place new policies (social justice). This change process needs to be dynamic for it to be effective and may probably take time to get adopted. It could be seen as a form of investment of time and resources to attain an enhanced effectiveness within the system. With regards to this research work, these are the policies and programmes put in place by the government to achieve the targeted gender equality goal of the EFA by the year 2015.

(3) Freeze (sometimes called refreeze) - “making it stick”. This is the consolidation or strengthening of the implementation process. The change process put in place has to be made permanent for it to have an effect. All efforts must be put in place to strengthen them and make them the new norms in the society. The Nigeria constitution has made education to be free and compulsory for all citizens especially at the basic education level, the provision of which is a duty of the government. Though there had been studies (Otomiewo, 2011; Onwuameze, 2013; Akindele, 2014) reporting negligence of this duty on the part of the government at all levels, the free and compulsory basic education up to Junior Secondary School has been declared as an enforceable right for every Nigerian child by a Federal High Court in Abuja recently. The diagrammatical application of Lewin’s three model to social justice in education is illustrated in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2. 2: Applying Kurt Lewin's Three Model to Social Justice in Education



John Rawls's contribution was contained in his work entitled "A Theory of Justice"⁷ (2005). In this work, Rawls asserted that justice denotes fairness. His concept of "initial situation" or "the original position" is considered seminal in the discourse of justice. Also, "the veil of ignorance" is also considered a major contribution to social justice discourse. According to Rawls, "Veil of Ignorance" is a hypothetical device that allows one to limit his/her inbuilt selfishness so as to do what is just and fair. For instance, policy makers should employ the device of veil of ignorance while formulating educational policies and programmes that would achieve the goal of inclusiveness (education for all). In the idea of "original position", a policy maker in education that adopts this concept would make a just and fair policy since he/she does not know where he/she would fall in society. For instance, if his/her policies or programmes serve the interest of certain sections at the expense of other sections in society, he may eventually fall into the category of those sections whose policies were not favoured. If, for instance, a policy maker is a female, and she formulated long term policies that favour only males she will later be affected by those policies.

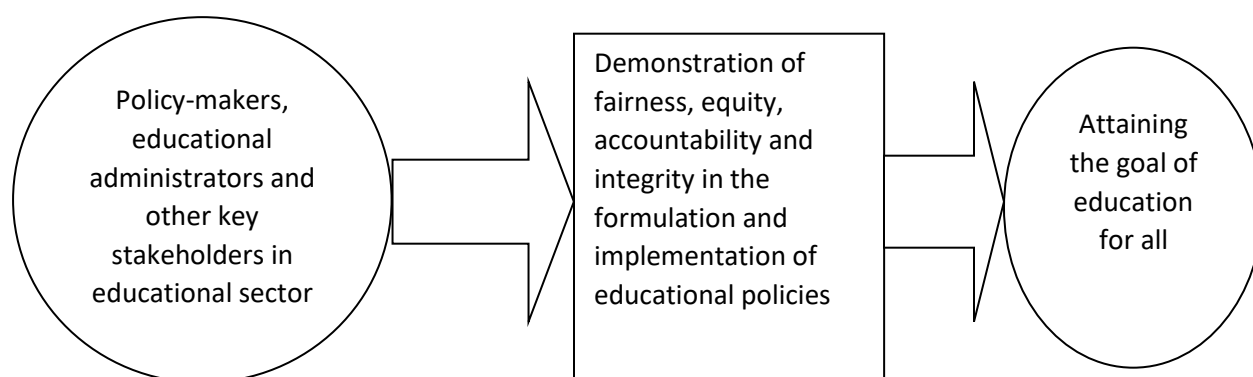
Rawls (2005) asserted that the central feature of social justice is fairness. Scholars, such as Hytten and Bettez (2011:11) argued that Rawls offered an individualist and liberal view of social justice. They justified their conclusion on Rawls' contribution to the discourse of social justice on the following basis: "first, each person is entitled to as much freedom as possible as long as others share the same freedom. Second, social goods should be distributed as equally as possible, with inequalities being allocated in a way that benefits the least privileged members of society" (Rawls, 1996, 1999,2005). Based on the liberal individualist perspective, it could be safely argued that within the context of education,

⁷ Using John Rawls's theory of justice as a moral basis for thinking about current education policy choices and a means of finding balance among competing interests in the education debates, John (2007) identified three principles:

- Principle 1 has to do with the basic rights which all individuals have in a democratic society. The adoption of the UDHR and other international treaties has given education a universally accepted right (Otomiewo, 2011; UNESCO, 2014; UNICEF, 2016), and in Nigeria equal access to education irrespective of gender should be a right.
- Principle 2 deals with equal opportunity, that if there is any inequality it should be in favour of the most disadvantaged. The historic emphasis on equal opportunity in school integration and student aid are some of the examples of this approach in education policy.
- Principle 3, the Just Savings Principle, has to do with cross-generation equity, which includes the use of taxation to support education. Provision for free and compulsory education for all citizens is a duty of the government (FRN, 2011) so it is important to balance taxpayer costs with concerns about equity and basic rights in education.

every member (whether you are male or female) should be seen as a free individual, and should be treated equally. Also, all members of a given society should have unhindered access to education, which is considered as one of the most critical social goods in every democratic and civil society. Thus, the disqualification or prevention of certain social groups in the society from access and admission into schools amounts to social injustice. The application of Rawlsian position to social justice of attaining education for all is illustrated in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2. 3: Applying Rawlsian veil of ignorance and original position to social justice in education



Source: Author's conception

Nozick's work (1976) on the discourse of social justice was contained in his work on "Anarchy State, and Utopia", particularly in his chapter on "Distributive Justice". Nozick (1976) opposed this view of social justice. To him, access to social goods should be proportional to or determined by the efforts of each member of society. He challenged the notion of Rawls that all members should be free and entitled to social goods. Nozick viewed that this notion would encourage not only laziness, but also social injustices. By social injustices, he meant that giving similar opportunities to weak and indolent members of a given society as strong and agile members of a given society amount to social injustices for the hardworking, agile and strong members of the society. He maintained that the basis for distribution of social good should be fair and just. While commenting on the contribution of Nozick (1976), Rizvi (1998:49) viewed that it is "the justice of the competition – that is, the way competition was carried out and not its outcome – that

counts". Thus, going by Nozick's contribution, it can be argued that access to education should be based on the level of commitment and potential educational skills of members of society. The discourse of Nozick on social justice implies that education is meant only for those who display the potentials of learning; and since not all members of society have potential literacy abilities, education cannot be said to be for all unless society can motivate its members to show more commitment to the pursuit of education.

Nielsen (1979) supported the Marxist conception of Marxism on social justice in education. He emphasised implicitly the adoption of socialist principles in the distribution of the common good. He believed strongly in the ideology of egalitarianism. To him, government should work for the common good. It should be noted that Nielsen should be regarded as a Marxist humanist for his commitment to equality of opportunities in the sharing of the common good. Sandel (1982) took a communitarian perspective of social justice. He argued implicitly that education for all should be instituted and entrenched in civil society in as much as it would serve the communitarian good. His view was contained in his work entitled "Liberalism and the Limits of Justice". To deny some people, such as women, the right to education, would not do the community any good (Sandel, 1982:60-65). Pogge's (1994) work entitled "An Egalitarian Law of Peoples" emphasised the principle of distributive justice in the sharing of community goods. To him, this is crucial in addressing structural inequality in society.

Moreover, Nussbaum (1999) contributed to the discourse of social justice in her "Sex and Social Justice". She advocated for the feminist interpretation of social justice. She canvassed for women's equality and women's human rights. She argued that women were discriminated against in all spheres, particularly in education, health, policies, employment, interpersonal relations, among others. According to her, in the name of social justice, these have to be addressed as urgently as possible (Nussbaum, 1999:24). Boylan (2004) reflected on social justice in his work entitled "A Just Society". To him, there are two levels of basic goods in human society. The first level comprises of food, clothing and shelter that are vital for human survival. The second level involves basic skills and knowledge that are gotten through education. This second level is important for the functioning of individuals in society. Thus, a society that fails to provide these two

levels to its members is described as unjust. He argued that it is the moral and legal duty for a democratic society to provide basic goods to all its members on the basis of objectively equal criteria (Boylan, 2004:53-54).

2.2.6 Contemporary contributions to the social justice discourse in education

Young (1990) contributed to our understanding of social justice in education in his work entitled “Justice and the Politics of Difference”. This work was rooted in philosophical and political theory. Young’s ideology of social justice in education was particularly influenced by his determination to contribute to the discourse aimed at empowering the ‘vulnerables’ or the ‘underprivileged’ in human society, such as women, blacks, American Indians, gays and lesbians. She attempted at “clarifying the meaning of concepts and issues, describing and explaining social relations, and articulating and defending ideals and principles” (Young, 1990:5).

Young commenced her contribution to the discourse of social justice by challenging the whole philosophical ideas and ideals of distributive justice. To her, the notion of distributive justice does not address the inherent structural and systemic social inequalities in our contemporary society. Having critically engaged the concept of distributive justice, she then turned her attention to the cause of social inequalities and oppression in human society. She argued that oppression and systemic and structural inequalities are consequences of hegemonic or ill-conceived policies and procedures. Thus, gender disparity in education that most non-Western societies are currently facing today are rooted in hegemonic institutions and policies, which were either consciously or unconsciously formulated and implemented to favour certain social groups in society at the expense of others. These hegemonic policies and programmes produce structural and systemic social inequalities, particularly between male and female, and racial and ethnic groups in society in terms of access and admission to schools. Young (1990:41) stated that the causes of oppression “are embedded in unquestioned norms, habits and symbols, in the assumptions underlying institutional rules and the collective consequences of those rules”.

According to Bell (1997:3), social justice is “both a process and a goal” with the central goal of achieving “full and equal participation of all groups in a society that is mutually

shaped to meet their needs". Hackman (2005:103) added that "social justice education encourages students to take an active role in their education and supports teachers in creating, empowering, democratic, and critical educational environments". Similarly, Murrell (2006:81) maintained that social justice has to do with "a disposition toward recognizing and eradicating all forms of oppression and differential treatment extant in the practices and policies of institutions, as well as a fealty to participatory democracy as the means of this action".

Reflecting on the above assertion, it could be logically asserted that the school environment should be the centre of social justice where girls and boys, children of the rich and children of the poor, black students and white students and members of different ethnic groups meet as "one big family". This assertion was corroborated by Hytten and Bettez (2011:8) when they said that "there are multiple discourses that educators draw upon when claiming a social justice orientation. These include democratic education, critical pedagogy, multi-culturalism, feminism, queer theory, anti-oppressive education, cultural studies, post-colonialism, globalization, and critical race theory. While often these are overlapping and interconnected discourses, this is not always the case, and the strength that might come from dialogue across seemingly shared visions can be compromised".

Lynch and Baker (2005:132) argued that the hallmark of social justice in education is the creation and provision of the equal conditions and treatments for all. They added that the equality of conditions and treatments should permeate the following: "resources; respect and recognition; love, care and solidarity; power; and working and learning". In the same vein, Carlisle, Jackson and George (2006:57-61) stressed that what makes a just school are: (i) promotion of social inclusion and equity; (ii) maintenance of mutual relationships with the host community; (iii) using a wide approach in the process of enrolment and recruitment of staff. This argument was echoed in the earlier analysis of Micheli and Keiser (2005:51) when they asserted that promotion of social inclusion and equity is enough for achieving the goal of education for all in any socio-cultural setting. Bettez (2008:276) listed seven fundamental skills and dispositions that a policy maker or social activist needs in his/her pursuit of the attainment of social justice in education. They are:

“(1) promoting a mind/body connection, (2) conducting artful facilitation that promotes critical thinking, (3) engaging in explicit discussions of power, privilege, and oppression, (4) maintaining compassion for students, (5) believing that change toward social justice is possible, (6) exercising self-care, and (7) building critical communities”.

Kozol (1967, 2005) presented an ethnographic and journalistic account of social injustice in schools. His accounts of social inequities in American schools were contained in his books entitled “Death at an Early Age” and “The Shame of the Nation”. In these books, he offered a chronology of social injustices perpetrated against children in some American public schools. He demonstrated how educational opportunities were deliberately hindered for certain children, especially the African Americans. Also, in another book entitled “Savage Inequalities”, Kozol (1991) expatiated and documented the lived experiences of children in poor and black neighbourhoods. He said their stories were stories of blocked opportunities to education; and that the basis of placement and enrolment into public schools were strictly defined along race and social class. He added that this could be considered as an extension of “pervasive racial segregation, extreme social and institutional poverty, and wilful neglect by those with wealth and power” (Hyttén & Bettez, 2011:14). There are also a number of books on the impacts of racism, classism, sexism and homophobia on educational opportunities in society (Adams et al., 2000; Anzaldua & Keating, 2002; Gaskins, 1999; Landsman, 2001; Rothemberg, 2001; Tea, 2003; Thompson & Tyagi, 1996; Hyttén & Bettez, 2011). These scholars concluded that race, social class and sex are the fundamental parameters often use to justify, often cruelly, the discrimination and marginalization of certain groups in schools.

Also, Valenzuela (1999) conducted an ethnographic study of social justice among people of Mexican descent in an inner city school in Houston, U.S.A. She titled this study “Subtractive Schooling”. She found that rather than the schools develop the potentials and give strengths to the youth, they subtract their potentials and weaken them. Thus, in the long run, youth who attended schools become incapacitated and lacking critical skills required for functioning well in society. What she demonstrated in this study was that even the education that the powerful and dominant group provided for the weak (Mexican descent in this context) social group was consciously prepared to weaken them

intellectually so that they would be ideologically bereft to challenge the status quo. In a somewhat similar study, Carger (1996) published an ethnographic account on the lived experiences of Mexican Americans in school. He titled this work “Of Borders and Dreams”. Carger excellently described the travails of Mexican Americans as they try to attain positive educational outcomes in schools. In the process, many of them dropped out and turned into vagabonds. The lesson that could be drawn from this study is that some groups are structurally blocked from enjoying social goods, like educational opportunities, by virtue of their social standings or markers in a given society. To these affected groups, education for all is a ‘day-dream’. Bell (1994, 2003, 2010), in her books entitled “Teaching to Transgress”, “Teaching Community”, and “Teaching Critical Thinking” narrated her experiences as a child in segregated American schools as well as her ordeal as a black woman teacher in American public schools. She argued that racism, classism and sexism remain formidable barriers to the goal of achieving education for all (Bell, 2003:45).

There are some scholars who approached social justice in education through the theory of multiculturalism (Montalto, 1982; Taba, Bradly & Robinson, 1952; Banks, 1989). One of the often-cited multi-culturalists, James Banks (1993), suggested that for social justice in schooling to be achieved in multi-ethnic or multi-racial society, all ethnic or socio-cultural groups must have equal access to school or educational opportunities. In addition to this, school policies, programmes and curriculum must reflect cultural diversities (Gray, 2000; Banks, 2008; Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1994; McLaren, 1995; Suzuki, 1984). For instance, in Nigeria, all ethnic groups must have unfettered educational opportunities, and the Nigerian educational curriculum must embody culturally diverse sources of all ethnic groups.

In an extreme case, critical multiculturalists are canvassing for the deconstruction of the capitalist model of education. They argue that it disrupts and blocks educational opportunities for the historically marginalized and vulnerable ethnic groups in society. They, therefore, call for the institutionalization of a socialist model in education (Sleeter, 1996; Gray, 2000:29-36). According to Leistyana (1999:34), “wherever we are trying to build a democratic community, we cannot ascribe fixed essences to people and treat them

as 'representative' of given groups, cultures, and even genders. Treating them as various and situated, we have to take into account a diversity of perspectives and realities".

Williamson et al. (2007) contributed to multiculturalism as part of the broader discourse of social justice. He said school must be a 'melting pot' of all cultures in a multi-ethnic political society. According to Reich (2002:12), multi-culturalism "represents a theory or position that emphasizes diversity over sameness recognition of difference over homogenizing similarity, the particular over the universal, the group over the individual...and cultural identification rather than cultural affiliation". This view is also echoed in the report of the Chicago Cultural Studies Group (1994:115) which states that "multi-culturalism is proving to be fluid enough to described very different styles of cultural relations and incorporate multi-culturalism is proving that the concept needs not have any critical content".

Sen (1992:81) viewed that "in the capacity-based assessment of justice, individual claims are not to be assessed in terms of the resources or primary goods the persons respectively hold, but by the freedoms they actually enjoy to choose the lives that they have reason to value". Subsequently, the critical pedagogy movement also adds to social justice discourse in education. The fundamental objective of critical pedagogists is to transform and humanize oppressive social structures and institutions that produce unequal access to school in human society. Although there are variants of critical pedagogy, they have somewhat similar objective "to empower the powerless and transform existing social inequalities and injustices" (McLaren, 2003:186).

Any discussion of critical pedagogy would be incomplete without making reference to Paulo Freire. As argued by Hytten and Bettez (2011:17), "critical pedagogues draw inspiration from Paulo Freire's work, most notably "Pedagogy of the Oppressed" (2000). In this work, Freire was critical of education. Freire said the fundamental role of education is the production of "critically literate, reflective agents" and the sound human element that would drive society positively. However, according to him, education failed woefully in achieving this purpose. Instead, what education does is the domestication, dehumanization and oppression of people that it is supposed to liberate (Freire, 2000:80). He, therefore, suggested "a new vision and path" for education. He said education should

aim at achieving social justice by equipping people with the ability to “perceive social, political, and economic contradictions, and to take action against the oppressive elements or reality” (Freire, 2000:35). Freire argued that the basis of domination and oppression are race, ethnicity, class and gender. He said that people are discriminated against on the basis of racism, sexism, and ethnicities. He maintained that if education exists to empower people in civil society, then it must be for all.

Cultural studies also contributed to social justice discourse. The advocates of cultural studies advocated for rapid transformation of educational systems in order to open new window of opportunities to those social groups that were historically blocked from access to schooling or to those people who historically resisted missionaries’ schools during the period of colonialism. In his analysis of cultural studies in education, Hytten (2006:234) stated that “among its goals are to understand the relationship between power and knowledge, to look at how power gets symbolically and representationally reproduced to challenge disempowering social practices, and to provide resources for resistance and social transformation”.

The major interests of the advocates of cultural studies are: (i) to gain understanding as to how certain cultural practices are placed and valued above others; (ii) to understand why and how power and privileges are unevenly distributed; and (iii) to humanize and transform the institutions and social structures that produce unjustness and unfairness in our society (Hytten & Bettez, 2011). Within the context of this study, cultural studies advocated for the deconstruction of those cultural practices that are likely to frustrate the efforts of the policy makers in education at achieving the goal of education for all. According to Wright (2003:806), cultural studies is inherently a “form of social justice praxis ...an intervention in institutional, socio-political and cultural arrangements, events and directions”.

Another strand contributing to the social justice discourse in education comes from feminist theorists. Feminist scholars argued against the existing discriminatory and patriarchal educational structures, which limit the enrolment of the female child in schools. To feminist scholars, this is the height of social injustice against females in education. It should be emphasised that most patriarchal societies hold the preconceived notion that

'girl-child education' is unimportant. Thus, they are discriminated against. There is also the common sentiment that the female child requires marginal or even no education since the primary roles of women in patriarchal society is child bearing and rearing. The feminist scholars in education called for the dismantling of these pre-conceived discriminatory and gender biases in our schools.

Miriam David, a feminist scholar, detailed the plight of young African Caribbean women in schools. She maintained that equal opportunities were not given to African Caribbean women. She also noted that the absence of social benefit grant makes access to education even more difficult as poor mothers can hardly afford the cost of schooling. Consequently, many African Caribbean women are systematically denied educational opportunities. One of the foremost feminist scholars was Harriet Martineau (1802-1876), a British social theorist. Her contribution to social justice discourse in education was contained in her book entitled "Society in America" where she critiques the state of women's education in Western society. According to her:

The intellect of women is confined by an unjustifiable restriction of...education...As women have none of the objects in life for which an enlarged education is considered requisite, the education is not given...The choice is to either be 'ill-educated, passive, and subservient, or well-educated, vigorous, and free only upon sufferance' (Postlewaite & Wettstein, 1989:583-609)

Fanon (1961) and Memmi (1965) contributed significantly to the discourse of social justice in education. Their ideals were influenced by the New Left and the women's liberation movement of the late 1960s and early 1970s. According to Bell cited in Adams, Bell and Griffin (1997:3), "social justice includes a vision of society in which the distribution of resources is equitable and all members are physically and psychologically safe and secure. We envision a society in which individuals are both self-determining (able to develop their full capacities) and interdependent (capable of interacting democratically with others). Social justice involves social actors who have a sense of their own agency as well as a sense of social responsibility toward and with others and the society as whole". It could be deduced that Bell viewed that education for all is non-negotiable for all in democratic society.

Scholars have also highlighted the importance of education to democracy. Thinkers who subscribed to this thinking maintained that the major roles of education in democratic society are: (i) production of knowledge and skills required for the sustenance of democratic ideals; and (ii) development of citizens to be thoughtful so as to serve as lubricants of democratic social order. Wood (1992:xvi) said that the most essential purpose of education is “the development in our children of the habits of heart and mind that make democratic life possible”. Thus, denial of certain groups the right to education may act as a clog in the wheel of democratic development in our contemporary society (Beane & Apple, 2007). While commenting on the importance of education for all in democratic society, Parker (2003:54) argued that it is duty-bound on every democratic government to produce, through education, people who are “principled and compassionate, who refrain from harming or exploiting others, and who believe it is their duty both to protect just institutions and to prevent injustice”.

Importantly, any discussion of social justice cannot be said to be complete without the mentioning of Nancy Fraser’s Theory of Parity of Participation. To Nancy Fraser, social justice involves participatory parity, that is, allowing equal footing of participation in social life for everyone. She explained that social justice is attainable when there are “... social arrangements that permit all to participate as peers in social life. On the view of justice as participatory parity, overcoming injustice means dismantling institutionalized obstacles that prevent some people from participating on a par with others, as full partners in social interaction” (Fraser, 2007:27). Adopting Fraser’s social justice theory, Klugman (2011) presented a theory-of-change framework of measurable outcomes which can be used by social justice advocates to reflect on whether the diverse factors influencing the change are being addressed, and social justice values are being retained in the process. This helps particularly in reflecting if the needs and aspirations of the most excluded in the society are given priority in the advocacy campaigns as well as in assessing the progress of the policy and adjusting strategies. Four outcomes were identified as forming the foundation for effective advocacy: (i) strengthened organizational capacity, (ii) strengthened base of support, and (iii) strengthened alliances, which in turn draw on (iv)

increased data and analysis from a social justice perspective⁸. The application of Frazerian's model of social justice to bring about education for all is illustrated in Figure 2.4.

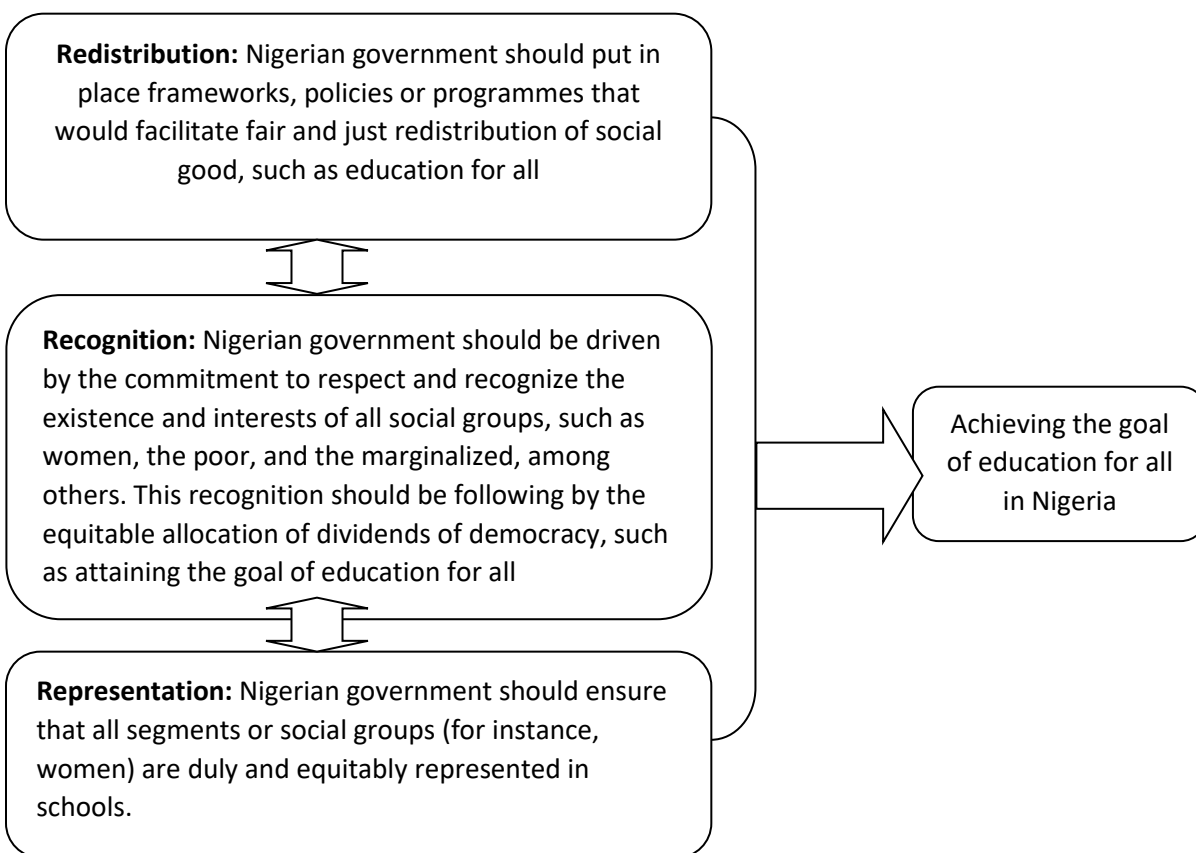
⁸ Advocacy can now be carried out based on the outcome of these while the following serve as strategies and indicators of evaluating any significant progress in the social justice outcomes:

- Agreement on problem definition from a social justice perspective: this involves an agreement on a common definition of the problem and possible policy options by the majority of the people (this could change periodically with new insights/context, data and communities/allies informing them)
- Agreement on solution/policy options from a social justice perspective: reviewing the policy options to bring out positive outcomes, changing context, monitoring the implementation of the policy
- Increased access to, participation and influence in policy processes: this is winning or sustaining a policy or ensuring its implementation
- Increased visibility of these perspectives: that is, gaining more support for the policy; a shift in the social norms or gaining people's understanding and support, increased social acceptance of the issue like changing people's view on the importance of educating the girl-child
- Increased and sustained organizational capacity: creativity and adaptability such as increasing accessibility to schools; providing adequate funding, networking, communication and leadership capacity
- Increased data and analysis including monitoring policy implementation and impacts; strengthened alliances and base of support (Klugman, 2011:149)

In relation to this study, Klugman's theory-of-change framework explains how major stakeholders in an educational system define and perceive gender inequality. The theory highlights six frames for understanding the perceptions of stakeholders on educational policies or outcomes as:

1. Agreement on problem definition which this deals with how stakeholders perceive or conceptualize the problem (gender disparity);
2. Agreement on solution/policy option, this deals with how stakeholders define the appropriateness of the policy option for addressing the problem of gender disparity;
3. Increased access to participation which deals with the involvement or engagement of major stakeholders in education- the government, the school administration, the teachers, the parents and the general public;
4. Increased visibility of the perspective, this addresses the questions of norms and values. Are the societal norms and values in support of the policy?
5. Increased and sustained organizational capacity, this addresses if the government have the resources (funding, social capital) to implement this policy.
6. And Feedback, which deals with the criteria or standard for measuring the achievements of the goals (gender parity), monitoring policy implementation and impact. This framework will enable us to identify the key processes and mechanism that are essential to the implementation of the EFA goals.

Figure 2. 4: Applying Frazerian Model of Social Justice to Education in Nigeria



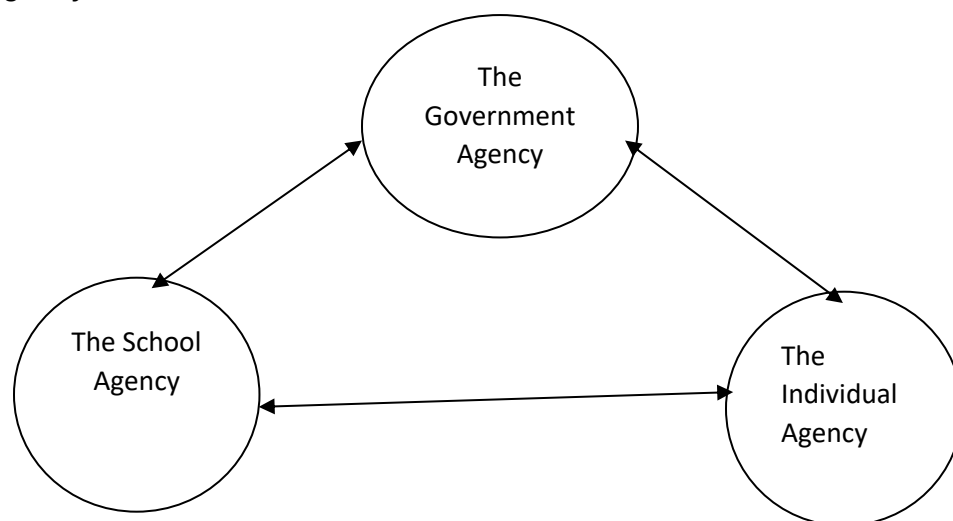
Source: Author's conception

2.3 Social justice praxis theory

This study also draws from the social justice praxis theory. Le Grange (2007) & Miller (1999) postulated that meaningful and enduring development in education is possible if disparity in access to education is justly and fairly addressed in our educational system. Baillon & Brown (2003) opined that social justice praxis is anchored on the principles of kindness, justness and fairness with the aim of repairing or rebuilding the lopsided educational structures. Viewing through this theoretical lens, it could be argued that social justice praxis theory hinges on the ideology of fairness, equity and equalness in access to education and educational outcomes. Specifically, the theory highlighted three agents of social justice in school as: the government, the educational institution and the individual agency:

- (i) The government: the government has the primary responsibility of distributing fairness and justice in the society, of which the educational institution is part. This is done through formulation of legislation, policies or programmes that emphasise parity, equity and equalness in term of access to education and education outcomes (Le Grange, 2007; Miller, 1999);
- (ii) The school: while the State does the formulations, the school has the responsibilities to implement the legislation, policies and programmes. From another perspective, the formulation of legislation, policies and programmes could also come from the school and then the State endorses them for implementation by the school (Francis & Le Roux, 2011; Miller, 1999);
- (iii) Individual agency: these are the recipients of the policies, legislation or programmes towards the attainment of parity, equity and equalness in education. Their readiness to accept the policies matters a lot for the success of the policies and legislation. These agencies are likely to be the parents and the students. (Miller, 1999; Potgieter, 1980). This theory enables us to identify the key stakeholders that are critical to the attainment of social justice through the implementation of the EFA goals. The interrelationship of the these agencies are illustrated in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2. 5: Agency Model of Social Justice



Source: Author's conception

2.4 Traditional indigenous education

One of the conscientious international agreements of the Dakar framework was the elimination of gender disparity by the year 2005 and the achievement of gender parity (in primary and secondary education) by the year 2015. However, as of 2015, about 481 million women of 15 years and above have no literacy skills, 64% of which are illiterate (EFA GMR 2015). The achievement of gender parity in education should go beyond mere measurement of the differences between the enrolment rates of boys and girls in primary and secondary education but to include, amongst others, issues of girl-child education, factors and challenges influencing the achievement of gender parity in education, policies and programmes put in place to address gender imbalances in education, implications of the achievement of gender balance in education and so on. This aspect of the research the researcher reviewed some of the available literature on some of these issues in line with the research questions guiding this study.

Okoro (2011) opined that every society, no matter its level of simplicity or complexity, has its own system of training and educating its youth for one of the most tenacious concerns of men throughout history has been education for the good life. The African societies viewed education as a means to an end and not as an end in itself, thus the African traditional education is a lifelong form of education that is anchored on social responsibility, job orientation, political participation, spiritual and moral values with functionalism serving as the guiding principle.

In Nigeria, the birth of a child (either boy or girl) is a cause for great joy for the immediate family and the community as a whole, thus the baby is given a ceremonious welcome. The task of training and educating the child is also seen not as a responsibility of the parents alone but that of the entire community, so the education of a child starts literally as everyone's concern right from the home and the immediate community before being sent for formal schooling. The informal education was always structured along sex-roles and patterns where the child is being constantly interacted with, and provided with feedback that helps in constructing who the child is as a man or woman. Based on their gender roles, the young girls are tutored towards motherhood and homecare while the boys are given the rigorous training towards manhood roles which mostly involve brave and virile tasks. In essence, based on gender, the child is being given the foundation

towards taking and playing certain roles in the society which will define his or her identity and opportunity.

This type of indigenous education was based on societal needs, ranging from familial and religious roles to civic responsibility (Okoli, 2007) and offered women positions of power, assertiveness, and influence. The aim of the education was multilateral, with the end goal being the building of an honest, respectable, skilled and supportive individual who will conform to the social order of the day. To a considerable degree, it has been able to offer the Nigerian child the sense of security, togetherness, and a behaviour pattern necessary and desirable for effective life in the society. To an average Nigerian, this is an all-embracing form of education for educational activities had been incorporated in every social institution thereby equipping the individual with the necessary behaviour-patterns, abilities and skills for effective citizenship in the community in which he or she lives (Okoli, 2007). This form of education had a system of checks and balances in place to sustain a subtle balancing of gender power and education of boys and girls before the introduction of formal form of education through schooling.

The introduction of formal education in Nigeria by the missionaries and European traders brought in a shift of emphasis with regards to the objectives of education, its content, orientation, philosophy and so on. The British government was even faulted for not having a clearly defined policy on education that will take care of the overall development of the indigenous people in Nigeria (Okoli, 2007). The colonial education was also said to be discriminatory and gender-oriented in practice with the boys being mostly favoured by the nature of its purpose and implementation.

With Nigeria's independence in 1960 came the urgent need to reframe the philosophy of education to articulate the peoples' culture and the curriculum adjusted to reflect the needs of the child and the society. This was necessary for Nigeria inherited an educational system that was hitherto 'academic' in nature with emphasis on preparing pupils for examinations to get paper qualifications and secure white collar jobs (Okoli, 2007). The attainment of nationhood equally brought in the establishment of more primary schools, secondary schools, universities and other institutions of higher learning to make education more accessible to the citizens irrespective of gender, tribe or religion.

However, there had been persistent gender differentials at all the educational levels with the gap widening at the higher levels and women being at the receiving end due to various factors caused by gender issues and socio-cultural beliefs among other practices, as well as deeper forces that extend beyond the boundaries of educational systems. Calls had therefore been made for the Nigerian government, just like governments of other countries globally, to put in measures to help in closing the gender gap in the educational attainment between the males and females in order to bring in gender equality.

2.5 Girl-child education

A girl-child is a female child born to the family, community, society or nation (Saleh & Kwache, 2012). In the Nigerian context, a girl-child has been defined as a person below 14 years of age; a biological female offspring below 18 years of age or a young female person (Offorma, 2009; Ifijeh & Osayande, 2011). This period spans through infancy, childhood, early and late adolescence stage of development until the girl grows into a young woman ready to go into marriage.

An African proverb says: If we educate a boy, we educate one person but if we educate a girl, we educate a family - and a whole nation. By sending a girl to school, she is far more likely to ensure that her children also receive an education (EFA GMR, 2013); she equally becomes more aware of herself and her ability to explore her environment to become more functional in the society while also adding to the pool of human resources available to nations confronting the difficult challenges related to environmental degradation, ignorance and disease (Abulrazaq, 2015). Education is very important for every child whether boy or girl for it is the key to human development and a successful living (Ifijeh & Osayande, 2011). Ironically, the status of women in Africa is a series of absurdities. They have an exalted role as mothers and nurturers of their families but they are not accorded many of the economic rights women have in other parts of the world and are still forced into marriages and subject to female circumcisions. While their sisters in Europe and North America had a choice as to the direction in which their lives would flow, African women continued to toil on with no discernible difference in how they could shape their futures (Adu, 2013). The girls, who will eventually grow to be women, are still not getting equal access to education as are their male counterparts. Though the Nigerian government in collaboration with some non-governmental agencies initiated various

programmes and led campaigns for girl-child education in the country, a lot still needs to be done because the success level is still very low (Ifijeh & Osayande, 2011).

It is of particular interest that in their unique terms both EFA and MDG highlighted the importance of girl-child education in their goals and aspirations. Of particular note are Goals 2, 4 and 5 of the EFA and Goal 3 of the MDG which explicitly used the words 'girl' 'women' and 'gender'. The implication of this is that every country is bound to be gender sensitive in the provision of education for their citizens and to place girl-child education in a high premium. UNICEF has also promoted girls' education as a means of ensuring that all children fulfil their right to a quality basic education for it is believed that a singular focus on getting all girls into school would bring down the barriers keeping all children out of school (World Bank, 2012a).

For every boy that is educated, every girl should be educated too. The importance of investing in women education cannot be over emphasised for the multiple benefits to the woman as an individual, the family, and the society at large. First, as mothers, the children of educated mothers have the opportunities of gaining all the benefits attached to higher education and much more because they will also be educated; they are more likely to have higher birth weight and get immunized, thereby being less susceptible to infant mortality. There is also a reduction in maternal mortality rate, for studies have shown that the risk of dying at childbirth declines with increase in educational investments, especially for girls (World Bank, 2012a). Also, as posited by Abdulrazaq (2015), the education of girls and women is important, not only as a matter of respecting a basic human right for half of the population, but as a powerful force for economic development and achieving other social goals such as improved health, gender equity and civic involvement.

According to Ifijeh and Osayande (2011), girls' education does not only bring the immediate benefit of empowering girls, but is also seen as the best investment in a country's development that will yield the highest social returns. For there to be a meaningful development either locally, nationally or internationally, women and girls need to be recognized as equal players in the game of life, thus the need for them to be empowered, up-skilled and invested in. Numerous studies have similarly demonstrated that educating women and girls is the single most effective strategy to ensure the well-

being and health of children, and the long-term success of developing economies (Adu, 2013; EFA GMR, 2013; Kainuwa & Yusuf, 2013; Megahed & Lack, 2013).

The World Bank (2012a) and Anyanwu (2016) showed that the more the women's access to education, the more the number of women venturing into paid work, better employment conditions and higher access to decision-making positions. As noted by Chen (2004) cited in Anyanwu (2016), the less the education of the women, the lower the intellectual environment at home, which can eventually lead to a less productive workforce and lower economic growth while higher female education would ultimately lead to a long-term increase in economic growth via demographic effects. Some of the importance of girl-child education is further discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

Girls' education helps in cutting infant and maternal mortality rates. Educated women are better informed about issues relating to medical and health care, thus they are more likely to get their children immunized, ensure their children's nutritional requirements, adopt better sanitation practices and seek immediate medical advice when necessary. All these will help in increasing the survival rates of the infants and children while equally ensuring their healthier and better nourishment. According to Abdulrazaq (2015), a 10% increase in female literacy has the potentiality of lowering infant mortality by the same percentage or more.

Another importance of girl-child education is the decrease in domestic and sexual violence. Empowered with the right education, girls and women become less vulnerable and can protect themselves from sexual exploitation. They are less likely to be victims of domestic and sexual violence or to tolerate it in their families for they are better informed and know the right steps to take if faced with such challenges. With education, girl-child marriage is also reduced for reports have shown that the attainment of secondary education by all girls in the sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia will decrease child marriage by 64%, from almost 2.9 million to just over 1 million (EFA GMR, 2013/4).

Moreover, improvement in the health status of the women and the nation in general is also likely. With formal education, girls are better informed about health care practices and how to protect themselves and their families. This will help them in guiding against becoming pregnant at a young age or having an unwanted pregnancy and against

sexually transmitted infections and diseases like HIV/AIDS, thereby helping to improve their health and their rate of survival, including those of their children. EFA GMR (2013/4) reported that the completion of primary education by all women in the sub-Saharan Africa will help in reducing the maternal mortality ratio by 70%, from 500 to 150 deaths per 100,000 births.

With the increase in the personal and reproductive health of women, improved child mortality and welfare through better nutrition and higher immunization rates, reduction in spread of HIV/AIDS and enhanced environmental awareness, women education has served as a tool for controlling disease and improving the health status of the nation in general.

It also has the capacity of reducing inequality. One of the strongest predictors of poverty - illiteracy - can be escaped with education. With education, women can lead healthier and more productive lives, improving their chances of survival as well as raising the standard of living for their children, families, and communities (Madu, 2013). Their work prospects are also boosted and the shared growth process helps in balancing the inequality. Educated girls and women are also more aware of their rights and have the freedom of taking decisions in matters that affect their lives thereby resisting getting marginalized by the male.

Equally, investing in women's education increases their capability to earn higher wages and to establish their own businesses for differences in education influences the variation in wages and incomes among adults. As pointed out by the World Bank (2012a), gender differences in education have a considerable effect on the productivity and wage gap between men and women in both high- and low-income countries. The educational attainment of women has also assisted in their getting incorporated into the labour market thereby ensuring gender equity, for educated women have more access to formal employment and are traditionally more involved and participate much more in the labour market than their less educated colleagues.

Another importance of girl-child education is the decrease in population explosion. Studies have shown that with an additional year of schooling, the female fertility is reduced by 10 percent and at least two maternal deaths are prevented in about 1,000

women (Orji, 2011). Another study conducted in Brazil showed an average of 2.5 children per educated women but 6 children per their uneducated counterparts (Madu, 2013). The educated women are better informed about family planning, better-spaced pregnancies, pre- and post-natal care, delayed marriage and the how to prevent and stop the spread of HIV/AIDS. These contribute greatly to the control of the family size which has an overall effect on the population size of the nation.

It will also encourage more women's labour force participation thereby contributing to the socio-economic growth and development. Education equips girls to develop essential life skills including self-confidence, the ability to participate effectively and contribute immensely to the socio-economic development of the society. With education, their productivity increases which leads to a resultant increase in their wages and this equally yields more benefits for the family, community and society at large. Education has been linked to economic growth, for it enhances productivity which in theory leads to higher income and improved economic performance (Orji, 2011; Omede & Agahiu, 2016). According to Anyanwu (2016), the early stages of economic growth are usually characterized by a growing gender gap which start reducing as the country develops beyond a certain verge. The justification given is that discrepancies in productivity only started growing with the emergence and development of an urban economy; they were negligible before urbanization. As this practice ultimately diminishes, women acquire greater access to education and training which eventually gives them a greater bargaining power in the family.

Though studies have shown that globally, women are generally paid less than men for comparable work, with the acquisition of more/higher education by the women, the gender wage gap reduces (EFA GMR, 2013/4). Linking economic growth with women education, Eastin and Prakash (2013) posited that at the initial stage economic development enhances gender equality (when the income level is below \$4,000 per capita), with the justification that the improvement is based on increase in the following: female employment opportunities, women's intra-household bargaining power, female social networks, women's social status, and the cultural acceptance of female involvement in the formal labour market.

The study, however, found that as development progresses (when the income level is between \$4,000 and \$8,000 per capita), there exists a negative relationship between income and gender equality. The argument here is that it is at this intermediate stage of development that men start feeling threatened and feel they are losing out. The resultant reaction from these engrained male-controlled institutions is demonstrated in various ways such as occupational discrimination and acts to lessen gender equality. Even so, the study still discovered that the gender gap narrows beyond the intermediate stage (i.e., when the income level is above \$8,000 per capita) as gender equitable social norms become more universal and as women develop the human capital necessary for advancement in the labour market.

In as much as this study actually made a valuable contribution, it has however been faulted with its internal validity. The study used the Gender-related Development Index (GDI) and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) in addition to other variables such as Labour-Force Participation, and Female Parliamentary Participation as indicators of gender equality but according to the UNDP, 'the GDI is not a measure of gender inequality' (UNDP, 2009). GDI is seen as a downward adjustment of the Human Development Index (HDI) for gender inequality so, according to UNDP, either the difference or the ratio of these two indicators should be used to operationalize gender equality. Besides, due to the nature of some of the variables used to construct the index, a rich country cannot have a low GEM value and a poor country cannot have a high GEM value. Thus, as observed by Anyanwu (2016), the GEM only shows absolute welfare levels instead of the level of achievement of gender equality in a nation. Therefore, the Eastin and Prakash's study may not accurately measure gender inequality.

In another study on the effect of economic growth on the education gender gap, a strong correlation between increase in per capita income and reductions in gender inequality was found (Anyanwu, 2016). There was, however, a nonlinear relationship for secondary education: moving from being a very poor country to a lower or middle income one makes little difference in terms of gender gap. But increases in income seem to reduce the gap at higher stages of development. The argument put forward for the nonlinearity is that the market failures that obstruct girls' education crumble as countries become rich enough.

The implication of the study in essence is that, as income increases up to certain level, the probability for female educational achievement to catch up with the superior male achievement is reduced, but after that level, as the income increases, there is a strong tendency to catch up. This convex relationship becomes obvious when the data set is broken in half based on per capita income.

It also guarantees intergenerational education benefits. As a future mother, raising a healthy and productive individual through education of the girl-child is a guaranteed way of ensuring inter-generation education because children of educated women are also likely to go to school than the uneducated women (Abdulrazaq, 2015). Being the role model for her children and girls in general, the mother's education has a great influence on the educational attainment and opportunities of the children as well as their future well-being. It has been shown that in many countries, an additional year of formal education completed by a mother resulted in her children also remaining in school for an additional one-third to one-half year (Orji, 2011).

In addition, it contributes to the political process. Education generally has a great influence on people's attitudes which can bring about certain political changes like the more democratic representation of women. Democracy is better established and enjoyed in countries with a reduced educational gap in boys' and girls' schooling; and the higher the level of literacy, the more established will be the democratic political institutions. Education, especially female education, is essential to peace building and fostering more resilient and unified societies, and it has been a useful tool in lifting nations out of political instability and providing a more promising future. Clean elections and good power-sharing help in reducing inequalities among the citizens and ensure that the peoples' voices are heard with no sect getting marginalized. With education, the women are also better empowered to participate in the decision making process that affects their lives and those of their families. They can elect their own candidates or even get elected into positions of authority for their voices to be heard (Orji, 2011).

Education should be an inalienable right of every individual irrespective of the circumstance but it is sad that some communities still discriminate against the education of the girl-child and the girl-child is still being marginalized due to cultural practices and

political decisions. About 121 million children around the world are not going to school. Girls make up 55% of the total and were often the victims of rape and other sexual violence that accompanies armed conflicts; over 80 percent of these girls are found in sub-Saharan Africa, including Nigeria (Madu, 2013; Omede & Agahiu, 2016). United Nations statistics and national reports and studies initiated by non-governmental organisations repeatedly show that girls, as a group, have lower literacy rates, receive less health care, and are more often impoverished than boys (UNICEF, 2008). It is also important to note these conditions, more often than not, do not improve as girls grow to become women. Girls are being turned into dysfunctional members of the society when they are being denied access to education (Ifijeh & Osayande, 2011; Omede & Agahiu, 2016).

2.6 Factors affecting girl-child education

Education is meant to change and preserve the society. It should be one of the most important agencies for promoting equality and democracy among the people and the educational system should transmit attitudes, norms and values. However, female education still faces a lot of challenges despite its great contribution to nation building especially in the developing nations. In Nigeria, just like in other African countries, females are held in low-esteem (Madu, 2013). They are seen as objects of pleasure for men and their role is mostly linked to procreation and confinement to the kitchen. So investment in female education is generally viewed as a wasteful venture. Some of the factors hindering girl-child education are discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

The first factor that would be considered is economic variables. Nigeria, as a developing country, is faced with harsh economic conditions and a high rate of poverty. To ensure the survival of the family, most parents usually face the problem of deciding which of the children should be sent to school and in most cases the pendulum is usually in favour of the boys. Girls either stay at home not attending school at all while being engaged in different forms of labour to augment the family source of income or, if initially enrolled, they are forced to withdraw from school once the parents can no longer afford the cost of schooling. Sometimes the girls are sent out to work as housemaids or given out early in marriage if there is an offer of a huge bride price (Omede & Agahiu, 2016).

Also, girls are mostly vulnerable to sexual assaults and abuse both within and outside the school and this hinders their enrolment especially in the rural areas where school locations are far from their homes. The sexual harassment faced during educational pursuit generates serious emotional and psychological strain on the girl-child and sometimes leads to loss of interest in schooling for some of the girls. In severe cases, the girls are forced to either change their school or withdraw completely from school. Some parents may even prevent their girls from attending school for fear of being attacked (EFA GMR, 2015).

Another factor is political variable. The educational sector, just like many other sectors in Nigeria, has been politicized. Notwithstanding Nigeria being a signatory to most international initiatives and human right instruments that recognize education as a human right to every individual, very little has been achieved in respecting the right of the child in the country, especially with the girl-child in terms of access to and availability of free education (Omede & Agahiu, 2016). While some of the States of the federation made serious attempts towards the provision of basic education for their citizens, the situation in other States are so pathetic that some of their primary and secondary school students are still studying under trees and dilapidated buildings and structures yet the State governments are not making any serious efforts to redeem the situation due to corruption and politics.

Another set of factor is the school environmental factors. School location, gender bias in the curricular, textbooks and other school materials have been identified as some of the school related factors that affect girl-child education (Obinaju, 2014). She opines that right from childhood girls had been channelled into sex-role identification with parents treating their sons differently from their daughters. Textbooks, story illustrations, and even toys were given to children based on what is considered to be 'culturally' appropriate for the sex. Boys and men are mostly portrayed in the books as being more active, clever, willing to take risks, leading more interesting lives, and able to cope effectively with problems, while girls and women are portrayed as being passive, rarely given anything interesting or exciting to do. All these affect the socialization process and subsequently lead to the development of poor self-image right from a tender age.

There are also socio-cultural and religious factors. The traditional training and upbringing of girls with stereotyped sex-role identification usually grow with them as they come into adulthood and become women. In most African societies, including Nigeria, girls were brought up having their ultimate priority as becoming wives and mothers - as people to be seen and not to be heard - and their place is in the kitchen. Further strengthened by the seemingly universal acceptance of these notions and attitudes, together with the desire to be like other children in their families and neighbourhoods, the girls grow up naturally accepting those assumptions. However, these wrong notions have had very serious implications on the girl-child's ability at self-actualization according to Omede & Agahiu (2016) and this has many implications for the social-economic status of the females.

The media, as part of the society, also have a great influence on children's attitudes especially during their formative years. What they learn through the media equally goes with them throughout life. The media rarely show women as having equal power or prestige as men, so girls grow up seeing themselves as 'second class citizens' not equal to men.

2.7 Gender balancing in education: Definitions and relationships of education, gender and sex

Islam and Rahman (2008) defined **education** as the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values necessary for people to survive, to improve the quality of their lives, and to continue learning. To Otomiewo (2011) education is the method of learning through which accumulated knowledge, skill, values and habits of a group of people are transmitted from one generation to another in a society through teaching, training, and other means. Education can also be defined as a learned experience or act that influences the character, worldview or physical ability of a person. It has equally been described in the dictionary, as "the act or process of imparting or acquiring general knowledge, developing the powers of reasoning and judgment, and generally of preparing oneself or others intellectually for mature life" (Education, n.d. 1); "the act or process of acquiring knowledge, especially systematically during childhood and adolescence" or "the act or process of imparting knowledge, especially at a school, college, or university" (Education, n.d. 2). It can also simply be described as "the process of acquiring knowledge about

something”, “process of learning”, “being empowered”, in essence, the process through which an individual seeks knowledge to improve his or her quality of life. This can occur through any experience that has a formative effect on the way one thinks, feels or acts.

Gender is the behavioural and attitudinal differences of feminism and masculine aspects of varied personalities; the anatomical and hormonal distinctions between men and women (Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2014). According to the author, gender should not only be limited to biological sex but should also include the roles, responsibilities, attributes, attitudes and factors that distinguish males and females; and what it entails to either be a male or a female and their relationship with each other.

The English Oxford dictionary (2010) defines gender as “either of the sexes (male and female), especially when considered with reference to social and cultural differences rather than biological ones” while the Collins dictionary says it is “either the male or female division of a species, especially as differentiated by social and cultural roles and behaviour”; “a similar category of human beings that is outside the male/female binary classification and is based on the individual’s personal identity or awareness”. Gender can therefore be simply taken as the sex of the individual, that is, male or female, based on social roles and not reproductive roles. So the girl-child is seen as an individual in the society who is entitled to all the fundamental human rights accrued to every citizen of the human society.

Dictionary.com (Education, n.d.1) defined **sex** as “either the female or male division of a species especially with reference to the reproductive functions” and “the sum of the structural and functional differences by which the male and female are distinguished or a phenomena or behaviour dependent on these differences” while the Collins dictionary (Education, n.d.2) defined it as “the sum of the characteristics that distinguish organisms on the basis of their reproductive function” and “either of the two categories, male or female, into which organisms are placed on this basis”. The sex of an individual can therefore denote the gender of that individual - either male or female - based on the reproductive function which was as a result of the outcome of a genetic process. The two terms - gender and sex - have always been used interchangeably by researchers and the society at large to mean the same thing.

Looking through the various definitions of education, it will be observed that the common factors/indices have been emphasised on the acquisition of knowledge and skills by the individuals for their empowerment and to improve their quality of life and the society at large. There has been no gender bias with the definitions of education, an indication that education should be for every individual irrespective of gender. Every individual, either male or female, is entitled to acquisition of knowledge, empowerment and good quality of life.

2.7.1 Gender and education

Aside the importance of education in the acquisition of knowledge and empowerment of the individual, it also helps in enhancing social equity by promoting the overall quality of human resources within an economy. Its benefit is not limited to the individual, either female or male, or his/her immediate family but is also of long term benefit to the society at large in terms of poverty alleviation, improved healthcare and other vital aspects of human development. However, giving gender a more complex definition other than the biological notion of sex, to include the social and cultural meanings of being female or male, lays a foundation for inequality. As argued by the feminists, gendered practices structure male supremacy and patriarchy, putting them in a position of unequal and oppressive power (Anyanwu, 2016).

A great deal has really been made out of gender that the gender of a person is seen as the primary predictor of his or her behaviour used in making judgments, and determining to a large extent the dress, expectations, and roles of such a person (Okoli, 2007). The gender norms have created a form of different rights, division of labour and responsibilities between males and females which socialized them into gender-defined behaviours and attitudes right from early in life. As Okoli submitted, "Gender expectations become the filter through which we screen our perception of the world, and these gender screens often affect ways in which we view ourselves in the world of work and the world of home" (2007:10). This, in most cases, leads to sexism, a situation in which women and girls are regarded and/or treated as being inferior on the grounds of their sex. Therefore, Okoli (2007) argued that to bring about gender equity, sex-role stereotyping and sex bias or preference must first be eradicated from education.

2.7.2 Gender equality and equity

Okoli (2007) described gender equity as giving fair and just opportunities to every individual with no preference to either of the sexes, treating all with equal regards. This could also be said to dealing with each individual, boy or girl, according to their respective or corresponding individual needs. Wiseman (2008) defined 'parity' (sometimes also referred to as 'equity') as a balance in terms of amount, status, or character. With regards to education, gender equity will then imply giving each individual, boy or girl, equal access and right of participation in the educational process while removing any form of sex role stereotyping and sex bias from the education system and activities.

Systems where gender parity exists would enrol boys and girls in schools of the same type and at the same rate. They would also offer them the same courses and curricula. Using this definition, gender parity can easily exist in systems that separate boys from girls either in the system as a whole, in specific schools, or even in particular classrooms. Equally, each individual's chances in life should not be predetermined on the bases of the race, gender, social status or family background but rather on the individual's talents and efforts.

