Public Expenditure, Management And Administration In Nigeria Tertiary Institutions: The Need For A Revisit

BY

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Abstract

The Nigeria fiscal system evolved and operated on principles that negated the main features of public expenditure management which include among others allocation, efficiency and equity, guided by the principles of needs, equity, stability and national interest, the Nigeria tertiary institution seem to be in perpetual traumas. Tertiary education in Nigeria is faced with a lot of challenges ranging from the historical factors of the misappropriation of funds caused by the high level of corruption and embezzlement in conjunction with the lackadaisical attitude of government officials towards the growth of the sector. This study call for a revisit on the management and administration of public funds allocated to the tertiary institutions. The study is a qualitative research and based on secondary data. The pieces of information gleaned from the foregoing sources are weighed in relation to the topic using both deductive and inductive reasoning. It was recommended that there should be a legal procedures for administrative and other restrictions on the expenditure of public resources that enhance
transparency, accountability, fairness and objectivity.

**Keywords:** Education, Administration, Funds, Management, Institution, Tertiary, Public.

**I  Introduction**

All great tertiary institution of learning are centres of disagreements, of disputations and continuous polemics. Sometimes disagreements between schools of thought could be strident. And therein lies the excitement because each side can prove its stance only through superior evidence or logic. Scholarly disputation may even be bitter, but there is a clear line between disagreement and anarchy. Facts, superior facts, not violence are the weapons of the scholar.

It has been noted that the higher education in Nigeria was bedeviled with academic, social-economic and political problems. As a result of these teething problems, the Higher Education Administration were faced with series of threats and opportunities in form of challenges in order to achieve their goals and objectives. The fact still remains that the funding and the amount of control exercised by the government over the Tertiary Institutions in Nigeria was colossal and will probably remain like that for some time.

Adeyemi and Aviomoh (2004) therefore, observed that the Nigerian fiscal system evolved and operated on principles that negated the main features of public expenditure management, which include among others allocation, efficiency and equity guided by the principles of needs, equity, stability and national interest.

Fadipe (2000) equally argued that, the budget systems were designed to support systems of accountability based on administrative structures: funds are allocated to ministries who, in turn, allocated funds to subordinate, institutions and departments. This provides little information on the spending, particularly where allocations are consolidated and controlled at ministry level, or several agencies are involved in the delivery of a particular service. This structure tends to obscure analysis of the economic impact of expenditures, particularly as regards recurrent and capital expenditures and transfers.
In its contribution, Cruise (2009) noted that Nigeria’s PEM is structured after oil income such that in periods of boom, expenditure is ratcheted up while periods of lower oil prices becomes one of crisis. Other problems of PEM in Nigeria include inefficiency in resource use, waste and misplaced priorities in government expenditure, high fiscal deficits at all tiers of government, weak institutional structure, a fiscal federal structure that places little or no premium on inter-temporal fiscal solvency, and poor institutional mechanism for regulating actions of the different tiers of government and their agencies. These have led to high debt burden, huge recurrent expenditure burdens, inefficient delivery of services and distortion in the incentive structure for both the private and public sectors.

Apparent lack of political will and commitment to abide by stipulated rules and budget guidelines, inability to develop a macro-economic framework for budget formulation, role ambiguities among various government agencies concerned with PEM, lack of coordination between the office of the Accountant General of the Federation (AGF) and the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), slow budget process fraught with errors, among other things (Akinwumiju and Agabi, 2008). Ukeje (2002) on its part noted that, Nigeria has pursued a long term expenditure management framework.

Gowon and Obasanjo regimes pursued nine years development plan, Babangida embarked on ten years SAP programme while Abacha a fifteen years vision 2010 programme. Against this background, the President Olusegun Obasanjo led government to embarked on Public Expenditure Management reforms in 2003. Ukeje (2002) noted that this new PEM pursued medium term expenditure management framework that emphasized diversification of the economy, private led economic growth, performance budgeting, and highlights the asymmetry of the economic activities and the contribution to GDP and the closure of supply and efficient gap in the economy. Due process came to characterize or to be the guiding philosophy of the new reforms. As Okeke (2001) noted, this is a departure from the past PEM practices.
and underpins the priority efforts of the government to enthrone transparency, accountability, efficiency and effectiveness in both public financial management and resources governance.

II Statement of the Problem

Today, every serious society treat its institutions of learning like true shrines of knowledge. They are not and cannot be insulated from politics. They debate politics and policies and individuals scholars freely take sides. But no serious political elite turn their tertiary institution of learning into centre for the pursuit of dubious and mundane partisan interests.

In our clime, the Nigeria tertiary institutions seem to be in perpetual traumas. They are denied requisite facilities because the governing elites see them as unnecessary distractions from other priorities, especially national defence, peace and stability. The little gains of the 60s and the 70s were decimated in the last decade. Suddenly, the tertiary institutions became glorified day secondary schools were virtually everything is lacking: inadequate classrooms, antiquated libraries, empty laboratories, congested hostels, broken sewage systems, absence of catering services, epileptic power and water supply, collapsed transport services, absence of research grants. The list of woes is endless.

