

Country study

Potential for skills partnerships on migration in Nigeria

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Benjamin Ogwo and Benadeth Ezekoye





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International Labour Office
Skills and Employability Branch
Employment Policy Department

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Foreword

In an ever-changing world of increasing globalization and technological change, the acquisition and development of skills needed for today's and tomorrow's jobs is a major challenge. Many countries are therefore making it a priority to strengthen their education and training systems to better match skills supply and demand. While it is essential to support the transition of young people to the world of work as well as to provide lifelong learning for people of all ages, labour migration also represents an opportunity to respond quickly and effectively to skills needs in the labour market – if managed in a fair manner.

On 9 December 2018 in Marrakech, the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly. This Global Compact is based on several international conventions, including the International Labour Organization's (ILO) International Labour Standards on the promotion of decent work and labour migration. Goal 18 of the Compact is devoted to investing in skills development and facilitating the mutual recognition of skills, qualifications and competencies. It calls on Member States to "build global skills partnerships amongst countries that strengthen training capacities of national authorities and relevant stakeholders, including the private sector and trade unions, and foster skills development of workers in countries of origin and migrants in countries of destination with a view to preparing trainees for employability in the labour markets of all participating countries" (UNGC, 2018, 25-26).

In this context, the ILO, in collaboration with IOM, UNESCO, IOE and ITUC, has forged the Global Skills Partnership on migration (GSP) to support skills development and recognition through partnerships between countries, along migration corridors and within selected regions, by exchanging knowledge and providing technical assistance. The GSP pays particular attention to low and medium-skilled migrants.

West Africa and the Sahel region are characterized by the highest incidence of low and semi-skilled migration on the African continent. In order to adopt a context-sensitive approach to West Africa and the Sahel, the ILO has commissioned a sub-regional study to explore opportunities for skills partnerships on migration in this subregion.

The present report is one of ten country studies that informed the sub-regional study. It is dedicated to Nigeria and provides relevant background information on skills systems and policies in place, migration flows and patterns, links between training and migration policies, and collaboration on skills anticipation, development and recognition between the selected countries. In addition, it explores potential areas for establishing partnerships for the anticipation, development and recognition of the skills of migrant workers and local populations. The reports have informed a tripartite consultation workshop, organized from 11-13 September 2019 in Abuja, Nigeria, which brought together representatives of governments, employers' and workers' organizations from eight selected countries in the subregion. Eleven proposals for agreements between countries based on partnership ideas and their action plans are available in the workshop report. Some of these partnership ideas are currently being implemented.

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Executive summary

Nigeria accounts for nearly 20 per cent of continental GDP and about 75 per cent of the West Africa economy. The country is one of the main countries of destination for largely low-skilled migrants from the region. At the same time, many medium to highly skilled Nigerians emigrate to Europe or the US, leaving the growing economy in demand of (especially) medium-level skills.

Main migration trends

- **Net migration:** According to estimates from the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), Nigeria's net migration for the period 2015–2020 is slightly negative indicating that more Nigerians are emigrating than foreigners are immigrating (UNDESA, 2019).
- **Main countries of destination:** In total, as many as 3.23 million Nigerian international migrants are assumed to have relocated to other sub-Saharan African countries and primarily West Africa, with Benin (11.22 per cent), Ghana (7.09 per cent), Mali (5.13 per cent), Togo (4.71 per cent) and Niger (3.59 per cent) among the main countries of destination.
- **Main countries of destination:** In total, as many as 3.23 million Nigerian international migrants are assumed to have relocated to other sub-Saharan African countries and primarily West Africa, with Benin (11.22 per cent), Ghana (7.09 per cent), Mali (5.13 per cent), Togo (4.71 per cent) and Niger (3.59 per cent) among the main countries of destination.
- **Main countries of origin:** Nigeria also remains the destination of choice for most migrant workers from West African countries, hosting more than 1,235,088 immigrants in 2017. Benin (29.35 per cent), Ghana (18.54 per cent), Mali (12.70 per cent) Togo (10.13 per cent) and Niger (9.40 per cent) have the highest migrant stock in Nigeria from the subregion (UNDESA, 2017).
- **Skill levels of Nigerian emigrants,** who constitute about five per cent of the Nigerian population, are at a medium to high skill level, compared to an average of low to medium levels of Nigerian nationals in general. These emigrants work mainly in the commerce and service sectors, and contributed US\$22 billion in remittances to the economy in 2007 according to the World Development Indicators (WDI).
- **The skill levels of incoming migrants** are at the low to medium levels. These migrants work mainly in the construction, service and agricultural sectors. Using 1991 labour market data (latest available data disaggregated by nationals and migrants), the International Organization on Migration (IOM) reported that a higher percentage of migrants (41.82 per cent) in Nigeria were economically active compared with nationals (29.92 per cent) (IOM, 2014).

Main challenges of the education and training system in Nigeria

- There is an over-centralization of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) policies for a heterogeneous country like Nigeria. While policies and implementation guidance are formulated at the federal level, local governments have not invested enough in developing area-level specific policies.
- TVET programmes have a tendency to change rapidly with every new government. As a result, TVET policies and programmes are not afforded sufficient time to mature before they are replaced. In terms of policy formulation and implementation, there is a disconnect between the formal and informal economies. Skills acquired in the informal economy are not recognized as part of the skills system and hence do not lead to formal qualifications.

- The National Skill Qualification Framework (NSQF) is not fully developed. This also affects the establishment of a planned system of RPL and hence integration between the three types of TVET delivery (formal, non-formal and informal).
- The skills development systems have been unable to respond to the changing labour market requirements due to poorly implemented quality assurance practices for the accreditation process, instructional delivery, assessment, and certification.
- The most fundamental problem is the lack of data to guide policy formulation and programme implementation. There is hardly any systemic structure for collecting the labour market data needed to plan TVET and skills development programmes.
- There is very limited collaboration between TVET institutions and employers for curriculum design and implementation. This has created a deep gap between the competencies of the graduates and the needs and opportunities of the labour market.
- Of all the challenges facing the Nigerian education system, none is more discouraging and persistent than inadequate funding relative to the country's GDP. This has led to poor infrastructure and equipment, and a disproportionate teacher/student ratio.

Potential for skills partnerships

The prevailing challenges to the TVET systems in Nigeria are surmountable and there are substantial prospects for utilizing private-public partnerships to fulfil the skills needs of the economy. Furthermore, lessons learned in past projects could be strategically applied to develop skills programmes for emigrants, immigrants, and returnees to the benefit of the entire West African subregion.

Ambitions: Nigerian policy-makers have recognized the need to expand regular migration channels to provide perspectives in key countries of origin. In view of this, the 2010 *Labour Migration Policy* (FLMP, 2000, 2013, 2015) was formulated to ensure that issues of migrant workers are incorporated into Nigeria's policy frameworks, even though there are hardly any provisions for returning migrants. The policy's strategic objectives include: i) improved labour migration governance; ii) the protection of migrant workers and their families; and iii) linking migration to employment creation and development, especially through upgrading skills and vocational training in Nigeria.

Sectors: *Communication, services, agriculture and construction* have driven growth in recent years. These sectors are characterized by relatively high employment creation potential, which is why the demand for middle- and high-skilled workers in Nigeria is rising and skills shortages are worsening. An aging population and the "brain drain" due to emigration of skilled Nigerians intensify this trend. While the scale of current and future shortages is much debated in Nigeria, it is clear that well managed migration will play a role in addressing skill development and employment issues.

Actors: New skills partnerships should be multi-sectoral and build on existing institutional structures. The National Commission for Refugees, Migrants and Internally Displaced Persons (NCFRMI), in collaboration with the Federal Ministry of Labour and Employment, could lead skills partnership initiatives. The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) should handle data collection, and the development, implementation or improvement of TVET programmes could fall under the jurisdiction of the National Board for Technical Education or the Centre for Technical Vocational Education Training and Research (CETVETAR). Workers and employers have crucial roles to play in ensuring that labour migration policies, as well as education and training policies, ensure that workers' rights are protected and that policies are grounded in labour market demands.

List of acronyms

ADF	African Development Fund
CETVETAR	Centre for Technical Vocational Education Training and Research (World Bank Centre of Excellence on TVET), University of Nigeria, Nsukka
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
FME	Federal Ministry of Education
IDA	International development agency
IEI	Innovation Enterprise Institute
IOM	International Organization for Migration
ITF	Industrial Training Fund
JCCE	Joint Consultative Committee on Education
M&E	Monitoring and evaluation
MCP	Master Craft Person
MDAs	Ministries, Departments and Agencies
MWSDP	Migrant Workers Skills Development Programme
NACCIMA	Nigerian Association of Chamber of Commerce, Industry, Mines, and Agriculture
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NBTE	National Board for Technical Education
NCCE	National Commission for Colleges of Education
NCFRMI	National Commission for Refugees, Migrants, and Internally Displaced Persons
NDE	National Directorate of Employment
NECA	Nigeria Employers' Consultative Association
NEP	National Employment Policy
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NERDC	National Education, Research and Development Council
NISER	Nigerian Institute of Social and Economic Research
NMEC	National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-Formal Education
NMP	National Migration Policy
NSQF	National Skill Qualification Framework
NUC	National Universities Commission
SMEDAN	Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria

STVEP	Skills Training and Vocational Education Project
TAC	Technical Aids Corps
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNEVOC	UN International Centre for Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
VEI	Vocational enterprise institutes
WBL	Work-based learning

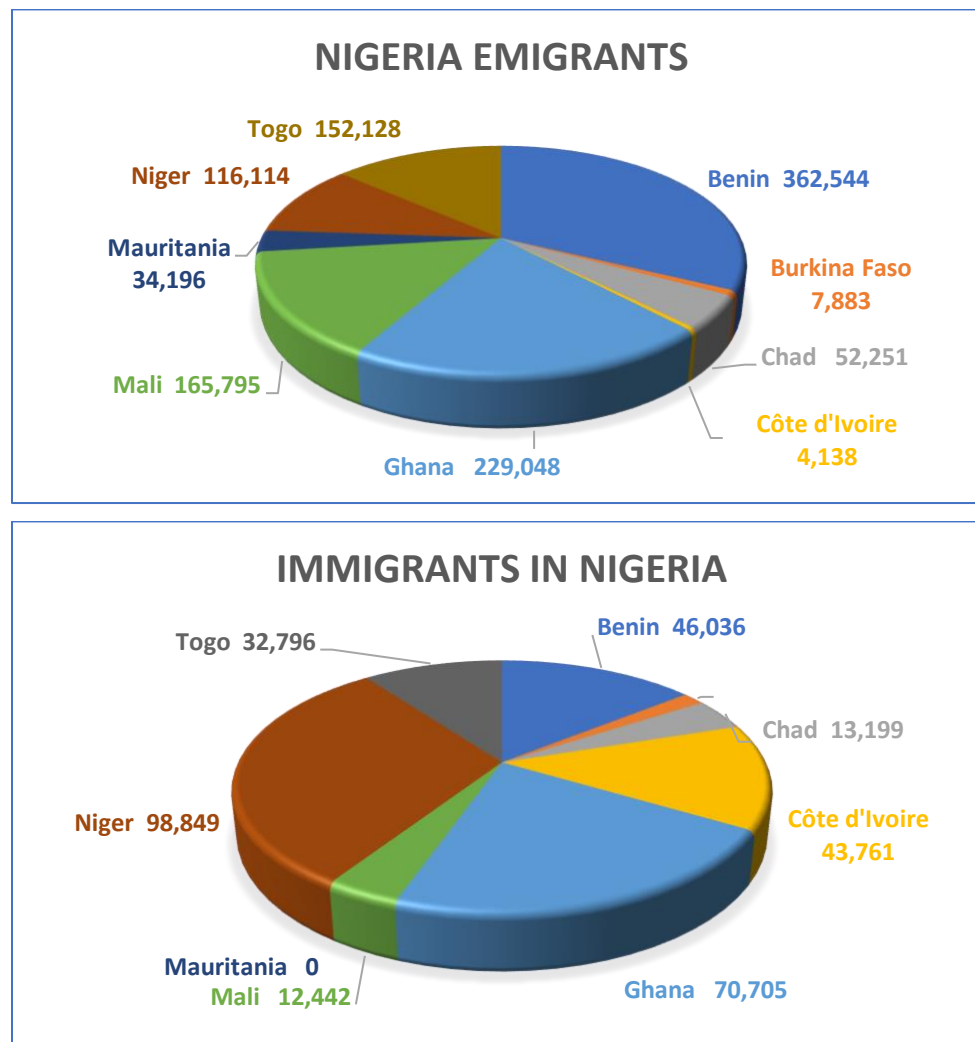
1 Context

1.1 Geography and migration patterns in Nigeria

Nigeria is a member and one of the major economies of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and is a signatory to different United Nations (UN) and International Labour Organisation (ILO) Conventions on migration. On one hand, Nigerians in large numbers continue to emigrate to different countries of the world. On the other hand, ECOWAS and other international treaties make Nigeria a destination of choice for migrant workers from other West African countries. Benin, Ghana, Mali, Niger and Togo represent the countries with the highest migrant stock in Nigeria from the subregion. The ECOWAS protocol on the free movement of persons, residence, and establishment facilitates migration without a visa and accounts for much of the prevailing irregular migration. The protocol also states that, if the migrants wish to stay beyond 90 days, they should apply for an extended stay. In addition, the cordial relationship among ethnic groups within West Africa which predated colonialism has sustained migration across the subcontinent. In many cases, immigrants tend to live in that part of Nigeria closest to their ethnicity, that is, migrants from Benin and Niger are mostly found in the southern and northern part of Nigeria respectively, as such, it is difficult to truly distinguish between Nigerians and immigrant workers. Furthermore, the commonality of the religious affiliation of Nigerians (Islam and Christianity) and the immigrants makes it easy for migrants to seamlessly assimilate into Nigeria society. However, according to the World Bank's 2017 World Development Indicators (WDIs), Nigeria has a net migration of -300,000 indicating that, more Nigerians are emigrating to other countries than people are immigrating into the country. A quantitative analysis of the data provided by the ILO in 2018 shows that the total number of African international migrants is approximately 25.8 million; 6.45 million of which are of Nigerian origin. It is noteworthy that as many as 3.23 million Nigerian international migrants are assumed to have relocated to other sub-Saharan countries. Figure 1 below shows the World Bank's 2017 bilateral estimates of the migrant stocks (Nigerian emigrants and immigrants) in some ECOWAS countries involved in this regional mapping.

According to the ILO's 2018 report Global Estimate on International Migrant Workers, male immigrants constitute a larger proportion of immigrant workers in Nigeria with males comprising 58 per cent while females totalled 42 per cent. The data is similar to latest estimates of UNDESA on Nigeria migrants, which provides the total number of the migrant workforce as 54 per cent and 46 per cent for the male and female respectively, and indicating that the Nigerian male emigrants were above 3.48 million. In addition, data provided by UNDESA shows that 58 per cent of the immigrant workforce in Nigeria is within the age bracket of 15–54 years. Furthermore, whereas 61 per cent of total male immigrants were migrant workers between 15–54 years, only 54.5 per cent of total female immigrants were migrant workers at the same age bracket. The disaggregated UNDESA data shows that these immigrant workers consist of 45 per cent females and that 67 per cent of them are within 10–54 years. Yet, these figures hardly account for irregular migrant workers to Nigeria. The spatial distribution of immigrant workers within Nigeria indicates that they are mainly in large municipalities like Lagos, Abuja, Kaduna, Port Harcourt, while others are found nearest to border locations across the country. Migrants are able to do some jobs that Nigerians may not be willing to do. It should be noted that many of the migrant workers are within the informal sector of the economy. An IOM report (2014) confirmed that Nigeria's migrant worker population is growing and that the majority of low-skilled migrant workers are being drawn into the informal sector.

Figure 1 : 2017 Bilateral estimates of migrant stocks



Source: World Bank remittance data at:

<http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/migrationremittancesdiasporaissues/brief/migration-remittances-data>.

Labour migration remains a major aspect of Nigeria's international paradox and development index. According to the World Bank Indicators (WDIs), emigrants, constituting about five per cent of the Nigeria population, contributed US\$22 billion in personal remittances to the economy in 2007. Highly skilled Nigerians emigrate to other countries and remit their earnings to the country. Few of its unskilled or hardly educated emigrants engage in illegal enterprises that bring disrepute to the country's international image.

