

ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL AND NON-SCHOOL FACTORS AFFECTING CHILDREN'S ACCESS TO BASIC EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS OF SOUTH-WESTERN NIGERIA

By

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award of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Sociology of Education**

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this study was carried out by IGUDIA, Itohan Helen and has been read and approved as meeting part of the requirements of the Department of Social Sciences Education, Faculty of Education, University of Ilorin, Nigeria, for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Sociology of Education.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my future husband and offspring(s) whose frequent thoughts of, motivates me to become a wife and a mother to be eternally proud of. Also to my darling parents Mr. and Mrs. Igudia whose unquenchable thirst for education has been my strength of will.

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ABSTRACT

In recognition of the importance of Education, countries have made commitments for her citizens to access basic education regardless of locality, by providing it free, universal and compulsory for all children of school age. Statistics have shown low access of children to basic education especially in the rural areas of Nigeria. In this study, rural areas are places with a population of at most 20,000 people; without tertiary hospital or banks, with at most one secondary school and is at least five kilometers away from urban. This study analyzed school and non-school factors affecting children's access to basic education in rural areas of South-west, Nigeria. The purpose of the study were to determine: (i) availability, adequacy and conditions of educational resources to cater for the educational needs of pupils in rural areas; (ii) enrolment, retention and completion trends of children in Basic schools in rural areas (2011-2016); and (iii) school and non-school factors influencing enrolment, retention and completion of children in Basic schools in rural areas of South-west, Nigeria.

The study adopted the descriptive survey research design. A multi-stage sampling procedure (involving simple random, proportional and purposive sampling techniques) was employed to select 1,688 respondents (545 Middle-basic school Head-teachers from 1,032 and 1,143 Basic-six pupils from 145,066) in rural areas of Ekiti, Osun and Oyo States. Data were collected through the administration of content-validated, researcher-designed questionnaire and facilities' inventory with reliability indices of 0.66 and 0.68 respectively. Data collected were analysed using percentages, means and rank orders.

The findings of the study were that:

- i. Educational resources for basic schools in rural areas were available in 300 (55%) of the sampled schools but inadequate (\bar{x} = 1.42) and in deplorable conditions (\bar{x} = 1.69);
- ii. There were fluctuating trends in children's access to basic education in rural areas from 2011-2016; with enrolment trends of 62.0%, 82.0%, 71.4%, 72.2%, 72.2% and 74.1%;

- iii. Non-school factors affecting enrolment, retention, and completion were children's ill-health (56%), parental poor financial status (52%), engagement in farm works (58%) and hawking (67%). Fosterage (17%) did not affect enrolment, domestic chores (17%) did not affect retention and child's age (17%) did not affect completion; and
- iv. School factors affecting children's enrolment, retention and completion included distance of school to home (66%), overcrowded classrooms (57%), low quantity of teachers (75%), shortage of instructional facilities (75%) and dilapidated school buildings (63%).

The study concluded that most Basic Schools in the rural areas of South-west, Nigeria were faced with non-availability and inadequacy of necessary educational resources with attendant fluctuating trends of access. These findings imply that children's enrolment in Basic schools is inadequate and government intervention is necessary for addressing deficiencies in educational resources in rural areas. It was recommended that government and other stakeholders should adequately provide needed financial, human and material resources and show more commitment in the monitoring and supervision of rural schools to address the challenges impeding children's access to basic education in the rural areas of South-west, Nigeria.

Word Count: 490

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Education is one of the most dominant instruments for man's development and the transformation of human society. Also, it is a tool that liberates people from poverty and ignorance. It is in recognition of this importance that the international community and governments across the world have made obligations for citizens to have access to basic education. Access to basic education is universally recognized and is accorded a high priority among major goals for international development.

The desire for international development globally gave rise to the Education for All (EFA) movement; a universal commitment aimed at providing quality basic education for all children, youth and adults. The movement was launched at the World Conference on Education for All in 1990 by UNESCO, UNDP, UNICEF and the World Bank with an agreement to universalize primary education and massively reduce illiteracy by the end of the decade. However, a decade later, with many countries far from reaching this goal, the international community met again in Dakar, Senegal in 2000 and affirmed their commitment to achieving Education for All by the year 2015 (UNESCO, 2016).

However, after the setting of both the six EFA goals and the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), there was still a non-attainment of all children in school at the end of 2015. In order to boost efforts towards delivering the right to education, World leaders gathered in New York in September, 2015 to develop a new futuristic agenda for world development and more importantly for education. At that summit, 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were set to be achieved by the year 2030; one of which is to ensure quality and inclusive education for every child in the world (Global Campaign for

Education, GCE 2017). To achieve this goal, Nigeria among other countries signed up commitment to putting legal frameworks, policies and finance in place so that everyone, no matter their circumstances, could have education; one that is available, accessible, acceptable and adaptable. In support of this commitment to available and accessible education, the federal government of Nigeria has placed her declaration of the free, universal and compulsory education for all Nigerian child of school-going age in her National Policy on Education (NPE).

For instance, the NPE (2004) spelt out details on the achievement of educational goals by insisting in its section 1(9e) that Universal basic education shall be provided for all citizens depending on the needs and possibilities. Universal Basic Education (UBE) is a free, compulsory and a right to education policy for all Nigerian children and it is expected to yield rapid economic and social development to a nation upon attainment. Historically, it came as a replacement to the Universal Primary Education (UPE). During the UPE policy which was launched in 1976, primary education was free but limited success was achieved as attendance was not made compulsory for pupils of school-going age. Though, with the passage of the UBE Act, all tiers of government in the country were mandated to provide free, compulsory nine-year universal basic education of primary and junior secondary school age (UBEC, 2004; Obong, 2006).

In conformance with the mandate of free and compulsory basic education, Nigeria has improved significantly in the past 25 years with the provision of more schools and better facilities; resulting to a drastic change in attendance rate from about 25% of children aged between 6 and 11 who were in school 25 years ago (Oluwapomi, 2016), to 67% net attendance rate in 2015 (Nigeria Education Data Survey, NEDS 2016). However, even with the above percentages, over 10 million children are still out of school in Nigeria today with more in rural areas (Oluwapomi, 2016). Statistics have it that children in rural areas of

Nigeria are less likely to enrol in primary school with 39% of primary school aged children in rural areas currently out of school, 19% of this number enrolling late and 76% recorded for those who would never enrol in any form of school (Oluwapomi, 2016). In the same line, NEDS (2016) also stated that in 2015, 81% of children aged 6-11 years old in the urban areas attended primary school as against 59% in the rural areas. In agreement with this underlying statistics, the existence of rural/urban disparities could be deduced. Table 1 reveals a clearer picture of the rural / urban disparities as underscored with some indices (NEDS, 2016).

Table 1: Indices of Rural/Urban Disparities in South-Western Nigeria

INDICES FOR COMPARISON	RURAL %	URBAN %
2015/2016 Attendance Rates	57.2	80.4
Basic six repetition rate of males (2003)	2	3.3
Basic six repetition rate of males (2015)	6	1.2
Basic six repetition rate of females (2003)	2	4
Basic six repetition rate of females (2015)	5	1
2015 / 2016 Literacy rates:		
Those who could read all (ages 6-11)	20.5	49.9
Those who could read some (ages 6-11)	14.3	17.8
Those who could not read any (ages 6-11)	65.2	32.3
Total number of literate children	34.8	67.7
2015 / 2016 Numeracy rates:		
Those who could solve all (ages 6-11)	26.9	59.5
Those who could solve some (ages 6-11)	12.7	15.9
Those who could not solve any (ages 6-11)	60.5	24.7
Total number of numerate children	39.6	75.4
2015 / 2016 dropout rate	73.2	26.8

Source: NEDS 2016 report

Table 1 clearly shows that disparities exist in children's access to basic education both at the rural and urban zones in the areas of attendance, repetition, literacy, numeracy as well

as in the drop-out rates. Although these indicators are part of the dimensions of access to education at the basic level, there is more to educational access. In education, the term access typically refers to the ways in which educational institutions and educational policies ensure, or try to make certain, that children have equal and equitable opportunities to take full advantage of the educational programme. It entails the provision of additional services and the removal of any actual or potential barrier that would prevent equitable participation in academic programmes. Predicating on the above definition of access, the continuum and dimensions of educational access can be categorized as availability of the educational resources, enrolment, progression, retention, rates of success and most importantly, the recognition of the existence cum removal of actual or potential barriers which sociologically, could be referred to as factors affecting access to basic education.

Relatedly, Oneblog (2014) suggested that educational access should encompass the whole activities from enrolment, progression and to completion adding that only about 56% of children who start school stay until their final year in sub-Saharan Africa. This means that 44% of the enrolled school children drop out. Invariably, this amounts to about 44% of children not gaining basic education even though they were enrolled at the onset. This 44 % have not accessed basic education putting into consideration the decisive conceptualization of the United Nations' MDGs for education, which is to ensure not just school enrolment and appropriate progression but completion, for all children in the world that are able to achieve a complete full-course of basic schooling hence meaningful learning at the end. This is a turning point where sociological factors affecting educational access are tapped into. Thus, having established the existence of rural urban disparities in the most recent Nigeria educational data survey reports, it becomes vital to research the likely factors responsible for the disparities in the figures existing the rural areas with the aim of reducing the gap and ensuring inclusion.

Consequently, access to basic education in the rural areas would not be successful without recognizing the existence of any actual or potential barrier that might prevent equitable participation in academic programmes; which is what this study is set to do; hence the identification of such barriers to successful achievement of quality basic education in rural areas. Sociologically, the determinants of educational access occur in tiered nature ranging from the child, the home, the school, the political, the ecological to the cultural factors. Ayorinde (2014) identified social sub-systems that has an impact on formal education as a cultural subsystem, family subsystem, political subsystem, economic subsystem, religion subsystem and security sub system all of which make up an entity referred to as a society. Also, Werunga, Musera, and Sindabi (2011) recognized a number of factors among which are: cultural, environmental, school-based or socio-economic factors.

In addition, Solarin (2012) identified some factors affecting access to basic education as: Child's age, early marriage, religious beliefs, family size, gender imbalance, peer pressure, the existence of children with special needs, socio-economic status of the family, residence or location, child labour, pursuit for material wealth by youth, limited opportunities for school leavers, inadequate implementation of pre-primary articulation policy to public primary schools, shortage of teachers and caregivers at all levels of basic education schools, safety / security of the children, incessant and prolonged teachers' strike actions, low teacher commitment, learner unfriendly school environment, lack of/ insufficient provision for education of special needs learners in basic education, weak or non-provision of social protection for vulnerable children, and non-availability of schools in some communities. For the purpose of this study, combining all the above mentioned factors, the factors investigated as affecting access to basic education were categorized under School and Non-school factors.

Expatriating on the school factors, the role of the school in the determination of the educational access cannot be over-emphasized. This is because the school itself is sub-

characterized with several other variables such as the types of school (private or public), the location of the school, quality of teachers present in the school, the number of teachers in the school, the teacher-student ratio, the availability of teaching aids, the learning environment, management of the school, the roles of inspectors, parents-teachers association and the existence of educational facilities amongst others. The availability of educational resources determines the success rate of a child. According to the Clinton-Gore Administration (2000), good educational facilities were an important precondition for student learning, provided that other conditions were present that supported a strong academic programme in the schools. Also on the school factors, teachers have a crucial role to play towards successful delivery of the education process. According to Babalola (2003), teachers are the center for quality improvement in education and they are the underpinning upon which a country builds its sustainability.

On the other hand, non-school factors are characterized with factors such as: child's factor (age, health, and belief), early marriage, religious beliefs, family size, gender imbalance, peer pressure, the presence of children with special needs, economic status of the family, residence or location, and child labour amongst others. The importance of the age that a child starts school cannot be overemphasized because, all things being equal, the earlier a child starts school, the more rapidly the child completes his or her schooling (Olaniyan 2011).

In the same vein as other non-school factors, the home also has an imparting role in determining the educational access of a child. Household level factors include household income (Behrman & Knowles, 1999), parental assets, parental education, cultural beliefs, type of family (polygamous, extended, nuclear, separated, and divorced families) and household structure in terms of demographic composition. The association between household income and schooling is usually argued to be positive (Glick & Sahn, 2000). In the same way, Ray (2000) argues that child labour prevents children from benefiting fully from

school by increasing the opportunity cost of education and reducing child schooling. Also, like household income, parental education is positively related to child schooling. This is because educated parents are more able to assist in child learning, as they are more likely to recognize the value of their children's education and resist the temptation of pulling them out of school even when they have low income.

Concomitantly, on issues of access, this research work dwells on trends of access to basic education and the analysis of factors affecting access of children to basic education in the rural areas with particular reference to Nigeria, it is therefore important to look at the sociological profile of this country. Nigeria as a country is divided into six Geo-political zones, with every state of the nation falling into these categories. The Geo-political zones are: North central; North-east; North-west; South-east; South-south; and South-west Geo-political zones. The area referred to as South Western is populated by Yoruba language speakers who now mainly inhabit six states of Lagos, Ogun, Oyo, Osun Ondo, and Ekiti. Some Yoruba speakers can be found in Kogi and Kwara states (Kolawole & Adepoju, 2007).

Apart from the division of the country into geo-political zones, Nigeria, the most populous nation in sub-Saharan Africa with her population estimated at about 166 million in 2012 (World Population Review, 2017) is characterized by both rural and urban settlements as it is neither totally metropolitan nor totally rural. According to the World Bank report (2012) the rural population is about 79,528,437 while the rural / urban ratio stands at ratio 50:20 in 2012. This invariably implies that Nigeria is characterized majorly by a large number of rural population (Olojede, Adekunle & Samuel, 2013). In addressing the characteristics of rural Areas, it is necessary to define a rural area which is a daunting task, because the word rural is a vague term which can mean different things to different people. For example, what is considered rural in a place like the United States of America and the

United Kingdom may not look like what is considered rural in a place like Nigeria and other Africa countries.

The US Census Bureau (2010) used a formula involving population size of about 2,500 or less and population density of about 500 persons per square mile to classify a place as rural while Umebau (2008) defined rural areas as a place with: low population density of about 20,000, small size; relative isolation, where one major economic activity is agricultural production, where people are relatively homogenous in their values, attitude and behaviour, an area with rough road networks in terms of vehicular access and other qualities and a place devoid of access to services and amenities specifically of the type provided in large urban centres like safe water, and other basic infrastructure, such as primary health care. However, for the purpose of this research, rural areas are characterized by criteria such as population of about 20,000 people or less; a place devoid of a tertiary hospital but can allow a minimum of a local dispensary; which lacks the interaction with a medical consultant; a place with no bank or any financial institution; a place with not more than one secondary school or none at all; and a place that is about five kilometers or more than, away from urban.

Finally, the importance of education to a human being cannot be over stressed. The reason is that there has been a lot of emphases particularly in contemporary time for all citizens of the world to have access to basic education. Nevertheless, documents abound across the globe which shows that there are inequalities in educational access and achievements (in rural and urban areas) as well as high levels of absolute educational deprivation of children (Subramanian, 2002). It becomes binding to understudy some factors responsible for these disparities. Although the NEDS report (2016) which is being consulted as a template for this study, has investigated and recognized five underlying factors responsible for access such as school distance, monetary cost, poor school quality, no interest and labour needed. However, in the sociology of education, the list of factors is endless

especially when it concerns issues of access to basic education for rural dwellers. Hence the need for this study.

Statement of Problem

The South-western region of Nigeria has begun policy and practice of free and compulsory primary education in 1955 even before the world's EFA pronouncement of 1990. Thus, South-west Nigeria was the first part of the country to have a major literacy campaign for its people. However, with the introduction of Universal Basic Education (UBE) in the country, the rates of access to UBE in the rural areas in terms of enrolment, retention and completion is not equal to the urban. Existing statistics have shown that there are inequalities in the rates of access to basic education in the rural and the urban areas of the South-western region (NEDS, 2016); and this triggers the need to focus on the recognition and the removal of any actual or potential barriers categorized under school and non-school factors affecting equitable participation in basic education programmes in rural areas.

Similarly, at the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000, donors and developing countries agreed to the goals of Education for All (EFA) and fixed 2015 as a target date for achieving a universal primary education. The 2015 set as a target year for achieving these goals has come and gone with the target not yet achieved; thus, the introduction of the Sustainable Development Goals and the target year for achievement moved to 2030. One of the goals is to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education while providing equal access to affordable education and eliminating gender and wealth disparities with the aim of achieving universal access to a quality higher education. There may be a re-occurrence of non-achievement in 2030 if actual or potential barriers to ensuring / achieving the goal are not recognized and sought to be removed. This study therefore, examines through a sociological analysis, the school and non-school factors responsible for the low performance of schools in rural areas on access indicators. The factors considered include the current

condition of school facilities, school plants, teacher-pupils' ratio, and availability of educational facilities, parental economic status, family size, cultural beliefs, child's factor, and parents' level of education amongst others.

Many sociological types of research have been carried out on universal basic education in Nigeria. Onyeike and Ogajuwa (2011) carried out an analytical evaluation of the trend of primary school enrolment in Ebonyi state with a case of the challenges facing female children. Their work was just on enrolment trend and in a locale domiciled in the South-Eastern part of Nigeria; while this research is assessing not just enrolment, but availability, retention, and successful completion rates in South-Western Nigeria. Also, while Lawal and Ekundayo (2010) carried out a research on Access and Participation in Basic Education in Ebonyi, Oyo and Yobe States in Nigeria (2000-2009), this research has its focus on yet a different locale, with a major focus on the rural areas in South-Western Nigeria.

Babalola (2000) also carried out a research on the blueprint for the management of the UBE at the secondary school level. While his focus was on the secondary school, this research focuses on the primary school level of education. Aliyu (2005) carried out a study on the impact assessment of the universal basic education policy on school enrolment in selected Local Government Areas of Kwara State; while Namukawayo and Kibirige (2014) carried out a research on factors affecting primary school enrolment and retention of pupils in Kotido District, Uganda. This research therefore, studies the Access of Children to Basic Education in Rural Areas of South Western Nigeria with a major focus on the analysis of factors responsible for access to basic education.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to analyse the school and non-school factors affecting children's access to basic education in the rural areas of South-western Nigeria. Specifically, the study investigated:

1. The availability of educational resources to cater for the educational needs of pupils in the rural areas from basic one to six;
2. The adequacy of the available educational resources to cater for the educational needs of pupils in the rural areas from basic one to six;
3. The conditions of the available educational resources;
4. The enrolment trend of children to basic education in the rural areas (2010 / 2011 - 2015 / 2016);
5. The retention trend of pupils in basic education in the rural areas (2010 / 2011 -2015 / 2016);
6. The completion trend of children from basic education in the rural areas (2010 / 2011 -2015 / 2016);
7. The non-school factors affecting enrolment of children to basic education in rural areas;
8. The school factors affecting enrolment of children to basic education in rural areas;
9. The non-school factors affecting retention of pupils in basic education in rural areas;
10. The school factors affecting retention of pupils in basic education in rural areas;
11. The non-school factors affecting completion of pupils from middle Basic schools in rural areas;
12. The school factors affecting completion of pupils from middle Basic Schools in rural areas.

Research Questions

The following research questions were answered in the study:

1. Are there available educational resources to cater for the educational needs of pupils in the rural areas from basic one to six?
2. Are the available educational resources adequate to cater for the educational needs of pupils in the rural areas from basic one to six?
3. Under what conditions are the available educational resources?
4. What is the enrolment trend of children to basic education in the rural areas (2010/2011 – 2015/2016)?
5. What is the retention trend of pupils in basic education in the rural areas (2010/2011 – 2015/2016)?

6. What is the completion trend of pupils from basic education in the rural areas (2010/2011 – 2015/2016)?
7. What are the non-school factors affecting enrolment of children to basic schools in rural areas?
8. What are the school factors affecting enrolment of pupils to basic schools in rural areas?
9. What are the non-school factors affecting retention of pupils in basic schools in rural areas?
10. What are the school factors affecting retention of pupils to basic schools in rural areas?
11. What are the non-school factors affecting completion of pupils from middle basic schools in rural areas?
12. What are the school factors affecting completion of pupils from middle basic schools in rural areas?

Scope of the Study

This study involved all basic six pupils and all Head teachers of middle basic schools in South-west Nigeria as its population. The rationale behind the choice of this region is because South-Western Nigeria despite being the forerunner in universal primary education policy, is still caught in the web of urban-rural educational disparities. The rationale behind the choice of basic six pupils is because at that level, they would be expected to be literate enough to comprehend and respond accordingly to the questionnaire items posed to them. Moreso, NEDS (2016) gives the literacy and comprehension rate at this grade level as 80%. The South-Western states are made up of six states viz: Ekiti, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo states

The target population was all basic six pupils and all Head teachers of middle basic (primary) schools in the rural areas of Ekiti, Osun and Oyo States.

Also, this study relied on both primary and secondary source of data gathering and the use of inventory, proforma and questionnaire where applicable. The data collected were analysed through the use of descriptive statistics including percentages, tables and Bar charts.

Operational Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as were used in this study:

Access to Basic Education: the certainty that educational resources are available and children have the opportunities to take full benefit of the educational programme from enrolment to completion.

Adequacy: the number of academic facilities / amenities which are readily available at the disposal of those in an educational programme comprising of both learners and teachers.

Availability: the existence of academic facilities / amenities which are readily available at the disposal of those in an educational programme comprising of both learners and teachers.

Basic Education: the first nine-year tuition-free and uninterrupted compulsory schooling for every Nigerian child of school age.

Dropout: a learner that withdraws from school due to school and/or non-school factors before completing basic six; and can be referred to a reverse side of academic retention.

Educational Access: the total process of a child's acquisition of meaningful learning in the course of primary education; all achieved in a straight course without dropping-out in the process with a focus on successful completion.

Educational resources: educational infrastructural facilities and instructional materials

Enrolment: the total number of registered pupils at the beginning of every academic session.

Lower middle basic level: basic levels one to three in basic education schools

Non-school Factors: these are factors outside the school which affect children's access to basic education.

Middle basic level: basic four to basic six in basic education schools

Rural community: a place characterised with a population of about 20,000 people or less; without a standard hospital but allows for local dispensary; without any bank or financial

institution; not more than one secondary school or none at all; and about five kilometres or more than, away from urban.

School Factors: those factors within the school environment which affect children's access to basic education.

Success: this is the rate at which pupils successfully complete their primary school (lower basic) level with good grades thus providing a platform for them to transit into the junior secondary school (upper basic level).

Upper basic level: basic seven to basic nine in basic education schools.

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study would be of significance to Sociologists of Education, educational planners, educational administrators, policy makers, teachers, parents, guardians and all educational stakeholders as they would be acquainted with those factors affecting access to basic education in the rural areas with an array of recommended policies and strategies that can best redress the problems of inaccessibility to basic education in rural areas.

Also, the findings of this study in the area of availability and recent conditions of educational resources such as buildings, fixtures, classrooms, libraries, laboratories, medical facilities and teaching aids in schools situated in rural areas as carried out, would yield practical and helpful inferences which would be of importance to policy makers and all concerned in the educational enterprise. For instance, in the allocation, inspection and proper monitoring of educational resources; identification of facilities needing improvement; identification of locations that need resources; the need for better monitoring and supervision of resources for effective utilization.

Also, to sociologists of education, in as much as education in Nigeria is seen as that instrument 'par excellence' for effecting national development which is relevant to meeting

the needs of individuals and those of the society in consonance with the realities of our environment and the modern societies globally, therefore issues bordering on its accessibility is of paramount interest. The findings of this study would give more insight to sociologists of education on the school and non-school factors affecting educational access of children in rural communities. The school factors affecting educational access as found in this study such as school location (rural), the teacher-pupil ratio, the availability of teaching aids, and the existence of educational facilities amongst others can be added to the array of sociological factors affecting basic schools in rural areas. Relatedly, non-school factors such as: child's factor (age, health, and belief), early marriage, family size, economic status of the family, residence or location, and child labour amongst others can also be added.