Tertiary education in Nigeria is also faced with a lot of challenges ranging from the historical factors of the misappropriation of funds caused by the high level of corruption and embezzlement in conjunction with the lackadaisical attitude of government officials towards the growth of the sector. This study therefore call for a revisit on the management and administration of public funds allocated to these institutions.

III Research Methodology

The study is a qualitative research and based on secondary data. It examines public expenditure management and administration with emphasis on Nigerian tertiary institution of learning. The study employed exploratory research design. And important books, published and electronic materials; journals, seminar papers, empirical studies and other mimeograph related to the study were used. The pieces of information gleaned from the foregoing sources are weighed in relation to the topic using both
deductive and inductive reasoning to arrive at conclusion and recommendations.

IV Literature Review

Education

According to Bernard (1999), education focused on learning which strengthens the capacities of children to act progressively on their own behalf through the acquisition of relevant knowledge, useful skills and appropriate attitudes; and which creates for children, and helps them create for themselves and others, places and safety, security and healthy interaction. It is clear that education brings sustainability to all developmental efforts (UNESCO, 2013). It therefore means that investing in education is the best way to curb poverty and to sustain development. According to UNESCO (2013), in broad terms education for all (EFA) goal is to be sustained, and the education-related MDGs call for every citizen to be empowered with the necessary knowledge, skills and values to lead a fulfilled and productive life. Recent research shows that the impact of human capital and education on economic growth in world indicators countries may be even stronger if education is emphasized on. Education is one of the emphasis on Umar Yar Adua’s seven points agenda.

Development can be actualized through the success education has made in our nation in other hand lack of formal education can also lead to un-development and poverty of a society. It therefore means that without education, both human life and society are meaningless (Oketch and Somerest, 2010).

Corruption and Public Investments

Fewer studies have examined different types of public expenditure. Cruise (2009) develop a theoretical model of the channels through which corruption affects the composition of public spending: Sectors in which public outlays are capital-intensive, and therefore offer greater opportunities to solicit and give bribes, such as infrastructure spending, are said to have relatively more efficient corruption technologies. Political institutions and systems can further vary in the power that they allow corruption to be practiced. Considering different regimes, depending on how prone public investments are to corruption and on the influence have on public decision makers, corruption can exercise different, in fact opposite, effects on the composition of public spending.
Cruise (2009) find this corroborated in cross-country analysis. In poor countries, greater susceptibility to corruption increases the share of spending on capital-intensive public investments and reduces the share of social sector spending. That is, with a greater concentration of power for elements in poorer countries, an increase in overall corruption technologies leads policymakers to undertake those investments that indeed lend themselves better to actual corruptive practices. The reverse is the case in higher-income countries: An increase in corruption possibilities leads policymakers, concerned with the public good, to narrow the scope for actual corruption by investing relatively more in those sectors, such as health and education that do not benefit rent-seekers as much as capital investments do.

Other more empirically driven cross-country panel analyses point to expenditure composition implications that are consistent with this model of expenditure decisions in the face of corruption or corruption possibilities, Haque, (2003) determine that measures of poorer political governance, proxies by governance indexes drawn from the International Country Risk Guide (ICRG) and the Database of Political Institutions, increase aggregate public investments. Other studies focus on one type of sectoral spending, but one that is highly capital intensive, and come to similar conclusions. For example, Schick, (2006) find that lower governance quality and higher corruption potential, measured by the ICRG index and an index by Transparency International, lead to higher military spending. Stephen, (2002), in contrast, focuses on social sector expenditures as a form of spending with low infrastructure and capital content and finds that greater probabilities of corruption (captured by the ICRG index here as well) reduce expenditures in the health and education sectors. Ogbonna (2001) focuses more explicitly on a range of expenditures, analyzed in a joint empirical framework. This study finds that higher levels of corruption, as represented by a World Bank corruption indicator, reduce public spending on health, education, and social protection.

Factors that have influenced education over the years

Historical Factors
According to Gafar and Akambi (2009), every community in Nigeria had its traditional patterns of education that ensured socialization and inter-generational transmission of cultural heritage. With the coming of Islam, parts of the country assimilated Islamic education into the indigenous system. The islamised sections of the country in fact developed highly sophisticated and organized literary civilizations. According to him, Western education began as an offshoot of Christian missionary efforts, and therefore was slow in penetrating into the areas of strong Islamic influence, while areas with strong Christian influence readily embraced the new form of Education. This historical incident has had the effect of polarizing the country in educational terms, giving rise to the well-documented and well-orchestrated phenomenon of educational imbalance. The phenomenon has remained an intractable challenge to educational development in the country.