In addition, the dire economic situation and leadership challenges in Nigeria has inadvertently prepared Nigerian emigrants to cope with all types of work situations outside their homeland. Over the years, these challenges have precipitated a desperate work culture and has given rise to an unbridled desire to emigrate to other countries for economic prosperity, even if it entails doing menial jobs or being underemployed. A UNDESA report (2017) indicates that no less than 10 per cent of the 258 million international migrants are Africans and at least 25 per cent of the African migrants are Nigerians, with over 50 per cent of them emigrating to sub-Saharan Africa, and primarily to West Africa (ILO, 2018). The positive contributions of Nigeria emigrants to West African countries are diminished by the dishonourable activities attributed to other Nigeria emigrants in other developed countries or returnees from these

countries. Again, these returnees face serious assimilation challenges on returning back to Nigeria, such as lack of capital, adaptable/employable skills, and social isolation.

The demographic and economic growth of Nigeria are interrelated and help to explain its socio-economic context. Nigeria is the most populous black nation in the world and has a population of 190 million (World Bank, 2019) with over 250 ethnic groups and languages. The population figure hardly accounts for the exact number of regular and irregular migrant workers who live in Nigeria. Invariably, the different ethnic groups intermix and live in locations outside their ethnic homelands and communicate using formal English or "Pidgin English" (a hybrid of English and local words) as their lingua franca. The 2017 WDIs register Nigeria as a low to middle income country with a GDP of US\$375 billion (World Bank, 2019). The World Bank further describes poverty as endemic in Nigeria, with the last official poverty estimate (2009) affecting 46 per cent of the population, based on the international rate of income as \$1.90 per person per day (2011 purchasing power parity); and in 2017, the estimate grew to 49.1 per cent of Nigeria's population living below the poverty line (World Bank, 2018a). Further buttressing these facts, a 2019 International Monetary Fund (IMF) report observed that persisting structural and policy challenges continue to constrain growth to levels below those needed to reduce vulnerabilities, lessen poverty and improve weak human development outcomes, such as in health and education (IMF, 2019). Indeed, there is a serious disconnect among available skills, the nation's economic growth and the rate of poverty. Furthermore, it is noted that observed poverty rates are higher in the northern parts of the country, with trade and economic contexts varying significantly between the north and the south.

Nigeria is sub-Saharan Africa's largest economy with oil and gas providing the main sources of foreign exchange earnings and government revenues. In addition, the bulk of the economy still pivots on the informal sector. According to the African Development Bank, Nigeria accounts for nearly 20 per cent of the continent's GDP and about 75 per cent of the West Africa economy. Despite this dominance, Nigeria's exports to the rest of Africa are estimated at only 12.7 per cent, and only 3.7 per cent of total trade falls within ECOWAS (African Development Bank, 2019). Evidently, if the scale of Nigeria's export is increased, combined with economic growth, it will have a positive ripple effect within the subregion. Due to the fact that a large portion of the nation's revenue is linked to the oil and gas sector, which favours high-skilled workers and employs a smaller number of Nigerians, the growth in that sector does not affect the larger populace which possesses only low- or middle-level skills afforded by TVET programmes.

According to the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA), in 2017, Nigeria's industrial production growth rate was 2.2 per cent while the real GDP growth rate was 0.8 per cent — comprising the following end-use (ibid.):

- Household consumption (80 per cent)
- Government consumption (5.8 per cent)
- Investment in fixed capital (14.8 per cent)
- Investment in inventories (0.7 per cent)
- Exports of goods and services (11.9 per cent)
- Imports of goods and services (–13.2 per cent)

Indeed, the economic growth in Nigeria has been driven by developments in agriculture, telecommunications, and services. In addition, the government is developing various forms of public-private partnerships for the construction of roads, the expansion of public utilities, and revenue generation. Unfortunately, efforts to stimulate economic diversification and strong growth have not translated into a significant decline in poverty levels: over 62 per cent of Nigeria's population (or over 190 million people) still live in extreme poverty.

Main imports include: Machinery, chemicals, transport equipment, manufactured goods, food and livestock: China 21.1 per cent, Belgium 8.7 per cent, United States 8.4 per cent, South Korea 7.5 per cent, and the UK 4.4 per cent; and

Export partners include: India 30.6 per cent, US 12.1 per cent, Spain 6.6 per cent, China 5.6 per cent, France 5.5 per cent, Netherlands 4.4 per cent, and Indonesia 4.4 per cent.

The educational attainment levels of both geo-political zones of north and south have also affected the level of poverty, economic context, trade, and socio-cultural settings. There is a paucity of valid data to show the exact difference between the geo-political zones, but it is evident that there is a higher rate of poverty in the northern population with its low levels of formal education, especially for girls and women. This creates a larger informal sector in the north than the south, which is further worsened by the fact even those able to complete formal education still face a proportionately higher incidence of unemployment and underemployment due to lack of formal sector ventures to employ them. The development frameworks of Nigeria's political, fiscal and educational policies are based on the structure of a very powerful federal government and its over-dependence on the oil and gas sector. The various states within the country are at different levels of development (Sagagi, 2016) as well as possessing different socio-cultural attributes; hence, adopting a unitary developmental approach within such a heterogeneous setting may not result in the desired economic growth.

Labour force participation rates by sex and age have also been affected by the general economic context. As of the third quarter of 2018, 90.4 million Nigerians form part of the labour force, while the unemployment rate is 23.1 percent, the underemployment rate is 20.21 per cent, and the youth unemployment/underemployment rate is 55.4 per cent (NBS, 2019).

Box 1 : Composition of the labour force by occupation

70% Agriculture: Farming, fishing, forestry: Agricultural products include, but are not limited to cocoa, peanuts, cotton, palm oil, corn, rice, sorghum, millet, cassava (manioc, tapioca), yams, rubber, cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, timber, and fish.

20% Services: This includes government activities, communications, transportation, finance, and all other economic activities and services that do not produce material goods.

10% Industry: Mining, manufacturing, energy production and constructions: Industrial outputs include crude oil, coal, tin, columbite; rubber products, wood; hides and skins, textiles, cement, and other construction materials, food products, footwear, chemicals, fertilizer, printing, ceramics, and steel.

Source: CIA, 2019.

The problem in Nigeria might better be described not as unemployment but underemployment. This is because most Nigerians cannot afford to be completely unemployed and thus find work in the informal sector doing various low paid jobs, even if these do not sufficiently meet their economic needs. There is a mismatch between educational attainment and skills possessed by TVET graduates, leading to a higher incidence of the working poor within the labour market. The main employment sectors in the Nigerian economy include informal sector wage-work, private school teaching, household enterprise activities or farming, and these are low paid jobs which do not add up to regular employment (UNIDO, 2017). Consequently, inherent gaps persist in balancing the demand and supply of skills within the economy.

1.2 Migrant workers: Occupations and conditions of work

Migrant workers are part of the supply chain in different occupations in Nigeria. The qualitative data obtained during interviews and focus group discussions indicate that migrant workers from West African

countries are mostly found in the construction industry (tiling, plumbing, welding, and fabrication), especially in Lagos, Kaduna, Port Harcourt, Abuja and other major cities in South-Eastern Nigeria. The migrant workers from multinational companies are found in all sectors of the economy, with migrants employed by embassies, high commissions and consulates in Abuja and Lagos. Indeed, the migrant workers are mainly in agriculture, fishery, forestry, mining and quarrying, low-tech manufacturing, construction, retail trade, service (domestic aid, water supply, repair of motorcycles and motor vehicles), tailoring, entertainment recreation, and arts. A company in Lagos, for example, has hundreds of migrants in welding and fabrication. The Banana and Snake Islands in Lagos were constructed mainly by migrant workers from Togo and Benin. Additionally, there are tailoring migrants from Mali and Senegal; migrant workers from Chad and Cameroon in the roofing trade; Niger migrants in the security business; Togo migrants as domestic help; and many migrants from Ghana, Benin, and Togo in construction. Women migrant workers are mainly in domestic, tailoring, and service occupations.

Certification held by an educated migrant worker is issued by the home country and there is no regional organization facilitating a framework that recognizes internationally acquired skills certificates. Respondents in this study indicated that migrant workers have “the right attitude”, comply with health and safety rules, and that many employers prefer hiring migrant workers because of their positive approach to work. Available data on labour force participation in 1991 from the IOM (2014) showed there was a higher percentage of migrants (40.81 per cent) classified as employed, compared to Nigerian nationals (29.40 per cent). Migrant workers are known for working extra hours, completing their tasks speedily in order to move on to the next contract. Additionally, they often live on the construction or work site – rent-free. Migrant workers do not belong to any trade union because they prefer anonymity since registering with the union may lead to avoidable exposure to government agencies. However, there is no indication that unions refuse membership to migrant workers should they desire to become members. Migrant workers may charge a lower wage/fee than Nigerians due to their vulnerability, but are also known for asking for higher wages whenever their expertise and work quality is recognized as higher than that of national workers. Indeed, the major means for a migrant worker to secure employment is through referrals by former and satisfied clients.

Migrant worker exploitation occurs through economic, legal and material means. For instance, exploitation may stem from the provision of inadequate or inaccurate information, issuance of false or inappropriate visas for employment, lack of migrant awareness of the regulations, as well as the preponderance of disingenuous employment agencies. All of this leads to irregular migration, perpetuated by employment agents, property owners, immigration officials, and employers and may start from the time would-be migrants receive travel documents, and continue on to the receipt of a much lower salary on arrival than was promised and threats of severe punishment if the migrant worker expresses dissatisfaction of their working conditions. Migrants working in livestock husbandry may be required to move around the country based on the availability of grazing prospects as the herdsmen move away from drought areas towards the savannah during the dry season.

1.3 Legal framework on migration

The Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Federal Ministry of Justice are the custodians of international treaties. They coordinate the activities of stakeholders affected by international treaties and facilitate the domestication process. The Attorney General of the Federal Ministry of Justice is responsible for submitting international treaties for domestication to the Federal Executive Council, which then forwards them to the Senate. International protocols and agreements signed and ratified by the Nigerian Government must be domesticated before becoming part of the laws and policies of the country. These domesticated treaties form the legal basis for laws and policies pertinent to the treaties.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 is considered the foundation of international human rights law, and Articles 7 (equality before the law), 13 (freedom of movement), 22 (social security), 23 (right to work) and 26 (right to education) specifically protect the rights of the migrant workers living and working in Nigeria. The legal framework extends to other Nigerian commitments to international standards within agreements and protocols already ratified, and thus provides a comprehensive mandate and accountability for policy, regulation, and practice under the rule of law. Nigeria works through bilateral agreements which support the ILO's Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97), and the 1990 UN International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. These provide guidelines for the fair treatment of labour migrants and facilitate labour migration through regular means. In addition, the National Policy on Migration (FLMP, 2015) lists an additional 21 ILO Conventions and 14 other rectified and relevant international instruments on which the policy is based.

It also references the following Nigerian laws as pertinent to migration:

- Immigration Act, 1963
- Factories Act, 1987
- National Drug Law Enforcement Agency Act, 1989
- National Directorate of Employment Act, 1989
- Child's Rights Act, 2003
- Labour Act, 2004
- National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons (NAPTIP) Act, 2003, expanded in 2005
- Employees' Compensation Act, 2011

The courts of law adjudicate cases based on the provisions of these extant laws and development policies relating to migration draw their inference from the national policy on migration. Against the backdrop of these international treaties and their domestication, the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 provides for the general protection of human rights as contained in Chapter IV. Nigeria is one of the few countries in West Africa to have ratified a national policy on migration. Thus, there is an extant law and policy providing the legal framework for the migrant workers drawn from the above (Hilary-Ogbonna, 2015).

The Nigerian Federal Executive Council approved the National Migration Policy (NMP) and the National Policy on Labour. The NMP derives its legitimacy from the National Policy on Labour which is expected to deal with all manners of labour issues, labour migration, and international labour migration. The National Policy on Migration is a comprehensive, integrated and dynamic document in scope and content. It serves to provide the necessary guidelines and principles to assist the Government and other relevant stakeholders to implement the strategies in accordance with national priorities and resources. It guarantees the legal status of migrants in Nigeria and informs the establishment of the National Commission for Refugees, Migrants and Internally Displaced Persons (NCFRMI) to include migration management and the resettlement and rehabilitation of internally displaced persons (see UNESCO, 2019). The NMP provides for migration governance structures at four levels of coordination, namely:

Ministerial committee: The committee, also known as the Sector Policy Review Committee is the highest level of coordination and consultation in all migration-related matters. It is composed of ministers and heads of parastatals with migration-related mandates, chaired by the Attorney-General of the Federation and Minister of Justice and co-chaired by the Supervising Minister for the NCFRMI). The NCFRMI serves as the committee's Secretariat.

- 1. Technical working group:** The technical working group is placed within the NCFRMI and is the second level of coordination and consultation in migration-related matters. It consists of representatives of State and non-State actors involved in operational activities related to migration, and makes recommendations to the Sector Policy Review Committee for approval.
- 2. Thematic groups:** There are five thematic groups working on migration, namely the:
 - i) Standing Committee on Diaspora Matters;
 - ii) Labour Migration Working Group;
 - iii) Migration Data Management Working Group;
 - iv) Forced Migration and Assisted Voluntary Return and Reintegration; and
 - v) Stakeholders Forum on Border Management.

Each thematic group has a lead agency, with several agencies having a related mandate under it. The lead agency provides coordination and periodically reports to the Technical Working Group. The activities of each thematic group are guided either by a policy document (as in the National Migration Policy) or by a strategic implementation document upon which a Memorandum of Understanding is signed.

- 3. State and non-State actors:** These are organizations, associations or institutions whose activities are related to and have an impact on migration. These actors operate at their individual institutional level and have migration desk officers who are members of their respective working groups, as well as possibly members of the Technical Working Group.

In summary, there are two key instruments providing the legal basis and guidance for migration programmes. The NMP provisions cover migrants' rights to legally live and work in Nigeria. The National Policy on Education covers migrants' access to education and training. The National Commission for Refugees, Migrants and Internally Displaced Persons (NCFRMI) is the governing body for issues relating to coordination, education and legal matters of migrants.

1.4 Challenges and opportunities for migration partnerships

Migrant workers sometimes do not have equality in courts and tribunals compared to Nigerian nationals, especially if they cannot afford the fees for legal representation. The police and immigration authorities arrest, detain and (reportedly) sometimes summarily deport migrants without due process. There are also reported cases of physical and psychological suffering by migrant workers in the custody of immigration authorities. In addition, migrant workers in Nigeria, for example, have difficulty accessing the social, medical, legal and cultural support they need. They are often denied the right to organize, join or form associations for the protection of their economic, social, cultural and other rights, as well as being tacitly excluded from activities of trade unions, where they exist. However, some embassies create platforms for meetings of regular migrants to discuss their living challenges in Nigeria.

There is, therefore, a need to provide new (or improve on existing) advisory and support services for migrants. The NMP and the NCFRMI, charged with managing issues on migration, have the responsibility to ensure that the rights of migrants are not trampled upon, to provide access to information and training programmes, and to offer clear mechanisms for redress when required.

Data collection is another area that needs more consolidated investment. Reliable data can form the basis of establishing meaningful partnerships within the region and solving the challenges faced by the migrants and other development challenges. The data on labour migration can provide evidence on what works (programmes), numbers and movements of migrants (status), skills needs (skill-sets), and support services. It is evident that when support services and training are provided without access to valid data

there is a disconnect from industry and labour market needs, resulting in specialized unemployment and market saturation in some occupations. The current state of migration data in Nigeria is at best described as inadequate, inconsistent and fragmented. The IOM has taken the lead to develop a supporting data framework, in collaboration with other State actors in Nigeria and with the support from an EU-funded project “Promoting Better Management of Migration in Nigeria (PBMMN)” (Akinyemi and Beltrame, 2013). This project enhanced Government capacity to manage migration with the overall aim to maximize its development potential. Two major project capacity-building activities were the: i) assessment of information technology capacities for sharing migration data in Nigeria across Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs); and ii) the establishment of the African Caribbean and Pacific Observatory on Migration.

When labour migration is properly integrated into the development plan of the West African region there will be economic benefits to all ECOWAS countries. ECOWAS countries have been receiving substantial development aid and grants from the developed countries. For example, the World Bank’s WDIs indicated that in 2017, Nigeria received net official development assistance (ODA) of US\$3.4 billion. Though not all of this ODA was specific to migration, overall development assistance builds up the economic strength of the ECOWAS region, includes a number of migration initiatives. The end result is a reduction in negative perceptions of labour migration and its effects on employment of nationals.

Diplomatic communities in each West African nation should use their good offices and networks to provide awareness and information on resources and opportunities available to the migrant worker. Careful planning can help to identify potential opportunities where a country will benefit significantly from migrant labour. Proponents against labour migration should be made aware how planned migration can have positive economic ripple effects across the region. Migrants’ work ethics and productivity could also have a positive impact on national workers.