Furthermore, the results of this study, would be additional to the educational data bank and can be validated for use by some other international bodies like UNESCO, UN, World Bank and other educational stakeholders as the case may be. Finally, to achieve all of these, this work would be published online and in journals within the reach of the public.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter is concerned with the review of literature related to the School and Non-school Factors Affecting the Access of Children to Basic Education in Rural Communities. This literature review focused on the following sub-headings:

- i. Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Universal Basic Education (UBE) in Nigeria
- ii. Dimensions of Educational Access
- iii. Sociological Profile of the Nigerian Rural Setting
- iv. School and Non-school Factors of Educational Access
- v. Theoretical framework
- vi. Appraisal of Reviewed Literature
- vii. Conceptual Framework

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Universal Basic Education in Nigeria

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is an embodiment of a universally shared common global vision of progress towards a safe, just and sustainable space for all human beings to thrive on the planet (Markus & Nicole, 2015). With 17 Sustainable Development Goals and 169 associated targets which are integrated and indivisible, the SDGs are intended to go beyond the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and to provide a comprehensive dream and framework for the development of all countries in the years ahead (Derek, Amy & Farooq, 2015).

The proclamation of the Universal Basic Education spanned from the declaration of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Universally, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are termed as a roadmap for the development of the world by the year 2015. According to the UNDP (2010) report, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

represent the world's commitments to deal with global poverty in entirety. The World Health organization (WHO, 2005) explained that the MDGs commit the international community to an action agenda which emphasizes sustainable human development as the key to fulfilling social and economic progress (Lawal, Obasaju, & Rotimi, 2012).

However, with a detailed agenda and a bench mark year of 2015 of achieving the MDGs, the 2011 Millennium Development Goal Report (MDGR) indicated that sub-Saharan Africa had made some progress towards achieving the MDGs but reaching all the goals by 2015 remains challenging (MDGR, 2011). In Ejie's (2000) view, the attainment of these goals has been a challenge to the nations of the world though significant progress has been recorded worldwide (United Nations, 2005). The progress made has, conversely, not been identical across the world, or with respect to specific goals. It has been observed that Sub-Saharan African countries are lagging well behind. These countries still have continuing food insecurity, rising extreme poverty, high child and maternal mortality, a large number of people still living in slums, and most importantly, un-attainment of the free Universal Basic Education in some countries of sub-Sahara Africa.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is fondly referred to as 'Transforming our world' by the year 2030. The agenda for Sustainable Development is no doubt universally applicable to all countries. The SDGs were spelt out in paragraph 54 of the United Nations Resolution A/RES/70/1 of September 25th, 2015. The Resolution is a broader intergovernmental agreement that came as a successor to the MDGs. The proposal covers a broad range of viable development issues one of which is education.

The development of these SDGs, according to the United Nations' Report (2016), should not divert focus or effort from the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals; it is rather an extension of a process that is needed to agree and advance the development goals from 2015-2030. A report from SDG (2016) submits that attaining a quality education

is the base for improving people's lives and sustainable development. The report further agrees that major progress has been made towards increasing access to education at all levels and increasing enrolment rates in schools particularly for women and girls and improving basic literacy skills tremendously. However, more efforts are needed to make even greater developments for achieving universal education goals. For example, on equality in primary education between girls and boys, it is noted that few countries have achieved that target (SDG, 2016).

As the discussions to create these goals have taken place over the past two years, much of the worldwide dialogue has however naturally focused on the problems of the developing countries and how a combination of their own struggles and renewed global co-operation and partnership can help them build on the accomplishments of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to make progress more rapidly towards the goals and targets. These issues feature strongly in the set of SDGs and targets proposed by the UN's Open Working Group in August 2014 as the basis for further discussion and negotiation in the General Assembly.

The 4th goal of the SDGs that is to ensure comprehensive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning opportunities for all, is in general, well-formulated. Unlike the MDGs, it focuses predominantly on educational / learning outcomes and cognitive skills rather than just school attendance and enrolment. The goal includes seven targets and three suggestions for means of implementation. The targets are expected to be achieved by the year 2030. These targets:

1. To ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes.
2. To ensure quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education.

3. To ensure equal access for all women and men to reasonable quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university.

Critically assessing these targets which addressed boys and girls completing school, childhood development, and access for all women and men, the whole population has been covered. The targets require not only the elimination of gender disparities but also the inclusion of, among others, people with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations. Also, the target requires that by 2030, all learners should have acquired knowledge and skills needed to promote national development. Furthermore, the target requires building and upgrading education facilities that are a child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all. This is a rather broad requirement, but it can ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning opportunities for all.

In a related development, Ajayi (2008) studied the success of implementation and execution of MDGs in Millennium Village project and found out that presently, Nigeria is off-track and slow. He therefore called for a better understanding between the policy formulators and executors. Similarly, Falade (2008) observed that most African countries are backward when it comes to implementation and execution of the MDGs, when compared to nations in other continents of the world. This, he explained is due to poor technical capacity in formulating, implementing and monitoring the operational MDGs based Poverty Reduction Strategy Process (PRSPS).

Universal Basic Education (UBE) is a free, compulsory and a right to education policy for all Nigerian children. Upon attainment, it is expected to yield rapid economic and social development to a nation. Also, it came as a replacement for the Universal Primary Education (UPE). Historically, The Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme was launched in the

country in 1999 and became effective legally in 2004 as one of the strategies intended for implementing the educational element of the MDGs.

Before the commencement of the scheme, the Nigerian educational structure comprised six years of primary education, three of junior secondary, three of senior secondary and four of tertiary education (Ejieh (2009). Primary education was free but not compulsory. Although universal primary education (UPE) was launched nationwide in 1976, even before the global leaders established it as one of the MDGs, limited success was achieved as attendance was not made compulsory for pupils of school-going age.

With the passage of the UBE Act, all tiers of government in the country were mandated to provide free, compulsory nine-year universal basic education of primary and junior secondary school age. Parents are to ensure that they enrol and complete the basic education cycle. There are sanctions for parents who do not comply. In addition to free tuition, the Act make available for free services in all public primary and junior secondary schools (Obong, 2006).

In order to ensure effective execution of the UBE, the Act established the Universal Basic Education Commission, with approved functions, membership terms and structure. Universal Basic Education Boards (UBEBS) were also recognized at the State and Local Government levels. The Commission set for itself, some short and medium term objectives with appropriate performance indicators. Some of the objectives include the widening of access to primary and junior secondary education, periodic review, effective implementation of the curriculum, and improving gender equity (Obong, 2006).

The formation of the UBE was thus one of the approaches approved by the Nigerian government to meet some of the MDGs and also fulfil its commitment to Education For All (EFA). In fact, the Act goes beyond the requirements for meeting these MDGs as it also involves programmes for early childhood care, adult literacy programmes, special

programmes for nomadic populations, and various non-formal programmes for children and youth who are out of school. Effective execution of these programmes in the country will surely go a long way towards achieving the first MDG: the eradication of extreme hunger and poverty, in which capacity education is a powerful tool (National Planning Commission, 2005).

The goal of UBE programme is to ensure access to compulsory and free education from Early Childcare Development (ECD), Primary and Junior Secondary Schools Education to all Nigerian children. The Universal Basic Education (UBE) Programme is a nine (9) year basic educational programme, which was launched and implemented by the government and people of the Federal Republic of Nigeria to eliminate illiteracy, poverty and ignorance as well as stimulate and accelerate national development, political consciousness and national integration (UBEC, 2014).

The concept of Universal Education in Nigeria has been evolutionary; over all, it has gone through series of stages., The concept of universalisation of primary education began in the Western Region of Nigeria in 1955 under the Premiership of Chief Obafemi Awolowo who introduced the free, universal and compulsory education, popularly referred to as Universal Primary Education (UPE). With the introduction of the UPE, there was an educational revolution, not only in the West but in Nigeria as a whole. In 1954, there were about 457,000 pupils attending fee-paying schools but by January 1955, the figure rose to 811,000 representing over 56% increase in the enrolment. The number of primary school teachers rose from 17,000 in 1954 to 27,000 in 1955. This was possible because the government had gone out to train teachers to encounter the demands of the programme. The government of the Western Region of Nigeria had to increase the budget from £2.2 million in 1954 to £5.4 million in 1955, (Fafunwa, 1974; Oni, 2006; Labo-Popoola, Bello & Atanda, 2009).

The Eastern Region also launched the universal primary education scheme in February 1957, which failed after a year due to poor planning, employment of untrained teachers and inadequate funding (Oni, 2008). Similarly, in 1957, The Lagos Colony, that was then the Federal Territory also floated its own scheme which at inception had 96 primary schools with 50,182 pupils and 1,646 teachers (Fafunwa, 1991). With all regions delving into the UPE, the Northern Region appeared to be comfortable with the Islamic education, which they had long embarked upon even before the inception of UBE in other regions so they opted out of the race for in the provision of free universal primary education (Oni, 2008).

Progressively, in 1977 the Federal Government of Nigeria through the National Policy on Education stipulated that every child has a right to equal educational prospects, irrespective of any real or imagined disabilities. According to this policy, education is supposed to equalize opportunities so that any individual, regardless of background can achieve success. The schools are expected to provide vocational training and preparation for later professional specialization. The schools are also expected to introduce them to activities not related to work-appreciation of arts, the development of interest and hobbies, the inclination and skills to engage in recreational activities and the likes. In essence, the thrust of education is manpower development, which is aimed at national growth and development (Labo-Popoola, Bello & Atanda, 2009).

Labo-Popoola et al (2009) further stressed that this is why the country made its policy on education to revolve round the philosophy and goals of the nation. The philosophy of education, as derived from the national goals are the development of the individual into a sound and effective citizens; the full integration of the individual into the community and the provision of equal access to educational opportunities for all citizens at all levels of education both inside and outside the formal school system.

The UBE Programme is Nigeria's policy for the attainment of Education for All (EFA) and the education-related Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The execution process of the programme has been on since 1999, but the UBE Bill was signed into law on 26th of May 2004 resulting in its passage by the National Assembly. The UBE Act 2004 makes provision for basic education comprising of Early Child Care Development and Education (ECCDE), six years of Primary Education and three years of Junior Secondary Education as posited by Tahir (2006) which is basically known as the scope of UBE. The funding of basic education is the responsibility of States and Local Governments. Nevertheless, the Federal Government has decided to intervene in the provision of basic education with 2% of its Consolidated Revenue Fund (UBEC, 2014).

For states to fully benefit from this Fund, criteria were established which states are to comply. The Act also provides for the creation of the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) to co-ordinate the implementation of the programme at the states and local government through the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB) of each state and the Local Government Education Authorities (LGEAs). The Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) was formally established on the 7th of October 2004 (UBEC, 2014).

Since its inception, UBEC has a Vision Statement of being a world class education intervention and regulatory agency for the advancement of uniform, qualitative and functional basic education in Nigeria. It further went on with a Mission Statement which is to operate as an intervention, coordinating and monitoring Agency to progressively improve the ability of states, local Government Agencies and communities in the provision of unrestricted access to high qualitative basic education in Nigeria. The UBE also have its outlined objectives which include making sure of unfettered access to nine (9) years of formal basic education; provision of free, Universal Basic Education for every Nigerian child of school-going age; drastic reduction of the incidence of drop-out from the formal school system,

through improved relevance, quality and efficiency; acquisition of appropriate levels of literacy, numeracy, communicative, manipulative and life skills as well as the ethical, moral and civic values needed for laying a solid foundation for life-long learning.

Furthermore, the guideline for the execution of U.B.E. outlined the targets of the policy as follows: Ensuring that school-age children are in school; ensuring a 100% transition to JSS at the end of six years of primary education; completion of basic education to possess literacy, numeracy and ethical moral and civic values, as well as basic life skills; ensuring that all teachers in Basic Education institutions to possess the Nigerian certificate of education; Review of basic education curriculum to conform to the reform agenda' achievement of 100% awareness on HIV/AIDS in schools; establishment of an effective institutional framework for monitoring teaching and learning; while also ensuring active involvement, participation and eventual ownership of schools by local communities (UBEC, 2004; Etuk, Ering, & Ajake, 2012).

Critically looking into objectives of the UBE programme in Nigeria, it clearly shows that it is a noble policy by government particularly when education is considered as a veritable tool for the advancement of any nation, especially a developing one like Nigeria, hence the rationale backing the execution of the UBE programme since its aim is to empower future leaders educationally, for the purpose of advancing the country. The import of primary education can therefore be seen in the sense that all beneficiaries of the other levels of education by necessity have to pass through this level (Oni, 2008). However, while it has been established that the UBE programme is worth executing, especially going by its objectives and scope, it is also important to point out some sociological issues involved in such educational policy execution. This particular aspect of the current policy on education never took into consideration the current realities of Nigeria's socio-economic and already existing educational conditions (Etuk, Ering, & Ajake, 2006).

In Adenipekun's (2006) findings, there is the problem of the shortage of qualified teachers to adequately handle educational needs arising from the expansion of the previously existing educational structure. Adenipekun further stressed that most primary schools lack qualified teachers and that the problem of the dearth of teachers in primary schools affects 85% of the states in Nigeria (Vanguard Newspaper, Thursday, May 25th, 2006). In this case, the argument is, if most primary schools in the Federation lack qualified hands, what happens to the schools domiciled in the rural areas particularly.

The problem of the dearth of and unskilled teachers will affect pupils to the extent that they will pass out without being equipped with the required educational skills that match with that level of education. At the end the objective of having completed the Universal Basic Education level to possess literacy and basic life skill will be defeated. Another major challenge the current education policy is challenged with is the issue of insufficient facilities and infrastructure. A number of Primary schools in Nigeria are characterized by limited resources, congested classrooms and dilapidated buildings (Olor, 2005.)

Some demographic studies on the existing national situation in the primary education sector revealed that 12% of primary school pupils sit on the floor, 38% of classrooms have no ceilings, 87% of classrooms are overcrowded, while 77% of pupils lack textbooks (Adepoju & Fabiyi 2007). These percentages are also deemed to have their toll on the rural areas. The fundamental issue is, given such pitiable circumstances, which may be the same replica or worse in the rural areas; it is unlikely that such primary schools can adequately fulfil the goals of UBE.

In reality, such schools would have a substantial percentage of their pupils studying under harsh conditions of sun, rain and other weather conditions which also brings about the quality of learning and teaching exercises. The aim of the UBE may be jeopardized if the teacher is not able to teach well and the pupil is not able to learn well, thus having an effect

on the quality of pupils the UBE programme will raise for the future. Thus the programme will no doubt churn out individuals who are not equipped enough to fill various specialized occupational roles, which is what education is supposed to achieve (Durkheim in Giddens, 2006).

Furthermore, child labour has also been seen as a phenomenon challenging the UBE programme in Nigeria. A number of Nigerian children are trapped in child labour, particularly the type described by Charles, Ikoh, Iyamba, and Charles (2006) as house-help ship or domestic labour. As a result of poverty, a number parents as Oloko (1990) discovered, send their children to either serve as house helps / domestic servants or hawkers, just to supplement the family income. Charles et al (2006) even stressed that more parents have become involved in engaging children in child labour because of the high pay it yields to them. This as the case may be in the rural settings, may involve children going to farm before and after school, boycotting school on market days and running menial errands like fetching firewood from the bushes, fetching water from streams among others.

In addition, Ajere and Yusuf (2000) outlined some possible problems of UBE such as: Funding; provision and maintenance of infrastructure and facilities such as buildings, equipment and instructional materials; problem of supervision and monitoring of what goes on in Basic Education Centres; the problem of the trekking distance from home to school; poor planning; dearth of statistics on children's enrolment, number of teachers, their qualification and demographic characteristics, statistics on buildings and other learning facilities; lack of clear-cut programme on the interface between parents and the school to facilitate child-care and basic education and lastly, competition between Private Basic Education Centres and Public Basic Education Centres (Government Owned).

Finally, the MDG came as a result of the Millennium Declaration which followed shortly after the World Millennium Summit in New-York by United Nations member states. Eight

goals were outlined in the declaration known as the Millennium Development Goals part of which is the achievement of universal basic education by the end of 2015 globally. Noteworthy that Nigeria has bought into the idea of free primary education a long time even before the MDGs with series of changes ranging from names to the policy itself. The UBE is saddled with 4 major objectives which if achieved will propel national growth and development. The policy like any other also has some factors militating against it in Nigeria. The Act established the Universal Basic Education Commission, with prescribed functions, membership terms and structure to ensure effective execution of the policy in Nigeria.

Dimensions of Educational Access

Access to education universally is the ability of everyone to have equal opportunity in functional education, irrespective of their social class, gender, ethnicity background, physical and mental abilities or disabilities. Educational access according to Akyeampong, Rolleston, Ampiah, and Lewin (2012) is that total educational plan that includes enrolment and progression at an appropriate age, regular attendance, and appropriate levels of achievement. In accordance with this definition, it can be deduced that the availability of educational amenities gives rise to enrolment which in turn makes way for whether there would be progression or not. It thus shows that it is when enrolment has existed that progression / no progression can take place and where there is no availability of educational resources, no enrolment occurs.

Abbott (2014) opined that in education, the term Access typically refers to the ways in which educational institutions and policies ensure or at least strive to ensure, that students have equal opportunities to take full advantage of their education. Abbott further stressed that increasing access generally entails schools to provide additional services or remove any actual or probable barriers that might prevent some students from equitable participation in certain courses or academic programmes.

From these characterizations of the term Educational Access by Abbot, it is clear that access to education goes beyond the availability of physical facilities and structures. It digs into the barriers clogging the wheel of progress of academic programmes, thereby focusing on progression even after enrolment while also focusing on factors responsible for the access rates. It also establishes the fact that both the educational institutions and policies have a stake in striving to ensure, that students have equal and equitable opportunities to take full advantage of their education.

Educational Access according to Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity (CREATE, 2015) broadly defined, is the enabled contact with functional education which is central to any development strategy that seeks to diminish poverty and enhance well-being. In other words, it is that functional education which is a by-product of previous exposure of basic education to the citizenry which makes them self-reliant after the educational process. Equitable access to effective and relevant education is critical for long term enhancements in productivity and wellbeing. It is also enshrined as a universal human right in most countries. Education is a public good which has social benefits above the level of the individual. The definition by CREATE has a more focus on a long-term effect of Educational Access which thus goes beyond enrolment and progression but to the overall success of those who have been exposed to educational endeavour.

In furtherance, educational access can be said to have its own tentacles which are referred to as its dimensions since it doesn't just focus on availability but also on the end product of the learning phase. The dimensions of educational access include: availability, enrolment, transition, progression, completion and success rates. In a clearer view, meaningful access to qualitative education spans from the availability of educational facilities through the rates of enrolments, the rates of progression within a particular educational

stratum across levels, completion rates, to the success rate of pupils at the end of the primary school educational pursuit and lastly the transition rates.

In the view of Bowen (2009), to augment access, emphasis should be more on finishing. Hence meaningful access to education should be embodied and amplified up with the ability to finish (completion) and not just to finish, but to finish well (success). Of course, to get to the success line, then focus should be on determinants like availability, enrolment, transition, and progression and likely factors that may either foster or impede the trends.

In addition, following Sengupta's (2011) opinion, access to education is simultaneous to the sustainability of such access; where sustainability literarily means, the ability to put up with such attained access thus leading to successful achievement. To arrive at successful achievement, it becomes imperative to focus not only on enrolment but also on progression, completion, success rate, and transition. This clearly means that successful achievement is still dependent on Merit and Effort which are subsets of progression and completion with high success rate. On a clear note, Access is more than mere availability which is a precondition for ensuring access and more than mere admission, but also the progression rate of the child (Sengupta, 2011).

However, one would have thought that all that needs to be bothered about is the rate of completion however, it is recorded that due to the low education standards across the developing world, many children leave primary school without the basic literacy and mathematical skills (Oneblog, 2014), this literarily means completion without success; hence the creation of an additional dimension which is the success rate. The usefulness of going through an educational programme is to achieve functional education which is most often than not determined by the term successful accomplishment. The combination of all the definitions of Educational Access; availability of resources, admission rates, the progression rate and the successful achievement of the child (Sengupta, 2011); enrolment and progression

at an appropriate age (Akyeampong et al, 2012); enrolment, completion and success (Oneblog, 2014); all are therefore classified as the continuum and dimensions of educational access without which the definition of educational access cannot hold.

CREATE has maintained that Educational Access becomes a public good because it is a catalyst for national growth. The reasons are obvious; Knowledge and skill do transform capabilities, competencies that are acquired through education do have value in labour markets, and increasingly social selection and mobility are mediated by educational progress and qualifications as expounded in the functionalist theory of Sociology of Education. Categorically, CREATE emphasizes that developing societies use educational access and attainment as a primary mechanism to sort, select and confirm subsequent generations into different social and economic roles. Universally those with education on average enjoy bigger incomes and have higher levels of wellbeing both at the individual level and across countries. Who goes to school, and increasingly in many developing countries, who attend secondary school, is a major determinant of who becomes relatively rich and who becomes relatively poor. At this juncture, it is imperative to see access to education not just as the availability of an educational institute, but the proper attainment of knowledge and successful attainment at that; Hence not just a means to an end but an end in itself.

Availability of educational resources requires the existence of school buildings, fittings and fixtures, learning materials, the existence of educational policy itself, and all materials needed for the smooth running of an educational programme. In reality, the transfer of knowledge does not only take place in the four walls of the classroom from the teacher to the students but also takes place through discovery, exploration, and interaction with the internal and external environment which has necessitated the innovative development of teaching and learning facilities that reflect these changes.

Educational facilities according to Hussain, Ahmed, Ahmad, Suleman, Ud'Din, and Khalid, (2012) play an essential role in strengthening and improving the quality of education. Asiabaka (2008) observed that Schools exist for the purpose of teaching and learning and to achieve these, human and material resources are deployed for the purpose. School facilities are the material resources provided for staff and students to optimize their productivity in the teaching and learning process. In corroboration, Tenikue (2010) in his empirical analysis of school attainment / progression in Cameroon found out that the lack of schools' supply reduces school progression; particularly the lack of secondary schools hinders primary school entry. Concomitantly, Ahunanya and Ubabudu (2006) also reiterated the provision of adequate facilities for effective teaching and learning to take place.

According to a report by the Operations Evaluation Department (OED) of the World Bank (2004) on Books, Buildings and Learning Outcomes, school quality can be measured by four different inputs, that is, material inputs such as chalk and textbooks; physical inputs such as classrooms and blackboards; teachers and school management were identified as four key factors in the school environment which facilitate educational outcome. Also, Harbison and Hanushek (1992) were reported in The World Bank's OED (2004) report to have categorized educational inputs/facilities into:

- a. Hardware such as school buildings, classrooms and furniture, sanitation, etc.
- b. Software such as curriculum, pedagogy, textbooks, writing materials, teaching and learning materials, etc.
- c. Teachers.
- d. Management and institutional structure and
- e. Context and background variables such as student academic ability, family and community background, etc.

Besides availability, another precondition and dimension for access is enrolment. There have been lots of studies on enrolment. The Education for All Global Monitoring Report (2010) observed that 72 million children were not enrolled in schools. In a situation where they get enrolled, there is yet a challenge of low pupil retention in schools. Population is the source of enrolment in schools and enrolment is a function and expression of demand of education. Enrolment ratio helps a lot in comparing efforts in educational development. Enrolment ratio is the ratio between the numbers of pupils of a given age enrolled at a given level of education in relation to the size of the population in that given age group (Olubor, 2003). Enrolment and low retention of children in schools have remained a global challenge particularly for marginalized groups (Namukwaya & Kibirige, 2004). One of the groups affected by the challenge of low enrolment and retention in school is the pastoral community (Carr-Hill, 2005).