**Economic Factors**

According to Bernard (1999), the fluctuations that the Nigerian economy has suffered over the years have also largely affected the country’s educational development. During the years of the oil boom, centralization was introduced into the country’s education policies and very ambitious expansion programs were embarked upon by government with the objective of increasing access to all levels of education. The apparent wealth of the era (an annual GDP of 6.2 %), although mostly (90%) accounted for by oil, impacted positively on the education system with government virtually intervening in all aspects of education delivery thus visibly increasing inputs into the system. Okeke (2001) added, at the end of the oil boom in the 1970s, government income diminished, at the same time as the incidence of poverty at the household level in both urban and rural areas increased. This in its turn has impacted negatively on access to basic service, and particularly on Education. Increased household poverty in turn, led to low and declining school enrolment. Parents were unable to bear the direct and indirect costs of sending their children and wards to school. The Structural Adjustment programme (SAP) which emphasized macro-economic
stability with little thought for the social dimensions of adjustment, introduced economic gains that made very little dent on the population of persons below the absolute poverty line (of less than $1 a day) the number of which increased from 12% to 14% between 1985 and 1992. The pool of out-of-school children and youth increased at this time, and more children were used to fetch needed extra cash for the family.

**Sociological Factors**

According to Ajayi and Ayodele (2004) the factors referred to as sociological deal with the rising social demand for education leading to more private participation in education delivery. As government investment in education dwindled and infrastructure became more dilapidated, greater patronage was recorded among private providers of education. The situation was the same across all levels of education. An additional dimension was the unemployment situation that indirectly increased the demand for higher education. Although empirical sources do not exist to establish this link, it does appear that graduates quickly enrolled for higher degrees since the alternative was unemployment and idleness.

Akubue (2001) added that, the rising demand for higher education in turn led to the establishment of satellite campuses that were the direct response from the universities to public demand for higher education. Other modernizing trends such as the introduction of various remedial programs in higher institutions including teacher training colleges, integration of western and Islamiyya schools, and increased private participation in education provision at all levels, depict a trend of increased civil society demand for education.

**Political Factors**

According to Akubue (2001), centralization of educational administration in the country began with the government takeover of schools between 1970 and 1985. Although differently applied across states, the 1976 introduction of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) by the federal government ended the differential education programs in the regions. Technical and Teacher’s Colleges were equally taken over by government in the 1970s while in 1975 the
Federal Military Government decided to take over all the universities in Nigeria. The subsequent ban on establishment of private universities by state governments, voluntary agencies or private persons was lifted by the democratic dispensation and the 1979 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

As a result of this development, about 12 state universities were opened between 1980 and 1999 mostly in the south. Between 1977 and 1999 however, private universities were banned and un-banned twice (1977, 1984) (1979, 1999) respectively by military and civilian governments. These interventions also exposed the gaps created over the years between the north and the south. The Ashby report diagnosis of the needs of Nigeria in higher education for instance revealed that only 9% of primary school age children in the North were enrolled in school as compared with over 80% of children of similar age in the south (east and west). It was also revealed that only 4000 students were enrolled in secondary school in the north as against 40,000 in the south. This imbalance called for some political engineering to remedy.

**Geographical Factors**

Ajayi and Ayodele (2004), With a population of over 88 million, a surface area of 923,764 square kilometer and languages (about 350), Nigeria is indeed a vast country. This reality introduces complexities to the delivery of social services and infrastructure. People still essentially tied to the land think in terms of ethnic groupings and primordial loyalties thus leading to strong demands for evenness of spread in establishment and locations of educational services. This law of even spread was applied to the establishment of the first set of Federal secondary schools, higher education institutions, and has continued to inform the establishment of education facilities.

**International Influences**

The case for improved access to education has benefited from international attention and concerns over the years. The Jomtien 1990 Declaration and Framework for Action (1990) and the Dakar EFA Declaration of April 2000 have influenced the orientation of Nigeria’s UBE (Universal Basic
Education) programme, as well as the on-going EFA planning exercise.

Other international conferences held during the 1990 decade: the Ouagadougou pan-African conference on girls’ education (1993), the world conferences on higher education (1998), and technical/vocational education (1999) have all had their impacts on educational development in the country, and have particularly enabled Nigeria to network with other nations. The same can be said of Nigeria’s involvement in the work of ADEA (Association for the Development of Education in Africa), and its participation in successive MINEDAF conferences of UNESCO.

**Challenges of Federalism and Education**

According to Ajayi and Ayodele (2004), Nigeria is a federation of 36 States and a Federal Capital Territory (FCT). Each State is made up of a number of Local Government Areas (LGAs), decided by its population and other considerations. By 2005, there are 774 constitutionally recognized LGAs, each governed by a Local Government. According to Akubue (2001) added that, the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria defines for each of the three tiers of government, Federal, State and Local Government, a set of functions and services; it is expected to perform with respect to governance. But the constitution also identified a number of services it describes as concurrent as opposed to exclusive list for federal and state governments. Education is one of those services on the concurrent list.