Equality as a concept encompasses a lot of philosophical nuances and political undertones and rhetoric that makes it difficult to give it a universally accepted definition, the term has been generally associated with aspects such as power, freedom, oppression, emancipation and liberation in anthropological, social, economic, religious, educational, political and psychological discourse. However, in the original Greek (*isotes*), Latin (*aequitas*, *aequalitas*) and French (*egalite*) context, the term signifies a *qualitative* relationship between two objects, that is, being identical or of same value.

Wiseman (2008) submitted that gender equality has been explored in several research traditions. In the twenty-first century, the concept of gender equality pervades world culture in every nation around the world – even in nations where gender equality has not been fully achieved. The effects of world culture go beyond the more obvious explanations of overt or conscious social phenomena to include historically incremental social alignment of individuals, organisations, societies, and institutions. In other words,

world culture embeds nations and national education systems in wider cultural meanings and contexts.

Gender equality has been described as the establishment of equal benefit of opportunities; equal chances of participation and success for both men and women in realizing their full potential, and not hindering their individual ambitions, aspirations and roles irrespective of being born a male or female (Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2014). Gender equality of educational opportunity will denote an even provision of education to all individuals (either by the government, agencies or parents) irrespective of being a boy or a girl. While there have been calls for equality and equity of educational opportunities for both boys and girls from various sectors, there is the need to note the difference between the two terms for they are sometimes used interchangeably. Gender equality is not just allowing the males and females to participate in the same educational studies and activities to the same level, being given same treatment by the teachers, having the same level of achievement or even being prepared for the same societal roles but, rather, it is about taking cognizant of the biological differences while being given equal opportunities of participation and meeting their needs so that they can achieve their differing potentials.

2.7.3 Gender inequality in education

Gender inequality has been an endemic reality aptly described in very strong terms from both global and local perspectives. Regardless of constituting more than fifty percent of the world's population and performing two-thirds of the world's work, women only receive one-tenth of the world's income and own one-hundredth of the world's property. In fact they form a staggering seventy percent of the world's one billion poorest people (EFA Nigeria, 2015). Thus, globally, the goal on gender equality and women's empowerment is on the public policy agenda of almost every country due to its importance of complementing the mainstreaming gender equality in the indicators and targets of all sustainable development goals and also providing the leadership and visibility necessary for effective implementation. It is, therefore, not a surprise that eliminating gender disparity and achieving the gender parity goal is not only one of the main attributes of the Education for All (EFA) goals but it occupies a central place in the tracking of the progress towards the attainment of the other EFA goals.

Specifically in Africa, the issues of gender disparities in terms of opportunities and women's access to education have continued to receive major attention because of: one, the negative effects of exclusion of women in education on sustainable growth and poverty reduction and, two, either in terms of gross or net enrolment, Africa has reported with the lowest gender parity index in secondary enrolment and the inequality still persists (Anyanwu, 2016), so there is need to identify the key factors affecting gender inequality in secondary education enrolment and how they can be rectified to bring about human justice and general gender equality in national development.

2.7.4 Establishing the existence of gender inequalities in education

Today, girl-child education is a matter of concern for nations in the world. Girl-children are discriminated against, thereby making it difficult for them to exercise their rights. They are victims of various traditional and cultural practices, they suffer degradation, they are objects of poverty, their faces are only to be seen but their voices not to be heard, they are seen as being sub-servants to their male counterparts, they are seen as inferior and their place is supposed to be in the kitchen. A number of negative thoughts and actions are expressed on the girl-child (Kainuwa & Yusuf, 2013).

Two-thirds of the world's uneducated children are girls, and two-thirds of the world's illiterate adults are women. Around the world, girls and women continue to suffer from a lack of economic opportunity, inadequate health care and education, early marriage, sexual violence, and discrimination (EFA GMR, 2013/4). According to the report, before parity can be achieved, there is the need to bridge the gap showing that girls form about 54% of the global population of 57 million children who were out of school in 2011; 60% of the girls in the Arab states with the number unchanged since 1999; and the share of girls in the out-of-school population falling steadily from 64% in 1999 to 57% in 2011 in south and west Asia.

Even among the administrative staff of the apex of educational institutions (tertiary education) which provide the skilled and professional manpower for the nation and contribute significantly to the economic and political growth of the country, males are more favoured than females. There are fewer women holding academic and administrative positions in Nigeria's tertiary institutions than their male counterparts (AbdulKareem, et

al., 2011) thus making the number of women involved in the policy-making and implementation positions to be few. The implication of this is that policies to equalize educational opportunities and improve gender equality may not be easily passed or implemented since these decisions are mainly taken by the males, who may sometimes be biased by the patriarch social norms and values.

2.7.5 Gender differences in school enrolment

Certain questions usually come up when looking at gender differences in school enrolment or the issue of enrolment in schools generally - Do children enter school and then drop out? Do they fail to enrol in the first place? What are the factors affecting or influencing their enrolment?

According to EFA- GMR (2015), about 43% of the world's out-of-school children will never go to school and there exists a considerable gender disparity with this; 48% of girls are likely never to enrol compared with 37% of boys; however, boys are more likely to leave school early having 26% chances compared with 20% of girls. Also, half of the out-of-school children in sub-Saharan Africa and south and west Asia, and half of the out-of-school girls in the Arab states will never enrol. In countries with large populations of primary-age children who have never attended school, girls are still less likely to go to school than boys, especially among the poorest children. This means that even among the out-of-school children/the never attended, girls are still at a disadvantage, especially the poorest girls.

However, once enrolled, girls stand an equal or better chance of continuing and completing to the upper grades of primary school than boys, even where the girls are severely disadvantaged at the point of initial intake. The same also applies to completion of secondary education. In many OECD countries, for example, in 2011 an average of 73% of girls completed upper secondary education on time but only 63% of boys did. Also, girls' graduation rates from upper secondary school exceed those of boys in all OECD countries except Germany and the gaps were widest in Iceland and Portugal where girls' graduation rates exceeded those of boys by 20% or more (OECD, 2012). This shows that the survival rate of staying in and completing school is higher with girls than boys; once admitted in school, girls usually don't drop out as much as boys do.

EFA goal 5 is to eliminate gender disparities and achieve gender equality with focus on girls. It consists of unique target on education and additional indicators on girls' full and equal access. The international agreement to include this goal was a very positive development and indicated an acknowledgement by member states that gender inequality not only decreases the probability of achieving the other goals, but also that achieving gender equality depends on progress made on each of the other goals. The target of the goal is to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and achieve gender equality in all levels of education not later than 2015 and its related indicator is the ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education. This is similar to goal 5 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) adopted in September 2015, which is about achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls. Explicitly, target 5.c of SDG 5 is adopting and strengthening sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels (Anyanwu, 2016).

2.7.6 Gender disparity in secondary education

Though there has been an overall ascending trend in the percentage of countries reaching gender parity in secondary education globally, the pattern has not been steady across the various regions with disparities still existing among the regions. For instance, South America has a high GPI of 1.07 (girls being at an advantage) while it is as low as 0.83 in sub-Saharan Africa. The disparity is found to be wider and more varied at the secondary education level than at the primary, with about 63% of countries with data yet to achieve gender parity in secondary enrolment as at 2012. In addition, equal numbers of countries had disparities at the expense of boys and of girls. Also, in about 32% of the countries fewer than 97 girls were enrolled for every 100 boys (EFA GMR, 2015)

Just as happens with primary school enrolment, girls continue to be more disadvantaged in secondary enrolment in the sub-Saharan Africa countries and south and west Asia. Since 1999, the average number of girls enrolled relative to boys in sub-Saharan Africa has only risen slightly to 84 girls for every 100 boys in 2012 while in south and west Asia, despite the more progress made, it is still 93 girls enrolled for every 100 boys as at 2012. In contrast, Latin America and the Caribbean with a GPI of 1.07 in 2012 (unchanged since

1999) reveal more girls enrolled than boys in majority of the countries, with an average of 93 boys for every 100 girls enrolled (EFA GMR, 2015).

In terms of achieving parity at the secondary level across the regions, South America is the top region followed by North America; then Europe, Asia and Oceania where a majority of countries have done so while Africa has the lowest fraction of such countries. Notwithstanding the substantial progress made towards achieving equality in secondary education over the past two decades, Africa still had the lowest GPI of 0.87 in 2012 and girls still face barriers of entering secondary school (Anyanwu, 2016).

Generally, gender disparities are narrowing down and have even largely disappeared in a country like Vietnam, but the most extreme cases are still at the girls' expense especially in the Arab states and sub-Saharan Africa. Notwithstanding progress since 1999, 13 countries as at 2012 still had fewer than 80 girls enrolled for every 100 boys in secondary education. The situation is even worse in Angola with a reduction from 76 girls per 100 boys in 1999 to 65 girls per 100 boys in 2012. In conflict affected countries like the Central African Republic and Chad, as at 2012, about half as many girls as boys were enrolled in secondary school (EFA GMR, 2015).

Within the African region, the differences in GPI mask even greater differences among the various countries; countries with GPI in favour of male enrolment at the secondary school level include Chad with 0.41, Somalia with 0.46, Togo with 0.49, Central African Republic with 0.53, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) with 0.56, Guinea with 0.59, Mali with 0.65, and Niger and Sierra Leone with 0.66, whilst countries that are in favour of females are Namibia with 1.14, Libya and Cape Verde with 1.15 and Lesotho with 1.28 (UNESCO, 2012).

2.7.7 Reverse gender enrolment

There were, however, some cases of reverse gender gaps which underline the dynamic nature of achieving gender parity; here there is an increase in the ratio of girls' enrolment to boys' and also more of boys dropping out of school. Countries like Gambia, Nepal and Senegal now have higher girls' enrolment than boys'; for example, in Senegal, 81 boys were leaving primary school for every 100 girls in 1999 but by 2011 the situation was reversed with 113 boys dropped out for every 100 girls. Also, in Nepal, the gender gap is

reversed with more girls being enrolled in primary education in 2012 than boys. The Latin America and the Caribbean region also have disparity at the expense of boys with 93 boys enrolled for every 100 girls (EFA GMR, 2015).

In the secondary education enrolment the persistent gender gaps at the expense of boys have narrowed considerably since 1999. By 2012, the gaps have closed in all Western European countries except Finland and Luxembourg, while in Mongolia and South Africa strong progress has been made with both countries close to achieving gender parity. Meanwhile, the gender gaps in secondary enrolment have widened even in some richer countries such as Argentina, Suriname and several Caribbean countries just like in a few poorer countries such as Bangladesh, Myanmar and Rwanda. For instant, in Lesotho only 71 boys were enrolled for every 100 girls in 2012, a ratio that remains unchanged since 1999 (EFA GMR, 2015).

2.7.8 Effects of gender inequality

The desire to make education accessible to all citizens has been the focus of many nations in the world. This could be attributed to its roles in individual and national development (Akindele, 2014). The need to eradicate illiteracy in the world has, however, been attracting the attention of those in governments, thus many conferences, seminars and workshops have been convened at international level where the issue was a theme. In fact, Education for All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have both addressed gender parity as one of the primary international education policy and reform concerns (UNESCO, 2016; United Nations, 2013).

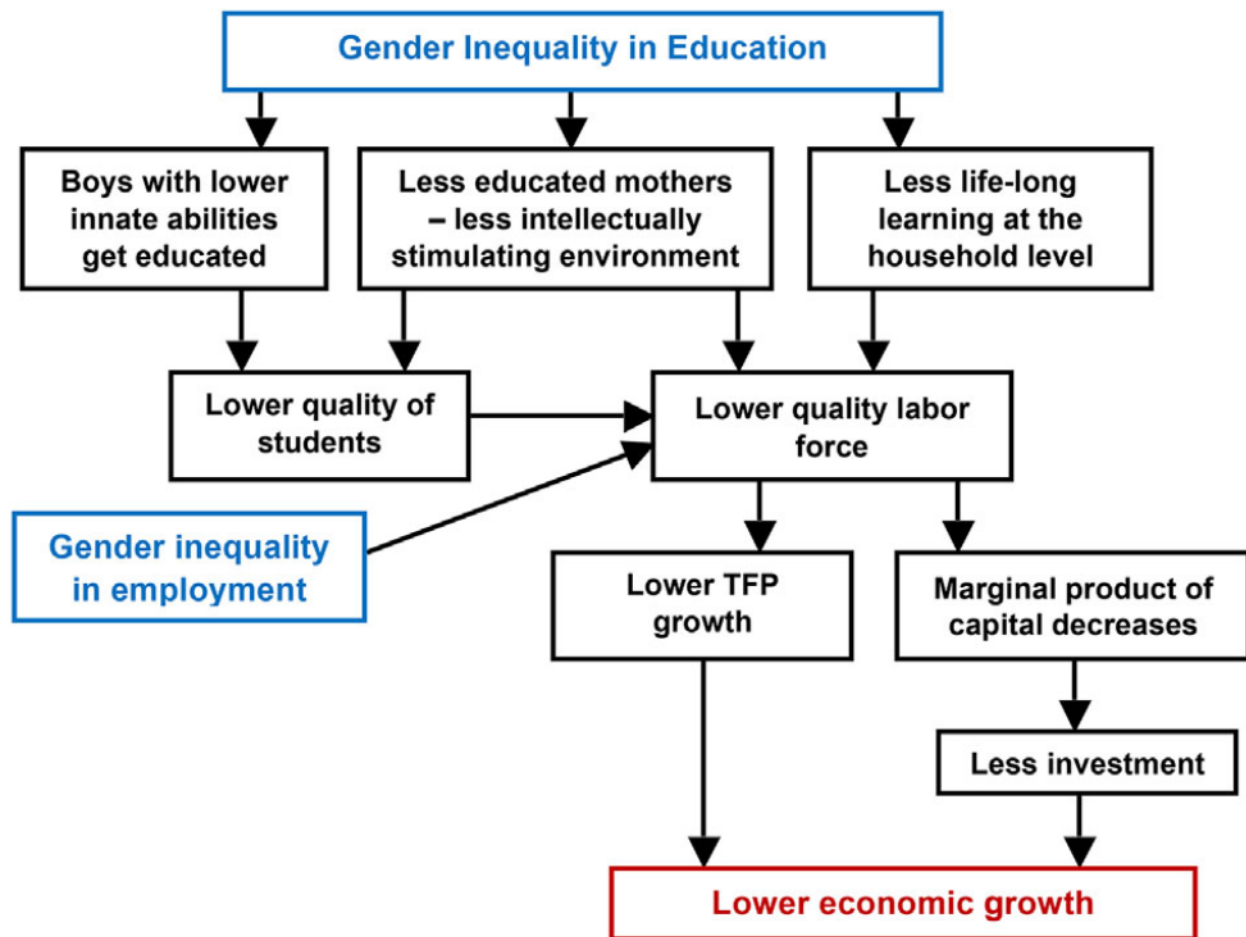
While some progress has been made in gendered education enrolment rates, the problem of gender segregation is still a very real issue even in some nations where girls are enrolled at levels on par with boys. Also, girls are often still at a great disadvantage, especially in developing countries, and most especially in African countries (Wiseman, 2008). The demographic and health surveys between 1994 and 2005 showed less than one-quarter of reproductive age women to have had secondary school education in about forty countries (Bose, 2012).

To Anyanwu (2016), the several factors impeding gender equality in education can be grouped generally into two main categories: (a) the demand side which includes socio-

economic, familial and cultural factors affecting the behaviour and the choices of parents and students, and (b) the supply side which includes political, institutional/bureaucratic, infrastructural, contextual factors and factors linked to the school. The resultant effects of the two sides include, amongst others, limited access to schooling, low female enrolment, high school dropout rate (particularly at adolescence age), low female participation in scientific/technical fields, high proportion of illiterate women, scarce or low scale employment opportunities, reduced contribution to national economic and social development, limited bargaining power, and absence from the political decision-making processes.

To other researchers (Anyanwu, 2016; Tanye, 2008; Akindele, 2014) the key factors affecting gender equality in education include macroeconomic context (includes corruption, inappropriate planning and implementation, unstable/non-implementation of educational policies and increase in population), household livelihoods and aspirations, political/institutional barriers, prospects and capacities of individual children, and factors relating to schooling provision. The overall cumulative effect of all these, as shown in Figure 2.6, results in the lower economic growth of the nation (Anyanwu, 2016).

Figure 2. 6: Gender Inequality in Education - Selection-Distortion and Environment Effects



Source: Anyanwu (2016)

2.8 Causes of gender inequality/disparity

The political decisions in a majorly patriarchy society like Nigeria are not usually in favour of women. For instance, while marking the year 2016 as International month (March) for honouring women in Nigeria, the theme was tagged 'Pledge for Gender Parity'. The red chamber rejected signing the bill seeking gender parity and prohibition of violence against women. The bill - The Gender Parity and Prohibition of Violence against Women Bill - was aimed at eliminating the gender gap between the rights of men and women in Nigeria and it also sought to put an end to the traditional and stereotypical practices that drive discrimination based on gender. In totality, the bill seeks to eliminate discrimination based on gender in the fields of economy, antagonistic treatment of widows, early marriages, women's inheritance rights, politics, education and employment, and also take a firm stand against domestic and sexual violence against women. Yet, the honourable

members of the National Assembly that is mostly dominated by men refused to sign such bill into law.

Also, cultural and societal norms and values could aggravate gender inequality as they might instil caginess and give respect and reverence to males while regulating the participation of women in communal circles, including access to education. Sometimes, cultural traditions, as well as the patriarchal family structures, prejudiced labour practices, discrepancy in laws of inheritance, and social habits are the determining factors of the male-female power relationship and can foster gender inequality. The 'cultural effect' in some of the Muslim-dominated countries is that female education is only socially and culturally acceptable if it does not impede with the role of the woman as a wife and a mother, with the stereotype notion and belief that a woman's real vocation should be motherhood and child care (Anyanwu, 2016). Meanwhile, Forsythe et al. (2000) cited in Anyanwu (2016) in their longitudinal study found that there is less possibility of a decline over time in gender inequality in these countries with resilient patriarchal institutional legacies.

Within the framework of gender bias, apart from individual characteristics such as absence of education which may hinder the effective awareness about gender equality, the community norms and attitudes in the form of village or neighbourhood-level characteristics have also be shown to have an effect on ideas and practices beyond the individual characteristics. For instance, the reason why India is having one of the lowest female literacy rates in Asia was as a result of the low priority placed on women's education within families. There also exists a persistently large gender gap in the literacy of males and females with the 2001 census recording 75.3 percent literate men against only 53.7 percent literate women (Bose, 2012).

Linking to cultural factor is the religious factor. Seguino and Lovinsky (2009) opined that the role of religions in inculcating gender inequitable norms could be linked to their organisational designs, which are like hierarchically planned and traditional rule-based institutions. An additional push towards this hierarchy is the economic role played by these organised religions; they have access to and control of material resources; as such, they are empowered to design and maintain social norms that reflect structures of power

that maintain their control. Thus, there is the tendency of the patriarchal dominance of the economic sphere to be reflected in these religious organisations because the elite groups usually capture power in the institutions.

The elite controlled religious institutions may also want to reflect these patriarchal values in order to buttress the economic, social and political power of the males to the detriment of the women (Sen, 2007) and once this has been achieved, other policy efforts towards empowering women, including closing gender gaps in education, will be hindered. Also, other issues like the heterosexual family, placing value on male children over the females, the custom of women's primary role of nurturing and taking care of children and others, attending as unpaid housekeepers and so on, will be highly accentuated.

An empirical study from Seguino and Lovinsky (2009) showed that even while keeping the level of GDP constant, the degree of religiosity in a country is directly proportional to gender inequitable well-being outcomes (including access to education). They explained that the influence of religion is being reflected in everyday decisions and behaviour in a variety of transactions and interactions, ranging from family resource allocations, to labour markets and government spending and resource allocation. In a similar study on the influence of religiosity on attitudes toward gender equality using World Values Survey data, Seguino (2011) found a strong correlation between religion and gender inequitable attitudes across countries with no religion standing out to be more gender inequitable than the others. The conclusion again was that religion influences everyday behaviour and decisions.

In addition, another factor relates to parental influence and preference of male to female children. The woman's status, especially in terms of educational attainment, can be a great influence on gender discrimination against the female child. The higher the educational achievement of the mother, the more her empowerment in the control of resources, and the less inclined she will be to discriminate against her daughter(s) (Afridi, 2010). Despite this, girls are still shown to be substantially educationally disadvantaged for they are much less likely to go to school than boys (Bose, 2012). Even when enrolled in school, they are more likely to be withdrawn from school earlier either in case of financial difficulties or to assist at home with family responsibilities if the need arises or at

puberty, as a way of protecting their honour. Amongst the nomads that are usually moving from place to place almost throughout the year, boys are usually left behind to continue their schooling while the girls are mostly taken along for security reasons and because of the low priority placed on female education; or the girls' education is stopped because parents will not allow their daughters to travel beyond the village (Bose, 2012).

Studies (Omoregie & Abraham, 2009; Bose, 2011) have shown that parents' strong preference for sons over daughters based on the traditional practice that male children will succeed their fathers and sustain their family has a lot of consequences amongst which are selective neglect or discrimination against the daughters in nutrition, health care, and education which usually lead to considerably poorer life chances for the daughters in most situations.

Moreover, another factor is poverty. Gender disparity in completion of primary schooling has been shown to be repeatedly wider among the poorest school-age children than the richest; the poorest girls are still at a severe disadvantage in entering and completing primary education, thus they are being left behind in education progress. For instance, countries like the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Mozambique and Uganda that have achieved gender parity in primary attainment for the richest girls since 2000 still have the poorest girls lagging far behind the poorest boys. In the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the proportion of girls who attained full primary education rose from 88 per 100 boys in 2000 to parity in 2010 among the richest children, but fell from 77 to 70 girls per 100 boys among the poorest children (EFA GMR, 2015).

The EFA GMR (2013/4) equally reported that the poorest countries may take several generations to achieve universal completion of primary and lower secondary education unless special efforts are being urgently taken to extend educational opportunities to the marginalized. Even within these countries the poorest girls will still be the last to fully enjoy the right to education. Looking at sub-Saharan Africa for instance, the achievement of the universal primary education completion will be by 2021 among the richest boys while it will be by 2069 for the poorest boys but the poorest girls will not catch up until 2086 for primary education completion and 2111 for the achievement of universal lower secondary school completion (EFA GMR, 2013/4).

In the developing countries, especially among the poor, parents sometimes base their decisions to send their children to school on the economic gain, in expectation of a financial return in the future or by taking into account the relevance of education for the future of the children. For others, educating the females is a way of increasing the daughters' marriage potential for it is believed that educated women are better housekeepers, better at maintaining household accounts, better at children upbringing and supervision and also more sociable (Bose, 2012). It is, however, believed that little education, at most primary school level, is enough to perform these roles.

Similarly, domestic investment/gross capital formation is another critical factor. The domestic investment of a country is its main source of employment, wealth creation and innovation, and a fundamental means of poverty reduction. The country cannot grow its economy without it, or sustain long term reduction in poverty; so the lower the domestic investment, the lesser the productive capacity of the economy. The resultant effect of this will be lower rates of economic growth, fewer opportunities of improving the livelihoods of the poor and lower rates of job creation.

Domestic investment is seen as one of the macro-economic variables that affect gender equality because the higher the value of the investment rate, the more the resources available for the government and the private sector to spend on the economic and social programmes, including education expansion and policies/programmes to improve education equality (Anyanwu, 2016). By creating employment opportunities for females, the domestic investment will boost the economic growth which will further enhance the States' ability to invest in the social sector, especially the women. Equally, the increase in demand for inputs and consumption as a result of domestic investment will lead to increased skilled labour, and this serves as a motivation to invest in human capital expansion such as education. The productivity and efficiency of labour is also improved, resulting in increased employment levels and decreasing of the gender bias.

In the same vein, influence of poor primary attainment and dropout from secondary education is another determining factor. There is a disparity in lower secondary attainment usually caused by initial disparities in primary attainment. While equal numbers of enrolled boys and girls made the transition from the final primary grade into

lower secondary, the average number of girls reaching that final primary grade was 93 for every 100 boys in 2010, leaving greater numbers of girls behind. Though this is an improvement from 81 girls per 100 boys of 2000, parity is yet to be achieved and the girls are still disadvantaged especially in the poorer countries. Some countries made substantial progress towards parity in lower secondary attainment due to their progress in reducing disparity in primary attainment. For example, Cambodia, where only 66 girls for every 100 boys attained a primary education in 2000 achieved parity within ten years and this contributed greatly to its progress towards parity in lower secondary schools with a GPI of 0.90 in 2010. On the other hand, in Malawi, despite the strong move towards parity in primary attainment, as at 2010 the disparity still persists at all three points - 90 girls for every 100 boys attained primary, 82 transit to lower secondary and just 75 survived to the end of lower secondary school (EFA GMR, 2015).

Contrastingly, due to the high dropout rate among boys, the disparity in lower secondary attainment widened at the expense of boys in some countries like Brazil and Tunisia. The GPI for lower secondary attainment rose from 1.12 in 2000 to 1.18 in 2010 for Brazil, while in Tunisia parity in primary attainment and entry to lower secondary education, which was previously at the expense of girls, was achieved by 2010, but fewer boys than girls now continue to the last grade of lower secondary school. In the upper secondary, boys are even more likely to drop out than girls with only 95 boys for every 100 girls surviving to the end of upper secondary school in 2010 and the disparity is even wider in countries like Brazil where boys are already disadvantaged in lower secondary attainment (EFA GMR, 2015).

2.9 Eliminating gender inequality/disparity across the regions

Great improvement has been made since 1999 in reducing gender disparity in primary enrolment but it has not been eliminated as stated in the goal. With the targeted year 2005 missed, projections only show 69% of countries with data will have achieved it by 2015 in primary enrolment while only 48% of countries will have reached it at the secondary level (Bruneforth, 2015). Among the 161 countries with data for 1999 and 2012, the number at parity – measured by a gender parity index (GPI) of between 0.97 and 1.03 – rose from 83 in 1999 to 104 in 2012. The number of countries with a GPI under 0.97 – with fewer girls enrolled relative to boys – dropped from 73 to 48. Of countries yet

to achieve parity by 2012, a majority had disparities at the expense of girls and only nine at the expense of boys (EFA GMR, 2015).

South and west Asia made a large improvement in reducing gender disparity in primary enrolment with the regional GPI increase from 0.83 in 1999 to parity in 2012 but only four countries - Bhutan, India, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Sri Lanka - in the region achieved gender parity over the period. Countries like Afghanistan still had just 72 girls enrolled for every 100 boys despite efforts towards getting girls into school (EFA GMR, 2015).

There was an improvement too with primary enrolment in the Arab states and sub-Saharan Africa in 2012 from 0.93 and 0.92 respectively but not parity. A country like Burundi was able to eliminate the gender gap by 2012 despite being far from parity in 1999 when it has 79 girls enrolled for every 100 boys, and Ghana was also able to achieve gender parity in primary education in 2012 but other countries like Benin, Burkina Faso and Morocco only made notable progress while not achieving parity (EFA GMR, 2015).

Achieving or realizing gender equality in education remains a serious social justice issue for its complex notion; it goes beyond counting the number of the boys and girls in school to exploring the quality of girls' and boys' experiences in the classroom and school community, their achievements in education institutions and their aspirations for the future. (EFA GMR, 2015). While providing a framework for distinguishing between "gender parity" and "equality in education" the EFA GMR (2013/4) explained gender parity as equal enrolment ratio for girls and boys and equality in education as a schooling environment that is free of discrimination while providing equal opportunities for boys and girls in the realization of their potentials. The report further clarified that gender parity is only a first step towards the achievement of EFA Goal 5 of full gender equality in education; other steps are also involved, such as ensuring that the school environment is safe and also improving facilities like making available separate conveniences for girls and boys; training teachers in gender sensitivity; achievement of gender balancing among teachers; and removing gender stereotyping from the curricular and textbooks (EFA GMR, 2013/4:4).

Anyanwu (2016) based the importance of focusing on gender equality, especially in secondary education in Africa, on two main reasons (see Figure 1.1); one is from a rights-based perspective. Education has been given a fundamental human right status globally, so everybody deserves the same opportunities to education. Secondly, educating the women help in fighting against poverty; for an educated woman is economically and personally empowered in influencing and making family decisions and in readdressing household spending on essential needs, especially in favour of children's education and healthcare (Anyanwu, 2016).

Figure 2. 7: Need for Gender Equality in Education



Source: Anyanwu, 2016

The fastest and most assured approach of getting to managerial positions in all aspects of human endeavour, including educational institutions, is by acquiring a high level of education, and the higher the level of education, the more the chances of getting to top management positions. However, only a few percentage of women have acquired the educational prerequisite required for management positions in most areas of human endeavour, and even these few ones are still being marginalized because of gender

identify (AbdulKareem, et al., 2011). So, providing the girl-child access to quality basic education will go a long way in building the foundation towards attaining a higher educational level which will qualify her into the decision-making position in the future and she can then be able to influence the formulation and implementation of policies and strategies towards reducing gender inequality in education.

As agreed by AbdulKareem et al. (2011), giving equal access to resources should not be a contentious issue in efforts towards achieving gender equity. Female students and staff should be given equal access to offices, computers, laboratories and library resources like their male counterparts. Equally, more female enrolment at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels should be encouraged and more females should be recruited among academic and administration staff of educational institutions in order to close the gender gap in education.

The call for gender mainstreaming is really about the inclusion of gender sensitivity and accountability into all developmental activities at all levels. It is about changing the institutionalized discriminatory gender norms, accountability structures, bureaucratic biases that are entrenched in organisational cognitive systems and work cultures to bring about gender equity. The structural and political conditions of the developmental activities should take into account the economic and political gains for women in addressing the issue of gender equity. This could be achieved by sensitizing and training the adults on the importance of gender equality while introducing a gender friendly curriculum at the primary and secondary school levels so that the children (both boys and girls) will grow up imbibing gender friendly norms and values (AbdulKareem, et al., 2011; Anyanwu, 2016).

2.10 Factors promoting the achievement of gender equality

The first major factor promoting the achievement of gender equality is female share of secondary school teachers. The presence of female teachers who usually serve as role models and send powerful messages to young girls to emulate has been identified as one of the major factors contributing to girls' success in school (UNESCO, 2012). The different roles played by the female teachers like serving as role models, making the classroom safer and more inviting places for girls and young women, sending powerful messages to

young girls via moral talks, all encourage the girls to continue their education. Corroborating the impact of female teachers on education, research (UNESCO, 2012) has shown a strong correlation between the percentage of female teachers in primary schools and the gross enrolment ratios of girls at the secondary level. Countries like Chad, Somalia and Central African Republic were shown to be among the lowest both in terms of the percentages of female primary school teachers and the proportion of females attending secondary school, while in all of the countries with female gross enrolment ratios of 100 percent, females make up at least two-thirds of the primary level teaching force.

While pinpointing the need to support teachers to end the global learning crisis, EFA GMR (2013/4) identified among others:

- A generation of young women has been left behind in educational attainment in spite of the recent advances in girls' education, with over 100 million young women from the low and middle income countries being unable to read a single sentence.
- The need to recruit more female teachers in order to attract girls to school and improve their learning outcomes, especially in the rural areas, because women teachers are shown to be particularly lacking in countries with wide gender disparity in enrolment.
- The need to train teachers in general (both male and female) in the understanding and recognition of their own attitudes, perceptions and expectations regarding gender for their interactions with the pupils not to harm the learning experiences and achievement of the girls and boys.
- Women should be provided with the necessary incentives, such as safe housing, to move and work in disadvantaged areas (if posted to such areas) in order to help in bridging the gender gap in learning. Alternatively, local recruitment could be made within such areas to ensure that the poor, rural girls get the benefits of being taught by a female teacher.
- The offering of an attractive career path that rewards teacher effectiveness as a form of motivation for the teachers; the acquisition of additional qualifications as

prerequisite for promotion sometimes limits the chances of teachers working in the rural areas, especially women, who have fewer opportunities to study.

- Instituting better teacher governance to ensure that teachers are held accountable for their presence, actions and behaviour. Adequate strategies should equally be put in place to prevent and respond to teacher misconduct, including gender-based violence, with necessary advocacy and support from the school leadership, the teachers and their unions, as well as parents and their communities.
- Teachers should be provided with innovative, inclusive curriculum and assessment support strategies that focus particularly on the needs of girls who are at risk of not learning (EFA GMR, 2013/4).

In essence, to help in solving the global learning crisis, and equally assist the children who already face disadvantages and discrimination, and also because of their gender are much less likely to be taught by good teachers, there is need to recruit the best teacher candidates, provide them with the appropriate training, deploy them to where they are needed most and provide them with all the necessary incentives to make a long-term commitment to teaching. The teachers should be those that enjoy teaching and are committed to the profession, who can identify and support weak learners, and who are backed by well managed education systems.

Another factor is democracy. Since democracy allows individuals, including women, the freedom to express their views and interests, it can then be postulated that democracy promotes gender equality, especially in education (Cooray & Potrafke, 2011). The justification given is that democracies have been able to promote gender equality through an educated middle class; funds earmarked for educating girls in democratic settings; the redistribution of income and public goods provision in democracies to reduce pressure on sons due to expectations from their parents; and the self-interest of men in democracies in educating their daughters. Equally, Beer (2009) posits that democracy has helped in facilitating gender equality through the mobilization of women and electoral accountability: women are given the liberty of expressing their views and interests; women are free to obtain and disseminate information; and they may even lobby for improving their status through education. Anyanwu (2016) also submit that women may be vested with

leadership positions since democracy increases their bargaining power within the household, which can give a mother the authority to invest more in her children's health and education. This equally indicated that the improved bargaining position of a mother can improve the bargaining position of a daughter in relation to a son-in-law (Doepke & Tertilt, 2009).

However, researchers (Hillman, 2007; Welzman, 2010) argued that in the autocratically ruled societies, the political leaders have the incentives to discourage education and investment in human capital because economic development will produce a middle class that will strive for democratic institutions and accountability from government. So, if girls' education is principally beneficial to economic development, the survival instinct of the political elites in non-democratic societies will be a justification for gender bias against girls' education in government schools.

Mixed results were produced from empirical studies on the effect of democracy on gender equality in education. Measuring attainment as the average number of years women attended school divided by the average number of years men attended school in 1990 from a sample of 105 high and low-income countries, Anyanwu (2016) found that it is only the executive-recruitment sub-component of democracy that has a positive influence on gender equality in education while Beer (2009), measuring attainment as the difference between the average years of educational attainment of women and men from a sample of 179 developed and low-income countries between 1960 and 2004, submitted that democracy may have a negative influence on gender equality in educational attainment. The results are, however, sensitive to the addition of an illiteracy variable which, when removed, make the democracy variable positive. There is also the argument that democratically elected governments have a greater incentive in providing their citizens with primary schooling than authoritarian regimes, with evidence from 12 African countries showing a clear relationship between democracy and greater provision of primary education (Stasavage, 2007).

Also, Cooray and Potrafke (2011) carried out an empirical study on whether political institutions or culture and religion bring about gender inequality in education using a database of about 157 countries between 1991 and 2006. The results showed no

significant influence of political institutions on the education of girls. Both the autocratic and democratic regimes do not discriminate by gender or against girls in their provision of educational opportunities.

Moreover, population control/growth is another major factor promoting gender parity in education. The rate of growth of the populace can be used in measuring the effect of key demographic variables on gender equity in education; an increase in national population should lead to an increase in gender inequality in education. According to Anyanwu (2016), affording women the freedom of their lives and time from rudimentary reproductive roles is very essential in achieving gender equality for it gives them more chances of getting involved in public spaces and becoming active agents of influencing and changing the culture. This implies that with family planning and decline in fertility, the women can have more time to get into the labour force; have the opportunity of getting long-term education; or to pursue any career of their choice.

It was observed by Malhotra (2012) that women seem to be empowered by fertility declines, for it increases their access to and control of resources, and improves the key aspects of their life choices such as increased school enrolment for girls, better access to credit, innovative ideas about birth control, and increased social networks. Equally supporting this, Sajid (2014) argued that gender equality in education is adversely affected by population growth. The analysis is that family size and number of dependents increase with increase in population, which leads to less priority given to female education because it is seen as more expensive than male education since females would be eventually married off, bringing little returns to the parents or siblings.

Share of women in the labour force is another determining factor. Anyanwu (2016) identified three main channels by which women's involvement in the labour force impact on children's education as income, greater bargaining power (empowerment), and substitution effects. The children's education outcome can be improved with increase in the mothers' labour supply due to an income effect. The mother can decide to directly bear the cost of educating her children, especially the females, since she has a personal source of income. Secondly, when women's participation in the labour market is high, it

increases their bargaining power on issues relating to household resource allocation decisions, and this will reflect positively on their children's education.

Studies have shown that, relatively, women in the labour force like investing more in their children's health and education (Anyanwu, 2016), consequently improving the children's education outcomes. When the woman is empowered, she can bargain better and influence the family decisions to invest equally on the children irrespective of gender, especially among the patriarchal family structures. Thirdly, there is the likelihood of the children of women involved in the labour force to be in school when their mothers are at work, if there are no available or affordable child-care services. While at work, women will prefer keeping their children engaged especially with academic work rather than leaving them wandering about at home or at the mercy of neighbours where they could get exposed to different forms of vices and abuse, especially the females. So putting them in school whilst the mother is at work contributes positively to the educational attainment of the children. In support of this, studies (Luke & Munshi, 2011; Qian, 2008) have shown increased female labour income to positively influence children's education. Qian (2008) further submitted that girls' educational attainment decreases with an increase in male labour income while there was no effect on boys' educational attainment. On the other hand, there are other studies that found an increase in female wages to either lead to a decrease in girls' time at school or not have any impact on children's time use (Anyanwu, 2016).

Next is the Use of ICT/infrastructure. ICT has been used and adopted in various fields of human endeavour due to its adaptability as a means of increasing flow of information and knowledge. It could be used as a means of promoting gender equality as it increases the exposure to the customs, norms and practices of other cultures and societies. The establishment or availability of ICT infrastructure can be used in sensitizing awareness on gender equality through dissemination of educational programmes on gender equity, thereby helping to re-orientate people and positively changing their attitudes towards women and women education. The increase in awareness may also help to coerce policy makers, by the informed constituency, to embrace gender as an important component of their social and economic policies. Women can also make use of the various ICT innovations to obtain and update their skills, access new educational and economic

opportunities (for employment purposes), reduce information barriers, take collective decisions (especially where it affects them directly, like female access to education and proper health facilities), and so on. Even those in rural or isolated communities can make use of ICT, if available and accessible, to participate in educational activities like distance learning or e-learning and commerce. This will influence positively the level of educational attainment especially for the females, who are usually restricted with household chores and reproductive responsibilities in such communities, thus closing the gender gap in education (Anyanwu, 2016).

2.11 Policies and practices promoting the achievement of gender parity and equality in education

EFA GMR (2015) submitted that 43% of the 145 countries with data are likely to or would have achieved gender parity in enrolments for both primary and secondary education by the year 2015 while only 27% are likely to reach gender parity in primary education, but not in secondary education. However, according to the report, in as much as measuring the progress towards parity is important, it's not enough for assessing gender equality. There is still a need for investigating the policies and practices initiated to address discriminatory social norms (for instance, through legislation), remove gender bias from inputs such as textbooks, improve education processes and tackle unsafe learning environments. These policies and strategies will go a long way in the achievement of gender equality in the education system.

2.11.1 Availability of and accessibility to education

Globally, millions of children still face great difficulty in getting access to school, attending and progressing through it, and having quality learning when there due to various reasons, most of which have a gendered dimension (EFA GMR, 2015). In a similar report, EDOREN (2015) submitted that with regards to access to basic education in Nigeria, there is a general decline in primary enrolments across the country from 2006 to 2010 except in the north-west while the enrolments in the public junior secondary schools are on the increase within the same period.

2.11.2 Level of accessibility

Nigeria has expressed its commitment to education over the years with the belief in overcoming illiteracy and ignorance which are the basis for accelerated national

development. However, there still remain inequalities in access to education. Pathetically, education is still used to perpetrate inequalities as millions of poor people are still being excluded from the processes and outcomes of education (Odukoya, 2010). Obasanjo (2012) submitted that in spite of the achievements of the education sector, four serious problems still persist in thwarting the governments' efforts. These are (1) Access – In spite of more institutions, the problem of access still persists at all three levels of education. With regard to technical education, the situation is very critical as the middle-level technical human capital necessary for industrialization is grossly lacking. (2) Quality – The quality in some of the schools is deplorable leading to ever poorer performance in national examinations even with more money spent on schools. (3) Purpose or education for what? Being confronted with the pervasive poverty of applied problem-based approaches that should contribute to national development and national unity, for example, building more schools, has not yielded the expected results all the time. (4) Relevance, beyond purpose of functionality –the relevance of the education to the culture, orientation, core values and the future.

Odukoya (2013) submitted that the delivery of education in Nigeria has suffered from years of neglect, compounded by inadequate attention to policy frameworks within the sector with the findings from an educational sector analysis confirming the poor state of education in the country. The national literacy rate was reported as 57 percent while some 49 percent of the teaching force were unqualified. Also, there are acute shortages of infrastructure and facilities at all levels while access to basic education is being inhibited by gender issues and socio-cultural beliefs and practices, among other factors. He further reported the persistence of wide disparities in educational standards and learning achievements and the system placing emphasis on theoretical knowledge at the expense of technical, vocational, and entrepreneurial education. He therefore called for the need for an urgent review of the school curricula to make them relevant and practice oriented-driven and of greater relevance in the educational endeavours so that many of the problems of these times will begin to disappear.

Equally, based on the experiences of UNICEF from various countries, Madu (2013) suggested the importance of the following factors in improving girls' access to education:

1. Parental and community involvement - involving families and communities as partners with the school is very important in the curriculum development and management of children's education.
2. Low-cost and flexible timetables - at least basic education should be free or at a very minimal cost. Also there should be flexible school hours to give the children the opportunity of helping at home and still attending classes and, where possible, stipends and scholarships should be made available to compensate families for the loss of girls' household labour.
3. Locating schools close to homes and employing women teachers - parents are mostly worried about their girls travelling long distances on their own while attending school and also have a preference for their daughters to be taught by female teachers.
4. Preparation for school - girls have been shown to do best when they receive early childhood care, which enhances their self-esteem and prepares them for school.
5. Relevant curricula – the relevance of the learning materials to the girls' background is equally important which should be in the local language. These materials should also avoid reproducing gender stereotypes.

2.11.3 Encouraging an enabling environment

There has been an increased commitment to gender issues in education since the year 2000. With the adoption of the Dakar Framework for Action and the UN Millennium Development Goals, the international community gave its support to the achievement of gender parity and equality in education. This was further strengthened with the launching of the United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) in the same year, which was the first global partnership to specifically promote girls' education and raise awareness of gender equality issues in education. Governments and civil societies also made equal commitments towards increasing the awareness of the importance of girls' education by executing legislative and policy reform; mainstreaming gender into education institutional structures, planning and budgeting; and creating a critical mass of support within societies (EFA GMR, 2015).

2.11.4 Gender mainstreaming and budgeting

Gender mainstreaming involves the making of gender equality a vital ideal that will be reflected in the structures and practices of institutions and the society as a complete subject rather than a separate issue or sector. Calls were made at the Dakar Framework for governments' commitment towards this and the Beijing Platform for Action, agreed at the 1995 World Conference on Women in Beijing, gave it an endorsement as an essential tool for achieving the commitment to gender equality (UNESCO and UN Women, 2014).

The main issue of the gender mainstreaming was the incorporation of a gender perspective into policies, programming and budgeting across ministries to ensure gender equality in education (Unterhalter, North, Arnot, Lloyd, Molestane, Murphy-Graham, Parkes, & Saito, 2014). This has been generally adopted in the educational sector of some countries, for example, the Burkina Faso government's education plan for 2001–2010 initiated strategies to strengthen the Directorate for the Promotion of Girls' Education, part of the Ministry of Basic Education and Literacy (UNESCO, 2008). The Yemeni government also set up the Community Participation Unit in 2003 and Girls' Education Sector in 2006 within its Ministry of Education to ratify the National Girls' Education Strategy (EFA GMR, 2015).

An approach for gender responsive budgeting was promoted by the UN Development Fund for Women (now known as UN Women) to examine government budgetary practices and the divergent effects on men and women, boys and girls. It also helps in holding governments accountable for their commitment to gender equality (Global Campaign for Education and Results Education Fund, 2011). The Gender Budgeting Initiative has helped in recognizing and reducing girls' household labour time by providing better community water facilities in country like the United Republic of Tanzania (Plan International, 2012; UN Women, 2012).

However, achieving this transformative change in official settings has been confronted with lots of restraints like insufficient resources to effect the change, relegation of the gender units within the institution, insufficient advocacy support, and limited implementation due to entrenched forms of discrimination (Unterhalter, North, & Parkes, 2010). In India, for example, the persistent discrimination against women undermined the

success of a programme – the Shiksha Karmi Project - which was meant to improve children’s access to education by involving men and women from remote communities (EFA GMR, 2015).

2.11.5 Instituting legislation and policy reform

Commitments shown by some of the countries in their national constitutions, legislation or specific policies to guarantee girls’ and women’s right to education or to forbid gender-based discrimination has helped in strengthening the progress towards greater equity and gender gap reduction in education. Countries like Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Ghana and Morocco incorporated a gender perspective into their national education plans, strategic plans or policies, thereby promoting girls’ right to education and giving targeted responses to girls’ low enrolment (UNESCO and UN Women, 2014). Also, there was an increase in the number of countries with specific legislation to combat domestic violence from 21 in 2009 to 53 in 2012 while 29 countries established quotas for women’s political participation. Notwithstanding this positive progress, gender equality is still being undermined by discriminatory social institutions. The OECD’s 2012 Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) shows that as at 2012, 86 out of 121 countries still have discriminatory inheritance laws or practices persisting, and though many countries have strengthened the legislation banning early marriage, it is still rampant across some countries with an average of 17% of women married between the age 15 and 19 years (OECD, 2012b)

2.11.6 Establishment of comprehensive policy frameworks

The establishment of comprehensive policy frameworks, supported by legislative reform to improve access to education especially for girls, has helped in closing the gender gaps in primary and lower secondary education in some countries. For instance, in India the accessibility and quality of girls’ schooling has improved with the introduction of multiple strategies like free textbooks for all girls, back-to-school camps and bridging courses, recruitment of female teachers, and national programmes to increase demand for schooling among rural and disadvantaged girls (Govinda, 2008). In Turkey, aside the legislative reform and school construction to expand participation in primary and lower secondary education, incentives are given to girls from poor homes and there is a national awareness campaign to increase girls’ enrolment (Sasmaz, 2014). In Burundi, incentives

are given for girls' enrolment in grade 1 at the official age to allow for primary education completion before puberty by waiving parental contributions and establishing mothers' groups.

In contrast, there is scarcity of policies addressing gender disparity at the expense of boys; rather, the focus is usually on boys' poor achievement and disengagement from schooling. To address this, some countries in Latin America and the Caribbean introduced several detached policies and interventions like strategies to mainstream technical and vocational subjects into the curriculum, school and community-based programmes to tackle youth crime and violence, and mentoring initiatives (Jha, Bakshi, & Faria, 2012).

2.11.7 Increasing demand and supporting rights to education

Governments, non-government organisations (NGOs) and the civil society have continually been showing their commitment and support towards rights to education by proffering solutions to overcome economic and socio-cultural barriers to schooling and reduce the gender gaps. The focus has been on three main areas: (1) promotion of positive values and attitudes towards girls' education by engaging in community mobilization and advocacy campaigns; (2) provision of incentives towards offsetting of school and opportunity costs, and (3) dealing with early marriage and adolescent pregnancy.

Right to education can be promoted through campaigns for attitudinal change and mobilizing support for girls' education. The achievement of gender parity and equality in education can be established from the social and cultural norms and practices of the countries. Any policy interventions that do not account for discriminatory social institutions fail to tackle the drivers of gender inequality and countries with such policies usually perform worse on a range of development indicators including education (OECD, 2012a).

The demand for girls' education and benefits of girls' improved access to education are usually negatively affected by engrained discriminatory social norms like early marriage, traditional seclusion practices, the preference of boys over girls in families' education investment and the gendered division of household labour (OECD, 2012b). The social norm in many countries also places most of the domestic housework like collecting fuel

wood, hauling water and caring for younger siblings on women and girls, all of which serves as limiting factors for attending schools (Lyon, Ranzani, & Rosati, 2013; Keilland, 2015). However, the girls' domestic work will most likely not get any attention from the policy-makers or be reached by any child labour law (UNESCO, 2008). In a country like Turkey, there are still high levels of domestic violence against women and their level of participation in the political arena and the labour market remains poor because their rights are still not fully protected in the country's constitution and penal code (Pasali, 2013).

Equally, increasing the awareness of education's economic and socio-cultural value to individuals, families, communities and societies at large will help in promoting the importance of education as a human right, especially for girls, and increase the demand for schooling. The use of national advocacy and community mobilization campaigns has been adopted as part of wider policy frameworks to change parental attitudes and build a solid support for girls' education in some countries. In the 1990s, countries like Burkina Faso, Ethiopia and Malawi used large-scale social mobilization campaigns in building far-reaching community support for girls' education (EFA GMR, 2015) while in Tajikistan, their National Strategy for Education Development (NSED) incorporated the use of television and radio campaigns to promote girls' education (UNICEF, 2013a).

The civil societies in political forums, like the National Education Coalitions, can also help in advocating for girls' education and gender equality. The 'Make It Right' campaign of the Global Campaign for Education (a body of national education coalitions with over 80 members) which call for robust government plans towards achieving gender equality in education, was used by one of its members, the Ghana National Education Coalition Campaign, to obtain a pledge by the Ministry of Education to develop a gender education policy, as part of the government agenda for 2012 (Global Campaign for Education, 2012). This helped in addressing the gender disparity at the secondary level which was at 91 girls for every 100 boys enrolled (EFA GMR, 2015). Sometimes the campaigns prove to be more effective when they involve partners from multiple sectors, especially those directly involving grass-roots organisations and communities supported by national planning and policy (Parkes & Heslop, 2013). Inclusion of multiple stakeholders was used in Turkey's national campaign to promote girls' education and, though it resulted in

increased enrolments in the targeted districts, there was still the issue of entrenched social discrimination, i.e. there was not much improvement in the attitudes towards gender equality (Dincer, Kaushal, & Grossman, 2014).

Another strategy towards the support for girls' education was community mobilization. Countries like Burkina Faso adopted community mobilization activities as part of the project for providing quality, girl-friendly schools (Kazianga, Levy, Lindel, & Sloan, 2013) while in India women were organised and mobilised through a women's advocacy project to achieve an increase girls' enrolment in the District Primary Education Programme (Unterhalter, 2006).

Another strategy for promoting rights to education is the reduction in costs of schooling. Lowering the cost of education and school-related costs which can excessively affect girls has been used as a strategy for equalising gender disparities in enrolment and attainment especially in countries with low female enrolment and completion. Adopting this strategy, a school fees and uniform waiver for all primary school girls was introduced in Yemen while in the Republic of Benin the combination of the elimination of school fees for all girls in public primary schools in rural areas and community mobilisation strategies to increase demand for girls' education helped in closing the gender gaps at primary level significantly with an increase in the GPI from 0.64 in 1999 to 0.89 in 2012 (EFA GMR, 2015).

Scholarships and stipends have also been introduced in assisting girls to continue their education. The introduction of the scholarship scheme for Cambodian girls to make transition from primary to secondary schools resulted in an increase in girls' enrolment by between 22 and 32 percentage points (Filmer & Schady, 2008) while the Female School Stipend Programme of Punjab Province in Pakistan led to increased enrolment rates ranging from 11% to 32% for all cohorts during the first four years of the programme (Independent Evaluation Group, 2011a).

Nonetheless, issues of equity still remain a problem. In a country like Bangladesh, for example, in spite of the commended success of the secondary school stipend programme for rural girls in increasing girls' enrolment, available data still suggests that girls from wealthier, landowning households benefited disproportionately while in Nepal the scholarships were not always enough to cover all school costs and educational materials

thus failing to provide the expected encouragements for the poorest families to send girls to school (EFA GMR, 2015).

The availability of scholarships and stipends may also lead to other forms of gender inequity while attempting to equalize disparities in access. Baulch (2011) submitted that a primary education stipend programme in Bangladesh showed a negative impact on the grade progression of boys from poor households who were unqualified to receive the stipends available to girls at the secondary level. In Pakistan, there was evidence that in families where girls are qualified for stipends restricted to government schools, boys have the possibility of getting enrolled in private schools, which often offer a better quality education (Independent Evaluation Group, 2011).

Also, some barriers to girl-child access to education need to be addressed as urgent as possible. One of the serious barriers to girls' access to and continuation in education is early entry into marriage and pregnancy as practiced in some cultures. With the responsibilities and expectations of marriage and motherhood, there exists a complex relationship between early marriage, child-bearing and girls' education. It has been noted that girls' participation in formal education is itself an important factor in delaying marriage and child-bearing (UNESCO, 2014c). Several underlying factors usually influence the decisions about education, age of marriage and pregnancy, such as poverty, prejudiced social norms and household composition, accessibility and quality of education provision (Psaki, 2015), conflict and humanitarian crises (Lemmon, 2014).

In addition, legislation on child marriage should be strengthened. There are international and regional human right laws and treaties forbidding child marriage like the Programme of Action adopted at the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development, African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights and the African Protocol on the Rights of Women (EFA GMR, 2015). Acceding to the law by some of the developing countries has helped in increasing the legal age of marriage between 1990 and 2000 for women in 23 countries and for men in 20. As at 2010, the legal age of marriage for girls without parental consent was set at 18 in 158 countries (Loaiza & Wong, 2012).

Though with not enough evidence to show if legislation alone is the real deterrent to this practice (Psaki, 2015), progress towards eliminating child marriage has been slow

globally with the available household survey data for 2000-2011 indicating that about 30% or more of women aged 20 to 24 were married or in union by the age of 18 in 41 countries (Loaiza & Wong, 2012). Even in a country like Bangladesh with an estimated 66% occurrence of child marriage, the legislation still limits the age of marriage to 18, though the law permits for exceptions (Brown, 2012; Loaiza & Wong, 2012). In Yemen, though the law set the minimum age of marriage at 17, it was not implemented due to objections from the conservative parliament members and clerics (AlAmodi, 2013).

Nonetheless, the occurrence of child marriage has been reduced considerably in some countries due to change in legislation. For example, in Ethiopia, due to a comprehensive framework of legislative change, advocacy and community mobilization campaigns that were put in place, the incidence of early marriage fell by over 20% between 2005 and 2011 with an estimate of about 41% of women aged 20 to 24 married or in union before age 18 (Loaiza & Wong, 2012).

Moreover, challenges of adolescent mothers in continuing their education should be addressed. The rate of adolescent pregnancy and early child-bearing is another issue of great concern especially in middle and low income countries with a report of about 36.4 million women in developing countries aged 20 to 24 having given birth before age 18, and 2 million before age 15 in 2010 (United Nations Population Fund, 2013b). However, 90% of adolescent pregnancies are to girls who are married (UNFPA, 2013b) due to higher exposure to sex with lower probability of using contraception than their unmarried peers, coupled with the pressure to conceive quickly after marriage (Presler-Marshall & Jones, 2012). Thus instituting effective policies and programmes to delay marriage can help in reducing adolescent pregnancy.

On the other hand, the risk of early and unintended pregnancy outside marriage has also increased globally (Presler-Marshall & Jones, 2012) with the prevalence of premarital sex before age 18 despite the decline in incidence of child marriage (EFA GMR, 2015). So in essence, the key driver of dropout and exclusion among female secondary school students is pregnancy and this has been identified in sub-Saharan African countries (Makamare, 2014), South Africa (Geisler, Mokgope, & Svanemyr, 2009), Latin American countries, where the high rate of pregnancy among adolescents has been a serious

concern for public policy, and Chile, where being a mother has reduced the probability of completing secondary education from 24% to 37% (Kruger, Berthelon, & Navia, 2009).