Enrolment unvaryingly means admission / entry which is the occurrence of new entrants of a given age into a given class level in a given year (Emechebe, 2012). The MDGs report (2010) indicates that Nigeria has made progress in net enrolment of primary school children. For example, there is an increase in the net enrolment of primary school in Nigeria from 68% in the year 2000 to 88.8% in 2008. This indicates greater access to primary education with probability of reaching the target by 2015. Enrolment ratios may be calculated for different levels of education, separately for boys and girls, for urban and rural areas, for different regions and socio economic status. Olubor (2003) highlighted the types of enrolment ratios as:

1. Overall enrolment ratio: this gives a global picture of enrolment in a particular year.
2. Level enrolment ratio: This is often calculated separately for each level of education: primary, secondary and higher education. Here, we can have two types; (a) Gross level enrolment ratio and (b) Net level enrolment ratio. Gross enrolment level is obtained by

relating the total enrolment of a particular level (regardless of the age of those enrolled) to the population, which, according to national regulations, should be enrolled at that level and;

3. Age specific enrolment ratio.

After enrolment has been established, the onus falls upon progression. What is happening to the enrolled pupil after each school calendar year? Are they getting promoted? Are they repeating? Are they dropping out? Did they complete the primary school cycle? And if they did complete, at what success rate and did they further their educational venture into secondary school? Many of such questions come to mind while studying educational access. A number of researchers have used different models in analysing each of these terms while also delving into causal factors of each product. In Tenikue's (2010) model, the first is whether to let a child start primary education; the second is made by households with children already in primary schools, should they keep children enrolled until they complete primary education; The third decision is whether to enrol primary school graduates in secondary school. The fourth and last decision is whether to keep children enrolled in secondary school until they complete secondary education. Children who enter primary school have some primary education and children who enter secondary school have some secondary education. This approach accounts explicitly for "educational selectivity" as only primary school graduates can start secondary education (Cameron & Heckman, 1998). It has been used recently by Sawada and Lokshin (2009) to study obstacle to school progression in Pakistan and by Pal (2004) to study child schooling in Peru.

Using the data provided by the 2001 Cameroon Household survey to estimate a sequential model of school attainment. This four-staged sequential model is estimated by simulated maximum likelihood. This estimation approach allows some household and child characteristics to affect different schooling decisions. The first finding of the study emerges from descriptive statistics with the retention rate in education seen as decreasing, and as

conditional on completing primary education, the probability of a child to enter secondary school is lower than its unconditional probability to enter primary school.

Developing societies use educational access and attainment as a primary mechanism to sort, select and confirm subsequent generations into different social and economic roles. In particular, while enrolment is now high on average, there are still groups among whom enrolment remains an issue. Additionally, irregular attendance amongst those who are enrolled is a major problem across the country (Glennerster, Kremer, Mbiti & Takavarasha, 2011).

Statistics on primary and secondary school enrolment from the Global Education Digest 2005 by UNESCO indicate that few children in Africa continue their education past the primary level. The percentage of children enrolled in the last grade of primary school who continues their education at the secondary level is known as the transition rate from primary to secondary education (Huebler, 2005). Furthermore, Huebler (2005) affirmed that Worldwide, 85% of children in the last grade of primary school go on to attend secondary school but this is different for only two regions which have transition rates below this global average: Eastern and Southern Africa (67.1%), and West and Central Africa (52.4%). Therefore, Transition rates are highest in the industrialized countries (98.2%) and in Eastern Europe and the CIS countries (96.1%). On the contrary, Huebler (2005) also acknowledged that even in Sub-Saharan Africa some countries have transition rates above 80%. The Global Education Digest report (2011) which was released by the Institute for Statistics of the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), posited that a child in the last grade of primary school in 2009 had at best a 75 per cent chance of making the transition to junior secondary school in about 20 countries in the world, most of which are in sub-Saharan Africa. It, however, noted that, Tanzania and Nigeria had the lowest transition rates at 36 per cent and 44 per cent, respectively.

While noting that, in many ways, secondary education is a bridge for young people from the world of school to the world of work, or a bridge between primary education and continuing higher education, the report held that two out of three children in Africa are left out of secondary school. Also, the report states that though, sub-Saharan African region had seen a notable rise in primary and secondary school enrolment over the past decade, and that more children were reaching the last grade of primary school with the hope of proceeding to secondary education, there were only enough seats for 36 per cent of children who want to enrol in secondary education in the region. It added that globally, 88 per cent of children completed primary school in 2009, but in sub-Saharan Africa, only 67 per cent did.

Further stressing the meaning and impact of educational access, Hidden Curriculum (2014) as posited in Abbot stated that, the term access would usually be described as school strategies or policies designed to remove institutional deterrents or obstacles to academic success, whether deliberately or unintended, while also providing the resources, social services, and academic support that certain students may need to succeed in school. However, where issues of access are left unattended to by a school, it may likely cause low students' retention. CREATE (2015) research shows that much has been achieved within the framework provided by Education for All (EFA) programmes. However, it highlighted several insights as outstanding:

1. An expanded vision of access is far from being realized in many low enrolment countries where less than half the school age children complete primary school and transit to secondary. (Completion and Transition);
2. Much access is compromised by high levels of over age enrolment, poor attendance, and low levels of accomplishment which individually and collectively can lead to silent exclusion;
3. Children who never attend school have characteristic forms of exclusion often linked to other marginalization; children who have reached the age of ten without attending school are not likely to ever enrol;

4. Increasingly those out of school are those who enrol but afterward drop out; the needs of those out of school have to be tackled alongside action to reduce drop out from future cohorts;

5. Poverty remains the most shared factor associated with exclusion; gender, disability, HIV status, social group affiliation, a location many other exclusions may interact with poverty and need addressing in ways that recognize the interactions;

6. Physical infrastructure often falls far short of that needed to provide a secure, healthy and friendly learning environment;

7. Learning materials vary widely in availability and quality but are central to the achievement of learning outcomes;

8. Teacher supply and deployment are widely inefficient and compromise effective and equitable access to education;

9. There are characteristic difference between high and low enrolment systems that signpost more and less effective practices;

10. Indicators used for performance management at system level need to be fit for purpose and coupled to data collection and analysis that monitors progress and identifies opportunities for improvement (CREATE, 2015).

With these assertions, it becomes clearer that educational access comes saddled with series of dimensions and in broader analysis, educational access cannot be complete without putting the term exclusion into consideration. Based on the afore-going contentions, the Dimensions of Educational Assess in totality includes the availability of educational facilities, enrolment of pupils, progression, completion, success rates and transition from the lower and middle basic class levels to the upper basic class levels. However, access is more than mere availability which is a precondition for ensuring access while incorporating other preconditions for access which includes availability, enrolment, progression, completion,

success, and transition. Subsequently a study on educational access would not be complete without putting into consideration, the people involved in the educational access activities. With an emphasis on this, it becomes imperative to focus on who gets the opportunity to educational access and who does not which inadvertently means exclusion.

Social exclusion could be interpreted both in terms of a (dynamic) process and a state. As a state, it refers to a state of denial of participation in important societal, cultural and economic spheres, due to a lack of resources to enable such participation. In the context of the theme such as education, equality and social exclusion this means a denial to participate in any kind of learning activities, which may be caused by a lack of financial means or by institutional, situational, psycho-social or personal (for instance, health) factors or by a lack of means and resources to obtain the information needed. Social exclusion is also interpreted as a (dynamic) process, since exclusion can occur at different stages in life in relation to various types of critical transitions and since being excluded is not necessarily a final position, but one which can be altered, depending on the depth of deprivation and on the resources provided to individuals. Social exclusion is problematic both at the societal and the individual level. At the individual level, since it denies individuals to participate (Jittie 2000).

The mechanisms of educational exclusions operate at and interact across several levels of the factors determining educational access. There exist different zones of exclusion with each zone containing its peculiar characteristics. Exclusion from basic education takes a number of inter-related forms which are conceptualized in the CREATE model in terms of zones of exclusion. Credence was given to the first zone as the most serious of the entire zones which is characterized by children who never enrolled in school. The remaining zones of exclusion describe exclusion from pre-schooling, premature drop-out, failure to complete primary and junior high school and silent-exclusion (a condition whereby children attend school but made little or no progress at all). Correspondingly, Indiantimes (2014) suggested

that Access issues are not restricted to socially or economically deprived, they arise when there is paucity in enrolment rates, rates of progression of pupils across grades and levels, completion process, success rates after completion and transition rates across levels.

Sociological Profile of the Study Areas and Nigerian Rural Setting

Having an estimated total population of 140,003,542 (Census Report, 2006), and a total land area of 923,768 square kilometers (356,669 square meters), Nigeria ranks as the tenth largest nation in the world, and by far the largest nation in Africa (StateUniversity.com, 2015). Nigeria is located north of the Gulf of Guinea in West Africa, and is bordered on the east by Cameroon, on the northeast by Chad, on the north by Niger, and on the west by the Republic of Benin. The country got her independence from Britain on October 1st 1960 and as a federation of thirty-six (36) states with a capital territory situated in Abuja, the country is divided into six geo-political zones.

Each geopolitical zone comprised of some states as assigned and depicted in table III:

Table 2: Distribution of States in Nigeria by Geo-Political Zones

Zones	States in the Geo-Political Zone	Number of States
North Central	Benue, Kogi, Kwara, Nassarawa, Niger, Plateau,	6
North East	Adamawa, Bauchi, Borno, Gombe, Taraba, Yobe	6
North West	Sokoto, Kebbi, Katsina, Jigawa, Kano, Kaduna, Zamfara	7
South East	Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu, Imo	5
South West	Ekti, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Osun, Oyo	6
South South	Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, Cross River, Delta, Edo, Rivers	6
Total		36

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2008.

Ekiti State

Ekiti State was created on the 1st of October 1996 during Nigeria's 36th independence anniversary. It was carved out of the former Ondo State, which itself came out of the old Western State created in 1967. It is made up of Ekiti Central, Ekiti North, Ekiti South and Ekiti West Divisions. Ekiti State comprises of 16 Local Government Areas with Ado-Ekiti as the capital of the state. The State is flanked by other neighbouring Nigerian states. It lies south of Kwara and Kogi States, East of Osun State and bounded by Ondo State in the East and in the south.

The estimated population upon its creation on October 1st 1996 was put at 1,750,000 (Logbab.com, 2015) while the estimated demographic data in 2006 is aggregated at 2,398,957 with 1,215,467 males and 1,183,470 females (Population Census Report, 2006). Ekiti has a rhythmically undulating surface. The landscape consists of ancient plains broken by steep-sided outcropping dome rocks. These rocks may occur singularly or in groups or ridges and this characteristic makes the state suitable for the purpose of research on school location and terrain. The major occupation in the State is agriculture.

Osun State

Osun State was created on the 27th day of August, 1991. The State was carved out of the old Oyo State by the General Ibrahim Babangida's administration. It is one of the 36 States which make up Nigeria. The 1991 census puts the population of the State at 2.2million. There are more than 200 towns, villages and other settlements in the State. The state has a considerable number of highly urbanized settlements. Osun State is bounded in the West by Oyo State, Ondo and Ekiti States in the East, Kwara State in the North and Ogun in the South. The State runs an agrarian economy with a vast majority of the populace taking to farming.

Oyo State

Created in 1976 out of the defunct Western Region, Oyo state is an inland state in the South-Western Geo-political zone of Nigeria. The state covers a total land mass of 27, 249 square kilometers and contains 33 local government areas with an estimated total population of 5,580,894 (Lawal & Ekundayo, 2009). The capital city is Ibadan. Oyo State is populated by the Yorubas, with a dominant language being Yoruba and agrarian occupation. However, each ethnic community that makes up the group is clearly distinguishable by its dialect. These include; the Ibadans, Ogbomoshos, Oke-oguns, Igbonnas, Ibarapas and Oyos among others. Oyo state is bounded in the north by Kwara State, in the east by Osun State, in the south by Ogun State and in the west partly by Ogun State and partly by the Republic of Benin. In terms of landmark achievement, Oyo state is the home of the first university in Nigeria; the University of Ibadan which was established as a college of the University of London when it was founded in 1948 and later converted into an autonomous university in 1962. Other noteworthy institutions in the city include the University College Hospital; the first teaching hospital in Nigeria and the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture

(IITA). Being part of the defunct western region in Nigeria, Oyo state is equivocally one of those exposed to the free education scheme since 1955.

Noteworthy, that there exists a common characteristic to all the three states highlighted above. They are all South-Western states; they were part of the defunct Western region in Nigeria; they were all involved in the free education scheme that started from 1955; they are involved with agrarian occupation; they are mostly Yoruba speaking states although with dialect variation and they are all presently involved with the Universal Basic Education Programme. More importantly, they all contain rural settings in their various settlements which are characteristic features of the locale in this study.

The term rural has not been in agreement in its definition because a people see it in different perspectives. To some, the term is as a function of a subjective state of mind while some other people categorise it as an objective quantitative measure. The United States Census Bureau (2015) defined the rural area as encompassing all population, housing, and territory not included within an urban area; while categorizing the urban into two: Urbanized Areas (UAs) of 50,000 or more people and Urban Clusters (UCs) of at least 2,500 and less than 50,000 people. In other words, aligning with this definition, the rural areas are those population, housing, and territory with less than 2,500 people.

A different definition of rural, based on much smaller geographic building blocks, is provided by the United States Census Bureau, whereas researchers often use the term rural when referring to non-metro areas, and Congressional legislation uses the term when describing different targeting definitions, the Census Bureau provides the official, statistical definition of rural, based strictly on measures of population size and density. According to the current delineation of the definition, released in 2012 and based on the 2010 decennial census, rural areas comprise open country and settlements with fewer than 2,500 residents.

The National Geographic Society (NGS, 2015) opined that rural area is an open swath of land that has few homes or other buildings, and not very many people hence with low population density. On a comparison mode, unlike in the urban areas where there are many people and with houses and businesses located very close to one another, the rural areas, have fewer people, with their homes and businesses located far away from each other. The NGS (2015) also agreed that agriculture is the primary industry in most rural areas with most people living or working on farms or ranches. Hamlets, villages, towns, and other small settlements are in or surrounded by rural areas. According to the NGS (2015), more people live in rural areas than in urban areas throughout the world.

The term rural is indeed ambiguous. Wiggins and Proctor (2001) point out that there is no exact definition of the term, but that rural areas are clearly recognisable. They constitute the space where human settlement and infrastructure occupy only small patches of the landscape, most of which is dominated by fields and pastures, woods and forest, water, mountain and desert. International Funds for Agricultural Development (IFAD, 2001) adds that rural people usually live in farmsteads or settlements of between 5,000 to 10,000 persons, but also makes the point that national distinctions between rural and urban are arbitrary and varied. Olatunboson (1975) as posited in Laah, Abba, Ishaya, and Gana, (2013), is of the view that the term rural is measured by two indices viz:

1. A spatial index indicating the percentage of the people living in rural areas and,
2. An occupational index that shows the percentage of the labour force in an agricultural occupation.

The choice of a rural definition should be grounded on the purpose of the application, whether that application is for research, policy analysis, or programme operation. For instance, tracking urbanization and its effect on farmland prices is best approached using the Census urban-rural definition because it is a land-use definition that distinguishes built-up

territory from immediately surrounding, less developed land. Studies designed to track and explain economic and social changes often choose to use the metro/non-metro classification, because it reflects a regional, labour-market concept and allows the use of widely available county-level data. The key is to use a rural-urban explanation that best fits the needs of a specific activity, recognizing that any simple dichotomy hides a complex rural-urban continuum, often with very gentle gradations from one level to the next.

However, towing the line of this definition dichotomy and defining it purposefully, the definition of rural for the purpose of this research, is characterised with criteria such as population density of about 20,000 people or less; a place devoid of a tertiary hospital but can allow a minimum of a local dispensary but lacking the interaction with a medical consultant ; a place with no bank or any financial institution; a place with not more than one secondary school or none at all; a place where the schools cannot boast of teachers who have attained a minimum of Master's Degree in Education; and a place that is about 5 kilometers and more than, away from urban.

The rural areas have been recognized as a key sector in developing countries and their rapid development and modernization have gained the attention of policy makers and government officials. Rural areas form an important sector of the economy because a large majority of the people lives therein; therefore, the general future of the country depends on it (Laah et al 2013). In lieu of this, Laah et al (2013) argued that Nigeria must give special preference to rural development in order for rural communities to contribute meaningfully to the social, cultural and economic development.

Current estimates put the rural population at over 80% of the entire population of the over 140 million people. In addition, Laah et al (2013) opined that so far, not much in terms of infrastructural development has been done to bring this bulk of concentration of both human and material resources to contribute optimally to national economy. However, this

neglect has resulted to the mass exodus of rural dwellers. Reports (World Bank, 1997) have it that majority of Nigerians live in rural areas, with an average settlement having 5,000 or less inhabitants.

Nonetheless, the rural dwellers are less vocal, characterized by a culture of poverty, as most people still live barely above subsistence level. According to the World Bank (1997), the number of rural poor in Nigeria is roughly twice that of the urban poor. The depth of poverty (i.e. the average shortfall from the poverty line) is more than double in rural areas. Rural areas in Nigeria are generally deprived of the basic needs of life such as clothing, housing, medical care, postal communication, education, transport facilities, recreation, neighbourhood amenities, credit facilities and horizon for self-improvement.

It is generally agreed that the rural sector has invariably lagged most in the rate of development and constituted a drag on national development as a whole. Despite the high number of development projects undertaken by national and international agencies within Nigeria, the living condition of the rural areas still remains deplorable as attested by many scholars studying the problem of the rural areas (Gbadamosi, 2001). Though the rural areas contributed more than 60% of the current revenues of state governments, it is disappointing to note that services such as water, electricity, health, education, transportation among others are limited and low in standard. While the urban centers are endowed with social services, the rural areas are left with bad roads, poor health facilities, and even schools (Laah et al 2013).

Having established that the population density is a major factor in determining where and what is rural, with other amenities as addendums, it becomes relevant to focus on the rural population in Nigeria. Rural population refers to people living in rural areas as defined by national statistical offices. It is calculated as the difference between total population and urban population. Collection of the urban and rural population may not add up to total population because of different country coverage (Index Mundi, 2013; Trading Economics

2015). In a related development, the value for the rural population in Nigeria was 93,589,090 as of 2013. Following the trends over the past 53 years, this indicator reached a maximum value of 93,589,090 in 2013 and a minimum value of 38,244,500 in 1960 (Index Mundi, 2013).

The importance of the existence of infrastructural facilities in both rural and urban environments cannot be over-emphasized (McNeil 1993). Coping with Infrastructural Deprivation Consequently, government attentions were directed at the few urban centres in terms of infrastructures and government edifices, while rural areas were neglected (Laah et al, 2013). It has been reported that the majority (90.0%) of the rural dwellers embarked on a journey on un-tarred rural roads and 84.0% of them travelled on bad roads, which consumed more time than necessary, this in relation to education and schooling could yield late coming, absenteeism, and even gender-based drop-out issues.

Sarkodie, Kwame, Emmanuel and Saaka (2014) in their study on the Assessment of Absenteeism and Lateness among Hospitality and Tourism Students in Sunyani Polytechnic, found out that Distance/location of the school is a causal factor; in their findings, Students who stay far away from school most often come to school late. The farther the location of the school from the pupil, the more the distractions such as traffic jam, road accidents, interruptions from friends and so forth. Though, students who are closer to the school do not experience such distractions and therefore able to come to school on time.

According to Oghuvbu (2008), distance to school, is one of the common causes for the lateness of the secondary students. Emore's (2005) study also revealed that distance to school is a factor to lateness to school. Other researchers also agreed with this affirmation (Arubayi, 2005; Duze, 2005). It has also been observed that cases exist where children travel up to five kilometers to school on foot and this stress of commuting to school weights children down (Duze, 2005).

However, a distance of one kilometer to school on foot is considered by school head teachers to be too long for children between the ages of six and seventeen. If students trek over one kilometer to school, the consequences would not be in the best interest of both the school and the child because set goals and objectives may not be truly achieved. In executing the compulsory free education programme, many States in Nigeria stipulated that schools should be located at not more than one kilometer from the residences of the communities to be served.

Also, researches have shown that long distances travelled to school are among the major reasons for high waster rates in primary and secondary schools in Nigeria, thus causing a large number of school dropouts (Arubayi, 2005; Duze, 2005; Madumere, 1991; Onakpoma, 2008). In another development, Taylor (2015) in his study on the analysis of the effects of distance on student attendance rates found out that distance does not affect the attendance rates of students in Philadelphia.

Furthermore, the inadequate provision of basic facilities in rural areas of developing countries also has its toll in Nigeria where 73% of its population are without access to electricity (Sunday Vanguard, 2007 & The Nigerian University Commission Report, 2005), and this makes efforts for development very difficult (Togola, 2005). Rural areas are prone to poverty according to series of researches. Poverty is most widespread in rural areas and tends to affect both women and men.

This becomes evident in schools and in the gender admission and progression rates. In most cases, the end product of rural poverty could result in lateness and total absenteeism. This could be due to the compulsory execution of some household chores which have turned to daily routines which could hinder the schooling exercise. Such chores include: fetching of water, grinding of cereal and collection of wood among others. In most cases, they have only their own might to rely upon and some crude tools with which to carry out these tasks. In

addition, these tasks are highly time-consuming and this, along with the huge physical effort required, which could also cause tiredness and fatigue in school. Ravinda (2007) in his study revealed that children living in the rural areas were withdrawn from the school so as to get their assistance in household and agricultural activities. Household activities consist of cooking, fetching water and firewood, and looking after the younger children and the home.

Poor transportation in the rural areas poses a challenge to rural growth and efficient movement efforts in Nigeria as it has continued to make most of the rural areas isolated from the main stream of the modern societies (Aloba 1986; Stutz 1976). This has caused low productivity, low income and a fall in the standard of living of rural people and high rate of poverty. Poor transportation accounts for the high rate of lateness and fatigue in the school.

Focusing on the assessment of the UBE programme in the rural areas and its development, the Nigerian factor and the rural characteristic factor cannot be completely ruled out. A lot of rigours, bottlenecks and unnecessary bureaucracy are often attached to the rural development process. This evident in the history of many of the rural development programmes which are often saddled with disappointments (Laah et al, 2013).

Another challenge in the rural area is the issue of creation of development programmes. Some of such proliferation dies with a successive government that initiated them. The problem of implementation is another glaring challenge. To this end, some of them are haphazardly implemented as a result of poor supervision. The issue of funding is also a big challenge. Some of the rural development programmes are so bogus without a clearly defined source of funding; a typical example as specified by Laah et al (2013) is the UBE.

Also, the rural area is characterised by vices like armed conflicts ranging from ethnic, religious and communal issues, corruption, and lack of integrity, accountability and transparency on the part of people who are supposed to implement developmental projects in the rural areas and rural residents. All these pose a big threat to rural structure and

educational endeavour. Nwakoby (2007) laments that public funds (made for rural projects) are stretched away in bank vaults in Europe and America, while an overwhelming proportion of the population lives in abject poverty.

School and Non-school Factors of Educational Access

Sociologically, the determinants of educational access occur in tiered nature ranging from the child factor, the home factor, the school factor, the political factor, the ecological factor and the socio-cultural factor. Daramola (1994) listed factors affecting school education as the family, social classes, peer groups, religion, geographical settings, economy, historical settings, government policies, curriculum, and the society itself. In the same vein, Ayorinde (2014) identified social sub-systems that has an impact on formal education as a cultural subsystem, family subsystem, political subsystem, economic subsystem, religion subsystem and security sub system all of which make up an entity referred to as a society.

Also, Werunga, Musera, and Sindabi (2011) have recognized a number of factors among which are: cultural, environmental, school-based or socio-economic factors. Werunga, Musera, and Sindabi (2011) report on factors affecting transition rates from primary to secondary school in Taita Taveta district, Kenya using a sample of 144 respondents consisting of 88 parents and 56 primary school head teachers in the district were used. The results indicated that an average of 40% of pupils fail to transit to secondary schools every year in the district and the most affected are girls. The main motives for non-transition were lack of funds to pay school levies, early marriages, trekking a long distance to school, and lack of interest in schooling.