By this, it is meant that both the federal and state governments can provide education services. The constitution also provides that her authorities can “participate “in the delivery of education services at the discretion of the states. “The thinking behind the 1999 constitution was that in the concurrent functional areas, the federal government only provides policy direction, determine norms and standard and monitor achievement, it will leave implementation in the hands of the states. According to Okeke (2007), Federal government will let each state determine the nature and extent of the involvement of the Local Government authorities in the delivery of services” in the concurrent list. It was also understood from historical antecedents that the federal government would concentrate on the
provision of the tertiary/higher education which unit cost is higher; the state government was to provide mainly secondary education and the local government, primary and pre-primary education.

In practice however, both federal and state government have worked against the spirit of the 1999 constitutional provisions. Okeke (2007), Federal government, State governments, and to some extent Local governments have established and managed all levels of education – pre-primary, primary, secondary, tertiary and even non-formal education centres within the same state. With every level, of government, backed by its own laws and policies, often promulgated with little or no regards to other levels doing essentially the same thing, if means certain roles and functions, such as school monitoring and inspection are over done while others, such as staff development and training as well as curriculum development are neglected. In summary, federation in Nigeria has enabled roles and functions for the delivery of education to be excessively fragmented, reducing the level of interest and responsibility in some essential functions and paying little attention to others.

According to Emetarom (2001), the political instability in governance and the fluctuations in economic fortunes have introduced instability in the way education has been managed. The incision of military administration with its command structure introduced National Primary Education commission to manage and fund primary education, effectively taking over the responsibility of other tiers of government. In a Supreme Court ruling in 2002, following inception of the democratic form of government since independence, the roles of federal and states governments had to be redefined.

Fafunwa (2004) opined that, the critical factor of social services delivery is availability of funds, Funds for all three tiers of government are sourced largely from a pooled account, called the Federation Account which is sourced mainly from federal taxes (especially oil and gas) and duties in importation, Revenue from the Federation Account provide about 90 percent of federal government revenue and over 80 percent of state and Local
Government revenue. Once the praxis is streamlined, clarity and stability is brought into the sector, a sector-wide approach to planning and management of educational services would appear ripe.

According to Federal Ministry of Education (FEM 2009), the amount of money accruing to each level of government for its delivery of social services, including education has changed and has been contentions over the years. Similarly, expenditure on education by each of the three tiers of government has depended on the vagaries of accruing revenue. There is no reliable information on the total annual expenditure on education by each tier of government in the last 40 years. The dearth of reliable records of expenditure, especially at the state level and the multiplicity of accounting system across 36 states would make nonsense of any effort at collecting, collating and analyzing financial records. A World Bank status report using estimates reveal fiscal imbalances vertically among the tiers of government and horizontally among pre-primary, primary, secondary, tertiary and non-formal education.

Resource Wastage in the Nigerian Public School System

Various studies have established that even with shortages in the provision of educational resources, the education system in Nigeria records enormous resource wastage, especially in the areas of human resources and technical science education equipment. Most of these wastages occur as a result of over-utilization while others can be attributed to under-utilization.

Asuka and Paulley (2008) examined the teaching of vocational, prevocational, introductory technology, science, and technical subjects in the 6-3-3-4 system of education in Nigeria’s Cross River State. Their study focused on the availability of workshop equipment and manpower. Fifty three teachers were randomly sampled as respondents to a twenty-item questionnaire. The results of their data analysis revealed a minimum teacher-pupil ratio of 1:262 and a maximum of 1:772 (in cases where every student in the school was offered science and technology subjects). The study also showed that in 33.3% of the cases, workshop equipment was either
unavailable or grossly inadequate, while 2.56% had equipment that was not installed. The study identified the causes of these inadequacies as poor funding; manpower shortage and wastage from over-utilization; and facility wastage from over-utilization due to resource inadequacies. They concluded that poor workshop equipment and the inadequacy of allied facilities constitute major constraints in the teaching of science and technology based-subjects in Nigerian schools.

Ebong and Agabi (2009), in a similar study, examined the level of wastage in manpower utilization in the Cross Rivers State. Fifty three schools were randomly sampled in two of three state education zones. The data analysis revealed a gross wastage of teachers through over-utilization due to an overall shortage of teachers in the school system. The nature of the wastage was attributed to work overload in the form of excess teaching periods, high pupil teacher ratios and the assignment of work not related to areas of professional training. Their results did not show significant differences between schools in rural and urban areas. The analysis of Ebong and Agabi’s (2009) is supported by the work of Jones and Wildavsky (2010), which established that teachers’ experience and qualifications had potent impacts on their job performance. They concluded that an experienced and widely trained teacher performs better than a less experienced teacher with a lower level of training.