Establishing policies and programmes like Alternative Education to support the readmission of girls after the birth of a child as introduced in some of the sub-Saharan African countries (Makamare, 2014) can help them in continuing their education. For example, in Angola and Malawi, their non-formal second-chance programmes created the opportunities for adolescent mothers to attend classes by allowing them to bring their children with them (Jere, 2012; Save the Children, 2012). In Jamaica, the introduction of a government-funded programme provided continuing education to adolescent mothers who were formally excluded from school when pregnant and the programme has been very effective in helping to reintegrate the girls back into formal education and in reducing further pregnancies (UNFPA, 2013a, 2013b).

Sometimes, however, the acceptance of the programmes are often limited even where the policies do exist, with education providers and communities unaware of re-entry policies or unsupportive of girls' return, and also the stigmatization and discrimination against pregnant girls and adolescent mothers that are common in schools (UNESCO, 2014b). South Africa, for instance, has legislation forbidding schools from excluding pregnant girls, but only about one in three of the girls do return after childbirth and even those who do return often face negative attitudes and practices from teachers and peers (Bhana, Morrell, Shefer, & Ngabaza, 2010).

With regards to curbing the risk of early and unintended pregnancy outside marriage, Lee-Rife, Malhotra, Warner, and Gliniski (2012) observed that programmes that work directly with girls have been mostly successful. For example, the Abriendo Oportunidades project for indigenous girls in Guatemala made a positive impact with the 2010 evaluation showing that all participants completed sixth grade compared with less than 82% of their peers nationally and 92% of them remained childless during the programme, compared with 78% of non-participants (Catino, Colom, & Ruiz, 2013). The Young Men as Equal Partners project (2005–2009) established in Kenya, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia to encourage young men and women between ages 10 to 24 to engage in responsible sexual behaviour, and to strengthen gender equality in decision-

making regarding sexual and reproductive health yielded positive results for pregnancy rates in the targeted areas fell during the project period (RFSU, 2009). Kenya reported a drop in pregnancy rates in the targeted schools from 1 in 29 girls in 2006 to 1 in 97 girls in 2009 (RFSU, 2011).

2.11.8 Expanding and improving school infrastructure

Instituting policies to increase the availability and adequacy of school infrastructure can have both a direct and an indirect effect on the goals of gender parity and equality in education. In certain situations increasing the supply of schools, including girls-only schools, and improving school facilities can have a lopsided benefit for girls. This could be observed looking at the effect of increase in the availability and accessibility of schools, as well as water and sanitation, as strategies for improving girls' attendance at school.

Importantly, distances to school need to be reduced. Locations of schools and distances to cover have been shown to have effects on enrolment and attendance, especially for girls. This is noticed especially where parents are concerned about their girls' security while going to school such as in the slums in Nairobi (Mudege, Zulu & Izugbara, 2008); in places practicing traditional gendered seclusion, such as Pakistan (Andrabi, Das, & Khwaja, 2007; Jacoby & Mansuri, 2011) or when school location is in a village other than the village of residence, as observed in Chad where children's enrolment dropped dramatically when schools were located in villages other than their own and the longer the distance the lesser the enrolment of girls than boys (EFA GMR, 2015).

Different policy measures have been developed to help in overcoming barriers to girls' education related to distance. In Afghanistan, for example, where villages were randomly selected to receive a primary school building, it was observed that there was an increase in the overall enrolment by 42 percent points and the girls' enrolment increased by 17 percentage points more than that of boys and this has also helped in eliminating an existing gender gap (Burde & Linden, 2012). When the measure is on increasing the availability of schools, it can result in greater enrolment gains for girls (Glick, 2008), like the Education Enhancement Programme introduced in Egypt where massive investment was made in new schools with the target on deprived rural areas where girls' enrolment was traditionally low; the result was a rise in the primary enrolment ratios of girls and a

reduction in the enrolment gap with boys, showing a rise from 84 girls for every 100 boys enrolled in primary education in 1990, to 92 girls in 1999 and had reached 96 girls by 2012 (EFA GMR, 2015).

Other adopted policies that have equally yielded positive results include the policy decisions to reduce the numbers of schools in remote areas by merging the rural primary schools as established in China, which resulted in an increase in girls' completion of lower secondary by 17 percentage points (Li & Liu, 2014); the availability of post-primary schools, which has been shown to have a strong positive relationship with girls' retention in primary school in Pakistan (Lloyd & Young, 2009) and led to an enormous growth in secondary enrolment for girls in Bangladesh (Asadullah & Chaudhury, 2009).

Also, water and sanitation facilities should be enhanced. As a key strategy towards improving the school attendance for girls and promoting more equitable school environments, the provision of safe and separate sanitation facilities for girls was highlighted in the Dakar Framework for Action. The call to the improved sanitation is anchored on the understanding that adolescent girls are usually concerned over their privacy especially during menstruation and this can influence their education decisions, sometimes acting as an obstacle to school attendance (Adukia, 2014). The launching of the WASH in Schools global partnership and the Focusing Resources on Effective School Health, an advocate for adequate water, hygiene and toilet facilities in schools as particularly relevant to girls, were some of the programmes put in place towards achieving this strategy. Other initiatives included building separate latrines for girls and boys (UNESCO-IIEP, 2009), earmarking funds for improving facilities in girls' schools, with provision of toilets a top priority as established in the Punjab Education Sector Reforms Programme in Pakistan (Annual Status Education Report Pakistan, 2014).

However, according to UNICEF (2013c), though there has been an improvement with the provision of school water and sanitation in many of the developing countries over the past decade, the progress has been slow, with the average percentage of primary schools with adequate sanitation coverage rising from 59% in 2008 to 68% in 2012, and the share rising from 35% to 50% in the least developed and other low income countries. Also, there are limited data to show the extent of separate facilities provided for girls and whether

they are well maintained or even functional at all, for governments' monitoring of minimum standards generally deals with basic coverage indicators only. Indicators from international agencies providing funds to improve data collection highlighted continued poor conditions which sometimes prompt governments' responses (EFA GMR, 2015). For instance, the school census data of the United Republic of Tanzania as of 2010 showed that all primary and lower secondary schools had single-sex latrines; however, the 2010 mapping exercise by SNV, WaterAid and UNICEF showed that only 11% of the schools surveyed met the minimum standards of 20 students per girls' latrine and 25 per boys' latrine, 52% of girls' latrines lacked doors, and 92% of schools lacked functional handwashing facilities (SNV/WaterAid/UNICEF, 2010). The outcome of this survey led to the formation of an integrated national strategic plan to improve water and sanitation facilities in schools, including taking care of the specific needs of adolescent girls (United Republic of Tanzania Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, 2012).

Available evidence, surprisingly not much, on the impact of single-sex toilets on girls' enrolment and completion, and their effect as a stand-alone strategy to improve girls' attendance presented a mixed picture (Birdthistle, Dickson, Freeman, & Javidi, 2011). In Kenya, a study showed that the quality of primary school toilets, in terms of cleanliness and maintenance, may be more important than quantity in improving attendance (Dreibelbis, Greene, Freeman, Saboori, Chase, & Rheingans, 2013) while in Malawi no association was found between single-sex toilet availability and girls' school attendance, and menstruation only accounted for a small proportion of girls' absenteeism which is insufficient to create a gender gap in attendance (Grant, Lloyd, & Mensch, 2013). However, differential impact was observed in India; at younger ages, both girls and boys benefitted substantially from latrines, whether sex-specific or not, but for the older girls, separate latrines were a critical factor in their enrolment which increased substantially after separate latrines were installed. This is an indication that privacy and menstruation issues may actually be a key factor in girls' attendance in India. Also, it was observed that the construction of single-sex toilets made a positive impact on the share of female teachers at schools, a suggestion of another possible route by which girls can benefit (Adukia, 2014).

Providing access to better facilities and support will likely have a positive effect on girls' dignity and the overall quality of their school experience irrespective of girls' attainment or not, hence there is need for more research to assess the impact of toilet availability within interventions that combine infrastructure with training, outreach and hygiene education, including menstrual hygiene management.

Also, there is the need for policies to improve boys' participation. With focus on the overall unequal disadvantage girls continue to face, the needs of millions of boys globally that are not adequately met by formal education systems are sometimes ignored. Whereas girls remain less likely than boys to enter school in the first place, boys are still at a higher risk of failing to progress and complete a cycle of education in many countries (EFA GMR, 2015). These have broader repercussions for gender relations for research has shown that men with less education expressed discriminatory gender views, were more likely to be violent at home and were less likely to be involved in child care if they were fathers, while men with secondary education demonstrated more gender-equitable attitudes and practices (Barker, Contreras, Heilman, Singh, Verma, & Nascimento, 2011). Consequently, there is need to institute distinct policies for girls and boys to support the enrolment and completion of both.

Poverty and the obligation or desire to work has been identified as some of the reasons why many boys leave school early (Barker, Verma, Crownover, Segundo, Fonseca, Contreras, Heilman, & Pawlak, 2012), coupled with late entry, poor performance and a consequent lack of interest in school, along with factors such as ethnicity and other forms of marginalization (Hunt, 2008; Jha et al., 2012). For example, in southern African countries like Botswana, Lesotho and Namibia, boys are usually taken out of school to herd cattle (EFA GMR, 2015) while in Mongolia boys from poor herder families continue to be the most educationally disadvantaged rural group due to their historical high rates of dropout (Steiner-Khamsi & Gerebnaa, 2008). Also in Brazil and Jamaica, due to their view that education is no guarantee of future employment, boys in low income urban settings often drop out of school to work in manual labour, construction or other semi-skilled jobs that do not require completion of secondary education (Barker et al., 2012).

Economic hardship equally has an influence on boys' education just like their female counterpart in the same situation; for boys from poorer families or minority groups are often at higher risk of dropout because families sometimes react to economic shocks by withdrawing boys from school to work. Evidence from Brazil showed that, with a sudden drop in family income, the probability of boys from poor households dropping out of school was 46% higher than for boys from non-poor households (EFA GMR, 2015). As found in the Caribbean, economic hardship also increases proneness to gang membership and violence, often strengthened by a lack of educated male role models and perceptions of schooling as unmanly (Barker et al., 2012). Also, it was found that boys in the OECD countries commonly leave school as a result of poor academic performance throughout their schooling and those from low income backgrounds or minority groups are usually at the highest risk (OECD, 2012).

Another factor is gender stereotyping and entrenched violence in schools. Boys are more prone to experience corporal punishment than girls as they are often perceived as tough and undisciplined. Hepworth (2013) in a case study in Mongolia linked the higher possibility of violence against boys in schools with increased possibility of dropout, especially for boys from low income and migrant families that are already disadvantaged by economic pressures.

According to Jha et al. (2012), little attention is often being paid to improving boys' enrolment in and completion of primary or secondary education in the educational policies of many of the developing countries, even in those with severe gender disparity at boys' expense. For example, there is no evidence of strategies to reduce the gender gap and tackle barriers to boys' attainment in Lesotho's policy documents despite the fact that the country's extreme gender disparity at the secondary level, with more than 140 girls enrolled for every 100 boys, has remained largely unchanged since 1999 (EFA GMR, 2015). Also, despite the disparity in enrolment in secondary education at the expense of boys in the Philippines and Thailand, the gender equality mechanisms and policies put in place focused largely on women and girls (Hepworth, 2013). Even in a country like Mongolia that provided a rare example of policy supporting boys' access to education by issuing policy that clearly targeted high male dropout rates, the most recent education

action plan made no specific reference to boys or other disadvantaged groups despite the positive result of the previous policy in the reduction in gender gaps at the expense of boys (Hepworth, 2013).

Some countries, however, still offer policies to improve boys' access. For instance, the Jamaican government introduced higher payments for boys enrolled in secondary school in their education grant as a response to boys' lower attainment, thereby benefiting boys from poorer households who are at greater risk of leaving school (Fiszbein & Schady, 2009). Also, the Caribbean countries through their regional conferences have been actively evolving strategies and interventions such as mentoring, second-chance initiatives, training and community dialogue that are targeted at responding to school dropout (World Bank and Commonwealth Secretariat, 2009).

2.12 Equitable school and classroom environments

School-related factors that can restrain the achievement of equality were highlighted in the Dakar Framework with a call for schools to be safe and gender-sensitive learning environments, so achieving gender equality in education should not only focus on equality of access but also equality in the learning process, in educational outcomes and in external results. Three sets of provision were identified by the 2008 GMR as being important in improving the quality of learning in schools in general, but for girls in particular: enhancing the number and quality of teachers, including female teachers; reforming curricula and textbooks to remove gender bias; and making classroom practices more gender-sensitive through training (UNESCO, 2008) and, recently, a growing focus on gender-based violence in the wider school environment (EFA GMR, 2015).

2.12.1 Recruiting female teachers

The percentage of female teachers is an important pointer of progress towards gender equality and has been shown to have a positive effect in countries where girls face disadvantage in participation in education. According to EFA GMR (2015), the percentage of women in the primary teaching force has increased globally from 58% in 1999 to 63% in 2012, while the global average remains unchanged at 52% in the secondary education, but in several countries in the Arab States, south and west Asia and much of sub-Saharan Africa, female teachers still remain in the minority at both the primary and secondary

levels; with women making up 43% of the primary teachers in sub-Saharan Africa and 31% of secondary teachers in 2012.

Some countries, like Afghanistan, Benin, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Morocco, Mozambique, Nepal and Niger, made the recruitment of female teachers as a noticeable strategy in their national education plans over the past decade, connected to strategies to encourage girls' enrolment and retention (UNESCO-IIEP, 2009). For instance, in Afghanistan, where conservative communities do not allow girls to be taught by men, two national plans were put in place with clear targets on female teacher recruitment to address low levels of girls' enrolment; one was strategies to raise the number of female primary and secondary teachers by 50% by 2010 (Afghanistan Ministry of Education, 2007) and the other was to hire and train 50,000 grade 12 graduates, 45% of whom were to be women (Afghanistan Ministry of Education, 2014). This resulted in an increase in the percentage of female teachers from an extremely low 10% to 31% in primary education between 1999 and 2012. Similarly, in Nepal, with their clear policies for female recruitment, the percentage of female primary teachers rose from 23% in 1999 to 42% in 2012 and in Morocco from 39% to 54% (EFA GMR, 2015).

It has nonetheless been observed that female representation in the teaching force falls with the rise in the level of education, for example, across the OECD countries, on the average, two-thirds of teachers are women but as the level of education increases the proportion decreases: from 97% at the pre-primary level to 82% at the primary level, 68% at the lower secondary level and 56% at the upper secondary level (OECD, 2013). Even in Ghana, where gender gaps still persist in secondary enrolment despite their achievement of gender parity at the primary level, women constituted less than one-quarter of secondary teaching staff in 2013 and in the Central African Republic, Chad, Guinea and Mali, where there are severe gender disparities in education, less than 12% of secondary teachers were women in 2012, denying adolescent girls important role models (EFA GMR, 2015).

The international trend in teacher recruitment has been greatly influenced by the non-state providers, especially in low income countries with traditional restriction on women's mobility, and this has produced substitute routes for women to become teachers,

particularly in rural areas. The local hiring of married women and training them to teach the lower primary grades by the NGO BRAC in Afghanistan is a typical example (Anwar & Islam, 2013). Likewise in Pakistan young, amateur, single women from local communities are being employed to teach in low-fee private primary schools (Andrabi et al., 2008). However, a recent study in Jordan still revealed the persistence of gender equality, where despite the fact that women form 88% of the workforce in private schools, the female teachers in the private schools earned 42% less than their male counterparts (International Labour Organization (ILO), 2013).

2.12.2 Leadership opportunities for female teachers

The gender inequality and bias also reflect in promoting teachers to managerial positions which are mostly in favour of male teachers. A study showed that while almost half of all primary school teachers in Kenya and the United Republic of Tanzania were females, less than 20% of school principals are women (UNESCO-IIEP, 2011). The situation is still the same even where the majority of the teachers are females, as comparably fewer women than men rise to leadership positions. This is reflected in OECD countries where men are more likely to be school principals than be regular teachers; countries like Portugal and the Republic of Korea had men as less than one-third of regular lower secondary teachers, but up to 61% and 87%, respectively, of school principals as men (OECD, 2014b).

2.12.3 The impact of teacher gender

The teachers' gender, especially the female, has a significant influence on demand for girls' schooling especially in countries with cultural and social barriers to girls' enrolment and can help in dispelling parents' fears of security issues. Studies (Huisman & Smits, 2009a; 2009b) have shown that an increase in the share of the female teachers in the district resulted in an increase in girls' access and retention in education, particularly in rural areas. It has also had a beneficial effect on girls' performance and continuation in secondary education (Aslam & Kingdon, 2007; UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2010) and is positively associated with both girls' grade averages and scores on primary school leaving examinations in Tunisia, where gender parity in primary enrolment has been achieved in 2012 (Balioune-Lutz, 2011).

Chudgar and Sankar (2008) however submitted that though female teachers are more likely than male teachers to see all children as equally capable of learning, it is the teacher's training rather than gender that is the determining factor for students' performance. Similarly, some studies have identified other factors such as similarity between teachers and students due to ethnicity, caste and religion to be of equal importance to learning outcomes as gender is, if not more so, especially for boys (Rawal & Kingdon, 2010); or based on the individual teachers' abilities rather than their gender as found in the United Kingdom (Francis, Skelton, Carrington, Hutchings, Read, & Hall, 2008).

Though wider gender norms can result in some boys disengaging from school and dropping out according to Cobbett and Younger (2012); Kelleher (2011), studies have not been able to link boys' under achievement or low participation in school to the gender of their teacher (Kelleher, 2011).

2.12.4 Gender-sensitive training for classroom practice

Teachers greatly influence the students' understanding of gender roles. The teachers' attitudes, practices and differential expectations of boys and girls in class can replicate gender stereotypes that will influence the students' motivation, participation and learning outcomes. It has been observed in many classroom settings that teachers of both sexes do interact more often with boys, thereby encouraging apathy among girls (Eurydice, 2010). Consequently, in order to help in reducing this teacher gender bias and build more supportive school environments, especially for girls, there is need to integrate inclusion, gender-sensitive pedagogics and classroom management into teachers' education. As Postles (2013) submitted, equipping teachers with gender-sensitive training to improve diversity in teaching and assessment styles can also help in ensuring that both girls and boys participate equally in class. Equally, researches (Jha et al., 2012; Oloyede, Adebowale, & Ojo, 2012) have indicated that learner-centred, collaborative teaching methods can also help in improving learning for both boys and girls.

2.12.5 Integrating gender-sensitive training into teacher education

The integration of gender-sensitive training into teacher education has, however, received little attention because education reform relating to classroom practice was formerly concentrated on improving teaching methods for subject-related student performance. So

changes have been slow, with a 2010 review of European countries showing that only about one-third of the countries have implemented gender-sensitive teaching as a class management tool (Eurydice, 2010) and another review of education policy indicating a dearth of policies to integrate gender training into teacher education in 40 developing countries (Hunt, 2013). In some situations, even where such policies exist like in Cameroon, the effectiveness is commonly limited due to lack of clear strategies, poor implementation and supervision, and inadequate evaluation of outcomes. Besides, there is still a dearth of knowledge regarding the extent to which teachers and teacher trainers draw on training in gender issues and the learners' response to it (Unterhalter et al., 2014).

Nonetheless, some countries have made some efforts to include gender training in formal teacher education policy and programmes, like the introduction of a unit on gender issues in a 12 month certificate of education course for teachers in Bangladesh, which affords teachers ways of exploring their own practice and develops more inclusive approaches (Heijnen- Maathuis, 2008); the inclusion of explicit strategies for gender-sensitive teacher training in Kenya's Education Sector Support Programme 2005–2010 (EFA GMR, 2015); the promotion of a gender-sensitive approach to teacher education and in-service programmes to support gender-sensitive classroom practices in Mexico's 2013–2018 national education plan (Mexico Government, 2007); and the call for gender equity in all pre-service and in-service teacher education in Papua New Guinea's 2009–2014 Gender Equity Strategic Plan (Papua New Guinea Department of Education, 2009).

The gender-sensitive training has also been largely funded by donors or international NGOs in developing countries either as add-on programmes or as part of wider sector reforms. Examples include the Gender-Responsive Pedagogy model established by the Forum for African Women Educationalists as an add-on training model for teachers (Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), 2013); gender-sensitive training under the USAID-supported Decentralized Basic Education reform as a strategy to improve the quality of education in Indonesia (US Agency for International Development USAID, 2008); and the Commonwealth of Learning and UNICEF's support for mainstreaming of gender-sensitive, child-friendly schooling approaches in pre-service

and in-service teacher education in Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Nigeria, Rwanda, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Trinidad and Tobago, and Zambia (Umar, Kinakin, & McEachern, 2012).

2.12.6 Curriculum and textbook reform to promote gender equality

Schools may well be used as a powerful ticket for encouraging equitable gender relations and varied possibilities for male and female roles. So, in the classroom, according to Brugeilles and Cromer (2009), gender-responsive teaching should not only be guided by pedagogical approaches but also by the content of the curriculum, the textbooks and other teaching and learning materials as they all serve as tools for socialization. The curriculum can be employed as a tool for inspiring students to query gender stereotypes and thereby promote equitable behaviour. On the contrary, the presence of discriminatory gender norms in the curriculum and textbooks can cause damage to the students' self-worth, reduce their commitment and limit their expectations (Esplen, 2009). This was addressed in the Dakar Framework of Action where it highlighted the need for curriculum content and learning materials to reflect and support equality and respect of the genders. UNGEI, in 2010, equally echoed the same by calling for greater attention to the policy issue of eliminating gender bias in the teaching and learning materials in schools (UNGEI, 2010).

2.12.7 Eliminating gender bias in textbooks

According to Blumberg (2007), gender bias is prevalent in textbooks in spite of prior widespread revisions: the representations of males and females in the professional and domestic circles are based on the traditional gender stereotypes, and, mostly, the females are either under-represented or not represented at all. Supporting studies showed that women were illustrated in half as many images as men in Spanish language and literature textbooks, and in China, as at year 2000, their social studies texts presented all scientists as male (EFA GMR, 2015).

With the motivation from the Dakar Framework of Action, donors and governments institute strategies and policies to address gender bias in the curriculum and textbooks, and education in general. For example, in Pakistan, the removal of gender bias from the curricula and textbooks was one of the three strategies in their 2001-2015 EFA action plan towards improving gender parity and equality (EFA GMR, 2015). The international

agencies like the World Bank, while intervening to improve the quality of educational resources and eliminate gender bias, budgeted its expenditure on girls' education. Most of their education initiatives between 1998 and 2005 in countries like Bangladesh, Chad, Ghana, Guinea and Nepal had a clear focus on eliminating gender bias from curricula and/or textbooks (Blumberg, 2007).

However, more recent studies (Lee & Collins, 2009; Asatoorian, Baringer, Campbell, Desai, Jie, & Kanthoul, 2011; Foroutan, 2012; Mustapha, 2012; Shah, 2012) still show the widespread bias in textbooks and/or curricula of many countries, including Australia, Georgia, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Nigeria and Pakistan, in spite of their attempts towards attaining gender balance. This could be linked to the lack of political will and support from the wider society in presenting policy reforms on elimination of gender bias in education resources. Even in some cases where there are policy recommendations from the international communities, there is insufficient national support which usually results in slow progress. For instance, despite the wide circulation of the results of the Ford Foundation research in China, some of the stakeholders were still cynical about the need for advocating for change (Blumberg, 2007). Equally in Pakistan, lack of public support and opposition within the institutions charged with the responsibilities of curriculum reform and textbook production resulted in the low political importance given to textbook revision (Blumberg, 2015). While in Georgia, the challenge is that of lack of ample knowledge concerning gender sensitivity by the key professionals charged with the responsibilities of drafting guidelines for textbook production and issuing approval for use (Asatoorian, et al., 2011; Blumberg, 2007).

2.12.8 Inclusion of gender in curricula

Various countries have carried out gender reviews of the curricula in order to increase the awareness and support towards more gender-responsive content and resources. Countries like the United Republic of Tanzania has gender-related topics in the 2010 revision of the national secondary school syllabuses and also about 25% of form 2 lessons in civics and form 4 lessons on culture devoted to gender (Miske, 2013). Some of the curricula have helped in developing exchangeable talents in the students which has greatly supported learning and encouraged positive gender relations. An example is the interdisciplinary curriculum designed for rural girls in Honduras that uses student-

centred and inquiry-based learning that emphasises dialogue to query the power structures and contest gender stereotypes (Miske, 2013). Another one is the development of a supplementary curriculum for standard 6 and 7 students in Mumbai, India, to include gender roles, violence, and sexual and reproductive health. The students were later seen to display better problem-solving skills and self-confidence, improved attitudes and gender awareness (Achyut, Bhatla, Singh, Verma, Khandekar, Pallav, Kamble, Jadhav, Wagh, Sonavane, Gaikward, Maitra, Kamble, & Nikalje, 2011).

The inclusion of a comprehensive sex education in the curriculum can also help in promoting gender equality, but according to Stromquist (2007) sometimes the sex education programmes don't address the gender dynamics that go along with sexual and reproductive health. For instance, UNICEF (2013a) found that all but two of the school curricula reviewed in ten countries in eastern and southern Africa had moderate to serious gaps in topics relating to gender in their school sex education curricula; many curricula ignored discussions on gender-based violence and there was a generally weak and sometimes contradictory approach to gender. Contrastingly, however, sexuality is effectively taught in the Sweden curriculum in context of its psychological, ethical and social dimensions and personal relationships, and supports equally sharing of sexual decision-making by girls and boys (Stromquist, 2007).

2.12.9 Tackling gender-based violence in schools

Part of the Dakar Framework for Action call towards elimination of gender bias and discrimination is for governments and stakeholders in the educational sector to provide adequate security for the students, especially girls who are susceptible to abuse and harassment, both while at school and on their trips to and from.

Researchers have tried to explain gender-based violence experienced in schools in different ways. To Humphreys (2008), it simply means the differences in the experiences of violence encountered by boys and girls within the school setting, such as corporal punishment, while to Greene, Robles, Stout, and Suvilaakso (2013), they are deeds or extortions of sexual, physical or psychological violence taking place within and around schools and educational settings as a consequence of gender norms and stereotypes and unequal power dynamics. Examples of this include physical violence and bullying,

non-consensual touching, sexual harassment, assault and rape (Leach, Dunne, & Salvi, 2014). Bullying, like perceived or actual homosexuality of the victim, homophobic bullying and harassment and cyber bullying are now on the increase which is attracting great concern globally (Fancy & Fraser, 2014; UNESCO, 2012a).

According to UNICEF (2014) girls are more susceptible to sexual harassment and abuse from the male students and teachers while the boys experience frequent and severe physical violence, but there are no definite peculiarities to this for boys have been shown to equally experience sexual abuse (Nandita, Achyut, Khan, & Walia, 2014) while girls are also involved in acts of violence (Bhana, 2008). The impacts of gender-based violence can be short- or long-term for both boys and girls, such as negatively influencing their achievement and attainment, giving them physical and psychological trauma or long-lasting health and social consequences (Mullis, Martin, Foy, & Arora, 2012; UNESCO, 2008).

Studies (EFA GMR, 2015; Parkes & Heslop, 2013) have shown the prevalence of gender-based violence, most of which is on sexual violence against girls in school settings, particularly the authoritarian and highly gendered school environments in the sub-Saharan Africa region. The female students are either sexually abused by the older male students, like in Cameroon where 30% of sexual violence experienced by girls in school was committed by male students (Devers, Henry, Hofmann, & Benabdallah, 2012) or by the male teachers, like in Sierra Leone where about one-third of reported cases of girls being forced or coerced into sex in exchange for money, goods or grades were committed by male teachers (African Child Policy Forum, ACPF, 2010). Equally, in a survey carried out in Malawi, 20% of teachers admitted to being cognizant of the fact that their colleagues do force or coerce female students into sexual acts (EFA GMR, 2015).

Reports from Latin America and the Caribbean have been mainly concentrated on physical violence, like the aftermath effects of mob violence in schools (Jones, Moore, Villar-Marquez, & Broadbent, 2008) but the general acceptance of family and community violence, especially against women, lays the social foundation for sexual violence against girls by male students and teachers (Leach et al., 2014). The result of a study carried out in Ecuador on female adolescent victims of sexual violence showed 37% of the

perpetrators were teachers (Jones et al., 2008). In the Asian countries, however, occurrences of abuse are often unreported because of the difficulty of conducting research on gender based violence owing to social taboos, but there were reports of sexualized behaviour towards the female students by teachers in the minor studies conducted in south and west Asia (Pawlak, 2014). There were also reported cases of occurrence of sexual violence against both boys and girls in five countries in Asia (EFA GMR, 2015) and 21% of girls and 17% of boys between the ages of 12 and 17 were reported to experience sexual violence at school in Viet Nam (Nandita et al., 2014).

Parkes (2015) argued that physical violence, like corporal punishment, can also have gendered dimensions. Supporting this, Nandita et al. (2014) in their report on Indonesia, submitted that 27% of boys aged 12–17 testified to having been physically punished by a teacher in the previous six months, compared with 9% of girls. Equally, 56% of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender students in Thailand had reported being bullied in the past month (UNESCO, 2014d).

Gender-based violence has always been a global issue, not limited to the poorer or developing nations alone. 80% of over 2,000 secondary students involved in a study across the United States claimed to have experienced sexual harassment at school (EFA GMR, 2015). Mncube and Harber (2013) also submitted that 27% of students in a study in the Netherlands had been sexually harassed by school personnel. Access to online technology and technological advancement in countries like Japan and New Zealand is also evolving new forms of school-related gender-based violence such as homophobic bullying and cyber bullying (Pawlak, 2014).

2.13 Policy and programming responses to school-related gender-based violence

School-related gender-based violence has been identified as one of the despicable indicators of gender discrimination which is seriously undermining efforts towards achieving gender equality in education (Leach, Slade, & Máiréad, 2012). This leads to the adoption of Violence Against Children, including in school settings, as a global phenomenon from the 2006 UN World Report (EFA GMR, 2015), the response to which has led to the establishment of global and regional initiatives to address this violence. The Plan International's 'Learn without Fear' campaign, that was instituted in 2008, and the

Council of Europe's 'One in Five' campaign, inaugurated in 2010, were some of the regional initiatives to explicitly address gender-related violence (Leach et al., 2014).

Many of the countries in the sub-Saharan Africa region have developed policy for tackling gender-based violence, especially sexual violence. The development of a syllabus on gender-based violence for use by trained educators in schools was adopted in Liberia (Antonowicz, 2010), while there is a strong legal and policy framework to address gender based violence in South Africa, and schools equally have guidelines on checking sexual harassment and abuse (Parkes, 2015).

To further help in curbing these vices in schools, the international NGOs have also collaborated with the governments in some of the sub-Saharan African countries to strengthen the legislation and guidelines put in place (Parkes, 2015). In Kenya, there is an alliance among the government, ActionAid (international NGO) and the teachers' unions which strengthened the mechanism set up for reporting sexual violence and also made sure that teachers found guilty are not transferred to other schools but dismissed (Leach et al., 2014). The National Advocacy Networks was also used in the Safe Schools Project of Ghana and Malawi to call for a revision in the Teachers' Code of Conduct and a stronger implementation of regulations guiding teachers' misconduct (DevTech Systems, Inc., 2008). The ReproSalud programme in Peru, for encouraging non-violence among men and boys, has equally helped in creating positive shifts in attitudes (OECD, 2012a), while the Instituto Promundo and its partners in Brazil, India and the Balkans, executed encouraging programmes to promote non-violence and reflect on gender norms by using trained teacher and student facilitators to work with boys and young men from secondary schools (Barker et al., 2012).

Clubs have also been employed as tools for curbing school-related gender-based violence. In partnerships with schools and communities, the clubs help in improving relationships among boys, girls, teachers, parents and other community members in general and creating proper channels to report incidences of discrimination and violence (Parkes & Heslop, 2013). Studies have shown a positive influence of girls' club on girls' knowledge, attitudes and practices in the identification of violations and management of violence as revealed in the ActionAid's Stop Violence against Girls in School project (EFA

GMR, 2015). Unterhalter and Heslop (2012) also reported that in the United Republic of Tanzania the possibility of reporting incidences of discrimination and violence is higher among girls' club members than non-members.

Nonetheless, the increase in awareness of the prevalence of school-related gender-based violence over the last decade has not resulted in an equivalent change in behaviour or reduction in the levels of violence. As observed by Parkes (2015), the reasons include amongst others: poor enforcement of the laws, weak reporting and referral systems and inconsistent policy implementation, all of which are borne out of the entrenched social and gender norms at the district, community and school level. For instance, there has been a limited representation of policy in South Africa (Bhana, de Lange, & Mitchell, 2009), with a recent survey showing 7.6% of girls having encountered severe assault or rape at secondary school (EFA GMR, 2015). Also, in most cases, interventions are usually in form of small, short-term projects which are not easy to sustain and expand. There is also the issue of dearth of knowledge about the appropriate mechanism that can actually reduce the prevalence of gender-based violence in schools (Leach et al., 2014). Thus, there is need to also look at the influence of the intersection of other factors, like conflict (UNESCO, 2011b) and disability (UNICEF, 2013b) on children's vulnerability to violence. Studies (Jones, Moore, Villar-Marquez, & Broadbent, 2008) have shown disabled children being less capable of defending themselves against attacks and less possibility of being believed when reporting incidences of violence.

2.14 Supporting equality in learning outcomes

The focus should not be only on giving equal chance of participation to boys and girls when advocating for gender equality in education, but similarly on minimizing disparities in learning outcomes, including the level of achievement.

2.14.1 Gender differences in subject performance as highlighted by learning assessments

Learning assessment indicators, including PISA, TIMSS, SACMEQ and SERCE⁹, have shown variation in subject-specific achievement by gender at primary and secondary

⁹ The OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment, the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study, the survey by the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality and the Second Regional Comparative and Explanatory Study of the Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education.

level. The 2012 GMR revealed that in most countries, girls have been shown to generally perform better than boys in reading while boys performed better in mathematics, though the gap is now lessening, while there were mixed performances in science with no substantial difference between boys and girls in most countries (UNESCO, 2012b).

The result of PISA surveys on the assessment of the performance of 15-year-old students revealed a wide gap in reading to the advantage of girls in all the locations surveyed. A comparison of both the 2000 and 2012 surveys equally showed same gender widening gap in reading in 11 countries, including Bulgaria, France, Iceland, Israel, Portugal and Romania, basically because of a decline in boys' performance. Most of the low-performing boys are found amongst those lacking basic levels of reading literacy, thus making them to be at a disadvantage (OECD, 2014a).

On the other hand, the survey showed the gender differences in mathematics to be in favour of boys in the majority of locations, although the gap has narrowed in some countries like Montenegro, Norway and Slovakia. The 2012 PISA survey revealed the performances of the girls in OECD countries to be an average of 11 points lower than those of the boys, and most of the girls were not among the highest achievers in most locations; an indication of a future challenge in the achievement of an equal participation in science, technology, engineering and mathematics occupations (OECD, 2014a).

2.14.2 Girls still being at disadvantage in achievement even in poorer settings

Girls continue to be at disadvantage in obtaining important foundation skills in some of the poorer countries where they have traditionally been faced with barriers to equal participation in education. There is a tendency of underrating gender disparities when assessments are based only on children who are attending school. According to the Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) 2014 Survey in rural Pakistan, there are small gender gaps, sometimes in favour of girls, among grade 5 students; but the girls' performances are relatively worse among children of age 10–12 years, whether in school or not, especially those from poorer, less developed provinces and territories. Also in Baluchistan almost equal numbers of boys and girls in grade 5 can read a passage in Urdu, Sindhi or Pashto, but among the children of age 10–12 years, girls' performance

was at 5 percentage points below the boys, while in the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA), girls' performance was at 14 percentage points below the boys in reading (ASER, 2014).

Sometimes, though limited, girls are at a disadvantage in national examinations compared with boys, which can serve as hindrances to their continued schooling. Mukhopondhyay, Mudege, Wolmarans, & Hunter (2012) reported that grade 6 girls' pass rates in national examinations in Kenya and Zimbabwe were considerably lower than boys' despite the girls' higher performances in the 2007 SACMEQ III learning assessment. Meanwhile, the end of the primary cycle national examinations can form part of the high-stakes criteria to proceed to lower secondary school as in most countries including Kenya and Malawi (Mukhopondhyay et al., 2012).

2.14.3 Tackling boys' under achievement

There have also been global concerns regarding boys' under achievement in learning outcomes, particularly reading and languages, but only a few countries with marked gender gaps have instituted ample policy frameworks to rectify the issue. European countries like the Flemish Community of Belgium, Ireland and the United Kingdom have set their policy priority on reducing boys' under achievement as a policy priority. For example, England set up a series of projects that targeted gender-related performance in schools, such as the Gender Agenda Project targeted towards improving performance among groups of underperforming boys and girls; schools' use of ethos that appreciates respect for others, compensates effort and upholds a strong emphasis on listening to pupils' views; and the Premier League Reading Stars initiative that adopts footballers as role models to engage students in literacy activities (Batho, 2009; Eurydice, 2010; National Literacy Trust, 2012). Sometimes the results of national and international assessment tests, such as PISA, which have highlighted the widening gender gap in reading skills, serve as the motivating force for governments' concern, like the 'PISA shock' in 2000 motivated the Austria mainstreaming initiatives that promote reading and boys' achievement (Eurydice, 2010; OECD, 2012a).

Jha et al. (2012) identified some of the strategies and small-scale interventions in teaching and learning that may help in improving boys' low attainment to include

highlighting exchangeable skills, use of classroom pedagogies that promote active learning, individual mentoring and target-setting, and the use of a school ethos that promotes respect and cooperation. For instance, 'within-school streaming', a practice that negatively tags those in lower classes and reinforces poor performance (EFA GMR, 2015), was said to be responsible for the very large gender differences in reading performance in the SACMEQ II and III assessments in Seychelles, where the boys' performance was 48 points below the girls in SACMEQ III (Hungu, 2011). The efforts made to 'de-stream' the classes by putting students of mixed ability and gender together was a success (Reid, 2011). A recent study from the United States has shown that the achievements of both boys and girls are better in classrooms with more girls (DiPrete & Buchmann, 2013).

2.14. 4 Implications of gender equality in education

Education empowers the human through knowledge, skill, training, competencies and polishes her/his personality, attitudes, abilities and behaviour. It also creates awareness, tolerance, self-esteem and confidence in people for their rights (Afzal, Butt, Akbar & Roshi, 2013). It is generally accepted that in this electronic media age, awareness and introduction of policy measures favour female children education, and career opportunities ensure female security, a better way of life and more career choices. Consequently, the Millennium Development Goal for gender equality and the empowerment of women is the goal that was set with the earliest date for its achievement. The target associated with the goal was to end the gender inequality in primary and secondary levels of education (Unterhalter, 2006).

Also, the international community's commitment to gender equality in education is clearly stated even if not always implemented. For example, Goal 5 of the EFA is specifically dedicated to gender equality in education. It targets eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality. (UNESCO, 2016) The language of this goal is important. First, it states that the objective is to 'eliminate gender disparities' throughout schooling at all levels. In other words, any way that schooling and education could be gendered differently

is to be erased. Next, the goal states that 'gender equality' will be achieved, but the measures this goal indicates (i.e. access, presumably meaning enrolment, and achievement) are arguably measures of parity more than equality (Wiseman, 2008).

Gender equality entails giving the same rights, resources, opportunities and protections to everyone irrespective of gender, that is, either man or woman, girl or boy (UNICEF, 2011). That means girls and women have the liberty of using these rights, capabilities, resources and opportunities to make deliberate choices and decisions affecting their lives without the fear of intimidation and violence. As noted by the World Bank (2012a, b), gender equality, either in education or other fields, has to do with economic liberation, fairness, equity, increasing productivity, reduction of efficiency losses, and widening of the base of taxpayers and contributors to social protection systems. It is also about improving the opportunities and outcomes of the next generation; enhancing development decision-making; greater opportunities for businesses to expand, innovate and compete; economic/business freedom; and fostering of stronger, better, fairer, more sustainable and inclusive growth and development (Anyanwu, 2016).

Following the results of an empirical study, Anyanwu (2016) suggested various factors that have positively upturned gender equality in secondary education enrolment on the Africa continent to include greater percentage of female teachers in secondary schools, increased democracy (at a decreasing rate), more female share of the labour force, higher domestic investment rate, and being an oil-exporting country, amongst others. It was however discovered that increase in population growth has a tendency of lowering the gender equality. This implies that an increase in the country's wealth, in terms of higher economic development, has been shown to positively promote equality in education in African countries. As the standard of living, that is, the GDP per capita, increases, the gender equality in education also increases, thus helping to close the gender gap in education. So, in order to promote gender equality in education and close the gender gap in education achievement of the males and females, the governments of the African countries must initiate measures to increase their national incomes, such as, expanding the macro-economic and structural reforms in order to allow more competitiveness, extending investments in hard and soft infrastructure to enhance local production and

regional integration, amongst others (Anyanwu, 2016). The more the national income, the higher will be the domestic investment and the more will be the resources available to the educational sector for provision of quality and affordable education for all irrespective of gender.

Studies (EFA GMR, 2015; Anyanwu, 2016) have linked the higher percentage of female secondary school teachers to a greater level of gender equality in education, for the female teachers serve as role models and send powerful messages to young girls. So, in meeting the goal of achieving gender equality in education, governments need to include the employment of more teachers, especially females, as part of their priority while equally looking after the maintenance and motivation of the already employed teachers. This could be achieved by mobilizing increased resources for education expenditure both at the local and national levels. The more the percentage of female teachers employed at the primary and secondary schools, the more the female students will be encouraged to enrol in schools and the closer will be the gender gap in educational attainment of boys and girls.

Gender friendly policies on equality of educational opportunities and attainment can be effortlessly instituted under an effective democratic setting, but this can only be achieved where there is a strong political will, total commitment, good governance and respect for the rule of law on the part of the government and the citizenry. Government business must be run with great efficiency and effectiveness, transparency and accountability, free of corruption and a collective spirit in the formulation and implementation of vital policies, strategies and plans that affect the populace. As suggested by Anyanwu and Erhijakpor (2014) upholding democracy in Africa will involve taking serious measures like upholding and maintaining effective rule of law, expanding macro-economic and structural reforms and increasing investments to raise national income, and implementing greater economic and political inclusion. In essence, in a stable democratic setting with respect for the rule of law and people's rights not violated, any policy promoting freedom of education or gender equality in education will be passed and implemented without fear of intimidation or nullification by the political patriarchy. Everybody will be given access to education as

a fundamental human right and this will help in closing the gender gap in education to the advantage of the females.

Regulating government consumption expenditure can also help in promoting gender equality in education. By developing a nationally coordinated approach to the development of important strategic projects and programmes, making them waste and corruption free, and taking decisions based on rigorous cost-benefit analysis to ensure the highest economic and social benefits to the nation over a long term, then public spending on any human capacity (including health and education) will yield positive results.

2.15 Girls' participation and performance in mathematics and science

There has been an increased focus on girls' achievement and participation in mathematics and science as a result of the global agenda on increasing gender equality in education and labour market opportunities. With the international assessment showing a decline in gender gaps in mathematics performance and none in science, the focus has then been shifted to addressing girls' motivation and subject choices. The PISA 2012 results showed that, despite performing as well as boys in mathematics, girls still show less motivation to learn mathematics, have less belief in their ability and more anxiety about the subject, and, unlike the boys, they generally attributed their failure in mathematics to themselves instead of external factors (OECD, 2014a). This seems to have originated from cultural norms and discriminatory practices that have been present from an early age. Girls are generally more pessimistic than boys in their abilities in mathematics and this has led to their low performances. Supporting this, Bharadwaj, De Giorgi, Hansen, and Neilson (2012) argued that gender stereotyping and societal expectations can instil less confidence in girls in their own mathematics ability and this, in turn, affects learning outcomes. Female teachers can help in reducing this anxiety about mathematics if they can be further trained in the teaching of mathematics and also address the stereotypical beliefs about gender differences in students' ability (Antecol, Eren, & Ozbeklik, 2012).

Governments have developed strategies to increase participation and performance in the subject, with focus on girls. One of such is the National Strategy in Mathematics and

Science launched in South Africa. Its incentive for girls includes preferential access to schools dedicated to good quality teaching of mathematics and science. Within three years, achievements in participating schools have increased by 30% in physical science and 22% in mathematics (EFA GMR, 2015). Supporting the governments, the international agencies and NGOs also developed initiatives towards improving girls' participation and performance in mathematics and science. One of such is the UNESCO supported Capacity Building in Scientific and Technological Literacy programme of Nepal, which was initiated to create awareness and promote gender-inclusive approaches to teaching mathematics and science (EFA GMR, 2015). Another one is the USAID-funded 2006 Girls Science Camp in Zanzibar, United Republic of Tanzania, in partnership with the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training and the Aga Khan Foundation (USAID, 2008).

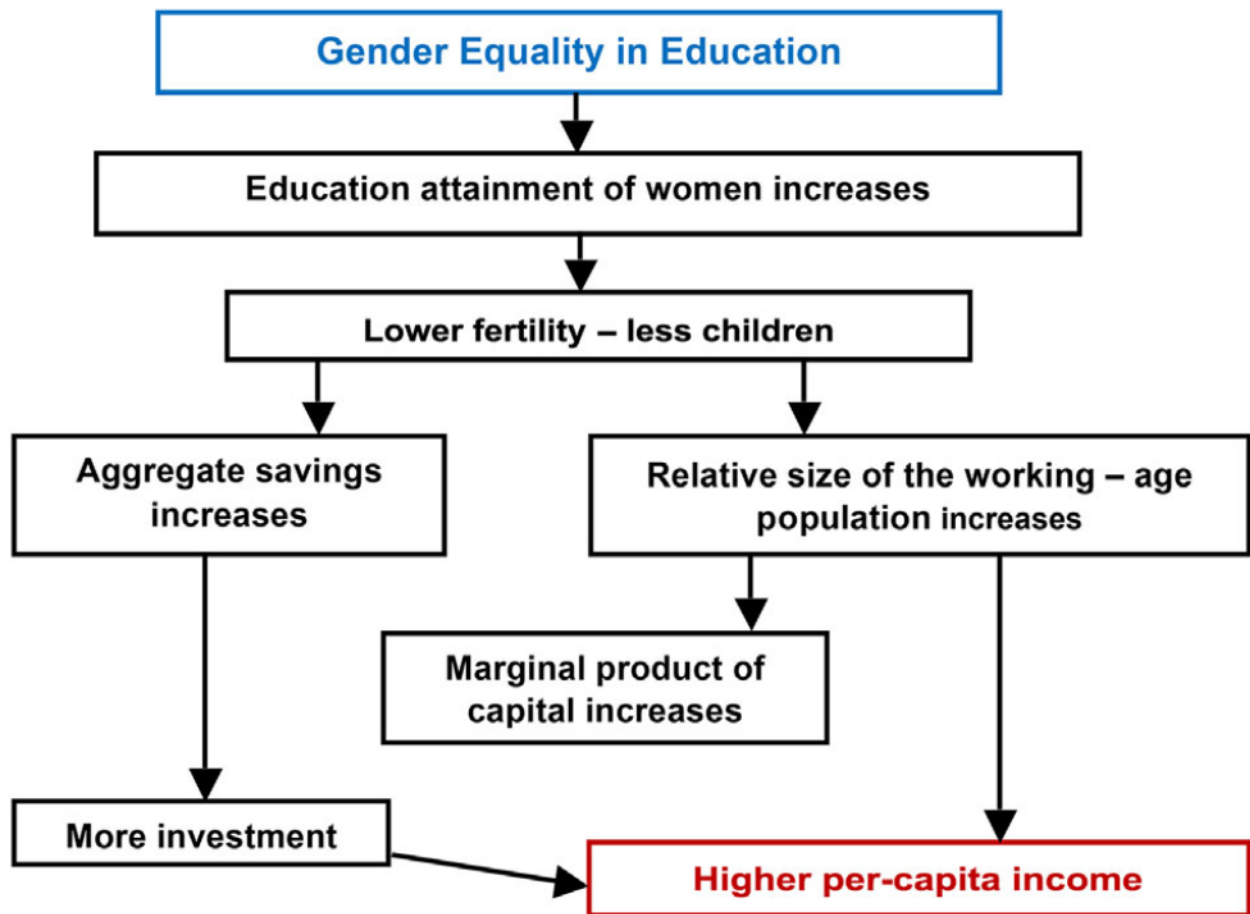
2.16 Limitation of labour market opportunities due to subject choice

Women are not mostly found in science and mathematics-related subjects in post-secondary education due to their lower achievements, negative career aspirations and expectations which eventually lead to their under-representation in the labour market that requires the application of such subjects, for example, fields like computing and engineering. Results showed that the percentage of female computer science graduates in most OECD countries like Ireland, the Republic of Korea and Sweden fell from around 40% to under one-quarter of the total graduates between 2000 and 2009 (OECD, 2012a); and this eventually led to dominant gender gaps in the labour market. It was equally found that in the United States women constituted less than one-quarter of workers employed in the science, technology, engineering and mathematics-related fields, and this aggravates the gender gaps in income because workers in these fields usually earn more than their counterparts in other fields (Beede, Julian, Langdon, McKittrick, Khan, & Doms, 2011).

Gender stereotyping within the school culture, and among students and employers with regards to study and career options, could be reduced with the establishment of vocational guidance with a gender perspective. Studies have linked the provision of work-related learning at secondary school to be a stimulating force to the students' interest in particular subjects (Rolfe & Crowley, 2008).

There are many dividends to be gained by targeting educational investment on women, particularly the poor (as shown in Figure 2.8 below). First, it will help in the reduction of gender equality between males and females; there will be an improvement with the health of the children and the family at large, for an educated woman will know the necessary steps to take concerning the health and well-being of her family; also, the women's chances of economic empowerment are increased for they can get employed in the labour market, thereby helping to break the poverty yoke and can also contribute to educating her children.

Figure 2. 8: Gender Equality in Education - Demographic Transition Effect



Source: Anyanwu (2016)

Since increase in population growth has a tendency of lowering the gender equality (Anyanwu, 2016), investing in education of the females can be employed as a tool in controlling the population growth, the aftermath effect of which will help in increasing gender equality and closing the inequality gap. Educated women will easily understand and consent to the knowledge, acceptance and practice (KAP) of family planning, make use of contraceptives and be more up-to-date with public health education than their non-educated counterparts. So female education will help in reducing population/family size and its poverty-related costs and thereby close the gender gap in education caused by population growth.

The educational system can be used as a tool for influencing the social norms to promote gender equality. With the rapid global urbanization, the traditional cultural/social norms and practices are becoming more relaxed and new parameters regarding appropriate

forms of behaviour are formed, as well as newly defined roles for men and women. By incorporating gender equality principles in the school and professional curricula, it will help in building the value system of children from a young age and tackle discriminatory social norms. So the children will grow to see education as a right for all and not a privilege for a few.

Also, as submitted by Anyanwu (2016), achieving gender equality is a means of ensuring the future of the children, the women, the family, and the society at large is safeguarded. Female education will liberate the girls/women from sufferings due to the disadvantage of illiteracy, help in building their capabilities, give them economic empowerment, ensure child health and welfare, reduce child and maternal mortality, and help in breaking and reducing the cycle of intergenerational poverty. The achievement of gender equality in educational attainment of girls/women and boys/men will guarantee a better, brighter future for all.

2.17 Conclusion

The aim of this study is to assess the implementation of the gender equality goal under the Education for All (EFA) goals in Lagos State, Nigeria. Thus, this chapter reviewed Education for All goals in various contexts in order to note its successes and failures across countries where it has been applied. Also, this chapter reviewed the prospects and challenges of the implementation of EFA goals in Nigeria in order to highlight problems of implementation of the EFA goals in the country so as to know what policy framework could be used to address those highlighted problems.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the choice and justification of the research methods and methodology for this study. The researcher gives a clear indication of the research methods, design, approach and tools employed in the study as well as the measures to ensure the reliability, validity and trustworthiness of the study. But one first needs to understand what the term research means:

“All progress is born of inquiry. Doubt is often better than overconfidence, for it leads to inquiry, and inquiry leads to invention”

- a famous Hudson maxim

3.2 Research

Many researchers from different fields of work have given various definitions of the term ‘research’. According to Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary and Oxford Dictionary of English, research is a careful detailed study of a subject, particularly to discover new facts or information about it or to reach a new understanding. To Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011), it is the way people come to grips with their environment, trying to comprehend the nature of the phenomena it presents, while Mafuwane, (2012:67) defined it as “...something that people undertake in order to find out new things in a systematic way, thereby increasing their knowledge...”. Research has also been simply referred to as the “search for knowledge” (Samuel, 2012:14). This means research could be said to be a set of planned activities designed to establish new facts and information about the subject of study or for better understanding of the subject of study.

The research process starts with the identification of a specific area of interest or problem, followed by translation of the interest into a researchable problem, then data collection, data analysis and, lastly, reporting the findings of the study. This is sometimes taken as the research strategy.

3.3 The research process/strategy

A research strategy is mostly based on a certain type of science and consists of a goal, that is, its usefulness; the procedural steps to take to achieve the results and a set of techniques that is involved in the procedures. For example, a survey study strategy could be adopted for finding patterns in data; experiments could be used as a strategy for testing hypotheses; an action research strategy could be used to iteratively solve a problem with a community of practice while a case study strategy could be adopted when studying the characteristics of a real-life instance (Hinkelmann & Witschel, 2013: 20). This is similar to the research process or protocol, which is a kind of mental guide, a framework of how the researcher wishes to conduct the inquiry pointing to the questions the researcher sought to answer. Other researchers call this the 'research design'. The protocol questions, however, differ from a questionnaire or other research instruments meant for respondents or research subjects (Yin, 2011). The research questions are the questions to be addressed by the study and usually serve as guiding factors on the type of methodology to be chosen by the researcher, while the research method is an outline of a specific research technique or procedure to be used in the collection and analysis of the data, e.g. a questionnaire or interviews. Responses and explanations of the questions will now be provided by the findings and conclusions of the study.