1.5 Methodology

The Participatory Action Research (PAR) approach was adopted for collecting qualitative and quantitative data using questionnaires, key informant interviews and focus group discussion guides. This approach stresses the active participation of the respondents at different stages of the survey. This approach adopted collaborative, reflective and inquiry-based methods on multi-stage data collection with participation of respondents in arriving at agreed study conclusions. In this study there was a systemic linkage of the quantitative and qualitative data collection methods for the study, as compared to the linear and single-shot approach (for more on PAR, see Chevalier and Buckles, 2013).

The following research questions guided the study:

- What are the migration patterns from and to Nigeria, its spatial distribution within the country and its impact on the labour market?
- What are the patterns of sectoral skills demand and supply, shortages and national skills anticipation in Nigeria?
- What systems support TVET skills development and recognition of prior learning (RPL), and how do they satisfy local labour market needs?
- In Nigeria, what are the existing development cooperation and public-private partnerships, and what potential areas for new skills partnerships exist within the context of the subregion?

The study conducted seven sessions with key personnel from:

The Nigerian Government (Industrial Training Fund (ITF), Federal Ministry of Education (FME), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), National Board for Technical Education (NBTE), National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), National Commission on Nomadic Education, and the Federal Ministry of Budget and National Planning (FMBNP); and

Other partners: UNESCO, the ILO, the Liberian Embassy, with additional interviews with 18 immigrant workers in the informal sector whose countries of origin are Ghana, Togo, Benin, Niger, Senegal, and Mali.

The study also facilitated focus group discussions with 17 participants drawn from other MDAs. A 54-item questionnaire on TVET, migration and the labour market were electronically administered to 29 respondents drawn from the MDAs. Secondary data was also obtained from the Nigerian NBS, UNDESA and the World Bank's WDIs. A content analysis technique was used to analyse the qualitative data collected from the interviews and focus group discussions, while descriptive statistics of percentage, mean and standard deviation were used to analyse the responses from the questionnaire.

2 Skills development systems

2.1 Policy, major institutions and structure

The Nigerian Constitution stipulates that educational regulations and programmes are handled at both federal and state levels, with federal central guidance over-riding state and local government education systems. The Federal Ministry of Education is the primary ministry that formulates and implements TVET policies, and provides governance and regulations of TVET institutions through the activities of its major parastatals. Thus, education policies and strategies for reforms, like most things in Nigeria, are spearheaded by the central Government. The state, as well as local government, take their cues from the national lead. The National Policy on Education (NPE) (FME/NERDC, 2013) and the 2018–2022 Ministerial Strategic Plan are the major policy instruments for implementing most TVET programmes in Nigeria. The National Council on Education (NCE)/Joint Consultative Committee on Education (JCCE) is the institution vested with the mandate to set relevant policies and policy reforms in the educational sector, including the TVET subsystem. The NCE is comprised of the Honourable Minister of Education as Chair, and State Commissioners for Education as members; and the JCCE, education officials, experts, and other relevant stakeholders provide the necessary framework for policy formulation below the central Government's cabinet-level education governance.

All these Nigerian educational parastatals (see box 2) are guided by the National Policy on Education (NPE) (ibid., 2013). The TVET definition is a comprehensive term referring (in addition to general education) to those aspects of the educational process involving the study of technologies and related sciences and the development of practical skills, attitudes, understanding, and knowledge relating to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life. This TVET definition was adopted by UNESCO and the ILO (2002) which also helped align TVET programmes with international and national aspirations on human capital development.

It is important to note that the NPE does not provide a clear distinction between vocational and technical education and this sometimes creates misunderstanding among policy-makers, administrators, teachers, private sector operatives and other stakeholders. Vocational education is geared towards employment, specific to a given occupation, and implemented at a sub-professional level. Technical education is not employment-oriented, it is in most cases a subset of vocational education that can be applied to different occupations and in some programmes are related to a degree or higher diploma certification (Ogwo, 2015). For example, according to the NPE, TVET programmes at *technical colleges* are vocational in nature and can lead to employment in a specific occupation. Some *technical education* courses at polytechnic college – such as computer science – do not relate to a specific vocation but could provide background technical knowledge (FME, 2013). Vocational education in Nigeria is classified as formal, non-formal and informal. The fresh TVET graduates are typically low- or semi-skilled in their trained occupations.

Successive Nigerian governments since the NPE was established in 2013 have used the NPE and TVET programmes (implemented outside the ambits of the Ministry of Education) to tackle skills development challenges. This has resulted in several reforms and an array of training programmes implemented by various government ministries. However, within the formal education system, the most recent reforms affecting TVET are those proposed under “open, distance and flexible e-learning (ODFEL)” (NBTE, 2019a), and the introduction of the “34 entrepreneurship subjects” in Nigeria's secondary schools (see table 1).

- ODFEL is still at its formative stages but refers to teaching and learning characterized by separation of teacher and learner in time and/or space. It uses multiple media for delivery of instruction and instructional materials and involves two-way communication and occasional face-to-face meetings.

- The introduction of the “34 entrepreneurship subjects” will ensure that each student acquires technical/entrepreneurial skills in at least one of the identified 34 entrepreneurship subjects with the aim to secure employment or be further trained in a specific skill area.

Conceptually, when all the graduates of the senior secondary/TVET schools take one or two of these subjects in order to acquire skills for employment, this could boost their employment prospects. In reality, many schools do not have qualified teachers and equipment to implement this reform. In addition, the NCE/JCCE is proposing a one-month internship for technical teachers once every three years (NBTE, 2017b) in partnership with the private sector.

Table 1 : The 34 Trade/Entrepreneurship Subjects

Innovation Enterprise Institutions (IEIs)	Vocational Enterprise Institute Programmes (VEIs)
1. Auto Body, Repair and Spray Painting	18. Textile Trade
2. Auto Electrical Work	19. Dyeing and Bleaching
3. Auto Mechanical Work	20. Printing Craft Practice
4. Auto Parts, Merchandising	21. Cosmetology
5. Air Conditioning and Refrigeration	22. Leather Goods Manufacturing, Repair
6. Welding, Fabrication, Engineering	23. Keyboarding
7. Electrical Installation /Maintenance Work	24. Data Processing
8. Radio, TV and Electrical Work	25. Store Keeping
9. Block and Brick Laying and Concrete Work	26. Bookkeeping
10. Painting and Decorating	27. GSM Maintenance and Repairs
11. Plumbing and Pipefitting	28. Photography
12. Machine Woodworking	29. Tourism
13. Carpentry and Joinery	30. Mining
14. Furniture Making	31. Animal Husbandry
15. Upholstery	32. Fisheries
16. Catering and Craft Practice	33. Marketing
17. Garment Making	34. Salesmanship

Source: NDERC, 2013, p. 11.

Box 2 : Federal Ministry of Education parastatals related to TVET

National Board for Technical Education (NBTE): conducts the accreditation of academic programmes in all Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) institutions and develops the minimum standards for the TVET programmes. It also guides the government in developing TVET policies.

National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE): develops the minimum standards for all programmes of teacher education at the colleges of education and accredit their programmes leading the award of the National Certificate in Education (includes technical teachers).

National Universities Commission (NUC): accredits and develops the minimum academic standards in technical teacher education programmes for degree-awarding institutions.

Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC): ensures uninterrupted access to nine-year formal education by providing free, and compulsory basic education for every child of school-this include pre-vocational subjects at the junior secondary education level.

National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE): provides functional and relevant education that will facilitate integrating the nomads into the national life; this includes non-formal TVET programmes.

National Commission for Adult Education Mass Literacy and Non-Formal Education (NMEC): facilitates literacy and skills development programmes for all those who cannot benefit from the formal school system.

Nigerian Educational Research Development Council (NERDC): develops the curriculum for trade/entrepreneurship studies and basic technology at the junior and senior secondary school levels.

Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB): conducts matriculation examination for entry into all Universities, Polytechnics, and Colleges of Education.

West African Examination Council (WAEC): conducts examinations for the Junior and Senior Secondary Certificate and the General Certificate in Education.

National Examination Council (NECO): conducts examinations for the Junior and Senior Secondary Certificate and the General Certificate in Education.

National Business and Technical Examination Board (NABTEB): conducts examinations leading to the award of National Business and National Technical Certificates as well as Advanced Certificates.

National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA): provides specialized and relevant skills for the leader of the education sector in planning, administration and the management of education in Nigeria and the West African subregion.

Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFUND): The TETFUND is charged with the responsibility for imposing, managing and disbursing taxes to public tertiary institutions, including TVET institutions.

Teachers' Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN): regulates and controls the teaching profession at all levels of the Nigerian education system, both in the public and private sectors.

Source: Authors

Another remarkable reform is the creation and regulation of the Vocational Enterprise Institutes (VEIs), as well as the Innovation Enterprise Institutes (IEIs), run by the private proprietors and adopting a mainly work-based learning approach to train students in different occupations at the sub-professional level. Table 2 shows the programmes offered by the IEIs and VEIs.

In addition to these policy reforms, other measures implemented by the Government to ensure strong sustainability of skill development in Nigeria include the following policy roadmaps (ILO, 2015a):

- National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS)
- Vision 2020 Economic Transformation Blueprint

- Nigeria Youth Employment Action Plan (NYEAP)
- National Action Plan on Employment Creation (NAPEC)

In the ILO's study, *Employment Mapping, Institutional Assessment and Coordination Mechanism: The case of Nigeria* (ibid.), these policy roadmaps efforts are considered paramount to the transformation agenda of the present administration, which views the creation of jobs as an important policy goal for improvement of the economy.

Table 2 : Programmes offered by the IEIS and VEIs

Innovation Enterprise Institutions (IEIs)	Vocational Enterprise Institute Programmes (VEIs)
Information Technology (IT) Institute	Adire, Aso-Oke, Akwaete; and other indigenous fabrics and products
School for Oil and Gas Technology	Gwado (local blanket), mats, drums
Fashion Institute of Technology	Welding, sheet metal work
School of Hospitality and Tourism	Motor vehicle repairs (auto-mechanical, panel beating, auto-electrical, vulcanizing, etc.)
Film Academy	Electrical wiring (domestic and industrial)
Academy of Creative Arts	Construction (plumbing, painting, bricklaying, etc.)
Construction and Engineering Institute	Catering
Paralegal School	Performing arts (dance, drama, film production, media, etc.)
Institute of Telecommunications	Hairdressing and beauty
Institute of Manufacturing	Art
Professional development teaching institutes	Agriculture
Institute of Banking	Fashion design
Agriculture, cooperative and allied industries	Sport

Source: NBTE, 2017a.

A number of programmes and projects were built within the framework of the Transformation Agenda and the Nigerian Vision 2020, which also targeted job-intensive and private sector-led growth in the economy. This includes some programmes implemented by the Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN), Nigeria's Bank of Industry, as well as projects such as the Youth Enterprise with Innovation in Nigeria (YouWiN!); the Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme (SURE-P); and other job creation programmes and projects (SMEDAN, 2013). Additionally, the enabling environment was provided by private individuals and faith-based organizations to establish skills development centres and VEIs in order to build relevant vocational and technical skills.

Based on ongoing government programmes, it is obvious that the Nigerian Government has adopted the United Nations Industrial Development Organization recommendations on reform strategies for ensuring continued, sustained and enhanced implementation of skill development in TVET programmes (UNIDO and FMITI/ITF, 2017). The Government has implemented the following recommendations among others:

1. Establish national skills council with responsibility for regulating and monitoring formal and informal TVET (including the approval of national occupational and apprenticeship standards, as well as agreed national quality criteria);
2. The Government should prioritize national occupational standards through a National Skills Qualifications Framework (NSQF) as proposed in the Nigeria Industrial Revolution Plan and by the Fund Sector Skills Councils;
3. The government should establish a National Skill Qualification Framework. A UNIDO study (ibid.) noted that this is one of the clearly identifiable trends that can improve the delivery and assessment of TVET and skills development worldwide.

These trends should be viewed within the wider perspective of policy reform and the application of new public policy management techniques and human capital theory. The UNIDO study maintained that Nigeria should take measures to improve implementation and assessment of TVET both in the public and private sectors.

Formal TVET programmes are offered at the secondary, technical college, polytechnic institutions, and the private sector. These programmes are regulated by the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE). NBTE is a parastatal of the Federal Ministry of Education that accredits national TVET programmes. The *Digest of Statistics of Technical Vocational Education institutions in Nigeria 2014/2015* shows the distribution of enrolment in formal TVET institutions as follows:

- Polytechnic colleges of technology – 74.78 per cent
- Agriculture colleges, related disciplines – 5.04 per cent
- Colleges of health technology – 1.37 per cent
- Technical colleges – 15.82 per cent
- Specialized institutions – 2.07 per cent
- Innovation Enterprise Institutions (IEIs) – 0.91 per cent
- Vocational Enterprise Institutions (VEIs) – 0.001 per cent

The NBTE is the agency that regulates skills development in formal TVET institutions. The following is a summary of the institutions accredited by the NBTE (2017a):

- 126 polytechnic colleges (28 federally-owned; 43 state-owned; and 55 privately-owned)
- 35 agriculture and 39 health sciences and technology colleges (32 publicly-owned; 7 privately-owned)
- 27 specialized institutions
- 117 technical colleges
- 153 IEIs
- 82 VEIs

These institutions offer the following graduation certificates:

- National Diploma (ND)
- Higher National Diploma (HND)
- Full Professional Diploma [Post-HND]

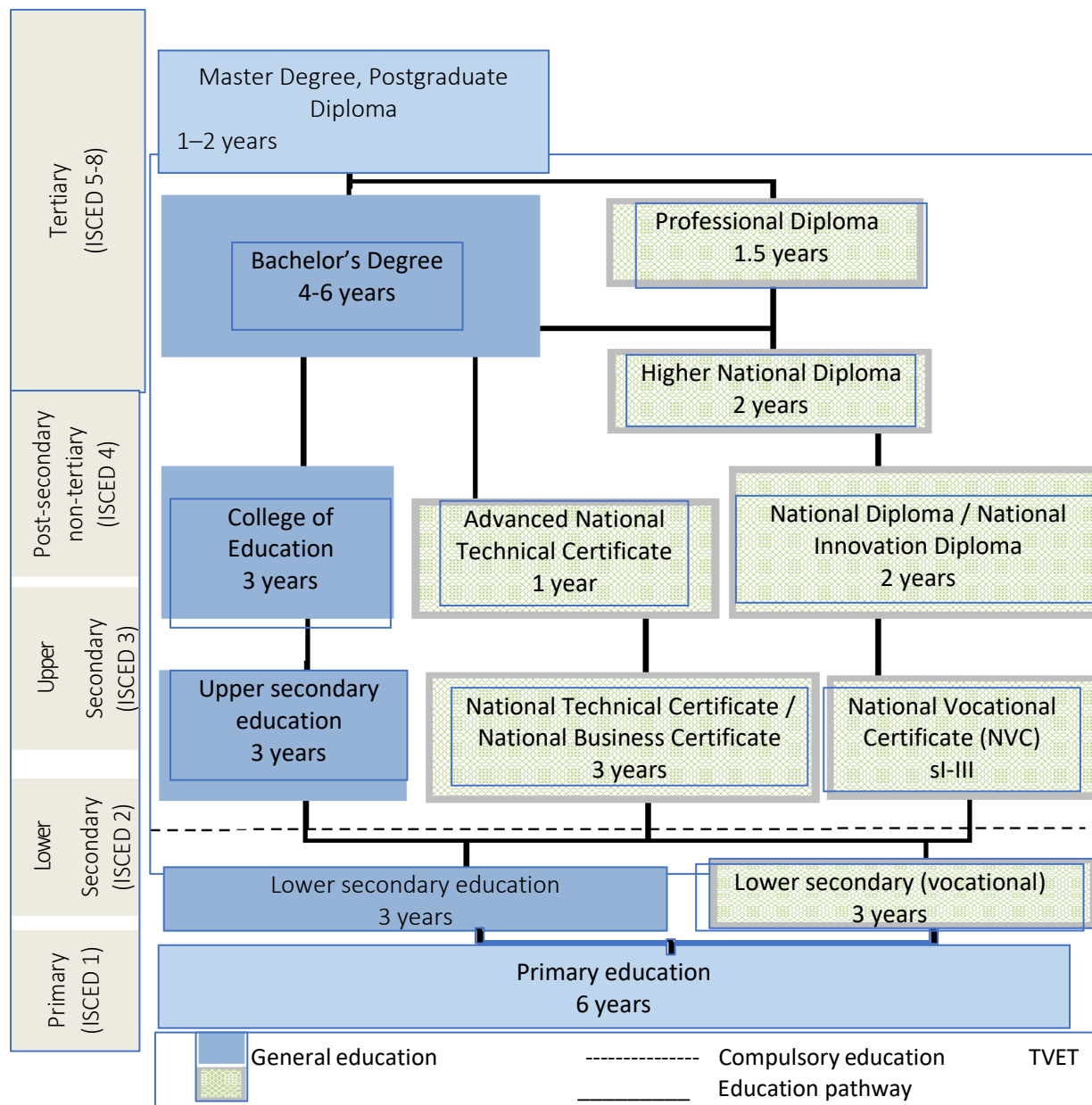
- National Innovation Diploma (NID)
- National Vocational Certificate (NVC)
- National Technical Certificate (NTC)
- National Business Certificate (NBC)
- Advanced National Technical Certificate (ANTC)
- Advanced National Business Certificate (ANBC)

Employers do not have any problems accepting certificates issued by an institution accredited by the NBTE. The law permits the NBTE to close down unaccredited programmes or institutions. Ideally, any accredited programme is valid for five years, and can undergo a reaccreditation at that time. It is important to note that there is no direct link between the certificate issued by an accredited institution and the level of skills acquired by the certificate holder. The assessment and certification in these TVET institutions are not criterion-referenced.