In addition, Solarin (2012) observed that the socio-cultural barriers and bottlenecks are factors affecting the disposition and ability of families / households, based on the importance and value of the education they perceive, to enrol their children in school, and sustain their support until the children successfully complete their education. Some of these barriers

include: child's age (too young to attend school), early marriage, religious beliefs (perception of western education as incompatible with Islamic education), family size (large family size), gender imbalance (lesser status bestowed on the girl child in the family), peer pressure and the existence of children with special needs.

Further on the economic barriers and bottlenecks, Solarin (2012) explicated these to do with the socio-economic needs of the children and their families which can be classified as: socio-economic status of the family (poverty status), residence or location, child labour, pursuit for material wealth by youth, limited opportunities for school leavers; while the supply side barrier is categorized with: inadequate implementation of pre-primary articulation policy to public primary schools, shortage of teachers and caregivers at all levels of basic education schools, Safety / security of the children, Incessant and prolonged teachers' strike actions and low teacher commitment, Learner unfriendly school environment, Lack of / insufficient provision for education of special needs learners in basic education, Weak or non-provision of social protection for vulnerable children, and Non availability of schools in some communities.

However, putting into considering the various descriptions of various factors of access, it becomes easier to classify and categorize factors affecting children's access to basic education under two broad umbrellas viz: school factors and non-school factors. The school factors would encapsulate sub-factors such as: school location, availability of educational facilities, availability of teachers and caregivers at all levels of basic education schools, safety / security of the children during school hours, incessant and prolonged teachers' strike actions and low teacher commitment, school environment, provision for education of special needs learners in basic education, Weak or non-provision of social protection for vulnerable children, and non-availability of schools in some communities. Relatedly, the non-school factors would include cultural beliefs, cultural values on education, child's age, early

marriage, religious beliefs, family size, gender, peer pressure, the existence of children with special needs, economic status of the family, location, child labour, pursuit for material wealth by youth, and limited opportunities for school leavers

Furthermore, the Global Education Digest report (2011) which was released by the Institute for Statistics of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) laid emphasis on the fact that while girls face barriers in all regions of the world, sub-Saharan Africa is the only region in which the gender gap is getting worse at the upper secondary level, with eight million boys enrolled compared to six million girls. In the report, girls are particularly disadvantaged with nearly one-half of the countries where girls were less likely to complete primary education than boys were, in sub-Saharan Africa. The report also noted that in the Central African Republic, Chad and the Democratic Republic of the Congo, between 57 and 69 girls enter the last grade of school for every 100 boys.

Accordingly, UNICEF (2015) opined that even though the nine-year cycle of the UBE is free and compulsory for all children, only 22 per cent of the over 10.5 million eligible children between 12 and 14 years of age were enrolled in Junior Secondary Schools as at 2006. In agreement, Adedoja (2011) posited that many adolescents do not attend school because their parents are unable to afford the monetary cost of schooling while for others; they have to start working to support their family. Figures also show that there are higher proportions of boys in junior secondary school as compared to girls. Adedoja (2011) added that transition rates from primary school into junior secondary school are low compared to the 100 per cent transition rate envisioned under the country's education scheme. Although there has been a slight increase in transition rates, opportunities for entering into junior secondary schools are limited. National data shows that more than half of the children who would have been admitted are denied admission due to absence of space.

This can be explained by the lack of adequate schools. In many cases, the great distance to schools is a major obstacle to enrolment. In addition, those who enrol in school either drop out or attend irregularly. In 2006, only 33% of the pupils completed Junior Secondary School. The lack of adequate sanitation in schools also contributes to poor school attendance of the girl child (UNICEF, 2015). It has been observed that inspite of government's effort at providing logistics aids, a lot of Nigerian children basically drop out of school (Walu, 2012). Ayorinde (2008) observed that the target of 2015 was a mirage because the UBE programme is beset with problems of enrolment.

Gozie (2000) noted that the major factor in enrolment is linked to gender issue; that the sex differences affect the enrolment level both at the primary and post primary level. He maintains that environmental impediments coupled with cultural practices are hindrances to enrolment in schools. He further observed high enrolment rate at the primary school level and a corresponding declining rate of progression from primary one to six and declining rate of transition from primary six to basic level seven.

In the same opinion, Ayorinde (2008) maintained that other social disadvantages have held back parents enrolling their children and wards into the UBE programme and has considered factors such as hawking, street begging, early marriages, teenage pregnancy and child trafficking. He concludes that these social disadvantages work against the realization of the goals of the Universal Basic Education.

In their study, Hussain et al (2012) conducted an investigation into the availability of educational facilities at the secondary level in District Karak, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. After analysis of the data, the researchers arrived at the conclusion that educational facilities were not available in the schools at the secondary level which is the main obstruction and hindrance in acquiring quality education. The study further revealed that corruption, ineffective educational policies, poor implementation of policies, lack of check and balance

system, inadequate budget for education, poor management system, and political interference are the main factors which are responsible for the poor availability of educational facilities at the secondary level in District Karak.

Similarly, Mpho (2012) opined that School facilities influence the teaching and learning process and this determines the trend in school activities and processes which influences teacher performance and student achievement and promulgated that this should be central concerns of educational planners. Mpho in his study titled *Linking the School Facilities Conditions to Teachers' Level of Job Dissatisfaction in the South Central Region of Botswana* found out that the quality of available facilities is an important predictor of the decisions of teachers to leave their current position. This may be a causal factor for rural urban drift of teachers.

In support of this, Kennedy (2001) held that the quality of school facilities is seen as an influencing factor in the decision making of the individual teachers, as to whether they stay in the profession or not. Although the importance of the facility quality has a bearing on teachers' job dissatisfaction in developed and developing countries, the quality of facility and its availability is an influencing factor to teacher job dissatisfaction (Benner, 2000; Tye & O'Brien, 2002). To consider buildings and other amenities within the education system is to traverse the contrasting perceptions and expectations of different stakeholders. Jago and Tanner (1990); Haar (1999) cite facility as an appropriate predictor of teacher and student commitment to their duties and reduce off-task behaviour and play a significant role in the achievement of both teachers and students.

In a related development, Tadesse (2014) carried out a study on *The Availability of School Facilities and Their Effects on the Quality of Education in Government Primary Schools of Harari Regional State and East Harare Zone, Ethiopia*. The research result showed that the availability of school facilities and instructional materials were unavailable, less in

quantity and quality and this in turn created a great challenge on teaching and learning activities thus having a negative impact on the quality of education.

Akuegwu (2005) ascertained that, without a good socio-psychological, physical and intellectual environment, teachers and students cannot perform well in their academic activities; that is, if the work environment is poor or uncondusive it may have a negative effect on the academic performance of the students (cited in Ajayi, Awosusi, Arogundade, & Ekundayo, 2011). Buttressing this, Churchill (1965) also found a positive relationship between the location of a school and the student and teacher performance (cited in Etsey, 2005). Availability of educational facility encompasses not just the existence of the school but the distance of the available school which is in line with Churchill's view.

Most existing research on school attainment and family background effects have used static framework and have focused on single educational-transition models (Willis & Rosen, 1979; Mare, 1980) or highest grade completed (Dreze & Kingdon, 2001; Birdsall, 1985; Psacharopoulos & Patrinos, 1997). Educational-transition models consider family background characteristics as determinant of transition probability from one stage of education to another. Models of highest grade attained/completed are ordinary least squared. However, there has been a criticism on single educational-transition models in that they ignore "educational selectivity" such that it does not account for previous transitions, say from each class in the primary school settings.

Models of the number of completed years of education feature the same limitation. Further, they suppose that family factors play the same role at different stages of education. Yet, schooling is a cumulative and sequencing/dynamic process. Family factors may have different influence at different level of education (Tenakue, 2010). In a study, Tenakue (2010) models school attainment as the outcome of four decisions taken sequentially In

Cameroon, with a calculated percentage of gross enrolment rates in primary school greater than the gross enrolment rate in secondary school.

Conversely, from the estimated model, four other striking results were found: that parental wealth has no effect on primary school entry, but It is however a good predictor of completing primary and secondary education. When household wealth increases, children have higher probability to complete primary education and to move up to the end of secondary education. Second, children from agricultural households are less likely to go through the schooling process. Even when they start their education process, their probability to move to higher level of education is lower.

Third, female children and in particular those with an irregular school progression rhythm, are less likely to complete primary and secondary education. Conditional on primary school entry, they are also less likely to move to higher level of education. Fourth, while the supply of primary and secondary school respectively constitutes barriers to primary and secondary school entry, the lack of secondary schools has an additional negative effect on the likelihood to enter primary school (Tenakue, 2010).

However, quantitative work showed that exclusion from basic schooling in the broad sense defined by CREATE is associated with health, poverty, livelihoods (especially farming), gender, location (especially remote and rural) and with parental education and support. Findings suggest that exclusion operates through complex, cross-cutting and mutually reinforcing mechanisms which conspire to limit the access chances of disadvantaged children in evolving ways over the educational life-cycle.

Summarily, factors determining educational access would be curled around six major educational access determinants which are sub systems of the society and education in itself. They are: The child factor, the home factor, the educational subsystem, the community's socio-cultural practices, the geographical / ecological factor and the political system. The

factors contributing to educational exclusion are complex and overlapping as it has some strongly identified linkages with community livelihoods, low parental literacy, poor health and nutrition, over-age enrolment, poverty, rural habitation, poor school attendance and poor achievement.

Contained in the studies of child factor are features such as health and delinquency (Ayorinde, 2014); child's health and age (CREATE, 2012). In their study on access, transition, and equity in education in Ghana, Akyeampong et al (2012) found an interactive positive effect between age and over-age status which indicates that being overage is associated with greater absence levels for older pupils. Although national data do not generally permit accurate analysis of schooling access levels according to specific health and disability conditions, better information is available in relation to more general indicators of development linked to nutrition, specifically height, weight and body mass index BMI. In a related study, UNICEF (2010) found in a study that lower height-for-age status was linked with lower levels of school attendance.

The height-for-age which is an indicator of growth stunting has been recognised as one important effect of nutrition and malnutrition and it is increasingly recognized that the first two years of childhood nutrition has long-lasting effect on child's brain development and cognitive function (Gale, Catherine, O'callaghan, Keith, Law, & Martyn, 2003; Wilson, Darell, Hammer, Sanford, Dornbusch, Hints, Gross & Rosenfield 1986). Poor nutrition can have a severely adverse effect on a child's success in school directly affecting long term cognitive development (Akyeampong et al, 2012).

In a related review, Buxton (2011) found out in a research which examined the relationship between children's nutritional status (nourished, malnourished, overweight, or obese) and schooling, that children who are affected by physical growth retardation appear to be more likely to find themselves in zones 1, 2, and 3 of the CREATE's zones of exclusion

model where they either never enrol in school, drop out before completing primary education or are in school but are attending and attaining poorly, putting them at a higher risk of dropping-out. According to Evans, Bronheim, Bynner, Klasen, Magrab, and Ranson (2011), children also often suffer from ill health which also lead to learning difficulties, restricted emotional development, poor mental health, criminality, teenage pregnancies amongst others.

Furthermore, under the home subsystems are factors such as parental education, parental occupation, parental place of residence, socio economic status of parents and parenting style (Meighen, 1981 in Daramola, 2012). In addition, the home also plays a significant role with subcategories such as family type (polygamous, nuclear, extended, and monogamous); child fosterage; religion; and the socio-economic status of the family. In agreement with Olaniyan (2011), household level factors include household income and assets, parental education and household structure in terms of demographic composition.

The relationship between household income and schooling is usually argued to be positive (Glick & Sahn, 2000). This is because poor households may be unable to afford the direct and indirect costs of schooling and may be constrained in their ability to borrow to cover the costs. Generally, a household would not send its children to school if it falls into poverty. Low level of incomes of parents has been argued as one of the main reasons why many children withdraw from schools (Ray, 2000). In support of this, Evans et al (2011) state that in places where single parent families and absent male role models are common, mothers, therefore, must have a number of jobs, to raise adequate resources, and to try to keep the family together. Bickel & Lange (1995) also stated that the lack of job opportunities of parents make it hard for rural students to see any financial benefit in attending or achieving success in school.

Interest has progressively focused on the identification of those factors which are specifically linked with parents' socioeconomic and educational levels that could have some

impact on their children's performance, particularly where school learning is concerned (Piacente, Marder, Resches, & Ledesma, 2006, Rodríguez-Brown, 2009 in Querejeta, 2010). Research has found relevant differences in children's home experiences as regards their social backgrounds (Raz, & Bryant, 1990; Chaney, 1994; Marvin, & Mirenda, 1993; Elliot, & Hewison, 1994, Pucell-Gates, 2000 in Querejeta 2010).

The type of home a child comes out from affects the learning ability of the child in terms of his acceptance of the values by which the home is adapted to. Children can come out from various types of homes such as the stable home, polygamous home, divorced or separated homes, poor home, affluent home, literate home, illiterate home, Christian home, Islamic home, traditional homes, authoritative home, nonchalant home, homes located in serene environments, homes located in loud and crowded environment such as motor parks and markets and so on. Nwadinigwe (2002) observed that children from polygamous homes also suffer from lack of attention which affects their willingness to do anything constructive. Denga (2007) asserted that polygamous marriages affect children in diverse psychological ways which affect their academic performance in schools.

The educational factors would focus on issues of school building, availability of school teaching materials, teacher-student ratio and relationship (Daramola, 2012). Reviewing the USLegal, Inc (2012) definition of Educational facilities as those facilities provided to students, so that they can use every opportunity to develop full potential; Educational facilities would include buildings, fixtures, and equipment necessary for the effective and efficient operation of the programme of public education, classrooms, libraries, rooms and space for physical education, space for fine arts, restrooms, specialized laboratories, cafeterias, media centers, building equipment, building fixtures, furnishings, related exterior facilities, landscaping and paving, and similar items which the State Board of Education may determine necessary.

UNESCO (1994) classified educational materials and equipment as a generic term covering, on one hand, the hardware (apparatus or equipment used for educational resources) and on the other hand the software (programmes, books and other materials) used in the teaching - learning process. From an operational point of view, instructional materials are important in the three domains of knowledge, abilities and skills that reside in every man. A new body of academic inquiry is growing with a focus on the physical environment in the educational process.

Studies in the Capistrano Unified School District (CUSD) in Orange County, California found that the students in classrooms with natural lighting, large windows or well-designed skylights performed 19 to 26 percent better than their peers in classrooms without these features (Hale, 2002). Recent health related issues are driving schools to focus on the impact that overcrowding and congestion in the classrooms has on the attendance and achievement rate of students (De Patta, 2002). Even the impact of furnishings in educational settings has been addressed. Anchorage, Alaska schools developed a committee dedicated to selecting equipment in which students can work comfortably, furnishings that create an aesthetically pleasing ambiance, and furniture that stands up to the rugged treatment it receives from daily student use (Kennedy, 2003).

Blair (1998) posited that there is a significant likelihood that availability of educational facilities will positively influence performance. The correlation appears to be positive between facility design and learning. Chan (1996) clarifies that poor learning facilities can foster negative attitudes just as exceptional designs may bolster achievement. On the use of particular educational facility, Heyneman and White (1986) argued that textbooks are important in improving students' performance while Lockhead & Verspoor (1990) regarded textbooks as the single most important instructional material. Fuller (1987) also found that instructional materials, textbooks, the presence of a school library, and the

length of days were major factors in students' learning ability and achievement. Hallak in Fabiyi (1999) revealed that facilities are a major factor influencing academic achievement in the school system; such facilities highlighted were school buildings, classroom accommodation, libraries, laboratories, furniture, apparatus and recreational equipment. He noted that availability, relevance and adequacy of these will contribute positively to achievement.

Research on teacher personality is based on the assumption that the teacher as a person is a significant variable in the teaching-learning process. Personality influences the behaviour of the teacher in diverse ways, such as interaction with students, methods selected, and learning experiences chosen (Murray, 1972). Each individual has characteristic attributes of personality which influence both the manner in which he behaves toward others and the ways in which they respond to him. The teacher with pervasive authoritarian characteristics, for example, is likely to reflect them in his relationships with students and in the techniques he uses in his instruction (Morrison and McIntyre, 1972). Theorists, Earthman (1996), Edwards (1992), Edwards (2006), and Hines (1996) had shown in their research that school climate—orderly, appropriate, and safe educational facilities, which were conducive to teaching and learning, to be determinant of academic access.

Caplan (1995) observed that high levels of parent involvement in their children's education result in higher student achievement, higher attendance levels, a decline in drop-out rate, fewer disciplinary problems and better students motivation, self-esteem and behaviour. Corroborating this, Gonzalez (2001) pointed out that when parents are involved in the education of their children, such children perform better academically. It is the parents' aspirations about their children's educational attainment that has a consistent and positive effect on students' academic growth.

Fan (2001) also reported positive correlation between academic achievement and parent involvement. Invariably, parents' occupational level has a significant role to play as regards their active involvement in children education as the Socio-economic status of parents will reflect the type of active participation shown towards their children's education. According to Berner (1993), parents who permit unlimited access to entertainment media such as video games and non-educational television shows negatively impact their child's learning and achievement while those who encourage educational media usage such as researching school paper topics on the Internet or using virtual math manipulative can help their child's school performance. Moreover, the existence of sufficient resources at home enables children to have greater opportunities to learn (Ferreiro, & Teberosky, 1979). Similarly, the political terrain of society also proves to be a determinant of educational access with sub categories like war, insurgency, policies of inclusiveness and exclusiveness, corruption and statistical flux. The real challenge that militates against the comprehension of the MDGs is those of policy execution because sufficient budgetary allocations have been made by the government. The operation of MDGs has been characterized by deeply entrenched corruption, wastefulness and gross inefficiency (The Guardian, 2009).

Corruption has been a major challenge because it makes the country unpleasant to investors as it increases the cost and risk of doing business in the country (UNDP, 2004). In addition, the delivery of education in Nigeria has suffered from, inadequate attention to policy frameworks within the sector compounded by years of neglect. There are a lot of challenges facing Nigeria and making it hard for good quality education that is empowering and capable of bringing about sustainable development to be provided. The greatest challenge facing education is inadequate funding by federal, state and local governments, to the extent that funding has been in response to conditionality imposed by international financial institutions.

UNDP (2005) recognized by that if the current trend remains, the target of achieving universal primary education by 2015 will be missed by at least a decade. There will be 47 million children out of school in 2015, 19 million of them in sub-Saharan Africa. Forty-six countries are going backwards or will not meet the target until after 2040. It is good to state here that notwithstanding the present challenges to the realization of the goals, the country has sufficient resources needed to meet the MDGs target by 2015 but what is of utmost importance and require for this to materialize is for the country's leadership to overhaul its conceptualization and implementation of policies and programmes to meet the 2015 target (NPC, 2007).

Nevertheless, the presence of ecological factors such as landscape, location (urban, rural), topography (riverside, marshy, hilly and rocky areas), weather (hot regions and cold regions), and disasters (flooding, tsunamis, earthquake) contribute as determinants of educational access. Evans et al (2011) maintained that rural areas frequently suffer from geographical isolation, with poor transport and communication facilities. Rural isolation is also common especially if parents do not have cars. The areas are often seriously deprived in terms of social amenities, access to shopping facilities, libraries and sporting facilities. There is often substantial poverty. Unemployment is common leading to poverty. Children often are hungry or without the appropriate clothes e.g. to attend school in the rain.

Also, socio-cultural practices could be part of factors determining educational access. Cultural factors that favour sending boys to school while keeping girls at home to do domestic work combined with low expectations that girls will enter the job market are often cited as primary reasons for gender differentials. In a related development as stated by Akyeampong et al (2007) educational access differs widely by community, according to the nature of supply and to dominant livelihoods and cultural traditions. The cultural and religious beliefs determine the community's attitude to schooling.

Tenikue (2010) stated that the supplies of primary and secondary schools have a significant effect on primary and secondary education; asserting that the further the distance to the school, the lower the likelihood to enter or to complete the corresponding schooling stage. The results of Tenikue's (2010) research showed that the absence of a public secondary school in the village lessens the incentive to send children in primary school. This is meaningful in an environment where private return to education might be flat for children with some primary education and increases as children start secondary education (Kuepie, Nordman, & Roubaud, 2006). Evans et al (2011) listed the characteristic factors of social exclusion in children sequentially as: poor acquisition of the basic skills of literacy and numeracy, poor educational attainment through school, early leaving from education without qualifications, early labour market entry problems, including jobs without training, casual work and unemployment, teenage pregnancy, trouble with the police, alcohol abuse, criminal convictions, poor physical and especially mental health.

Factors that are likely to determine exclusion zone 0 which is characterized by children excluded from pre-schooling, could have resulted from either the child factor (health), the home factor (parents' income, parents' level of education), the political factor (insurgencies and war), the ecological factor (school location) and the socio-cultural factor (gender, cultural beliefs, religion) or all the entire factors. Also, under the educational exclusive group in zone 1, determinant factors could be the child factor (age), the home factor (parents' income, parents' level of education), the school factor (type of school available), the political factor (unfavourable educational policies) the ecological factor (school location) and the socio-cultural factor (gender, cultural beliefs, religion).

In addition, determinant factors of zone 2 of exclusion that is, children who have dropped out before the end of primary schooling, could be due to ill health, failure, child fosterage, and socio economic status of the family. While factors responsible for zone 3 level

of exclusion, that is, those in primary school but who are at threat of dropping out could be due to ill health, failure, child fosterage, and socio economic status of the family also. All of these could also account for factors determining exclusion in zone 4 zones of the exclusion model, (those who complete primary education but fail to enter lower secondary school).

These factors lead to low standards of education and hence potential exclusion through factors such as inertia and restricted experiences, parochiality, hopelessness about the future, low educational aspirations, disaffection and community anger. Osarenren (2004) argued about nature / nurture ideals that both the environment of the home and the natural characteristic of the home a child find himself go a long way in influencing his learning abilities. Summarily, Factors such as race, religion, gender, sexual orientation, disability, perceived intellectual ability, past academic performance, special-education status, English-language ability, and family income or parental educational-attainment levels and other factors such as relative community affluence, geographical location, or school facilities may contribute to certain students having more or less access to educational opportunities than other students.

Theoretical framework

This study is focused on the Access of children in rural areas to Basic Education with a major focus on factors responsible for urban/ rural disparities in enrolment, retention and successful completion. In carrying this out, three sociological theories of education would be a hinge point for the studies; the Evolutionary Theory; where the advancement of educational policies lies; the Conflict Theory, which focuses on competition and on the distribution of resources, power, and inequality; and Abraham Maslow's Theory of human motivation which contends that people have tendencies towards and needs for certain things. Below are the expounded theories and their essential elements upon which this study is hinged.

The Evolutionary Theory: This theory is the earliest theoretical perspective in sociology. Based on the work of Auguste Comte (1798-1857) and Herbert Spencer (1820-1903), it seemed to offer a satisfying explanation of how human societies, institutions, culture and practices originate and grow. The origination of educational policies such as Education for All (EFA), UPE, and UBE amongst others could be hinged upon the framework of evolutionary perspective. Sociologists using the evolutionary perspective look for patterns or change and development appearing in different societies, institution, ideas and even policies to see whether any general sequences can be found. In sync with this perspective, this study, seeks to look for patterns or change and developments in an educational policy (UBE under the MDGs to UBE under the SDGs) which supposedly runs globally with a focus on rural areas to seek whether general sequences occur. For example, the disciples of the evolutionary perspective might wonder whether Chinese Communism will develop in the same way as Russian Communism which gained power three decades earlier or whether industrialization will have the same effects upon the family in developing countries that it seems to have had in western nations. Also in the same vein, effort is being made in this study, to assess the children living in the South-Western rural areas' access to UBE in Nigeria, even though that region was the very first to embrace free education policy.

The Conflict Theory: Conflict theory is derived from the ideas of Karl Marx (1818-1883), who believed that the society is a dynamic entity constantly undergoing change driven by class conflict as result of competition over scarce resources (Boundless, 2015). According to the conflict perspective, society is made up of limited resources hence the outbreak of disproportion in broader social structures and organizations such as education, religion, government, and economic resources amongst others. This reflects the rationale behind inherent inequality such that some people and organizations have more resources while some do not have as much. Wright Mills is known as the propounder of modern conflict theory. In

his work, he believes that social structures are created because of conflict between differing interests. People are then impacted by the creation of social structures, and the usual result is a differential of power between the "elite" and the "others". Examples of the "elite" would be those in the urban areas.