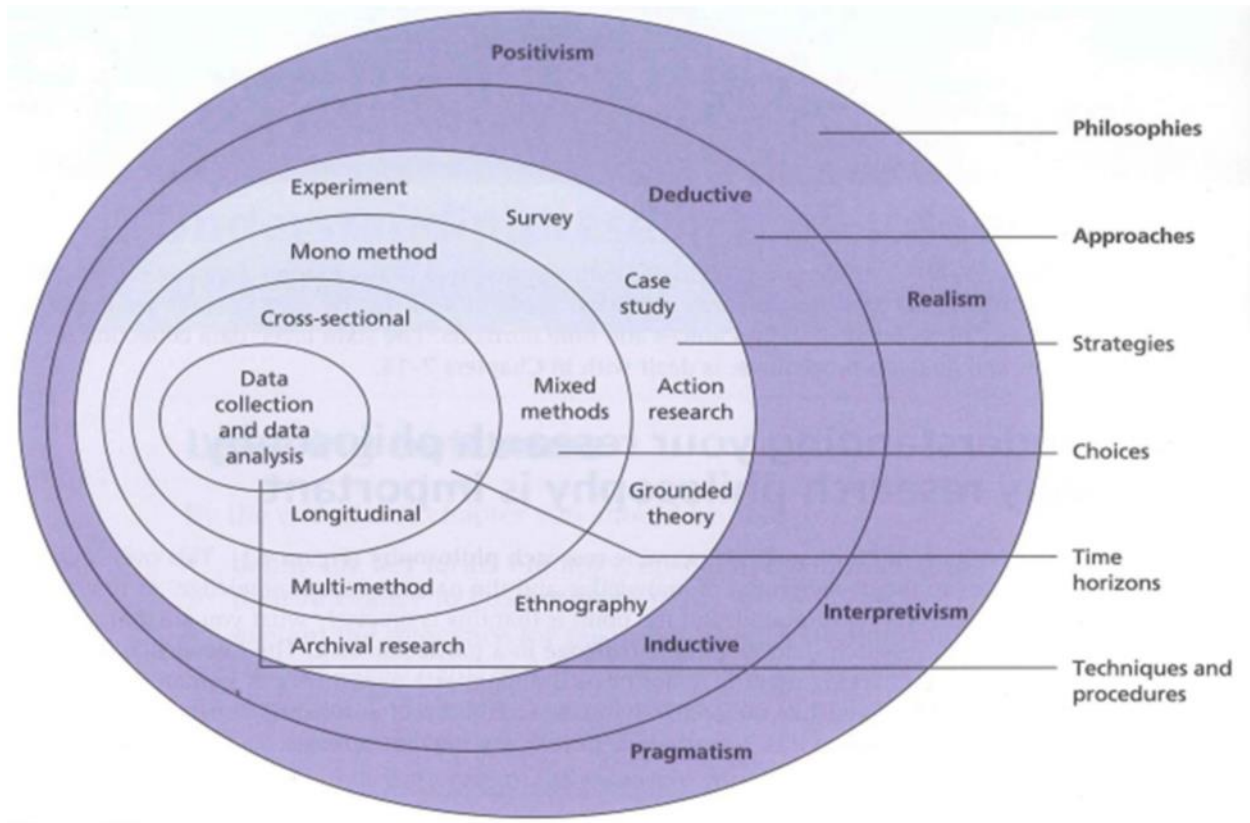
3.4 Research methodology

Citing various authors, Mafuwane submitted that the types of problems worthy of investigation, what makes a problem to be researchable, testable hypotheses, the framing of a problem for easy investigation using certain designs and procedures, and the selection and development of appropriate means of data collection are all elucidated and defined by the methodology of the study (Mafuwane, 2012:68). To Sharp (2013), research methods involve the procedures for data gathering while methodology describes the approaches, kinds and paradigms of research. Other authors, like Litchman (2013), describe research methodology as practices used to attain knowledge of reality while Creswell (2014); Okeke, Adu, Drake & Duku (2014) define it as the way a researcher chooses to carry out the process of data collection, analysis, and interpretation for a particular research study. The research methodology, however, helps to understand the real process of scientific inquiry and not the products.

Researchers have classified research methodologies in many different ways, for example, some differentiate between qualitative and quantitative, experimental and non-experimental, research conducted in the laboratories vs. in the field, and so on. However, such categorizations mostly overlap, for instance qualitative components could be included in an experimental study while a non-experimental study can be of a qualitative or quantitative nature. According to Thomson, Petty, Ramage and Moore (2011), the nature of the inquiry or questions which the researcher seeks to answer will be the determinant factor in choosing the research methodology. For instance, if the question seeks to find how many or what proportion, then answers are better sought through quantitative methods, but if the question seeks why certain things happen, qualitative inquiry is the best option in order to get a contextualized and deep understanding of the phenomenon as experienced by the individual or group under study.

To give direction to this study, it is being guided by the research process 'onion' (Figure 3.1) which provides a kind of summary of important issues to be considered and go through while carrying out a research study. Each layer of the onion forms a basis for considering the philosophical orientation of the researcher; the research approach being assumed; research strategies used; the research time lines under review; and the data collection techniques employed by the researcher.

Figure 3. 1: The Research Onion



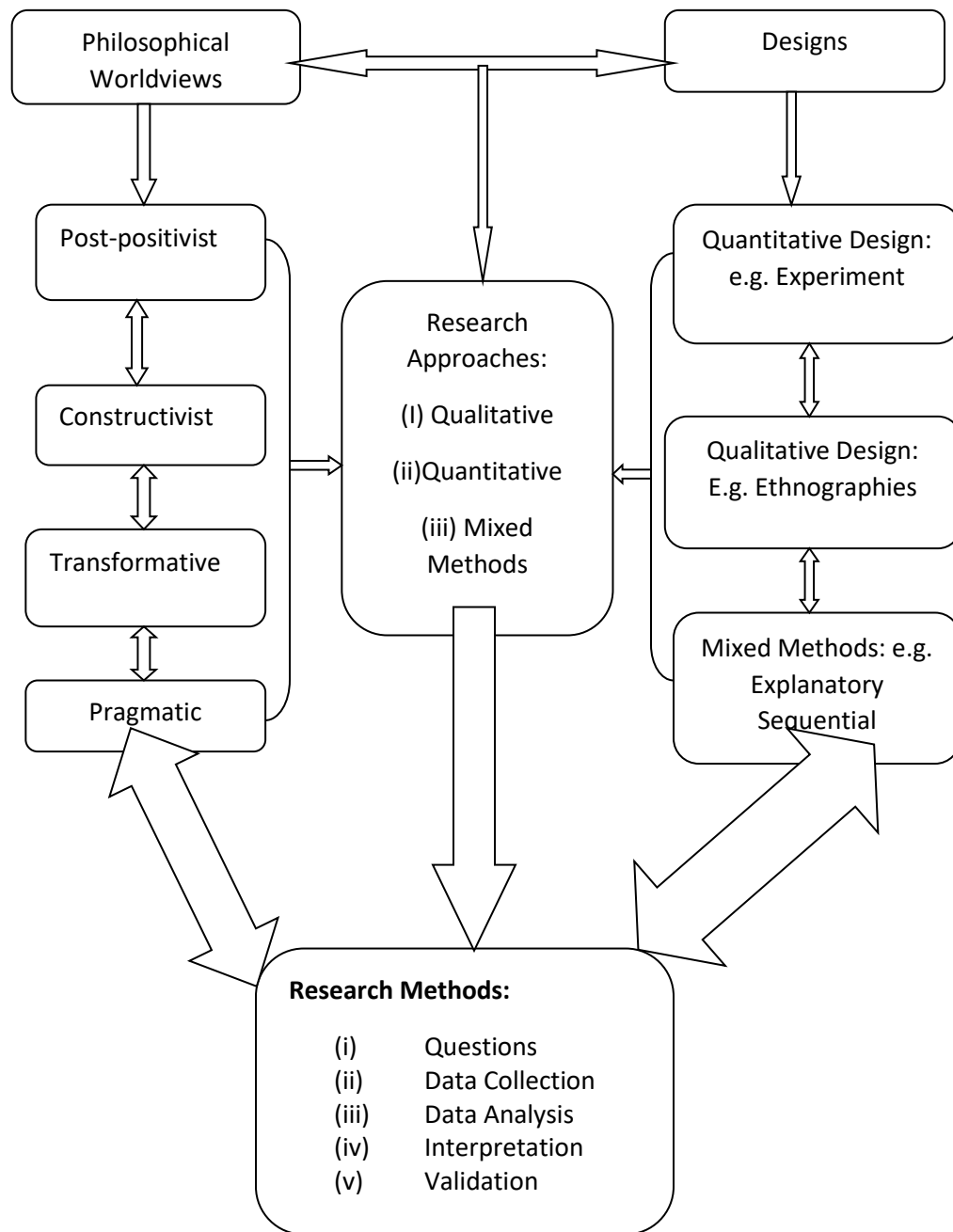
(Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009)

Now, peeling the onion - in carrying out a research - the study is systematically categorized according to the dimensions, such as the philosophy, the approach, choice of data and strategy to be adopted in the study. Various terms have been used by different researchers in describing these dimensions - some call it research paradigm (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011; Mertens, 2010), philosophy (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009), worldview (Creswell 2010; 2014) or even broadly conceived research methodologies (Neuman, 2009).

3.5 Worldviews or assumptions/philosophy

The philosophical worldview of the researcher has a great influence on his/her choice of research approach and methods to adopt in carrying out the research study (Figure 3.2).

Figure 3. 2: A Framework for Research — The Interconnection of Worldviews, Design, and Research Methods



Source: Author's concept adapted from Creswell, 2014:5

Explanation of the research onion (Figure 3.1) and framework for research (Figure 3.2) follow:

The worldview is the researcher's general philosophical orientation of the world and the nature of research brought into a study based on the discipline orientations, students' advisors/mentors' inclinations, and past research experiences of the researcher (Creswell, 2014) which often lead or guide to the choice of a particular paradigm for the study. Although a researcher's particular view of the relationship between knowledge and the process by which it is being developed could be a most likely influence, the researcher's worldview which supports the research strategy and the methods chosen as part of that strategy are reflected in the research philosophy adopted by the researcher. The researcher's worldview is tortuously connected to the research *methodology* and *methods* to be adopted in conducting the research. For qualitative research, the *methodology* involves the principles and ideas adopted by the researchers for their procedures and strategies (methods) while *methods* include all the activities involved in the research, such as sampling of participants, data collection (for example interviews, focus groups or observation), data management and analysis (Thomson et al., 2011).

However, in practical reality, one will realize that while peeling through the research onion, research scarcely falls neatly into only one philosophical domain and no approach is actually 'better' than another. The choice of an approach depends mainly on the research question(s) the researcher is seeking to answer, but, nonetheless, it is of great benefit especially to the researcher to understand these assumptions so that one can examine them, challenge them if need be or adopt them to bring about a change in orientation and behaviour. For instance, with regards to this study, the examination and understanding of the cultural norms and values of a particular culture from the people's perspective can be used in re-orientating them about the importance of girl-child education on their economic and social development.

Post-positivist assumption embraces a deterministic philosophy about research which holds that effects or outcomes are probably being determined by the causes. It is also referred to as the *scientific method*, or doing *science research*, *positivist/post-positivist*

research, empirical science, and post-positivism (Creswell, 2014: 7). This means that the post-positivist researcher is interested in carrying out studies on issues that will help in the identification and assessment of what brings about certain outcomes. The knowledge developed here is based on careful observation and measurement of the objective reality existing in the world with the researcher adopting the scientific method of beginning with a theory, followed by data collection to either support or rebut the theory, then making necessary revisions and conducting further tests. This worldview holds true more with quantitative than qualitative research.

Constructivism or social constructivism (often combined with interpretivism) is of the assumption that individuals seek understanding of the world around them by developing subjective meaning of their experiences of certain objects or things (Creswell, 2014:8). Due to the varied and multiple nature of these meanings, rather than narrowing them into a few categories or ideas, the constructivist researcher looks for the complexity of views to get as much of the participants' views of the study as possible. The researcher will then make sense of the meanings of the participants' views by interpreting the data. This worldview is typically seen as an approach to qualitative research.

This worldview holds that in confronting social oppression and social justice at whatever level of occurrence, there is a need for intertwining the research inquiry with politics and political change agenda (Mertens, 2010). Sometimes the researcher is at a cross-road of the possibility of holding a particular worldview and wanting to use a different research approach from the worldview, for instance, holding a subjectivist epistemology and at the same time assuming that reality can only be measured and not constructed. Situations like these gave birth to another worldview known as the pragmatic worldview in the research world. Pragmatism as a worldview or philosophy, according to Creswell (2014), therefore arises due to actions, situations, and consequences instead of antecedent conditions (as in post-positivism) with the emphasis being on applications - what works and the solutions to problems. Researchers place the emphasis on the research problem, adopting all available approaches to understand it, rather than focusing on method.

Pragmatism is not dedicated to a particular philosophy and reality but rather focuses on the research problem and the application of all available approaches in understanding the

problem (Samuel, 2012). This worldview holds the position that the research question is the most important determinant of the research philosophy to be adopted. That one approach may 'better' answer the research question than the other and where there is no ambiguity in the research question, either of the approaches (positivist or interpretivist philosophy) may be adopted. It therefore gives the researcher a freedom of choice in adopting a combination of approaches for a single study, which leads to what is referred to as the 'mixed methods' approach.

Saunders et al. (2009) submitted that pragmatism is intuitively appealing for it assists the researcher to avoid being engaged in debates on such concepts as 'truth' and 'reality', for the researcher can conduct a study of interest and value in whatever way may be deemed appropriate with the results being used in ways that can bring about positive consequences within the researcher's value system.

These worldviews and philosophies could be based on epistemology, ontology or axiology. Epistemology is a branch of philosophy that deals with how knowledge is obtained and the rationalization of obtaining the knowledge. This deals with questions about what knowledge is, and what makes it adequate or inadequate; accepted or unaccepted; valid or invalid; true or false. According to Bryman (2008:13) "An epistemological issue concerns the question of what is (or should be) regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline". Here, what makes up acceptable knowledge in an area of study is usually based on the researchers' views of what they consider important in the study. For instance, a researcher will tend towards the position of the natural scientist if the importance is placed on the data or resources needed because here reality is represented by objects that are considered to be 'real' and data collection and analysis will be based more on 'facts', while with a research that places importance on the feelings and attitudes of the people involved in the study, data collection and analysis will be based on the participants' views and interpretations of the phenomenon under study.

Axiology is a branch of philosophy that studies judgments about value, the role of the researcher's value in all the stages of the research process. This is very important in giving the research results some credibility for human values are seen as the guiding reason for all human actions (Saunders et al., 2009:119). The researcher's choice of the

research topic, philosophical approach, data collection techniques and so on, are all reflections of the researcher's values. For instance, the choice of conducting interviews as a means of gathering data for this study implies that I, as the researcher, value personal interaction with my respondents more highly than their anonymous views expressed through the use of a questionnaire.

"Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality ... and assumptions researchers have about the way the world operates and the commitment held to a particular view" (Saunders et al., 2009:110). It is a branch of philosophy that deals with social beings. Samuel (2012:20) described ontology as "a formal specification of REALITY", trying to describe the knowledge of a particular concept, its substance and essence. Aspects of ontology include objectivism and subjectivism:

Objectivism is an aspect of ontology depicting that social entities exist in reality external to social actors concerned with their existence, that is, researches could be seen as objective entities and the researcher adopting an objectivist stance in carrying out the study. Objectivism sees the body of knowledge of a phenomenon (reality) as being external to the social actors, seeing a phenomenon as it is, being independent. *Subjectivism* portrays the position that social phenomena are created from the perceptions and consequent actions of social actors. This is in line with the interpretivist position on the necessity of exploring the subjective meanings motivating the actions of social actors for the researcher to be able to understand these actions. As supported by Saunders et al. (2009:118), there is a necessity to study "the details of the situation to understand the reality or perhaps a reality working behind them".

Another important methodological issue is research choices. There are two main types of research choices: deduction and induction. The deductive process starts from general observations/ views to specific. The theory and hypothesis (or hypotheses) are first developed, either from previous findings, literature, experiences or observations; and then a research strategy is designed to test the hypothesis/theory, followed by observations which then either confirm or reject the hypothesis/theory by the end of the study. This is more of positivism. While the inductive process starts from the specific to the general, general observations are first made while noting any specific patterns, then the

hypothesis is created from the observed patterns which is further explored/ validated in the study. Finally, a theory is then formed from the tested hypotheses; this owes more to Interpretivism.

3.7 Research paradigms

Samuel (2012) citing Bryman (2008) described 'research paradigm' as clusters of beliefs that determine what is to be studied, how to go about the study, and how to interpret the results of the study, while Creswell (2014) simply described 'paradigm' as a world view or basic belief system that directs an investigation. It has also been defined as a way of examining social phenomena to generate fresh insights into their real life issues and problems (Saunders et al., 2009:121). This means a way of trying to understand and explain a social phenomenon of interest by the researcher. This is a term that really tends to have multiple meanings and is one frequently used in the social sciences. Saunders et al. (2009) stated the purposes of paradigm to include:

- aiding researchers in the clarification of their assumptions on their view of the nature of science and society;
- proposing useful ways of understanding how other researchers approach their work;
- helping researchers in strategizing their own direction through their research to understand the possible way to go and where they are actually going.

A paradigm can be either positivist, which is scientific in nature (objective) or phenomenologist, that is, constructivist in nature (subjective) and includes the following:

Functionalist paradigm: According to Saunders et al. (2009), this paradigm falls in the objectivism ontological position and is mostly problem-oriented in approach, aiming at providing practical solutions to practical problems. The emphasis here is rationality, taking the assumption that organisations are rational entities; therefore, rational explanations should offer solutions to rational problems.

Positivism: Saunders et al. (2009) described this as the philosophical stance of the natural scientists that prefer working with observable social realities and the end product can be law-like generalisations similar to those in the physical and natural sciences. The

positivism approach seeks research based on facts and logical reasoning with the assumption that reality is independent of the researcher (thus the research is seen as being undertaken in a value-free way) in order to bring about precision, objectivity and rigour while carrying out the study. It is anchored on the view that the world is hemmed in by certain fixed laws or theories that form the basis of occurrence or explanation of certain phenomena. With the positivism approach, the researcher will first develop an hypothesis (hypotheses) from an existing theory or law, then the hypothesis/hypotheses are tested to either be confirmed or refuted for further development of theory, using a highly structured research design. Positivist researchers believe that reality could be observed and described from an objective point of view; that by observing the world from a neutral and objective viewpoint, general relationships and universal laws could be discovered which could be used in deriving theories and then get tested. Meanwhile, these observations have to be repeatable.

The *positivist* view of knowledge is usually taken in quantitative research with the assumption that there is a knowable, single objective reality, which can be verified through experimental studies. Such studies are mostly heavily controlled, include a large number of subjects (Nicholls, 2009), aim at testing hypotheses from existing theories and data are collected on pre-determined instruments which are then quantified and statistically analysed (Thomson et al., 2011). It has, however, been argued that it is impossible for a research to be completely free from the inclusion of the researcher's inclusion, for even the decision to adopt a seemingly value free perspective is a suggestion of the existence of a certain value position. The researcher will exercise choice in the issue to study, the research objectives to pursue and the data to collect.

Phenomenology: Arguing against positivism, phenomenologists are of the view that social science has to do with action and behaviour that are generated from the human mind; that to understand the world, it must be from peoples' point of view (Samuel, 2012:31). They argued that the reality or object and the researcher cannot be separated, that there is no reality that is independent of the mind. Thus, the understanding of a phenomenon or reality should be from the participant's point of view, for reality is, as we see it, our interpretations of the world. Phenomenology lays emphasis on meaning instead of

measurement, thereby giving considerable regard to the subjective state of the individual. With the phenomenological approach of study, what is researched can be affected by the process of the research.

The *phenomenological* qualitative approach seeks understanding of the nature or meaning of every-day lived experiences. In-depth interviews may be used for data collection in order to get the life-world of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomenon, that is, seeing through the eyes of the interviewee. Interviewing the officers that are directly in charge of the implementation of government policies and provisions on gender equality in education will go a long way in getting the real picture of what is happening on the ground (in terms of real provision on the ground) as against what is on the paper (the policy on paper). Since these officers are also directly involved with the students and their parents, their responses will also give a better understanding of the nature or meaning of every-day lived experiences in terms of societal norms and values towards gender education.

Axiological assumption: Positivism takes the research as being value free, with the researcher being detached from the research and the study regarded as an object, while the phenomenologists argue that researchers should be involved in what is being researched since they have values, and their (researchers') values would help in the determination and interpretation of what are recognized as facts.

Realism: Realism is a branch of the epistemological position that relates to scientific enquiry. The principle here is that objects have existence that are independent of the human mind; whatever the senses show us as reality, is the truth. It is unlike idealism, the theory that only the mind and its contents exist but is similar to positivism for it adopts a scientific approach to the development of knowledge which underpins the collection of data and the understanding of those data.

There are two types of realism - *direct realism* - which says that the world is accurately portrayed through what we experience by our senses, that is, what we see is what we get. The direct realist will argue that what we call illusions is actually based on our lack of sufficient information. The second type is *critical realism* which says that what we experience are only sensations, images of the real world, and not the real things directly

because we are often deceived by our senses. The critical realists are of the opinion that, as researchers, we can understand what goes on in the social world only if we understand the social structures that gave rise to the phenomena that we are trying to understand, that is, we are only seeing a part of the bigger picture (Saunders et al., 2009:114).

Interpretivism: Interpretivism is a branch of epistemology that advocates for the necessity of the researcher to understand the differences between humans in their roles as social actors - that human beings, as social actors, interpret everyday social roles according to their own set of meanings and their opinions with the possibility of different interpretations (Maree, 2013). Thus, the subjectivist ontological perspective was adopted here. The researcher, however, had to adopt an empathetic stand, entering the social world of the research subjects and understanding their world only from their point of view. The emphasis here is not on rationality, but the way human beings attempt to make sense of the world around them. The concern here may be discovering irrationalities, trying to understand and explain what is going on within the phenomenon of the study (Saunders et al., 2009). Litchman (2013) put the greatest strength of interpretivism in the richness and depth of exploration and description it is able to yield through the qualitative approach research. Its critics, however, fault it for its subjectivity and the failure of the approach for generalisation of findings beyond the situation being studied (Maree, 2007:60).

3.7.1 Paradigm that guided the study

The interpretive paradigm assumes “emergent, multiple realities; indeterminacy; facts and values as linked; truth as provisional; and social life as processual” (Thomson et al., 2011:117). It places emphasis on the individual understanding the world from the viewpoint of the individual, resisting the imposition of external form structure as found in the normative paradigm. The interpretive researcher sets to view people from within (Sharp, 2013). This study adopted the interpretive paradigm since the researcher wants detailed information about the achievement of gender equality under EFA goals in Lagos State which could be gotten by interviewing the personnel involved in the implementation of the policy and interpretation of documents. Since they are the officers in charge of the implementing the policy, their views are important in understanding what is actually going on within the phenomenon under study. Their interpretation of the policy will also go a long way in the level of executing and achieving it (the policy) on the field. The

achievement of gender equality in education goes beyond just measuring the enrolment rates (parity) of boys and girls in schools but also includes other factors like availability of and accessibility to education, retention and dropout rates, equity, and quality of education, amongst others, the details of which could best be obtained from individuals who are directly involved in executing the policy.

3.8 Research approach

Creswell (2014) defined research approach as all the plans and procedures involved in carrying out research, covering all the details from the broad philosophical assumptions to the research designs, methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. He based the criteria for choosing a research approach on the researchers' personal training and experiences; the researchers' philosophical assumptions (worldview); the procedures of inquiry (research design); research methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation; the nature of the research problems; and the audience(s) that will accept the research report rather than a commitment to a particular paradigm (Creswell, 2014:3)

The three approaches to research are-

3.8.1 Quantitative research approach

This involves the testing of objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables can be typically measured on instruments to allow the analysis of the numbered data by using statistical procedures. The theories are said to be tested deductively and the researcher builds in protections against bias, controls for alternative explanations, and is able to generalize and replicate the findings. The structure of the final research report comprises of introduction, literature and theory, methods, results, and discussion (Creswell, 2014).

3.8.2 Qualitative research approach

Yin (2011) described qualitative research as a broad area of inquiry that challenges anyone to arrive at a concise definition because of its relevance to different disciplines and professions. To Lichtman (2013), qualitative research is a way a researcher collects, consolidates and deduces information obtained from people either through interviews and/or observations in their natural or social settings. Unlike quantitative research that

deals with hypothesis testing, cause and effect, and statistical analysis, quantitative research involves exploring and understanding a social problem from an individual's point of view as it happens in the natural setting; a systematic inquiry of how the participant views, interprets and experiences events. It seeks to answer questions that lay emphasis on how social experiences are created and given meaning, i.e. exploration and understanding of meanings individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. Emerging questions and procedures are usually involved and data are collected in the participant's setting. From the researcher's interpretations of the meaning of the data, the data are then analysed inductively, building from particular to general themes. The final research report is usually of a flexible written structure.

Differences between qualitative and quantitative research are not just the type of data collected or even the mode of collection but also on the foundational assumptions that determine the *worldview* of the holder and forms the *paradigm* to which the research approach belongs. The qualitative and quantitative approaches are not rigid, distinct categories, polar opposites, or dichotomies but rather a representation of different ends on a continuum with the mixed methods approach found at the middle of the continuum. Their differences lie more in the basic philosophical assumptions of the researchers for the study, types of research strategies adopted in the study, and the specific research methods employed in conducting the study (Creswell, 2014). Quantitative research centres on validating hypotheses (deductive) or finding patterns (inductive) using a typically large amount of data while qualitative research deals with understanding the important characteristics of typically small samples of data.

Sometimes, a single study may combine both the qualitative and quantitative research methodologies, in which case it will be referred to as the 'mixed methods' approach to research. The adoption of this method could be in different ways depending on the area of research or research question; for instance, it may be used in discovering and confirming a study by generating a hypothesis via qualitative data and then then testing the study via quantitative research (Thomson et al., 2011).

3.8.3 Mixed method research approach

The mixed methods approach combines and integrates the philosophical assumptions and approaches of both quantitative and qualitative forms in a study (Creswell, 2014:3) using distinct designs that may involve philosophical assumptions and theoretical frameworks. It is a form of approach that involves collecting and analysing both the quantitative and qualitative data to increase the overall strength of the study. This combined strength makes the mixed method approach to be greater than either quantitative or qualitative research (Samuel, 2012) and will help in delivering a more complete understanding of a research problem than either approach only. The approach is mostly adopted by researchers who have the time and resources, and enjoy the combination of the structure of quantitative research with the flexibility of qualitative inquiry.

3.8.4 Approach chosen in the study

Qualitative research takes an *interpretivist* view of knowledge, in search of an understanding of a particular phenomenon and at the same time considering the context of the research study as an essential factor in interpreting the data collected. Rather than giving the studied phenomenon a law-like *explanation*, the interpretivist research tries to *understand* it. This research study is therefore qualitative in nature to allow the researcher to grasp the point of view of the respondents for, according to Creswell (2014), the goal of a qualitative investigation is to understand and explore the complex world of human experience and behaviour from the point-of-view of those involved in the situation of interest. Also, the adoption of the qualitative approach in this study is based on personal interest of the researcher to examine an issue that relates to supposedly marginalized people - the females - in their pursuance of quality and affordable education and the roles of the government and the populace towards the achievement of this goal so that there will be a better society for the females and everyone in general.

3.9 Research design

Research design (also called 'strategies of inquiry' - Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Hinkelmann & Witschel, 2013) is the plan and procedure to be followed in carrying out research as a result of the researcher's broad assumptions, personal experiences, the nature of the research problem or issue to be studied and the methods of data collection and analysis

to be employed. Yin (2011) defined research designs as logical blueprints which involve the links among the research questions, data collection and strategies for data analysis. This logic helps in strengthening the validity and accuracy of the study and ensures that the research topic being studied is properly addressed by the data to be collected. To Creswell (2014), research designs are the procedures of inquiry that provide specific direction in a research study, be it within the qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods approaches, while van Wyk and Taole (2015) described it as the blueprint that gives direction towards the execution of the plan for research methodology.

Researchers usually try to answer the three basic questions of what, how and why of the study with their choice of research designs to be adopted (Samuel, 2012); that is, the research design shows the underlying assumptions (what), the method of conducting the research especially with the data collection and analysis process (how) and the justification for choosing the particular plan (why) for the study. In essence, research design involves all the steps to be taken in the planning and execution of the study of interest including the question guiding the study, and the tools and procedures for data collection and analysis.

Van Wyk and Taole (2015) posited that a good research design must reflect two important aspects - one, specific processes and procedures of the research plan of action to conduct the study must be identified and developed; two, the specific design should be valid, accurate and set out objectives to be achieved. Research design can therefore be referred to as a general plan of action and the decisions of a researcher for a study or a strategic framework of action bridging the research questions and the execution or implementation of the research strategy (Mafuwane, 2012).

3.9.1 Advantages of designing research

Designing a research study is very important as it gives direction for procedures to be taken in carrying out the research (Creswell, 2014:12). The researcher has the choice of deciding the 'How', 'What' and 'Why' of the study. This in a way helps the researcher in focusing better on the study and being able to control and logistically arrange the research proceedings. Also, apart from helping to strengthen the validity and accuracy of the

phenomenon being studied (Yin, 2011), designing the research also increases the depth of the researcher's understanding of the phenomenon under study (Suter, 2012:365).

3.9.2 Types of research designs

Some of the strategies or designs adopted by researchers while carrying out the research studies include: experiments, surveys, action research, grounded theory, ethnography, case study and archival research amongst others.

Ethnography: Ethnography has to do with understanding how groups of people sharing similar experiences like culture, social organisation and local perspectives give meanings to everyday life experiences, that is, how do they 'see' or interpret life experiences. Data may be collected through observing the participants in their natural settings or by a focus group to get a detailed picture of the experience of the participants.

Grounded theory: Grounded theory explores social processes; methods of data collection may include observations. The root of grounded theory has been traced to the publication of Glaser and Strauss' *Discovery of Grounded Theory* (1967). According to Cutcliffe (2000), their approach had its origins in symbolic interactionism which aims to study patterns and processes in human interactions and understand how a group of people define their reality through their social interactions such as gestures, words, clothing and so on. Hodkinson (2008) argued that grounded theory uses inductive reasoning in which theories emerge from the data, which is in contrast to the traditional positivist approaches based on deductive reasoning. In deductive reasoning hypotheses are developed from the existing theory. The critical feature of grounded theory is the development of new theory through the collection and analysis of data about a phenomenon. In other words, theoretical constructs or models about social problems or issues are developed through systematic and logical collection and analysis of data. It goes beyond phenomenology because the explanations that emerge are genuinely new knowledge and are used to develop new theories about a phenomenon.

Discourse analysis: Discourse analysis is a form of qualitative methodology that lays emphasis on the significance of language and communication (for example, talk and text), and the use of language in creating and enacting identities and activities. Discourse analysts argue "language and words, as a system of signs, are in themselves essentially

meaningless; it is through the shared, mutually agreed-on use of language that meaning is created” (Thomson et al., 2011:121).

Analytical science: Analytical science (empirical) deals with understanding the general statements about reality; here, new results from the study can alter already existing theories. This type of study is usually carried out in the fields of natural sciences, economics, sociology and so on.

Design experiments: Design experiments constructive have to do with designing of artificial constructs like concepts and designs. Here, the researcher examines the effect of new concepts or designs (like new educational interventions in actual classrooms/ laboratories) while the concepts or designs are being implemented. The intervention is continuously changed and re-evaluated as results are being obtained and analysed.

Though already existing constructs will remain valid, the new concepts may now be given superiority. For instance, newly developed software may show a significant increase in usability than the existing one. This is usually applied in the fields of mathematics, engineering (including computer science), and humanities (languages, literature, law, arts).

Correlational research: Correlational research - a type of quantitative research that studies relations between and among variables. The cause and effect relations of the research cannot be determined for the researcher does not manipulate the variables because data on the existing variables are only collected to examine the relations among them. An example of such research is an examination of the statistical relations between pre-age school students’ performance in singing and the students’ ethnicity.

Experimental research: This type of research involves randomly assigning participants to one of several treatments. The experiment will randomly conduct an assignment on either the experimental group (which receives some kind of treatment or carries out some activities) or the control group (which neither gets the treatment nor carries out any activity). While tightly controlling every other variable, any measurable differences between the two groups, sequel to a post-test experiment conducted on them, that were

not initially observed before the conduct of the experiment will be concluded by the researcher to be the effect of the experimental manipulation.

As noted by Anderman (2009), this type of experiment is, however, difficult to conduct in actual educational settings (i.e. schools) for students can hardly be randomly assigned to conditions or classrooms in school settings, and it is even sometimes seen as being unethical to randomly assign students to settings.

Quasi-experimental research: This type of research is often used in educational research for, unlike in the experimental research, participants are not randomly assigned to groups. Rather, the researcher tries to control for differences between non-randomly assigned groups using different methods, such as the matching method, statistical control, etc.

Action research: This type of research is mostly conducted to critically analyse the researcher's own practices in order to make changes based on the outcome of the research work. This type of research is common among classroom teachers as a form of self-appraisal to improve on their classroom interactions and bring about a better teaching and learning outcome.

Case studies: Creswell (2014) described case studies as qualitative designs of inquiry used by researchers to develop an in-depth analysis of a case, programme, event or process, with the case(s) being confined by time and activity and the researchers using a variety of data collection procedures to get detailed information over a continual period of time. This strategy is identified with interpretivist, inductive, empirical, qualitative research using the interview, discussion, observation or questionnaire techniques. Similarly, Hinkelman & Witschel (2013:31) submitted that the case study approach is used when conducting an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context that has multiple factors, descriptive and contextual interactions in order to gain a rich understanding of the context of the research and the processes being enacted. The procedure for carrying out the study involves first selecting the instance or occurrence to study, followed by data collection using any of the techniques. The data collected is then analysed and interpreted in a systematic way to understand the reasons for the characteristics of the instance.

Maree (2013:294) recognised part of the strength of a case study as its usefulness in learning about situations that may hitherto be poorly understood or about which not much is known. For instance, the case of gender equality in education had generally been researched at national levels (i.e. country report) but not much has been reported on at specific local levels or State level (as in the case of Lagos State). He further posited that a case study permits the researcher to deal with a wide variety of raw data as it provides a large amount of in-depth information about the phenomenon being researched. Critiques of case study, however, argue that single case studies, by their nature, do not meet the requirement of 'generality' defined for research. Thus in using this strategy, there will be need to either carry out multiple case studies for generalisable results (it can be part of maybe a survey study) or to identify characteristics that justify generalisations (Hinkelmann & Witschel, 2013:46).

3.9.3 Research design adopted in the study

The achievement of gender equality in education has been a global issue of international concern due to its effect on the economic and human development of the society at large, so conducting an empirical investigation on it within the local context of Lagos State as the commercial hub of Nigeria is of crucial importance to the social and economic development of the State in particular and the country in general. This study thus adopted the case study strategy, in line with Sharp's (2013) submission that case studies are usually taken to be a self-contained and coherent unit of analysis with clear and well defined boundaries in terms of participants, location, organisation, time and context, or a combination of these. Also, agreeing with Yin's (2013:46) view that a study may contain more than a single case like a study of government policies on certain issues (for instance, policies on right to education, admission policy, policies on availability and accessibility of education in the State and so on). The researcher therefore explored the views of the officers directly involved in the implementation of governments' policies on education in the State. This included officers from the offices charged with the responsibilities of delivering on the EFA commitments in the State and the officers in the field (the principals) that have direct involvement with the students and their parents. This case study helped in the comprehensive and systematic investigation of the achievement of gender equality

in the State while retaining the holistic and meaningful characteristics of organizational and managerial processes (Maree, 2013:293).

3.10 Scope of field work

The study was designed to elicit relevant information on the achievement of the goal on gender equality under the Education for All (EFA) goals policy in Lagos State, Nigeria where the target respondents provided the much needed information. The researcher also collected documentary evidence as a second source of data. The scope of the study was, however, limited to senior officers in the offices implementing the government policies on provision of education and some school principals in just one of the education districts. A total sample size of 16 participants was drawn using the purposive sampling technique to represent the population of all officers in charge of the implementation process both in the offices and in the field (schools).

3.11 Research site

Figure 3. 3: The Research Site



Source: Lagos State map (2017)

Maree (2013) emphasised the importance of selecting a suitable and feasible research site in conducting a study. The research site for this study was Lagos State, Nigeria. According to the Lagos State Literacy Survey (2011), in terms of landmass, Lagos State has the smallest out of the thirty-six States in Nigeria with an area of 3,577.28km². This territorial size, however, is still further reduced by lagoons, rivers, creeks and swamps which constitute about 22% (or 779.56 sq. km) of the total land mass. Ironically, the State remains the most populous in the country with a projected population of 20,546,999 in 2011 based on the national average population growth rate of 3.2% (though the State's annual growth rate is adjudged far above that of the national average) (Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:1). Despite this, the State still regularly witnesses a rapid increase in rural-urban drift which is reflected in the high influx of people from all other parts of the country as well as the inflow of migrants from the neighbouring countries like Benin Republic, Togo and Ghana.

The educational development in Lagos has been on the increase from the inception of the State on 27th May, 1967 until now. The State government has always shown its commitment to the provision of quality and sound education to the citizenry in terms of access, utilization and satisfaction. This has been achieved through the provision of both a formal and an informal system of education to all the citizens of the State irrespective of their gender, religion, political affiliation, tribe and socio-economic status.

3.12 Population/sampling procedure/sample

3.12.1 Study's population

According to Johnson and Christensen (2008:224), population can be defined as a set of all elements or cases, individuals, objects or events that fit into specific criteria from which research results could be generated or obtained. Sometimes referred to as the 'target population', it represents a large group to which the researcher aims at generalizing his or her sample size.

The population of the study consisted of all the personnel in the offices of institutions in charge of the primary responsibility of delivering on Nigeria's EFA commitment in Lagos State, that is, Lagos State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB), Lagos State Ministry of Education (MOE) and Lagos State Educational Districts (ED). The population

chosen was relevant and suitable for the study because these are the officers in charge of implementing government policies on education in the State both from their offices and in the field (i.e. the schools). Since they are directly involved in the implementation process, their views were most appropriate for the study.

3.12.2 Sampling and sampling procedure

Sampling involves the choice in the selection of specific units and number of units to be included in the study which should be selected based on the availability of the broadest range of information and perspectives on the subject of study (Yin, 2011) or how much variation there is in the population and how much sampling error the researcher is willing to accept (Lichtman, 2013). To Maree (2013:79) the choice of sampling techniques in a study depends on the quality of the research, whether quantitative or qualitative, the adequacy of the technique chosen, the professionalism of implementation as well as the appropriateness of the sample size. In essence sampling could be said to be the selection of a representative fractional part of the population of interest with a view to generalizing the outcome of such enquiry on the entire population.

Sampling schemes embody the clear approaches used in choosing units such as people, groups, settings, and events (Migiro & Magangi, 2011:3760). These sampling schemes according to Strydom (2011:228) are in two categories: random sampling scheme (i.e. probabilistic sampling) and non-random sampling scheme (i.e. non-probabilistic sampling). There is randomization in probability sampling while in the non-probabilistic sampling there is no randomization. Common sampling methods are convenience sampling, random sampling, snowball sampling and purposive sampling but factors like the sample size, sample parameters and representatives, sample accessibility and sampling strategy to be used may influence a researchers' choice of selection (Yin, 2011).

Qualitative inquiry depends on purposefully selected samples in which the researcher chooses the individuals and contexts (Lichtman, 2013). A non-probabilistic sampling technique called purposive sampling method was adopted in this study. In purposive sampling, samples are chosen in a deliberate manner that will yield the most relevant and plentiful data based on the participants' anticipated richness and relevance of information in relation to the study's research question (Yin, 2011). Agreeing with this, Strydom (2011:228) maintained that the judgment of the individual researcher plays an important

role in determining the type of sample in purposive sampling. This purposive sampling method made it possible for me as the researcher to select information-rich participants (and documents) from which I could get the best help and gain more insight into the key issues related to the purpose of my study. This will go a long way in helping me to understand the research problem and the research questions (Creswell, 2014).

This research was carried out in Lagos State, Nigeria. Though Lagos State is just a State out of the 36 states in Nigeria, it was purposefully chosen because this State has an estimated population of about 20 million (13.5% of Nigeria's total population), a former capital of Nigeria and is usually referred to as the commercial nerve centre of the country (Campbell, 2012). Lagos State is a civilized, cosmopolitan State and no tribe, religion or any other State of the federation is not represented in the State. It is generally believed to be the earliest State to come in contact with western education and globalization (Adeosun, 2010).

Education District 1 was equally purposefully chosen out of the six educational districts in Lagos State because the district has a demography and geographical location that is unique out of all the districts and local government areas in the State. The Education District 1 houses Alimosho Local Government which happens to be the largest local government not only in Lagos State but in Nigeria as a whole. This District has a total of 99 junior and senior schools (Lagos State School Census Report, 2014) and Alimosho Local Government has the highest number of Post Primary Continuous Education Centres with 105 centres and 420 classes (Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:49). Also, in terms of basic literacy enrolment, Alimosho Local Government has the highest number with a total of 6,416 which is closely followed by Agege Local Government with 5,584 and Ifako/Ijaye Local government with 5,347 (Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:45) all of which are under Education District 1.

3.12.3 Sample

The type of qualitative design used by a researcher will determine the sample size (Creswell, 2014). Strydom (2011) defined 'sample' as a sub-section or a set of individuals or entities chosen from a population or larger strata. This could be said to simply mean a representative of the larger body or population. Similarly, Migiro and Magangi (2011)

averred that a sample must be a representative fractional part of the population of interest for the outcome of the enquiry to be generalized on the entire population. Thus, a representative sample should possess all the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn and at the same time enable generalizations to be made.

3.12.3.1 Sample of the study

The interview samples were purposively selected for the study to embrace the desired elements critical to providing answers to the research questions. A total of sixteen (16) participants were involved in the study: three (3) from the Lagos State Ministry of Education (MOE), two (2) from the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB), three (3) from Education District 1 (ED1) Headquarters, and eight (8) principals across the three Zonal Offices (ZOs) under Education District 1.

3.13 Data collection instruments

Creswell (2014) noted that instead of relying on a single source of data, qualitative researchers usually gather multiple forms of data. Subsequently, all the data are reviewed, made sense of and organised into categories or themes that cut across all of the data sources. Types of qualitative data collection instruments are: observations, audio-visual materials, interviews and documents.

Observations: Observation as an instrument of qualitative data collection enables the researcher the chance of collecting 'live' data from natural setting of the participants (Cohen et al., 2011:456). This process of data collection involves the use of all the senses with the use of vision as its main source. During observation, the researcher takes note of all the body languages and other gestures of the respondents at the research site (Creswell, 2014). In essence, through observation, the researcher is able to get a sense of reality and work through the intricacies of social interactions (O'Leary, 2014:230). Dube (2012:125) however noted that the subjectivity of observation as an instrument of data collection makes its result to be unreliable.

Audio-visual materials: The audio-visual materials as data collection instruments could be in the form of photographs, films, art objects, website main pages, e-mails, text messages, videotapes, social media text, computer messages or any form of sounds (Creswell, 2014). This method may serve as a discreet way of gathering data while

equally providing the opportunity of capturing realities from the participants. However, there is the limitation of it not being accessible sometimes or difficulty to interpret (Creswell, 2014).

Interviews: An interview is a method of gathering information through one-on-one interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee (Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011:135). To Maree, (2013:87) an interview involves a two way conversation in which the interviewer seeks the interviewee's ideas, beliefs, views, or opinions about a particular phenomenon with the aim of gathering information. The interview could be in different forms such as: structured interviews, semi-structured interviews, informal conversational interviews, non-directive interviews and focused interviews (O'Leary, 2010:195). The interview session could be conducted individually face-to-face (in-person interviews), over the telephone (telephone interview) (Johnson & Christensen, 2008:203), via e-mail (internet interview) (Creswell, 2014:241) or with a group (focus group) (O'Leary, 2010:195).

Data collection through interviews allows the researcher to control the line of questioning and at the same time elicit views and opinions of the participants (Creswell, 2014). This gives room for flexibility since the interviewer has the freedom to formulate questions around the issues being researched as they come to mind. Part of the benefits of the interview as observed by Maree (2013:296) is its ability to generate a high response rate since the researcher is able to establish a relationship with the participants and gain their cooperation. Another one is that the participant could also get observed especially with regards to non-verbal cues. Creswell (2014), however, noted the limitations of interviews to include the possibility of getting indirect information to filter through the views of the interviewees and also the presence of the researcher may sometimes lead to biased responses. Another one is that it provides information in a designated place rather than the natural field setting. Equally, the participant may not be comfortable or may be unwilling to share the information that the researcher seeks to explore.

Documents: Documents are a stable source of data which could be reviewed repeatedly. They could be in the form of public documents (such as newspapers, minutes of meetings, official reports) or private documents (such as personal journals and diaries, letters, e-

mails) (Creswell, 2014). The documents usually represent the context of the problem being studied and assist in getting the actual language and words of the participants. They are easily accessible at little or no cost and unobtrusive since they are not created as a result of the case study (Chauraya, 2011). The use of documentary evidence as data collection instruments helps in authenticating information gathered from other qualitative data instruments since there may be some element of bias. Thus, document analysis complements and equally counteracts the limitations of other methods (Noor, 2008:1604). Creswell (2014), however, identified some its limitations to include the protection of information that may be unavailable for public or private consumption and sometimes it may require the need for the researcher to search out for the information in hard-to-find places.

3.13.1 Data gathering for the study

There were two sources of data collection for this study, i.e. documents and in-depth interviews. The main purpose of the interviews was to obtain the views of the individuals who are actually involved in the planning and implementation process of the EFA goals and other educational policies in the State. Guest, Namey and Mitchell (2013) posited that In-depth interviews provide deep and detailed information on a particular phenomenon and have a characteristic of stimulating people to narrate their individual experiences. This creates an openness which helps and encourages people to expand on their responses. This method was adopted in the study as the purpose was to explore, describe and deduce meaning about the phenomena and not to test predetermined variables (Chauraya, 2011). This method was preferred since the study aimed at finding out the achievement of gender equality under the provision of Education for All citizens in the State. Thus, interviewing the officers involved in the implementation process couldn't have been more appropriate because, through this inductive manner, knowledge was generated (Guest et al., 2013) which might not have been possible otherwise. All the study interviews involved individual face-to-face verbal interchanges between the researcher and the participants. This is in line with Chauraya's (2011) submission that interviews involve direct interaction with the respondents for the purpose of extracting data from them.

An interview protocol (Creswell, 2014) was developed and all the interview sessions took place at the various offices of the participants. This helped in creating a more friendly and relaxed atmosphere which put them more at ease. The duration of each session was between 45 minutes to 1 hour of recorded interview. Permissions were sought for the recording of the interviews and the participants all agreed and signed the informed consent forms before commencement. This is important for, according to Noor (2008:1604), recording the interview session helps in getting the precise account of conversation between the interviewer and the interviewee without losing any information or data since the interviewer cannot get to write everything down during the conduct of the interview. All the participants displayed a very high degree of conduct and professionalism all through the interview sessions. The interview schedule is attached as Appendix J.

Document analysis was chosen as part of the data collection instrument because there may be bias about the information being researched since all the participants are all career civil servants. Also, due to the limited sample involved in the qualitative method adopted, there may be difficulty of generalization of data collected (Guest et al., 2013). The researcher is, however, aware of its own limitations too as pointed out by Chauraya (2011:cxv) that “information in some documents may be sensitive and confidential to a level that the researcher could be denied access to them” and “some documents may not be removable from their natural setting”. Thus, to avoid this inconvenience and gain access to the necessary documents the researcher ensured confidentiality and explained the motive of the study while seeking permission to conduct the interviews.

3.14. The role of the researcher

The researcher assumed two roles that were fundamental to the study: first, as a prime instrument in data collection and data analysis. Guided by what is crucial in qualitative data collection- the instrument - the researcher collected the data by herself through examining documents and interviewing participants (Creswell, 2014). She described relevant aspects of personal values, biases and assumptions as well as expectations (Chauraya, 2011). As a female herself and a teacher, this researcher is passionate about girl-child education. Thus she is interested in seeing girls being given equal right and access to qualitative education. Due to previous experiences working in various

government owned public secondary schools in the State, the researcher brought certain biases to this study.

She kept track of her personal reactions by maintaining a clear record of own initial impressions of each data collection session and patterns emerging in the collected data. This helped in monitoring her “progressive subjectivity”, i.e., monitoring the researcher’s own developing constructions, thoughts and ideas which is critical in establishing credibility (Chauraya, 2011:cxiii).

The other crucial role assumed by the researcher was that of a friend. A friendly rapport was established with the participants right from the beginning of the interview process. As the researcher was seeking official permission from the necessary quarters, she familiarised herself with officers in the various offices, introducing herself and making an appointment for personal access to the participants. This helped in establishing a relationship of trust between the researcher and participants and also showing reflexivity (Creswell, 2014).

3.15 Data analysis

Data are the information collected as part of the research study which could be in the form of words or pictures. Key concepts are derived from the data through a process of coding, sifting, sorting, and identifying themes (Litchman, 2013). The data collected from this study was analysed using the themes derived from the research questions guiding the research work.

Document analysis was also carried out since documents are part of the sources of data. This involved the evaluation of all available documents on the phenomenon being studied which included policies that recognised education as a right, provisions put in place to make education available and accessible, implementation and monitoring of the policies, as well as any other documents that guided the implementation of gender policy programmes in Lagos State. The available official documents from the various offices involved in this study and on-line sources were therefore used in cross-checking the information gathered from the interview sessions with the participants. The document analysis in this study included the analysis of:

- The Lagos State Policy on Education
- The Child Rights Law
- The Universal Basic Education (UBE) Act
- Lagos State Safeguarding and Child Protection Policy
- Lagos State School Census Report
- School Based Management Committee (SBMC) Policy
- Other relevant supporting documents from the State, country and on-line sources.

The documents were not just used but their authenticity was also verified to ascertain that they were produced by the authorizing body credited to them (Strydom, 2011:380). The researcher ensured that all documents used in this study were authentic, accurate and reliable. Some of the documents were collected directly from the offices involved in the study while the others were downloaded from the Lagos State Government and Ministry of Education websites. Thus, their authenticity, accuracy and reliability could be verified to a large extent.

3.16 Research quality

When carrying out research either quantitatively or qualitatively, there is need to ensure quality of the study. This means that the 'rules of rigour' applied to quantitative studies need to be adapted for qualitative methods, but there is yet to be an agreement among the researchers on common criteria for judging the quality of qualitative research due to the different paradigms and philosophical stances which qualitative researchers may take (Thomson et al., 2011). Some argue that the creativity of qualitative research will be stifled if there are strict criteria for rigour while others argue that, though there might be tension between rigour and creativity, there is still a need for some kind of validity criteria and methodological or technical procedures to guard against researchers 'making up' concepts and theories that do not genuinely denote the phenomenon being studied (Thomson et al., 2011). To ensure that this research work is of good quality, issues like the trustworthiness (in terms of validity and reliability), dependability and transferability were given serious consideration during the course of the study.

3.16.1 Trustworthiness

Research procedures must be documented and described in such a way that other people can verify and review the work and evidence used to support it. Trustworthiness has been identified as an element of utmost importance in qualitative research, a form of acid test of data analysis (Maree, 2013:113). To other researchers (Bashir, Afzal & Azeem, 2008:41; Suter, 2012:276), the concept of trustworthiness replaces both reliability and validity in qualitative research. Therefore, in ensuring the trustworthiness of the reality of a qualitative research work, Yin (2011) identified three objectives for building trustworthiness and credibility as:

Transparency: Qualitative research must be carried out in a way that the public can access it easily, that is, it must be transparent. The research procedures and data use must be readily available for inspection by any other person. The conduct of this research work was made as transparent as possible. Official authorization was sought from the relevant stakeholders before the commencement of the study. The interview sessions took place in the various offices involved in the study, and all the documentary evidence used was collected directly from the offices concerned and their official websites.

Methodic-ness: This is avoiding unexplained bias or deliberate distortion during the research process. This brings a sense of completeness to a research effort and a way of cross-checking the study's procedures and data. In conducting this research work, the role of the researcher was adequately spelt out and she kept to the code of conduct of a researcher all through the data collection process. Also, discrepant information that contradicted the general perspective of the theme was equally presented in the study because real life is composed of different perspectives. This procedure equally help in checking for the accuracy of the findings to ensure its validity which is one of the strengths of qualitative research (Creswell, 2014).

To further strengthen the validity of the study, Suter's (2012:266) submission that validity has to do with whether the instrument used actually measures what it is supposed to measure was followed. The researcher first submitted the interview questions to the supervisor and other professionals in the field to ensure their relevance to the study. This equally helps in checking if the expected responses will adequately answer the questions,

might offend or embarrass the respondents, or cause any unforeseen problem that might jeopardize the study.

Adherence to evidence: Qualitative research should be based on an explicit set of evidence. The researcher must draw inferences based on the data collected irrespective of the type of data or the multiplicity of the sources. This has to do with the reliability of the study, for reliability has to do with consistency of an instrument, and a higher reliability is obtained when the instrument gives the same results with repeated research on the same sample (Maree, 2007:147). For this study, information was obtained from participants through in-depth interviews and cross checked with documentary evidence from the secondary source of data. All the collected data were fairly interpreted and analysed in a uniform manner. The responses of the participants were observed to be more or less the same when coding the data with similar themes and conclusions emerging. This therefore confirms the reliability of the study to an extent.

3.16.2 Credibility

Credibility of a study implies that the study “rings true” (Babbie, Mouton, Vorster & Prozesky, 2011). According to them, the researcher has to take note of the following procedures in ensuring credibility of a study. These procedures are also in line with Creswell’s (2014) validity strategies:

- *Prolonged engagement:* this involves staying in the field until data saturation occurs. Data saturation occur when the researcher is no longer getting new insights or new properties from fresh data being gathered (Creswell, 2014). In collecting the data for this study, the researcher tried to reach saturation before stopping the interview sessions. Even when some of the participants were not ready to grant recorded interviews, the researcher continued to make calls and visits to the offices until she ensured that enough data had been collected to reflect the full range and depth of the research topic.
- *Persistent observation:* this entails the researcher looking out for multiple influences, searching for what counts and what does not count. All through the process of collecting data for this study, the researcher looked out for other details, both verbal and non-verbal clues, that could enhance the findings of the study.

- *Triangulation*: using multiple source of data. This involves asking different questions, seeking different sources and using different methods, that is, collection of different information about different events and relationships from different points of views. Conducting triangulation in a study helps to increase confidence in the research data; creates innovative ways to understand a phenomenon; reveals unique findings, challenges or integrates theories and provides clearer understanding of the problem (Guion, Diehl, & McDonald, 2011:2). Triangulation was employed in this study by using diverse data sources in order to eliminate any bias which could affect the credibility of the investigation.
- *Referential adequacy*: this means the materials that are available to document or support the findings of the study, for example, videos or audio tapes. The various documents to support the findings of this study are available on the Lagos State Government and the Lagos State Ministry of Education websites.
- *Peer debriefing*: this involves conducting the same study with a colleague of similar status but who is initially outside the context of the study. The person must, however, have a general understanding of the nature of the study. To enhance the accuracy of the account of this study, the researcher conducted a similar interview with two principals from another education district in Lagos State and an officer from another district headquarters.
- *Member checks*: this is going back to the source of information to validate both the data and the interpretations. It is also called 'respondent validation' or 'informant feedback'. In member checking this study, the researcher sent mails of the major findings and themes of the interview sessions to the participants to check the accuracy.

3.17 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues are important since research involves collecting data from people, about people, their opinions and views (Creswell, 2014). Thus there is need to apply moral principles in order to prevent harming or wronging others, promote goodness, be respectful and fair to others. Ethical standards should be maintained by the researcher prior to the commencement, during and after the publication of the research work. The

researcher should ensure that the research work is ethically conducted because the emphasis should be on the humane and sensitive treatment of the participants, taking into account their dignity as human beings, and considering the effects of the research on them (Cohen et al, 2011). Ethical considerations are not to be taken as simple issues since data should not be gathered at the expense of human beings (Strydom, 2011:113), so the researcher must safeguard that the research plan can pass an ethical evaluation. Ethical considerations in this study were focused on acquisition of informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, avoiding harm to participants, and permission.

Gaining permission: Creswell (2014:135) avers the need to obtain the approval of individuals in authority to gain access to sites and to study participants before commencing the study. Prior to the study, the researcher sought for and received permission for the conduct of this study from the Faculty of Research Ethics Committee and Institutional Research Ethics Committee of the University of Fort Hare (see Appendix A). Then, permission was equally sought for and permission received from the Lagos State Universal Basic Education Board, Lagos State Education District 1 and Lagos State Ministry of Education to go ahead with the study (Appendices B-G).