The NBTE engages all major stakeholders, including private sector companies, in curriculum design and accreditation of TVET programmes. The mechanism for private sector involvement is varied, according to the geopolitical zone of the country. The primary areas of private sector involvement include policy development, funding partnerships with MDAs, and coordinating internships (industrial attachment) for students and teachers. The National Employers' Consultative Association (NECA), the Nigerian Association of Chamber of Commerce, Industry, Mines, and Agriculture (NACCIMA) and other major stakeholders are usually involved in the accreditation and design processes of the formal TVET programmes. The IELs and VELs involve the private sector, professional bodies and multiple stakeholders in their governance and programme development. Most of the training at the informal sector apprentice programmes are not regulated but efforts are being made by the Industrial Training Fund (ITF) and the National Directorate for Employment (NDE) to provide various forms of upscaling and skills development activities.

It will be apt to provide an overview of the nature of the skills development at the technical college, VEL, IEL and polytechnic/monotechnic (see also figure 2). A student who graduates from the technical colleges is expected to have three options which include securing employment either at the end of the whole course or after completing one or more modules of employable skills, setting up their own businesses and becoming self-employed and be able to employ.

Figure 2 : The structure of TVET in the Nigerian education system



Source: Nigeria TVET Country Profile available at: https://unevoc.unesco.org/wtdb/worldtvetdatabase_nga_en.pdf.

The graduates can also pursue further education in advance craft/technical programmes and in post-secondary (Tertiary) technical institutions such as Polytechnic or Colleges of Education (technical) and Universities. Every state and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) encourage at least one of its technical colleges to offer advanced craft courses to prepare master craftsmen for supervisory positions in industries and in teaching. The length of course in the in the Technical Colleges Trade Centres is three years for the craft level (NTC/NBC) and one year for the advanced craft level (ANTC/ANBC).

Furthermore, the National Policy on Education (2013) maintained that VEIs were established to educate trainees to think creatively and transform knowledge through technological processes into wealth. VEIs are offered to a variety of end-users especially graduates of Senior Secondary School who did not make

up to five credits and may therefore not continue to tertiary education for a period ranging from 1–2 years. The goals of establishing VEIs include training post-basic education and senior secondary students who want to obtain some specific skills, knowledge and appropriate certification to pursue a chosen trade or career; provide technology-based skills training that ensures that students understand how their expertise fits into improving society and fulfilling national goals; increase access to technological education at tertiary level; provide training that enables students to acquire specialized craftsman skills that empower them to compete globally; provide training that enables students to acquire the skills and competencies in order to take advantage of life's opportunities; and provide training that enables students to acquire continuous education giving them self-reliance, and making them wealth creators and providers of employment. Thirdly, Innovation Enterprise Institution (IEI) trade centres exist in both the public and private sectors. IEIs accredited by the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) can be classified under the public sector while those owned by an individual with NBTE accreditation fall under private sector institutions. Trainees who enrol in these institutions are individuals who wish to acquire skills in a particular trade. Skills acquired in both VEIs and IEIs are accessed and classified by the NBTE through National Skills Qualifications Framework (NSQF). The polytechnic, monotechnic and other specialized institutions prepare students at the skills level of a two-tier programme of studies, viz, the National Diploma (ND) and the Higher National Diploma (HND) with a one-year period of industrial experience serving as one of the pre-requisites for entry into the degree programmes.

Table 3 : Enrolment and Graduate Out-Turn (year 2014–15) of Formal TVET Institutions

Nigerian Institutions	Enrolment		Graduation Rate	
	Male (%)	Female (%)	Male (%)	Female (%)
Polytechnics/Colleges of Technology	60	40	60	40
Colleges of agriculture and related disciplines	71*	29	74*	26
Colleges of health technology	71	29	68	32
Specialized institutions	76	24	75	25
Innovation Enterprise Institutions (IEIs)	64	36	59	41
Vocational Enterprise Institutions (VEIs)	100	0	No data	No data
Technical colleges	87*	13	89*	11

Source: NBTE, 2017a.

Considering a 50–50 male/female ratio of the general population, the table above shows that females are under-represented in these institutions. In many of the science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) programmes, females are under-represented. There have been concerted efforts undertaken by governments, NGOs and development agencies to promote and incentivize the admission of females into the STEM programmes. The rate of graduation or out-turn is about the same as enrolment. However, it is remarkable that the graduate out-turn of the agriculture and technical colleges and related disciplines have exceeded their enrolment rates. Indicating that more students graduated than were enrolled can only be explained by the way the data was obtained and collated. The conditions for enrolment for the TVET institutions is neither sex-sensitive, nationality-sensitive, location-sensitive, nor sensitive to physical challenges. Everyone has an equal right to access TVET programmes including migrants; although there is implicit occupational stereotyping. TVET institutions' registration forms are

usually obtained from the individual institution and completed forms are returned back to the same institution. Many public TVET institutions now provide online registration which is accessible to everyone. For private TVET institutions, interested candidates can simply visit the institution of their choice.

It should be noted that outside TVET institutions, non-formal skills programmes are also established by the federal, state, local governments and the private sector, as well as non-governmental organizations. The Industrial Training Fund (ITF) is a grade 'A' parastatal operating under the aegis of the Federal Ministry of Industry, Trade and Investment. The ITF oversees TVET training organized in industries and companies. The TVET programmes organized outside the school system, but within the formal private sector, are referred to as non-formal programmes and this is the type of programme regulated by the ITF. The ITF provides training incentives for companies implementing different training regimes. It also funds the work-based learning (WBL) components of TVET programmes (supervised/paid internships). In the formal TVET programmes, the supervised industry-based WBL is referred to as an "industrial attachment". The ITF funds and oversees these WBL programmes through the Students' Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES).

TVET programmes and apprenticeships implemented in the informal sector are unregulated, though there are ongoing efforts by TVET stakeholders to forge collaborative partnerships and standardize where possible. The challenge remains to obtain employer recognition of skills obtained outside formal TVET institutions.

2.2 Financing and policy provisions on skills development

Financing skills development in TVET programmes is an important aspect of realizing TVET objectives. The Government draws from national treasury allocations based on state and local government formulas. This can be supplemented with private funding, as well as additional funds made available from MDAs for non-formal programmes. Informal sector skills development is funded by individuals and their families. However, interventions in the informal sector and increasingly being funded by international development agencies, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and faith-based organizations which are investing in upskilling programmes for the informal sector. According to the National Policy on Education (NPE), financing skill development, as an aspect of the Nigerian educational system, is a joint responsibility of the public and the private sectors (FME, 2013). In this connection, the Government welcomes and encourages the participation of local communities, individuals and organizations. The national policy on education stipulates that in order to eliminate the deficiency in public investment between Nigeria and other sub-Saharan countries, an increase in government investment in the educational sector is needed to improve skill acquisition. In addition to annual budgetary provisions, the following funding modalities support skills development in Nigeria (ibid.):

1. Establishing of a framework for government intervention funds – which can promote initiatives such as advanced skills development programmes – from sectorial bodies like the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFUND), Industrial Training Fund (ITF), National Science and Technology Fund, Universal Service Provision Fund (USPF) and the Petroleum Technology Development Fund;
2. Strengthening and harnessing policy and capacity to draw in and effectively utilize resources from international and local development partners such as the World Bank, USAID, UNICEF, UNDP, the UK Department for International Development (DFID), Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), the Korea International Cooperation Agency (KOICA), the Nigeria/Sao Tome and Principe Joint Development Authority, and various other NGOs, etc.;
3. Establishing a Special Education Corporate Social Responsibility Fund (SECOSOF) to demonstrate corporate social responsibility. Contractors, consultants, and other service providers would contribute a minimum of 1.5 per cent of their contract sum or fees; and

4. Encouraging formal participation of alumni bodies in the funding of skill acquisition centres in tertiary institutions such as polytechnic, monotechnic colleges.

The Nigerian Government has not sufficiently invested in education to meet the benchmark recommended by UNESCO. The low rate of the allocation exemplified by Government is replicated at the state and local government levels. Table 4 indicates the proportion of the national budget allocated to education. The majority of TVET funding is sourced from various government ministries and agencies, international development agencies, community or faith-based organizations, and philanthropists. Government institutions are the most funded, followed by those state and some privately-owned.

As seen in table 4, the government is spending less than 10 per cent of its total budget on education. This is of particular concern, as skills development is capital intensive. Another challenge affecting TVET programmes, is that they are often administered by officials who are not TVET experts.

Table 4 : The proportion of allocation to education in the national budget (2005–2012)

Year	Total National Budget	Allowance to Education	Share of Education (%)
2005	1,846,000,000,000	92,000,000,000	4.98
2006	1,900,000,000,000	92,000,000,000	4.84
2007	2,300,000,000,000	186,000,000,000	8.09
2008	2,870,000,000,000	33,600,000,000	9.64
2009	3,101,813,750,626	216,639,437,111	6.98
2010	4,608,616,278,213	249,080,000,000	5.40
2011	4,226,191,559,255	339,481,528,685	8.03
2012	4,749,100,821,171	400,148,037,983	8.43

Source: Nigeria, Federal Ministry of Finance, Budget Office, as cited in Esere (2015).

This further contributes to inadequate resource allocation for these capital-intensive programmes. The unfortunate result is that students graduate without acquiring sufficient employable skills. To illustrate reasons for the capital-intensive nature of TVET programmes, the following three basic principles of vocational education explain (Prosser and Allen, 1925 as cited in Scott and Sarkees-Wircenski, 2008, p. 196):

1. Vocational education should take place using the same operational work environment and occur in the most realistic setting possible.
2. Vocational training should have access to and use the same tools and the same machines that are used in the related occupation for which training is provided.
3. Vocational education requires more funds than general education because educational cost per student is higher due to the lower number of students that can be served in vocational classes. When sufficient funds are not available for adequate training, vocational programmes should not be attempted.

Skills development as a subset of education has been used by various governments to tackle poverty reduction and enterprise development. It is difficult to obtain the exact amount spent by various MDAs on skills development, as there are often programmes with cross purposes and duplication of efforts. The returns on investment tend to be poor as reflected in a generally recognized low skills set of graduates

and high levels of unemployment and underemployment. However, the private sector training is overseen by Industrial Training Fund (ITF) which provides incentives to companies for offsetting their training costs (some companies by law pay some levy to the ITF). There are other examples, such as that of the African Development Fund (ADF) which has funded TVET programmes in TVET institutions (ADF, 2009). The *Skills Training and Vocational Education (STVEP) Project* by the ADF, among other things, procured equipment and trained teachers on technical skills, the development of business plans, and the management of a small business. The STVEP also established school-based enterprises through the introduction of Business Development Centres (BDC)) with ADF seed money. BDCs assist in the set-up of enterprises and use students as workers/teachers in their respective occupations to generate revenue for the school. It has been noted that a tracer study should be conducted to better determine the impact of the school-based enterprise model on skills acquisition and on improved funding of TVET programmes.

2.3 Delivery and work-based learning in TVET

Irrespective of the policy and system structure in place, the attainment of TVET skills acquisition and employment goals are directly dependent on instructional delivery, as well as assessment. There are several delivery methods available to TVET practitioners but none is as highly prescribed as work-based learning (WBL). The concept of WBL is very broad and has been applied in its variant forms in different types of TVET programmes namely formal, non-formal and informal. According to Bahl et al. (2019, p. 11), the meaning of WBL ranges from “experiential” or “informal learning” in the workplace itself to “learning-on-the-job” and “work-related learning” in explicitly vocational contexts and TVET institutions. WBL is emerging as a panacea for all kinds of educational and economic challenges. It has the potential to raise the economic competitiveness of employers, economic sectors and whole nations, and could enhance young people’s transition from school to work. Whatever WBL format is adopted – formal, non-formal or informal – TVET programmes entail learning that should secure and retain employment. A number of vocational education principles are predicated upon the concept of WBL (Prosser and Allen, 1925 as cited in Scott and Sarkees-Wircenski, 2008, pp. 196–197), such as:

- Vocational education should provide students with thinking habits (technical knowledge and scientific problem-solving skills) and the manipulative skills required in a specific occupation.
- Vocational education should provide iterative opportunities for students to repeat thinking and manipulative skills until habits are formed characteristic of those required for productive employment.
- Vocational education should provide opportunities for students to perform operations on actual jobs when possible, and not just simulated work tasks and environments.

The potential of WBL to ensure effective skills development has made it a trending concept now being applied in interventions of development agencies, and in formal and non-formal TVET programmes established in workplaces. WBL is the sole method of instructional delivery in informal sector apprenticeship training.

Before the advent of colonial government and formal education, WBL was the only form of skills acquisition for all Nigerian occupations at that time. Currently, WBL is still used in informal sector enterprise apprenticeships and family- or community-based work activities. It is also a popular option in private sector/in-company non-formal training implemented as corporate induction activities, formal apprenticeship and in-service and continuing professional development programmes. Formal WBL is implemented in the TVET institutions in the forms of the internship, the school-based enterprise (SBE), and one-off assignments or activities (e.g., field trip, work shadowing, occupation-based project, career day events, career mentoring, etc.). Irrespective of the type of WBL, its benefits include: enabling an easier school-to-work transition; bridging the gap between theory and practice; providing needed experiences

and skills (unavailable to the school due to inadequate facilities); arousing student interest in a chosen career; building cordial relationships between the school, industry and the community; and expanding professional networks of students, teachers and administrators (Ogwo, 2019).

Even with low government support, the informal sector provides the best format for WBL in Nigeria, and has shown proven ability to train apprentices, provide start-up funding in some cases, ensure employment on graduation, and demonstrate a seemingly inexhaustible capacity to accommodate more entrants. Due to its successes and economic resilience, international partners such as DFID, UNIDO, UNICEF, and UNESCO have implemented WBL interventions. Efforts have been undertaken by formal TVET institutions to link WBL components to recognized master craft persons in informal sector enterprises.

The ITF coordinates the link between organized private sector companies and TVET institutions on the implementation of WBL in Nigeria through its Students' Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES). SIWES is funded by the Nigerian Government through the Federal Ministry of Industry, Trade and Investment, Industrial Training Fund (ITF) which collects a levy of one per cent of the payroll of companies employing more than five employees (FMITI/ITF, 2017). The Scheme is operated by employers, and educational institutions, as well as the ITF and the following coordinating agencies: National Universities Commission (NUC), National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), and the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE)). As of 2007, the scheme included 59 universities, 85 polytechnics and 63 colleges of education that participated, comprising 194,890 benefiting students (FMITI/ITF, 2011). The SIWES programme is a WBL internship programme for the TVET students in colleges of education, polytechnics, and universities. Subjects covered include agriculture, engineering, technology, environmental science, education, medical science, and pure and applied sciences. In some TVET programmes, it is a paid and credit-bearing internship of six months for education and polytechnic colleges and universities. For the paid six-month internship (funded by ITF) the respective institution is charged with student placement and supervision.

WBL will remain a popular delivery option in skills development in Nigeria. However, the prospects of its effectiveness for intervention programmes depends on pre-implementation activities such as needs assessment and analysis, effective monitoring and evaluation capacities, and commitment to agree upon implementation practices. Programmatic commitment of Nigeria's TVET leadership and practitioners is extremely important to the success of WBL – it is not enough to simply make policy, fund the interventions and make public statements.