Sociologists who work from the conflict perspective study the distribution of resources, power, and inequality. When studying a social institution or phenomenon, they ask, "Who benefits from this element of society?" this applies to the education policy of UBE in Nigeria in its clause of the free and compulsory element. Allan (2006) agreed that in general, conflict theory not only seeks to scientifically explain the general contours of conflict in society but also centralize its concerns on the unequal distribution of scarce resources and power. What these resources are might be different for each theorist, but conflict theorists usually work with Weber's three systems of stratification: class, status, and power all of which are entwined in the whims and caprices of locality (urban /rural). Conflict theory, therefore, gives sociologists a framework for explaining social change.

Also, Conflict theorists point to several key factors in defending their position. First, in developing countries such as Nigeria where the administration of formal educational institutions are under the tutelage of state and local government authorities, taxes fund most schools; therefore, schools in affluent localities have more money. Such areas are predominantly urban. They can afford to pay higher salaries, attract better teachers, and purchase newer texts and more technology (Hemrom, 2008).

Social Conflict theory is studied on a Macro level. Some factors like race, social class, age, ethnicity, gender and sexual orientation can bring about an unequal distribution of money, education, power, and social prestige. Most sociologists use this approach not just to know and understand society, but to make societal changes that would reduce inequality. For example, Karl Marx used this approach not only to understand society but to cause changes

that will reduce inequality. In line with this theory, the disparity between the availability of educational resources and general access to basic education in rural areas as disparate as its urban counterpart becomes meaningful.

Theory of Human Motivation: The theory of Human Motivation is postulated by Abraham Maslow in 1943 (Maslow, 1943). Maslow contends that people have tendencies towards and needs for certain things. Maslow discusses that if one was both hungry and thirsty; there is a high tendency for the thirst to be attended to first as a matter of urgency. The theory of human motivation may be a plausible explanation for the enrolment, retention and completion dichotomy in the urban and rural areas as people have to make choices on whether to send their children to school or not amongst other social pressing needs. The choice of making an immediate livelihood for the people in the rural areas outweighs that of academic pursuance thus providing a hinge-point upon which the factors affecting enrolment and retention lay upon.

This study though hinged upon a tripartite theoretical framework, is generally inclined towards an interpretive paradigm; which views people as having a human life, a social life, a human mind, human behaviour as well as a social world and not as mere sources of data (Mason, 2002), all of which combines to make up factors responsible for educational access.

Appraisal of Reviewed Literature

There is an established relationship between education and national development worldwide, hence education has been identified as a significant index of development. In lieu of this, emphasis in recent times has been on the access to basic education by all citizens. However, several documents which abound globally show that there are disparities in educational access and achievements as well as high levels of absolute educational deprivation of children in the rural areas (Subramanian, 2002). Daramola (1994) listed some factors affecting school education amongst others such as the family, social classes, peer

groups, religion, geographical settings, economy, historical settings, government policies, curriculum, and the society itself. Also, Ayorinde (2014) identified social factors that have an impact on formal education as cultural, family, political, economic, religion and security. In the agreement, all of these factors have a remarkable relationship with a child's enrolment, retention and completion approach to basic education, whether positively or negatively. Cumulatively, the factors affecting children's access to basic education are subcategorized into school and non-school factors putting into consideration, the long list of factors outlined by some Sociology of Education researchers (Daramola, 1994; Solarin, 2012; Ayorinde, 2014) amongst others. Indisputably, the non-school factors include: child's age, child's health, early marriage, religious beliefs, family size, gender imbalance, peer pressure, children with special needs, socio-economic status of the family, residence / location, child labour, inadequate implementation of pre-primary articulation policy to public primary schools, shortage of teachers and / or caregivers at all levels of basic education schools, safety / security of the children, incessant and prolonged teachers' strike actions, fosterage, social sub-systems, cultural subsystems, family subsystems, political subsystems, economic subsystems, religious subsystems and security sub systems.

Relatedly, school factors affecting children's access according to reviewed literature were deduced as: lack of / insufficient educational infrastructural and instructional resources, dilapidated conditions of educational resources, school distance, teachers-pupil ratio, teachers' harshness, low teacher commitment, learner unfriendly school environment, lack of / insufficient provision for education of special needs learners in basic education, weak or non-provision of social protection for vulnerable children, and non-availability of schools in some communities

In combating these challenges, the declaration of the World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA) which was made in Jomtien Thailand in 1990 stated clearly that every

person, child, youth and adult shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic needs. Also, the millennium development goals (MDGs) aimed to achieve universal basic education by the year 2015 while the sustainable development Goals (SDGs) is fully geared on the same course by the year 2030. The development of these SDGs, according to the United Nations' Report (2016), is an extension of a process that is needed to agree and advance the development goals from 2015-2030. The report further agrees that although significant progress has been made towards raising access to education at all levels and increasing enrolment rates in schools, recent statistics show that there are disparities in numbers of enrolment, retention and completion between children in the rural areas and their counterparts in the urban centres.

In an effort to actualize the prerogative of the universal basic education, the different dimensions of education access come into being. As suggested by Oneblog (2014), a focus on educational access should not only be on enrolment, but on the whole activities from enrolment, retention to completion. Adding the argument of Sengupta (2011), that it is wise to focus on the availability of the educational resources but more focus should be on the point of entry, spanning through the course of study to the level of completion with successful achievement which leads to the accomplishment of self-reliance which is the overall aim of the United Nation's pronouncement.

Also, Indiantimes (2014) stated that the preconditions for access include availability, enrolment, progression, completion, success, and transition; emphasizing on each as preconditions to educational access. Accumulating all these descriptions, the dimensions of educational access could be seen to be the totality of the following: availability, enrolment, progression, completion and success. In agreement with Indiantimes (2014) on the dimensions of access and with NEDS (2016) on the disparities in figures on each dimension of access, those factors highlighted as affecting access becomes vital for analysis.

Noteworthy that issues of educational access are not limited to a particular locale whether rural areas or urban. Although there may exist some differences in the determinant factors the continuum of educational access remains the same across boundaries whether rural or urban even though both have different characteristics as opined by Wiggins and Proctor (2001), and the National Geographic Society (NGS, 2015) among other researchers.

The NGS (2015) defined the rural area as an open swath of land that has few homes or other buildings, with low population density and also added that agriculture is the primary industry in most rural areas with most people living or working on farms or ranches. Similarly, Wiggins and Proctor (2001) pointed out that space where human settlement and infrastructure occupy only small patches of the landscape, most of which is dominated by fields and pastures, woods and forest, water, mountain and desert is described as rural. International Funds for Agricultural Development (IFAD, 2001) adds that rural people usually live in farmsteads or settlements of between 5,000 to 10,000 persons. In other words, the choice definition of a rural area should be based on the purpose of the application, whether that application is for research, policy analysis, or programme implementation.

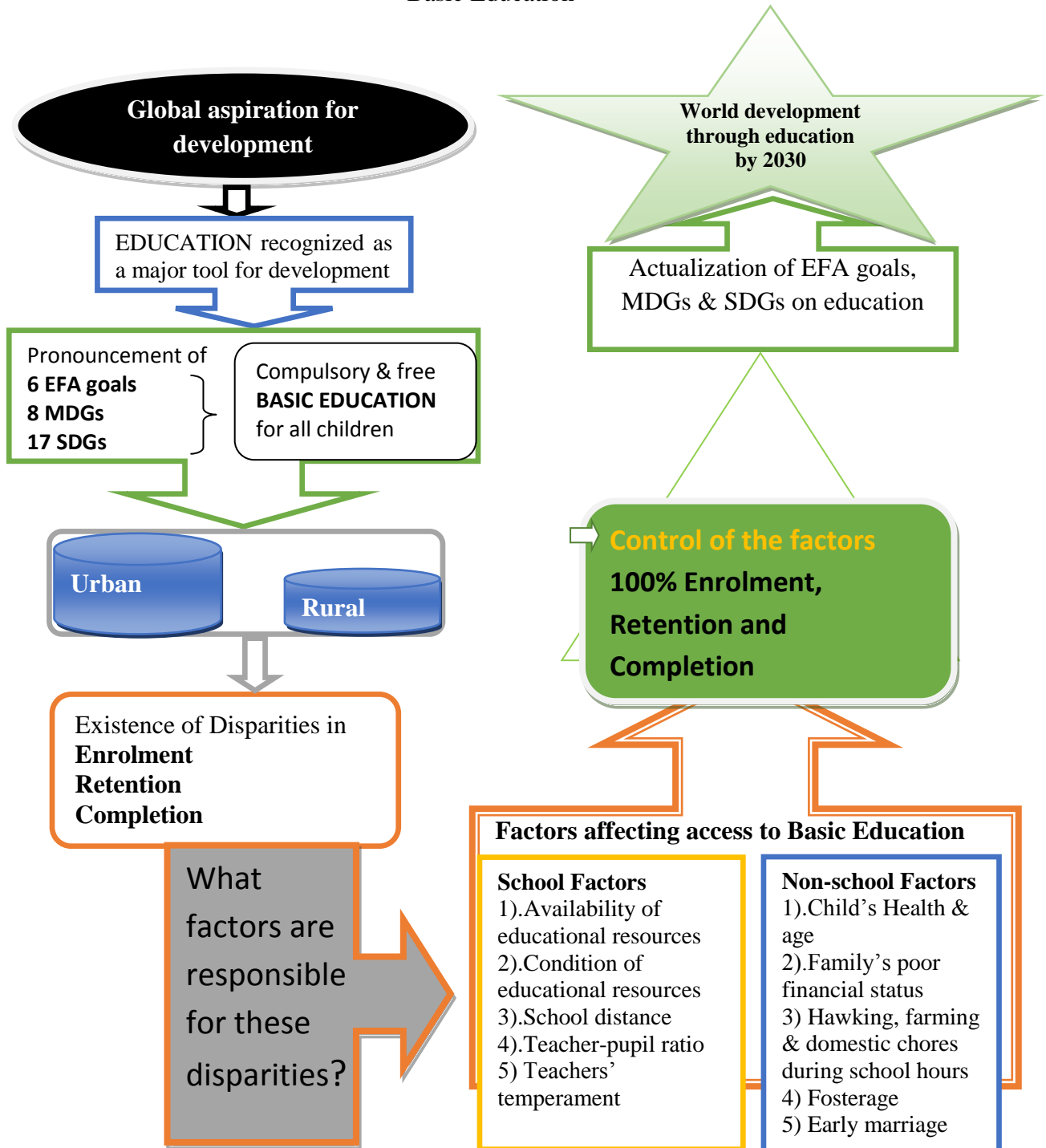
In summary, access to Universal primary education involves entering school at an appropriate age, progressing through the system and completing a full cycle. Meeting the Education Goal would tend to speed up progress toward every other Millennium Goal. For the Education Goal to be met, actions need to address both human and material needs classified as school and non-school factors of getting all children into school and ensuring they complete a quality education especially rural communities.

Conceptual Framework

This study is grounded on a unique conceptualization which spans from the historical desire for world development; through the recognition of education as a key tool and its declaration as free and compulsory via policies; through the observations of rural / urban

disparities and to the analysis of the factors responsible for the disparities. This unique conception serves as a graphic roadmap for the study as presented in figure 1:

Figure 1: A Schematic Model of the Conception, Dimensions and Factors affecting Access to Basic Education



Source: Researcher's conceptualization of a schematic model on dimensions of access and factors affecting children's access to Basic Education in the rural areas of Nigeria

Figure one illustrates the world's ambition for better living of all mankind and global national development while also putting into considering the continual declaration of goals and recognition of some factors affecting the achievement of these goals. Stemming from the global aspiration for national development across the globe is the recognition of education as a major tool amongst others, to catalyse the achievement of this aim. Upon the recognition of education as a key tool for national development, a pronouncement of a free and compulsory universal basic education for all children of school going age was made subsequently after several summits where some goals like the six EFA Goals, the eight MDGs and the 17 SDGs were pronounced.

The pronouncement of these goals is bond by limitless geographical boundaries in such a way that children across the world, regardless of continent, race, gender and national location whether rural or urban, should have equal and equitable access to basic education. However, recent statistics as depicted in the figure above shows that disparities exist in the rural / urban levels of access to basic education based on some of the dimensions of access to basic education like, enrolment, retention and completion rates. Correspondingly, there is a growing concern on the occurrence of these rural/ urban disparities which gave birth to the recognition of likely factors affecting children's access to basic education in the rural areas. Upon the recognition of factors, they are categorized under the school and non-school factors which when sorted out, would yield the actualization of EFA goals, MDGs and SDGs on education which would in turn, satisfy the world's desire for development through education by the bench-mark year 2030. This inter-related model would assist the researcher in the design and implementation of this study towards providing answers to the research questions thereby achieving the specific purposes of the research.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter is concerned with the methods that were employed in carrying out this study. These include:

- a. Research Design;
- b. Population, Sample and Sampling Techniques;
- c. Instrumentation;
- d. Procedure for Data Collection; and
- e. Data Analysis Techniques

Research Design

This study adopted the descriptive Survey research method. A survey design involves asking a large group of respondents' questions about a particular issue which according to Creswell (2003) provides a quantitative description of trends, attitudes or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population. The design has an advantage because it is easy to apply research instruments such as questionnaire which also allows for the collection of data from a large number of respondents in a relatively short period.

The researcher was privy to required information and data, described the results precisely by recording, analysing, and interpreting it thereby justifying the use of the descriptive survey method.

Population, Sample and Sampling Techniques

The population of this study comprised of the entire basic six pupils and all Head teachers of middle basic (primary) schools in South-west Nigeria. The target population comprised of all basic six pupils and all Head teachers of elementary / middle basic schools (primary) in the rural areas of the selected South-western states of Nigeria namely; Ekiti,

Osun and Oyo State and the sample selected are 545 basic six pupils and 1,143 head teachers. The basis for choice of this region is because it is the region that pioneered major literacy campaign in Nigeria since 1955 (Kolawole & Adepoju, 2007); for the choice of basic six pupils was because pupils at this level are expected to be literate enough to comprehend and respond adequately to the questionnaire items posed to them. Particularly, NEDS (2016) gives the literacy and comprehension at this grade level as 80%. The reason for choosing the Head teachers was because they were the ones who keep an inventory of school facilities and instructional materials as well as a record of population data of both pupils and teachers.

Multi-stage sampling technique was adopted for the selection of samples (Head teachers, and Basic six Pupils) needed for the study. This sampling technique according to Jackson (2011), is a complex form of sampling which contains two or more stages in sample selection in order to make primary data collection more manageable. There were four stages involved in this multi stage technique.

The first stage involved sampling of three states out of the six South-western States of interest using fish bowl technique which resulted in the selection of Ekiti, Osun and Oyo States.

The second stage involved simple random sampling of Local Government Areas from amongst the selected states using the proportionate random sampling technique of 20%. Three local governments were selected out of the 16 local governments in Ekiti State (Ido /Osi, Ikole and Moba); six local governments were selected out of the 30 local governments in Osun State (Ejigbo, Ifedayo, Ifelodun, Irepodun, Odo-Otin, and Orolu); while seven local governments were selected out of the 33 local governments in Oyo state (Atiba, Egbeda, Irepo, Ogo Oluwa, Olorunsogo, Orire, and Surulere) making a total of 16 Local Governments.

In the third stage, the purposive sampling technique was used to select Middle-basic Schools from within the selected Local Government Areas since the area of interest was the rural areas. This is in line with Nwadinigwe (2002) who maintains that a researcher selects or includes aspects of the population on purpose in order to answer research questions or achieve research objectives. A total of 1,032 Middle-basic schools were domiciled in the rural areas of the selected local governments; 151, 392 and 489 Middle-Basic schools domiciled in the rural areas of Ekiti, Osun and Oyo States respectively. Using the research advisor (2006) at 95% degree of accuracy and 0.05 margin of error, sample size of 132 out of 151 schools was suggested for Ekiti State, while 196 out of 392 schools was recommended for Osun State and 217 out of 489 schools was arrived at for Oyo; all totalling 545 middle-basic schools domiciled in the rural areas selected. The simple random sampling technique was used to select these schools using the computer programme method where a computer programme was designed to select random samples.

The fourth stage embraced the selection of Head teachers and Basic six pupils as respondents. According to the NEDS (2016) report, the estimated target population of Basic six pupils in the rural areas of Ekiti was 12,820, Osun was 56,166 and Oyo was 76,080 with an overall total of 145,066. Using the research advisor (2006) at 95% degree of accuracy and 0.05 margin of error, 378, 382 and 383 Basic six pupils were selected from Ekiti, Osun and Oyo States respectively. Also, taking one Head teacher per already-selected Middle-basic school, 545 Head teachers were selected for this study. The estimated samples for this study using the research advisor at 95% degree of accuracy and 0.05 margin of error for Head teachers and Basic six pupils were 545 and 1,143 respectively, yielding a total of 1,688 respondents for this study.

Table 3: Sample Size

States	Number of Local Government Areas	Number of LGAs used	Population of Head teachers	Number of Head teachers used	Population of Basic Six pupils	Basic six Pupils used
Ekiti	16	3	151	132	12,820	378
Osun	30	6	392	196	56,166	382
Oyo	33	7	489	217	76,080	383
Total	79	16	1,032	545	145,066.	1143

Source: Calculation with NEDS (2016); UBE records (2012); Research advisor (2006)

Table 3 shows that out of the 79 Local Government Areas of the selected three South-western States, 16 were used by means of proportional sampling technique of 20%. Also, the total population of the selected Head teachers in the rural areas was 1,032 out of which 545 were selected. Likewise, the total population of Basic six pupils in the rural areas were 145,066 out of which 1,143 pupils were selected. The aggregate of 545 and 1,143 was arrived at, through the addition of selected samples for each state using the research advisor (2006) at 95.0% confidence level and 0.05 degree of accuracy/margin of error.

Instrumentation

Three researcher-designed instruments were used to gather information from respondents. The first was a closed ended questionnaire designed for the pupils titled: Factors Affecting Children's Access to Basic Education in Rural Areas (FACABERA). The questionnaire comprised of two sections A and B. Section A contained bio-data of the respondents while Section B contained items on school and non-school factors that affected access to basic education in terms of enrolment, retention and completion rates of children living in the rural areas of South West Nigeria. Each item was designed in the form of a closed-ended dichotomous question with response options of either 'Yes' or 'No'. This was

preferred because of the level of pupils who found the likert scale format confusing. The questionnaire items were also interpreted in Yoruba Language; a major language spoken in the South Western part of Nigeria.

The second instrument was a structured inventory for the school Head teachers titled Inventory on Educational Infrastructural Facilities and Instructional Materials, (IEIFIMI). This instrument had three sections A, B, and C. Section A elicited information on demographic data of respondents. Section B focused on availability and adequacy of educational resources and the response choices were; Available, Not Available, Adequate, fairly adequate, and not adequate; while section C focused on the conditions of the facilities. The rating scale was used here and the response choices on the scale ranged between: Good (G), Fair (F) Poor (P) and Very Poor (VP). The purpose of the inventory was to provide direct, clear-cut information about the availability and physical conditions of educational facilities in the sampled schools. It contained statements on the availability and conditions of the facilities such as libraries, classrooms, laboratories, teaching aids, computers, toilets, staffrooms, health and sports centres among others.

The third researcher-designed instrument was an outline of a detailed School Records' Proforma titled: Records on Enrolment, Retention, and Completion trends of children in the rural areas from 2010/2011-2015/2016 academic year (RERCRC 2010/2011-2015/2016). This was filled by the Head teacher in each of the schools sampled.

The validity of the instruments was determined through content validity procedure where the assistance of experts was sought in validating the extent to which the items measure the defined content area as it is set out to measure. The researcher consulted three experts in the fields of Sociology of Education and Measurement Evaluation in the Department of Social Sciences Education, Faculty of Education, University of Ilorin for this

validation. As suggested by Omorogiuwa (2006) that to determine if the constructed questionnaire is valid, at least two out of three experts in the content area of interest should certify the questionnaire as measuring what it sets out to measure.

The reliability of the questionnaire was determined using test-retest Reliability method. This is the consistency of a measure of stability over time, and this procedure involves administering the same test twice to the sub-set of the population with an intervening period between the two administrations (Omorogiuwa, 2006). In this case, the pilot study for determining this reliability was carried out in Ibeju-Lekki Local government area of Lagos State. This Local Government Area was used because of its relatedness in nature to the description of rural areas specified for this study. Thirty (30) basic six pupils were selected at random to respond to the questionnaire and Pearson Product Moment Correlation statistic was used to compute the reliability coefficient. The reliability index obtained for the instrument was 0.66 which made the instruments to be considered as reliable for this study.

The reliability of the structured inventory was ascertained using the inter-rater reliability. This is the degree of agreement among raters. It gives a score of how much similarity or agreement there is, in the ratings given by the judges (Gwet, 2008). For this research, six Head teachers were randomly selected to respond to the school records' proforma and Inventory on Educational Infrastructural Facilities and Instructional Materials, while the intra-class correlation coefficient obtained for this instrument was 0.68 which made the instrument to be considered reliable for this study.

Procedure for Data Collection

A letter of introduction was collected by the researcher from the Department of Social Sciences Education, Faculty of Education, University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria stating the

researcher's mission and also to seek for permission and support from the authorities of the schools. In administering the instruments, the researcher employed seven research assistants which hastened the investigation process of this study.

Sources of data collection for this study were categorized into two; the primary and secondary sources. The primary sources of data according to University libraries (2015) are defined as first-hand information that is generated by witnesses or participants and are characterized not by their format but rather by the information they convey and their connection to the research question. The primary sources of data also include the researcher-designed 'Facility Inventory' for Head teachers and 'Questionnaire' for the basic six pupils. The Secondary data sources included, data-sets, manual databases to be filled in the researcher designed proforma, published annual reports, government departments' data, official statistics by the Statistical Offices, Nigerian Educational Data Survey (NEDS) reports, National Bureau of Statistics, SUPEB, UPEB, UBEC, International Organizations such as the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank and the United Nations.

A total period of five weeks was spent in all the states as divided: two weeks in Oyo State, two weeks in Osun State and one week in Ekiti state (because Ekiti involved only three local governments areas while Oyo and Osun states involved seven and six local government areas respectively). Research Instruments were distributed with the aid of research assistants and the completed ones were returned to the researcher and collated for analysis. The respondents chose the options that best suited their response while the researcher also read out to those who required assistance. Due to the number of Local Government Areas (16) that were involved and technicalities such as the distribution, explanation and collation of research instrument that was required in the collection of data for this study, seven research assistants were employed and all of them were exposed to weeklong training of skills and expertise needed.

Data Analysis Techniques

In analysing the result of the collated data, descriptive statistics were used. The data results were analysed using descriptive statistics. Frequency counts, Percentages, mean and rank orders were used to answer the research questions using the IBM' SPSS 20.3 windows version Statistical Data Editor, while tables and graphs were also drawn to interpret the findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSES AND RESULTS

This chapter deals with the analysis and results of the data collected for this study. The data were gathered from 1,143 pupils and 545 Head teachers in Ekiti, Osun and Oyo States.