Informed consent: Cohen et al., (2011:77) noted that the participants have their right of freedom and self-determination, thus the need for their informed consent before getting involved in a study. Before getting a participant involved in a study, the researcher must first give a detailed description of all the features of the study that might influence the participant's willingness to participate or not. The purpose, procedures, risks, benefits, alternative procedures, and limits of confidentiality of the study must all be well spelt out to the participants (Johnson & Christensen, 2008:109).

To ensure informed consent in this study, the researcher shared with each participant what the study is all about and what it seeks to find out. The participants' informed consent was then sought before the commencement of the study to avoid frustration of both parties in the following processes and to put some responsibilities on the participants (Cohen et al., 2011:17). They were neither pressurized nor forced to consent to participate in the interview session (Creswell, 2014:136). To confirm that they voluntarily

consented to grant the interviews, the participants endorsed the informed consent forms obtained from the University of Fort Hare by the researcher (see Appendices H-J).

Additional consent: Additional consent was sought from the Permanent Secretary, Lagos State Ministry of Education, Alausa Ikeja and the Executive Secretary, Lagos State Universal Basic Education Board in the form of a letter of permission given to the researcher allowing her to conduct the interviews with participants (see Appendices B-G). Personal appointments were also made with each participant prior to the conduct of the interview which equally served as their consent to be part of the research study.

Participants' right and dignity: There is the need to guarantee the protection of the dignity and self-respect of the participants in a study (Bless, Higson-Smith, & Sothole, 2013:31). This is highly important since the study involved human beings, so their rights and human dignity should be central in the study. Permission was obtained from the participants for the conduct of the interviews with the assurance of anonymity in the research report. The participants were allowed to exercise their right to be part of the research or not as their involvement in the study was voluntary and they were free to withdraw at any stage of the interviews if they felt uncomfortable (American Educational Research Association, 2011)

Confidentiality and anonymity: Confidentiality is founded on the principle of respect for autonomy (Neuman, 2008) and privacy of the research participants. Hence, any identifiable information about individuals collected during the process of this research will not be disclosed to anyone without their permission. The participants were clearly assured that no unprofessional ways will be used to access information from them and data gathered will be used for only the purpose of this study. To ensure anonymity and to protect the confidentiality of both the participants and the data (Johnson & Christensen, 2008:118), no real and actual names were used in both data collection and data analysis. This is important as the researcher understands the professional ethics of protecting the confidentiality and anonymity of information gathered from participants to guarantee the security of their jobs.

Protection from harm: In line with the AERA (2011) observation that the data collection method of face-to-face interviews may result in potential consequences for the

participants, the researcher assured each participant that their participation in this study was voluntary and they had the freedom of withdrawing at any time of their choice without suffering any form of victimization or harm. Also, since the participants involved in the study are all career civil servants, they were assured that they were safeguarded against anything that could harm them or jeopardized their careers.

Rapport and friendship: The researcher was quick in establishing good rapport with the participants' right from the onset of the study in order to attract them and create a trustworthy environment (Lichtman, 2013:54). She equally developed friendly relationships with all the people in the various offices involved in the study, including officers who were not involved in the interview sessions. She was, however, conscious of her role as a researcher so as not to influence the participants' responses.

Inappropriate behaviour/ maintaining professionalism: All through the conduct of this research work, the researcher comported herself, maintaining professionalism by showing respect, compassion, integrity and unselfishness in her relationship with the participants. Appointments were made and kept appropriately and the interview sessions were generally hitch-free. There was actually no incident of argument or any form of misunderstanding or case of inappropriate behaviour all through the course of the study. Both the researcher and the participants maintained a high level of professionalism with each side sticking to the code of conduct and displaying mutual respect.

3.15 Conclusion

The aim of this study was to assess the implementation of the Education for All goals (EFA) in Lagos State, Nigeria. In order to achieve this aim, this study adopted the qualitative research approach with the use of both documents and in-depth interviews. The main participants of this study were officials in charge of the implementation of the Education for All goals in Lagos State, Nigeria. Specifically, for the analysis of data, discourse analysis was applied to present and analyse documentary sources, while data obtained from in-depth interviews were thematically presented and analysed. Thus, the next chapter presents and analyses the results obtained from in-depth interviews and documentary sources.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to understand how different officers in the offices charged with the responsibilities of delivering on Nigeria's EFA goals view the achievement of the gender equality goal under the EFA goals in Lagos State, Nigeria, and how the specific narratives of each officer resonates with the government policies and commitment on the achievement of gender equality by 2015 with the focus on ensuring girls full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality. In order to achieve this aim, field data were collected through in-depth interviews with the selected participants, document sources, Lagos State annual education sector performance reports, Lagos State education yearbook, and other document sources from the State. Accordingly, the empirical data collected from the field were presented and analysed under three themes. It is instructive to note these themes were guided by the theoretical framework adopted in this study and the reports of the findings were presented in a descriptive, narrative form rather than as a scientific report. The themes are as follows:

- (i) EFA goals and gender inequalities in Lagos State schools
- (ii) Challenges facing the implementation of gender equality goal in Lagos State
- (iii) Implications of the equality goal for education policy making in Lagos State.

4.2 Profile of participants

The participants were all career civil servants with the Lagos State Ministry of Education. Their total number was sixteen (16) but they were in two groups: the first group was made up of a total of eight officers from the Ministry of Education Headquarters (MOE), Lagos State Universal Education Board (LSUBEB) and Education District 1 Headquarters (ED1). These officers work in offices where policies were being implemented and monitored but are not directly involved with the students and their parents. That is, they do the paper work implementation and monitoring. These participants consist of Directors, Deputy Directors and Assistant Directors.

The second group made up of officers from the three Zonal Offices (ZOs) under ED1 were all school principals heading their respective schools and they were all directors. This group are in charge of implementation of government policies at the school level. They are in direct contact with the students and their parents for the dissemination of the policies and programmes, thus forming the major link between the government and the citizens when it comes to education matters.

4.2.1 Demographics of the participants

The participants are represented as follows: MOE1-3 (officers from the Ministry of Education), LSB1-2 (officers from Lagos State Universal Basic Education Board), ED1-3 (officers from Education District 1 Headquarters) and PR 1-8 (principals from the three zonal offices under education district 1).

Table 4. 1: Demographics of the Participants

Participant	Gender	Qualifications	Years of experience
MOE1	Female	B.Sc.(Ed), M.Ed., PhD.	25 years
MOE2	Male	B.Sc., PGDE, M.Ed.	19 years
MOE3	Female	B.Sc.(Ed), M.Ed.	31 years
LSB1	Male	B.Sc.(Ed)	18 years
LSB2	Female	B.Sc., PGDE, M.Ed.	25 years
ED1	Female	B.Sc.(Ed), M.Ed.	30 years
ED2	Female	B.Sc.(Ed), M.Ed.	30 years
ED3	Female	B.Sc., PGDE, M.Ed.	32 years
PR1	Female	B.Sc.(Ed), M.Ed., PhD.	30 years
PR2	Female	B.Sc.(Ed), M.Ed.	29 years
PR3	Female	NCE, B.Sc.(Ed), M.Ed.	34 years
PR4	Female	NCE, B.Sc.(Ed), M.Ed.	32 years
PR5	Male	B.Sc.(Ed), M.Ed.	33 years
PR6	Male	NCE, B.Sc.(Ed), M.Ed.	34 years
PR7	Female	B.Sc.(Ed), M.Ed.	34 years
PR8	Male	B.Sc.(Ed), M.Ed.	30 years

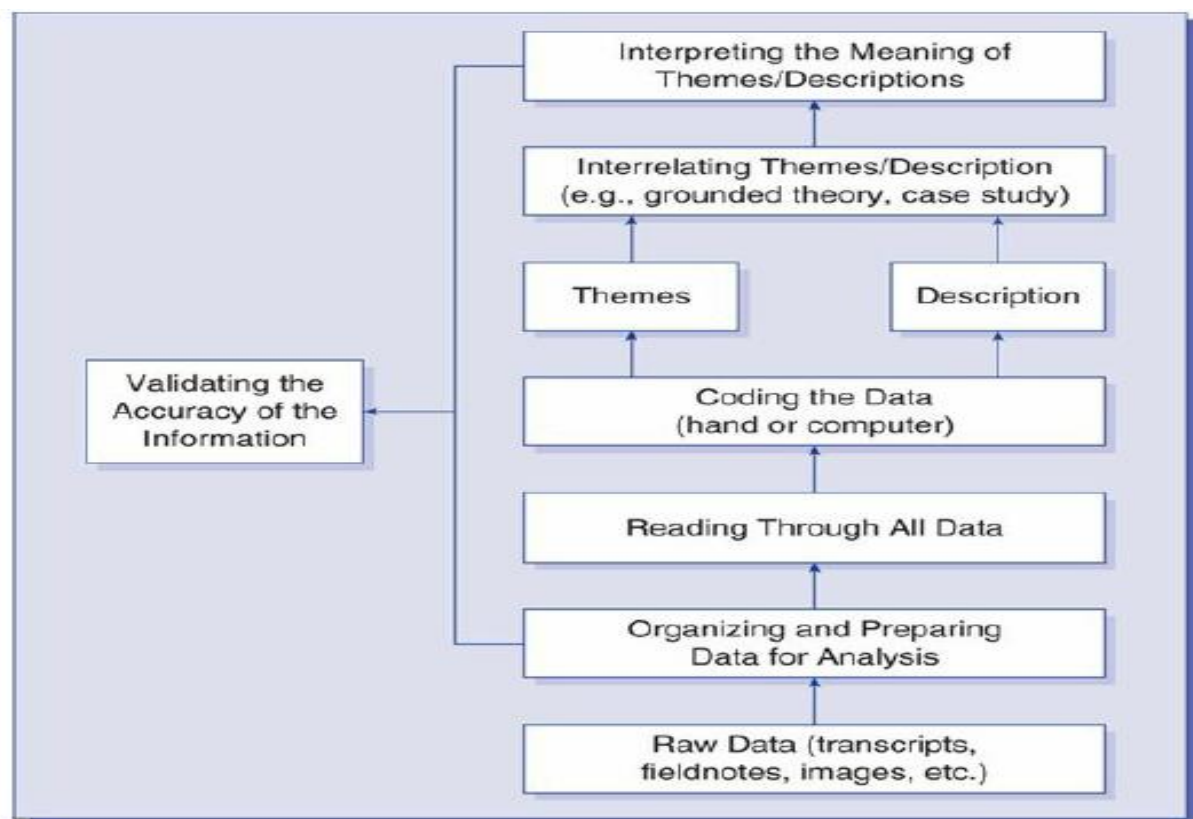
4.3 Thematic analysis

The field data collected through the in-depth recorded interviews was winnowed and aggregated under three themes (Creswell, 2014:246). Then thematic analysis was done by identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. Some of the benefits

of thematic analysis include: a) it accommodates a wide range of research questions, ranging from people's experiences or understandings to representation and construction of a particular phenomenon within a specific contexts like the achievement of gender equality (a particular issue) in Lagos State, Nigeria (specific context); b) its applicability in the analysis of different types of data, from secondary sources of data such as documents, media, audio-visuals to transcripts of interviews, observations or focus groups; c) it is applicable with either large or small data-sets; and d) it can be applied to produce data-driven or theory-driven analyses (Clark & Braun, 2013).

The thematic analysis of this research study was guided by Creswell's (2014:247) pattern of analysing qualitative data (Figure 4.1)

Figure 4. 1: Data Analysis in Qualitative Research



Source: Creswell (2014:247)

The thematic analysis is guided by these seven steps. The researcher first listened to the recorded interviews (raw data) over and over again. Then she transcribed the audio data

into text/written form. The researcher then read through the transcripts, field notes taken during the interviews and supporting documents collected. Here, she took notes about what appears to be interesting, the general ideas of the participant, and the tone of the ideas. This is rereading the data followed by putting down marginal notes about important categories emerging from the data (coding). The three themes that were generated from the coding are presented in a descriptive, narrative form in Section 4.3 below. Each theme discussed is supported with documentary evidence and literature.

4.4 This theme addresses the first sub-research question: in what ways do EFA goals address the issue of gender inequalities in Lagos State schools.

Before presenting the responses of the participants, it is important to state their general assumptions. The assumption is that there are no gender inequalities in Lagos State in general and the provision of education in the State is on an equal basis irrespective of gender, tribe, religion and socio-economic status. To them, their understanding of the EFA concept is provision of free and compulsory education to all citizens of the country in general and Lagos State in particular. Though with varying perception of the State's general provision of education as a right and specific provisions and strategies for the female child, the general assumption is that the State provides an equal opportunity for all.

Having given this background, the specific responses of the participants are presented and analysed under the following sub-themes:

4.4.1 State policy for provision of education as a right and on a non-discriminatory basis
The dominant perception of all the participants is that there is a policy provision of education as a right in the State. The submission even indicated that there are various provisions (more than one) that makes education a right in the State. For instance, a participant listed the policy provision of education as a right in the State to include: (1) Making laws called 'Child Rights Law' and implementing women empowerment campaigns. (2) Registration/enrolment of pupils for basic education (basic 1-6) in government primary schools and basic 7-9. (3) Inclusion of policies on EFA into the constitution at the national level and policies at state level (ED1: 11th July, 2017). Another participant said, "There is a Child Right Law, (she showed me a copy) which takes care

of the basic principles of the child's right to immunization, education, etc." (PR1: 6th July, 2017). In agreement with this, another participant opined:

Lagos as a State has policy that every child has right to education and there is even a law that says it's punishable for any parent not to send their wards to school. So education is compulsory in the State and there is no hindrance for any gender as far as education is concerned in Lagos State (PR5: 31st July, 2017).

The Child's Right Law (CRL) came to effect on 28th May 2007 for the protection of all the children in the State and to guarantee their future by freeing them from exploitation of different forms like child labour, child abuse, and child trafficking *inter alia*. The law incorporates all the rights and responsibilities of children, and consolidates all laws which provide for the protection and care of children in Lagos State into one single legislation. The law helps with the restoration of the children's confidence and self-esteem and the improving their status by recognizing their right to life, education, survival, protection against abuse and exploitation, amongst others.

Section 7(v) of the law states that the child is conferred with the rights to "free and compulsory primary and encouragement of secondary and tertiary education", while Sections 9 and 19 state that parents should provide necessary guidance, discipline, education and training for their children (Child Right Law, 2007:4).

This is just one of the various policies on education in the State that makes the provision of education in the State to be the responsibility of the government. As a participant responded thus:

We have a policy that says a child has a right to education from primary school to what is called basic 9 which is Junior Secondary School (JSS). And at JSS, the child may now depending on their abilities the child may procedure to the Senior Secondary School or Technical School. Our education is free in L/S even up to the WAEC, government pays for their WAEC. They supply textbooks to them, so the involvement of the parents is just minimal (PR3: 7th July, 2017).

Corroborating this, another respondent said that the provision in the policy is that all school-age children in Lagos State must have access to education and it is compulsory that they attend the first nine years (i.e. the basic education): primary six years and the first secondary three years. This is in the SUBEB Law. Equally another participant responded that:

The first thing that recognised education as a right is the introduction of free education in Lagos State. This makes it compulsory that at the school-age level you're expected to be in school and all enrolment from Early Childhood Education is free. Then it is even part of the benefits that parents get from the government that it is expected that their children should have at least the basic education i.e. from the pre-primary to the secondary level. Generally, in Lagos State, it is seen as a right because of the introduction of free education for all (MOE2: 18th July, 2017).

These responses are supported by the provision in the Lagos State Policy on Education and the Universal Basic Education (UBE) Act. Though currently under review, Section 3.2.5 of the Lagos State Policy on Education (1988) serves as evidence of government's commitment towards the provision of primary education to the citizenry. It states that "...Government will continue in its efforts to make primary education available through the establishment of properly equipped and operated public schools" (Lagos State Policy on Education, 1988:13). Section 3.2.6 goes thus, "Public primary education in public-owned schools will be tuition-free since expenses for primary education will be the joint responsibility of the Federal, State and Local Governments".

Also to ensure the right of a child to compulsory, free universal basic education, Part I Section 2(1) of the Universal Basic Education (UBE) Act (2004) states that "Every Government in Nigeria shall provide free, compulsory and universal basic education for every child of primary and junior secondary school age". Section 2(2) of the Act states thus: "Every parent shall ensure that his child or ward attends and completes his - (a) primary school education; and (b) junior secondary school education, by endeavouring to send the child to primary and junior secondary schools". This is supported by Sections 5.0.2 and 5.0.3 of the Lagos State policy on education that state that "Education in Lagos State will remain tuition-free at the primary level. However, the burden of personnel cost at the primary school level will be jointly borne by the Federal, State and Local Governments" and "Funding of public post-primary education will be borne essentially by the State Government" respectively.

Some of these policies were tailored in line with the provisions in the National Policy on Education and the Nigerian Constitution as submitted by a participant that "the Lagos State educational policy aligns with the National Policy on Education (NPE) which states that every Nigerian child has a right to education. Part 2:1(a) of the Lagos State policy

aligns with section 1:3(d) of the NPE” (MOE1: 14th July, 2017). In agreement with this, another respondent said:

As we know that any state policy that goes contrary to what we have in the constitution concerning education will not be allowed to work out. Lagos State as one of the States in Nigeria has many educational policies and this in a way is trying to put in practice what is already in the constitution. That every child, every Nigerian child must be given right to education. Right to education i.e. primary education (pry 1-6) is compulsory. Apart from primary education, the first three years of secondary education is also to be made free. Section 18 of Nigeria constitution stipulated compulsory education and SUBEB law had provisions in the State policy recognizing education as a right (PR2: 14th July, 2017).

Equally in support of this, another participant said:

I think that is from what is embedded in the constitution of the federal government that there is supposed to be free, qualitative and compulsory education to all students up to SSS level and being one of the cardinal points of the policy of the present administration, they followed it up and made education compulsory and available to every child. In fact there is also a law that any child that is of school age and does not go to school the parent of such child will be arrested and prosecuted. So, the policy is there in Lagos State that if your child is of school age and you don't send that child to school the State has the authority to arrest and prosecute the parent (ED2: 12th July, 2017).

This stand is evidenced in the Lagos State Policy on Education. Part II Section 2:1(a) of the policy states that the Lagos State Education System will “re-align and streamline the State educational practices with the Provisions of the National Policy on Education”. This is further collaborated by Sections 3.2.2 and 3.2.26 of the policy.

This right of access and provision has, however, been stipulated a non-discriminatory basis with regards to either gender, religion, ethnicity, tribe or any other factor. This was reflected in the participants’ reactions to the right of access to education without discrimination. They all maintained that there is no gender discrimination in the provision of education in Lagos State. According to a participant, “the Child Right Law made education compulsory for all children in Lagos State, so either you are a male or a female, you are entitled to education in the State. You must compulsorily be part of the education system in the state. No gender discrimination in Lagos State” (LSB2: 3rd August, 2017). Similarly, another participant commented that the policy is so clear that regardless of the gender, either a girl-child or a male child you have access to education. The policy is the

same regardless of the tribe too, for as long as the person resides in Lagos State he or she has access to go to school when due to do so. So the policy is not biased or discriminatory against any sex, rather it is for both sexes. According to her:

The State operates an open door policy in our schools. So every child irrespective of the sex, religion, tribe or any disability has a right to be in our schools. Though we have some schools that are special schools and single-sex schools for either only boys or only girls. Schools like Government Girls' College, Agege; Eva Adelaja Girls' High School; Girls' Academy; Wesley Girls' High School; Gbaja Girls' High School are some examples of only girls' (single-sex) schools while Zumratul Islammiyah Boys' High School; Boys' Academy; EKO Boys' High School; Birch Freeman Boys' High School are some of the only boys' schools. However most of the schools are co-educational and each child has equal right. In short more than 80% of the schools in Lagos State are for co-educational and there is no limitations of any kind. For instance, we don't say we're admitting like 20% female, 30% male nothing like that. So everybody has an equal chance once you're able to write the exams and you succeed you go to secondary school in public secondary school. I'll say at large the State does not discriminate when it comes to education for any gender. All the students write same common entrance examinations and has equal chances of gaining admission once passed except in schools where it is for boys alone or for girls alone (single sex schools) (PR4: 10th July, 2017).

In a similar vein another participant maintained that there are many schools in the State that caters for both male and female children (mixed schools), while some are single sex schools (only boys or only girls). She further argued that since the primary education is compulsory whether the child is a male or female there should be no discrimination. She backed her argument up that "The Nigerian constitution particularly section 18 stipulates compulsory education for all Nigerian children whether male or female" (PR6: 20th July, 2017). She explained that the first six years of primary education are compulsory and free while the first three years of secondary school are also free. After the first three years in secondary school, the child may now decide either to go to technical school or to continue with senior secondary school and move from there to a higher institution.

Presenting her own argument from another angle, a participant said that:

There is no discrimination against any gender, the policy is meant for all children of both sexes. All children of school age are expected to attend school. And that is why the government has put in place the policy, made education free and accessible to all. Am sure that is probably one of the reasons why education is free in Lagos State at least from the nursery because the government public schools now have nursery sections there. From nursery to secondary level education is

free. And even to eliminate the excuse of lack of fund, the government went as far as providing essential textbooks for the compulsory subjects to the students. These are given to them at the beginning of the academic session and collected back at the end of the session for them to use. Textbooks were provided for subjects like Mathematics, English Language, Computer Science, Biology, Yoruba Language, Basic Technology and some others (ED3: 13th July, 2017).

She stressed further that when the government says education is compulsory, they don't discriminate. According to her, "By right, every child that resides in Lagos State belongs to the government. There is no discrimination, every child has free access to education in the State. It is compulsory once you're a child and you reside in Lagos State, you must go to primary and secondary schools free irrespective of your tribe and gender as long as you are still living in the State" (ED3: 13th July, 2017).

Another participant added that the policy is meant for all children. All must be in school and there is even no discrimination on the basis of physical challenges or disabilities. According to her:

Even we have inclusive unit in Lagos State schools whereby the challenged pupils have access to education, the same education with the other children. We have about 31 inclusive primary schools and 12 secondary. The challenged students are in the same schools with other children and they have special teachers there to meet their needs. Both physically challenged and any type. Even for those that are mentally challenged we have special schools for them in Lagos State. And there is a department in charge of that- Child Guidance and Special Education Department. They have counsellors in this Department who are equally in charge of counsellors in all Lagos State schools. This Department are also in charge of the policy on Inclusive Education. They don't discriminate (MOE3: 24th July, 2017).

Speaking further on the right of access on a non-discriminatory basis, she noted:

Registration of pupils to primary schools for both male and female and even the challenged children is free. The only requirement I think, is the birth certificate of the child and all other things are free. In fact, in the public schools in Nigeria now not Lagos State alone, ECCE (pre-primary education) is now there. Before, people used to send their children to private schools because of the nursery schools, but now it is compulsory for all schools and there is curriculum for pre-primary to teach them. So all primary schools in Lagos State have that pre-primary school. Parents are therefore encourage to register their children. In fact during registration, it usually start from morning till 6p.m. so that parents that have gone to the office or to their markets can still have the opportunity to register their children. They don't close until 6p.m. in the evening (MOE3: 24th July, 2017).

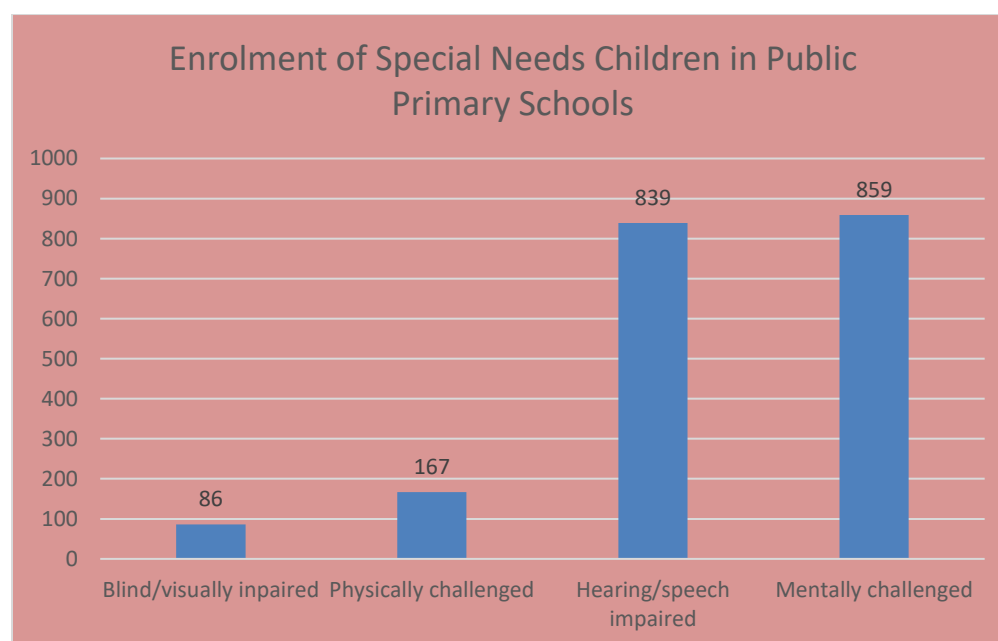
The following documentary evidence confirmed this participant's submission on enrolment of challenged children:

Table 4. 2: Enrolment of Special Needs Children in Public Primary Schools

Type of disability	PRY1	PRY2	PRY3	PRY4	PRY5	PRY6	TOTAL
Blind/visually impaired	29	5	7	15	15	15	86
Physically challenged	38	34	24	41	21	9	167
Hearing/speech impaired	228	185	121	15	158	152	839
Mentally challenged	438	100	125	99	64	33	859

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:12

Figure 4. 2: Enrolment of Special Needs Children in Public Primary Schools



Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:13

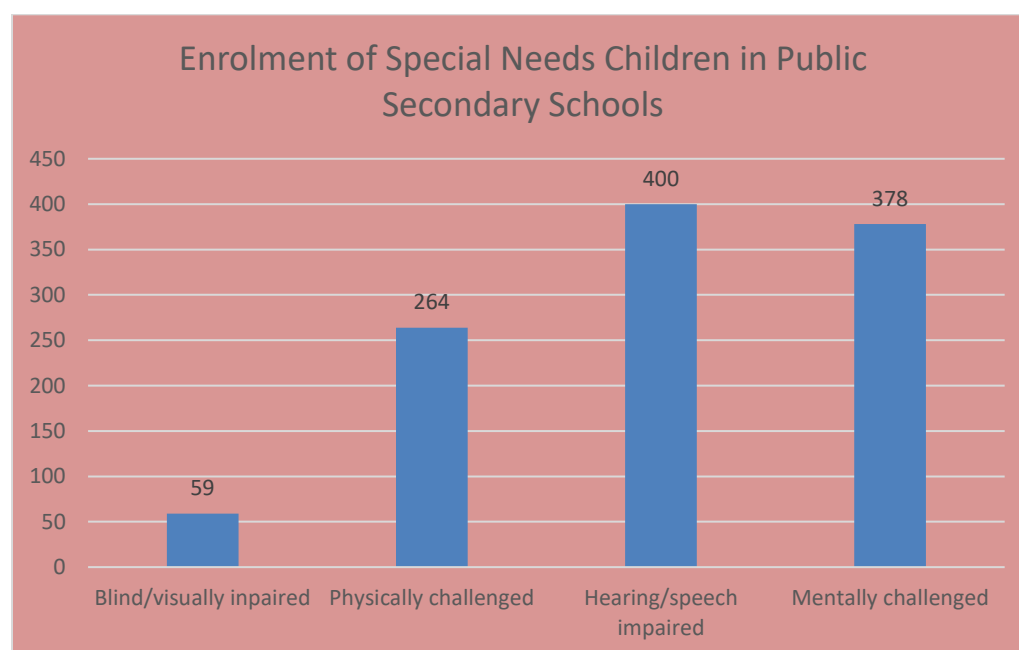
Table 4.2 and figure 4.2 indicated that the government has made provisions for children with special needs at the public primary schools. This will help in giving those children a sense of belongings and acceptance by the society, a positive move towards an inclusive form of education.

Table 4. 3: Enrolment of Special Needs Children in Public Secondary Schools

Type of disability	JSS1	JSS2	JSS3	SSS1	SSS2	SSS3	TOTAL
Blind/visually impaired	9	3	6	7	8	26	59
Physically challenged	41	34	26	60	50	45	264
Hearing/speech impaired	89	71	56	85	54	45	400
Mentally challenged	26	11	7	16	316	2	378

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:13

Figure 4. 3: Enrolment of Special Needs Children in Public Secondary Schools



Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:13

Table 4.3 and figure 4.3 further indicated that the government has made provisions for not only the 'normal' children in the public schools but also the children with special needs. These provisions are extended up to the secondary school level in the State. This is a positive move towards an inclusive form of education.

4.4.2 Ways EFA goals attempt to address the issue of gender inequality in schools in Lagos State

Generally, all the participants have some degree of awareness of the Education for All (EFA) concept though with varying opinions of what it means within the Nigerian context. To a participant, "EFA is a process that involves the transformation of schools and other

centres of learning to cater for all children, including boys and girls, and adults irrespective of ethnicity, challenges such as disability and difficulties in learning. Also, to bridge the gap of gender inequality” (ED1: 11th July, 2017). To another participant:

EFA means we’re trying to eliminate illiteracy in the first place and we want each child to have basic education. And once you have that basic education it’s going to solve a lot of problems especially poverty problem. So the child will be able to at least read and write, and if the ability cannot carry him, he can go to entrepreneurship to learn skill and will also help to improve (if I say economy- of cause) he can come to the standard where he can do things which can attract people into the country or which they can even send outside. But the basic thing is at least to eliminate the poverty level (PR3: 7th July, 2017).

However, the overall submission of all the participants was that the goals of EFA, particularly the gender equality goal, is well achieved in Lagos State. To them, the achievement of these goals are connected to the determined effort of the State and the prevailing culture of the Lagos metropolis. When asked about the ways EFA goals had attempted to address the issue of gender inequality in schools in Lagos State, the spontaneous response was “there is no gender inequality/biasness in Lagos State”.

According to a principal:

Nothing like gender inequality/biasness when it comes to education in Lagos state. Education in Lagos State is about everybody, there is no bias, and there is no disparity. Most of our schools in the State are mixed schools (co-educational), both boys and girls attending together. And where we have only boys school (single sex school), we also have only girls school. It is the same curriculum that is taught in the mixed schools that is equally taught in the single sex schools (whether male or female). So there is nothing like disparity or inequality, the curriculum takes care of the totality of everybody. The legislation takes care of the totality of everybody. The environment itself (the classroom) in the tone and addressing of students, for instance, am in a mixed school, my boys and girls, I address them together as learners, sometimes I address them as comrades just to show you that there is no gender discrimination. It’s not a matter of good morning boys or good morning girls – it’s a matter of good morning comrades or good morning learners (PR1: 6th July, 2017).

She went further:

In the classrooms, they attend the same classroom they are together, they are taught together, and there is no separation or segregation. In the curriculum, it’s the same curriculum that is taking care of them. The learning environment, it is the same thing. Everything is the same in the school based on the provision of the child right law. And even the exams that they write is the same thing, it is the

survival of the fittest. If it is the girl that comes out best, she'll not be discriminated against and if it is the boy, there is no discrimination as well. Everybody is together and it is your hard work that will really show where you are (PR1: 6th July, 2017).

Similarly, another principal said:

Do we really have gender inequality in Lagos State? Because every child has equal right to be registered in school especially in public schools, even in the private schools it is still the same. I don't really think there is that disparity. When you look at our schools- they sit together in the classes, they are taught by the same teachers they use the same curriculum and they write the same exams. So I don't think there is any disparity in that, there is no discrimination there is no inequality. All of them are given equal chances, they do the same exams. Even if it is in the higher institution they have the same topic (PR3: 7th July, 2017).

Collaborating further, another principal said that:

If you look at the way we do our enrolment you'll discover that there is no hindrance for anybody, it is an open competition. Once you're qualified you go into school, nothing special as a requirement for anybody. Like in Lagos State today the enrolment is free. Even at the primary school level the government even make public announcements that all children of school age must go to school so the parents must go and register them at any public primary school that is closest to their homes. And they even have kindergarten classes (nursery school) at the primary schools now (PR5: 31st July, 2017).

Agreeing with the submissions of the principals, participants from the offices equally affirmed that there is nothing like gender disparity or inequality when it comes to education in Lagos State. According to a participant, "our schools are open to all children in the State irrespective of their gender, religion or tribe. All children in Lagos State has a right to education. And Lagos State government keyed into the UNESCO child right act and we also have the Nigerian child right act as well as Lagos State child right act" (MOE3: 24th July, 2017). Another participant even explained that in some of the inclusive schools where there are physically challenged children, the pupils are given one meal in a day just to encourage them to come to school.

To some, the opinion is that there are even more females in schools than males. A participant responded thus:

I can't even say there is gender inequality in school what I even know is that in Lagos State we have more girl-child in the schools than the male, so we have an higher percentage of girls in school especially at the JSS and the SSS levels so the issue of gender disparity or inequality in Lagos is not as prominent to attract

the attention of the government that fine we need to look into this to be able to see how we'll be able to balance the inequality in the school system. So for now am not saying there is a serious challenge that we have gender inequality in our schools in Lagos State (MOE2: 18th July, 2017).

Backing up these submissions of the participants, documentary evidence from the Lagos State Census Report showed that generally in terms of enrolment, there are more girls in the various classes of public schools in the State. This is reflected in the following tables and figures:

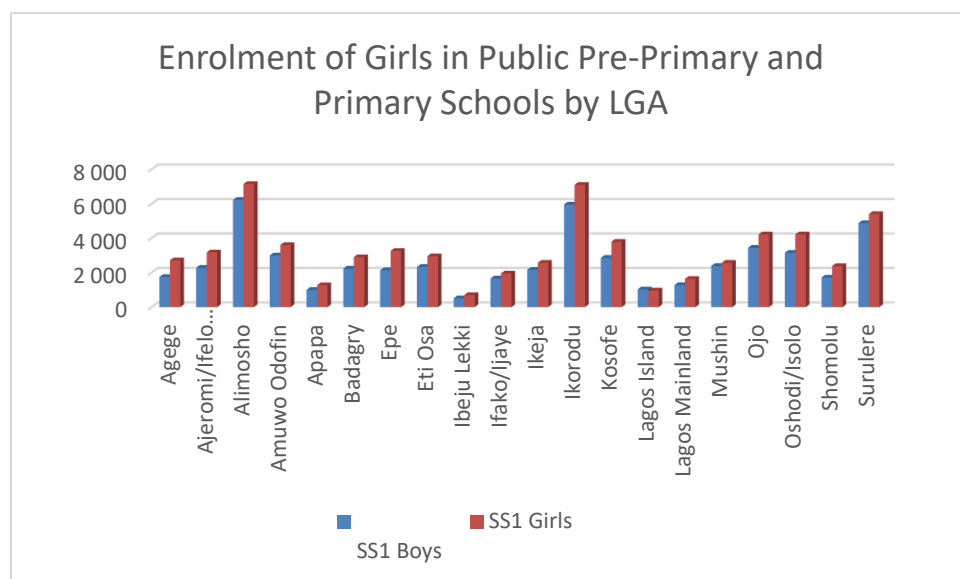
Table 4. 4: Enrolment of Girls in Public Pre-Primary and Primary Schools by LGA

LGA	Pre-Primary				Primary			
	Number of Schools	Pupils	Girls	% Girls	Number of Schools	Pupils	Girls	% Girls
Agege	50	3,555	1,662	47	50	18,598	9,645	52
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	71	3,503	1,703	49	71	22,996	11,627	51
Alimosho	74	4,628	2,218	48	74	43,865	21,964	50
Amuwo Odofin	43	2,410	1,185	49	43	11,994	6,583	55
Apapa	24	1,890	875	46	24	10,509	5,210	50
Badagry	53	4,498	2,174	48	53	26,411	13,046	49
Epe	78	3,268	1,586	49	78	21,264	10,478	49
Eti Osa	35	2,440	1,221	50	35	12,966	6,702	52
Ibeju Lekki	33	3,814	1,827	48	33	15,608	7,921	51
Ifako/Ijaye	25	1,638	787	48	25	13,807	6,881	50
Ikeja	31	2,415	1,171	48	31	11,604	6,123	53
Ikorodu	61	5,870	2,894	49	61	44,521	22,185	50
Kosofe	40	4,470	2,257	50	40	22,523	11,726	52
Lagos Island	32	2,238	1,194	53	32	10,508	5,565	53
Lagos Mainland	57	3,585	1,835	51	57	16,563	8,679	52
Mushin	77	3,249	1,668	51	77	19,498	10,333	53
Ojo	52	3,696	1,812	49	52	24,583	12,241	50
Oshodi/Isolo	55	4,427	2,202	50	55	20,828	10,737	52
Shomolu	48	1,917	939	49	48	14,027	7,267	52
Surulere	63	3,778	1,887	50	63	17,604	9,394	53
TOTAL	1,007	67,289	33,097	49	1,007	400,277	204,304	51

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:6

Although Table 4.4 indicated that the percentage of girls enrolled at the pre-primary level is slightly below average, this is not the case with the primary enrolment. The percentage of girls enrolled here is shown to be above average. This is further illustrated in figure 4.4:

Figure 4. 4: Enrolment of Girls in Public Pre-Primary and Primary Schools by LGA



Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:6

Table 4. 5: Enrolment in Public Primary Schools by Class, Sex and LGA

LGA	PRY 1			PRY 2			PRY 3		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Agege	1,332	1,431	2,763	1,337	1,351	2,688	1,473	1,539	3,012
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	1,469	1,389	2,858	1,661	1,726	3,387	1,841	1,890	3,731
Alimosho	2,536	2,361	4,897	3,085	2,975	6,060	3,562	3,498	7,060
Amuwo Odofin	795	813	1,608	800	1,011	1,811	895	1,156	2,051
Apapa	729	636	1,365	833	829	1,662	897	893	1,790
Badagry	1,966	2,163	4,129	2,119	1,969	4,088	2,210	2,156	4,366
Epe	1,840	1,853	3,693	1,780	1,709	3,489	1,770	1,677	3,447
Eti Osa	907	962	1,869	973	1,047	2,020	1,140	1,198	2,338
Ibeju Lekki	1,403	1,462	2,865	1,253	1,273	2,526	1,233	1,269	2,502
Ifako/Ijaye	785	699	1,484	890	895	1,785	1,026	1,035	2,061
Ikeja	740	753	1,493	784	939	1,723	925	1,029	1,954
Ikorodu	3,113	2,948	6,061	3,088	3,046	6,134	3,529	3,444	6,973
Kosofe	1,351	1,421	2,772	1,515	1,640	3,155	1,826	2,019	3,845
Lagos Island	683	823	1,506	770	827	1,597	816	924	1,740
Lagos Mainland	1,108	1,219	2,327	1,165	1,254	2,419	1,326	1,450	2,776
Mushin	1,288	1,450	2,738	1,299	1,503	2,802	1,423	1,680	3,103
Ojo	1,579	1,493	3,071	1,779	1,815	3,594	2,073	2,026	4,099
Oshodi/Isolo	1,365	1,269	2,634	1,414	1,480	2,894	1,717	1,740	3,457
Shomolu	778	818	1,596	879	924	1,803	1,056	1,083	2,139
Surulere	1,120	1,153	2,273	1,252	1,406	2,658	1,334	1,593	2,927
TOTAL	26,886	27,116	54,002	28,676	29,619	58,295	32,072	33,299	65,371

LGA	PRY 4			PRY 5			PRY 6		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Agege	1,580	1,617	3,197	1,726	2,015	3,741	1,505	1,692	3,197
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	2,003	2,076	4,079	2,205	2,302	4,507	2,190	2,244	4,434
Alimosho	3,926	3,830	7,756	4,572	4,760	9,332	4,220	4,540	8,760
Amuwo Odofin	903	1,130	2,033	1,023	1,288	2,311	995	1,185	2,180
Apapa	955	868	1,823	991	1,067	2,058	894	917	1,811
Badagry	2,365	2,241	4,606	2,431	2,261	4,692	2,274	2,256	4,350
Epe	1,825	1,758	3,583	1,803	1,717	3,520	1,768	1,764	3,532
Eti Osa	1,116	1,123	2,239	1,114	1,340	2,454	1,014	1,032	2,046
Ibeju Lekki	1,234	1,300	2,534	1,253	1,253	2,506	1,311	1,364	2,675
Ifako/Ijaye	1,282	1,259	2,541	1,484	1,482	2,966	1,459	1,511	2,970
Ikeja	1,005	1,135	2,140	1,036	1,139	2,175	991	1,128	2,119
Ikorodu	3,864	3,924	7,788	4,491	4,498	8,989	4,254	4,322	8,576
Kosofe	2,060	2,170	4,230	2,177	2,376	4,553	1,868	2,100	3,968
Lagos Island	906	968	1,874	924	1,062	1,986	844	961	1,805
Lagos Mainland	1,384	1,542	2,926	1,520	1,545	3,065	1,381	1,669	3,050
Mushin	1,633	1,839	3,472	1,778	2,034	3,812	1,744	1,827	3,571
Ojo	2,135	2,137	4,272	2,442	2,406	4,848	2,335	2,364	4,699
Oshodi/Isolo	1,847	2,001	3,848	1,808	2,051	3,859	1,940	2,196	4,136
Shomolu	1,083	1,236	2,319	1,237	1,383	2,620	1,727	1,823	3,550
Surulere	1,451	1,658	3,109	1,491	1,873	3,364	1,562	1,711	3,273
TOTAL	34,557	35,812	70,369	37,506	39,852	77,358	36,276	38,606	74,882

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:7

Table 4.5 above showed that generally there are more girls in the various classes of public primary schools in the State. This is reflected in the aggregate enrolment figures of pupils in Primaries 1-6.

Table 4. 6: Enrolment in Public Junior Secondary Schools by Sex and LGA

LGA	JS1			JS2			JS3		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Agege	2,408	2,606	5,014	2,314	2,539	4,853	1,506	2,064	3,570
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	2,711	2,720	5,431	3,009	3,025	6,034	2,892	3,167	6,059
Alimosho	7,454	7,069	14,523	6,693	6,618	13,311	6,371	6,073	12,444
Amuwo Odofin	1,848	1,894	3,742	1,672	2,178	3,850	1,600	1,632	3,232
Apapa	1,123	1,156	2,279	1,334	1,309	2,643	1,053	1,111	2,164
Badagry	3,578	3,427	7,005	2,617	2,612	5,229	2,549	2,601	5,150
Epe	2,046	1,848	3,894	1,944	1,748	3,692	1,689	1,694	3,383
Eti Osa	2,112	2,290	4,402	1,926	2,169	4,095	1,654	1,894	3,548
Ibeju Lekki	1,122	1,054	2,176	854	821	1,675	679	769	1,448
Ifako/Ijaye	2,255	2,076	4,331	1,733	1,654	3,387	1,670	1,700	3,370
Ikeja	2,105	2,147	4,252	2,010	2,232	4,242	1,609	1,819	3,428
Ikorodu	5,988	5,536	11,524	5,817	5,890	11,707	4,946	5,313	10,259
Kosofe	2,856	2,979	5,835	2,798	3,071	5,869	2,146	2,372	4,518
Lagos Island	1,203	1,167	2,370	1,009	928	1,937	1,040	761	1,801
Lagos Mainland	1,967	2,139	4,106	1,724	2,016	3,740	1,497	1,648	3,145
Mushin	2,569	2,260	4,829	2,429	1,932	4,361	2,405	1,924	4,329
Ojo	3,116	2,881	5,997	4,025	3,889	7,914	3,636	3,245	6,881
Oshodi/Isolo	3,221	3,668	6,889	3,217	3,637	6,854	2,771	2,981	5,752
Shomolu	3,060	3,170	6,230	2,439	2,918	5,357	2,204	2,452	4,656
Surulere	3,653	4,545	8,198	3,367	4,329	7,759	2,994	3,945	6,939
TOTAL	56,395	56,632	113,027	52,931	55,578	108,509	46,911	49,165	96,076

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:8

The cumulative aggregate of enrolment figures of students in the public junior secondary schools also reflected that there are more girls in the various classes as shown in Table 4.6 above. This is in tandem with the findings in the primary school enrolment of girls.

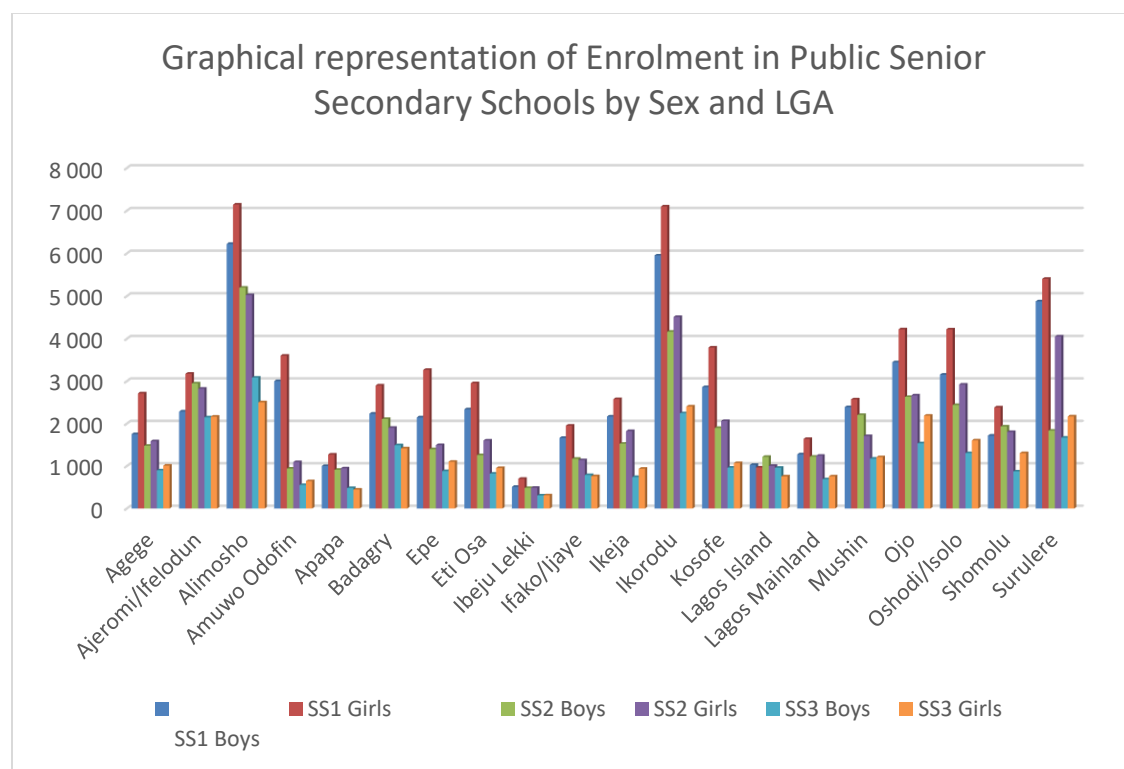
Table 4. 7: Enrolment in Public Senior Secondary Schools by Sex and LGA

LGA	SS1			SS2			SS3		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Agege	1,752	2,712	4,464	1,478	1,585	3,063	899	1,010	1,909
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	2,285	3,176	5,461	2,948	2,822	5,770	2,148	2,165	4313
Alimosho	6,222	7,145	13,367	5,198	5,023	10,221	3,084	2,503	5,587
Amuwo Odofin	3,002	3,601	6,603	941	1,093	2,034	554	645	1,199
Apapa	1,001	1,271	2,272	911	947	1,858	482	447	929
Badagry	2,234	2,899	5,133	2,110	1,902	4,012	1,491	1,417	2,908
Epe	2,147	3,267	5,414	1,398	1,495	2,893	881	1,101	1,982
Eti Osa	2,337	2,954	5,291	1,257	1,603	2,860	821	955	1,776
Ibeju Lekki	511	700	1,211	484	488	973	307	311	618
Ifako/Ijaye	1,664	1,953	3,617	1,171	1,139	2,310	789	762	1,551
Ikeja	2,168	2,578	4,746	1,527	1,824	3,351	742	937	1,679
Ikorodu	5,952	7,100	13,052	4,165	4,511	8,676	2,245	2,404	4,649
Kosofe	2,861	3,793	6,654	1,898	2,063	3,961	963	1,070	2,033
Lagos Island	1,027	965	1,992	1,218	1,005	2,223	959	757	1,716
Lagos Mainland	1,276	1,639	2,915	1,221	1,244	2,465	690	758	1,448
Mushin	2,389	2,573	4,962	2,203	1,708	3,911	1,175	1,210	2,385
Ojo	3,446	4,222	7,668	2,629	2,665	5,294	1,536	2,188	3,724
Oshodi/Isolo	3,154	4,220	7,374	2,438	2,920	5,358	1,306	1,606	2,912
Shomolu	1,718	2,382	4,100	1,933	1,804	3,737	874	1,304	2,178
Surulere	4,876	5,404	10,280	2,835	4,054	6,889	1,669	2,169	3,838
TOTAL	52,022	64,554	116,576	39,964	41,895	81,859	23,615	25,719	49,334

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:9

On the aggregate, there are more girls in schools at the public senior secondary level. Some few exceptions were, however, noticed with some of the classes in some LGAs. The graphical representation is further illustrated in Figure 4.5:

Figure 4. 5: Graphical Representation of Enrolment in Public Senior Secondary Schools by Sex and LGA



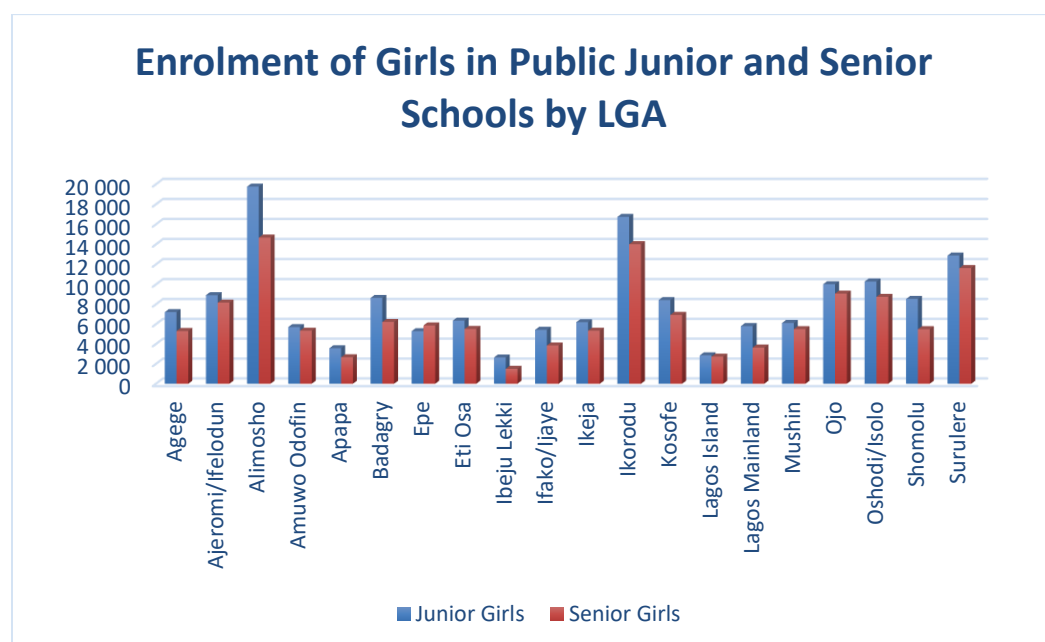
Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:9

Table 4. 8: Enrolment of Girls in Public Junior and Senior Secondary Schools by LGA

LGA	Junior				Senior			
	Number of Schools	Students	Girls	% Girls	Number of Schools	Students	Girls	% Girls
Agege	12	13,437	7,209	54	8	9,436	5,307	56
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	19	17,524	8,912	51	20	15,544	8,163	53
Alimosho	35	40,278	19,760	49	23	29,175	14,671	50
Amuwo Odofin	21	10,824	5,704	53	20	9,836	5,339	54
Apapa	6	7,086	3,576	50	5	5,059	2,665	53
Badagry	14	17,384	8,640	50	13	12,053	6,218	52
Epe	26	10,969	5,290	48	25	10,289	5,863	57
Eti Osa	20	12,045	6,353	53	21	9,927	5,512	56
Ibeju Lekki	10	5,299	2,644	50	8	2,802	1,499	53
Ifako/Ijaye	11	11,088	5,430	49	8	7,478	3,854	52
Ikeja	14	11,922	6,198	52	13	9,776	5,339	55
Ikorodu	28	33,490	16,739	50	28	26,377	14,015	53
Kosofe	13	16,222	8,422	52	13	12,648	6,926	55
Lagos Island	11	6,108	2,856	47	10	5,931	2,727	46
Lagos Mainland	14	10,991	5,803	53	9	6,828	3,641	53
Mushin	16	13,519	6,116	45	16	11,258	5,491	49
Ojo	17	20,792	10,015	48	15	16,686	9,075	54
Oshodi/Isolo	23	19,495	10,286	53	22	15,644	8,746	56
Shomolu	10	16,243	8,540	53	10	10,015	5,490	55
Surulere	28	22,896	12,882	56	29	21,007	11,627	55
TOTAL	348	317,612	161,375	51	316	247,769	115,601	53

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:10

Figure 4. 6: Enrolment of Girls in Public Junior and Senior Secondary Schools by LGA



Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:10

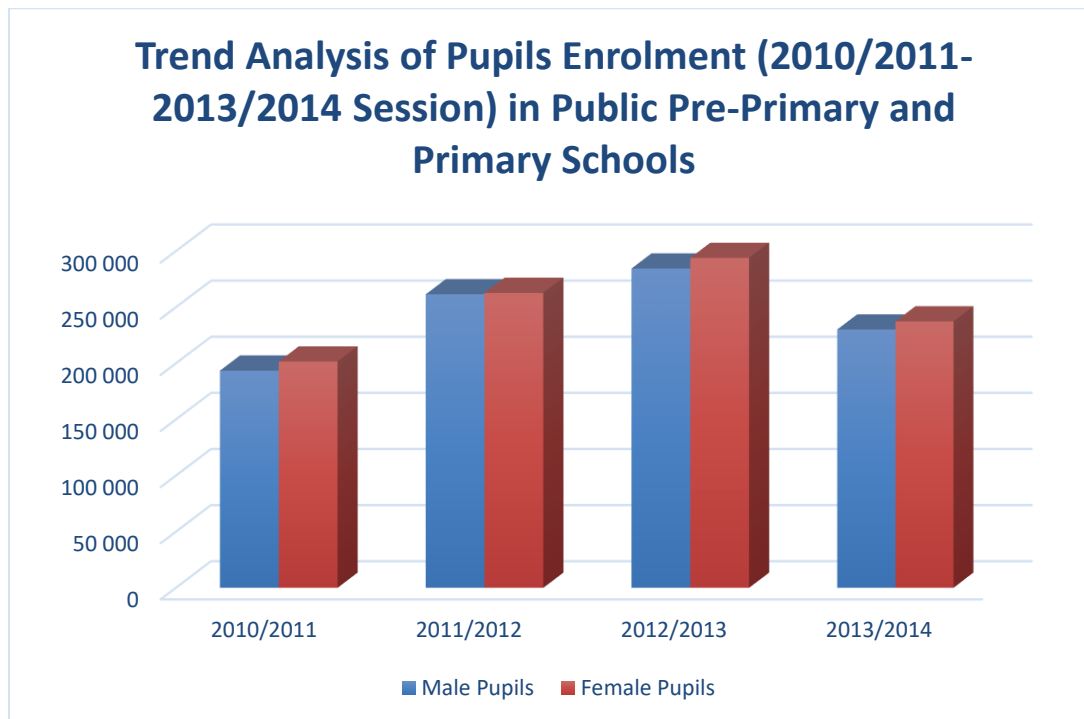
Though with some few exemptions, the Table 4.8 and Figure 4.6 above further confirmed that there are more girls than boys in the public secondary schools in Lagos State. The female population is consistently higher. This could be said to be a reflection of the trend in pupils' enrolment in the public schools in the State between years 2010-2014 as presented in the following tables and figures:

Table 4. 9: Trend Analysis of Pupils Enrolment (2010/2011- 2013/2014 Session) In Public Pre-Primary and Primary Schools

S/N	Year	Male Pupils	Female Pupils	Total Pupils	Gender Parity Index
1	2010/2011	193,538	201,649	395,187	1.04
2	2011/2012	261,542	262,818	524,360	1.00
3	2012/2013	284,533	293,971	578,504	1.03
4	2013/2014	230,165	237,401	467,566	1.03

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:31

Figure 4. 7: Trend Analysis of Pupils Enrolment (2010/2011- 2013/2014 Session) In Public Pre-Primary and Primary Schools



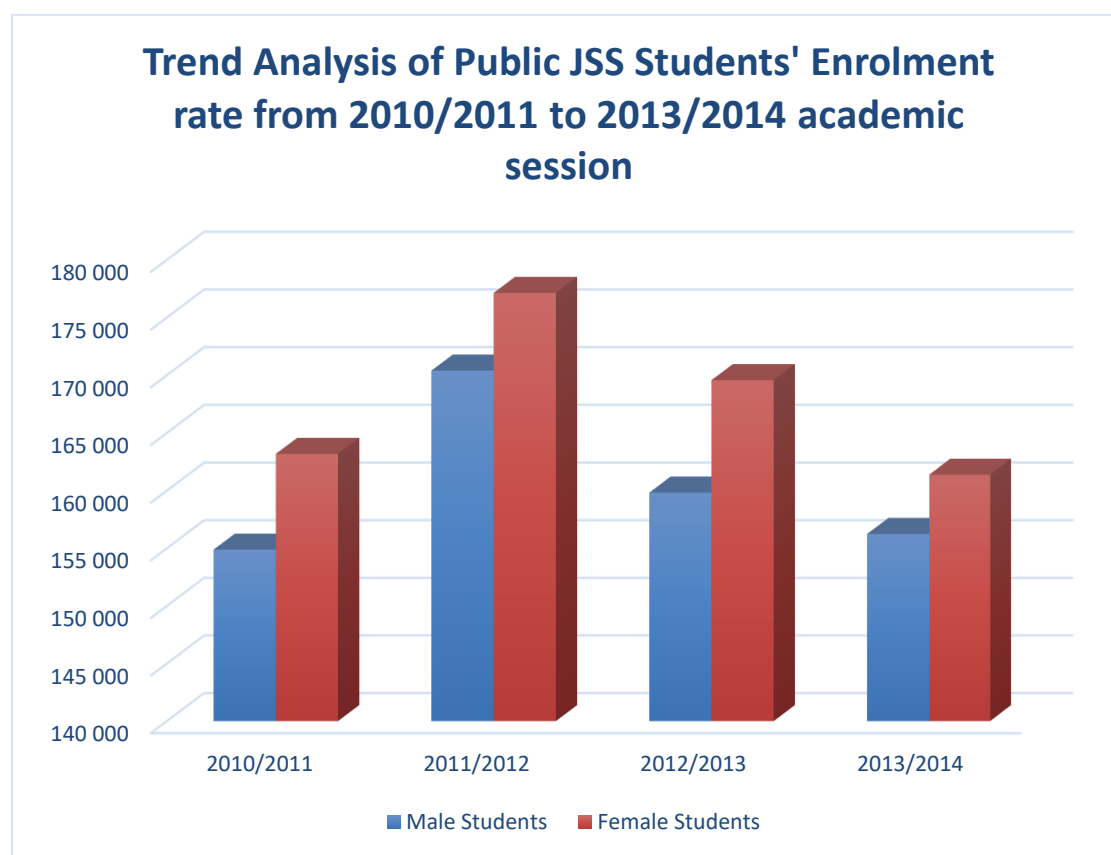
Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:31

Table 4. 10: Trend Analysis of Pupils' Enrolment (2010/2011- 2013/2014 Session) In Public Junior Secondary Schools

S/N	Year	Male Students	Female Students	Total Students	Gender Parity Index
1	2010/2011	154,883	163,181	318,064	1.05
2	2011/2012	170,398	177,131	347,529	1.04
3	2012/2013	159,822	169,573	329,395	1.03
4	2013/2014	156,237	161,375	317,612	1.03

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:33

Figure 4. 8: Trend Analysis of Pupils' Enrolment (2010/2011- 2013/2014 Session) In Public Junior Secondary Schools



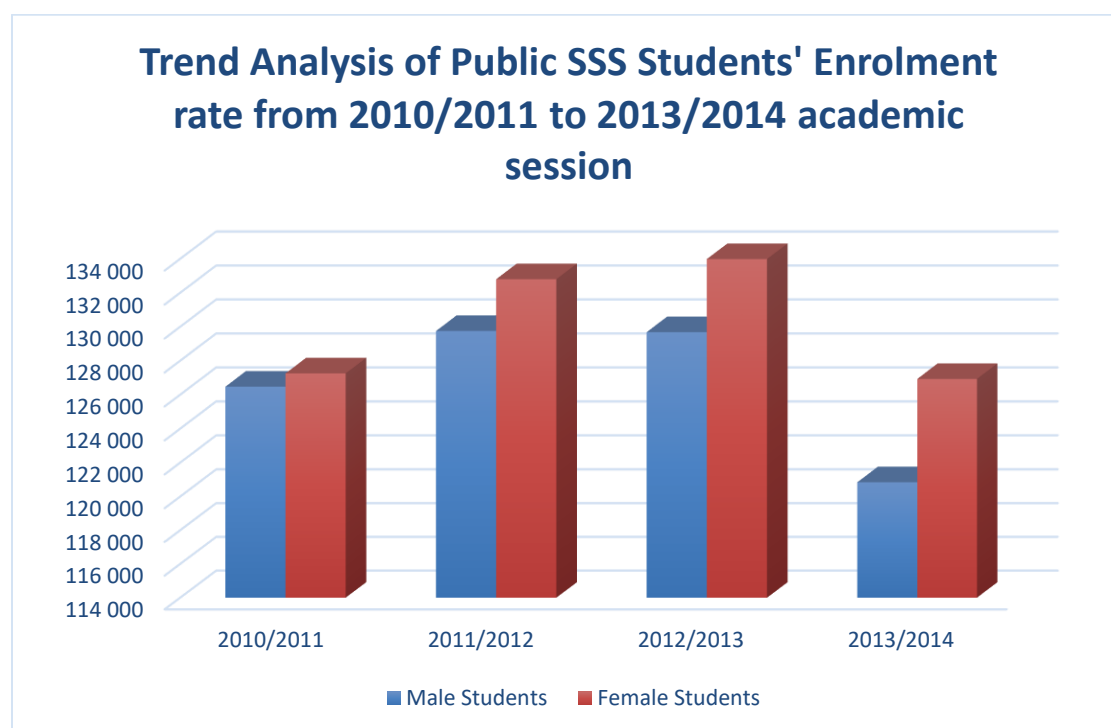
Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:33

Table 4. 11: Trend Analysis of Pupils' Enrolment (2010/2011- 2013/2014 Session) In Public Senior Secondary Schools

S/N	Year	Male Students	Female Students	Total Students	Gender Parity Index
1	2010/2011	126,469	127,255	253,724	1.01
2	2011/2012	129,749	132,799	262,548	1.02
3	2012/2013	129,680	133,983	263,663	1.03
4	2013/2014	120,842	126,926	247,769	1.05

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:35

Figure 4. 9: Trend Analysis of Pupils' Enrolment (2010/2011- 2013/2014 Session) In Public Senior Secondary Schools



Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:35

The trend analysis of enrolment of students across all the levels of schools as presented in the above tables showed that the female population was consistently higher across the board. The gender parity indices across each level are shown to be above 1.0, an indication that Lagos State was able to reach the gender parity goal with regards to enrolment in education. The decrease in the enrolment rate between 2011/2012 and 2013/2014 at the junior secondary schools could be accounted for with the new policy on promotion criteria and the introduction of placement tests.