3 Identification and anticipation of skills

Institutions responsible for the identification and anticipation of skills in Nigeria continue to focus solely on the formal economy, neglecting the informal economy. In the formal sector, the Federal Ministry of Labour and Productivity, the Federal Ministry of Budget and National Planning, and Federal Ministry of Industry, Trade and Investment are the key ministries that focus on skills identification and anticipation, which is a multi-agency scheme. These agencies independently undertake data collection and the design and implementation of skills development programmes. Additional agencies included in this work are: the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), the Industrial Training Fund (ITF), and the Nigerian Institute of Social and Economic Research (NISER). Some international partners, such as the ILO, UNESCO, UNIDO, have worked with Nigerian MDAs to provide skills anticipation information on the labour market. The defunct National Manpower Board (NMB) was established by the Government in 1962 to collect, process, analyse and deploy labour market information to support policy formulation and strategic planning (ILO, 2015a). When the NMB merged with NISER in 2006 the country faced serious challenges to collect skills anticipation data. The current challenge is to achieve better coordination of the proliferation of skills intervention programmes and thereby improve Nigeria's data collection and knowledge base on skills.

The ILO has pointed out that every administration in Nigeria has identified employment generation as one of its cardinal goals (ILO, 2015a). The first National Employment Policy (NEP) in Nigeria was formulated in 2002 and contained outlines for employment generation strategies and frameworks, and included strategies for the reduction of unemployment and underemployment in the country. The current 2017 NEP proposes a multi-pronged employment generation strategy towards the resolution of unemployment and poverty issues within the economy (FMLE, 2017). The policy states that strategies will be implemented on the following topics: human capital development

- employability of labour force
- skills acquisition and application
- private sector growth
- cooperatives
- micro, small and medium enterprises
- job creation (for youth, women and disabled persons)
- green jobs
- labour-based public works projects
- infrastructure development
- labour migration
- employment policy
- macroeconomic policy
- Decent Work Agenda
- recruitment into employment
- labour inspection

With regard to skills anticipation in the informal economy, skills forecasts are hardly predetermined and informality regularly adapts to market needs. Most of the information on anticipated skills needs in the informal economy are derived from studies conducted by international development agencies, the ITF, and individual researchers. The informal sector continues to provide training for specific trades which have evolved along the years (tools, technologies, machines, processes) but there are no resources available to keep pace with technological or methodological updates and this, therefore, affects realistic skills anticipation. The relevant Government ministries will need to face the challenges posed by the informal economy to effectively anticipate skills needs (UNIDO and FMITI/ITF, 2017).

As mentioned earlier, certain mechanisms that were in place for skills anticipation seem to have become dysfunctional after the NMB/NISER merger. The prior functions of the NMB was to determine and advise the Government on national manpower needs for all occupations; formulate manpower development and

utilization policies and programmes to ensure optimum implementation of same; and coordinate the manpower policies and programmes of Federal, State and Local Governments. The NMB was also responsible for data collection and analysis, and for publishing related information and data generated through surveys, studies, and inquiries. The NMB presided over all manpower issues relating to the entities listed in box 3.

Additionally, the NMB coordinated the work of the Commissions-in-charge of each level of the Nigerian educational system and all relevant training institutions in the private sector requiring governmental recognition; the Nigerian Education Bank; the Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission; and the statutory bodies such as councils and institutes controlling the training of professional bodies.

If these coordination roles can be effectively fulfilled by NISER, there will be sufficient information to meet the skills identification and anticipation needs of the labour market. Apparently, NMB was scrapped by an executive fiat and its duties assigned to NISER without amending the extant laws of the latter institution (FME/NUC, 2012). Whatever internal administrative issues that the enlarged NISER is facing, the functions of the previous NMB must continue to be fulfilled so that manpower planning and utilization can be properly guided and coordinated.

Box 3 : Nigerian ministries, commissions and institutions concerned with skills-related policies

- Federal Ministry of Education (FME)
- Federal Ministry of Education – Nation Board for Technical Education (FME/NBTE)
- Federal Ministry of Education – National Universities Commission
- Federal Ministry of Employment and Productivity (FMLP)
- Federal Ministry of Employment and Productivity – National Productivity Centre (FMLP/NPC)
- Federal Ministry of Employment and Productivity – National Directorate of Employment (FMLP/NDE)
- Federal Ministry of Industry, Trade and Investment. Industrial Training Fund (FMITI/ITF)
- State Ministries of Education and of Employment
- Centre for Management Development
- Administrative Staff College of Nigeria
- Management Services Department of the Federal Civil Service Commission

Source: Nigerian government, coordinated by the National Manpower Board.

In order to support policy formulation for TVET labour forecasts need data on labour force skill demand, available occupational opportunities, skills, and occupation shortages, as well as future skills demands (Evoh and Agu, 2015). Employers' and workers' organizations such as National Employers' Consultative Association (NECA), the Nigerian Association of Chamber of Commerce, Industry, Mines, and Agriculture (NACCIMA), and labour unions participate in programmes that support skills anticipation activities. They collaborate, advise, guide, and support initiatives relating to skills development. There have been several useful reports and studies in this regard over the years that provided labour market information. For example, the National Universities Commission's (NUC) labour market observatory report (FME/NUC, 2012); an ITF/NECA study of contemporary manpower requirements in the Nigerian Economy in 2007; the ITF's skills needs assessment (FMITI/ITF, 2012), and the UNIDO/ITF study of the skills gaps in the food, beverage and tobacco sectors (UNIDO and FMITI/ITF, 2017). Nigeria has a long tradition of manpower

planning, but it has fallen recently into some disarray leading to a dearth of reliable labour market information at the present (FMITI/ITF, 2012). Furthermore, forecast studies on anticipated skills needs of the economy and tracer studies on the impacts of existing skills programmes are few and far between because there is no dedicated institution for the collection, dissemination and maintenance of the skills/labour market information.

3.1 Skills distribution and the labour market studies

TVET systems need to deliver the right mix of skills in order to meet students' career interests and the needs of the labour market. The UNIDO/ITF (2017) report on the skills gap assessment noted that in practice, workplace experience and work-based learning (WBL) demand effective TVET programme implementation. The report maintained that aside from individual benefits of awareness and actualization, employers' willingness to provide such workplace training reflects potential labour market demand for the skills acquired from the TVET institutions. TVET graduates need skills in a specific occupational area for transitioning into the labour market without additional training. They also need generic transferable skills to carry them through their working life, including the ability to adapt to fast-changing labour market requirements. Furthermore, the UNIDO/ITF gap assessment (*ibid.*), which examined six priority sectors in Nigeria, revealed that basic and advanced information technology skills were more frequently described as lacking among applicants for professional positions (11.8 per cent), while technical skills were lacking among professionals, technicians and plant operators (9.2 per cent). According to US Bureau of Labour Statistics, Occupational Projections, 2012–2022, as noted by the National Centre for Women and Information Technology (NCWIT), technology-related skills are one of the fastest-growing skills in demand by employers worldwide (2019). ILO in its employment mapping, institutional assessment and coordination mechanism study in Nigeria, pointed out that there is higher job availability in the technology sector, especially in jobs requiring computer skills. Graduates who possess computing skills fill just 40 per cent of the available positions each year (ILO, 2017). Over the past ten years, technology occupations have grown by 22.2 per cent and are projected to continue growing at a similar rate through 2020. In addition, an appraisal of skill acquisition centres conducted by the Research and Curriculum Development Department of the ITF (ITF/RCCD, 2014) found 13 vocational trades skills were in high demand in the six Nigerian geopolitical zones reviewed. Information communication and technology (ICT) and welding cut across all the geopolitical zones. Hairdressing and fashion design were in demand in all the geopolitical zones except South-Eastern Nigeria. No shortages of low and middle-level skill workers were found in the construction, manufacturing, food and beverage, and service sectors. Some shortages were found in high-level skills in computer, electronic and ICT specialized occupations. The demand for skills recognition mainly occurs in the formal economy where certification is required for employment. In the informal economy more emphasis is placed on the employee's ability to perform rather than presentation of certification.

3.2 Migration and the labour market

Nigerians continue to exploit opportunities of exporting their labour to other ECOWAS countries, with strategic consideration for the training and skills acquisition programmes provided by host countries. The ILO study on employment mapping in Nigeria (2015a) reported that job creation programmes and projects should take into consideration the inflow of labour from other ECOWAS countries to Nigeria, since Nigeria has the largest economy within ECOWAS. Overall, the dynamics of labour migration occurring in the ECOWAS countries is a crucial dimension of economic activity in Nigeria. With a total population of 190 million people, the current national labour statistics indicate a large share of people outside the formal labour force – which could be an indicator of very low employment status (Treichel, 2010). These statistics do not account for the migrant workers that form a significant subset of the workforce. The increased

labour mobility and migration within ECOWAS, therefore, can have significant implications for employment policy analysis and implementation in Nigeria.

Yet, labour aspects of migration within the subregions have received little or no support among member states and within ECOWAS institutions. Even the National Migration Policy (FMLP, 2015) makes no explicit provisions for actual skills development processes of migrant workers; though it does stress the provision of social security and welfare through labour unions and associations. There are hardly any studies on the skills development programmes specifically targeted for migrant workers and there are few tracer studies and forecasts on the TVET skills needs of the country. While acknowledging the possibility of negative competition, the ILO employment mapping study (2015a) maintained that employment policy in Nigeria should be sensitive to the issue of vertical integration (regional development needs) within the ECOWAS subregion. There is also the need for inter-sectoral integration of national skills needs into national employment policy in Nigeria. While the national employment policy should be exhaustive in capturing the major employment sectors, it should not fail in highlighting emerging sectors of the economy and changing labour market dynamics in the country. The ILO mapping study (*ibid.*) also indicated that many stakeholders underscored the need for horizontal alignment of Nigeria's National Employment Policy with other national policies including TVET, rural development (see Ajaero and Onokala, 2013), trade, and population control. The study strongly recommended that education policy and TVET programmes should be tailored to the needs of industrial and trade production to ensure that the supply of job skills can meet labour market demands, and that there is clear alignment with employment generation strategies – in Nigeria and with the subregional ECOWAS economic realities (*ibid.*).

4 Skills recognition system

4.1 System of recognition of qualifications, assessment standards and certification

Nigeria is a certificate and title conscious nation. Students, parents or guardians, and employers are interested in the type and quality of certificate issued at the end of any programme. The National Board of Technical Education (NBTE) is the body that ensures accreditation of TVET certificates obtained from Nigerian institutions. The NBTE accreditation process ensures the quality of instructional resources, delivery, and assessment. Accredited programmes are accepted by most employers.

For TVET training and skills obtained outside the formal education system, NBTE has developed the Nigerian Skills Qualification Framework (NSQF) that can compare skills obtained outside the formal system with those acquired through NBTE accredited programmes. The Framework utilizes National Skills Qualifications (NSQs) to assess skills, knowledge, and competencies acquired by individuals, irrespective of where and how the training or skill was acquired. The system gives a clear statement of what the learner must know or be able to do whether the learning took place in a classroom, on-the-job, at home, within the community, in an informal setting or through a non-formal programme. The framework and NSQs can indicate comparability of different qualifications and how one can progress from one level to another. The development of the NSQs is the prelude for establishing the framework for the application of the principles of recognition of prior learning (RPL), especially for informal and non-formal programmes.

The NSQF provides descriptions of occupational competencies to be demonstrated, as well as a common grid of skill levels for all qualifications included within the framework. The main objective of NSQF is to provide standards in order to enhance quality, accountability, transparency, access, progression, and comparability of qualifications in relation to the labour market needs. Table 5 presents the six levels of the NSQF and their associated occupational cadres.

The NSQF has challenges with conceptual misapplication in relation to the principles of RPL. There tends to be confusion on the equivalency of a formal level certification and occupational skill proficiency in which formal certification is equated to skill proficiency. This relates to the fact that curriculum implementation in many formal TVET programmes is not criterion-based on occupational skills.

There is still some conceptual work to be done before the six levels of NSQF could be used as RPL which includes developing a credit system for the skills levels so that apprentices and graduates within the informal economy can be awarded credits equivalent to NSQF skill levels, with the further possibility of transferring these credits to formal TVET programmes.

The Federal Ministry of Education, through its National Standing Committee (NSC) first established in 1974, is responsible for validating foreign-earned certificates. Lately, the country has stepped up the validation of certificates in all educational programmes obtained from Benin, Cameroon, Ghana and Togo. The NSC validates and streamlines foreign certificates with relevant professional bodies in Nigeria, especially for engineering programmes. The Committee is currently reviewing the list of criteria that foreign degrees need to meet in order to be recognized in Nigeria.

4.2 Recognition systems for skills acquired outside the formal TVET system

The UNIDO/ITF gaps assessment report (2017) recommended the establishment of Sector Skills Councils (SSCs) in all occupations to work with the vocational and skills development department of NBTE with the aim to regularize the recognition of skills acquired outside the formal TVET system. SSCs are employer-led bodies that are related to specific occupations. The SSCs are responsible for supporting employers in

developing and managing occupational standards, reducing skills gaps and improving workplace learning. SSCs may also identify skills shortages or areas of low productivity; and suggest measures for improving skills quality in the workforce. The collaboration of the SSCs and the NBTE serves as the basis for the Government's investment in skills development in Nigeria

Table 5 : The Nigerian Skills Qualification Framework and Associated Occupational Cadre

Level	Academic qualifications	Technological	National skills qualifications	Occupational cadre
1	Pre-vocational: Junior School Certificate 3	Labour Trade Certificate 3	NSQ Level 1 NVC 1	Entry-level or unskilled employees
2		Labour Trade Certificate 2	NSQ Level 2/NVC 2	Foundation or basic skilled employees
3	Senior School Certificate	National Technical Certificate/National Business Certificate/ Labour Trade Certificate 1	NSQ Level 3/NVC 3	Operators or semi-skilled employees
4		National Diploma (ND)/Advanced National Technical Certificate (ANTC)/ Advanced National Business Certificate (ANBC)	NSQ Level 4/ National Innovation Diploma	Technicians, skilled and supervisory employees
5	Bachelor's Degree	Higher National Diploma/Degree	NSQ Level 5	Technical and junior management positions
6	Master's Degree/ Doctorate	Master's or Doctorate in Technology	NSQ Level 6	Professional engineers and senior management positions

Source: *Nigeria TVET Country Profile*. Available at: https://unevoc.unesco.org/wtdb/worldtvtdatabase_nga_en.pdf; and the National Policy on Education (FME/NERDC, 2013a).

Since it assists in identifying skills requirements, skills availability, skills gaps and mismatches in demand and supply. The SSCs are working to standardize informal sector training. The Government has approved the establishment of the National Council on Skills (NCS) which will be the highest decision-making body on skills development policy and action in Nigeria. The NCS will conduct skills surveys for different sectors with the aim to identify skills gaps and tailor training to be demand-based. Additionally, the NCS plans to fast track the institutionalization of the NSQF and dedicate a funding mechanism for the delivery of NSQs (trainees, regulators etc.), along with the drafting of appropriate labour legislation on the use of certified professionals. The NCS will standardize the skills training in Nigeria and will collaborate with eight federal ministries. The skill standardization is an attempt to harmonize the informal sector training with NSQs serving as a bridge between informal skill training and formal training.

The recognition of prior learning (RPL) has not yet commenced in Nigeria. The NBTE is working on developing a skills credit/value system that will be imperative for the application of the RPL in Nigeria. There currently is low expectation that migrant workers, for example, will benefit from the NSQF as presently developed because the skill proficiency in all the occupations and their associated academic

certificate equivalence has not been determined. The construction industry is the first sector seeking to implement national licensing for its workers. The licensing entails post-graduation examination to determine the level of skills possessed by the TVET graduate, irrespective of the system used for the training. Hence, the migrant workers who trained on the job without obtaining a formal certificate will not benefit from the NSQF. Furthermore, the first step needed to improve informal sector training is to standardize the training and subsequently follow through with its accreditation. Workers' organizations should be involved in the process. The National Automobile Association has been involved in the process of formalizing the informal auto mechanic training. In addition, there are existing policies to regulate the establishment of informal sector enterprises by the Federal Ministries of Commerce and Trade.

4.3 Quality assurance of training delivery, assessment, and national certification

In pursuant of TVET general goals, the features of the curricula activities for technical colleges are structured in foundation and trade modules. The curriculum for each trade module consists of four components which include General Education, Theory, Workshop Practice, Industrial Training/Production Work, and Entrepreneurial Training. For effective participation of students in practical training, the teacher/student ratio is kept at 1:20. Other TVET programmes at polytechnic and monotechnic colleges support similar ratios. The NBTE is charged with ensuring that all of these TVET institutions are meeting the quality assurance standard agreed upon during accreditation/reaccreditation.