Wastage of educational resources in Nigerian schools is further discussed by Akpotu (2008) from the perspective of classroom utilization. In a study of classrooms in Delta State secondary schools, Akpotu revealed that classrooms were considerably inadequate in both urban and rural areas and that there was an excess supply of teachers in the secondary school system. Akpotu’s study revealed a teacher-student ratio of 18 for the state, 15 for urban areas, 24 for riverine areas and 28 for rural areas. It also showed an average of 4.3 teachers per class in urban areas, 1.2 in riverine areas, 2.7 in rural areas and 3.4 teachers per class in the state as a whole. The relatively normal classroom situation in the riverine areas was attributed to the community development efforts of multinational oil prospecting companies that
engage in constructing school facilities for host communities. Akpotu (2008) recommended that the practice of two schools (e.g., I and school II) operating on the same premises should be abolished, and that more schools should be constructed to accommodate the growing number of learners and to provide adequate work for the excess supply of teachers already in state employment.

The works reviewed in this paper show that the Nigerian government has yet to strike a balance in the distribution and utilization of educational resources, even in the face of rising inflation, and a general reduction in the level of statutory fiscal allocations to education by federal powers. The importance of prudence in the management of education cannot be over emphasized, especially given visible government indifference to the welfare of Nigeria’s education sector.

Budgetary Control and Performance
According to Abuh and Aliyu (2013), in the budget administration, a committee is usually constituted and will consist of management staff or most senior officer who will present the major segments of the organization. The officer is to ensure that the components of the entire budget are realistically established and satisfactory coordinated. Usually the functional heads of an organization will be responsible for the preparation and presentation of their budgets taken into consideration the budget manual and or circular to that effect. The committee will review the functional budgets accordingly and where necessary call for defense for appropriate corrections before receiving approval. The purpose of the review is not only for approval, but more importantly to ensure that the budget is adequately implemented to achieve its determined goal. Budget performance therefore depends on the extent of implementation.

Pettigjohn and Grizzle (2008) state that a budget is derived from the French word “Budgette” which means a leather bag or a wallet. It is a statement of the financial plan of the government. It shows the income and expenditure of the government during a financial year. Okojie (2008) defined budget as a plan of dominant individuals in an organization expressed in monetary terms and subject to the constraints
imposed by the participants and the environments indicating how the available resources may be utilized to achieve whatever the dominant individuals agreed to be on the organization’s priorities. The impressive thing about this definition is that, it recognizes the constraint imposed on budget by others who are to ensure that the objectives and targets enunciated in the budget are achieved. (Martin 2005) opines that the budget had grown beyond a financial tool. It is above all managerial tools. It is the best tool for making sure that key resources especially performance resources are assigned to priorities and to results.

It is a tool that enables the managers to know when to review and revise plans either because results are different from expectation or due to environment economic contributions, market contribution or technologies changes which no longer correspond to the assumptions of the budget. Martin emphasized that budget should be used as a tool for planning and control. According to Jones and Wildavsky (2010), budget control involved the making of decisions based on relevant information which leads to plans and action that improve the utilization of the productive assets and services available to organization management. Effective control is said to be based on standards with which actual performance can be compared.

Government budget is the budget that is used in reference to the statements, needs and resources as presented to the parliament for debate and approval for use in running government operations and meeting other needs. According to Abdullahi (2011), the types of budgets include Line Item or Traditional Budgeting, performance budgeting and Zero based budgeting (ZBB).

Line Item or Traditional budgeting requires little data and analysis and relies heavily on opinion, judgment and historical precedent. Also Activities which are released in terms of objectives are budgeted for separately. Oseni (2010) describe performance budgeting as a classification that emphasizes the things which government does; rather than the things which government buys. Elsewhere he defines performance budget as one which represents the purposes and objectives for which funds are requested, costs of the programs proposed for
achieving these objectives and the quantitative data for measuring the accomplishments and work performed under each programme. *Zero based budgeting* (ZBB) has been described as the justification of budgets from base zero to the scratch. This constitutes what advocates of ZBB describe as being incremented. It subjects existing or current programs and activities to the same kind analysis and justification usually reserved for new programme.

According to (Bammeke 2008, Adams 2009, and Abdullahi 2011), the budget preparation and presentation, setting up committee, reviewing the budget for compliance and amendment, then implementation, monitoring and control activities are to ensure that realistic performance is achieved within the budget period. Measuring budget performance in the government tertiary institutions mainly entails setting of realistic standards, implementing and monitoring, comparing the actual achievements with predetermined objectives and controls for any variance that may occur. According to Abdullahi (2011), the stages of budget preparation will include among others: determining the limiting factors, negotiation of budget with those responsible for the implementation and superior officers and coordination and review of functional budgets. The inclusion of these factors becomes obvious in order to ensure that the budget performance is satisfactory. Another obvious defect is the inability of the system to define actual performance in year under review.