Apart from equality in terms of access to education, the participants also indicated that there is no gender bias with regards to the textbooks and curriculum used in the schools. According to a participant, “It is when you have biasness that you think to remove it. As far as Lagos State is concerned there is no bias in the education” (PR5: 31st July, 2017). Another principal said:

I think the whole curriculum in Nigeria, not only in Lagos State is not specific about gender, they treat the male and female child equally all of them are placed on the same strata to compete within themselves. There is no specific subject that is tailored towards gender because if you go to the Home Economics, Home Management we have boys competing favourably with the girls. At least in the last school certificate examinations that they wrote, I think I have about out of about 32 students about 7 of them were boys. So there is no discrimination in subject line between male and female. Even in Fishery, we introduced Fishery this year more girls were involved than boys. So the policy does not discriminate along gender line (PR6: 20th July, 2017).

Supporting this, a participant from one of the offices submitted that:

I have not really heard a situation where there is bias in distribution of instructional materials. For instance in Lagos State there are free textbooks in the schools, so there is no particular criteria for distributing these materials. Either textbooks, school uniforms, shoes, bags there is no criteria that discriminates at the level of sharing them. Everything is distributed across board regardless of your status. There is no discrimination as far as educational facilities are concerned in Lagos State, everyone has a right to the facilities (MOE2: 18th July, 2017).

Yet another participant insisted “The type of curriculum we operate in the State is an inclusive one. This means that irrespective of your gender or your status you have equal right to education in the State, and even in Nigeria as a whole. It is an inclusive system of education. The way the curriculum is designed, all the children are exposed to the same curriculum” (MOE3: 24th July, 2017). In the words of a participant from ED1 Headquarters:

Hmm, there is no gender biasness in the curriculum generally in Nigeria. Every child has equal right to anything you want to do. As long as you’re in school, everyone is equal. Just like we have in Nigeria that there is nobody that is above the law everybody is equal. All the children are treated equally whether you’re a boy or you’re a girl, you have equal right to education in Lagos State. Even when it is beyond secondary schools, when we’re looking at the tertiary institutions. Well, you may say that some courses have fewer females registering for those courses because they feel it is masculine but then there is no restriction for anybody to register for any course as per gender or to be admitted in public secondary school (ED3: 13th July, 2017).

The overall submission therefore is that there is no gender bias in the textbooks or curriculum operated in the schools, and that the curriculum is clear and does not lay emphasis on gender and discriminations. Thus EFA is seen as a kind of umbrella

provision that is taking care of the educational needs of everybody, either male, female, young or adult.

4.4.3 Educational opportunities created to enhance participation in education especially for girls and women

The various provisions put in place by the government have generally been on an equal basis for all the students without discrimination or preference to a particular group, gender or tribe. There has been a lot of strategies and provisions put in place by the government to encourage positive attitudes, and improve the educational and social framework to cope with the demands for education. A participant said that “since Nigeria is one of the countries that keyed in into the EFA goals, the government is doing everything to ensure that all Nigerian children whether male or female are in schools at the right time. There are mobilization, sensitization programmes for parents as well to bring their children to school” (MOE1: 14th July, 2017).

Being specific with Lagos State, a participant listed some of the measures put in place by the government to include: (a) Improving inputs, processes and environments that foster learning; (b) Recruiting more personnel to meet the population of the pupils; (c) Enlightenment programmes through meetings with stakeholders, media means, e.g. newspapers, TV, etc. (ED1: 11th July, 2017). In a similar vein, a principal responded that:

There has been a lot of provisions that Lagos State government in the last ten years has put in place to encourage learning. Most of our schools have been renovated, a lot of new building have been constructed with laboratory equipped, teachers are being trained periodically and provision of everything that will make learning interesting and easy for both male and female (PR2: 14th July, 2017).

She went further:

There was an intervention programme (the EKO Project) that just ended last year where the Lagos State government in collaboration with World Bank put up a fund. This fund is what is being used to do all these necessary things in the schools- the renovation and whatever. And not only that, the teachers that are even teaching the students were made to attend a lot of trainings in order for them to have modern ways of teaching the learners (PR2: 14th July, 2017)

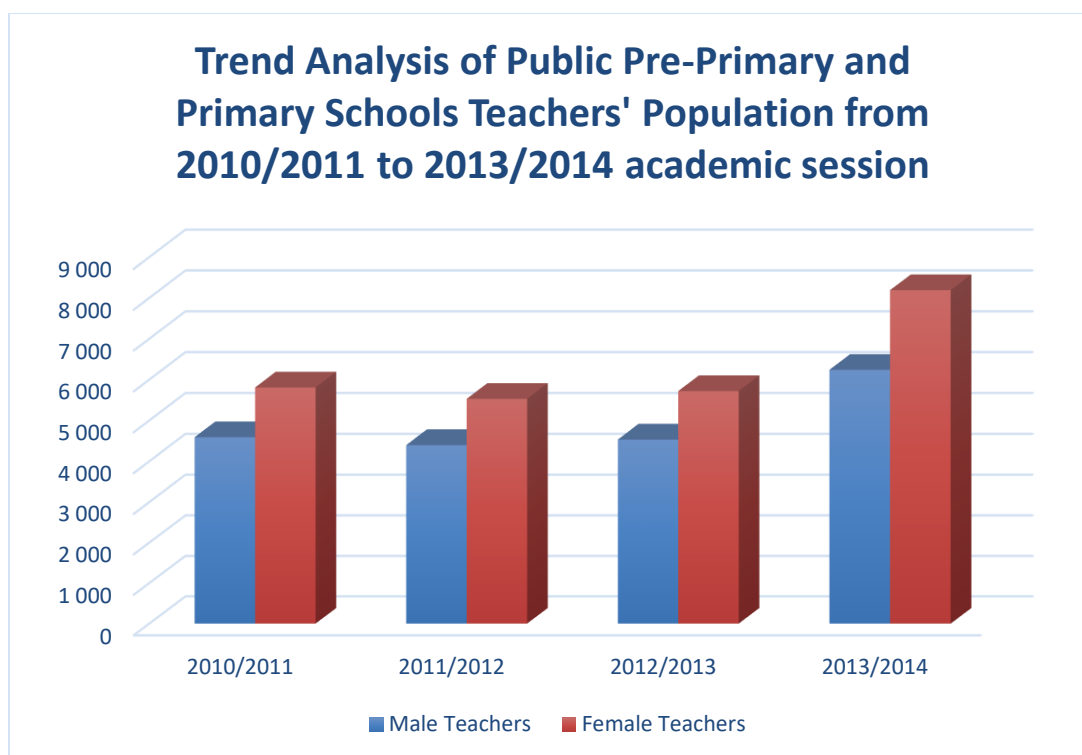
The manpower (teaching staff) provision of the government to facilitate the teaching and learning processes in the public schools as evidenced in the available documents are reflected in the following tables and figures. Some of the tables indicated the teacher's gender to show the gender parity index (Tables 4.12 to 4.14), and their qualifications and highest qualifications to reflect the percentage qualified (Tables 4.15 to 4.18). However, all teachers referred to in the tables indicated both teaching staff on government payroll (pre-primary, primary and vocational) and teachers who are not on government payroll.

Table 4. 12: Number of Pre-Primary and Primary School Teachers from Year 2010/2011-2013/2014 Session

S/N	Year	Male Teachers	Female Teachers	Total Teachers	Gender Parity Index
1	2010/2011	2,247	11,071	13,318	4.94
2	2011/2012	2,106	10,561	12,667	5.01
3	2012/2013	2,054	9,699	11,750	4.72
4	2013/2014	2,005	10,146	12,151	5.06

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:32

Figure 4. 10: Number of Pre-Primary and Primary School Teachers from Year 2010/2011-2013/2014 Session



Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:32

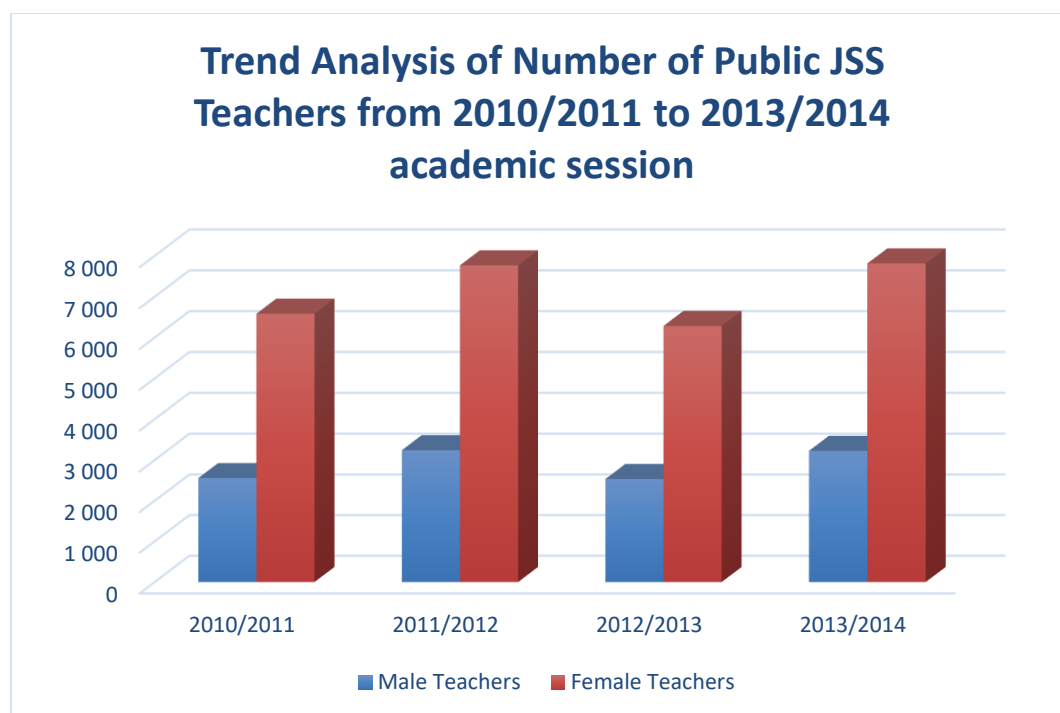
Table 4.12 and Figure 4.10 above showed that there are more female teachers than males in the public pre-primary and primary schools in Lagos State. This is an indication that there are female teachers to help in nurturing the young children at school.

Table 4. 13: Number of Junior Secondary School Teachers from Year 2010/2011-2013/2014 Academic Session

S/N	Year	Male Teachers	Female Teachers	Total Teachers	Gender Parity Index
1	2010/2011	2,557	6,584	9,141	2.57
2	2011/2012	3,240	7,768	11,008	2.40
3	2012/2013	2,536	6,284	8,820	2.48
4	2013/2014	3,224	7,814	11,038	2.42

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:34

Figure 4. 11: Number of Junior Secondary School Teachers from Year 2010/2011-2013/2014 Academic Session



Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:34

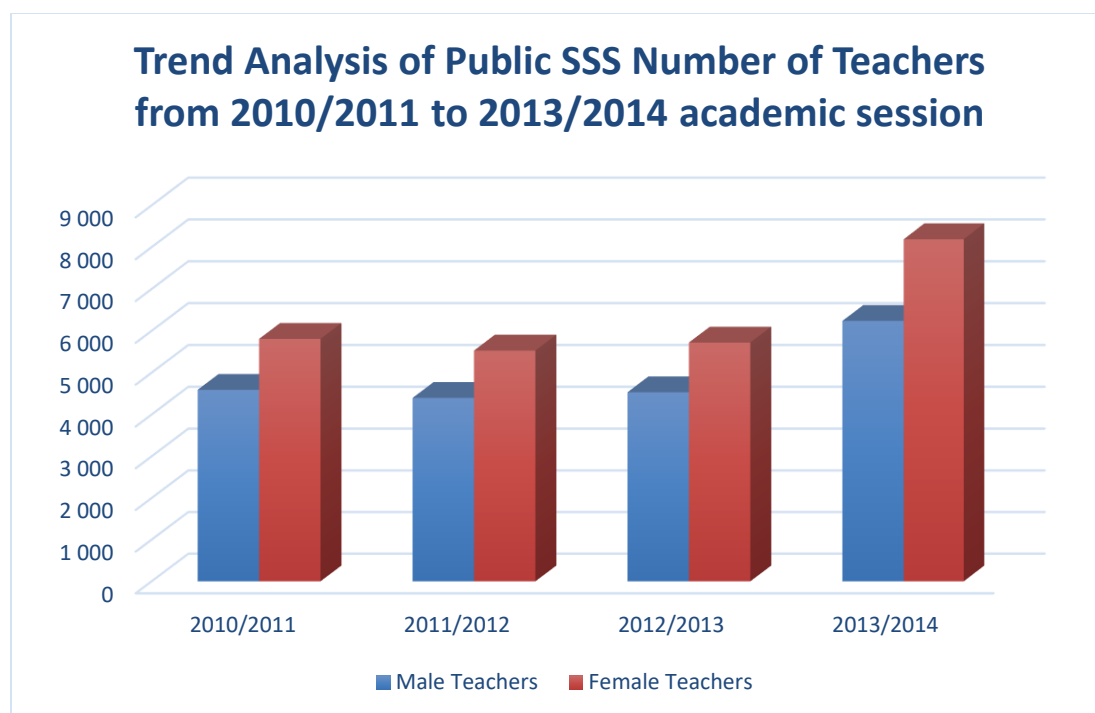
Table 4.13 and the trend analysis of public junior secondary school teachers showed a steady increase in the population of female teachers when compared with their male counterparts in the last 5 years. This is evident in the gender parity indices over the same period.

Table 4. 14: Number of Senior Secondary School Teachers from Year 2010/2011-2013/2014 Academic Session

S/N	Year	Male Teachers	Female Teachers	Total Teachers	Gender Parity Index
1	2010/2011	4,590	5,808	10,398	1.27
2	2011/2012	4,397	5,529	9,926	1.26
3	2012/2013	4,532	5,720	10,252	1.26
4	2013/2014	6,239	8,189	14,428	1.31

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:36

Figure 4. 12: Number of Senior Secondary School Teachers from Year 2010/2011-2013/2014 Academic Session



Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:36

Table 4.14 and Figure 4.12 equally reveal a higher number of female teachers than males in public senior secondary schools in Lagos State just as occurred at the other levels of education in the State. This is further reflected in the gender parity indices across the board. The implication of this is that the female teachers would serve as role models for the female students which could influence their interest in school and getting educated.

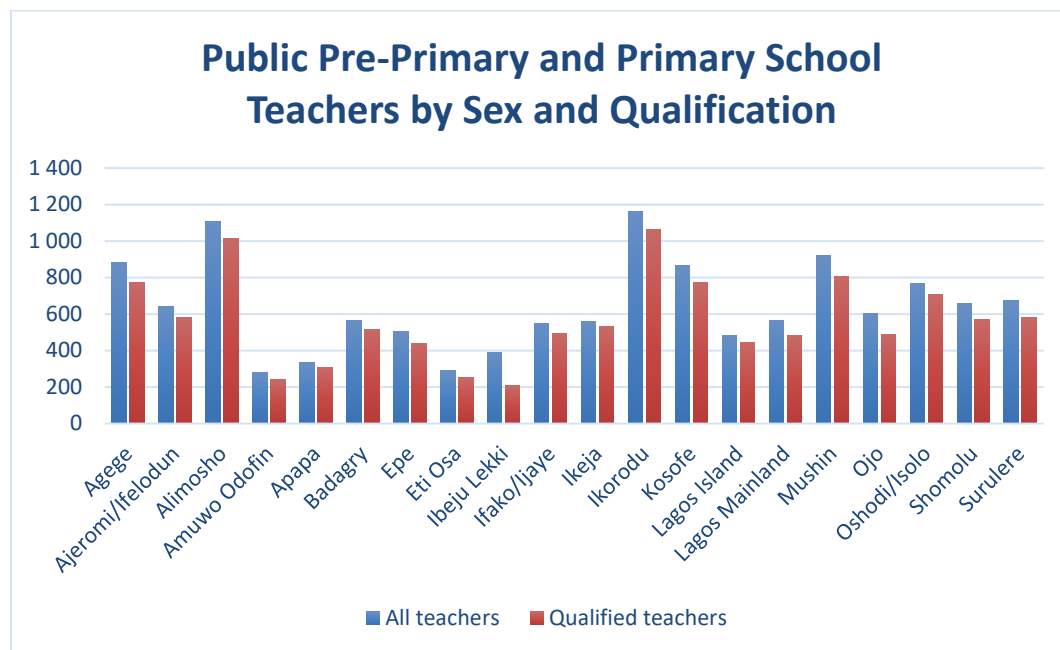
Table 4. 15: Number of Public Pre-Primary and Primary School Teachers by Sex and Qualification

LGA	All Teachers				Public Qualified teachers		
	Male	Female	Total	% Female	Total	% Qualified	% Female
Agege	108	775	883	88	773	88	89
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	90	550	640	86	584	91	88
Alimosho	75	1,032	1,107	93	1,013	92	94
Amuwo Odofin	45	236	281	84	244	87	87
Apapa	55	280	335	84	305	91	83
Badagry	194	372	566	66	516	91	66
Epe	181	324	505	64	440	87	63
Eti Osa	87	204	291	70	251	86	71
Ibeju Lekki	152	238	390	61	207	53	50
Ifako/Ijaye	50	499	549	91	493	90	91
Ikeja	55	502	557	90	532	96	90
Ikorodu	223	941	1,164	81	1,063	91	83
Kosofe	80	784	864	91	771	89	91
Lagos Island	106	375	481	78	443	92	79
Lagos Mainland	104	463	567	82	482	85	85
Mushin	130	791	921	86	808	88	86
Ojo	75	530	605	88	489	81	87
Oshodi/Isolo	90	675	765	88	705	92	89
Shomolu	116	540	656	82	568	87	85
Surulere	108	567	675	84	584	87	85
TOTAL	2,124	10,678	12,802	83	11,271	88	84

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:16

Table 4.15 indicated that 88% of the total number of teachers in the public primary schools in Lagos State are qualified, 84% of whom are females. This is graphically shown in Figure 4.13.

Figure 4. 13: Number of Public Pre-Primary and Primary School Teachers by Sex and Qualification



Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:16

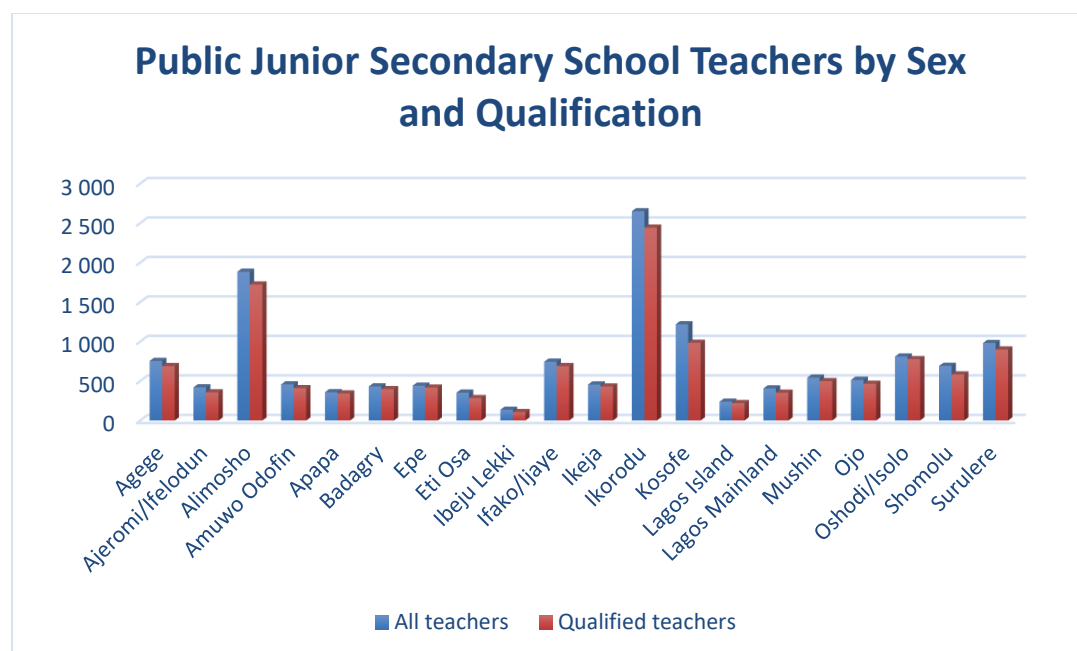
Table 4. 16: Number of Public Junior Secondary School Teachers by Sex and Qualification

LGA	All teachers				Public Qualified teachers		
	Male	Female	Total	% Female	Total	% Qualified	% Female
Agege	140	384	524	73	484	92	79
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	133	171	304	56	304	100	56
Alimosho	476	1,830	2,306	79	1,940	84	94
Amuwo Odofin	119	284	403	70	403	100	70
Apapa	63	119	182	65	172	95	69
Badagry	131	241	372	65	372	100	65
Epe	168	230	398	58	398	100	58
Eti Osa	116	174	290	60	290	100	60
Ibeju Lekki	64	74	138	54	138	100	54
Ifako/Ijaye	119	491	610	80	609	100	81
Ikeja	144	448	592	76	591	100	76
Ikorodu	264	621	885	70	885	100	70
Kosofe	123	383	506	76	506	100	76
Lagos Island	171	182	353	52	171	48	106
Lagos Mainland	148	223	371	60	371	100	60
Mushin	174	374	547	68	547	100	68
Ojo	122	367	489	75	489	100	75
Oshodi/Isolo	211	567	778	73	777	100	73
Shomolu	123	226	349	65	343	98	66
Surulere	216	425	641	66	638	100	67
TOTAL	3,224	7,814	11,038	71	10,429	94	75

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:17

From the table, 94% of the total number of teachers in the public junior schools in Lagos State are qualified out of which 75% are females. The graphical representation is shown in Figure 4.14:

Figure 4. 14: Number of Public Junior Secondary School Teachers by Sex and Qualification



Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:17

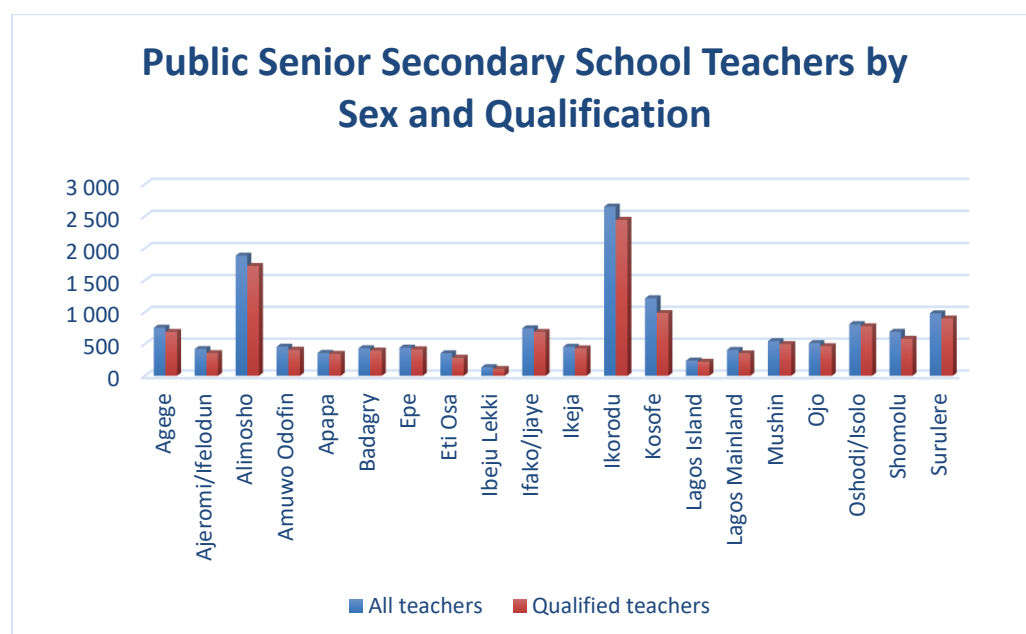
Table 4. 17: Number of Public Senior Secondary School Teachers by Sex and Qualification

LGA	All teachers				Public Qualified teachers		
	Male	Female	Total	% Female	Total	% Qualified	% Female
Agege	336	418	754	55	688	91	51
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	256	164	420	39	356	85	34
Alimosho	646	1,238	1,884	66	1,722	91	60
Amuwo Odofin	205	252	457	55	409	89	51
Apapa	197	161	358	45	343	96	43
Badagry	235	197	432	46	397	92	44
Epe	276	165	441	37	416	94	35
Eti Osa	189	164	353	46	283	80	37
Ibeju Lekki	74	61	135	45	107	79	37
Ifako/Ijaye	236	508	744	68	688	92	63
Ikeja	155	300	455	66	430	95	62
Ikorodu	1,212	1,437	2,649	54	2,442	92	51
Kosofe	428	790	1,218	65	984	81	54
Lagos Island	145	93	238	29	220	92	36
Lagos Mainland	190	216	406	53	352	87	49
Mushin	249	294	543	54	498	92	51
Ojo	215	299	514	58	465	90	54
Oshodi/Isolo	308	502	810	62	777	96	60
Shomolu	316	375	691	54	582	84	49
Surulere	430	551	981	56	899	92	53
TOTAL	6,298	8,185	14,483	57	13,058	90	52

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:18

Table 4.17 showed that 90% of the total number of teachers in the public senior schools in Lagos State are qualified out of which 52% are females. This is graphically represented in Figure 4.15:

Figure 4. 15: Number of public senior secondary school teachers by sex and qualification



Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:18

Table 4. 18: Percentage of Staff by Highest Level of Education Attained

Level of Education	Primary		Junior Secondary		Senior Secondary	
	%Urban	%Rural	%Urban	%Rural	%Urban	%Rural
Below SSCE	3.4	1.9	0.7	1.7	0.2	0.9
SSCE/WASC	2.0	6.6	1.3	3.4	0.7	1.1
OND/Diploma	4.5	7.1	1.2	3.0	10.8	14.6
Degree/HND Graduate	87.6	83.6	88.1	81.4	81.9	78.8
PhD/Master's Degree	2.4	0.8	8.7	10.5	10.5	4.6
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:20

Table 4.18 indicated that the majority of the teachers in the teaching force in Lagos State have a Bachelors' Degree or a Higher National Diploma (HND). This will help in enhancing the quality of education that is being provided to the students.

Section 3.2.13 of the Lagos State policy put the ideal teacher-pupil ratio in primary school at 1:40 (Lagos State Policy on Education, 1988). The following tables and figures show the trend analysis of students' enrolment and teachers' population, a reflection of the

teacher-pupil ratio in the State public schools; though, teachers that are not on government payroll were not included.

Table 4. 19: Trend Analysis of Schools' Enrolment and Teachers' Population in Lagos State Public Primary Schools

S/N	School Academic Year	Total Number of Schools	Total Enrolment			Number of Teachers			Teachers /Pupil Ratio
			Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
1	2003-2004	922	211,835	226,738	438,573	3,036	13,839	16,875	1:26
2	2004-2005	922	206,416	217,450	423,866	3,088	13,837	16,925	1:25
3	2005-2006	937	215,054	232,026	447,080	2,854	12,942	15,796	1:28
4	2006-2007	949	222,472	232,336	454,808	2,841	13,389	16,230	1:28
5	2007-2008	952	228,126	238,075	466,201	2,808	13,543	16,351	1:29
6	2008-2009	961	230,442	239,191	469,633	2,453	12,175	14,628	1:32
7	2009-2010	986	219,988	227,056	447,044	2,384	11,821	14,205	1:31
8	2010-2011	1,001	228,016	234,268	462,284	2,328	11,530	13,858	1:33
9	2011-2012	1,001	261,542	262,818	524,360	2,213	11,025	13,238	1:40
10	2012-2013	1,004	284,533	293,971	578,504	2,134	10,047	12,181	1:47
11	2013-2014	1,007	230,165	237,401	467,566	2,005	10,146	12,151	1:39

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:30

Table 4.19 reflects a slight increase in the teacher-pupil ratio in the last three academic sessions.

Table 4. 20: Trend Analysis of Schools Enrolment and Teachers Population in Lagos State Public Junior Secondary Schools

S/N	School Academic Year	Total Number of Schools	Total Enrolment			Number of Teachers			Teachers /Pupil Ratio
			Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
1	2005-2006	305	154,281	160,682	314,963	2,481	5,644	8,125	1:39
2	2006-2007	307	159,262	165,181	324,444	2,447	5,721	8,168	1:40
3	2007-2008	314	156,874	164,951	321,825	2,621	6,281	8,902	1:36
4	2008-2009	323	166,515	172,762	339,277	2,609	6,302	8,911	1:38
5	2009-2010	312	156,187	163,996	320,183	2,680	6,801	9,481	1:34
6	2010-2011	321	154,883	163,181	318,064	2,557	6,584	9,141	1:35
7	2011-2012	326	170,398	177,131	347,529	3,246	7,762	11,008	1:32
8	2012-2013	328	159,822	169,573	329,395	2,536	6,284	8,820	1:37
9	2013-2014	348	156,237	161,375	317,612	3,224	7,814	11,038	1:29

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:30

The above table revealed a considerable improvement in the teacher-student ratio at the public junior secondary level compared with what operates at the primary school level. However, there is still the need to address the challenge of equitable distribution of teachers in the sector.

Table 4. 21: Trend Analysis of Schools' Enrolment and Teachers' Population in Lagos State Public Senior Secondary Schools

S/N	School Academic Year	Total Number of Schools	Total Enrolment			Number of Teachers			Teachers /Pupil Ratio
			Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
1	2002-2003	293	145,521	145,266	290,787	4,178	4,674	8,852	1:33
2	2003-2004	293	137,901	137,189	275,090	4,033	4,548	8,581	1:32
3	2004-2005	293	136,122	137,997	274,119	3,957	4,442	8,399	1:33
4	2005-2006	298	134,537	134,312	268,849	3,811	4,954	8,765	1:31
5	2006-2007	298	124,092	127,491	251,583	4,027	4,302	8,329	1:30
6	2007-2008	310	131,607	130,386	261,993	4,315	5,060	9,375	1:28
7	2008-2009	310	131,519	130,023	261,543	4,305	5,252	9,557	1:27

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:31

Table 4.21 equally showed a considerable improvement in the teacher-student ratio at the public senior secondary level just like that of the junior schools. However, there is the need to address the challenge of equitable distribution of teachers in this sector too.

The following tables show the rate at which the teachers were being trained and their level of commitment to duty.

Table 4. 22: Proportion of Teachers Who Attended Training Seminars/Workshops

Proportion of teachers who attended training workshops/seminars in last 12 months	Primary		Junior secondary		Senior secondary	
	%Urban	%Rural	%Urban	%Rural	%Urban	%Rural
Total	56.8	46.3	52.3	45.1	41.7	40.5

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:20

Table 4.22 revealed that the teachers are not regularly sent for training, a signal that may be detrimental to the quality of education given to the students. The trend in the table also shows that teachers in the urban area enjoy training more than their counterparts in the rural areas.

Table 4. 23: Percentage of Long-Term Absent Teachers in Public Schools

Reason	Primary		Junior secondary		Senior secondary	
	%Urban	%Rural	%Urban	%Rural	%Urban	%Rural
Present	98.9	98.3	98.4	96.6	98.9	99.2
Maternity Leave	0.5	1.2	0.5	1.2	0.1	0.6
Sick Leave	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.7	0.8	0.0
Training	0.3	0.3	0.9	1.3	0.0	0.1
Unauthorised	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:19

Table 4.23 reveals that most of the teachers attend regularly at school and this is an indication of their commitment to work.

Section 5.0.4 of the State policy on education stated that the State and local governments will jointly bear the responsibility for the provision and maintenance of school buildings, furniture and equipment at the primary school level. Section 5.0.12 states that government will continue to ensure good quality and safe structures in schools. The programme to systematically phase out the open-hall design type of classrooms will continue to be vigorously pursued as it is the wish of government to have permanent structures that can provide many generations of students with a congenial physical environment for learning. Government's educational provisions in terms of establishment of schools and provision of facilities, their adequacy and state of use, i.e., usable or unusable as evidenced in the available documents are, however, shown in the following tables:

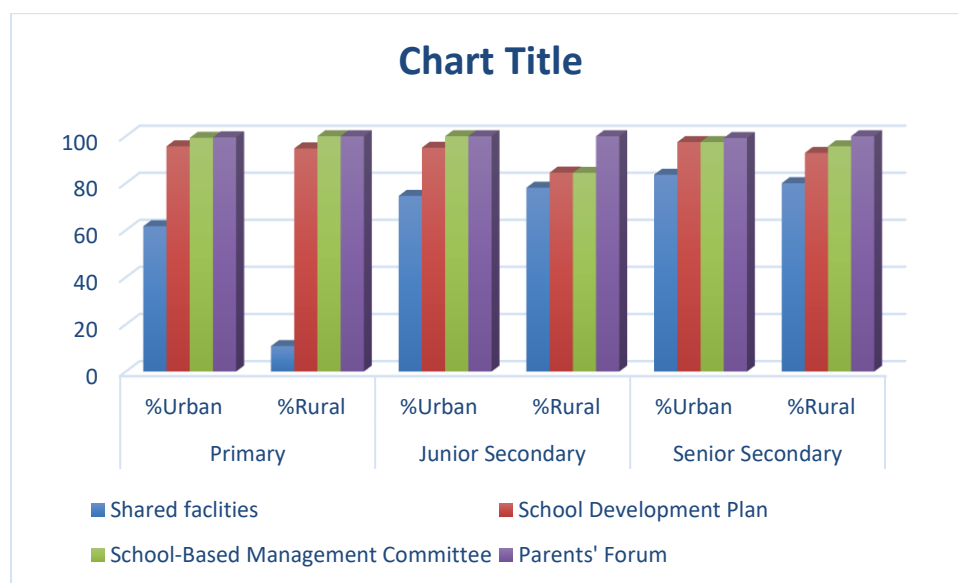
Table 4. 24: Selected characteristics of Public Schools

Proportion of schools with:	Primary		Junior secondary		Senior secondary	
	%Urban	%Rural	%Urban	%Rural	%Urban	%Rural
Double shifts	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Shared facilities	61.7	10.8	74.6	78.1	83.6	80.0
School Development Plan	95.7	94.8	95.1	84.5	97.5	92.9
School-Based Management Committee	99.3	100.0	100.0	84.4	97.5	95.7
Parents' Forum	99.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.2	100.0
Multi-grade teaching	Not Applicable					

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:3

Table 4.24 indicates that most schools share facilities. With higher percentage noticed in the urban areas, indicating inadequacy of facilities. This is further illustrated in the figure 4.16 below:

Figure 4. 16: Selective Characteristics of Public Schools by Level



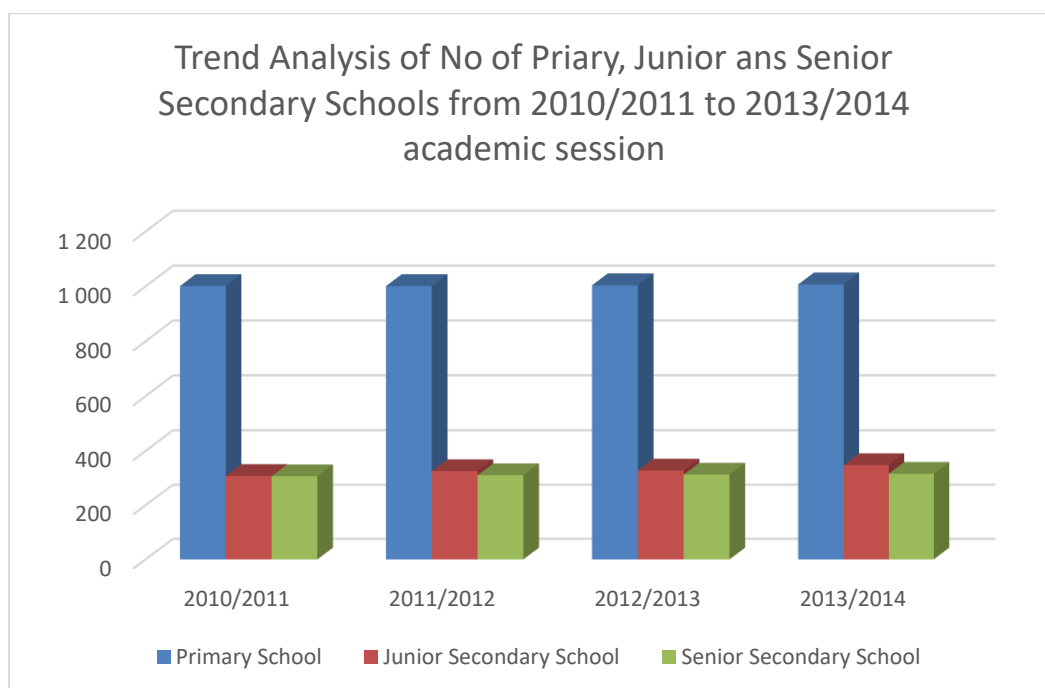
Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:4

Table 4. 25: Trend Analysis of Primary, Junior Secondary and Senior Secondary Schools Y2010/2011 to 2013/2014 Academic Session

S/N	Year	Primary School	Junior Secondary School	Senior Secondary School
1	2010/2011	1001	308	307
2	2011/2012	1001	326	311
3	2012/2013	1004	328	313
4	2013/2014	1007	348	316

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:37

Figure 4. 17: Trend Analysis of Primary, Junior Secondary and Senior Secondary Schools Y2010/2011 to 2013/2014 Academic Session



Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:37

Table 4. 25 reveals a record of marginal increase in the number of primary and senior secondary schools in the past five years, and a steady increase in the number of junior secondary schools over the same period.

Table 4. 26 Number and Condition of Classrooms by LGA

LGA	Primary	Primary % usable	Junior Secondary	Junior % usable	Senior Secondary	Senior % usable
Agege	680	66	170	92	230	100
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	606	65	211	95	201	99
Alimosho	805	67	262	90	510	99
Amuwo Odofin	463	78	207	70	179	99
Apapa	352	67	103	73	98	100
Badagry	736	54	224	90	159	100
Epe	814	41	236	84	168	98
Eti Osa	423	85	170	88	196	100
Ibeju Lekki	339	66	67	88	91	100
Ifako/Ijaye	348	75	139	100	213	99
Ikeja	543	85	223	83	336	99
Ikorodu	887	76	366	80	948	95
Kosofe	606	71	199	94	426	97
Lagos Island	485	81	118	86	129	92
Lagos Mainland	653	70	169	82	159	96
Mushin	1,082	67	100	57	419	97
Ojo	589	59	195	86	158	100
Oshodi/Isolo	786	63	336	76	511	91
Shomolu	570	69	179	64	340	98
Surulere	682	69	336	76	461	99
TOTAL	12,449	81	4,010	83	5,932	97

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:21

It can be deduced from the above table that 19% and 17% of the primary and junior secondary school classrooms respectively are not usable, while only 3% are not useable at the senior secondary level.

Table 4. 27: Pupil/Student – Classroom Ratio in Public Schools by LGA

LGA	Pre-Primary & Primary	Junior Secondary	Senior Secondary
Agege	49	86	23
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	67	87	41
Alimosho	90	170	29
Amuwo Odofin	40	75	30
Apapa	53	94	27
Badagry	77	86	39
Epe	73	55	36
Eti Osa	43	81	28
Ibeju Lekki	87	90	16
Ifako/Ijaye	59	80	18
Ikeja	30	64	16
Ikorodu	75	115	16
Kosofe	63	87	17
Lagos Island	32	60	23
Lagos Mainland	44	80	24
Mushin	31	237	13
Ojo	81	125	57
Oshodi/Isolo	51	76	19
Shomolu	40	141	16
Surulere	45	90	25
TOTAL	47	96	42

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:22

Table 4.27 revealed a fair pupil/student – classroom ratio in LGAs with a ratio that is equal to or less than 49 pupils per class at the primary school level. The situation is also similar at the senior secondary level where the ratio is 41 students per class. However, the scenario is different at the junior secondary level with an average of 86 students per class.

Section 3.2.19 of the State policy on education states that government will ensure that every school maintains at least a well-equipped First Aid Kit and Section 3.2.20 states that a high degree of sanitation will be maintained in the school environment as a means of making Health Education meaningful in primary schools (Lagos State Policy on Education, 1988). The governments' provisions towards these facilities as evidenced in the available documents are therefore highlighted as follows:

Table 4. 28: Selective Characteristics of Public Primary School Facilities by LGA

LGA	% of Classrooms			% of Schools	
	In need of major repairs	With insufficient seating	Without a good blackboard	Where some classes are held outside	Without health facility or first aid kit
Agege	31.9	25.3	24.6	0.0	0.0
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	29.2	22.8	22.8	0.0	8.5
Alimosho	30.2	31.9	31.9	0.0	1.3
Amuwo Odofin	18.1	22.0	22.0	0.0	11.6
Apapa	23.0	26.4	26.4	0.0	0.0
Badagry	26.0	50.0	50.0	0.0	5.7
Epe	44.1	65.2	65.2	0.0	6.4
Eti Osa	13.7	28.8	28.8	0.0	0.0
Ibeju Lekki	26.3	25.1	25.1	0.0	10.5
Ifako/Ijaye	19.8	26.4	26.1	0.0	4.0
Ikeja	33.7	16.6	16.4	0.0	0.0
Ikorodu	15.4	30.7	30.6	0.0	5.1
Kosofe	15.0	19.8	19.8	0.0	0.0
Lagos Island	40.0	23.3	23.3	0.0	12.5
Lagos Mainland	50.2	46.6	46.6	0.0	0.0
Mushin	18.8	31.1	31.1	0.0	0.0
Ojo	39.9	43.8	43.8	0.0	11.1
Oshodi/Isolo	18.4	45.9	45.8	0.0	1.8
Shomolu	36.7	37.9	37.9	0.0	10.4
Surulere	49.3	30.2	30.2	0.0	0.0
TOTAL	29.0	32.5	32.4	0.0	4.4

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:23

Table 4.28 above revealed that there are still some LGAs with classrooms without sufficient seating and a good blackboard. The percentage of schools that require major repair is highest in Lagos Mainland LGA

Table 4. 29: Selective Characteristics of Public Junior Secondary School Facilities by LGA

LGA	% of Classroom			% of Schools	
	In need of major repairs	With insufficient seating	Without a good blackboard	Where some classes are held outside	Without health facility or first aid kit
Agege	8.2	50.7	8.2	0.0	0.0
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	4.7	53.0	16.1	5.3	0.0
Alimosho	9.5	53.3	7.6	9.1	0.0
Amuwo Odofin	30.4	53.7	11.6	10.0	20.0
Apapa	27.2	53.5	22.3	0.0	0.0
Badagry	10.3	54.1	18.8	21.4	7.1
Epe	14.0	51.9	21.1	7.7	11.5
Eti Osa	12.4	51.4	3.5	0.0	15.0
Ibeju Lekki	7.5	55.2	7.5	10.0	20.0
Ifako/Ijaye	7.2	52.2	20.7	0.0	0.0
Ikeja	16.6	52.0	15.6	0.0	0.0
Ikorodu	20.2	52.6	12.9	3.6	3.6
Kosofe	6.0	53.3	5.5	0.0	7.1
Lagos Island	14.4	52.7	11.9	0.0	0.0
Lagos Mainland	12.4	50.8	22.5	0.0	0.0
Mushin	43.0	56.6	24.8	12.5	6.3
Ojo	14.4	35.6	4.6	81.3	0.0
Oshodi/Isolo	18.5	51.1	15.7	0.0	0.0
Shomolu	35.8	51.0	31.7	0.0	0.0
Surulere	20.8	51.1	21.9	10.7	0.0
TOTAL	16.7	51.8	15.2	8.6	4.5

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:24

The table revealed that a higher percentage of LGAs have classroom with insufficient seating, and some schools still have classes outside, like in Ojo LGA where 81.3% of schools hold classes outside. Mushin LGA has the highest percentage of schools that require major repairs.

Table 4. 30: Selective Characteristics of Public Senior Secondary School Facilities by LGA

LGA	% of Classroom			% of Schools	
	In need of major repairs	With insufficient seating	Without a good blackboard	Where some classes are held outside	Without health facility or first aid kit
Agege	8.2	72.2	15.7	37.5	0.0
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	14.2	68.2	1.0	0.0	0.0
Alimosho	38.5	48.8	12.9	45.5	0.0
Amuwo Odofin	9.7	27.4	5.0	0.0	0.0
Apapa	5.8	69.4	2.0	33.3	0.0
Badagry	10.7	49.1	20.8	8.3	8.3
Epe	13.1	40.5	19.0	13.0	13.0
Eti Osa	2.4	53.1	10.2	15.8	15.0
Ibeju Lekki	61.2	42.9	15.4	25.0	0.0
Ifako/Ijaye	12.2	78.9	16.9	0.0	0.0
Ikeja	19.3	31.0	7.7	7.7	0.0
Ikorodu	24.0	40.5	9.4	25.9	3.7
Kosofe	11.1	77.0	0.5	23.1	0.0
Lagos Island	5.1	65.1	14.7	11.1	0.0
Lagos Mainland	1.2	63.5	23.9	12.5	0.0
Mushin	126.0	64.0	11.7	0.0	0.0
Ojo	17.9	8.2	1.9	64.3	0.0
Oshodi/Isolo	42.3	75.3	8.8	0.0	4.8
Shomolu	20.1	88.2	10.0	0.0	0.0
Surulere	36.6	24.7	5.2	13.0	0.0
TOTAL	24.0	54.4	10.6	16.8	2.2

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:25

Table 4.30 shows that the percentage of classrooms with insufficient seating is high in virtually all the LGAs except Ikeja, Amuwo Odofin and Surulere, and just like what obtained in the public junior schools, Ojo LGA still has a very high percentage of schools where some classes are held outside.

Table 4. 31: Main Source of Safe Water in Public Primary Schools by LGA

LGA	Percentage of Schools with:					Total
	Piped water	Borehole	Well	Other source	No source	
Agege	2.9	2.9	94.3	0.0	0.0	100
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	0.0	8.7	78.3	13.0	0.0	100
Alimosho	0.0	0.0	98.1	1.9	0.0	100
Amuwo Odofin	0.0	18.8	75.0	0.0	6.3	100
Apapa	7.1	14.3	57.1	21.4	0.0	100
Badagry	0.0	6.5	83.9	9.7	0.0	100
Epe	0.0	0.0	84.4	13.3	2.2	100
Eti Osa	0.0	9.1	90.9	0.0	0.0	100
Ibeju Lekki	0.0	0.0	88.9	7.4	3.7	100
Ifako/Ijaye	5.0	5.0	80.0	10.0	0.0	100
Ikeja	3.6	17.9	78.6	0.0	0.0	100
Ikorodu	0.0	8.1	78.4	13.5	0.0	100
Kosofe	0.0	41.9	54.8	3.2	0.0	100
Lagos Island	5.9	23.5	70.6	0.0	0.0	100
Lagos Mainland	0.0	15.4	82.7	1.9	0.0	100
Mushin	3.8	7.7	88.5	0.0	0.0	100
Ojo	0.0	10.5	63.2	26.3	0.0	100
Oshodi/Isolo	0.0	2.3	93.0	4.7	0.0	100
Shomolu	5.7	17.1	71.4	5.7	0.0	100
Surulere	0.0	42.2	46.7	11.1	0.0	100
TOTAL	1.7	12.6	77.9	7.2	0.6	100

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:26

The above table reveals a low percentage of availability of pipe-borne water supply in our primary schools which is the safest source of water. Efforts should be made to intensify the provision of pipe-borne water in the schools with special attention paid to Epe, Amuwo Odofin, and Ibeju Lekki LGAs where there are still schools without any source of water supply at present.