According to the Federal Ministry of Education (FME, 2013), quality assurance of any educational system in Nigeria consists of internal and external mechanisms. In Nigerian TVET institutions the accreditation exercise constitutes the external mechanism conducted by the statutory regulatory agencies (NBTE) and the professional bodies. The internal mechanisms involve assessments administered by the academic departments, the faculties, and the academic board of studies as the case might be. The NSQF system, under the direction of the NBTE, provides additional assurance so that the quality of skill acquisition programmes of the institutions is at par across the system. In Nigeria, the National Policy on Education (2013) empowers the NBTE to lay down minimum training standards for all skill acquisition programmes in TVET institutions in Nigeria. The NBTE and the NCCE are respectively charged with quality assurance responsibility in polytechnics (including monotechnics) and the colleges of education (for technical teacher preparation) across the nation, respectively. The term "accreditation" in the Nigerian context is used to connote a system for regulating and approving programmes offered in different educational institutions and ensuring that these programmes operate at an acceptable performance level, demonstrating integrity and guaranteeing quality that inspires confidence within the educational community, the public and employers (FME, 2013). The FME objectives for accreditation are: i) to ensure that the provisions of the minimum training-standard documents are attained, maintained and enhanced in the TVET institutions; ii) to assure employers and other members of the community that graduates have attained an acceptable level of competency in their areas of specialization; and iii) to certify to the international community that the skill acquisition programmes offered in Nigerian TVET institutions are of a high standard and its graduates are adequate prepared for employment and further studies. The FME provided ways of revitalizing the institutions when they failed to meet the prescribed standards so that remedial action could be taken towards quality improvement.

Irrespective of the subject content and learning activities stipulated in the minimum standards, there is a prevailing perception that graduates lack the affective competencies (such as soft skills and work attitude) required in many occupations (ILO, 2015a). Two affective competencies that were considered particularly weak amongst graduates are work ethics and the pursuit of excellence. TVET institutions should incorporate more soft skills that promote positive work ethics, attitudes and belief in the benefits of hard

work. Interestingly, these are strong skills amongst migrant workers. Employers tend to prefer migrant workers on account of their positive attitude and commitment to productivity.

If the TVET quality assurance components can be improved upon, this will then positively impact on the skills development system. The number of TVET institutions has increased considerably over the years (IOM, 2014) and NBTE staff and resources seem to be overwhelmed by the volume of the quality assurance activities required to accredit these programmes. The NBTE could be decentralized along geopolitical zones. Technical colleges of education, which are equivalent to secondary level education, could be accredited by the State governments, reducing the workload of the NBTE.

5 Main challenges and analysis of potentials for skills partnership

5.1 Challenges of the TVET skills development system in Nigeria

The challenges of the TVET system are impeding national skills development efforts. Central to these challenges is the practice of over-centralization of TVET policy issues relative to the country size, political heterogeneity, economic disparity, and socio-cultural differences. The following are six particular challenges facing skills development in Nigeria.

Policy issues: The TVET policy implementation practices are mostly drawn at the federal level but the States could invest more to establish state/local government area-level specific policies. TVET policies and programmes are not afforded sufficient time to mature before they are replaced. It seems every new government discards the policies and programmes of the preceding government, and this has created a substantial waste of resources, man hours and dedication to establishing programmes which are soon dismantled. Over-politicization of policies and aid programmes, as well as tribal politics, in TVET skills and workforce utilization are just some of these debilitating challenges to skills development. There is a disconnect between the formal and informal sectors, treating them as exclusive and unrelatable. Skills acquired in informal settings are not yet recognized (recognition of prior learning) and people cannot get credit for time spent in informal sector training.

TVET programme implementation: Generally, TVET programmes are regarded as second-rate compared to other professional programmes provided in formal schooling. This extends to high level candidates being discouraged from enrolling in TVET programmes. In some cases, students who are unable to secure admission in professional programmes enrol in a TVET programme without consideration of their interests or aptitude. Moreover, it is increasingly difficult to place students on industrial attachment (internship) as the number of available opportunities is far below the number of qualified students (FMITI/ITF, 2011). Even for those students who get placed on industrial attachment, the curriculum content for TVET programmes is often mismatched with the skills needs of the industry. There is also a level of mistrust of the Government among the private-public partnership programmes, as the Government's willingness and ability to meet their obligations and the terms of the cooperation agreements has come into question, according to focus group discussions undertaken for this study. Other implementation challenges include high cost of tuition fees, disproportionate student/teacher ratio, and poor conditions of service for teachers (FIMITI/RCDD, 2014).

Financing: It would be misleading to discuss the inadequacy of funding when funds are not properly matched with TVET programme requirements. Financing for TVET programmes are not modelled on a return-on-investment approach. Nigeria has also not yet met the UNESCO recommendation that a budgetary minimum of 7 to 9 per cent of GDP be allocated to the education sector (which includes skill development) (UNESCO, 2000). Nigeria has allocated 3.48 per cent of its GDP (NBS, 2019) with the highest rate of annual budgetary allocation (9.64 per cent) made in 2008 (Esere, 2015). Of all the challenges facing the Nigerian education system none is more discouraging and persistent as inadequate funding. Funding has to be reconciled with the quality of skills acquired from the TVET programme. Funding is not a challenge in itself because the amount spent on TVET is not analysed to determine a cost and benefit relationship. To correct this, the adequacy of the return on investment could be assessed with better evaluation of the programmes in place. This assessment should include a review of fund management, teacher motivation, curriculum design, relevance to skills needs in the labour market, and the effective monitoring of the TVET programmes (Osinbanjo, 2018). Funding has and will always play a significant role in the success of a TVET programme, and it is clear that inadequate funding has contributed to poor

infrastructure, overcrowded classrooms, labour conflicts and strikes, all of which consequently lead to producing unemployable graduates.

Data Crisis: The lack of reliable, valid data related to skills development has been a fundamental problem for policy formulation and programme implementation. There are hardly any systemic structures for collecting data needed to assess current work and plan for the future. Unfortunately, “creative” data management practices by some government officials create ambiguities. For example, if data is going to be used for securing more funding, it may actually look different when the same data is meant for an effectiveness audit. There are insufficient tracer studies and hardly any empirical basis for formulating TVET policies, with wide-ranging fragmented skills development programme delivery – each one generating its own data. Data management challenges transcend all aspects of TVET programmes. Coordination is needed to standardize data collection on instructional delivery, assessment, evaluation, and design across all skills development programmes.

Quality assurance practices: TVET skills development systems have been unable to respond to dynamic and changing labour market requirements and have not integrated gender issues in the curriculum (Ezekoye, 2019) because of poorly implemented quality assurance practices. In the formal context, TVET curricula, instructional equipment, methods of teaching, and techniques of evaluation quickly become obsolete, leading to low internal and external efficiencies. Even in cases of curriculum updates, there is still the issue of inadequate equipment and instructional materials required to implement the curricula. The accreditation exercise is poorly funded and TVET institutions are expected to fund the exercise. This eventually becomes a modality whereby the TVET institution is merely buying its way to gain accreditation. Internally, problems with quality assurance extends to lack of materials and equipment for workshop exercises, and grades being awarded indiscriminately by instructors to students who do not possess the adequate skills to validate such grades. The work-based learning (WBL) components of TVET programmes are poorly implemented due to a pervasive knowledge gap of WBL concepts, and inadequate training facilities and equipment (FIMITI/RCDD, 2014). Trainers in non-formal TVET programmes are not licensed like teachers in technical colleges, who are expected to have a license issued by the Teacher’s Registration Council of Nigeria. There is hardly any quality assurance mechanism for the non-formal and informal TVET programmes. The Industrial Training Fund needs to be supported to improve the monitoring and assessment of quality assurance components in non-formal and informal TVET programmes.

Labour market needs and opportunity gaps: The TVET skill development system is still using a theory-driven instructional approach, resulting in less regard to labour market practical needs (ibid.) Most examinations have weak association to the practical application of the acquired knowledge. With few exceptions, there is no tradition of sustainable partnerships with private companies and TVET institutions. This results in a deep gap between the competencies of the graduates and the realistic needs and opportunities of the labour market. Despite the emphasis on the importance of collaboration between TVET institutions and employers, the role of employers in contributing to curriculum design and implementation has been less than satisfactory. The findings from a Philips Consulting report (2014) showed that 69 per cent of employers agreed that collaboration with skill development centres should be through involvement in industrial training. However, most of these same employers specified that their organizations have on no occasion collaborated with a TVET institutions for either graduate recruitment or curriculum design.

Corruption: Politicians, government officials and TVET leadership tend to lack systemic understanding of the relationship between corrupt practices and the nation’s state of development relative to the quality of living, rate of unemployment, quality of the workforce and the commitment to nation building. The International Monetary Fund (IMF, 2019) has emphasized the need to strengthen governance,

transparency, and anti-corruption initiatives, and improving accountability in the public sector. This advice is relevant because the bulk of Nigeria public policy relating to skills development is made in the public sector. The skills development system constantly gets entangled in the endemic corrupt practices prevalent in the country. TVET skills programmes implemented across different government ministries and other skills interventions are often pursued based on who is championing it and not on their overall benefit to the economy. Even programmes implemented by international development agencies are not spared of corrupt practices, especially as there are often insufficient monitoring and evaluation systems that can routinely check for corrupt practices. The more committed the leadership at all levels become, the more they will commit to the success of the skills development programmes. There are well thought-out policies on TVET practices that demand commitment for their effective implementation, yet no matter how well the programmes are designed, it takes trust, commitment and dedication to implement them. Many programmes in the past have been obstructed by corrupt practices at various stages. Corruption in the TVET system may manifest in mediocrity – when unqualified personnel are placed to lead TVET institutions, when there is a lack of evidence-based policy development processes in TVET, no tracer/follow-up studies, and conflicts of interest during the implementation of TVET programmes.

5.2 Migrant employment challenges: Emigrants, immigrants, and returnees

The International Organization for Migration (IOM) has noted in its 2009 Country Profile on Migration in Nigeria that the Nigerian government has maintained a laissez-faire attitude towards migration for a long time (Afolayan, 2009). However, between 2015–16, a refugee crisis along the southern border of Europe became a concern of the European Union. This occasioned prioritizing legal migration pathways between countries of origin and destination. Policy-makers in Nigeria, recognized that Nigerian migration patterns and management strategies need to include expanded legal migration opportunities for key countries of origin, so as to provide prospective migrants with a legal alternative rather than inadvertently encouraging irregular migration (FMLP, 2010). In view of this, Nigeria's labour migration policy was formulated to ensure that migrant worker issues are incorporated; even though there are hardly any provisions for returning emigrants who were deported or returning voluntarily. As time progressed, there has been a growing interest in the role that medium- or high-skilled migration plays in labour market dynamics between destination and origin countries. Demand for medium- and high-skilled workers in Nigeria is rising, driven both by emerging labour and skills shortages in high-growth industries, by aging populations, and an increasing brain drain associated with the emigration of skilled Nigerians. While the scale of current and future shortages is much debated in Nigeria, it is clear that migration, in its various forms, will play a role in addressing skills development and employment issues in Nigeria (de Haas, 2007). Nigeria as part of the international community has adopted the Global Compact for Migration (see Global Compact for Migration, 2018, Hooper, 2018). The declaration requires a two-partnership model for promoting skills development:

- 1. Traditional partnerships or programmes** – The offer of professional work experience or training in destination countries, with an avenue for temporary or permanent employment after the programme concludes. This model entails incorporating job creation as part of the training programme.
- 2. Global skills partnerships** – These invest in education and training systems in countries of origin for prospective migrants and their non-migrating peers. This model proffers that developed countries experiencing adverse labour migration challenges should invest in skills development programmes in the countries with the most immigrants in order to dissuade illegal migration. The major challenge in this model is that it does not guarantee that the trained prospective migrant will actually be dissuaded by the TVET training alone. These declarations are no doubt of benefit to skills

development in Nigeria as the TVET graduates will be offered the wider opportunity of being accepted to work in any country, including the ECOWAS countries (FMLP, 2015).

Migration has a substantial impact on the Nigerian labour market. Middle and high-skilled immigration and emigration impact the skills supply in Nigeria. It has pointed out that emigration and immigration levels hold each other almost at par (N. Mbanefoh as cited in Afolayan, 2009, p. 66). Several years later, however, the World Bank's World Development Indicators (WDIs) show that Nigeria has a net migration of -300,000,¹ indicating that more Nigerians are now leaving the country than people immigrating into the country. However, there is a considerable difference in the skill level of both types of migration. Research has revealed that more high-skilled persons leave the country than enter, thus creating skills shortages in sensitive sectors such as technology and health (Afolayan, 2009). Unfortunately, replacing the skills has been unattainable within the capacity of the Nigerian education system (Lowell and Findlay, 2002). There is even a decline in the number of postgraduates trained at Nigerian universities while the number studying abroad has dramatically increased over the past few years. The number of Nigerian students abroad equals 20 per cent of all enrolments in Nigerian universities. This has potentially negative implications for the Nigerian labour market and the country's human capital base, as many of them upon becoming highly skilled remain abroad and offer their skills to the country of destination (Afolayan, 2009). Laws specifically relevant to immigrants, emigrants and returnees are urgently required; bilateral and multilateral agreements between labour-sending and labour-receiving countries – with the migrant workers' needs and interests at their centre – are urgently required.

The Nigerian emigrants are resilient and this is an important adaptation attribute in their destination countries. TVET and skills programmes provide general international awareness and cultural orientation which the emigrants find useful. The greatest adaptation challenge for Nigerian emigrants is attitudinal – insofar that they have to learn first-hand that civic laws are kept for the good of society and that there is a systemic relationship between individual actions and society's well-being. However, lots of the emigrants are defrauded by rogue migration agents who falsify records and present wrong or misleading information on work and legal requirements of the destination countries. In many cases when emigrants arrive in a destination country in an irregular manner (as in the case of a rogue migration agent and under false pretences and misinformation) the emigrant may face exploitation, harassment, and underemployment. It is possible that the mistreated emigrant is hesitant to report these adverse conditions, not wanting to return to Nigeria. However, there is increasing incidence of deportation and voluntary return, and the Government needs to develop effective reintegration programmes for returnees, which should include counselling, reskilling and financial empowerment.

Nigeria is a popular destination of choice for migrant workers from West African countries. Benin, Ghana, Mali, Niger and Togo have the highest migrant stock by origin from the subregion. The ECOWAS protocol on the free movement of citizens of member states (ECOWAS, 1979) and cultural similarities has facilitated migration within the subregion. Nigerians are known to be very accommodating of the ECOWAS migrants, though there have been some cases where irregular migrants have been taken advantage of. Some immigrants have complained of facing harassment (sexual and physical), exploitation, difficulty securing decent work and cultural barriers, amongst others. Despite these challenges, many of the immigrants do not want to leave Nigeria because of the limited opportunities available in their countries of origin. An interactive website was developed by members of the Nigerian diplomatic community that helps spouses of individuals married to Nigerians integrate into the Nigerian culture and systems (<https://nigerwives.wixsite.com/nigeria>).

¹ World Bank. *World Bank Data*. Available at: <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SM.POP.NETM?locations=NG&view=map> (2019).

Migrants have access to formal, non-formal and informal TVET programmes in Nigeria similar to those of other Nigerians but they may have to pay differential fees in some states where they are regarded as non-resident. Some TVET programmes have tuition fees and material costs which make it too expensive for many students, including those from migrant families. In this regard, the migrant families may be unable to afford the cost of obtaining skills training, particularly in the high-demand occupations like computer programming and electronics. Even after skills training, the migrant worker needs financial support in order to establish and settle into life in Nigeria. Employment in the unregulated informal sector may be difficult, especially if there are language barriers. The union and employer groups should be involved in protecting the welfare of migrant workers, as improving that sector's capacity will also benefit them.

5.3 Analysis of potential skills partnerships

There are many potential partnerships in the area of skills development for labour migrants in Nigeria. Partnerships can work for both immigrants and emigrants. For example, there is potential in the private sector operating the TVET-based Vocational Enterprise Institutes (VEIs) and Innovative Enterprise Institutes (IEIs). With existing VEIs and IEIs there could be direct intervention and collaboration with the schools' proprietors without undue government bureaucracy. One challenge to this opportunity is that there is grave distrust between the private sector operatives and those in the Government. The National Employers' Consultative Association (NECA) and Nigerian Association of Chamber of Commerce, Industry, Mines, and Agriculture (NACCIMA) have argued that the Government has not been faithful in honouring the MoUs signed in previous partnerships. The organized private sector insists that there should be collaboration rather than formal partnership with the Government in any skills development programme. However, if a partnership is established, the NECA and the NACCIMA suggest that the partnership should be multi-layered starting at the regional, national, state and local government levels. The following seven points lay out suggestions for modalities of future potential partnerships.

Partnerships should be multi-dimensional and multi-sectoral: Labour migration is a complex issue and any sustainable partnership should involve a range of partners across the public, private, civil society, international and diplomatic communities in the ECOWAS region.