In spite of these logical procedures in the process of preparing, presentation and implementation of the incremental budgeting system, its acceptability and mainly performance are not satisfactory (Bammeke, 2008; Adams, 2009 and Abdullahi, 2011). The reservation is that, adequate attention is not given to the budgeting system in terms of performance.

Besides, the same monotonous process is always adopted every year without taken notice whether or not the method is providing satisfactory results. In the Nigerian tertiary institutions, the only commonest approach used in preparing budget is incremental budgeting (IB). As the name implies, it is a method where the previous year budget figures will be reviewed, usually upward to accommodate
any expected increase in the following year’s budget. For this approach, the only source for preparing the budget is the use of preceding year’s budget figures taken little or no consideration of other determining factors; not even with the current or previous two years’ actual financial achievement/figures because hardly they will be available. Usually the Nigerian tertiary institutions audited accounts will not be ready until after three to four years after the end of the institutions’ financial years.

The Dearth of University Funding
Funding is central to unhindered access to university education. As it has been found that virtually all the problems of universities in Nigeria are attributable to inadequate funding (Ajayi and Adeniji 2009). As Okebukola (2005) rightly observed, the depressed quality of education in Nigeria has been explained in part by the inadequate funding of the system. As all stakeholders in the education sector have listed funding inadequacy as a problem. Despite the recommendation of UNESCO of 26% of national expenditure must be devoted to education, a closer look at Nigeria’s expenditure on education reveals that Nigerian government expends between 4% and 16% annually on education. The Figure below gives a graphical presentation of expenditure on education. The implication of this poor public financing of education is the fact that it inhibits access to education, thus, giving only an insignificant number of candidates seeking admission opportunity to pursue degrees in the Nigerian University system. This may be the reason why research often indicates that school enrolment, completion, drop out from school are products of lack of finance.
Figure: Government Funding of Tertiary Institutions (1996 – 2010)
Infrastructural Development in Tertiary Institution

Educational infrastructure plays a major role in the development of tertiary institutions. It has great effect on both students and lecturers. This was asserted by Lau (2007). He indicated that, educational infrastructures such as information technology infrastructure, laboratories, classrooms, hostel, clearances, bookstore, security, restaurants and sport facilities among others are crucial to the development of educational institutions. Students who enjoy good quality learning environment and good infrastructure like laboratories and good classrooms have higher average scores (Curveys, Weerd, Dupont, Molsand Nuytten, n. d.). Afar, Ijaiya and Akanbi (2009) also opined that, infrastructural facilities like good laboratories, electricity and so on are influential in the development of education in Nigeria.

Fafunwa (2004) conducted studies on measure effects on roads and other facilities investments by rural and urban. From their results road development, together with agricultural research and development, electricity, and telecommunication has significant contribution to economic growth, poverty reduction and educational development. In the same vein, Oketch and Somerest, (2010) investigated the need of creating a national infrastructural bank. They intimated that, planning council, accountability and good judgment must be maintained in the allocation process. In the same vein Norton and Elson, (2002) in the study of infrastructure opportunity: repair building and stimulate, discovered that, over the next 20 years, a total of $ 41 trillion will be needed to build new infrastructure in emerging markets and economies and repair ailing infrastructure in developed markets. In the short run, governments are accelerating spending on infrastructure to address the impact of slower economic growth. From the results it was also discovered that, investing in infrastructure securities offer an easy way for investors to gain access to the growing investment opportunity and education. Begg, Fischer and Dornbusch (2004), scrutinized infrastructural development and economic growth in China and discovered that infrastructural stock, labour force, public and private investment have played
an important role in economic development in China. The results revealed that infrastructural development in China has significant influence to growth than private and public investment. There is also a unidirectional causality from infrastructural development to output growth justifying China’s high spending on infrastructural development since the early nineties. Countries are therefore supposed to develop or design economic policy that improves the physical infrastructure as well as human capital for sustainable economic growth especially in the Sub-Saharan Africa’s countries. Therefore, educational infrastructure must be catered for in the government budgets. Harisson (2007) looked at the need of quality assurance in tertiary educational infrastructure. The research found that quality assurance practices in tertiary educational infrastructure vary among countries, though there are some common elements that apply in most countries. In Nigeria, budget implementation has been a major issue of concern. The issue of poor implementation has constrained achievement of most spelt-out development goals and objectives. Mike Obadan (n. d.). In past decade, rate of capital budget implementation has varied widely. Among the years 2002-2003, 2004-2005 and 2008, government gave fifty percent (50%), average of ninety-two percent (92%), almost forty-four percent (43.9%) respectively. Also, cash backing was best in 2007: 36 or 80% of MDAs received 100% or more of their capital budgets. In 2008, only eight (8) MDAs or twenty-two percent (22%) received100% cash-backing. However, twenty-three (23) or sixty-four percent (64%) of MDAs received 100% or more of their capital budgets. The year 2008 also witnessed the highest variance between the amount cash-backed and budget provision.
Cash Backing in Relation to Capital Budget

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<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
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<tr>
<td>MDAs that received less than 100% of budget as cash-backing</td>
<td>14 (30.4%)</td>
<td>9 (20.0%)</td>
<td>10 (27.8%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDAs that received 100% of budget as cash-backing</td>
<td>27 (58.7%)</td>
<td>31 (68.9%)</td>
<td>8 (22.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDAs that received more than 100% of budget as cash-backing</td>
<td>3 (6.5%)</td>
<td>5 (11.1%)</td>
<td>15 (41.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDAs that received 100% and more of budget as cash-backing</td>
<td>30 (65.2%)</td>
<td>36 (80.0%)</td>
<td>23 (63.9%)</td>
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Source: Mike (n.d., p.19).