Table 4. 32: Main Source of Safe Water in Public Junior Secondary Schools by LGA

LGA	Percentage of schools with:					Total
	Piped water	Borehole	Well	Other source	No source	
Agege	18.2	72.7	0.1	0.0	0.0	100
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	5.3	10.5	0.0	0.0	84.2	100
Alimosho	18.2	77.3	4.5	0.0	0.0	100
Amuwo Odofin	0.0	35.0	5.0	0.0	60.0	100
Apapa	14.3	42.9	0.0	0.0	42.9	100
Badagry	0.0	71.4	0.0	0.0	28.6	100
Epe	0.0	92.3	0.0	0.0	7.7	100
Eti Osa	10.0	45.0	5.0	5.0	35.0	100
Ibeju Lekki	10.0	80.0	10.0	0.0	0.0	100
Ifako/Ijaye	18.2	81.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Ikeja	15.4	84.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Ikorodu	3.6	78.6	14.3	0.0	3.6	100
Kosofe	21.4	64.3	7.1	0.0	7.1	100
Lagos Island	15.4	30.8	0.0	15.4	38.5	100
Lagos Mainland	0.0	84.6	0.0	0.0	15.4	100
Mushin	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Ojo	18.8	50.0	6.3	0.0	25.0	100
Oshodi/Isolo	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Shomolu	10.0	80.0	10.0	0.0	0.0	100
Surulere	25.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	100
TOTAL	10.2	66.6	3.6	1.0	18.6	100

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:26

The above table reveals a low percentage of availability of pipe-borne water supply in our junior secondary schools which is the safest source of water. Efforts should be made to intensify provision of pipe-borne water in the schools with special attention paid to Epe, Amuwo Odofin and Ibeju Lekki LGAs where there are still schools without any source of water supply at present.

Table 4. 33: Main Source of Safe Water in Public Senior Secondary Schools by LGA

LGA	Percentage of schools with:					Total
	Piped water	Borehole	Well	Other source	No source	
Agege	12.5	87.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	5.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	94.7	100
Alimosho	4.3	87.0	0.0	0.0	8.7	100
Amuwo Odofin	0.0	5.3	0.0	0.0	94.7	100
Apapa	0.0	33.3	0.0	33.3	33.3	100
Badagry	0.0	66.7	16.7	0.0	16.7	100
Epe	0.0	96.0	0.0	0.0	4.0	100
Eti Osa	10.0	55.0	10.0	10.0	15.0	100
Ibeju Lekki	12.5	87.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Ifako/Ijaye	12.5	87.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Ikeja	7.7	92.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Ikorodu	0.0	96.3	0.0	0.0	3.7	100
Kosofe	53.8	46.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Lagos Island	11.1	22.2	0.0	0.0	66.7	100
Lagos Mainland	11.1	55.6	0.0	0.0	33.3	100
Mushin	13.3	73.3	6.7	0.0	6.7	100
Ojo	0.0	42.9	0.0	0.0	57.1	100
Oshodi/Isolo	0.0	8.2	0.0	0.0	0.4	100
Shomolu	0.0	2.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	100
Surulere	0.5	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	100
TOTAL	7.7	52.3	1.7	2.2	21.8	100

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:27

Table 4.33 show that most of the senior secondary schools have their water supply from either piped water or they have a borehole supply. However, some of the LGAs still have higher percentage of schools without any source of water supply. LGA like Ajeromi Ifelodun has 94.7% and Amuwo Odofin has 94.7%

Table 4. 34: Toilets for Pupils in Public Primary Schools

LGA	Percentage of schools with:					Total	Pupil per toilet
	No toilet	One toilet	Two toilets	Three toilets	Four or more toilets		
Agege	22.0	0.0	4.0	0.0	74.0	100	67
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	15.5	5.6	1.4	2.8	74.6	100	84
Alimosho	35.5	9.2	7.9	2.6	44.7	100	159
Amuwo Odofin	20.9	0.0	2.3	2.3	74.4	100	46
Apapa	12.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	87.5	100	110
Badagry	26.4	0.0	1.9	3.8	67.9	100	150
Epe	43.6	0.0	5.1	1.3	50.0	100	99
Eti Osa	0.0	0.0	2.9	0.0	97.1	100	39
Ibeju Lekki	18.4	0.0	2.6	2.6	76.3	100	114
Ifako/Ijaye	24.0	0.0	8.0	0.0	68.0	100	66
Ikeja	6.5	0.0	3.2	0.0	90.3	100	35
Ikorodu	33.9	1.7	1.7	0.0	62.7	100	157
Kosofe	5.0	0.0	2.5	2.5	90.0	100	77
Lagos Island	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.1	96.9	100	30
Lagos Mainland	13.8	1.7	3.4	3.4	77.6	100	41
Mushin	18.4	0.0	2.6	3.9	75.0	100	34
Ojo	31.5	1.9	3.7	7.4	55.6	100	117
Oshodi/Isolo	12.7	0.0	5.5	0.0	81.8	100	57
Shomolu	20.8	0.0	6.3	0.0	72.9	100	37
Surulere	7.9	1.6	3.2	1.6	85.7	100	49
TOTAL	18.5	1.1	3.4	1.9	75.2	100	78

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:28

The State standard of number of pupils to a toilet was put at 30. Table 4.34 above therefore shows that most of the public schools are still at a disadvantage as the average ratio was 1:78.4 except in the Lagos Island LGA that has an average ratio of 1:30.

Table 4. 35: Toilets for Students in Public Junior Secondary Schools by LGA

LGA	Percentage of schools with:					Total	Pupil per toilet
	No toilet	One toilet	Two toilets	Three toilets	Four or more toilets		
Agege	16.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	83.3	100	105
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	5.3	0.0	0.0	10.5	84.2	100	64
Alimosho	11.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	88.6	100	190
Amuwo Odofin	4.8	0.0	4.8	9.5	81.0	100	65
Apapa	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100	76
Badagry	7.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	92.9	100	73
Epe	11.5	3.8	3.8	3.8	76.9	100	44
Eti Osa	5.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	95.0	100	51
Ibeju Lekki	30.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	70.0	100	87
Ifako/Ijaye	9.1	9.1	0.0	0.0	81.8	100	62
Ikeja	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100	66
Ikorodu	17.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	82.1	100	112
Kosofe	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100	80
Lagos Island	9.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	90.9	100	39
Lagos Mainland	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.1	92.9	100	65
Mushin	18.8	0.0	6.3	0.0	75.0	100	46
Ojo	23.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	76.5	100	142
Oshodi/Isolo	4.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	95.7	100	57
Shomolu	10.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	90.0	100	81
Surulere	3.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	96.4	100	64
TOTAL	9.5	0.6	0.9	1.7	87.4	100	78

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:28

The above table equally revealed a high ratio of students per toilet in the junior secondary schools.

Table 4. 36: Toilets for Pupils in Public Senior Secondary Schools by LGA

LGA	Percentage of schools with:					Total	Pupil per toilet
	No toilet	One toilet	Two toilets	Three toilets	Four or more toilets		
Agege	12.5	12.5	0.0	0.0	75.0	100	41
Ajeromi/Ifelodun	10.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	90.0	100	52
Alimosho	4.3	4.3	0.0	4.3	87.0	100	92
Amuwo Odofin	21.1	0.0	5.0	0.0	73.7	100	47
Apapa	40.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	60.0	100	108
Badagry	15.4	0.0	7.7	0.0	76.9	100	59
Epe	16.0	8.0	0.0	8.0	68.0	100	47
Eti Osa	10.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	90.0	100	38
Ibeju Lekki	62.5	0.0	12.5	0.0	25.0	100	54
Ifako/Ijaye	12.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	87.5	100	45
Ikeja	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100	35
Ikorodu	3.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	96.4	100	73
Kosofe	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100	63
Lagos Island	10.0	0.0	0.0	10.0	80.0	100	44
Lagos Mainland	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	100	57
Mushin	12.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	87.5	100	45
Ojo	6.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	93.3	100	85
Oshodi/Isolo	9.1	4.5	0.0	0.0	86.4	100	42
Shomolu	20.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	80.0	100	60
Surulere	22.2	0.0	3.7	0.0	74.1	100	61
TOTAL	12.5	1.6	1.3	1.3	83.3	100	56

Source: Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:29

The same trend of high ratio of students per toilet is equally noticed across public senior secondary schools in Lagos State as shown in the above table.

The following table reflected a summary of selected indicators to inform relevant interventions at the primary, junior secondary and senior secondary levels respectively.

Table 4. 37: Trends of Selected Indicators

Indicators	Primary Schools			Junior Secondary Schools			Senior Secondary Schools		
	Y2011 /2012	Y2012 /2013	Y2013 /2014	Y2011 /2012	Y2012 /2013	Y2013 /2014	Y2011 /2012	Y2012 /2013	Y2013 /2014
Gross Enrolment Rate (%)	82	92	N/A	79	84	N/A	66	64	N/A
Net Enrolment Rate (%)	66	31	N/A	51	36	N/A	43	28	N/A
GPI on Pupil Enrolment	1.0	1.04	1.04	1.04	1.06	1.03	1.04	1.03	1.15
Percentage of Qualified Teachers	95	98	88	97	81	94	92	92	90
Pupil/Teacher Ratio	40	43	31	32	37	29	28	26	17
Pupil/Qualified Teacher Ratio	31	43	63	36	25	34	29	28	19
GPI on Teachers	4.98	4.71	5.06	2.4	2.5	2.4	1.3	1.3	1.3
Pupil/Total Classroom Ratio	42	46	47	78	86	96	63	63	41

Source: Lagos State School Census Report 2013-2014: ii

While admitting government's educational provisions in the State, the respondents however insisted that the provisions had been on a non-discriminatory basis. A principal said that "Everybody have access to public education institutions, there is no discrimination except for individuals that feel that certain courses are masculine (for the male) or feminine (for the female). This is however an individual choice but there is no discrimination" (PR3: 7th July, 2017). Another respondent said that:

In Lagos State, the government provides educational facilities for all students in the public schools. The provision of educational materials like the desks and benches, laboratories, perimeter fencing. The government has really make the school environment habitable and attractive for the students so as to attract more intake into the schools. In terms of right of access, there is no discrimination. Everyone has a right to educational facilities as far as Lagos State is concerned. And there is no discrimination either you're from this tribe or that tribe as long you're a resident in Lagos State, you've right and access to free education in State (MOE2: 18th July, 2017).

Apart from the recruitment of teachers and structural facilities provided by the government, the participants further submitted that the government has really done a lot in ensuring that the students are kept in school. According to a participant from the MOE: “The Lagos State government has done a lot in keeping our children in schools. They do this by first providing free textbooks on core subjects for the students in school, so that parents would not have to hold their children back at home because they could not afford to buy books for them. Or tell the girl child you wait at home and let the male child go because we cannot afford to buy the books needed” (MOE1: 14th July, 2017). Another participant said that the government introduced a meal per day at the primary school level at least to keep the children at school.

4.4.3 Provisions and strategies for target groups (vulnerable groups including working and street children, girls, and dropouts)

In as much as education is being provided in the State on a non-discriminatory basis and for everybody, there is still a need to look at the specific provisions for the vulnerable groups which include working and street children, girls, and dropouts for the policies to be an all-inclusive one. The participants indicated that the government is really ensuring that the children are kept in school rather than allowing them to drop out of school. Explaining this further, a participant said:

We try as much as possible to make the students continue their education. The policy is if a student fails twice, he or she leaves the school. But most of those things are relaxed especially when we see the enthusiasm in the child. However, the provision made is for the child to go to technical college as soon as he or she finishes the basic education and cannot continue into senior secondary school. They go for technical colleges where they learn more of skill, using their hands than using their brains (PR3: 7th July, 2017).

Supporting this, another principal said that:

The first one is banning of street hawking/trading and then any child found hawking or trading during the school period the parent will be arrested. The government even made us to know that it is part of child abuse for you not to allow your children to go to school and there are trainings and seminars with regards to that. There is also a policy that if you observe certain people that are harbouring children without allowing them to go to school, you have to call certain numbers so that government will go and investigate it. So there is partially no child-labour and other things like that in order to allow children to go to school (PR4: 10th July, 2017).

However, for the vulnerable groups including working and street children, girls, and dropouts the government equally has some strategies and provisions put in place for them. A participant said “There is still hope, so we have provision for them”. He explained that there is the introduction of the guidance and counselling units in the school for some of the vulnerable children. Some of them may have one or two reasons for absenting themselves from school so the counsellors take cognizance of these particular sets of children. The counsellors tend to probe into what exactly is keeping the children away from school with the view to ensuring that they stay in school and focus on their studies. He added that:

On the issue of dropouts, those dropouts fall under the same category of vulnerable children. One of the strategy is that the school is still open to them for six (6) weeks (without medical reports) to come back if they feel they want to come back or when they probably must have resolved the issue that is always keeping them away from school. Even after that, with genuine reasons and routing their complains through the appropriate channels, the school register is not completely closed to them. So there is still room for them to be reintegrated back either into the system. Then there is also the sensitization of parents. The government sensitize them on the need to reintegrate the vulnerable children back to the school system (MOE2: 18th July, 2017).

Another strategy of the government according to another participant is the use of law enforcement agents. In her words “One of the strategies put up in Lagos State is the use of this Kick against Indiscipline (KAI) and Neighbourhood Watch Securities. These vulnerable children are picked up by these agents when found roaming the streets, and when they are picked up they’re taken to homes provided for them. Lagos State has homes for the boys at Isheri, Berger and for the girls at Idi-Araba area of the State. They are trained and are exposed to good education at the homes. And eventually they fix them in schools after letting them know that they must be educated” (ED3: 13th July, 2017).

There are also special schools, skill acquisition centres and vocational schools for the vulnerable groups. A principal said that:

For those who are already on the streets, there is another arrangement for them whereby the government encourages them to attend special schools. They have special vocational schools for them. For those that still want to further their education, there are evening classes/schools where after work they can still go in the evening to learn and complete their primary and secondary education. The evening classes are also referred to as Continuous Education Centres (CEC) and

some of them are even located within the regular school premises and are manned by the same teachers teaching in the regular schools (PR2: 14th July, 2017).

Still on this, another participant said that:

The dropouts are not allowed to just go away in streets like that. They are put in the skill acquisition centres and they make their living from there. The skill acquisition is inclusive of both boys and girls. I have personally witnessed it, where they were made to showcase whatever they have done. And they even do graduation and wear academic gown just like the regular school children. They are made to develop themselves skill-wise, even though they appear to be vulnerable. So the government have schools for them (PR1: 6th July, 2017).

Similarly, a participant from the office noted that the skill acquisition centres accommodate part of the vulnerable children and drop-outs. He pointed out that:

The skill acquisition centres are vocational centres. The difference between the skill acquisition centres and the technical colleges is that the technical colleges are structured, they have a structured curriculum system that fits into the regular educational system of the 6-3-3-4 system of education. But the vocational centres are like trade centres where you learn a trade/vocation. With the vocational centre, you may be a school drop-out, you may have even finished your secondary education or may have even graduated and you just feel that you want to learn a trade. So regardless of your educational background once you have the basic skills to learn you can go there, because it's purely a trade centre where you can learn things like hairdressing, barbing, soap making, sewing etc. It is a form of informal education. But the technical colleges have structured curriculum and is a form of formal education in line with the 6-3-3-4 system of education run in the country. At the end of the Junior School (JSS) if a child can no longer continue with the regular Senior Secondary (SSS) system or the child is found to be technically inclined, then he or she can continue the education programme at the technical colleges. And we have 5 Technical Colleges in the State (MOE2: 18th July, 2017).

He mentioned further that there is also a special school for pregnant girls and drop-out girls - the Alternative High School for Girls, Amuwo Odofin. According to him "The school was specifically established to accommodate dropouts and students that got pregnant while in school. After delivery and they are still interested in continuing their education the school give them the opportunity of getting reintegrated back into the system. So it's another strategy put in place by the government to reintegrate the vulnerable children into the system" (MOE2: 18th July, 2017).

From the available document, the idea of the Alternative High School for Girls was conceived to provide formal education for girls who dropped out of school due to early

pregnancy, child trafficking, etc. but are still desirous of furthering their education. The school was officially commissioned on Monday, 12th March 2007 with a vision “To serve as a catalyst for the social reformation of the out-of-school girls through the instrumentation of formal education” (Lagos State Government, 2007:15) and the objectives “To reduce the population of unemployed female adults in the State by giving them another window of opportunities to acquire basic education, that will empower them to be useful to themselves and the society” (Lagos State Government, 2007:17).

The school is tailored along the 6-3-3-4 system of education and the acquisition of vocational training. It offers all subjects for junior secondary school (JSS1-3), senior secondary school (SSS1-3) and specific vocations to afford the students the opportunity of acquiring the necessary basic education. The school has a well-equipped library facility, a sick bay and a crèche that is properly staffed and fully equipped with instructional materials to accommodate and stimulate innate capabilities of the children of some of the students (mothers). So the students (mothers) are able to come to the school with their children for them to be at ease and concentrate more on their studies.

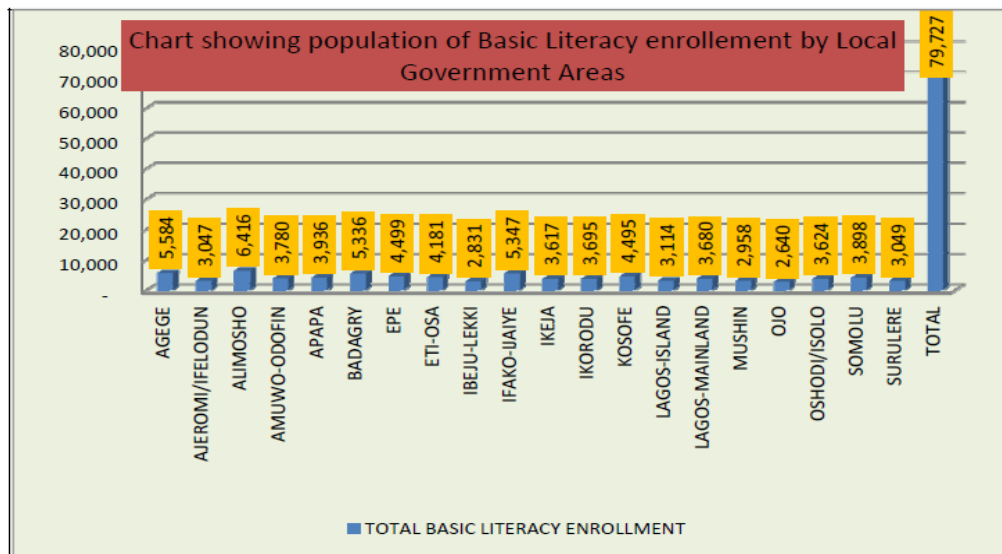
Other documentary evidence to show the number of basic literacy enrolment, programmes and centres to cater for these vulnerable groups and others are presented in the following tables and figures:

Table 4. 38: Number of Centres, Basic Literacy Enrolment and Staff Strength by Local Government Areas

S/N	Local Government Area (LGA)	No of Centres	Total Basic Literacy Enrolment	No of Staff
1	Agege	86	5,584	86
2	Ajeromi/Ifelodun	46	3,047	46
3	Alimosho	109	6,416	109
4	Amuwo Odofin	79	3,780	79
5	Apapa	50	3,936	50
6	Badagry	81	5,336	81
7	Epe	55	4,499	55
8	Eti Osa	42	4,181	42
9	Ibeju Lekki	30	2,831	30
10	Ifako/Ijaye	95	5,347	95
11	Ikeja	51	3,617	51
12	Ikorodu	66	3,695	66
13	Kosofe	48	4,495	48
14	Lagos Island	26	3,114	26
15	Lagos Mainland	51	3,680	51
16	Mushin	47	2,958	47
17	Ojo	34	2,640	34
18	Oshodi/Isolo	70	3,624	70
19	Shomolu	55	3,898	55
20	Surulere	46	3,049	46
TOTAL		1,167	79,727	1,167

Source: Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:87

Figure 4. 18: Basic Literacy Enrolment



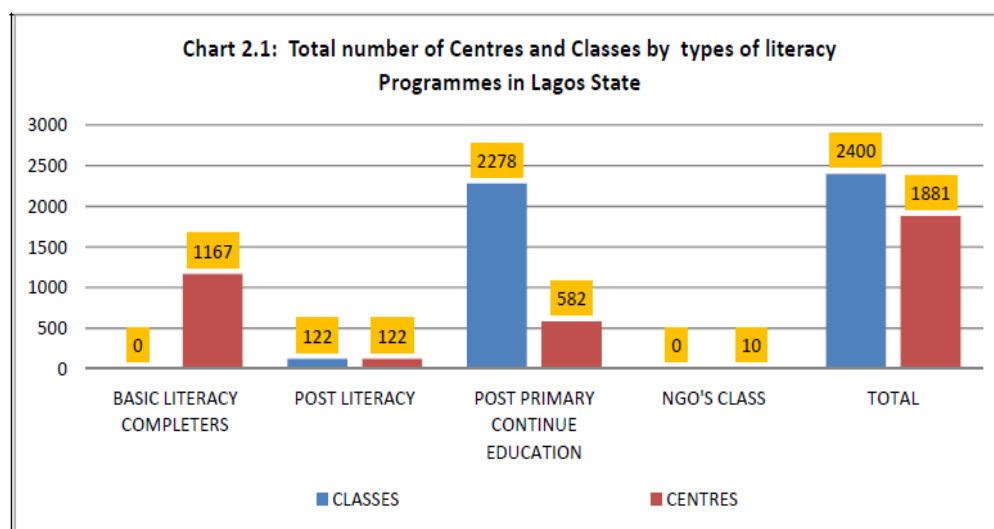
Source: Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:45

Table 4. 39: Summary of Literacy Programmes by Numbers of Pupils, Teachers, Classes and Centres

S/N	Literacy Programmes	Pupils	Teacher	Classes	Centres
1	Basic Literacy Completers	79,727	11167	0	1167
2	Post Literacy	8435	188	122	122
3	Post Primary Continue Education	95,740	592	2278	582
4	NGO'S Class	8187	10	0	10
TOTAL		192,089	1957	2400	1881

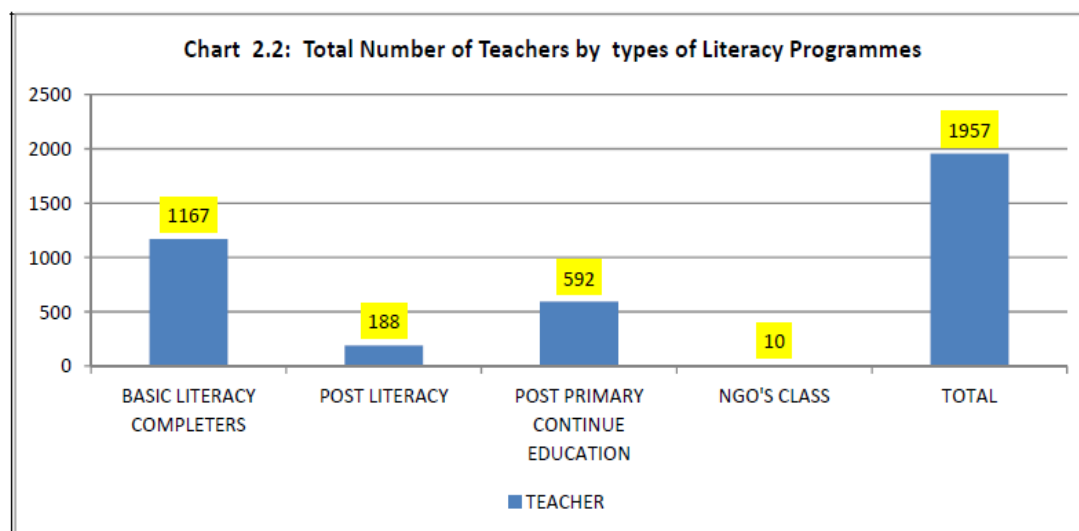
Source: Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:88

Figure 4. 19: Number of Centres and Classes by Types of Literacy Programmes



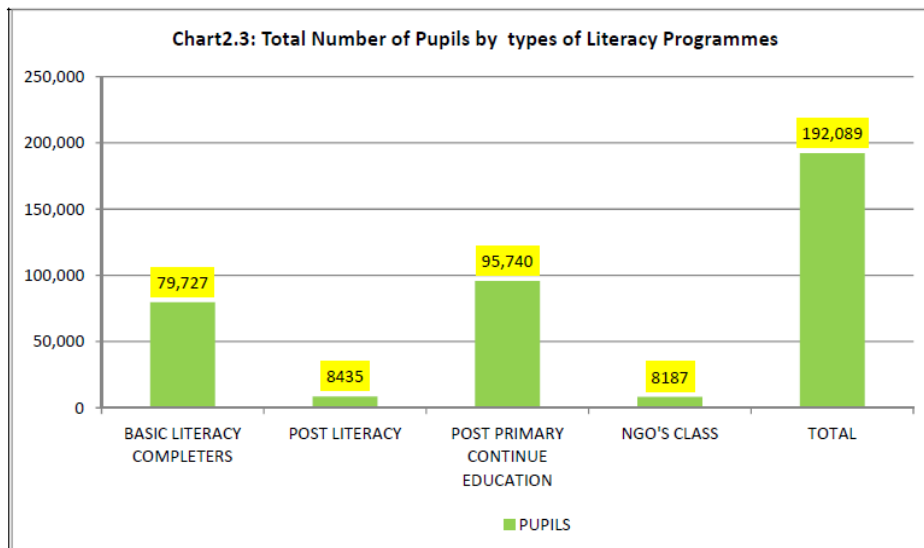
Source: Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:46

Figure 4. 20: Total Number of Teachers by Types of Literacy Programmes



Source: Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:47

Figure 4. 21: Total Number of Pupils by Types of Literacy Programmes



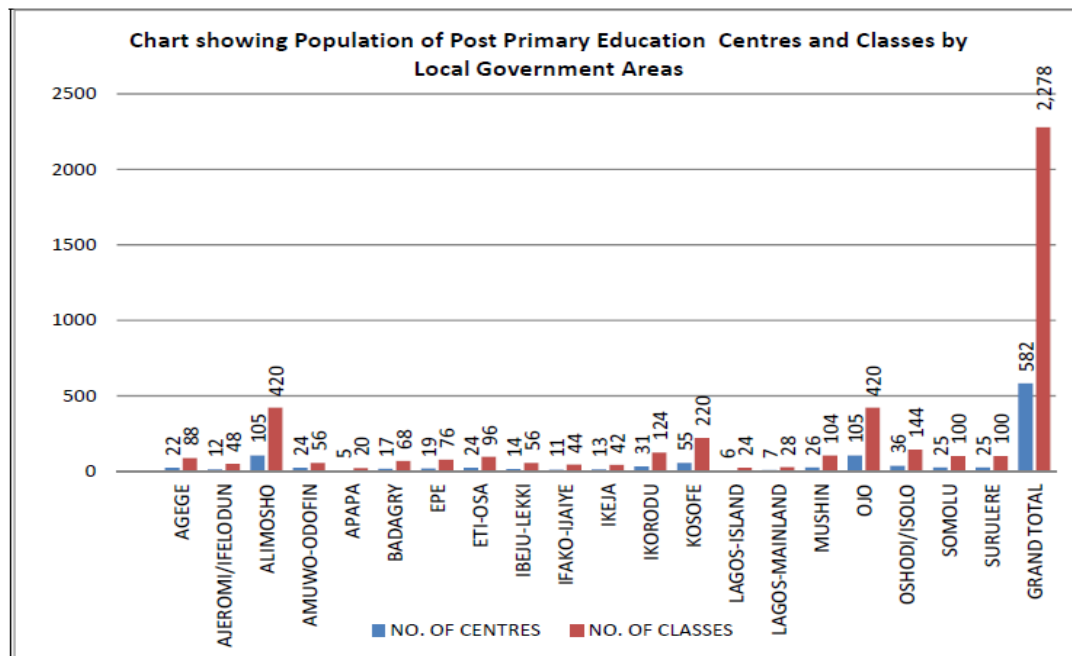
Source: Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:48

Table 4. 40: Post Primary Continuing Education Data

S/N	Local Government Area (LGA)	NO. OF CENTRES	NO. OF CLASSES	STAFF			LEARNERS		
				MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
1	Agege	22	88	10	12	22	960	3,000	3,960
2	Ajeromi/Ifelodun	12	48	7	5	12	360	1,800	2,160
3	Alimosho	105	420	50	55	105	4,500	14,400	18,900
4	Amuwo Odofin	24	56	10	14	24	760	2,600	3,360
5	Apapa	5	20	2	3	5	310	490	800
6	Badagry	17	68	10	7	17	720	2,000	2,720
7	Epe	19	76	8	11	19	1,500	1,920	3,420
8	Eti Osa	24	96	14	10	24	1,200	2,160	3,360
9	Ibeju Lekki	14	56	10	14	24	440	1,800	2,240
10	Ifako/Ijaye	11	44	5	6	11	520	1,240	1,760
11	Ikeja	13	42	3	10	13	680	1,000	1,680
12	Ikorodu	31	124	27	4	31	2,080	3,500	5,580
13	Kosofe	55	220	25	30	55	2,500	5,200	7,700
14	Lagos Island	6	24	2	4	6	400	560	960
15	Lagos Mainland	7	28	4	3	7	520	800	1,320
16	Mushin	26	104	16	10	26	2,160	2,000	4,160
17	Ojo	105	420	25	80	105	3,900	15,000	18,900
18	Oshodi/Isolo	36	144	20	16	36	760	5,000	5,760
19	Shomolu	25	100	12	13	25	800	2,700	3,500
20	Surulere	25	100	10	15	25	500	3,000	3,500
GRAND TOTAL		582	2,278	270	322	592	25,570	70,170	95,740

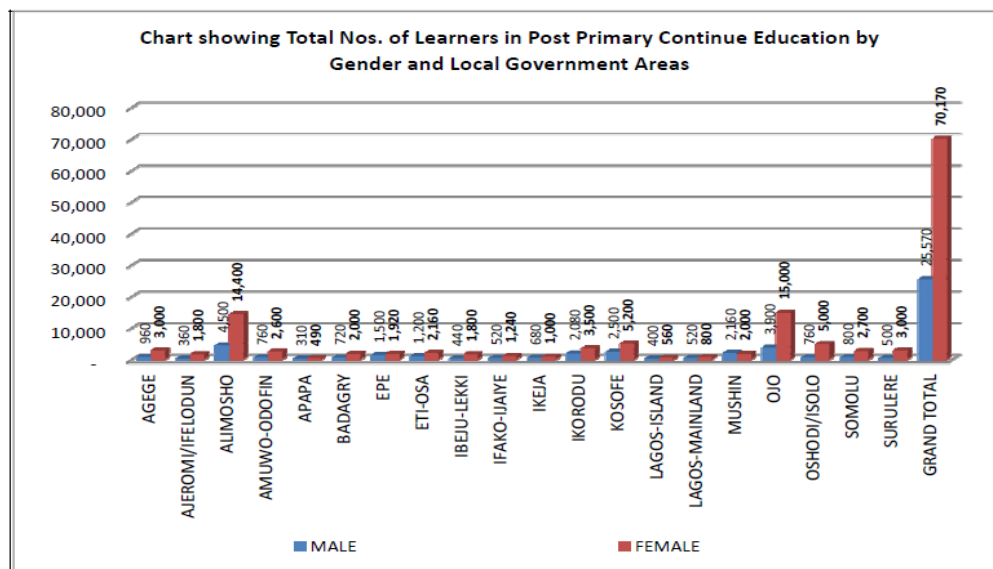
Source: Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:88

Figure 4. 22: Post Primary Education Centres and Classes



Source: Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:49

Figure 4. 23: Total Number of Learners in Post Primary Continue Education by Gender



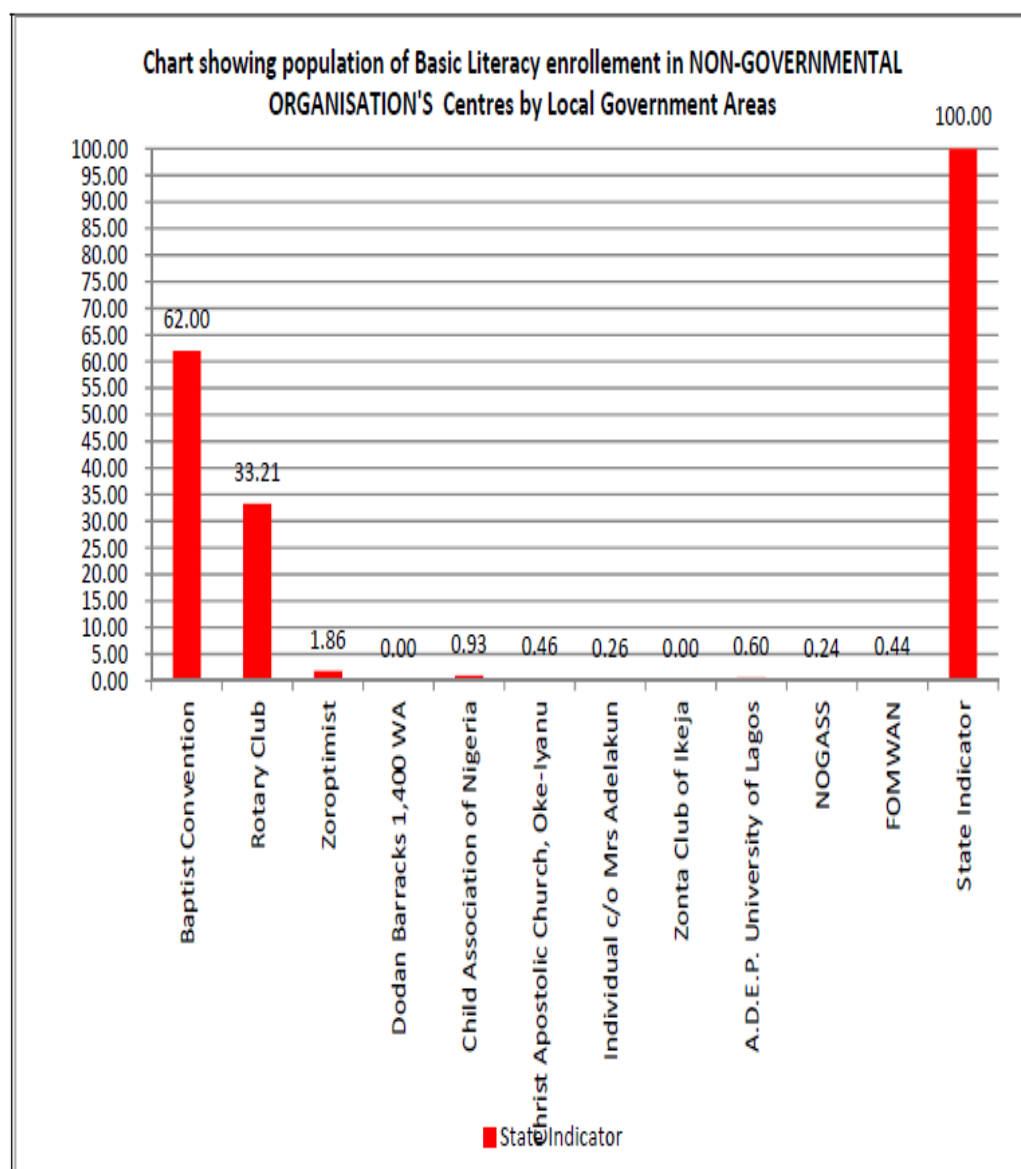
Source: Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:50

Table 4. 41: Post Primary Continuing Education Data (2)

S/N	Local Government Area (LGA)	NO. OF CENTRES	NO. OF CLASSES	STAFF			LEARNERS		
				MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
1	Agege	11	11	7	7	14	85	195	280
2	Ajeromi/Ifelodun	5	5	3	5	8	136	177	313
3	Alimosho	15	15	5	15	20	112	287	399
4	Amuwo Odofin	5	5	3	5	8	180	332	512
5	Apapa	6	6	4	5	9	158	362	520
6	Badagry	5	5	3	7	10	165	360	525
7	Epe	6	6	5	6	11	179	246	425
8	Eti Osa	3	3	3	3	6	137	263	400
9	Ibeju Lekki	4	4	3	4	7	147	233	380
10	Ifako/Ijaye	6	6	3	6	9	216	292	508
11	Ikeja	6	6	5	4	9	174	289	463
12	Ikorodu	7	7	4	6	10	205	305	510
13	Kosofe	6	6	3	6	9	161	378	539
14	Lagos Island	2	2	2	3	5	221	191	412
15	Lagos Mainland	8	8	5	6	11	202	196	398
16	Mushin	7	7	3	7	10	185	206	391
17	Ojo	5	5	5	3	8	139	234	373
18	Oshodi/Isolo	6	6	6	3	9	148	246	394
19	Shomolu	4	4	3	4	7	126	243	369
20	Surulere	5	5	2	6	8	128	196	324
State Indicator		122	122	77	111	188	3,204	5,231	8,435

Source: Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:89

Figure 4. 24: Basic Literacy Enrolment in Non-Governmental Organisation Centres



Source: Lagos State Literacy Survey, 2011:51

Tables 4.38 to 4.41 and figures 4.18 to 4.24 that there are provisions for basic literacy programmes and centres by the government and non-governmental agencies to cater for the vulnerable groups and others in the State in order to bring about education for all.

4.4.4 Policies put in place by the State to protect girls' access to education

In as much as the government has provided for education on a general and equal basis with no preference to a particular gender, there is still a need to look at the policies

established to protect girl-child access to education. According to the participants and available documents, the government has not only make education available and accessible to the girl-child but has also ensured that the girl-child is equally protected while accessing these educational opportunities. There are laws and policies safeguarding and protecting the right of the child. One of the participants explained thus:

Last year November, there was an executive order signed by the Lagos State government that anybody that tampers with any child in the State be it a boy or a girl that person can be arrested. A child in Lagos State belongs to the government, so anybody that tampers with them will end up in the law court. That is why we have what we call Child Right Law in the State. So you cannot just infringe on their rights, they have their own rights as children of the government. So you can't say because they're vulnerable you can rape them or you can maltreat them. Whoever does that will end up in jail and I can tell you that we have series of cases like that at hand. I have a social worker here (in this office) that goes to court to attend to such cases. And when we have issues like that we go there immediately once we get the alert to go and rescue the child. We rescue and effect arrest. We rescue, inform the police and effect arrest immediately (ED3: 13th July, 2017).

According to another participant, one of the strategies the government is using is through various sensitization programmes on the need for educating the girl-child. In his words "Though in actual fact some people do not believe in sending the girl-child to school for reasons best known to them. It may be their traditional or religious beliefs, but the sensitization programme of the government is an on-going thing through radio jingles, TV, the School Based Management Committee (SBMC) and so on" (MOE2: 18th July, 2017).

Similarly, another participant noted that:

Usually the policy or the system is that if a class teacher noticed that a child does not come to school or the child absence his or herself from the school for a week. The onus is on the class teacher to put a call to the parents and find out why the child is not in school. If there is still no change, the teacher will then notify the school authority and a delegation will be sent to the house to find out the cause. If a parent deliberately prevent the child from coming to school without given any cause the case is then reported to the child welfare unit. They'll take it up and demand why the child is being prevented from coming to school. We have had cases of children being prevented from coming to school just to go and sell and assist the parents, once there is evidence of that report must be made and it will be followed up. And at times if the fault is from the school, the school counsellor then comes in. At times even the child himself or herself may decide not to come to school, so such a child is given to the school counsellor for referral and the

counsellor will follow up in conjunction with the parents to monitor such a child (PR6: 20th July, 2017).

Another participant from one of the offices corroborated this when she explained further that:

The government of Lagos State is really on to that. There is a collaboration between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Women Affairs and Poverty Alleviation. In this Ministry they have a Quick Response (QR) Number that any child that is deprived of going to school, any child that is sexually abused or harassed or any child that is badly treated for one reason could call. The government will go there immediately to address the situation. The State equally go on intensive mobilization which is an on-going thing. Just to know that it is your right and sensitize people to know that it is a right of every Nigerian child to be in school. The government go as far as talking to the market women, using faith based organisations I mean religious organisations. They go to churches, mosques and so on just to sensitize their leaders to talk to their religious adherence to bring their children to school and generally make them realize that the only legacy that can be given to the children is education (MOE1: 14th July, 2017)

However, some of the principals said that any parents not sending their children to school are liable to prosecution. According to them, any street girl caught or arrested will have the parent/ guardian invited and investigated and if found wanting such parent/guardian will be charged in court with necessary punishment meted out to them. One of the principals submitted:

What we do in school if we have any knowledge of such situation is to invite their parents and educate them. We also have some non-governmental agencies that equally help especially in the community within which the school is instituted. If there is a case of child abuse or parents using their wards to beef-up their economic position, and we get to know of it, we report to the government for necessary actions. Such parents are then sanctioned by the government (PR3: 7th July, 2017).

Equally, another principal said that “We’re given numbers of social workers to report if we have any such situations. Social workers numbers are with the school counsellors so if there are any issues either a girl being raped, abused or whatever, there are numbers to call. We have the numbers and we can give you on request” (PR4: 10th July, 2017). She gave me a number of Lagos State Neighbourhood Safety Corp (LSNSC), Provost Omole – 08033996533. The full referral directory is found in section 4.3.5.

From the available documents, apart from the Child Rights Law (CRL) and other policies mentioned in Section 4.3.1 above, there is a 'Yellow Card' for Child Abuse in Lagos State. The Yellow Card is a form of warning to parents, guardians and all citizens in the State. With regards to education of the children it emphasises amongst other things that:

- Education is the right of every child
- Don't keep your child out of school; it is against the law
- Be aware and respect the Child's Rights Law in Lagos State
- Penalty is a jail term or fine of #200,000 (Two Hundred Thousand Naira) or both
- Don't make your children hawk; it is prohibited in Lagos State
- Every child must be in school from 8.00 a.m. to 2.00 p.m.
- Basic Education is free and compulsory in Lagos State. Take advantage of it for the eradication of poverty and hunger.
- Education will guarantee the future of your children
- Do not molest, intimidate or frustrate your child. It is against the LAW (Yellow Card for Child Abuse, n.d.)

A similar document is the Lagos State Safeguarding and Child Protection Policy signed as an executive order (NO.EO/AA08 OF 2016) by the incumbent governor of the State on the 16th of December 2016. The General Policy Statement of the document reads:

1. The rights, welfare and safety of the child are the State Government's first and paramount consideration.
2. This policy supports all State Government staff to respond appropriately to potential child protection concerns, including suspected abuse or neglect. It is our commitment to protect children from abuse and to recognise the important role of staff that have dealings with children.

3. All children in the State must be treated equally with respect and fairness, regardless of age, culture, gender, religious background, disability, creed, ethnicity or health status (Lagos State Safeguarding and Child Protection Policy, 2016:5).

4.4.5 Implementation and monitoring of the policies for compliance

For proper implementation of the various policies and to regulate their monitoring for compliance, the participants equally expressed their views on how the government has been able to achieve this. According to them the government adopted various ways in ensuring that the policies were not just there but they are adequately implemented. One of the principals stressed that one of the things inspectors must ensure that is in place in all schools is the child protection policy and any school where it is not found, the head of the school will be sanctioned. Even not just the policy, there must be a designated officer in charge of it. Then there must also be the exposure of the children to their rights, i.e. the students must be aware of their rights. This is done through seminars for the students, display of various bill boards round the school compound and their various classrooms indicating some of their rights. The various other steps taken by the government as narrated by the participants are as follows:

At the school level, in every school there is a committee known as the School Based Management Committee (SBMC) which comprises of leaders in the schools i.e. teachers, Principals/Headteachers, vice Principals/assistant Headteachers and somebody from the neighbourhoods. Members of this committee help to see what the students do within and around the school. The member from the neighbourhoods most especially monitors what they do around the school so that if there is anything going on outside that these students are involved in, this member reports to the school. Apart from this, the government also send out officials from the Ministry of education to go out monitoring students about and just see if they will find any student walking about with school uniform when he or she is supposed to be in school (PR2: 14th July, 2017).

Another participant noted:

There are different departments and units that are saddled with the responsibilities of monitoring one aspect or the other in the educational progress of the child. We have the Policy, Planning, Research and Statistic (PPR&S) Unit that keeps the enrolment rates, the retention rates, the drop-out rates, admission rates and so on. Then there is the Office of the Education Quality Assurance that visits the schools regularly to see what is going on, they check the students there, the teachers and

our type of education is more of student-centred. We have the Basic Education Services Department (BESD) that keeps academic progress report of the students in the school. At the end of each term and session, schools will bring the statistics of results or performance of students in the school and this will be sent to the PPR&S Unit to look into it to see the rates at which whether there is an improvement with the performance from the previous year to what operates at present (MOE1: 14th July, 2017).

With regards to monitoring the teaching activities and the teachers, a principal said that there is the Education Quality Assurance Unit in the Ministry of Education and the School Support Unit that visits schools at regular intervals to monitor what the teachers are teaching, the attendance and the general running of the school. He explained further that locally within the school they put in extra efforts in monitoring the students. According to him:

Locally, we put in extra efforts in monitoring the students. Once we identified that a student is absent or not regular in school, we go and look for the student and we do follow-up. We have had cause to even buy uniform for students just to encourage them to come to school. Some of them will complain that they are sick because they have not eaten from home, so teachers take the pain to buy food and drink for them to keep them in school (PR6: 20th July, 2017).

Another participant said there is also the use of social workers in collaboration with school counsellors to implement the child rights law and the monitoring of the students in schools and the communities. With regards to incidents of abuse or monitoring the right of the child, she said that the Lagos State Government recently launched a Short Service Code '6820' for Residents to Report Cases of Domestic Violence and Child Abuse. Speaking further she noted:

Yes, we monitor these policies. When we have cases like that we monitor the child, monitor the parents, we call and we visit. And because we have guidelines, if you have been maltreating any child and we have warned you, or you have gone to the law court then if you misbehave again you may be jailed. People are now aware that despite the fact that you're the biological parent or whatever you can still be jailed if you tamper with the children, so we monitor from here. We monitor generally from the State that is why they put social workers in every establishment in Lagos State. So it is the duty of the social worker to monitor and ensure compliance (ED3: 13th July, 2017).

In the same vein, another participant added:

We monitor it, even from the federal level. We have National Council on Education (NCE) which is the final of the three sessions/meetings. We have the Joint Consultative Committee on Education- Reference (1st session), then we have another one Joint Consultative Committee on Education- Plenary (2nd session) and the final session is the NCE where they finalized all the discussions in the first two sessions and whatever they arrived at here, the decisions taken is binding on all States of the federation to implement. So they come from Abuja (the Federal level) to monitor the level of implementation of NCE decisions. Thus, at the State level we too ensure that each Section or Agency that is supposed to work on any of those decisions do it (MOE3: 24th July, 2017).

In monitoring the vulnerable children including the drop-outs, street children and out-of-school children this usually involve other ministries and agencies - even sometimes the non-governmental agencies. According to a participant:

Some NGOs like the Child Protection Network (CPN) takes care mostly of the vulnerable children. What they do is they go to the nooks and crannies where these vulnerable children are and bring them out. The children are then presented before the government for reintegration back to the system. They don't just end it there but still do check and balances on the children to check whether they have absconded out of school again or not. At the Ministry level, the government has records of the reintegrated children into the system. So there is also monitoring at the level of the school. Aside this, there is the introduction of award and reward which takes place at the zonal levels of the schools. Many of these children that have been reintegrated back to the system sometimes perform excellently and brilliantly well. So the government intentionally introduced the award and reward measure to motivate them and encourage others so that they'll be able to also come back to the system. These are some of the policies that has been put in place to monitor compliance with the affected parties (MOE2: 18th July, 2017).

The CRL as documentary evidence established a Child Justice System for children who come in conflict with the law. Section 10 states that the State Government has the duty to protect and provide good things for children in need in the State and also help their families to take good care of them. Section 10(1) states that the Government should provide a policy framework that will ensure the rights of the child. Equally, Section 15 (b) states that "A child offender shall be handled by a Specialized Children Police Unit", and Section 17 of the Law establishes Child's Rights Implementation Committees at the State and Local Government levels. The Committee at each level shall, amongst other things:

- i. Ensure the observance and popularization of the rights and welfare of the child.
- ii. Continually keep under review the state of implementation of the rights of the child.

- iii. Develop and recommend to the appropriate government specific programmes and projects that shall enhance the implementation of the rights and welfare of the child.
- iv. Prepare and submit periodic reports on the state of implementation of the rights and welfare of the child to the National Committee (Child Right Law, 2007:14).

Meanwhile, the referral directory for reporting and monitoring of these policies as provided is presented in Table 4.42 below:

Table 4. 42: Referral Directory

S/N	Agencies	Address	Phone Number	Email Address	Nature of Care
1	Nigeria Police Gender Desk Office	Lagos State Police Command, GRA-Ikeja	0808-1775-590 0812-715-5162	Compollagos@Yahoo.Com	Child Abuse & Domestic Violence
2	Ministry Of Youth And Social Development	Block 18, Lagos State Secretariat, Alausa, Ikeja	0818-3050-639	Youthandsocialdevelopment.Lagosstate.Gov.Ng	Child Protection, Counselling and Shelter
3	Lagos State Ministry Of Education	Block3, Ministry Of Education, Lagos State Secretariat, Alausa, Ikeja	0808-7590-064	Education.Lagosstate.Gov.Ng	Child Protection
4	Lagos State Quality Education Assurance Bureau	Block3, Ministry Of Education, Lagos State Secretariat, Alausa, Ikeja	0701-664-7415	Info@Lagoseduqa.Com	Safeguarding & Child Protection
5	Private Education Department	Block3, Ministry Of Education, Lagos State Secretariat, Alausa, Ikeja	0803-3578-492	Egbeleyi@Yahoo.Com	Safeguarding & Child Protection
6	Office Of The Public Defender	2-8 Iyuna Street, Stadium Bus-Stop/	0708-0601-080	Opdlagos@Yahoo.Com	Legal Representation of Children in Conflict with the Law Child Protection

		Barracks, Surulere, Lagos			
S/N	Agencies	Address	Phone Number	Email Address	Nature of Care
7	One Stop Child Justice Centre, Directorate Of Citizens' Rights	Block 2, Ministry Of Justice, Secretariat, Alausa	0908-518-0570 0807-722-5566	Info@Lagosministryofjustice.Com	Legal Representation of Children in Conflict with the Law Child Protection
8	Child To Child Network	11 Fagbile Street, Off Clegg Street, Ojuelegbe, Surulere.	0803-348-4510 0809-607-2168	Childtochildnt@Yahoo.Com	Child Protection and Counselling
9	UNICEF	Lugard Street, Ikoyi Lagos	01-461-4298 01-461-5644	Lagos@Unicef.Org	Child Protection Specialist
10	Lagos State Domestic And Sexual Violence Response Team	The Secretariat, Alausa, Ikeja	0813-796-0048	Info@Dsvrtlago.Org	Provides Holistic Response to Sexual and Gender Based Violence

Source: LSSCPP, 2016:15-16

4.5 This theme addresses the second sub-research question: what are the challenges facing the implementation of the gender equality goal in Lagos State, Nigeria? In as much as the Lagos State government is doing everything possible to ensure that all the children receive equal educational opportunities, there are still some challenges being faced in the implementation of this goal in the State. This was the general submission of most of the participants in the study. Though some of the participants opined that there are no challenges on the part of the government, one participant said, “As far as the policy of government and encouragement is concerned, no hindrance no challenge” (PR5: 31st July, 2017). Another participant also said:

We don't have challenges in Lagos generally. Parents want their children to attend school. There is a parity in the boys' and girls' attendance in ratio 1:1. In fact in some places the females are even more than the males. The best student in the last WAEC Exams in the State was a female even in the country (Nigeria). So we don't have challenges. No major one (MOE2: 18th July, 2017).

They agreed, however, that there are still some challenges in the implementation of the gender equality goal. The challenges from the different quarters identified are put under the following sub-themes:

4.5.1 General challenges

Poverty has been identified as a major challenge in educating not only the girls but all the children in general. This menace has been identified by most of the participants as a major threat in the implementation of educational policies. A principal responded thus:

Poverty is a major challenge. The students are given tuition-free education, free textbooks, free registration, free everything. The uniform that they are to buy, some of them come to school with tattered uniform. Most of them don't eat before leaving home and when they get to school you find out that by 8:30 a.m. the student will just faint. We (the school authority) have to buy food and drinks to resuscitate them. Even where a student is injured and you take the child to the hospital, the parents find it difficult to come and even show appreciation. If you take them to the Health Centres it's just administration that is free, you pay for other things (PR6: 20th July, 2017).

Another challenge is the high rate of influx of people from other States of the Federation into Lagos State. A principal said, “Due to the free education policy run in the State, most of the people bring their children/wards from other States to get enrolled” (PR1: 6th July, 2017). Supporting this argument, the available documents showed that the very unique

position held by the State having been the Federal capital for many years and being the commercial nerve centre of the nation has also made it difficult to meet up with the demands of educating all the citizens as expected. The State remains the most populous in the country with a projected population of 20,546,999 in 2011 and still regularly witnesses a rapid increase in rural-urban drift which is reflected in the high influx of people from all other parts of the country as well as the inflow of migrants from the neighbouring countries like Benin Republic, Togo and Ghana (LSLS, 2011).

4.5.2 Challenges from the society

Everybody now knows the value of education and the girl-child is generally now allowed more access to education than in previous times. However, the general societal norms and values still discriminate against the girl-child as indicated by the responses of some of the participants. According to a participant from one of the offices:

In as much as the Lagos State government is doing everything possible to give the children equal educational opportunities we still discover that because of certain beliefs religious beliefs or I don't know some people still keep their children at home. Or some parents still prefer one gender to be in school at the expense of the other. But once we (the government) are informed about it, we swing into action. We go there, we counsel them (the parents) and we do everything possible. Even if it means to enforce the law that the child should be in school, the State government will always go to that length (MOE1: 14th July, 2017).

The societal norm still puts the place of women in the kitchen, and holds onto the belief that women must respect and obey men's order. Women are also not given the opportunity of holding elective posts of leadership, i.e. they cannot be the head e.g. governor, president, senate president, etc. As a participant put it, "Maybe it's a traditional belief or religious belief, some people still believe that girls' education ends in the kitchen or it's not important" (PR5: 31st July, 2017). Corroborating this, another participant noted:

There are challenges especially in the cases of certain tribe of people. When you challenge their authority that they are maltreating a child or whatever, they'll tell you that they brought the child from the village as a house help. That they have brought that child here to come and be helping them and they are only doing her a favour by putting her in the school. So if you probe too much into the affair they will just withdraw that child from the school and send the child back to the village. That one is a major challenge (ED3: 13th July, 2017).

A further major challenge identified by another participant is the stigmatization of the vulnerable group. Her words: “Stigmatization of the vulnerable group (dropouts) on the part of the public. The society do look down on them and tend to see them (the dropouts) as never-do-well. However, all these challenges I believe that the government is gradually making efforts to make them a thing of the past and take care of them” (PR1: 6th July, 2017). Yet another societal challenge is the environmental factor, i.e. the value the society/environment places on education as a whole. As a principal explained:

Sometimes, the environment is such that the students don’t know the importance of education. They see those that are not educated making fast money, so they are not committed much to their studies. Thus, every day at the assembly ground, you need to tell them the value of education to encourage them to come to school. We educate them that what they see outside is just a temporary windfall that will not stand the test of time (PR6: 20th July, 2017).

4.5.3 Challenges from the parents

The parental attitudes towards the education of their children has also been identified as a barrier in the implementation of the gender equality goal in the State. A principal said that “parental attitudes, despite the efforts of the government in making sure that all children living in the state have qualitative education, we still have a case of few parents who are still reluctant in sending their children to schools. But once this is known to the government such parent will be dealt with” (PR1: 6th July, 2017). Another principal explained that sometimes the parents give issues because of their understanding. They don’t want to know what the government has put in place for them but rather want things to go their own way which is not possible in all instances.