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Percentage was used to describe personal characteristics of the respondents as illustrated in Table 4:

Table 4: Demographic Information of the Pupils		
Age Range	Frequency	Percentage
8 – 10years	254	22.2%
11 – 13years	804	70.4%
14 – 16years	85	7.4%
Total	1,143	100.0%
Parental Occupation	Frequency	Percentage
Civil Servants	127	11.1%
Private Service	127	11.1%
Trading	656	57.4%
Farming	233	20.4%
Total	1,143	100.0%
Parental Level of Education	Frequency	Percentage
Can read English or Yoruba	910	79.6%
Can neither read English nor Yoruba	233	20.4%
Total	1,143	100.0%
Family Size	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 5	169	14.8%
More than 5	593	51.9%
More than 10	381	33.3%
Total	1,143	100.0%
Parental Economic Status	Frequency	Percentage
Family have a car	148	12.9%
Family have a motorcycle	381	33.3%
Family have none of the above	614	53.7%
Total	1,143	100.0%

Table 4 reveals the demographic information of pupils involved in this study on the basis of their age, parental occupation, parental educational background, family size and parents' economic status. Out of 1,143 (100%) pupils that took part in this study, 254 (22.2%) were within the age range of 8 – 10; 804 (70.4%) were within the age bracket of 11 - 13 and 85 (7.4%) were within the age limit of 14 – 16. Also, based on parental occupation, 127(11.1%) of the parents were civil servants; 127(11.1%) of the parents were in private establishment; 656 (57.4%) of the parents were traders and 233 (20.4%) of the parents were farmers. Further, 910 (79.6%) of the parents could read English or Yoruba; 233 (20.4%) could neither read English nor Yoruba. Also, 169 (14.8%) pupils were from the family size of less than five children; 593(51.9%) were from the family size of more than five children and 381(33.3%) were from the family size of more than 10 children. Lastly, 148 (12.9%) responded that their parents owned cars; 381(33.3%) affirmed that their parents owned motorcycles and 614 (53.7%) of the parents had none. This information inferred that majority of basic six pupils were young adults between the ages of 11 to 13 and majority of parents in the rural areas of South-west Nigeria were traders who can read English and / or Yoruba languages with family sizes of more than five who neither have cars no motorcycles, but rather trek as their means of transportation.

The demographic information of the Head teachers is as illustrated in Table 5:

Table 5: Demographic Information of Head teachers

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
State		
Ekiti	132	24.2%
Osun	196	35.9%
Oyo	217	39.8%
Total	545	100%
Age Range	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 30years	0	0.0%
31-40years	0	0.0%
41-50years	136	24.9%
Above 50years	409	75.1%
Total	545	100%
Professional qualifications	Frequency	Percentage
Grade II	0	0.0%
NCE	420	77.1%
BA/B.Sc. (Ed)	125	22.9%
BA/BSc+PGDE	0	0.0%
M.Ed.	0	0.0%
Ph.D.	0	0.0%
Total	545	100%
Number of Years in Service	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 10years	0	0.0%
11-20years	0	0.0%
20years and above	545	100%
Total	545	100%

Table 5 shows that out of 545 (100%) Head teachers that took part in this study, 132 (24.2%) of them were from Ekiti State, 196 (35.9%) were from Osun State while 217 (39.8%) were from Oyo State. Also, 136 (24.9%) of the Head teachers were within the age bracket of 41 – 50 years while 409 (75.1%) were within the age range of 50 years and above. In addition, 420 (77.1%) of the Head teachers were NCE holders and 125 (24.9%) were BA/B.Sc. (Ed) holders. These show that majority of Head teachers are above 50 years old with NCE and have been in the teaching service for 20 years and above.

Answering of Research Questions

Research questions 1, 2 and 3 were answered using percentages. Bar charts were used to illustrate research questions 4, 5 and 6 while mean and rank orders were used to answer research questions 7 to 12.

Question One: *Are there available educational resources to cater for the educational needs of pupils in the rural areas from basic one to six in South West Nigeria?*

Responses of each school Head teacher on the availability of educational resources (educational infrastructural facilities and instructional materials) were subjected to percentage of item by item and result is as presented in Table 6:

Table 6: Descriptive Analysis of Available Educational Resources (Infrastructural Facilities and Instructional Materials) for Basic One to Six in Rural Areas of South West Nigeria

S/N		Available (%)	Not Available (%)	Total (%)
A	Educational Infrastructural Facilities			
1	Classrooms	545 (100%)	0 (0%)	545 (100%)
2	Staff Common Rooms	242 (44%)	303 (56%)	545 (100%)
3	Library	260 (48%)	285 (52%)	545 (100%)
4	Computer Laboratories	120 (22%)	425 (78%)	545 (100%)
5	Sick Bays	0 (%)	545 (100%)	545 (100%)
6	Store rooms	269(49%)	276(51%)	545 (100%)
7	Science Laboratories	136 (25%)	409(75%)	545 (100%)
8	Toilets	379 (70%)	166(30%)	545 (100%)
9	Sports/play ground	409(75%)	136(25%)	545 (100%)
10	Spaces for Assembly	545(100%)	0(0%)	545 (100%)
11	Electricity	0(0%)	545(100%)	545 (100%)
12	Pipe-Borne Water	5(1%)	540(99%)	545 (100%)
13	Security Perimeter Fences	60(11%)	485(89%)	545 (100%)
B	Instructional Resources			
14	Textbooks	545(100%)	0(%)	545 (100%)
15	Workbooks/worksheets	409(75%)	136 (25%)	545 (100%)
16	Models	30(6%)	515(94%)	545 (100%)
17	Maps	273(50%)	272(50%)	545 (100%)
18	Chalkboards	545 (100%)	0 (%)	545 (100%)
19	Tables and Chairs	545 (100%)	0 (%)	545 (100%)
20	Classroom Teachers	545 (100%)	0 (%)	545 (100%)
21	Other Stationeries	445 (82%)	100 (18%)	545 (100%)

Table 6 shows that all the 545 (100%) Head teachers that were sampled in rural basic schools in South West Nigeria submitted that classrooms were available in their schools; 242 (44%) of the Head teachers asserted that staff common rooms were available in their schools and 303 (56%) stated that they were not available; 260 (48%) affirmed that libraries were

available in their schools and 285 (52%) said not available; 120 (22%) Head teachers stated that computer laboratories were available in their schools and 425 (78%) opted for 'not available'; all 545 (100%) Head teachers declared that sick bays were not available in their schools; 269 (49%) stated that store rooms were available in their schools and 276 (51%) declared not available; 136 (25%) attested that science laboratories were available in their schools while 409 (75%) opted not available; 379 (70%) affirmed that toilets were available in their schools and 166(30%) said not available; 409 (75%) submitted that sports/play grounds were available in their schools while 136 (25%) declared not available.

In the same vein, all the Head teachers asserted that space for assembly ground were available while electricity were not available at all in all the 545 (100%) sampled schools; pipe-borne water was available in just 5 (1%) and not available in 540 (99%) schools; security perimeter fence was available in 60 (11%) schools and not available in 485 (89%) schools. further, textbooks, chalkboard, classroom teachers, tables and chairs, were available in all 545 (100%) sampled schools. It was noted that workbooks/sheets were available in 409 (75%) schools and not available in 136 (25%) schools, models were available in 30 (6%) schools and not available in 515 (76%) schools, maps were available in 273 (50%) and not available in 272 (50%) schools, while other stationeries were available 445 (82%) schools and not available in 100 (18%) schools. These mean that classrooms, spaces for school assembly ground, textbooks, chalkboards, tables, chairs, teachers, staff common rooms, libraries, laboratories, security perimeter fences, maps, and models among others were available in few of the sampled schools and not available in most sampled schools. However, none of the sampled schools had sick bay, electricity, and pipe-borne water.

Question Two: *Are the available educational resources adequate to cater for the educational needs of pupils from basic one to six in the rural areas in South West Nigeria?*

Since the questionnaire items were structured in a three-response-type, items found with mean scores 3.0, 2.0 and 1.0 were remarked as ‘Adequate’, ‘Fairly Adequate’ and ‘Not Adequate’ respectively.

Table 7: Descriptive Analysis of Head Teachers’ Responses on the Adequacy of the Available Educational Resources (Educational Infrastructural Facilities and Instructional Materials) in the Rural Areas

S/N	Items	Mean	Rank	Remark
1	Space for Assembly	2.66	1 st	Adequate
2	Sports/play ground	2.30	2 nd	Fairly Adequate
3	Chalkboards	2.00	3 rd	Fairly Adequate
4	Classrooms	2.00	3 rd	Fairly Adequate
5	Tables and Chairs	2.00	3 rd	Fairly Adequate
6	Toilet	1.94	6 th	Fairly Adequate
7	Store room	1.89	7 th	Fairly Adequate
8	Textbooks	1.85	8 th	Fairly Adequate
9	Other Stationeries	1.66	9 th	Fairly Adequate
10	Maps	1.65	10 th	Fairly Adequate
11	Staff Common Rooms	1.42	11 th	Not Adequate
12	Classroom Teachers	1.30	12 th	Not Adequate
13	Workbooks/worksheets	1.16	13 th	Not Adequate
14	Library	1.05	14 th	Not Adequate
15	Computer Laboratory	1.04	15 th	Not Adequate
16	Security Perimeter Fence	1.00	16 th	Not Adequate
17	Models	1.00	16 th	Not Adequate
18	Pipe-Borne Water	1.00	16 th	Not Adequate
19	Science Laboratory	1.00	16 th	Not Adequate
20	Sick bay	NA	NA	NA
21	Electricity	NA	NA	NA

Table 7 reveals that spaces for assembly were adequate while sports/playground, chalkboards, classrooms, tables, Chairs, toilets, store rooms, textbooks and maps were fairly adequate. However, classroom teachers, workbooks/sheets, models and other stationeries, libraries, computer laboratories, security parameter fences, pipe-borne water and science

laboratories were not adequate to cater for the educational needs of pupils in basic schools domiciled in the rural areas from basic one to six.

Question Three: *In What conditions are the available educational resources?*

Since the questionnaire items were structured in a four-response-type, items found with mean scores 4.0, 3.0, 2.0 and 1.0 were remarked as ‘Good’, ‘Fair’, ‘Poor’ and ‘Very Poor’ respectively.

Table 8: Descriptive Analysis of Head Teachers’ Responses on the Conditions of Available Educational Resources in Schools in the Rural Areas

S/N	Items	Mean	Rank	Remark
1	Space for Assembly	3.67	1 st	Good
2	Classrooms	3.23	2 nd	Fair
3	Toilet	2.62	3 rd	Fair
4	Sports/playground	2.50	4 th	Fair
5	Staff Common Rooms	2.34	5 th	Poor
6	Library	1.85	6 th	Poor
7	Store rooms	1.58	7 th	Poor
8	Computer Laboratory	1.50	8 th	Poor
9	Science Laboratory	1.34	9 th	Very Poor
10	General Instructional Facilities	1.11	10 th	Very Poor
11	Security Perimeter Fence	1.02	11 th	Very Poor
12	Pipe-Borne Water	1.00	12 th	Very Poor
13	Electricity	NA	NA	NA
14	Sick Bay	NA	NA	NA

Table 8 shows that spaces for school assembly were in good conditions while the conditions of classrooms, toilets and sport/playgrounds were fair. However, the conditions of staff common rooms, libraries, store-rooms and computer laboratories were poor while science laboratories, instructional resources, security perimeter fences and pipe-borne water were in very poor conditions in rural basic school one to six.

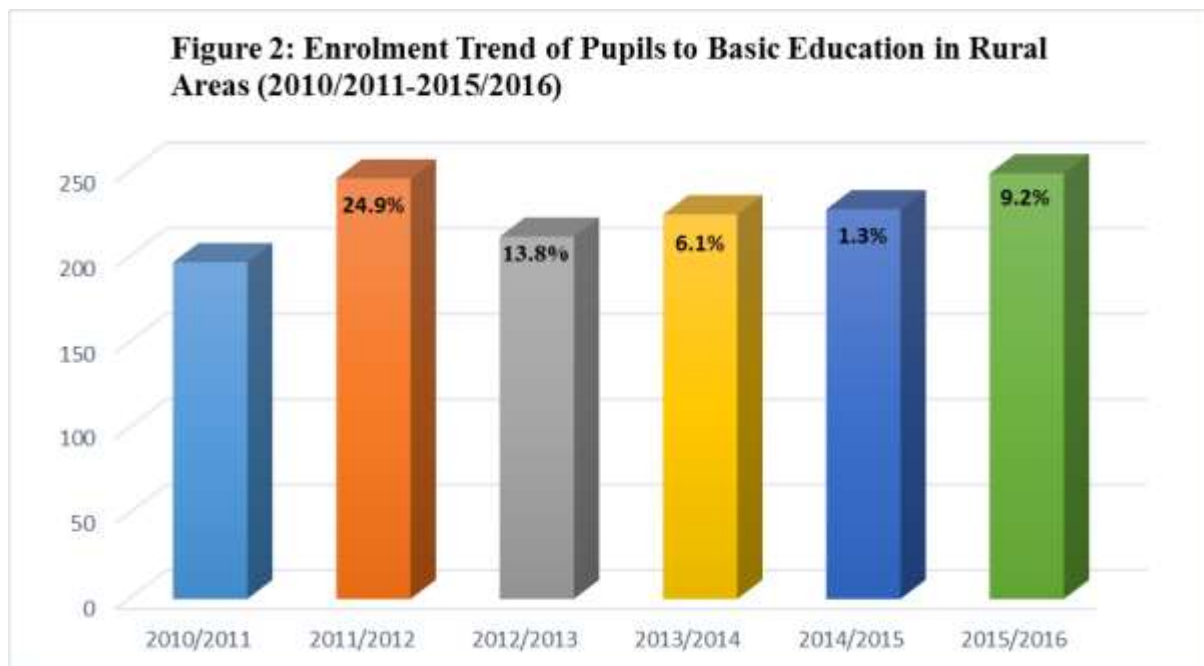
Question Four: *What is the enrolment trend of pupils to Basic Education in the schools in rural areas of South West Nigeria (2010/2011 to 2015/2016)?*

Table 9: Descriptive Statistics of Children's Enrolment to Basic Education in rural Areas (2010/2011 – 2015/2016)

Pupils Enrolled to Basic Education	Academic Sessions					
	2010/2011	2011/2012	2012/2013	2013/2014	2014/2015	2015/2016
Mean	197	246	212	225	228	249
Mean Difference	-	49	-34	13	3	21
Percentage	-	24.9%	13.8%	6.1%	1.3%	9.2%

Grand Mean Enrolment = 266

Table 9 reveals that the average numbers of pupils that were enrolled to middle basic schools in rural areas were 197, 246, 212, 225, 228 and 249 in the 2010/2011, 2011/2012, 2012/2013, 2013/2014, 2014/2015 and 2015/2016 academic sessions respectively with the mean difference of 49, -34, 13, 3, and 21 using 2010/2011 academic session as the starting point. The summary statistics of pupils' enrolment trend to basic education in rural areas are presented in Figure 2.



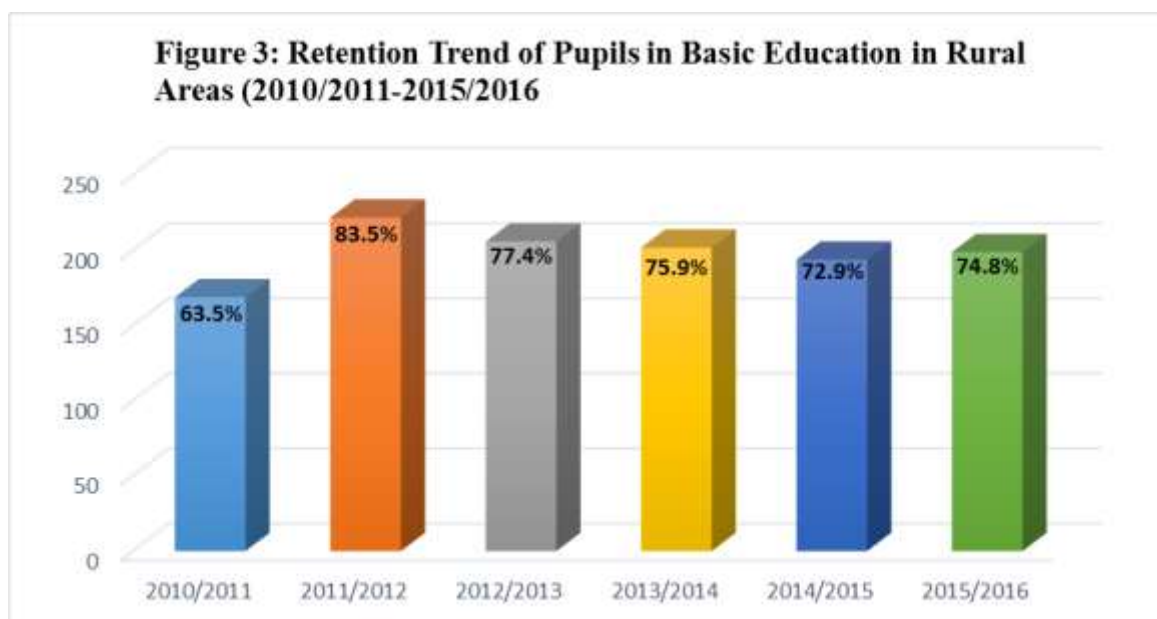
As shown in Figure 2, pupils' enrolment trend into Middle Basic schools in the rural areas were not stable from 2010/2011 to 2015/2016 academic session. Using 2010/2011 academic session as the baseline, the number of pupils enrolled in Middle Basic increased in 2011/2012 academic session by 24.9% but decreased in 2012/2013 academic session by 13.8%. In 2013/2014, pupils' enrolment increased by 6.1% and only by 1.3% in 2014/2015 academic session. In 2015/2016 academic session, there was rise in the number of pupils' enrolment into Middle Basic schools by 9.2% in rural basic schools. This implies that there were falls in pupils' enrolment trend to basic education between 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 but a gradual rise in pupils' enrolment trend to basic education from 2012/2013 to 2015/2016 academic session in rural areas.

Question Five: *What is the retention trend of pupils to Basic Education in the rural areas (2010/2011 to 2015/2016)?*

Table 10: Descriptive Statistics of Pupils' Retention in Basic Education in rural Areas (2010/2011 – 2015/2016)

Pupils Retention to Basic Education	Academic Session					
	2010/2011	2011/2012	2012/2013	2013/2014	2014/2015	2015/2016
Mean Enrolment	197	246	212	225	228	249
Mean retention	169	222	206	202	194	199
Percentage	63.5%	83.5%	77.4%	75.9%	72.9%	74.8%
<i>Grand Mean Enrolment = 266</i>						

Table 10 reveals the average numbers of pupils that were enrolled and retained to Middle Basic schools in rural areas from 2010/2011 to 2015/2016. Given the mean enrolment, the average numbers of pupils that were retained were 169, 222, 206, 202, 194 and 199 for the respective academic session. The summary statistics of pupils' retention trend in basic education in rural areas are presented in Figure 3.



As shown in Figure 3, the percentage of pupils retained in basic education was 63.5% in 2010/2011 academic session. This increased to 83.5% in 2011/2012 academic session and declined to 77.4%, 75.9% and 72.9% in 2012/2013, 2013/2014 and 2014/2015 academic sessions respectively. In 2015/2016 academic session, the percentage of pupils' retention increased to 74.8%. This implies that there has been a decline in pupils' retention trend to basic education from 2012/2013 to 2014/2015 academic sessions but a slight rise in the 2015/2016 academic session in rural areas.

Question Six: *What is the completion trend of pupils in Basic Education Schools in the rural areas of South West Nigeria (2010/2011 – 2015/2016)?*

Table 11: Descriptive Statistics of Pupils' Completion in Basic Education in rural Areas (2010/2011 – 2015/2016)

Pupils' Retention to Basic Education	Academic Session					
	2010/2011	2011/2012	2012/2013	2013/2014	2014/2015	2015/2016
Mean Enrolment	197	246	212	225	228	249
Mean Completion	165	218	190	192	192	197
Percentage	62.0%	82.0%	71.4%	72.2%	72.2%	74.1%
<i>Grand Mean Enrolment = 266</i>						

Table 11 reveals the average numbers of pupils that completed basic education with respect to their mean enrolment in rural areas from 2010/2011 to 2015/2016. Given the mean

enrolment to basic education, the average numbers of pupils that completed basic one to six were 165, 218, 190, 192, 192 and 197 for the respective academic session. The summary statistics of pupils' completion trend in basic education in rural areas are presented in Figure 4.

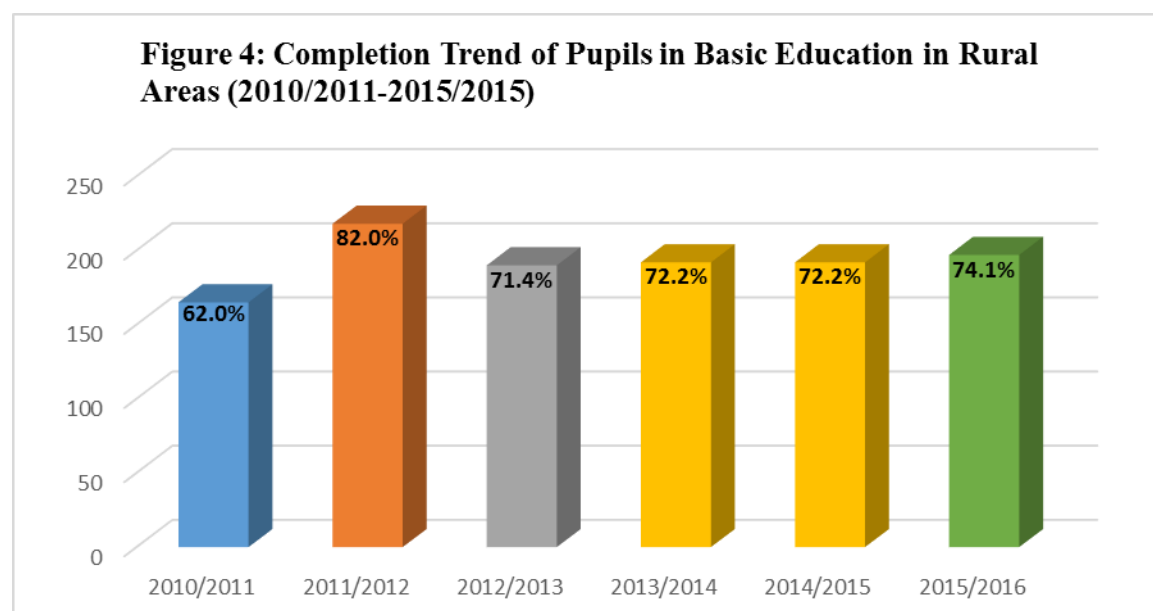
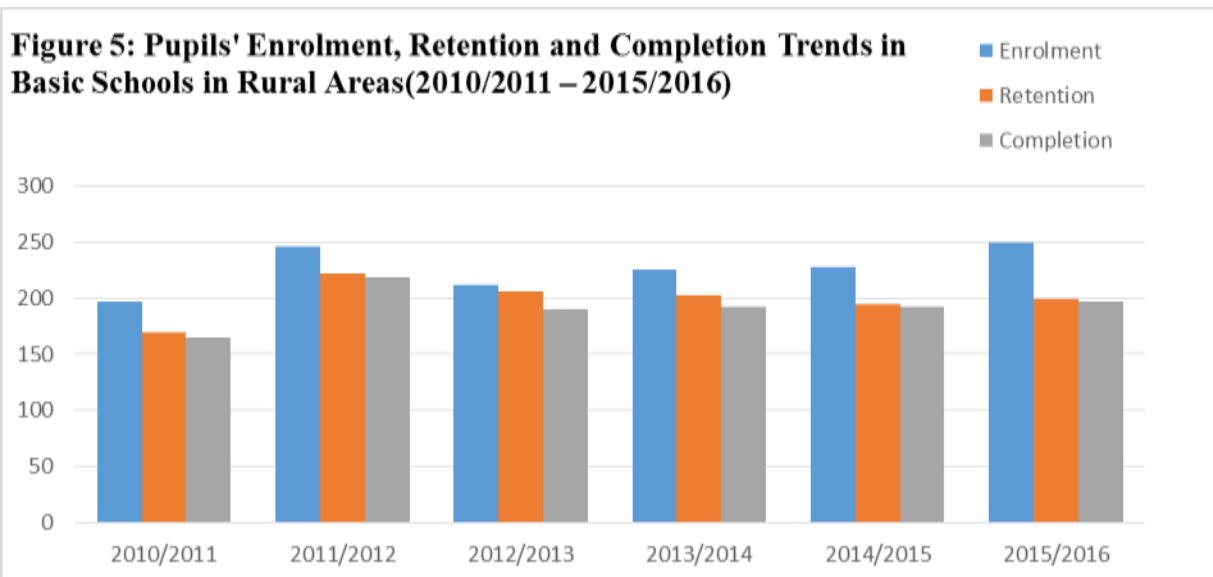


Figure 4 shows the percentage of pupils that completed basic 1 to 6 was 62.0% in 2010/2011 academic session. This increased to 82.0% in 2011/2012 academic session and declined to 71.4%, in 2012/2013. The percentage slightly increased to 72.2% between 2013/2014 and 2014/2015 academic sessions and 74.1% in 2015/2016 academic session. This implies that there were significant increases in the percentage of pupils that completed basic 1 to 6 between 2010/2011 and 2011/2012 academic sessions and a drastic fall between 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 academic sessions. However, there has been a very slight increment in the percentage of pupils' completion in Middle Basic schools from 2012/2013 to 2015/2016 academic sessions in rural areas.