Figures in brackets are the percentages of MDAs while the other figures are numbers of MDAs.

The question is, ‘how much public and private funding should a country devote to higher education?’ The proportion of national wealth spent on higher education from the public and private purse respectively is a great issue. This indicates what a country is prepared to invest in its higher education system. In the yearly Education at Glance publications, the indicators B2.2 and B2.4 are devoted to ‘Expenditure on educational institutions as a percentage of GDP’, showing the resources from public and private sources allocated to Tertiary Education.1 Quoting from the most recent Education at a Glance 2009 publication: We now turn to the public funding of higher education providers and the mechanisms (the ‘funding models’) that are used by the public authorities for determining the budgets that are distributed to the universities and colleges in the higher education system.
## Summary of Empirical review

<table>
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<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Author(s)</th>
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<th>Major Findings</th>
<th>Gaps in Literature</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Oseni Michael (2012)</td>
<td>Igeria</td>
<td>Adequacy of Budgetary Allocation to Educational Institution in Nigeria.</td>
<td>It was concluded that Education Sector has never used 26% of Budget as it is supposed to be used.</td>
<td>The research was not directed to tertiary education and also only secondary data was used.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Ibrahim A.M., Usman B.U. and Bagudu M.W. (2013)</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Employee Turnover and its Effects on Organisational Productivity of State owned Institutions in Niger state.</td>
<td>It was found that, most employees leave for other institution because of inequity in pay (salary). Also the attitude and management leadership style towards promotion and advancement constitute the major reason why they leave state owned institutions.</td>
<td>The research focused on only state owned institutions and not on federal government schools that are being funded by federal government.</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Ejiogu, Ihugba and Nwosu (2013)</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Causal Relationship between Nigerian Government Budget Allocation to the Education Sector and Economic Growth (from 1981-2011)</td>
<td>The study revealed that, education Funding under Civilian rule (7.5%) was higher than education funding under Military rule (4.18) under the period of study.</td>
<td>Current years were not examined.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Abuh Adah and Aliyu Mamman (2013).</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Assessing the performance of incremental budgeting system in the Nigerian public Tertiary Institutions.</td>
<td>It was found that, budget performance is not depending on the use of incremental budgeting system and that inadequate and delay in releasing Subventions from Federal government are responsible for the budget.</td>
<td>The research was based on incremental budgeting system only. The methodology used was secondary data.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Authors</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Kazeem Olabode Faleti, Hakeem Olajide Faleti, and Reuben Olabayo Ojeleke (2014)</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Budgetary and management control system for improved efficiency in public sector: The implication of &quot;Babariga-Style&quot; Budgeting Approach.</td>
<td>Discovered that, citizens expect public servants to serve the public interest with fairness and to manage public resources properly on a daily basis.</td>
<td>The research was on improving efficiency in budgetary control only.</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Goher Fatima, Mehbood Ahmed and Wali Ur Rehman (2012)</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>Consequential effect of budget Deficit on Economic growth of Pakistan.</td>
<td>It was uncovered that budget deficit has a great negative effect on Pakistan.</td>
<td>The research was on economic growth and not education, it was also carried out in Pakistan not Nigeria.</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Yanxia qi and Yaw M. Mensah (2012)</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>An empirical Analysis of the effect of performance based Budgeting on state government expenditures.</td>
<td>It is concluded that the implementation of performance Based Budgeting (PBB) is negatively associated with total expenditures from general fund and positively associated with total expenditures from other state funds.</td>
<td>The research used only secondary data in China. The work was also based on state government expenditures and not on tertiary education.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Gershon Kpedor (2012).</td>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>Budgeting, Budgetary Control and Performance Evaluation:</td>
<td>It was concluded that, most of the key actors do not work with the budget due to lack of proper induction and proper role profile of the office they occupied.</td>
<td>The work was on budget control and performance evaluation in Ghana and not on budget formulation and execution in tertiary educational institutions in Nigeria.</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Andy Norton and Daniel Elson (2002)</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>The politics of Budget formulation and execution. What is behind the budget? Politics, rights and implementation breakdown.</td>
<td>A good understanding of political context in the budget process is essential.</td>
<td>The researcher used only observation so it was not enough to conclude. The research was also carried out in England not</td>
</tr>
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<td>No.</td>
<td>Author(s)</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Mike I. Obadan (n.d.)</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>2008 capital budget implementation: Factors affecting performance.</td>
<td>Funding is the key determinant of budget implementation, although it is not a sufficient condition.</td>
<td>Nigeria.</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Ogujiuba, Ezema and sola (2013)</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>An assessment of influence of budget process on budget performance in public sector using Kwara State as a focus.</td>
<td>There has not been full compliance with the application of budget process.</td>
<td>The references used are old and the research was carried out in only a state so it cannot be generalize.</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Bala and Ishaya (2014)</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Factors mitigating education stability of students in central Nigeria and the way forward.</td>
<td>There is problem of poor funding and implementation of progressive measures that will stimulate the environment.</td>
<td>The research was generalistic as it included primary, secondary, technical and other tertiary institutions. It did not concentrate specifically on tertiary institutions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gaps in the Literature Review