Institutional infrastructures should have a proven track record: New infrastructures should be avoided for labour migration skills partnership, as there are plenty of existing institutions with a proven record for competence and efficiency, especially as regards instruction, data collection, social welfare, post-training employment. For example, the Directorate of Technical Aids Corps (part of the Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs) could be empowered to provide programmes for emigrants. The National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-Formal Education (NMEC) (which is a federal government parastatal) in partnership with National Directorate of Employment could provide skills training for migrant workers and returnees. These institutions possess the experience and administrative infrastructure needed to forge and implement positive partnerships with other stakeholders. The existing VEIs and IEIs could be redesigned to run skills academies for different vocations, such as athletics and sports (football, basketball), music, dance, theatre, food services, software development, agribusiness, food exports, mechatronics,² automobile repair, fashion design, sewing, weaving, etc. The training could be structured in modules, have a duration of 12–18 months and adopt the WBL approach.

Digitalization should be incorporated in every facet of the partnership: Digital technology should be an integral aspect of partnership dynamics. Through the use of apps, digitalization can easily disseminate accurate information on scheduling, training, testing, as well as reducing costs – crucial to partnerships in

² Mechatronics, which is also called mechatronic engineering, is a multidisciplinary branch of engineering that focuses on the engineering of both electrical and mechanical systems, and also includes a combination of robotics, electronics, computer, telecommunications, systems, control, and product engineering.

the informal setting (Hung, 2019; Rockefeller Foundation, 2013). It is possible to develop or adapt existing mass open online courses (MOOCs) to facilitate any skills development programme.

Private sector/non-governmental agency driven: Labour migration decisions are made at the individual level and any skills programme partnership should be private sector-driven. The Government should consider improving the quality of and access to formal apprenticeships in private and public companies by incentivizing the initiative (ILO, 2015b). Legal, monitoring and assessment aspects of these partnerships should be taken up by an appropriate centralized government agency.

Decentralized management structure: There are six Nigerian geopolitical zones, each with a very distinct world view and culture. Partnerships should accommodate these distinctions in designing emigrant, immigrant and returnee programmes, but at the same time enjoy strong centralized leadership, and routine decentralized monitoring and evaluation at regional, state and local levels.

Data-driven with strong labour market linkages: Data can strengthen the economic impact of skills development partnerships. Especially in informal and non-formal setting, there could be initial resistance on the collection and use of data, but informative sessions can allay fears, especially when it is clear that better data links to better labour force planning and skills anticipation and ultimately can improve the lives of immigrants, emigrants and returnees. The databases created for skills partnerships could be used for knowledge sharing, dynamic networking, and linked to planned phases, scalable and based on available data.

Funding and stakeholder buy-in: Envisioned skills development partnerships should be designed based on community buy-in; locally, regionally and nationally sustainable; and as far as possible, immune to instances of corruption. The community should decide which skills programmes are needed, followed by a plan for sustainable funding, and forged with stakeholder support. For emigrants, immigrants and youth skills programmes, a community could choose to establish out-sourcing “skills villages” for various trades to provide human capital for foreign investors establishing businesses in Nigeria (e.g. ICT training and semi-finished agro-produce). It is also possible to establish sustainable stakeholder buy-in through establishing technology centres, privately-run, and also subsidized businesses that could focus on the value chain in the production of finished products (e.g. shoes, packaging, embroidery, labelling, etc.).

6 Lessons learned: Public-private partnerships

Skills development intervention projects are widespread across Nigeria and there is hardly any government agency that has a comprehensive list of all such projects. The absence of tracer studies for most of them makes impact assessment impossible, especially since most of the projects commenced without a valid needs assessment. This lack of needs assessment data creates an insurmountable challenge to adequately determining qualitative results, such as number of workers transitioning to the labour market, quality of skills obtained and returns on investment.

6.2 Case studies of development cooperation and skills development projects

Case Study 1: Assisted Skills Training and Vocational Education Project (STVEP) 2006–2016 Project. Federal Ministry of Education and the African Development Fund

The Nigeria Skills Training and Vocational Education Project (STVEP) is based on the national poverty reduction initiatives which, among other objectives, seeks to expand access to basic, non-formal and vocational skills education. This project was jointly financed by an African Development Fund (ADF) loan (UA 30 million) and the Federal Government of Nigeria (UA 3.71 million), amounting to a total project budget of UA 33.71 million.

The objective of the project was to improve access to quality vocational and technical education in Nigerian formal and non-formal training institutions. The scope of the project was limited to the facilities available at the federal level. The activities covered all the six geopolitical zones in Nigeria. Of the 19 Federal Science and Technical Colleges in Nigeria, five benefited from project activities. The colleges targeted by the project were: Ikare-Akoko (Ondo State), Lassa (Borno State), Ohanso (Abia State), Orozo (Abuja, Federal Capital Territory), and Uyo (Akwa Ibom State). The project aimed to enhance quality teaching and learning in two teacher training institutions (Federal College of Education, Akoka, Yaba (Lagos State) and Faculty of Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka (Enugu State). These institutions were identified by the Federal Ministry of Education based on geopolitical and gender equity concerns.

The project was comprised of four components: i) improve access to skills training and vocational education; ii) enhanced quality and efficiency of skills training and vocational education; iii) strengthening public-private partnerships; and, iv) project management. Each of the components includes several sets of activities. The NBTE also participated actively in the project. The obligations of NBTE in the project were as follows:

- Develop and review curriculum for technical colleges in Nigeria;
- Develop and publish technical textbooks, training manuals and best practices lessons in ICT;
- Train technology teachers for capacity building;
- Accredite all vocational programmes in technical colleges;
- Send quarterly report of activities to the project steering committee through the project manager; and
- Carry out other activities as may be determined by the project and as more particularly specified in the project appraisal report.

The Project Steering Committee (PSC) was chaired by the Minister of Education or her/his representative and members (up to nine) included representatives from the Federal Ministry of Finance (FMF), Ministry

of Women's Affairs, Ministry of Labour and Productivity, National Employers Consultative Association (NECA), Ministry of Youth, the private sector, civil society, and other international development partners.

Among the accomplishments of the project 27 officials were trained *in Education for Work – Bridging the gap between educational institutions and industries*. Twelve hundred pre-service teachers were trained via scholarship, and an estimated 70 other vocational training managers were also trained (ADF, 2017).

On the project's sustainability components was the strengthening of public-private partnership which focused on the establishment of the business development centres (BDC). The beneficiary institutions established the BDC in order to engender school-based enterprises wherein students and teachers apply trade principles in producing materials sold to the community. The establishment of the BDC amalgamated the gains from facilities, equipment provision and the numerous human capital development activities of the project into real-life phenomena of transferring learning from theory to practice, raw materials to finished products, and integrating learning with production. The project developed the BDC operations manual and subsequently trained staff on its use, provided start-up fund for the enterprises in each BDC. However, as with all government-involved projects, it is beyond the capacity of STVEP to ensure compliance to set standards without the full cooperation of the officials of government (African Development Bank, 2017).

The lesson learned from STVEP is that with concerted efforts, the TVET institutions can be equipped, its staff retrained and the students provided the platform to apply the skills learned in commercially benefiting projects. The project is scalable and can be adapted to provide skills development programmes for any forms of labour migration education.

Box 4 shows a breakdown of student training achieved through the project ADF reported the following accomplishments of the STVEP:

Box 4 : Skills Training and Vocational Education Project (STVEP) 2006–2016: Training outputs

- 160 trained in ICT
- 35 trained in school database management
- 54 trained in technical writing
- 56 trained in pedagogical skills
- 70 trained in 13 trades and entrepreneurship
- 54 trained in competency-based project techniques
- 45 trained in monitoring and evaluation
- 60 trained on financial management
- 37 trained in the use of project MIS
- 100 trained in the use of procured equipment
- 89 trained in seven vocational trades
- 55 trained in entrepreneurship education

Source: AFDC (2017).

Case Study 2: Youth Enterprise with Innovation in Nigeria (YouWiN!) Project (2011– ongoing)

Nigerian Ministries of Finance, of Communication Technology, of Youth Development, of Women Affairs and Social Development; the World Bank; the UK Department for International Development (DFID)

The Youth Enterprise with Innovation in Nigeria (YouWiN!) project is an employment generation intervention targeting young Nigerian entrepreneurs, started in 2011 and still ongoing. The project budget was a total of US\$315 million. Evoh and Agu (2015) noted that the project's objectives were aligned with the Government's drive to create more jobs for Nigerians. The YouWin! programme has been offered to 1200 beneficiaries and over 26,000 jobs have been created across the six geopolitical zones in various sectors of the economy (Office of the Chief Economic Adviser to the President, 2013; Okonjo-Iweala, 2013). Every year the YouWiN! Project offers an annual Business Plan Competition for aspiring young entrepreneurs. It has been implemented in partnership with Nigeria's private sector, which also provides funding support.

The main objective of YouWiN! is to generate jobs by encouraging and supporting aspiring entrepreneurial youths in Nigeria to develop and execute business ideas that will lead to job creation. The programme provides aspiring youths with a platform to showcase their business acumen, skills, and talents to Nigeria's business leaders, investors, and mentors. Evoh and Agu identified the following specific objectives of YouWiN! (ibid.):

- Attract of ideas and innovations from young entrepreneurial aspirants from universities, polytechnics, technical colleges, and other post-secondary institutions in Nigeria;
- Provide a one-time equity grant for 1,200 selected aspiring entrepreneurs to start or expand their business concepts and mitigate start-up risks;
- Generate 80,000 to 110,000 new jobs for currently unemployed Nigerian youth over the three years the project is implemented;
- Provide business training for up to 6,000 aspiring youth entrepreneurs from across all geopolitical zones in Nigeria;
- Encourage expansion, specialization, and spin-offs of existing businesses in Nigeria; and,
- Enable young entrepreneurs to access a wide business professional network and improve their visibility.

In 2012, the YouWiN! initiative was restricted to women due to the low turnout of women winners of the grant in its first phase. According to reports, women comprised only 17 per cent of the beneficiaries of that phase (FMWASD, 2014). The sectors in which jobs were created included agriculture (3499), ICT and media (1863), manufacturing (3160), retail (543), others (3043), totalling 12,106 jobs created (Okonjo-Iweala, 2013).

Case Study 3: Increasing economic opportunities for marginalized youth in Northern Nigeria (MAFITA) Project (2014 – ongoing)

MAFITA³ is a six-year DFID skills development and youth employment project (£35.9 million) aimed at empowering youths and women in northern Nigeria. It is additionally funded by the NGOs, Adam Smith International, in partnership with City and Guilds, and Making Cents. MAFITA aims to lead 68,000

³ In Hausa this means “the way out”. More information on this project can be found at: <https://www.makingcents.com/mafita>; and <https://medium.com/@mafita/mafita-is-set-to-graduate-more-than-3-000-beneficiaries-and-enrol-more-than-15-000-additional-3fbc634b5c32>.

marginalized young people out of poverty, with a particular emphasis on adolescent girls and *Almajirai* (street beggars). The project focuses on the delivery of skills essential for employment in this context. MAFITA has partnered with public and private stakeholders to improve access to relevant and quality training, mentorship, building work experience, business development and financial services for marginalized youth and women. The programme also supports local market systems to enable the absorption of MAFITA's target beneficiaries into sustainable income-generating activities. Pilot interventions included the following components:

Component 1 – Community Skills Development Centres (COSDECs): The COSDECs was designed to operate a “one-stop-shop” skills delivery facility offering foundational vocational and entrepreneurial skills, as well as life skills training. Mafita aims to ensure that the private sector is able to absorb graduates from the COSDECs and apprenticeship training programmes. To date, the project has facilitated the acquisition of interest-free loans for more than a 100 master craft persons (MCPs) to help boost their capital base.

Component 2 – Apprenticeships: MAFITA champions skill delivery mechanisms in the informal sector that can be tailored to suit specific circumstances of the marginalized youth. Technical, vocational education and training (TVET) facilities are used to train the MPCs who will then educate beneficiaries through apprenticeship schemes.

Component 3 – TVET: MAFITA supports selected technical colleges to build human resources and equipment capacities to ensure that NBTE minimum requirements for delivery are met (relevant and quality level 3 skills (NSQF) for MAFITA beneficiaries.

Activities

- Training of Master Craft Persons (MCPs) in technical colleges
- Facility assessment in available clusters
- Procurement, installation, training, and upgrading in the apprenticeship system
- Regular monitoring of the quality and relevance of the apprenticeships
- Work with NBTE to appoint an awarding body that assesses and certifies graduates
- Work with technical colleges for the development of occupational standards, unit specification and learning materials for the training of MCPs
- Work with NBTE to develop an appropriate model of Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) to assess and certify MCPs

Results: Mafita can report the following assessment on its activities (Sagagi, 2016; Mafita, 2017):

- Throughout a nine-month training programme, beneficiaries gained classroom-based skills in literacy, numeracy, technical theory and life skills (CV writing and business plan development), providing an otherwise fragmented labour market with recognizable and industry-competitive qualifications.
- Apprenticeships serve as a key entry point for young people into the labour market and provide MCPs with basic skills training.
- As Mafita is set to graduate its first cohort of beneficiaries, its Local Economic Development Unit is boosting the competitiveness of existing businesses and backing the creation and growth of new enterprises through access to finance and business development services.

- In its first pilot year, Mafita remodeled six COSDEC centres in Kaduna and Katsina while working towards remodeling a total of 38 by the end of the project (in Kaduna, Kano, Katsina, and Jigawa). It also enrolled 1,080 students in the six centres and hopes to absorb 33,000+ by the end of the project in 2021.
- The apprenticeship scheme has upgraded 500+ MCPs and hopes to promote 10,000+ by end of project. Mafita enrolled 2,400+ apprentices and hopes to absorb 50,000+ by end of project. Mafita is also working towards placing 15,000+ apprentices into paid jobs by end of project, while 22,000+ beneficiaries will be assisted to start up their own business by end of project.
- Mafita also built capacity for trainers and has trained an estimated 800 trainers, with plans to train 2,000+ by the end of project.

The project is expected to end in 2020 and project management expects to establish sustainability for the continuance of project activities with the Nigerian government. Therefore, the project's sustainability and scalability will depend on how the projects outputs are valued, and how committed the Government is to sustaining its achievements. Despite the good design, implementation and results of this ongoing project, some corruption cases were reported and had to be rectified.

Case Study 4: Lagos EKO Project 2009–2016. World Bank, US\$95 million.

The project had four components: i) promoting secondary school effectiveness through school grants; ii) enhancing quality assurance for junior and senior secondary schools; iii) project coordination and management; and iv) strengthening of the federal post-basic education strategy. Information reported here is drawn from the implementation completion report of the World Bank's Independent Evaluation Group (World Bank/IEG, 2016).

As a part of Component 1, the project aimed to provide grants to five technical colleges at the secondary level based on public-private partnership (PPP) development. The activities related to school development grants, school performance awards, and PPP grants in technical education. The overall aim was to enhance the quality of secondary education; establish standardized testing and teacher training; and establish capacity for a functional monitoring and evaluation (M&E) system.

The project was prepared in close collaboration between the World Bank, DFID and with the Lagos State Government. Project preparation was generally thorough and technically sound. Several preparatory studies and analytical work were conducted with financing from a Policy and Human Resources Development (PHRD) grant to guide the strategic selection of the project's priority areas. In addition, the project benefitted from a Quality Enhancement Review (QER), as well as an impact evaluation using a difference-in-difference and a regression discontinuity design conducted in July 2015. The impact evaluation compared learning outcomes (focusing on pass rates) of Lagos public secondary schools from before and after 2009, and using private secondary schools in Lagos as a comparison group. Monitoring and evaluation arrangements were planned for and the risk assessment was considered realistic and appropriate. Despite this, the project underwent four restructurings, indicating some potential weakness in the project preparation phase (World Bank/IEG, 2016).

Results

- The results from the impact evaluation indicated that the project had a large and positive effect on students' pass rates, where most findings were statistically significant at the 95 per cent confidence level.
- Overall, the impact evaluation found that the Lagos EKO project, and associated policy changes in Lagos since 2009, resulted in an increase in pass rates between 25 per cent and 115 per cent.

- 22,457 teachers were trained.
- Partnerships were established between technical colleges and the private sector.