The summary of enrolment, retention and completion trend of pupils in Middle Basic schools for each academic session in rural areas from 2010/2011 to 2015/2016 are as presented in Figure 5.



In summary, on the trends of pupils' enrolment, retention and completion in Middle Basic schools in rural areas of South West Nigeria from the 2010/2011 academic session to 2015/2016 academic session, Figure 5 has clearly shown that the number of pupils that got retained and those that completed are lesser than the numbers enrolled for each of the years. This implies that there had been cases of drop outs.

Question Seven: *What are the non-school factors affecting enrolment of pupils to basic schools in rural areas?*

Pupils' responses on the non-school factors affecting their enrolment rates to Middle Basic schools were subjected to percentage analysis and presented in Table 12.

Table 12: Non-School Factors Affecting Enrolment of Pupils to Basic Schools in Rural Areas of South West Nigeria

N	Items	Yes (%)	No (%)	Total (%)	Rank	Remark
1	Are you aware of your age mates who could not enroll in school due to ill-health?	635(56%)	508(44%)	1143(100%)	3 rd	Affirmed
2	Are you aware of your age mates who could not enroll in school due to their parental poor financial status?	593(52%)	550(48%)	1143(100%)	4 th	Affirmed
3	Are you aware of your age mates who could not enroll in school due to farm work?	656(57%)	487(43%)	1143(100%)	2 nd	Affirmed
4	Are you aware of your age mates who could not enroll in school due to hawking?	783(69%)	360(31%)	1143(100%)	1 st	Affirmed
5	Are you aware of your age mates who could not enroll in school due to fosterage?	190(17%)	953(83%)	1143(100%)	5 th	Not Affirmed

Table 12 reveals that out of 1143(100%) pupils who participated in this study, 635(56%) of the pupils were aware of their mates who could not enroll in school due to ill-health while 508(44%) were not; 593(52%) of the pupils were aware that of their age mates who could not enroll in school due to parental poor financial status but 550(48%) were not aware; 656(57%) of the pupils were aware of their age mates who did not enroll in school due to farm work while 487(43%) were not; 783(69%) of the pupils were aware of their age mates who did not enroll in school due to hawking while 360(31%) were not aware; 190(17%) of the pupils were aware of their age mates who did not enroll in school due to fosterage while 957(17%) were not aware.

Therefore, items ranked 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th were affirmed as the non-school factors that affected enrolment to Middle Basic schools while items ranked 5th were not affirmed. This implies that ill-health, poor parental financial status, farm works and hawking were non-

school factors that affected pupils' enrolment to basic schools in rural areas of South west Nigeria.

Question Eight: *What are the school factors affecting enrolment of pupils to basic schools in rural areas of South West Nigeria?*

Pupils' responses on the school factors that affected enrolment to basic schools were subjected to percentage analysis and presented in Table 13.

Table 13: School Factors Affecting Enrolment of Pupils to Basic Schools in Rural Areas

N	Items	Yes (%)	No (%)	Total (%)	Rank	Remark
1	Would you not enroll in a school if the school buildings are bad?	720(63%)	423(37%)	1143(100%)	2 nd	Affirmed
2	Would you not enroll in a school if it is too far from your house?	677(59%)	466(41%)	1143(100%)	3 rd	Affirmed
3	Would you not enroll in a school, if you are aware that it has shortage of teachers and other educational resources?	910(80%)	233(20%)	1143(100%)	1 st	Affirmed

Table 13 revealed that out of 1143 (100%) pupils who participated in this study, 720(63%) would not enroll in school if the school buildings were bad while 423 (37%) of the pupils would enroll in school; 677 (59%) would not enroll in school if it was too far from their house while 466 (41%) of the pupils would still enroll; 910 (80%) of the pupils would not enroll in school if they were aware the school was short of teachers and other educational resources while 233 (20%) of the pupils would still enroll.

Therefore, all the items were affirmed as the school factors that affected enrolment to basic education schools. This implies that bad school buildings, school distance, shortage of teachers and other educational resources were school factors that affected pupils' enrolment to basic schools in the rural areas of South West Nigeria.

Question Nine: *What are the non-school factors affecting Retention of pupils in basic schools in rural areas?*

Pupils' responses on the non-school factors affecting their retention rates in basic education were subjected to percentage analysis and presented in Table 14.

Table 14: Non-school Factors Affecting Retention of Pupils in Basic Schools in Rural Areas of South West Nigeria

N	Items	Yes (%)	No (%)	Total (%)	Rank	Remark
1	Are you aware of your age mates who could not remain in school due to ill-health?	642(56%)	501(44%)	1143(100%)	4 th	Affirmed
2	Are you aware of your age mates who could not remain in school due to their parents' inability to provide their basic school needs in?	593(52%)	550(48%)	1143(100%)	5 th	Affirmed
3	Can engagement with farm works discontinue your schooling?	656(57%)	487(43%)	1143(100%)	3 nd	Affirmed
4	Can constant hawking make you stop schooling?	783(69%)	360(31%)	1143(100%)	2 nd	Affirmed
5	Can domestic chores stop you from coming to school?	190(17%)	953(83%)	1143(100%)	6 th	Not Affirmed
6	If your parent stop providing your needs in school, would you still continue schooling?	1042(91%)	101(9%)	1143(100%)	1 st	Affirmed

Table 14 shows that out of 1143 (100%) pupils that took part in this study, 642 (56%) were aware of their age mates who could not remain in school in school due ill-health while 501 (44%) were not aware; 593 (52%) were aware of their age mates who could not remain in school due to their parents inability to provide their basic school needs while 550 (48%) were not aware; 656 (57%) of the pupils affirmed that engagement with farm-works could discontinue their schooling while 487 (43%) disagreed; 783 (69%) of the pupils attested that continuous hawking could discontinue their schooling while 360 (31%) did not agree; 190 (17%) of the pupils accepted that domestic chores would affect their retention in school while 953 (83%) disagreed; 1,042(91%) of the pupils would still remain in school if their parents failed to provide their needs in schools while 101(9%) would discontinue schooling.

Therefore, items ranked 1st to 5th were affirmed as the non-school factors that affected retention rate in basic education except item ranked 6th. This implies that parental inability to

provide pupils' basic needs in schools, ill-health, farm work and hawking (except domestic chores) were the non-school factors that affected pupils' retention in rural basic schools.

Question Ten: *What are the school factors affecting Retention of pupils in basic schools in rural areas of South West Nigeria?*

Pupils' responses on the school factors affecting their retention to basic schools were subjected to percentage analysis and presented in Table 15.

Table 15: School Factors Affecting Retention of Pupils to Basic Schools in Rural Areas of South West Nigeria

N	Items	Yes (%)	No (%)	Total (%)	Rank	Remark
1	Would you leave school if the school buildings are bad?	501(44%)	642(56%)	1143(100%)	4 th	Not Affirmed
2	Would you leave school if the school is short of teachers and other necessary educational resources?	1,037(91%)	106(9%)	1143(100%)	1 st	Affirmed
3	Would you stop going to school if the school is too far from your house?	720(63%)	423(37%)	1143(100%)	2 nd	Affirmed
4	Would you leave school if your classroom is overcrowded?	635(56%)	508(44%)	1143(100%)	3 rd	Affirmed
5	Would you discontinue attending school if your teacher is too harsh on you?	720(63%)	423(37%)	1143(100%)	2 nd	Affirmed

Table 15 reveals that out of 1,143 (100%) pupils that took part in this study, 501 (44%) of the pupils would not remain in school if the school buildings were bad while 642 (56%) would remain in school; 1,037 (91%) would leave their school if the schools were short of teachers and other educational resources while 106 (9%) would remain in school; 720 (63%) of the pupils would not remain in school if the school is too far from their homes while 423 (37%) would remain in school; 635 (56%) would not remain in school if the classrooms were overcrowded while 508 (44%) would remain in school; 720 (63%) of the pupils would discontinue school if their teachers were harsh on them while 432 (37%) would remain in school.

Therefore, items ranked 1st, 2nd and 3rd were affirmed as the school factors that affected pupils' retention in basic schools except item ranked 4th. This implies that shortage of teachers, other educational resources, school distance, harsh teachers and overcrowded classroom (except bad school buildings) were the school factors that affected pupils' retention in basic schools domiciled in rural areas.

Question Eleven: *What are the non-school factors affect completion of pupils from basic schools in rural areas of South West Nigeria?*

Pupils' responses on the non-school factors affecting their completion of basic education were subjected to percentage analysis and presented in Table 16.

Table 16: Non-School Factors Affecting Completion of Pupils from Basic Schools in Rural Areas

N	Items	Yes (%)	No (%)	Total (%)	Rank	Remark
1	Do you consider yourself too old to complete basic nine?	198(17%)	945(83%)	1143(100%)	7 th	Not Affirmed
2	Would you consider getting married after basic six?	151(13%)	992(87%)	1143(100%)	8 th	Not Affirmed
3	Are you aware of other children who could not complete basic six due to ill-health?	634(56%)	499(44%)	1143(100%)	3 rd	Affirmed
4	Are you aware of other children who could not complete basic six due to their parents' inability to provide their basic needs in schools?	593(52%)	550(48%)	1143(100%)	4 th	Affirmed
5	Can farm works stop you from completing basic six?	677(59%)	466(41%)	1143(100%)	2 nd	Affirmed
6	Can hawking stop you from coming to school?	720(63%)	423(37%)	1143(100%)	1 st	Affirmed
7	Can domestic chores stop you from completing basic six?	318(28%)	825(72%)	1143(100%)	6 th	Not Affirmed
8	If your parent stop providing your schooling needs, would you still complete basic six?	444(39%)	699(61%)	1143(100%)	5 th	Not Affirmed

Table 16 shows that out of 1,143 (100%) pupils that partook in this study, 198 (17%) considered themselves too old to complete basic nine while 945 (83%) did not; 151 (13%) of the pupils would consider getting married after basic six while 992 (87%) would not; 634 (56%) of the pupils were aware of other children who could not complete basic six due to ill-

health while 499 (44%) were not aware; 593 (52%) of the pupils were aware of other children who could not complete basic six due to their parents' inability to provide their basic school needs while 550 (48%) were not aware; 677 (59%) of the pupils affirmed that farm work could stop them from completing basic six while 466 (41%) disaffirmed; 720 (63%) of the pupils agreed that hawking could stop them from completing basic six while 423 (37%) disagreed; 318 (28%) supported that domestic chores could stop them from completing basic six while 825 (72%) disagreed; 444 (39%) of the pupils asserted that they would still complete basic six if their parents stopped providing their basic needs in schools while 699 (61%) would not.

Therefore, items ranked 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th were affirmed as the non-school factors that affected completion from basic schools while items ranked 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th were disaffirmed. This implies that ill-health, parents' inability to provide pupils' basic school needs, farm works and hawking were the non-school factors that could affect pupil' completion from basic education in rural areas of South West Nigeria.

Question Twelve: *What are the school factors affecting Completion of pupils from basic schools in rural areas of South West Nigeria?*

Pupils' responses on school factors affecting their completion from basic education were subjected to percentage analysis and presented in Table 17.

Table 17: Descriptive Analysis of School Factors Affecting Completion of Pupils from Basic Schools in Rural Areas

N	Items	Yes (%)	No (%)	Total (%)	Rank	Remark
1	Would you not complete basic six if the school buildings are bad?	402(35%)	741(65%)	1143(100%)	5 th	Not Affirmed
2	Would you not complete basic six if the school is short of teachers and other necessary educational resources? Completion	634(55%)	509(45%)	1143(100%)	4 th	Affirmed
3	Would you not complete basic six if the school is far from your house?	847(74%)	296(26%)	1143(100%)	1 st	Affirmed
4	Would you not complete basic six if your classroom is overcrowded?	658(58%)	485(42%)	1143(100%)	3 rd	Affirmed
5	Would you not complete basic six if your teacher is too harsh on you?	750(66%)	393(34%)	1143(100%)	2 nd	Affirmed

Table 14 showed that out of 1,143 (100%) pupils that partook in this study, 402 (35%) of the pupils would not complete basic six if the school buildings were bad while 741 (65%) would complete basic six; 634 (55%) would not complete basic six if the schools were short of teachers and other necessary educational resources while 509 (45%) would not; 847 (74%) of the pupils would not complete basic six if the schools were too far from their homes while 296 (26%) would still complete basic six; 658 (58%) would not complete basic six if their classrooms were overcrowded while 485 (42%) would complete; 750 (66%) of the pupils would not complete basic six if their teachers were harsh on them while 393 (34%) would still complete.

Thus, items ranked 1st to 4th were affirmed as the school factors that affected completion rate in basic schools except item ranked 5th. This implies that school distance, harsh teachers, shortage of teachers and other necessary educational resources, overcrowded classrooms (except bad classroom buildings) were the non-school factors that could affect pupils' completion in rural basic schools of South West Nigeria.

Summary of the Findings

Findings obtained from this study were summarized as presented:

1. Classrooms, space for school assembly ground, textbooks, chalkboards, tables, chairs, teachers, staff common rooms, libraries, laboratories, security perimeter fences, maps, and models among others were available in few of the sampled schools and not available in most sampled schools as shown in the responses of the school Head teachers. However, none of the sampled schools had sick bay, electricity, and pipe-borne water.
2. Also, while spaces for school assembly were adequate, sports/playground, chalkboards, classrooms, tables and Chairs, toilets, store rooms, textbooks, other stationeries, and maps, were fairly available. However, Classroom teachers, workbooks/sheets, models, libraries, computer laboratories, security parameter fence, pipe-borne water and science laboratories were inadequate to cater for the educational needs of pupils in the rural schools from basic 1 to 6.
3. Spaces for school assembly were in good condition while the conditions of classrooms, toilets and sport/playgrounds were fair. However, the conditions of staff common rooms, libraries, store-rooms and computer laboratories were poor while science laboratories, instructional resources, security perimeter fences and pipe-borne water were in very poor conditions in rural basic school 1 to 6.
4. There had been a decline in pupils' retention trend in Middle-basic schools from 2012/2013 to 2014/2015 academic sessions, but a little rise in the 2015/2016 academic session in schools in the rural areas.
5. There was a significant increase in the percentage of pupils that completed basic 1 to 6 between 2010/2011 and 2011/2012 academic sessions and a drastic fall between 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 academic sessions. However, there had been a very slight

increment in the percentage of pupils' completion in basic education from 2012/2013 to 2015/2016 academic sessions in schools in the rural areas of South West Nigeria.

6. There was a fall in pupils' enrolment to basic education between 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 but a gradual rise in pupils' enrolment trend to basic education from 2012/2013 to 2015/2016 academic session in schools in the rural areas of South West Nigeria.
7. Child's ill-health, poor parental financial status, farm works and hawking were non-school factors that could affect pupils' enrolment to basic schools in rural areas.
8. Bad buildings, distance and shortage of teachers and other educational resources, are the school factors that could affect pupils' enrolment to basic schools in rural areas.
9. Parental inability to provide pupils' basic needs in schools, child's ill-health, farm work and hawking (except domestic chores) were the non-school factors that could affect pupils' retention in rural basic schools.
10. Shortage of teachers and other educational resources, school distance, harsh teachers and overcrowded classroom (except bad school buildings) were the school factors that could affect pupils' retention in rural basic schools.
11. Ill-health, parents' inability to provide pupils' basic needs, farm works and hawking were the non-school factors that could affect pupil' completion of basic education in rural areas.
12. School distance, harsh teachers, shortage of teachers and other necessary educational resources, overcrowded classrooms (except bad classroom buildings) were the school factors that could affect pupils' completion of basic schools in rural areas.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the discussion, conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of this study.

Discussion of the Findings

It is generally observed from the findings of this study that there exists in South West Nigeria, shortcomings in the access to Basic Education in rural areas. These were challenges that required to be addressed based on the findings of this study.

The findings from the demographic information of this study revealed that basic six pupils domiciled in rural areas of south western Nigeria fall between the age categories 11 to 13 years old while the sampled Head teachers were all above 50 years old with more than 20-year work experience in the teaching profession. This implied that majority of respondents were adults and young adults who were capable of giving useful information. Also, to buttress the aspect of the rural nature of the sampled areas, the findings from the demographic of this study showed that majority of the parents were traders and farmers with family sizes of more than five and had no cars but trek as means of transportation.

It was found out that all the sampled schools had educational infrastructural facilities and instructional materials such as: classrooms, space for school assembly grounds, chalkboards, text-books, classroom teachers, tables and chairs. In addition to these educational resources possessed by all schools, majority of the sampled schools had sports / play grounds, toilets, workbooks / worksheets, maps and other stationaries. On the other hand, while the majority of the sampled basic schools lack educational resources such as: staff common rooms, library, computer laboratory, store rooms, science laboratory, pipe-borne water, security perimeter fences, and models; none of the sampled schools has

electricity connection nor sick bays. These materials were found by Hussain, Ahmed, Ahmad, Suleman, Ud'Din, and Khalid, (2012) in their study on the availability of educational facilities in secondary schools in Pakistan, as major role players in strengthening and improving access to basic education. This is also in agreement with the study of Ahunanya and Ubabudu (2006) which found that adequate facilities must be provided for effective teaching and learning to take place. Sadly, as it were, the complete absence of electricity connection into these sampled middle basic schools identifies with why some facilities like the science laboratories, computer laboratories, electric slides and other electrically powered gadgets would not function in places where they exist.

Another finding of this study shows the adequacy level of the existing educational resources present in the middle basic schools. The only resource that was adequate for all the sampled middle basic schools was the school assembly ground. All the schools were found to be characterized by large assembly ground big enough to contain their pupils. This may be as a result of the stretch of land often allocated for the building of the schools and the fact that rural areas most often time than not, is characterized by a larger expanse of lands, the fewer number of population as against the urban. However, apart from the assembly ground, other facilities such as sports / grounds, chalkboards, classroom, tables and chairs were fairly available. This finding is in agreement with the study of Tadese (2014) on the availability of educational resources, that found out that school facilities and instructional materials were unavailable, less in quantity, thus creating negative impact on the quality of basic education. In accordance with this, Mpho (2012) found out in a study on the link between school facilities' condition and teachers' level of job satisfaction that most primary schools lack teachers because the quality of available facilities is an important predictor of rural-urban drift of teachers in primary schools and this according to Adenipekun (2006) affects 85% of States in Nigeria. Further, the following educational infrastructure and instructional materials,

though present in some of the sampled schools were found to be inadequate. These include toilets, storerooms, textbooks, maps, stationaries, classroom teachers, workbooks, worksheets, library, computer laboratories, security perimeter fences, models, pipe-borne water and science laboratories. These findings tally with Olor's (2005) study which was concluded on the premise that a number of Primary schools in Nigeria were characterized by limited resources, overcrowded class rooms and dilapidated buildings; a major challenge of inadequate facilities and infrastructure confronting the current education policy. The inadequacy of these educational resources may stand as a bottleneck to the achievement of the universal basic education goal by the year 2030. In support of this, Jago and Tanner (1990) mentioned educational resources as an appropriate predictor of teacher and student commitment to their duties thus playing a significant role in the achievement of both teachers and students.

This study further found out the conditions of available educational resources in the rural areas. The pipe-borne water facilities, security perimeter fences, general instructional facilities, and science laboratories were found to be in very poor conditions; although only one out of the whole sampled middle basic school had the pipe-borne water facility, it was in bad shape with rusty and non-functional taps as inspected by the researcher. A few schools had what looked like traces of security perimeter fences all broken down due to old age and lack of maintenance.

Also, instructional facilities such as chalkboards were characterized by make-shift charcoal-dyed walls in some parts of the classrooms. Additionally, the conditions of some facilities could be termed as poor; facilities such as libraries, computer laboratories, store-rooms, and staff common rooms. On the other hand, the condition of the classrooms, toilets and sport / playgrounds was fair, while the assembly grounds were in good conditions with neatly trimmed grasses. Succinctly, apart from the availability and adequacy of educational

resources, it is of importance to conduct constant check and maintenance on existing facilities as these facilities could give way to dilapidation and collapse if left unattended to thus affecting rates of access to education. In agreement with this, Kennedy (2001) held that the quality of school facilities is seen as a determining factor in the decision making of both pupils and individual teachers, as to whether they stay in the school or not. Also, Benner (2000) supported that the quality of the facility and its availability is an influencing factor in teacher's job dissatisfaction.

Further, this study found out that there were inconsistencies in the rates of enrolment over a period of six years from 2010/ 2011 to 2015 / 2016. enrolment increased in there was a fall in pupils' enrolment trend to basic education between 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 but a gradual rise in pupils' enrolment trend to basic education from 2012/2013 to 2015/2016 academic session in rural areas. This is in line with the National Education Data Survey report (2016) which upholds an unstable trend in enrolment rates instead of the steady flow of increment in enrolment trends.

Relatedly, the findings of this study also revealed there had been an overall decline in pupils' retention trend in basic education from 2012/2013 to 2014/2015 academic sessions but a little rise in the 2015/2016 academic session in rural areas. This might have been attributed to the recent level of social exposure and civilization especially since majority of the pupils' parents' occupation is predominantly trading with a high percentage of parents equipped with the ability to read and write English and Yoruba languages as opposed to the thoughts of rural dwellers in south western Nigeria as being predominantly farmers and stark illiterates.

In addition, the findings of this study show that there was a significant increase in the percentage of pupils that completed basic one to six between 2010/2011 and 2011/2012

academic sessions and a drastic fall between 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 academic sessions. However, there has been a very slight increment in the percentage of pupils' completion in basic education from 2012/2013 to 2015/2016 academic sessions in rural areas. Putting together all the dimensions of access to basic education which are enrolment, retention and completion trends of pupils in basic education in rural areas from 2010/2011 to 2015/2016, this study revealed that there was instability in the rates. One would expect a higher number of retention and completion rate with zero tolerance for dropout issues, but sadly, there were still cases of drop out which is higher when compared to access rates to basic schools in the urban. This is in agreement with the positions of Oluwapomi (2016) and Nigeria Education Data Survey (NEDS 2016) which states that though Nigeria has improved significantly in the past 25 years with increment in attendance rate from about 25% of children aged between 6 and 11 who were in school 25 years ago to 67% net attendance rate in 2015, over 10 million children are still out of school in Nigeria today

This study further found out some major factors affecting children's access to basic education in the rural areas of South-western Nigeria through analysis of series of factors under the school and non-school factors. However, the non-school factors affecting enrolment of children into the middle basic schools according to the findings of this study were specifically analyzed as child's health, parental poor financial status, farm work and hawking, while fosterage was not observed as a factor affecting children's access to middle basic education. This connotes that not all factors affect enrolment into middle basic schools; moreover, what may be seen as factors hindering access in the urban, may be regarded as nothing by the children in the rural areas. . This is in line with the study of Querejeta (2010) on the identification of factors affecting children's performance in schools; it was found that relevant differences exist in children's home experiences as regards their social and economic backgrounds. Also, this is supported by the assertion of Charles, Ikoh, Iyamba, and Charles

(2006) which stated that child-labour which may involve children going to farm or hawking before and after school, boycotting school on the market amongst others has also been seen as a phenomenon challenging the access rates to UBE programme in Nigeria. A number of Nigerian children are trapped in child labour, particularly the type described by Charles, Ikoh, Iyamba, and Charles (2006) just to supplement the family income. Charles et al (2006) even stressed that more parents have become involved in engaging children in child labour because of the high income it yields to them. This which invariably may be a norm in the rural settings.