According to Winter-Ebner and Wirz (2003) and Okebukola (2008) public funding and enrollment into higher education is faced with challenges. Memon (2007) also expounded that, though education plays a great role in human capital development in the society, higher education is poorly funded. Though the above researches talked about poor funding of education, they did not address the issue of funding of tertiary education in Nigeria and the resultant effects.

Begg, Fischer and Dornbusch (2004) and Jasim (2012) investigated government budgeting and economic development in Japan and Iraq respectively. Obadan (2010) researched on management of public resources in Nigeria. In addition, Abdullah (2000) also carried a research on increase in spending on economic activities and infrastructures. These researches did not assess government funding of tertiary education and its effects on educational development in Nigeria.
Norton and Elson (2002); Ogujiuba, Ezema and sola (2013) worked on the politics of Budget formulation and execution, Politics, rights and accountability in the budget process; They also focused on the assessment of influence of budget process on budget performance in the public sector. They didn’t narrow down their research to the educational sector in order to evaluate the influence of budget formulation and implementation on the educational sector. Infrastructural facilities like good laboratories, electricity and so on are influential in the development of education in Nigeria and students who enjoyed good quality learning, good laboratories and classrooms have the highest average scores. (Gafar, and Akanbi, 2009). The research was done on the primary and secondary education only, so what happens in tertiary education has not been identified. Some of the researchers worked on budgeting and budgetary control and not on budget formulation and execution in tertiary institution in Nigeria.

Today, Nigeria is experiencing a crucial manpower development handicap occasioned by the fact that the number of prospective students seeking for admission into tertiary institutions is projected at over 1.2 million (Joint Admission and Matriculation Board, 2001). However, only about 20% of this number actually secures admission to such institutions private or public. The reason is that the number of admission slot approved by the National University Commission (NUC) for the institutions especially in the universities is far less than the number of students seeking for admission. The unfortunate expectation of both parents and students according to Okeke (2007), are apprehensive of any new initiative in the management of tertiary institution to mean introduction of tuition fees. It is a fact that the source of many problems facing higher Educational system in Nigeria today can be traced to insufficient funding of the system. Funding short falls have therefore become the norms for many years as enrolments have increased more quickly than the government’s capacity to maintain its proportional financial support.

Furthermore, Federal Ministry of Education (2009), has reported that the education sector, which suffers from inadequate funding at all levels, has not utilized the sum
of N22.6 billion allocated by the Education Trust Fund covering the period 2002 - 2007. It was to be made available to universities, polytechnics, State Ministries of Education and the Universal Basic Education Boards. Lists of the beneficiaries, which are being made public by the ETF, included 25 Federal and State universities, 24 Federal and State Polytechnics, 14 Federal and State colleges of education, 11 mono technics, 17 State ministries of education and 21 State universal basic education boards. This is considered very embarrassing and unacceptable especially in a situation where most of these institutions are in dire straits; yet they have free funds lying in the coffers of the Central Bank of Nigeria (Kosemani 2005).

V Conclusion and Recommendation

The underlying rationale for public funding of education is to equip people with the require knowledge, skills and capacity to enhance the quality of life, productivity and capacity to gain knowledge of new techniques for production, so as to be able to participate evocatively in the development process. Tertiary education aims at generating national development. It should not only seek to develop the intellectual capacities of individuals to understand and appreciate their environment, but should endeavour to equip recipients with requisite physical and intellectual skills fit for in the society.

There should be programme of allocation of resources and supervision to ensure and enhance allocation efficiency and technical efficiency. There should be a legal procedures for administrative and other restrictions on the expenditure of public resources that enhance transparency, accountability, fairness and objectivity. Budget should be used as an instrument to tract the flow of resources. The control aspect of the budget should try to monitor and ensure that every naira must be justified to fulfill the budget purpose. Federal government subventions should be release on time so as to quicken the process of implementation.
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Oseni, M. (2012). Adequacy of budgetary allocation to educational institutions