Lessons learned

1. *Thorough project preparation, simple and relevant design is crucial to ensure the achievement of project objectives.* Multiple preparatory studies were undertaken in collaboration with other donors and with the Government, ensuring relevance and appropriateness of design and implementation arrangements. This facilitated adequate project implementation and results.
2. *Allocating resources through a competitive funding mechanism* (where schools receive funds based on results) can be an effective way to provide discretionary resources. A decentralized, school-based approach may allow schools to assess their own needs and align funding against a set of activities in their school improvement plans. For the model to be successful, regular and accurate analysis of school performance is required, as well as capacity building, to allow schools to actively participate in this exercise.
3. *A strong M&E system is critical to guiding school-level and sector-wide improvements.* In addition to the introduction of standardized tests at each grade level that measures year-on-year improvement, it is important to strengthen local capacity to ensure close monitoring of school-improvement measures. This would include monitoring teacher attendance, and participation of School-Based Management Committees. Ensuring ownership at all levels is crucial in building up a strong and sustainable M&E system.
4. *Strong government ownership is required to ensure the sustainability of grants.* Strong government commitment to continue support is an important aspect of ensuring that project gains are not lost at closure.

Case Study 5: SURE-P's Graduate Internship Scheme (GIS) Project (2012–ongoing)

The Graduate Internship Scheme (GIS) is an employment generation intervention of the Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme (SURE-P). Projects launched under SURE-P have usually been short-term intervention strategies by the Government. SURE-P was established in 2012 by President Goodluck Jonathan as an avenue through which the Government can reinvest its share of savings from the partial reduction of subsidies on petroleum products. The savings are reinvested in hardship-relieving programmes.

The Graduate Internship Scheme (GIS) was launched in October 2012 to create an opportunity for graduates to be attached to firms or organizations, where they can work for a year and acquire work-based skills. It is a platform that was aimed at providing young graduates with temporary work placement, as well as introducing them to a skills acquisition environment for up to 12 months. The GIS candidates enjoy a monthly stipend of N25,000, which comes with group life and accident Insurance. The target is to enhance the employability of at least 50,000 unemployed graduates from 36 states by improving their skills base through work placement. Evoh and Agu (2015) revealed that on the demand side, over 2000 firms registered with the scheme nationwide while over 96,800 unemployed graduates registered on the GIS portal. However, only about 35 per cent of registered firms were able to meet the minimum requirements for participation in the scheme.

6.3 Review of private-public-partnership (PPP) models in Nigeria

The major lesson from the development cooperation and PPP models reviewed is that no singular model will work for all groups and skills acquisition needs. To achieve true effectiveness, relevance and efficiency, a couple of different models should be considered for the three types of labour migration programmes:

emigrant, immigrant, and returnee. Whichever model is chosen, interventions should be preceded by a needs assessment and a risk mitigation analysis. These measures can eliminate opportunities for corrupt practices that may be encouraged through faulty programme design, as well as identifying and securing long-term sustainability options. In certain circumstances, a competitive project award mechanism should be introduced to select the most competent, passionate and committed agencies that make these partnerships a success. There should be a deliberate method for securing stakeholders' buy-in, and checks and balances should be put into place for effective governance of the programme.

Existing partnership PPP models

- **Public sector with the informal sector model:** The National Directorate of Employment (NDE) was established in 1987 to provide training and reduce the rate of unemployment. Its Vocational Skills Development Programme uses funds provided by the Government and international donor agencies (ILO, UNDP, World Bank) to collaborate with master craftsmen and women in the informal sector to provide training to the unemployed. The training lasts between three to 24 months, depending on the vocation (World Bank, 2018b). The NDE has variant models for this training pattern namely: the school-on-wheels, community-based skills acquisition, and national open apprenticeship scheme. It has deployed these models since its inception.
- **Private sector funding with government regulation:** This is the most recent private-public partnership model for skills development initiatives, utilizing VEIs and IEs. The institutions in some cases are run by private operatives and regulated by the NBTE. A major lesson learned from this model is that it can provide alternative training institutions that are independent of government bureaucracy and offer the possibility of regularly reviewed and updated curriculum based on the dynamic needs of the labour market. It is yet to be independently and empirically determined how these institutions differ in their supply of skilled workers to the labour market.
- **International development agencies (IDAs) and the private-public sector:** There are innumerable skills development programmes funded by various international development agencies (IDAs) such as the World Bank, DFID, USAID, and GIZ⁴ that are private-sector driven. Each IDA evolves its programme design, the pattern for award and mode of implementation as well as its M&E. In some cases, there is a condition for beneficiary counterpart funding. The emigrant and returnee skills development programmes benefit immensely from the partnership of destination countries in funding and implementation.

Germany's *Migration for Development Programme* (PMD) was commissioned by the Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ).⁵ Its module 2 objective is to prepare migrants living in Germany to receive better needs-oriented support to facilitate their informed return to and reintegration in their home countries such as Nigeria and Senegal. Skills programmes for the returnees aim to target particularly challenging areas of their home countries, such as the reversal of "brain drain to brain gain". There are also many models for new partnerships on designing and implementing skills development for a migrant worker under the aegis of NEPAD, ECOWAS, AfDB, UNESCO-UNEVOC centres, UNIDO, etc.

⁴ Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit GmbH (GIZ).

⁵ More information on this project is available at: <https://www.giz.de/en/worldwide/62318.html>.

Box 5 : Ongoing and completed World Bank skills development projects

ACE: *Africa Centres of Excellence*: Building up a critical mass for leading-edge research and training of high-level academics and researchers

GEM: *Growth and Employment Project*: Business training and other support to Nigerian young entrepreneurs

Lagos EKO Project: Supporting partnerships between private sector firms in five technical colleges

Ogun State Agriculture Productivity and Industrialization Project: Support to comprehensive state-level skills development reforms, including the use of public-private partnerships in technical colleges, demand-driven short-term training, and apprenticeship training

Sector projects (ongoing and pipeline): Training and adult literacy components in sector programmes, including agriculture, energy, environment, and others

SEEFOR: *State Employment and Expenditure for Results Project*: TVET to youth with secondary level schooling in four states

SEPIP: *State Education Programme Investment Project*: Incentivizing partnerships with private sector firms in technical colleges in selected states through investment grants

STEP-B: *Science and Technology Education at the Post-Basic Level Project*: Establishing Centres of Excellence in 11 tertiary institutions, including TVET teachers' education in the University of Nigeria

YESSO: *Youth Employment and Social Support Operation*: Skills-for-jobs scheme, offering short-term training, including traditional apprenticeships, aimed at vulnerable youth in selected states

Source: The World Bank (2018b).

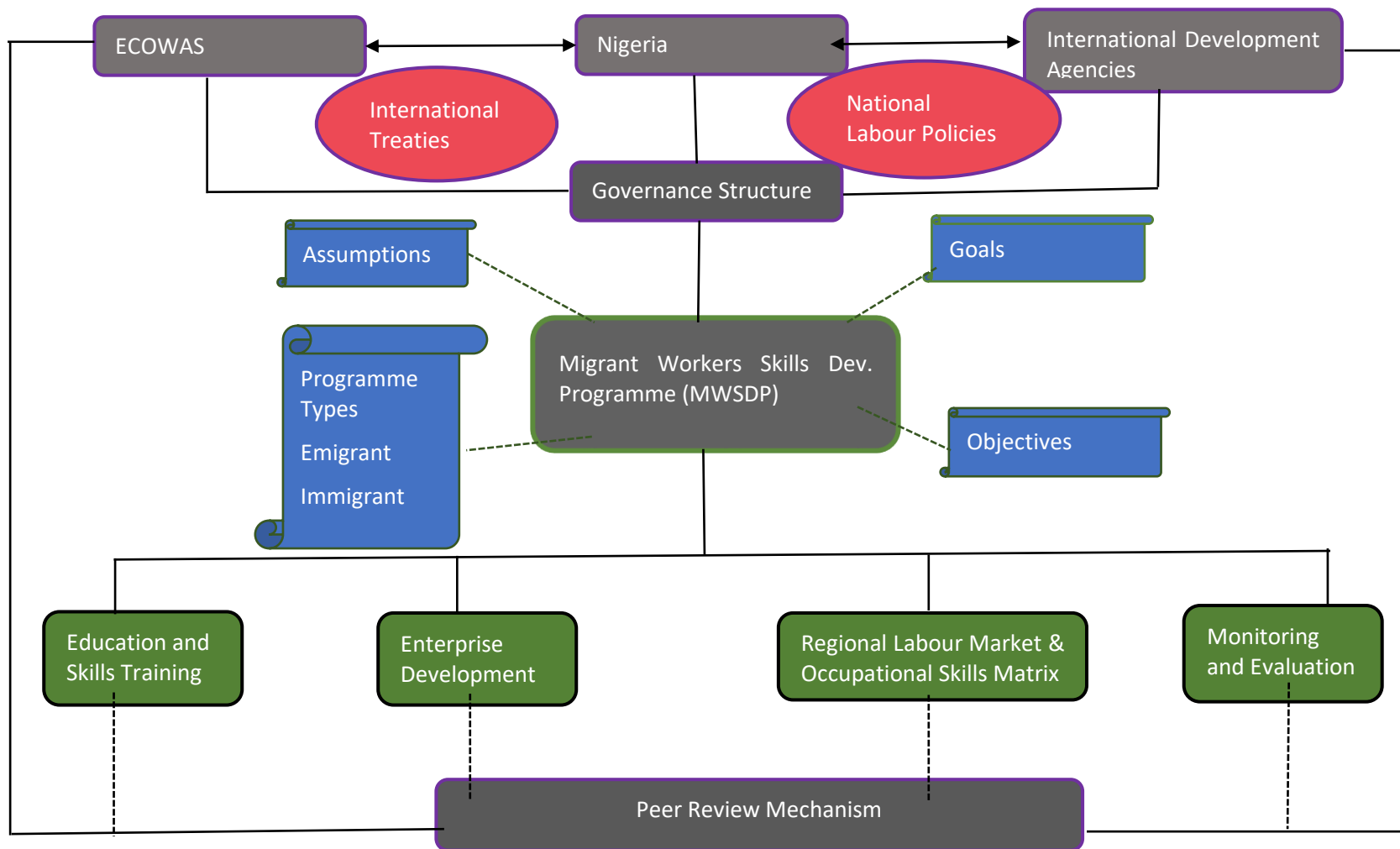
7 Conclusion

Labour migration is a topical and challenging issue that governments and development agencies are focused on optimizing. The increasing incidence of immigration, homophobia, human trafficking, and exploitation of migrant workers are some of the challenges to international labour migration. The more worrisome issues are about the irregular migrant workers who are more prone to exploitation, underpayment, social insecurity, and psycho-social mistreatment. In spite of these challenges, responsible governments around the world are developing innovative ways of boosting their workforce with skills and dedication and integrate migrant workers into the labour market. Any nation will value migrant workers that contribute to its development rather than burdening its social infrastructure. Within the West African subregion, it is paradoxical that the skills of migrant workers are not maximally utilized. Nigeria's government agencies should be more deliberate in implementing its labour migration policy. It is one of the few nations in West Africa that has a policy on labour migration and any new partnership on skills development can leverage it to empower migrant workers. This should be accompanied by concerted plans to develop the skills of emigrants, immigrants, and returnees.

Any sustainable skills partnership in Nigeria has to be multi-sectoral and closely monitored. The conceptual framework below (figure 3) depicts the major concepts and assumptions envisaged. Furthermore, there is no shortage of variant skills intervention projects implemented in Nigeria by different development agencies. However, the lessons learned from these projects indicate that without using valid data for needs assessment, and undertaking calculated risk mitigation measure at the planning stages, these partnerships will not work. Poor planning could also lead to otherwise avoidable corruption issues. Competition is good and can be tactically used to award skills partnership projects, as well as resources to participating stakeholders. In this way stakeholders can demonstrate their passion and commitment to tackling the issues and embracing the benefits of labour migration education. There is much to be gained from harmonizing and improving the skills development partnerships within the ECOWAS subregion. These initiatives will provide the critical mass of low and middle-level skills needed by the labour market and have the added benefit of reducing the incidence of perilous immigration trips by people from the subregion.

The skills preparation potential of the TVET system is facing considerable challenges, particularly due to poor institutional governance, neglect of informal sector apprenticeships, misconceived RPL subsystems, and quality assurance issues that can be readily ameliorated. The challenge of inadequate funding should be reconciled by demanding that the system be more transparent and cost-effective in adopting a return-on-investment model for programme implementation. The informal sector is huge, but unfortunately neglected and skills development partnerships cannot be fully impactful without meaningful interventions for the informal sector. Formal and non-formal TVET programmes should be more focused on labour market needs and make specified provisions for migrant workers and their families. Indeed, the more skills development projects target labour migration, the more the migrant workers will contribute to their host nation. Destination communities should be persuaded to fund and contribute in-kind inputs to skills programme design, governance, and a good quality assurance mechanism. The skills development programmes for labour migration must have three prongs to accommodate the specific needs of emigrants, immigrants, and returnees. The three-prong model of skills partnership for labour migration education can help cast a more positive light on the benefits of labour migration for concerned citizens in origin and destination countries.

Figure 3 : Conceptual framework: Partnership on skills development programmes for migrant workers to and from Nigeria



Source: Authors

Table 6 : Description of the conceptual framework's major components

Governance structure	Education and training	Enterprise development	Regional/National labour market and occupational skills matrix
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subregional inter-agencies coordinating committee, such as ECOWAS; • Federal-level inter-ministerial coordinating committee, such as NCFRMI @ the Presidency, TAC; • State-level inter-ministerial coordinating committee – Governor's office; • Local government inter-cabinet coordinating committee; • Representatives of the major stakeholders at each level of governance. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognition of prior learning (RPL); • Certification Verification and Transfer (CVT) mechanism within ECOWAS; • Curricular - Work ethics, 21st skills/literacy, bias management, occupation-specific skills by CETVETAR, University of Nigeria, Nsukka; • Strengthening formal TVET institutions; • Non-formal and Informal sector TVET programmes for migrant workers by NDE, ITF, NMEC. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Start-up funding – loans, grants, and subsidies; • Mentoring and counselling; • Shadowing; • School/Training-based enterprises. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional/National labour market databases; • Regional/National Occupational Standards; • Labour Market Information System (LMIS).
Peer learning mechanism	Monitoring and evaluation	Legal framework and instrument	List of major stockholders
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regional TVET knowledge sharing; • Faculty network; • Exchange programmes; • TVET centres of excellence for labour migrant education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quality assurance mechanism supervision, reporting; • Independent consultants' programme monitoring and evaluation; • Database on the three different programmes: data collection, research, programme evaluation by NBS, CETVETAR at University of Nigeria. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ECOWAS free movement of people and goods; • National labour policy/labour migration policy; • UN international treaties on labour migration. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS); • European Union (EU); • IDAs, e.g. ILO, UNESCO, UNDP, IOM; • Government of Nigeria; • New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) ; • State governments;

Peer learning mechanism	Monitoring and evaluation	Legal framework and instrument	List of major stockholders
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Labour Market Information System (LMIS). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> NGOs; Community and faith-based organizations.
Assumptions of MWSDP	Types of MWSDP	Goals of the MWSDP	Objectives of the MWSDP
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The economy of the ECOWAS state is large enough to accommodate interstate migration; The ECOWAS treaty of free movement of persons/goods and cultural similarity across states account for migration that can be better regularized; Replicating the MWSDP across the ECOWAS states will reassure independent governments to support the programme since their citizens in other ECOWAS states will still benefit; The peer learning and M&E mechanism will engender a healthy competition among participating ECOWAS states to excel in its implementation of the MWSDP; Effective implementation of the MWSDP will mitigate ECOWAS citizens' perilous migration to destinations outside the subregion; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Emigrant: Activities are designed for migrants preparing to emigrate to other ECOWAS countries. It includes language (written and oral), cultural sensitivity, civics and technical training/retraining that are occupation-specific; Immigrant: For migrant workers in another ECOWAS state. The programme includes occupation-specific training/retraining, cultural sensitivity, civics and counselling modules; Returnee: This programme targets returnees coming back to their home countries from ECOWAS and other regions of the world. It will include occupation-specific training/retraining, cultural sensitivity, civics and counselling modules. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Maximize the potentials of labour migration; Ensure the fair treatment of migrant workers; Strengthen the workforce in both the origin and destination countries; Dissuade irregular migration at all cost. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide saleable skills to the emigrant, immigrant, and returnee; Provide counselling services to the returnee and emigrant on expected life skills needed for adaptation in the destination country; Provide entrepreneurial skills training programme for the migrant; Provide start-up funding at the completion of the training programme

Assumptions of MWSDP	Types of MWSDP	Goals of the MWSDP	Objectives of the MWSDP
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The labour. market of the subregion can advantageously use skills of migrant workers in specialized areas irrespective of the workers' country of origin; • Adoption of the existing structure (MDA) will be better and faster to institute than establishing new ones for the MWSDP; • MWSDP will be more effectively implemented if driven by the private sector, faith-based community organizations; <p>A multi-faceted approach and programmes will more likely accommodate the diverse nature of the migrants.</p>			

Source: Authors

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