The mind-set of the parents and their own upbringing or values regarding education have also been identified as a form of challenge to the children’s education. A principal said that “it depends on the mind-set of the parents. Some of them may feel that they have to train the boys and leave the girls while some of them may see the boys as helping them financially so they keep them at home too” (PR3: 7th July, 2017). She explained further that some of the parents don’t value education and most of them, because of their ignorance or their own upbringing, don’t take care of their girls. The resultant effect of this sometimes gets the girls exposed to men who lure them for sex, get them pregnant or they get sexually abused in a way. Some of the parents also believe that spending money

on girl-child education is not profitable, so they'll rather get the girls married. A principal explained thus:

Some parents believe that spending money on girl-child education is not profitable may be as a result of their cultural beliefs, but through sensitization too they are beginning to understand the need to educate the girl-child. It also boils down to the background of the parents and their financial status, they may be left with no option than to send the male child when they do not have the resources. If the resources are not really available and they have a male child and a girl child, they prefer sending the male child at the expense of the girl child (MOE1: 14th July, 2017).

Another principal said that he sometimes visits the traditional rulers within the community to solicit their support in encouraging parents to send their children to school especially the girl-child - not only sending them to school but to also ensure the students leave home early so that they get to school on time.

However, some of the participants still opined that this traditional norm on girl-child education is gradually decreasing with more awareness and sensitization of the parents. They believe that it was in the past that we used to have problems in educating women because of the beliefs of our parents. A participant put in thus:

Everybody knows the value of education now, so nobody wants to keep a child that is an illiterate. Every parent wants the child to be educated. Every parent want the child to drive a car on the road and say "that is my doctor child that is my engineer child". They are always proud of that. And that is why when we have Parents' Forum we always encourage them on the importance of educating every child. They all love it, they'll start singing. They embrace it (ED3: 13th July, 2017)

4.5.4 Challenges from the students

The students themselves who are the main targets of the educational policies have also been identified as sometimes posing as a challenge in the implementation process. According to some of the participants, some of the students' attitudes and dispositions towards education are not encouraging. A principal said, "Some of the students do not know the importance of education, thus they do not value it". Contributing further, another principal opined:

Some of these students combine schooling with work/trade. They want to be earning a living by working and at the same time be in school, and this in a way is affecting their education. They lack concentration in school which make them to perform low. Though we have been trying through the parents' forum to talk to the

parents to stop their wards from getting involved with trade/work while they're still in school. At least until they finish the secondary education if at all they need to venture into other things (PR2: 14th July, 2017).

Another participant pointed out that bad habits among the students is also another challenge. He identified the trend of drug taking that almost gets to the school if not for the drastic action taken by the school authorities. Another one is the use of technology. According to him "Technology has brought a lot of problems into their lives. They're not using it rightly, they're not using it the way it should be used. They're not using it appropriately" (PR6: 20th July, 2017).

The vulnerable ones are also not left out. A principal said, "By the time the students get to repeat a class or if they observed that they are likely to become dropout (so to say) we find it difficult to get them to cooperate or to go along with the policies and norms that have been put in place because of them" (PR1: 6th July, 2017). Speaking further,

Some of the girls, because of the economic situation in the country they are exposed to sexual abuse. Some parents will even encourage them to get married so that at least there will be less mouth to feed. Also, some of them are the breadwinners in the house, it does not end with the girls some of our boys here in Lagos have become breadwinners at such tender age. The parents put them to learn one work or the other and from there they feed the parents. So the children are made to become adults so early in life, they take up the responsibility of taking care of their parents by learning one vocation or the other even while still enrolled in school. And this forms a big distraction from the learning process (PR1: 6th July, 2017).

4.6 This theme addresses the third sub-research question: what are the implications of the gender equality goal for education policy making in Lagos State?

Achieving the goal of gender equality has a lot of implications not only for educational policy making but also for the stakeholders in education. The achievement or otherwise of the goal can be greatly influence two main things, the demand and the supply. The resultant effect of the two sides will influence policy making in the educational sector for it is when the two are balanced that the goal of gender equality would be said to have been achieved. Looking at the supply side which includes political factors and factors linked to the school, this is discussed under two sub-themes: (1) the mechanisms the

government uses in consulting with representatives of stakeholders, and (2) strategies to improve attendance at school (such as availability and accessibility) especially for girls.

4.6.1 Mechanism of consulting with representatives of stakeholders in education

The resultant effect of the achievement of gender equality in education will be reflected in the stakeholders' perception and understanding of gender education. The participants' narratives of the governments' mechanisms of consulting with the parents are as follows:

A lot of mechanisms. You see, our government does not do anything without involving the stakeholders, all stakeholders. Many a times when they want to do anything they will invite all the stakeholders to meetings that is where they'll hear their views before any policy is formed concerning these children (ED3: 13th July, 2017).

Equally, another participant contributed:

Sincerely, Lagos State government is really trying. They normally have stakeholders' forum and they have equally created different fora – we have the Parents' Forum, Teachers' Forum under National Union of Teachers (NUT), they have the School Based Management Committee (SBMC) which is a combination of parents, teachers and a community leader. And they even instated that all schools must be part of the community development in their area. Like now they have insisted that henceforth every last Thursday of the month we must go out of our schools and go into the community to do environmental sanitation. So that we will be part of the community, and that will give the government the opportunity whenever they have anything to tell the community they will be able to invite them, sensitize them and carry them along. They also encourage us to liaise with the Old Students' Association. The Old Students are also invited for their input and carry along in policy formulation. And as soon as the policy is formulated, they are invited again for update. So by and large, the government is really trying in carrying every stakeholder along in the formulation of educational policies (PR1: 6th July, 2017).

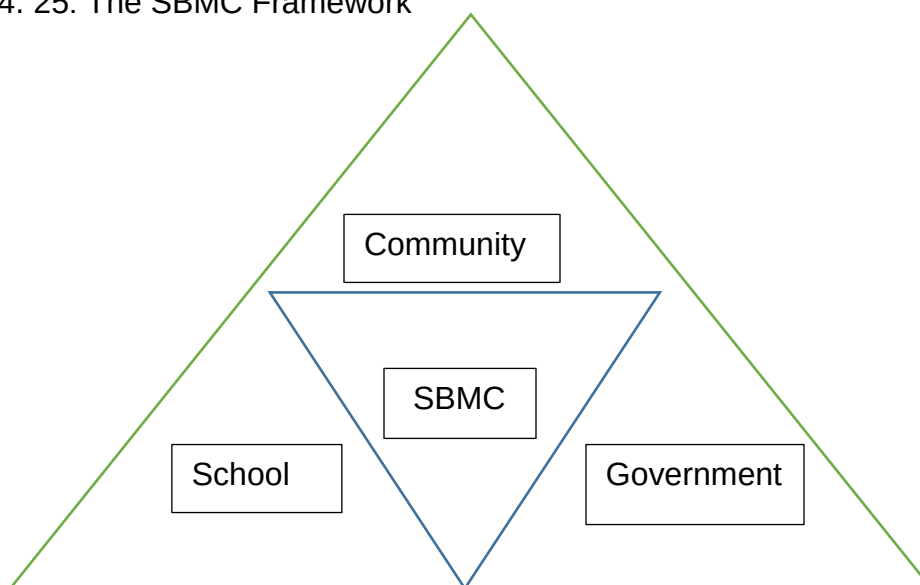
Highlighting the mechanism of consulting with each set of the stakeholders, another participant contributed thus:

In Lagos State, the Parent Teachers' Association (PTA) that has been changed to Parents' Forum is a very active body through which the parents get in touch with the government and government also get in touch with the parents on anything that has to do with their children (for consultation). Through this Forum, Parents are also invited for sensitization workshops for policy making. Likewise, the teachers has various bodies like the National Union of Teachers (NUT), All Nigerian Conference of Principals of Secondary Schools (ANCOPPS), and Association of Primary Schools Headteachers of Nigeria (APSHON). Through these body the government passes information and whatever to the teachers, and

the teachers as well make their grievances known to the government. Information are also passed to the teachers through the official routes of the Ministry, Districts and Zonal Offices. Then for the students, they also have a body called the Students Representative Council (SRC). Every school in Lagos State has this body where representatives of all the students in the school meet once in a month to discuss what they want from the school or the government or to discuss anything that has to do with them. There are also associations, clubs, and alumni associations for the students. Whatever they come up with at these various fora is sent to the government. Students are also part of the SBMC (PR2: 14th July, 2017).

According to available documents, the School Based Management Committee links the school with the community and the government.

Figure 4. 25: The SBMC Framework



Source: SBMC Policy Lagos, n.d.:10

Schools are not meant to operate in isolation; consequently, as the local communities make the demand for the rights of their children to basic education, they too must also understand their roles and responsibilities in aiding the State in achieving this. With this mind-set and in line with the directives of the outcome of the 55th meeting of the National Council on Education held in 2005 urging States to establish School Based Management Committees (SBMC) in all public schools throughout the country, the Lagos State government established a functional School Based Management (SBM) structure in all public schools in the State. This initiative is to assist the government in enshrining good governance at the school level and also to strengthen community involvement and

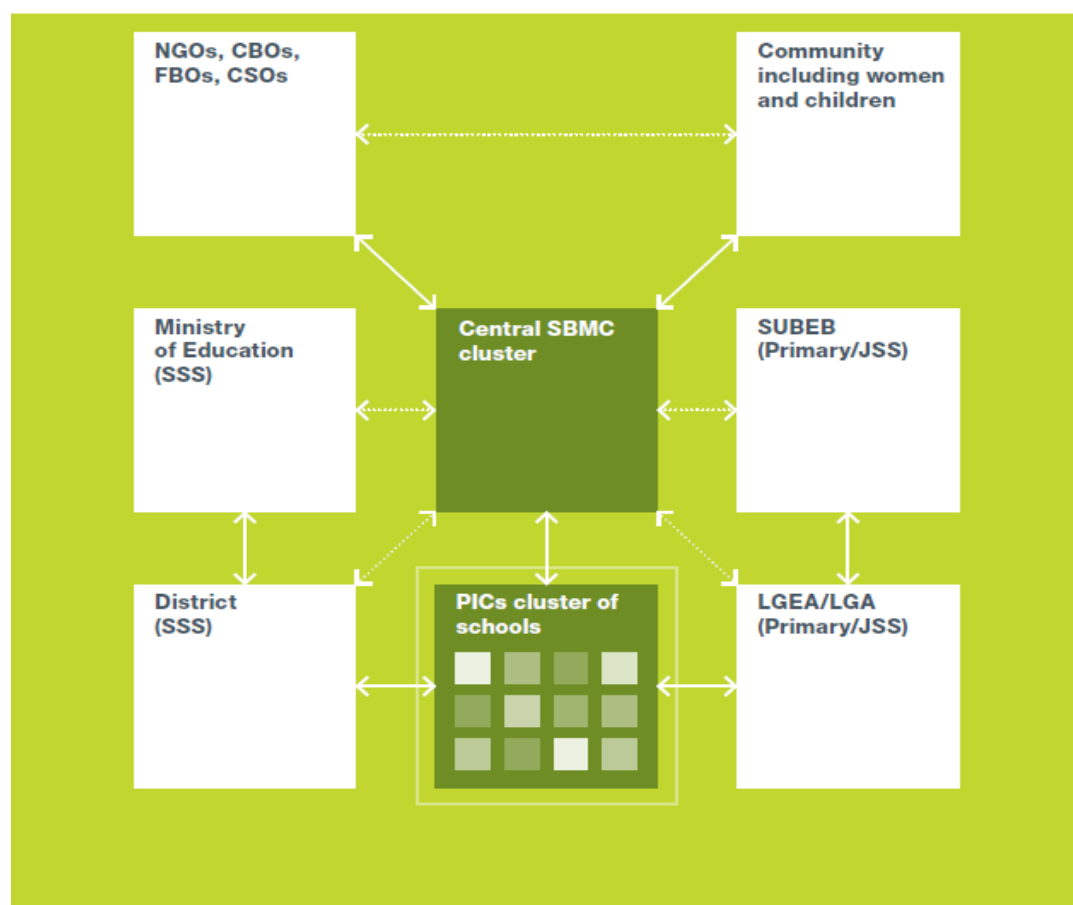
participation in school governance. Another similar initiative is the ‘Lagos EKO Secondary Education Project’, a public-private-partnership to improve education delivery in the State.

With its motto as *“Education for All is the Responsibility of All”*, the community involvement initiative is referred to as School Based Management Committee (SBMC) at the primary and junior secondary school levels and it is being supervised by the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB), while at the senior secondary school level, it is referred to as School Based Community Relation Committee (SBCRC) and managed by the State Ministry of Education through the office of the Tutor General/Permanent Secretary (TG/PS) in the education districts. However, for ease of reference, the two are both referred to as School Based Management (SBM) structures (School Based Management Committee (SBMC) Policy, n.d.:15). Constituting the committee are the following members: Head Teacher/Principal, Teachers’ Representative, Students/Pupils’ Representative (Female and Male), Representative of Traditional Ruler/Community Leader, Women’s Representative, Representative of the Community Development Association (CDA), Representative of CBOs, Representative of NGOs, Representative of Parents’ Forum, Old Students’ Representative, and Representative of Religious Bodies (Christian and Muslim).

The State policy guideline for the SBMC was developed with support from the Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria (ESSPIN). The UKAID funded project had its overall goal as “To entrench good governance at the school level and achieve high school performance and improved learning outcomes of all students through the active participation of communities” (SBMC Policy Lagos, n.d:16). With the overall purpose of achieving effective decentralization of the management of primary, junior and senior secondary schools in Lagos State towards attaining the goal of free and qualitative education, the SBMC is structured around the clustering of schools, i.e. schools located within the same vicinity. Between eight to ten schools constitute a central School Based Management (SBM) system. However, each school in the cluster has its own mini-School Based Management Committee (SBMC) termed Project Implementation Committee (PIC).

There is strong communication between the central SBMC, PICs, school, communities, government and other stakeholders to ensure active participation in decisions affecting the school in particular and the promotion of the partnership between the school and the wider community in general, and also for the monitoring and evaluation of the objectives and targets set for the schools and following the changes and progress made. Generally, an active SBMC brings about some major changes in education for the community through their monitoring of the performances of the schools and provision of additional resources. In essence, SBMC is an avenue for the ‘voice’ of the community to be heard both within the school and by the government.

Figure 4. 26: Communication and Accountability Structure for Lagos SBMCs



Source: SBMC Policy Lagos, n.d.:22

The implication is that the SBMCs are not only set up in the schools but are also functional. This is a reflection of the engagement of the civil society in the policy making and monitoring process, and the decentralization of educational management.

4.6.2 Strategies to improve attendance at school (such as availability and accessibility) especially for girls

Putting up various strategies to improve attendance at school in terms of making education available and accessible especially for the girl-child will go a long way in achieving gender equality in education. The implication of this is that when education is made available and accessible then the goal of gender equality will be achievable. These strategies involved things that will make the schools interesting and attractive to the students for them to want to always attend school. Against this background, the participants summarized the governments' strategies as follows: "The school facilities, teaching materials, and general school environment are gender friendly and ok. We have enough toilets facilities (female separate, male separate). The water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) strategy has been adopted" (PR3: 7th July, 2017). Corroborating this, another principal said:

We have good toilet facilities (I can take you round). The toilets are manned by sanitation manager in the school while it's being monitored by the School Support Unit in the Education District. This unit is in charge of all these things, they ensure that students have all what they need to be comfortable for them to learn in schools. In essence the Unit ensures conformability and accessibility with regards to educational facilities. We also have our pipe-borne water, PHCN generated light, and even when the power supply is not available, we have alternative source of power– our generating plant. There are 11 room toilets in the school presently. We equally have well ventilated classrooms even though we'll continue to ask for more, they are not adequate but we can still manage with what we have. So we have a conducive environment generally to ensure that what we're doing is well done (PR1: 6th July, 2017).

According to another participant, the government may not be able to do everything at a time but there are strategic developments especially in the area of provision of sanitary instruments such as good toilet facilities, water supply and regular refuse disposal. There is also the provision of an E-library and ICT rooms, laboratories and instructional materials for effective students' learning. Then there are various co-curricular activities in the schools to make school interesting for the students. In her words:

We have uniformed societies like Girls' Guides, Red Cross societies, Sherriff Guides etc. Then we also have Games Clubs and Vocational Clubs in place. We discovered that many of these children can conduct various vocational activities like facial make-ups, tying of headgear, shoe making with Ankara fabrics and so on. So we're encouraging all of that. The school also organizes 'Talent Hunt' to discover the latent talents of some of the students in order to help them in developing these talents. This is taking care of all the 3 domains of learning. However, the erring students are not permitted to take part in this because we don't want to encourage acts of indiscipline among the students. They won't be setting good examples to others and it will serve as a deterrent to others (PR4: 10th July, 2017).

The free education system for all students, payment of the West African Examinations fee and the Basic Education Certificate Examination fee, distribution of free textbooks and other non-fee paying systems instituted in the public schools by the government are even enough attractions to the schools according to a principal. There are also some NGOs that give scholarship awards to best students and the indigent and academically sound students irrespective of gender. He said the government also made the treatment of students free at the various government health care centres and hospitals. According to him:

The schools are registered with these health facilities and if there is any crises in the school, students are carried there for free treatment. There are also competitions organized by the government to encourage participation in education, like the Spelling bee competition. And this has been won by both the male and female students with the winner being made to act in the capacity as a governor of the state for a day (one-day governor). Then there are annual awards ceremonies for best students and teachers to motivate them. These awards take place at the State level (Ministry of Education), Educational District level and even at the individual school level. The awards are not limited to the students alone but extends to the teachers to serve as motivation for them. Then there are on-going training and capacity building sessions for our teachers so that they'll be able to teach these students very well (PR6: 20th July, 2017).

The government has also instituted some security/safety measures in the schools for the protection of the students. From Tables 4.28 to 4.30 in section 4.3.3, it can be observed that at least 75% of the schools in the State have a minimum of first-aid kits in their schools. Then there is also perimeter fencing of the schools as part of the strategy to ensure that the students in school are safe. According to a participant, "About 80% (if not more) of the schools in Lagos State has perimeter fencing to ensure security of the

children” (MOE2: 18th July, 2017). For the security personnel put in place, another participant said:

We have security men in the school that are security conscious, they take the visitors’ details before being allowed into the school premises. And if suspicious of any visitor, they walk him/her down to the principal’s office. Parents have also been informed at the Parent’s Forum not to go directly into their children’s classrooms whenever they come visiting the school. Any parent caught with the child/ward will have to take such child home, and so far, the parents have been complying with this. Equally, the government has some of the officers of the Lagos State Neighbourhood Security Corps (LSNC) posted to schools. These officers provide additional security for the school and also ensures that students are not found loitering around outside the school compounds (PR4: 10th July, 2017).

Apart from the government’s provisions to encourage students’ attendance in schools, some of the individual schools have also instituted their own measures of encouraging their students. For instance, a principal said:

Starting with the morning assembly, we have a lot of interesting programmes. The students are involved in the anchoring of the morning devotions, then we have drills for them from the various departments. Each department have their day and program, for example, news from English Department, drama/ cultural display from the Yoruba Department and so on. The school counsellor also give moral/motivational/inspirational talks. Even the food vendors were encouraged to come early to the school and get their wares ready early enough for the students. And the staff also eat from the same pot with the students to know the quality of food that they’re being fed with. Another thing is that the teachers created a form of Trust Fund among themselves (which is named after the school) for indigent students in order to take care of their needs and encourage them to get educated (PR4: 10th July, 2017).

With regards to security and safety of the students, she went further:

Within the school there are no corporal punishment, so there is child right protection. Then the Students have been advised to always go home in groups after school hours, for there is safety in numbers. Equally, the parents have also been educated on the period/ time their children are expected to be back home from school. And they should not allow the students to just go out of their homes anyhow. Also, the children know that if they are caught wandering about the neighbourhood in their school uniforms instead of going straight home they will be dealt with in school the following day. Then we ensure that the last student leave the school premises before the last teacher leaves and we lock up all the classrooms and windows. The school is also registered with the nearest police station, the officers sometimes drive down to the school to ensure that there are no security challenges/issues with the school (PR4: 10th July, 2017).

Similarly another Principal said that in his own school awards are given to students for encouragement. Plaques are given for neatest class, best behaved student, best dressed student for the week. The neatest class get immunity against punishment for the week. Also, the school was able to install an interactive board. This is a computer-linked board that allows the students on their own to interact online and teach themselves.

The general submission was that the government has really tried in making education available and accessible to all. However, some of the participants opined that the provisions are still not adequate. According to a participant, “In the area of facilities, our facilities is not in commensuration with our development especially in the area of population” (PR5: 31st July, 2017). Explaining further he said that classes built for about 22 students some years back are the same classes housing about 130 students now. There has been no expansion. Then there is also the problem of power supply to operate some of the facilities provided. Another principal put it thus:

Lagos State government is having collaboration education now, a school can have partner in Europe or anywhere where you exchange ideas. But you know even if you have 10 computer systems that are functioning but no light (power supply) what do you do? (PR6: 20th July, 2017)

Yet, another one said, “We have an E-library and ICT rooms that are adequately furnished and there was even a time we had internet facilities but the problem is irregular power supply” (PR4: 10th July, 2017). There is therefore the need for the facilities to be expanding in similar proportion as the students’ population in order to meet with the educational demands.

4.6.3 Implications of gender equality goal for education policy making

The National and the State policies on education say education for all, so there shouldn’t be any gender inequality or discrimination. Equally, the Child Right Law says every that every child is entitled to education and the State aligns with this. The implication is that all policies, provisions and strategies put in place by the government must not be gender biased. According to the participants, the gender equality goal if not achieve can lead to agitations for women empowerment and rancour at home due to the neglect of one gender over the other, or even jeopardized the training of the children. A principal opined:

Education is what makes you a human being. If you're not educated, you're as good as dead. Education is not limited to academics alone or about schooling alone, it is the totality of an individual. And for you not to be educated means you're not part of the system, you're not part of the generation (PR1: 6th July, 2017).

Another participant explained that if every child is given equal opportunity to excel on a level platform it'll reduce incidents of demand for equality but promote healthy rivalry. Since no child will have more advantage than the other so it'll promote healthy rivalry. However, gender inequality in education will result in less participation of women in their contributions towards educational activities.

4.7 Discussions of key findings

Findings from the thematic analysis reflect that the Lagos State government has really put in place several policies, structures and strategies to reflect its commitment towards the gender equality goal in education. By providing education as a right to every child, the State has noted that the future of any country (or a State) is based on the level of quality education acquired by its citizens (Otomiewo, 2011) which will help to transform it from pre-literate to contemporary nationhood (Okoro, 2011). Equally, as Lagos State is attaining the status of a mega-city, the provision of free and quality education to the citizens on a non-discriminatory basis would help to strengthen its economic growth, productivity and advancement, and values and social cohesion (Orji, 2011). Also, the establishment of comprehensive policy frameworks to improve access to education especially for girls has been shown to help in closing the gender gaps in education attainment (Govinda, 2008).

As the main issue of the gender mainstreaming was the incorporation of a gender perspective into policies, programming and budgeting across ministries to ensure gender equality in education (Unterhalter et al., 2014), the State's provision of education on a non-discriminatory basis implied that the State has directed its education towards the full development of the human personality (Otomiewo, 2011). Education in the State can thus be said to have met the 4 A's adopted by the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in its General Comment 13 on the Right to Education (paragraph 6). That is, the government has made the education in Lagos State to be Available, Accessible, Acceptable and Adaptable. By making educational provisions for the challenged students as reflected in the available documents, the State has not only promoted education for all

but also education for all together (Kuo, 2012). That is, an inclusive learning environment has been provided in the State.

The EFA Goal 5, the gender equality goal, has key targets - parity at the primary and secondary education level to be achieved by 2005, and gender equality in education by 2015 with the focus on ensuring girls full and equal access to basic and quality education (UNESCO, 2016). Evidence from the available documents shows that the key target of parity at the primary and secondary education level has been relatively achieved in Lagos State. The results reflected in the aggregate enrolment figures of pupils in primary classes 1-6 from Table 4.5 indicate that generally there are even more girls in the various classes of public primary schools in the State. A similar trend was also observed in the enrolment of students at the junior and senior secondary schools with only a few exceptions from some LGAs. The gender parity indices across each level of education was shown to be above 1.0 an indication that Lagos State was able to reach the gender parity goal with regards to enrolment of boys and girls in school.

In fact if not for some LGAs with more boys' enrolment than those of girls at each level of education, the overall conclusion of reverse gender enrolment as observed in some countries like Gambia, Nepal and Senegal (EFA GMR, 2015) would have applied to Lagos State. Thus, in terms of enrolment rate, Wiseman's (2008) submission that girls are often still at a great disadvantage especially in developing countries and most especially in African countries does not hold with Lagos State. Equally, with regards to the supply side category of the factors impeding gender equality in education as identified by Anyanwu (2016) which include limited access to schooling and low female enrolment, amongst others, the result analysis has shown that this is not applicable to Lagos State because the State has various supply provisions towards gender equality in terms of availability and accessibility to education.

According to EFA GMR (2015), in as much as measuring the progress towards parity is important, it's not enough in assessing gender equality. There is still need for investigating the policies and practices put in place to address discriminatory social norms (for instance, through legislation), remove gender bias from inputs such as textbooks, improve education processes and tackle unsafe learning environments. Therefore, regarding the

second part of the EFA goal 5 i.e. gender equality in education by 2015 with focus on ensuring girls full and equal access to basic and quality education, the responses of the participants and evidence from available documents have also reflected governments' provisions towards this.

Guided by the Dakar Framework, encouraged government to set forth amongst others, strengthening its the capacity to monitor educational progress and improve the regulatory frameworks for the provision of education (EFA Nigeria, 2015:23). The Lagos State government has engage the employment of the necessary manpower to act in these capacities. This is reflected in the tables showing the number of teachers in the public schools and the trend analysis of public school teachers. Looking at the pupil-teacher ratio across each level of education, i.e. the primary, junior secondary and senior secondary levels, it could be observed that on the average these ratios are still within the recommended ratio of 1:45 for the State (Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:ii). However, there is still the need to address the challenge of equitable distribution of teachers in the sector for these results only indicated a reflection of the overall number of teacher per pupils and not were based on the number of subject teacher per pupils.

Equally, the results reflected that there are more female teachers than males across all the public schools. This could be taken as one of the reasons for girls' higher enrolment in schools as the presence of female teachers who usually serve as role models and send powerful messages to young girls to emulate has been identified as one of the major factors contributing to girls' success in school (UNESCO, 2012). Corroborating the impact of female teachers on education, research has also shown a strong correlation between the percentage of female teachers in primary schools and the gross enrolment ratios of girls at the secondary level (UNESCO, 2012).

The Dakar Framework also encouraged governments to engage the civil society in the policy making and monitoring process and equally decentralize the educational management in order to develop responsive participatory and accountable systems of educational governance and management (EFA Nigeria, 2015:23). Increasing the awareness of education's economic and sociocultural value to individuals, families, communities and societies at large has helped in promoting the importance of education

as a human right, especially for girls, and has increased the demand for schooling (EFA GMR, 2015; UNICEF, 2013a). The Lagos State government has also been able to achieve this by involving the educational stakeholders in the State in the policy formulation and monitoring process. The setting up of the SBMC, parents' forums, involvement of religious bodies, teachers' union and NGOs in schools' management and administration as reflected in the data analysis are evidence for this. Table 4.24 indicates that a very large percentage of schools in both rural and urban areas of the State has SBMC. This implies that SBMC is functional in most schools. Another evidence of the governments' commitment in ensuring the right to basic education is the provision of a comprehensive school development plan (Lagos State School Census Report, 2014:3) and provisions of facilities as reflected in section 4.3.3 of the analysis.

In as much as the State government has tried to provide quality education to the citizenry on a non-discriminatory basis, there are, however, some challenges faced in the achievement of this goal. The result analysis showed that on the part of the government there is still the challenge of inadequate provision of facilities. For instance, Table 4.24 and Figure 4.16 showed that most schools still shared facilities. Also Table 4.26 showed that 19% and 17% of the primary and junior secondary school classrooms respectively are not usable though only 3% are not useable at the senior secondary level while Tables 4.28 to 4.30 indicated that some of the LGAs still have classrooms without sufficient seating and good blackboards. The tables also showed that there are still some schools in the State where classes are held outside. Then there is also the problem of a dearth of data. For instance, there are no available data on out-of-school children in the State and dropout rates to establish the percentage of children that are actually enrolled in the schools.

Regarding sanitation facilities, the results equally revealed a low percentage of availability of pipe borne water supply in the primary and junior schools which is the safest source of water, while some schools are still without any source of water supply. Though most of the senior secondary schools have their water supply from either piped water or a borehole supply, some of the LGAs still have a higher percentage of schools without any source of water supply. The toilet facilities are not left out, with the ratio of students per

toilet still very high across all the LGAs as presented in Tables 4.34 to 4.36. This inadequate provision of sanitation especially for girls can sometimes act as an obstacle to their school attendance and education decisions based on the circumstance that adolescent girls are usually concerned over their privacy especially during menstruation (Adukia, 2014).

Another challenge encountered in the implementation of the gender equality goal is the societal norms and values placed on gender education. From the responses of the participants, though there has been an increase in the awareness and importance of girl-child education, engrained discriminatory societal norms still place more importance on the boys' education over that of the girls. The cultural/traditional beliefs of some of the parents, for instance, has been observed by the participants as part of the challenges in achieving the gender equality goal. This is in line with Bose's (2012) submission that apart from individual characteristics, such as absence of education, which may hinder the effective awareness about gender equality, the community norms and attitudes in the form of village or neighbourhood-level characteristics have also been shown to have an effect on ideas and practices.

Poverty is another major challenge observed by participants; it has been identified as one of the factors that deepens gender disparity in education (EFA GMR, 2015). Responses of the participants indicated that, due to the poverty level of some of the parents, some of the students are forced to assume adult status and become the breadwinners of their families. They are being forced to combine schooling with other forms of trade which often affects their performances at school. Then some of the girls get exposed to sexual activities with men at tender ages all in the hope of getting money from the men. Bose (2012) has equally opined that poverty sometimes influences the parents' decisions on sending their children to school. According to the author, parents sometimes base their decisions to send their children to school on economic gain, in expectation of a financial return in the future or by taking into account the relevance of education for the future of the children.

Then there is also the problem of poor educational attainment and dropout from school which usually reinforces disparity (EFA GMR, 2015) and influence the rate at which the

students abide by the school norms. The participants observed that when the students repeat classes, they lose focus most of the time and are not always serious with their studies. Then there is the problem of stigmatization of these students both within and outside the school. The resultant effect of this is that some of these students end up staying completely away from the school.

4.8 Summary

This chapter focused on the presentation and analysis of the data collected for the study. The data was gathered through multiple data collection sources of in-depth interviews and documents. The data obtained through these sources were thematically analysed. The analyses showed that the government has actually put in place policies and measures towards the achievement of the gender equality goal in the educational sectors. However, some challenges were observed both from the supply side (i.e. the government's provisions) and the demand side (i.e. the parents and the pupils).

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Introduction

The aim of the study was to examine the achievement of the gender equality goals under the international initiative of Education for All goals (EFA goals) in Lagos State, Nigeria. To achieve this, the study adopted a qualitative research approach. Specifically, both primary and secondary data were used to effectively answer the research questions that guide this study. Primary data were obtained through in-depth interviews of officers in the charge of the implementation of the educational policy frameworks in Lagos State, Nigeria. On the other hand, secondary data were sourced from Lagos State School Census Reports, Lagos State Policy on Education, Lagos State Policy on Inclusive Education, Child Rights Laws, among others. Importantly, both primary and secondary data were thematically analysed.

Before the presentation and analysis of data obtained, it is imperative to remind the readers of the key research questions that guide this study. These are:

1. In what ways do EFA goals attempt to address the issue of gender inequality in schools in Lagos state, Nigeria?
2. What are the challenges facing the implementation of the gender parity goal in Lagos state, Nigeria?
3. What are the implications of the gender parity goal for education policy making in Nigeria?

5.2 Summary of key findings

The findings of the study showed that the Lagos State Government has put in place a lot of laws, policies and measures to ensure that all children in the State get quality education. Some of the laws and policies are in line with international, regional and national normatives that recognize education as a right. The laws and policies include the Lagos State Policy on Education, Child Rights Law, Lagos State Safeguarding and Child Protection Policy, Universal Basic Education (UBE) Act, amongst others. These policies and measures were also established on a non-discriminatory basis for all the citizens

resident in the State. That is, irrespective of the gender, tribe, religion, race, or socio-economic status all children in Lagos State are entitled to a free, compulsory and qualitative education.

In ensuring accessibility and availability of education to the children, the findings of the study also revealed that the State has structures and facilities provided in the schools towards this target. These include the provision of classrooms, laboratories, libraries, E-libraries, computers, toilet facilities, water and other sanitation facilities amongst others. However, further analysis revealed that some of these facilities were grossly inadequate to cater for the seemingly high population of students in the State.

Also, this study found that there are challenges in the implementation of the gender equality goal in the State. These challenges include the cultural beliefs, poverty, religion, parental attitudes and the students' attitudes and values on education. Despite these challenges, the study found that the gender equality goal of education in terms of parity in enrolment between boys and girls has been relatively achieved in Lagos State, Nigeria.

5.3 Recommendations

In the light of the findings of this research work, and considering the mega-city status of Lagos State with a continually increasing population, the researcher recommends that the government should do the following:

5.3.1 Promoting positive values and attitudes towards education

In as much as the government has put in place some policies and measures in ensuring that every child has a right to education, there is still need to ensure that these laws and policies are being enforced and properly monitored. The government should follow the implementation of these policies with more actions. However, to achieve this, there should be more awareness and sensitization programmes for the populace on the economic and socio-cultural value of education to individuals, families, communities and societies. All the stakeholders should be adequately informed and aware of their rights and roles in ensuring education for all. No segment of the society must be left behind and the people should also be involved not only in the policy formulation but also with the monitoring and enforcement process. There should be a continuous and consistent grassroots mobilization towards the realization of the Education for All goals.

On their own part, the other stakeholders in the education sector which include parents, guardians, teachers, civil societies and the students should also be ready to work and cooperate with the government in executing established measures and policies of the government towards the attainment of education for all for the citizens. In essence, there is need for more commitment on the part of all stakeholders in education to bring about the achievement of education for all in the State.

5.3.2 Resourcing/expanding and improving of schools

Results of the findings revealed that most of the schools in the State share facilities which is an indication of the inadequacy of facilities. There still exist a shortage of facilities like classrooms, sufficient seating, well equipped laboratories, toilets and other resources in most of the schools. This shortage of resources do have negative effects on the teaching and learning process. Thus the government needs to address this issue in order to promote a comfortable and conducive learning environment that could help in nurturing the realization of the gender equality goal in education. The government should not only provide these facilities but equally ensure that the facilities are functioning and regularly put in proper use.

Also, there is need for adequate water, hygiene and toilet facilities in schools especially for girls in order to increase their attendance in school and to keep up with the Water Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) agenda that has been launched in the schools. Equally, there should be regular source of electricity supply to the schools in order to power facilities that require an energy source. Use of solar powered panels could be introduced or any other alternative source of power generation. Other facilities like e-libraries, computers, projectors, computer-linked interactive boards that allow the students on their own to interact online and teach themselves, and so on should also be made available to all schools across the State (and not just some few schools) in order to ease the teaching/learning process. The world is highly digitalized with advancement in technology which has affected every sector of life including the education sector. Therefore, education in Lagos State should not be left behind in this technologically advanced age.

There should also be the establishment of more schools to cater for the vulnerable groups. The Alternative High School for Girls, Agboju, happens to be the only school in

the State (and even in Nigeria as a whole) built by the government specifically to take care of the dropout and pregnant girls. The establishment of more such schools in the State will go a long way in closing the gender gap in education further and also help in ensuring that the dropout students are not totally left out of getting quality education. A similar type of school can also be established for boys who drop out of school for one reason or the other to also give them a second chance of getting educated. This measure will equally help in improving the literacy level of the State and the society at large, the resultant effect of which can bring about reduction in the level of poverty in the society.

5.3.3 Regular training and incentives for teachers

To enhance the quality of education given to the students, teachers should not just be employed to balance the teacher-pupil ratio in schools. Rather, there is need to recruit the best teacher-candidates in their specific areas of specialty. The teachers to be employed should be those who enjoy teaching and are committed to the profession, who can identify and support weak learners, and who are backed by well managed education systems. Then the government should expose the teachers to appropriate and regular capacity building training, deploy them to where they are needed most, and make adequate provisions and incentives available for them to make a long-term commitment to teaching.

Also, the teachers on their parts too should have a re-orientation and develop positive attitudinal changes towards their work. They should put value on the service and show more commitment to the work for they are actually moulding lives and most of the time the students see them as role models.

5.3.4 Encouraging public-private partnership in education

The government cannot be everywhere at every time so it should not be the only one to shoulder the provision of education alone. There is need for active participation and involvement of individuals, civil societies and corporate bodies in the running of the business of school and educational provisions of public schools. This is a welcome initiative in most schools globally and Lagos State should not be left out. The ‘Support our School’ initiative that was put in place by a previous administration in the State should be vigorously pursued and continuously employed in order to achieve the set goals and

targets of the government on education. There should also be some form of collaborations with other schools within and outside the country where ideas could be exchanged on programmes that would enhance the teaching and learning processes.

There could also be the reintroduction of levies at schools. Parents should be made to pay some tokens towards the education of their children for them to be more committed to the course and for them to appreciate/value the education process more. When the parents are made to have financial inputs in the training/education of the children, it will make them more committed. They will even be the ones ensuring that all other policies put in place by the government work. Then, there should be a policy discouraging students from learning a trade or being involved in a job while still in school, at least till the end of their secondary school education because the students' attention gets distracted from the school and the learning process once they start combining the two ventures. Some of them even end up placing more importance on the job/trade once they start earning the money instead of their education.

These forms of initiatives are highly important and necessary in Lagos State considering its mega-city status and the ever increasing population. The demands of the educational sector is equally increasing on a regular basis, thus the need to involve more partners in the running of the sector.

5.4 Contributions to knowledge

This study contributes significantly to policy formulation on promoting positive values and attitudes towards education through sensitization of the populace, resourcing and improving of school facilities, and encouraging public-private partnerships in education. The significance of this contribution lies in its ability to help in solving the global learning crises by ensuring the attainment of the gender equality goal of education within the local context of Lagos State. Also, the study contributes to the understanding of the peculiar challenges of the implementation of the Education for All (EFA) goals in Lagos State Nigeria. This understanding will assist the State to formulate an effective policy framework to actualize the fundamental objectives of the EFA goals in Lagos state, Nigeria.

Also, this study contributes to conceptual and theoretical discourses in education. In terms of theoretical contribution, the study generated new understanding on the

appropriateness of the social justice theory in education. For instance, while most studies on gender equality applied feminist theories as theoretical frameworks, this study applied the social justice theory as its framework. The justification for the application of social justice theory in this study lies in the fact that the formulation and implementation of the gender equality goal in education is embedded and influenced by the socio-political climate of a given country. Therefore, the social justice framework could serve as the benchmark for evaluating and assessing the effectiveness of the policies within a socio-cultural context. The social justice framework is an approach directed at correcting and resisting the unfairness and inequity in the society by promoting freedom and possibility for all. It focuses attention on how people, policies, practices, curricula, and institutions can be used for liberating rather than oppressing the least served by decision making.

Finally, this study contributes to the epistemology of education research. Put differently, this study makes significant methodological contributions to the contemporary education research approach. To the best of my knowledge, most of the available studies focused on the achievement of the EFA goals at the country level, i.e. on a broader scale. One major shortcoming of this approach is that it gives generalized or monolithic knowledge on the achievement of the EFA goals without accounting for country-level variations in EFA's achievement. However, this present research work focused on the achievement of one of the goals at the local level, i.e. within a country. This will give a better understanding of the variations of EFA's goals within specific socio-cultural contexts.

Also, most of the studies that have been carried out on gender equality used the quantitative method of data collection, especially to measure parity in the educational attainment between boys and girls. The major gap in the use of the quantitative method in this regard is that it only measures parity in terms of enrolment without providing broader socio-cultural contexts and factors that account for such a parity. In contrast, this study applied the qualitative method in gathering the data for the study. This addresses the highlighted gap in the excessive adoption of the quantitative research approach.

5.5 Limitations of the study

This research work was limited by the restricted sampling frame. The focus was on the personnel in some of the offices charged with the responsibilities of delivering on Nigeria's EFA commitment in Lagos State. The participants for this study were mainly officers who were directly involved in the implementation process. However, documents were also used as a means of data collection in order to limit the negative effect of the restricted sampling frame. There was also the challenge of nonchalant attitudes of the participants. Some of them were not ready to grant the interview session especially when they realized that it would be recorded. In order to address this limitation, the researcher tried to ensure that the level of saturation was reached during the data collection process. To avoid any doubt, official documents on provisions of education in Lagos State, Nigeria were equally used. The issue of funding was another limitation of this study considering the fact that the research field was in another country (Nigeria). The researcher was, however, able to counter this by soliciting for financial support from relevant stakeholders.

5.6 Conclusion of the study

This study examined the achievement of the gender equality goal, one of the Education for All goals, in Lagos State, Nigeria. The study employed multiple data collection sources to gather data from the officers in charge of the implementation of educational policies in the State and official documents. Based on the analysis of the data, the study found out that the State government has established policies and measures to provide qualitative education for all the citizens on a non-discriminatory basis. Thus, the goal of gender parity in terms of enrolment of boys and girls has been relatively achieved in the state. However, there are still some challenges of equality in the learning process and outcomes. The study therefore recommends that schools should be made to be as attractive and conducive as possible for all with no limitations on the educational attainment of any student. This could be achieved by promoting positive values and attitudes towards education. All the stakeholders in the education sector must be involved in the business of running the school. There should also be a form of resourcing and expansion of the school facilities through the public-private partnership in education.

The significance of this study lies in its contribution to policy, literature and methods. For instance, the study contributed to the understanding of the peculiar challenges of the

implementation of education policies in Lagos State which could influence the State's formulation of effective policy frameworks in the future. The study equally contributed to theoretical discourses in education by generating new understanding on the appropriateness of the social justice theory in education. Lastly, the study has shown that the focus of the achievement of gender equality in education should not only be on equality of access but should include equality in the learning process, in the educational outcomes and in external results.

5.7 Suggestion for further study

This research work focused mainly on the achievement of the gender equality goal under the EFA goals in Lagos State, Nigeria. This is goal 5 of the EFA goals and it's just only one out of the total six goals of the EFA. Although of relevance to this study were also goals 2 and 4 of the EFA goals, there is need to equally examine the achievement of the other goals of the EFA in Lagos State. This will help further in the formation and implementation of educational policies in the State to bring about qualitative educational provision and to achieve the global agenda of education for all. In addition, this study could be replicated in other states in Nigeria, especially in the northern region where the issue of gender parity in education is problematic due to socio-cultural factors.

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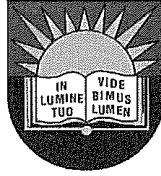
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Appendix 1: Ethical Clearance



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number: ADU131SADE01

Project title: **Examining the achievement of gender parity under education for all goals (EFA) in Lagos State, Nigeria.**

Nature of Project: PhD in Education

Principal Researcher: Adawi Adeola Adeleke

Supervisor: Prof E.O Adu

Co-supervisor: N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

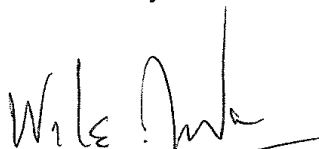
Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
 - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
 - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
 - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
 - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely


Professor Wilson Akpan
Acting Dean of Research

07 December 2016

Appendix 2: Language editing certificate

29 January, 2018

To whom it may concern

I hereby confirm that I have proofread the thesis “A qualitative assessment of the achievement of gender equality under education for all (EFA) goals: a study of Lagos State, Nigeria” by Adeleke Adawi Adeola (student number 201614131 from the University of Fort Hare, South Africa).

This proofreading is done in a systematic way using the Windows “Tracking” system to enable the author to accept or decline suggested corrections which indicate spelling, grammatical, syntactical, referential, spatial or typographical errors within the text. The author is responsible to use his own judgment when making the suggested changes if he feels the intended meaning has been compromised.

Lauren Wainwright

B.A. Languages and Literature

Academic Editor



☎ 084 224 5773 ✉ laurenwainwright@ymail.com

Appendix 3: Application for Interview in Education District 1

Adeleke Adawi Adeola

Faculty of Education

University of Fort Hare

East London Campus

21st June, 2017

The Tutor General/ Permanent Secretary

Education District 1

Dairy Farm Complex

Agege, Lagos

Dear Madam,



APPLICATION FOR THE CONDUCT OF INTERVIEW AND DATA COLLECTION

My name is Adawi Adeola Adeleke a currently registered PhD student of the above named institution with student no 201614131.

The title of my research work is THE ACHIEVEMENT OF GENDER EQUALITY UNDER EDUCATION FOR ALL (EFA) GOALS: A STUDY OF LAGOS STATE, NIGERIA. I would like to conduct interviews with officers from the district headquarter office and some principals in schools across the district.

I wish to assure you that the interview and data collection are purely for my academic research and all information will be treated as highly confidential while the interviewees will be treated as anonymous.

Hereby enclosed are the necessary fully signed and endorsed ethical clearance documents from my institution.

I look forward to your favourable consideration.

Yours faithfully,



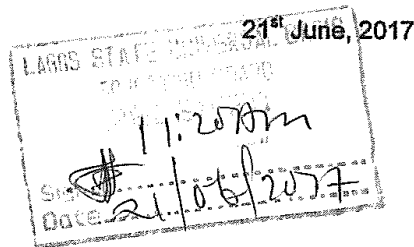
Adeleke Adawi Adeola

08060846778

Appendix 4: Application for Interview in Lagos State Universal Basic Education Board

Adeleke Adawi Adeola
Faculty of Education
University of Fort Hare
East London Campus

The Executive Chairman
State Universal Basic Education Board
Maryland Schools Complex
Maryland Ikeja,



Dear Sir/ Madam,

APPLICATION FOR THE CONDUCT OF INTERVIEW AND DATA COLLECTION

My name is Adawi Adeola Adeleke a currently registered PhD student of the above named institution with student no 201614131.

The title of my research work is THE ACHIEVEMENT OF GENDER EQUALITY UNDER EDUCATION FOR ALL (EFA) GOALS: A STUDY OF LAGOS STATE, NIGERIA. I would like to conduct interviews and collect data from your office as one of the institutions charged with the responsibilities of delivering on the EFA goals in Lagos State, Nigeria.

I wish to assure you that the interview and data collection are purely for my academic research and all information will be treated as highly confidential while the interviewees will be treated as anonymous.

Hereby enclosed are the necessary fully signed and endorsed ethical clearance documents from my institution.

I look forward to your favourable consideration.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "Adeleke".

Adeleke Adawi Adeola

08060846778

Appendix 5: Application for Interview in Lagos State Ministry of Education

Adeleke Adawi Adeola
Faculty of Education
University of Fort Hare
East London Campus
5th July, 2017

The Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Education
Block 5, The Secretariat
Alausa, Ikeja.



Dear Madam,

APPLICATION FOR THE CONDUCT OF INTERVIEW AND DATA COLLECTION

My name is Adawi Adeola Adeleke a currently registered PhD student of the above named institution with student no 201614131.

The title of my research work is THE ACHIEVEMENT OF GENDER EQUALITY UNDER EDUCATION FOR ALL (EFA) GOALS: A STUDY OF LAGOS STATE, NIGERIA. I would like to conduct interviews with the management staff of the ministry charged with the responsibility of policy implementation and monitoring and equally collect supporting data on enrolment rate, drop-out rate and retention rates in state public schools from your office as one of the institutions charged with the responsibilities of delivering on the EFA goals in Lagos State, Nigeria.

I wish to assure you that the interview and data collection are purely for my academic research and all information will be treated as highly confidential while the interviewees will be treated as anonymous.

Hereby enclosed are the necessary fully signed and endorsed ethical clearance documents from my institution.

I look forward to your favourable consideration.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read "Adeleke".

Adeleke Adawi Adeola

08060846778. adawi2308@gmail.com

Appendix 6: Approval from Lagos State Education District 1



LAGOS STATE GOVERNMENT

EDI/TG-PS/VOL.II/155

5th July, 2017

The Principal,
.....
.....
.....

APPROVAL TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH STUDY

The bearer: **ADAWI Adeola Adeleke**; a PhD Student of Faculty of Education, Univeristy of Fort Hare, East London Campus.

She is carrying out a research work on "The Achievement of Gender Equality Under Education for All (EFA) Goals! A study of Lagos State Nigeria.

I am directed to convey the approval of Tutor General/Permanent Secretary for her to conduct the research work in the Four (4) Schools on the attached list to this letter.

Kindly assist her in this regard.

Thank you.

Ojo, A. J.

for: Tutor-General/Permanent Secretary

EDUCATION DISTRICT I

Diary Farm Primary School Complex, Agege. E-mail: tgpsedudistrict 1@gmail.com Tel: 08158390600
Vision: To Produce Tomorrow's Leaders of Distinction in Knowledge, Skill and Character.
Mission: Providing the Citizen with Good Quality Education in Partnership with competent Teachers in a Conducive Teaching and Learning Environment.

Appendix 7: Approval from Lagos State Ministry of Education



LAGOS STATE GOVERNMENT

13th July, 2017.

Adawi Adeola Adeleke,
Faculty of Education,
University of Fort Hare,
East London Campus,
South Africa.

APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH.

Sequel to your application to conduct research work on '*the achievement of gender equality under education for all (EFA) goals: a case study of Lagos State Nigeria*', I am directed to convey the approval of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of education to conduct interview on the Management of staff of the Ministry in respect of policy implementation and monitoring, enrolment rate, drop-out rate and retention rate in the State Government schools.

2. Please note that you are required to furnish the Ministry with a copy of your findings and recommendations at the end of the research work.

3 Thank you.


Sofolahan C.A (Dr.)
For: Permanent Secretary.

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

The Secretariat, Block No. 5, Alausa-Ikeja, P.M.B. No. 2104311 Ikeja.

Website: www.lagosstate.gov.ng; lasgmoed.com

MISSION: TO PROVIDE HIGH QUALITY EDUCATION ACCESSIBLE TO ALL LEARNERS THROUGH EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT MANAGEMENT OF RESOURCES FOR THE ATTAINMENT OF SELF-RELIANCE AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Appendix 8: Letter of introduction for the conduct of interview

LAGOS STATE GOVERNMENT

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

LED/PPR&S/OI/34/414

13th July, 2017

TO :HEAD OF DEPARTMENTS/UNITS

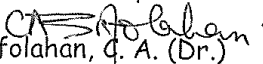
LETTER OF INTRODUCTION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH INTERVIEW AND COLLECT DATA FROM THE MINISTRY

I am directed to introduce to you Adawi Adeola Adeleke, a Ph.D student of Faculty of Education, University of Fort Hare, East London Campus, South Africa.

2. She has applied to the Permanent Secretary Ministry of Education for an approval to conduct an interview on the Management staff of the Ministry in respect of policy implementation and monitoring, enrolment rate, drop-out rate and retention rate in the State Government schools, in order to facilitate her research work entitled "THE ACHIEVEMENT OF GENDER EQUALITY UNDER EDUCATION FOR ALL (EFA) GOALS: A CASE STUDY OF LAGOS STATE NIGERIA"

4. Subsequently, she has been compelled to share with the Ministry, the findings and recommendations that are to be generated eventually for use in policy formulations. Kindly find attached the copy of the Ministry's approval for the conduct of the interview.

5. Please accept the utmost regards of the Permanent Secretary


Sofolahan, D. A. (Dr.)
For: Permanent Secretary

Appendix 9: Interview Guide

Research questions guiding the semi-structured interview of the study on “The Achievement of Gender Equality under the Education for All (EFA) Goals: A Study of Lagos State, Nigeria”

- What is your understanding of Education for All Goals concept in the Nigerian context?
- What are the provisions in the State’s policy that recognizes education as a right?
- How has the policy stipulate the right of access to education without discrimination?
- In what ways do EFA goals attempt to address the issue of gender inequality in schools especially in Lagos state?
- What educational opportunities are purposively created by the State government to enhance girls and women participation in education?
- What are the strategies and/or provisions for target groups (for example vulnerable groups including working and street children, girls, and dropouts) put in place by the state government?
- What are the policies put in place by the State to protect girls’ access to education by ensuring that third parties, including parents and employers, do not prevent girls from going to school?
- How has these policies been implemented and monitored for compliance by the affected parties?
- What are challenges from the stakeholders in education (parents, government, society, students) towards maintaining gender equality in education?
- What strategies (such as availability and accessibility, as well as water and sanitation) are put in place to improve girls’ attendance at school?
- What mechanism does the State has in consulting with the representatives of teachers, parents and students in the formation of educational policy, other than normal political institutions?
- What are the provisions put in place for the right of access to public educational institutions and programmes on a non-discrimination basis for students in the State?

Appendix 10: Participant's informed consent

NAME OF APPLICANT

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Ethics Research Confidentiality and Informed Consent Form

Please note:

This form is to be completed by the researcher(s) as well as by the interviewee before the commencement of the research. Copies of the signed form must be filed and kept on record

Our University of Fort Hare / Faculty of Education is asking people from your Institution/Office to answer some questions, which we hope will benefit your community and possibly other communities in the future.

The University of Fort Hare/ Faculty of Education/ Department of General and Continuous Education is conducting research regarding **The Achievement of Gender Equality under the Education For All (EFA) Goals: A Study of Lagos State, Nigeria**. We are interested in finding out more about the eradication of gender disparity in general and the achievement of gender equality under EFA goals in schools in the state. We are carrying out this research to help to identify the factor(s), if any, militating against the achievement of the goal in the state or if the state has met the targeted goal and the implication of the achievement of the goal for policy making.

Please understand that you are not being forced to take part in this study and the choice whether to participate or not is yours alone. However, we would really appreciate it if you do share your thoughts with us. If you choose not take part in answering these questions, you will not be affected in any way. If you agree to participate, you may stop me at any time and tell me that you don't want to go on with the interview. If you do this there will also be no penalties and you will NOT be prejudiced in ANY way. Confidentiality will be observed professionally.

I will not be recording your name anywhere on the interview guide and no one will be able to link you to the answers you give. Only the researchers will have access to the unlinked information. The information will remain confidential and there will be no "come-backs" from the answers you give.

The interview will last around (30) minutes. I will be asking you questions and ask that you are as open and honest as possible in answering these questions. Some questions may be of a personal and/or sensitive nature. I will be asking some questions that you may not have thought about before, and which also involve thinking about the past or the future. We know that you

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NAME OF APPLICANT

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cannot be absolutely certain about the answers to these questions but we ask that you try to think about these questions. When it comes to answering questions there are no right and wrong answers. When we ask questions about the future we are not interested in what you think the best thing would be to do, but what you think would actually happen.

If possible, our organisation would like to come back to this area once we have completed our study to inform you and your community of what the results are and discuss our findings and proposals around the research and what this means for people in this area.

INFORMED CONSENT

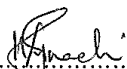
I hereby agree to participate in research regarding **The Achievement of Gender Equality under the Education For All (EFA) Goals: A Study of Lagos State, Nigeria**. I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview.

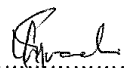
I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the interview guide, and that my answers will remain confidential.

I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.


.....
Signature of participant

Date: 6/7/17.....

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study


.....
Signature of participant

Date: 6/7/17.....

NAME OF APPLICANT

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Signature of participant

Date: 6/7/17

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study


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Date: 6/7/17

Document approved by UREC: 11 August 2011, V01