In a related development, the findings of this study revealed some school factors affecting children's enrolment into middle basic schools. Factors identified included: school buildings, school distance, shortage of teachers and shortage of instructional facilities. The shortage of teachers may be as a result of rural-urban drift and brain drain which may result in parents' refusal to enroll their children in certain schools. Also, the distance to be trekked to school, predicated on the majority number of respondents whose parents have no cars in the rural areas, if too far, may pose a threat to parents' initial decision of enrolling their children in basic schools. This finding is in agreement with these findings of Tenikue (2010) on the empirical analysis of school attainment and progression in Cameroon which found that the farther the distance to a school, the lower the likelihood to enroll or complete the schooling programme especially in the rural areas. This is supported by of Ajere and Yusuf (2000) that outlined some possible problems of UBE access to be: bad infrastructural facilities like buildings, equipment and instructional materials; the problem of the trekking distance from home to school; poor planning; the dearth of statistics on children's enrolment, number of teachers.

This study also found out that child's ill-health, parental poor economic status, farm work and hawking all categorized under the non-school factors, were affecting pupils

retention in middle basic schools; while on the other hand, factors like getting involved with domestic house chores was not deemed as a non-school factor affecting children's retention in middle basic schools. This is particularly not in agreement with the study of Charles et al (2006) which stressed that engaging children in child labour such as running menial errands like fetching firewood from the bushes, fetching water from streams among others could lead to the child's dropping out of school. However, these actions may be seen as a platform for training the children while also shaping them to be economically and socially responsible adults.

Also, the findings of this study identified a shortage of teachers, shortage of necessary educational resources, school distance, overcrowding in classrooms and harsh teachers as school factors affecting pupils' retention in middle basic schools domiciled in rural areas. Taking each of these factors individually, shortage of teachers' as a factor affecting pupils' retention rate implies that there may be times when pupils learning periods would be left idle without availability of teachers to teach them; these pupils on sensing that they are wasting their time by attending school on a daily basis, may be forced to report to their parents, who may in turn discourage the pupils from further school attendance and rather infuse them into their major means of livelihood; be it farming or trading.

Taking into consideration the school distance to be trekked, pupils may decide not to go to school again if their school is seen to be farther than their farm or market to their home. In the same vein, overcrowding in the classroom may lead to deficiency in meaningful learning and may be discouraging to pupils who may then lack focus on the reason for schooling thereby causing them to drop out. This submission is in support of the studies of Werunga, Musera and Sindabi (2011) who attributed the reasons for non-transition to trekking long distance to school and De'Patta (2002) who found that overcrowding and congestion in the classrooms affects pupils' attendance and achievement thus resulting to

drop-out cases. Similarly, on harsh teachers, Murray (1972) supported that the teacher's personality is a significant variable in the teaching-learning process with a characteristic attribute of personality which influences both the manner in which he acts toward others and the ways in which they respond to him. Still on school factors, bad school buildings were not seen as a factor affecting retention of pupils in basic schools in rural areas. This may be due to the fact that it has been a major factor affecting the enrolment decision at the onset, and whatever situations the school buildings were, if pupils could enroll, will not now be why they should drop out of schools.

Further, the findings of this study affirmed that child's ill-health, parental poor economic status, farm work and hawking are major non-school factors that affect pupils' completion of basic education in rural areas. These factors imply unstable school attendance, which may result in failure in examinations, then to the constant repetition of classes and finally to unsuccessful completion. Putting into consideration, the decisive conceptualization of the United Nations' Millennium Development Goal for education on issues of completion which should encapsulate meaningful learning at the end, for all children in the world that are able to achieve a complete full-course of primary schooling.

The engagement with farm work and hawking as a factor affecting access, was in alignment with the study of Oloko (1990) which revealed that, while parents send their children to serve as domestic use either as farmers or hawkers just to supplement family income, they tend to attach less importance to education while focusing more on the supplementary income flow catalyzed by these children thus hindering the completion of basic schooling. This is in line with the theory of Human Motivation as postulated by Abraham Maslow in 1943. Maslow contended that people have tendencies towards and needs for certain things giving instances that if one was both hungry and thirsty; there is a high tendency for the thirst to be attended to first as a matter of urgency. The theory of human

motivation may be a plausible explanation for the choices made in rural areas on whether to send their children to school or not amidst other social pressing needs. The choice of making immediate livelihood for the people in the rural areas outweighs that of academic pursuance as found in this study. More so, child's age, early marriage and domestic chores have not been seen as factors affecting pupils' completion from middle basic schools. Majority of the pupils saw age as just a number which has no effect on their decision whether to complete schooling or not. This disagrees with the findings of Solarin (2012) who observed that age is one of the socio-cultural barriers than can affect the completion of basic six by pupils.

Lastly, based on the findings of this study, the school factors affecting completion of pupils from basic schools were shortage of teachers and other necessary educational resources, school distance, overcrowding in classrooms and harsh teachers while bad school buildings were not seen as hindrances to successful completion of pupils from middle basic schools domiciled in rural areas.

Conclusion

The following conclusions were drawn based on the findings of this study. First, it was deduced that majority of the middle basic schools domiciled in the rural areas of South West Nigeria were devoid of necessary educational infrastructural and instructional facilities. In cases where some of these facilities exist, they were inadequate to cater for the educational needs of pupils in the rural schools from basic one to six while most of them were already in dilapidated conditions.

Secondly, the enrolment, retention and completion trends as observed from 2010/2011 to 2015/2016 academic sessions, were unstable while the number of those retained and those that completed drops; thus, not tallying with the number of those enrolled into the basic schools for the years as expected so as to attain the EFA and SDG goals.

Thirdly, while the school factors affecting enrolment into basic schools in the rural areas had been identified as bad school buildings, school distance, shortage of teachers and educational resources; the non-school factors were identified as child's ill health, parental poor financial status, involvement in farm work and hawking.

Fourthly, while the school factors affecting retention of pupils in middle basic schools in rural areas were identified as overcrowding, school distance, teachers' harshness, shortage of teachers and other educational resources; the non-school factors were identified as child's ill health, parents' poor economic status, farm work, hawking and parents' refusal to support child's schooling.

Fifthly, while the school factors affecting the completion of pupils from basic schools in rural areas were identified as overcrowding, school distance, teacher's harshness, shortage of teachers and other educational resources; the non-school factors were analyzed as child's ill health, parents' poor financial status, farm work and hawking.

This study apart from being able to identify the existence, adequacy and conditions of educational resources in the rural areas, it has been able to detect those actual or / and potential factors responsible for haphazard trends in access to basic education through the categorization under school and non-school factors.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, discussions and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations were suggested:

1. Government at all levels, voluntary agencies, communities and private individuals in the establishment and management of primary schools in Nigeria should place emphasis on adequate funding of the basic education programme which would

translate to the availability of Educational resources for the needs of pupils in Basic Schools in the rural areas of South West Nigeria.

2. For the adequacy of educational infrastructural facilities and instructional materials, government and those involved with educational administrations should ensure regular census and updating pupils' population and data-base on enrolment into basic schools to ensure that the right quantity of educational resources is provided and allocated to the basic schools in the rural areas of South West Nigeria.
3. Constant monitoring by government and other educational stakeholders is recommended to ascertain that educational resources provided for the basic schools in the rural areas of South West Nigeria are in good conditions at all times while also imbining the culture of maintenance, outright replacement and / or repairing as required.
4. School heads and immediate School Administrators should periodically convene PTA meetings so as to involve parents and stakeholders in discussions bordering around steps to improve pupils' retention while identifying the practical problems in the way of retention of pupils. This will give further insight into the early recognition of other access-threatening factors.in basic schools in rural areas of South West Nigeria.
5. Government generally and Teachers in particular should engage in continuous sensitization programmes within the rural communities where they reside on the importance of the completion of basic education.
6. A routine sensitization campaign to raise communities' awareness about the value of basic education should be encouraged by government and school heads thus encouraging parents to enroll their children into basic schools.
7. Government at all levels, in collaboration with other stakeholders should assist in the provision of basic health care services in basic schools in the rural areas for children

enrolled in school. Also, government should address problems of poverty, by empowering parents thereby making them economically viable so as to stop reduce children's involvement in hawking.

8. Renovation of dilapidated school buildings is suggested where school buildings are bad. Also, to ease the effect of distance travelled to school, it is recommended to authorities in charge of approval and location of new basic schools to as a matter of policy, consider the maximum distance of one kilometer between schools and residence of majority of the children in the rural areas. Also, an organized transporting system to and from school should also be considered especially in the rural areas where almost every child treks long distances to and from school.
9. Government should strive to make schooling at the basic education level totally free so as to cater for the educational needs of pupils at this educational level in schools in the rural areas while also making the engagement of children in hawking or farming during school hours a punishable offense.
10. Government and the parents-teachers' association should employ more teachers and also train them to be friendly with pupils while also decongesting classrooms by making it a ratio of a teacher to a minimum of 10 pupils.

Implications of the Study

One of the implications of the findings of this study is that it would stimulate the government to review their distribution of educational resources and re-examine strategies adopted in monitoring and inspection of educational resources in the rural areas. By so doing, issues of availability, adequacy and dilapidation would be addressed.

Another implication of the findings of this study is that it reveals those factors affecting access to basic education in the rural areas to educational planners, educational administrators, policy makers, teachers, parents, guardians and all educational stakeholders

with recommended suggestions on the way forward. The recognition of these factors affecting access and the recommendations suggested would assist in the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals by the year 2030. In the absence of studies such as this, there may be a re-occurrence of non-achievement of goal in 2030.

By implication, the findings of this study will be of relevance to sociology of education as a field of study since it focused on social institutions such as the family and school as they affect provision of basic education in respect rural society. Conclusively, the findings of this study would give insight to sociologists of education to address educational challenges, especially in ensuring inclusive education which encourages greater participation of rural children in basic education.

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to rural areas only in three states in South-western Nigeria. This region is made up of six states namely Ekiti, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo. If the scope of the study has been extended to all geopolitical zones of Nigeria, there would have been a more representative study.

There was paucity of secondary data from some of the government offices for instance information on the exact number of teachers were withheld due to political reasons and the figures given were tagged as ‘estimates’. Thus, the secondary data used for this study was based majorly on estimated figures.

Pupils in schools domiciled in rural areas should not have been the only ones sampled, children that have dropped-out of school and those who have never been enrolled should have been part of the survey; this would have strengthened the result of the findings.

Despite these limitations, the findings of this study would be significant especially since it dealt with rural areas where the excitement to express their misery is high in anticipation of achieving development in their societies.

Suggestions for Further Studies

1. Analysis of school and non-school factors affecting children's access to basic education in rural areas should be conducted in other rural areas of the country. Most especially in the Northern and Eastern part of Nigeria.
2. Research can also be conducted on comparative analysis of school and non-school factors affecting children's access to basic education in rural and urban areas.
3. Further research can be carried out on removal of the identified school and non-school factors affecting children's access to basic education in rural areas.

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APPENDIX A

Sample Size Table

Required Sample Size [†]								
Population Size	Confidence = 95%				Confidence = 99%			
	Margin of Error				Margin of Error			
	5.0%	3.5%	2.5%	1.0%	5.0%	3.5%	2.5%	1.0%
10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
20	19	20	20	20	19	20	20	20
30	28	29	29	30	29	29	30	30
50	44	47	48	50	47	48	49	50
75	63	69	72	74	67	71	73	75
100	80	89	94	99	87	93	96	99
150	108	126	137	148	122	135	142	149
200	132	160	177	196	154	174	186	198
250	152	190	215	244	182	211	229	246
300	169	217	251	291	207	246	270	295
400	196	265	318	384	250	309	348	391
500	217	306	377	475	285	365	421	485
600	234	340	432	565	315	416	490	579
700	248	370	481	653	341	462	554	672
800	260	396	526	739	363	503	615	763
1,000	278	440	606	906	399	575	727	943
1,200	291	474	674	1067	427	636	827	1119
1,500	306	515	759	1297	460	712	959	1376
2,000	322	563	869	1655	498	808	1141	1785
2,500	333	597	952	1984	524	879	1288	2173
3,500	346	641	1068	2565	558	977	1510	2890
5,000	357	678	1176	3288	586	1066	1734	3842
7,500	365	710	1275	4211	610	1147	1960	5165
10,000	370	727	1332	4899	622	1193	2098	6239
25,000	378	760	1448	6939	646	1285	2399	9972
50,000	381	772	1491	8056	655	1318	2520	12455
75,000	382	776	1506	8514	658	1330	2563	13583
100,000	383	778	1513	8762	659	1336	2585	14227
250,000	384	782	1527	9248	662	1347	2626	15555
500,000	384	783	1532	9423	663	1350	2640	16055
1,000,000	384	783	1534	9512	663	1352	2647	16317
2,500,000	384	784	1536	9567	663	1353	2651	16478
10,000,000	384	784	1536	9594	663	1354	2653	16560
100,000,000	384	784	1537	9603	663	1354	2654	16584
300,000,000	384	784	1537	9603	663	1354	2654	16586

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APPENDIX B



**University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria
Faculty of Education,
Department of Social Sciences Education**

Questionnaire for Head teachers:

Inventory on Educational Infrastructural Facilities and Instructional Materials (IEIFIM)

Dear Head teacher,

This Inventory is designed to gather data for a study being conducted by a student from the University named above in connection with a PhD programme. The data will be held in confidence to the benefit of this research only. Should the data be published, your identity will not be disclosed. You are therefore assured that this exercise is for an academic purpose only. Taking part in this study is voluntary. Therefore, if you decide to be part, you are kindly requested to read through the items and respond to them as frankly and objectively as possible.

Thanks.

Section A: Background Information

- a) State: Ekiti () Osun () Oyo ()
- b) Please indicate the Local Government where your school is located.....
- c) Age Range: Less than 30 years () 31-40 years () 41-50 years ()
Above 50 years ()
- d) Professional qualification: GRADE II () NCE () BA/BSc Education ()
BA/BSc + PGDE () M.Ed () PhD ()
- e) Number of years in service: Less than 10 years () 11-20years ()
20years and above()
- f) Number of Teachers in your school _____
- g) Total number of Pupils in your school _____
- h) Number of classes in your school _____
- i) Number of arms in basics (1)_____(2)_____(3)_____(4)_____(5)_____(6)_____

Section B: Availability and Adequacy of Educational Infrastructural Facilities and Instructional Materials.

Please, go through the various items and indicate whether the following facilities are available or not, with their levels of adequacy by ticking [✓] any of the options best suitable to you.

S/N	Items	Available	Not Available	Adequate	Fairly Adequate	Not Adequate
A	Educational Infrastructural Facilities					
1	Classrooms					
2	Staff Common Rooms					
3	Library					
4	Computer Laboratory					
5	Sick Bay					
6	Store room					
7	Science Laboratory					
8	Toilet					
9	Sports/play ground					
10	Space for Assembly					
11	Electricity					
12	Pipe-Borne Water					

13	Security Perimeter Fence					
B	Instructional Resources					
14	Textbooks					
15	Workbooks/worksheets					
16	Models					
17	Maps					
18	Chalkboards					
19	Tables and Chairs					
20	Classroom Teachers					
21	Other Stationeries					

Section C: Conditions of the Available Educational Infrastructural Facilities and Instructional Materials.

Please read through the various items carefully and indicate by ticking [√] on the rating scale, your preferred option. Good (G), Fair (F), Poor (P) and Very Poor (VP).

S/N	Items	Good	Fair	Poor	Very Poor
1	Space for Assembly				
2	Classrooms				
3	Toilet				
4	Sports/playground				
5	Staff Common Rooms				
6	Library				
7	Store room				
8	Computer Laboratory				
9	Science Laboratory				
10	General Instructional Facilities				
11	Security Perimeter Fence				
12	Pipe-Borne Water				
13	Electricity				
14	Sick Bay				

APPENDIX C



**University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria
Faculty of Education,
Department of Social Sciences Education**

Questionnaire for Head teachers:

**Records on Enrolment, Retention, and Completion Rates of Children from
2010/2011-2015/2016 academic year (RERCRC 2010/2011-2015/2016)**

Dear Head teacher,

This Proforma is designed to collect data for a study being conducted by a student from the University named above in connection with a PhD programme. The data will be held in confidence to the benefit of this study only. Should the data be published, your identity will not be disclosed. You are therefore assured that this exercise is for an academic purpose only. Taking part in this study is voluntary. Therefore, if you decide to be part, you are kindly requested to read through the items and respond to them as frankly and objectively as possible.

Thanks.

**SCHOOL RECORDS' PROFORMA ON ENROLMENT, RETENTION AND COMPLETION FROM
BASIC 1-6 (2010/ 2011- 2015/2016)**

Name of School _____ State _____ LGA _____

Please read through the various items carefully and fill in the appropriate figure.

Year	Class	Basic 1	Basic 2	Basic 3	Basic 4	Basic 5	Basic 6
	Continuum of Access						
2010 /2011	Number Enrolled						
	Number Retained						
	Number completed						
	Number transferred out						
	Number dropped-out						
2011 /2012	Number Enrolled						
	Number Retained						
	Number completed						
	Number transferred out						
	Number dropped-out						
2012 /2013	Number Enrolled						
	Number Retained						
	Number completed						
	Number transferred out						
	Number dropped-out						
2013 /2014	Number Enrolled						
	Number Retained						
	Number completed						
	Number transferred out						
	Number dropped-out						
2014 /2015	Number Enrolled						
	Number Retained						
	Number completed						
	Number transferred out						
	Number dropped-out						
2015 /2016	Number Enrolled						
	Number Retained						
	Number completed						
	Number transferred out						
	Number dropped-out						

Thanks for being part of this study.

APPENDIX D



**University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria
Faculty of Education
Department of Social Sciences Education**

Questionnaire for Basic School Pupils:

Questionnaire on Factors Affecting Children's Access to Basic Education (FACABE).

Dear Pupil,

This questionnaire is meant to collect data for a study being conducted by a student from the university named above in connection with Factors affecting children's access to Basic Education (FACABE). The data will be held in confidence to the research only. Should the data be published, your identity will not be disclosed. You are therefore assured that this exercise is for an academic purpose only. Taking part in this study is voluntary. Therefore, if you decide to be part, you are kindly requested to read through the items and respond to them as frankly and objectively as possible.

Thanks.

Instruction: Read carefully the following statements and tick {√} where applicable to your choice.

Section A: Background Information of Pupil

1. **Age Range:** less than 8 years () 8-10 years () 11-13 years ()
14- 16 years () above 16 years ()

2. Parents Occupation

- A Civil Servant (Medical Doctor, Teacher, Lawyer, e.t.c.) ☐
- B Private Service ☐
- C Trading ☐
- D Farming ☐
- E Others Specify _____

3. Parental Level of Education

- A. Can read English or Yoruba ☐
- B. Cannot read English nor Yoruba ☐

4. Family Size

- A. Less than five ☐
- B. More than five ☐
- C. More than 10 ☐

5. Parental Economic Status

- A. Family have a car ☐
- B. Family have a tricycle ☐
- C. Family have a motorcycle ☐
- D. Family have a bicycle ☐
- E. Family has none of the above ☐

Section B: Factors Determining Access Rates to Basic Education

Instruction: Please read through the various items carefully and indicate the extent to which the following factors influence your access to Basic Education by ticking [✓] the appropriate column of either 'Yes' or 'No'. Do not tick both options.

Factors Affecting Children's Access to Basic Education	Yes	No
A. School Factors affecting Enrolment		
1. Would you not enroll in a school if the school buildings are bad?		
2. Would you not enroll in a school if it is too far from your house?		
3. Would you not enroll in a school, if you are aware that it has shortage of teachers and other educational resources?		
B. Non-school Factors affecting Enrolment		
4. Are you aware of your age mates who could not enroll in school due to ill-health?		
5. Are you aware of your age mates who could not enroll in school due to their parental poor financial status?		
6. Are you aware of your age mates who could not enroll in school due to farm work?		
7. Are you aware of your age mates who could not enroll in school due to hawking?		
8. Are you aware of your age mates who could not enroll in school because they do not live with their parents?		
C. School Factors affecting Retention		
9. Would you leave school if the school buildings are bad?		
10. Would you leave school if the school is short of teachers and other necessary educational resources?		
11. Would you stop going to school if the school is too far from your house?		
12. Would you leave school if your classroom is overcrowded?		
13. Would you discontinue attending school if your teacher is too harsh on you?		
D. Non-school Factors affecting Retention		
14. Are you aware of your age mates who could not remain in school due to ill-health?		
15. Are you aware of your age mates who could not remain in school due to their parents' inability to provide their basic school needs in?		
16. Can engagement with farm works discontinue your schooling?		
17. Can constant hawking make you stop schooling?		
18. Can domestic chores stop you from coming to school?		


19. If your parent stop providing your needs in school, would you still continue schooling?		
E. School Factors affecting Completion		
20. Would you not complete basic six if the school buildings are bad?		
21. Would you not complete basic six if the school is short of teachers and other necessary educational resources?		
22. Would you not complete basic six if the school is far from your house?		
23. Would you not complete basic six if your classroom is overcrowded?		
24. Would you not complete basic six if your teacher is harsh on you?		
F. Non-school Factors affecting Completion		
25. Do you consider yourself too old to complete basic nine?		
26. Would you consider getting married after basic six?		
27. Are you aware of other children who could not complete basic six due to ill-health?		
28. Are you aware of other children who could not complete basic six due to their parents 'inability to provide their basic needs in schools?		
29. Can farm works stop you from completing basic six?		
30. Can hawking stop you from coming to school?		
31. Can domestic chores stop you from completing basic six?		
32. If your parent stop providing your schooling needs, would you still complete basic six?		

THANKS FOR BEING PART OF THIS STUDY

APPENDIX E ETHICAL CERTIFICATE

UNIVERSITY OF ILORIN, ILORIN, NIGERIA.
UNIVERSITY ETHICAL REVIEW COMMITTEE

Vice-Chancellor: Prof. A.G. Ambali
DVM (ABU), M.V. Sc., Ph.D (Liverpool, UK),
MVCN, MCVSN, MNVMA, FCVSN
Registrar: Mr. E.D. Obafemi
B.A. (Hons), Cert. Public Information (Kaduna),
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UIL/UERC/13/6801005

13th October, 2016

Our Ref:

Date:

Protocol Identification Code: UERC/EDU/049
UERC Approval Number: UERC/ASN/2016/585

ACCESS OF CHILDREN TO BASIC EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS OF SOUTH WESTER NIGERIA

Name of applicant/Principal Investigator	IGUDIA, Itohan, Helen
Address of Applicant:	Department of Social Sciences Education, Faculty of Education, University of Ilorin, Ilorin.
Type of Review:	Full Committee Review
Date of Approval:	13/10/2016

Notice of Full Committee Approval

I am pleased to inform you that the research described in the submitted proposal has been reviewed by the University Ethical Review Committee (UERC) and given full Committee approval.


This approval dates from 13/10/2016 to 12/10/2019, and there should be no participant accrual or any activity related to this research to be conducted outside these dates.

You are requested to inform the committee at the commencement of the research to enable it appoints its representative who will ensure compliance with the approved protocol. If there is any delay in starting the research, please inform the UERC so that the dates of approval can be adjusted accordingly.

The UERC requires you to comply with all institutional guidelines and regulations and ensure that all adverse events are reported promptly to the UERC. No charges are allowed in the research without prior approval by the UERC. Please note that the UERC reserves the right to conduct monitoring/oversight visit to your research site without prior notification.

Thank You


Ismaila Isah
For: University Ethical Review Committee



"....if it's not ethical, it's not scientific, if it's not scientific, it's not ethical"