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INNOVATIONS FOR SUSTAINABLE FUNDING OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

This article explored possible innovations for sustainable funding of university education in Nigeria. The following theories are used to illustrate this discourse: (1) Human Capital Theory; (2) Accelerator Theory of Investment; (3) Internal Funds Theory; and (4) Neoclassical Theory of Investment. Secondary data were used for analysis. The study established that our universities lack adequate and sustainable funding. Hence, the need for an innovative and sustainable funding model. The following constitute the innovative ways to fund university education: alumni funds, encouraging donations, establishing microfinance banks, increasing budgetary allocations to university education, introducing new courses, introduction of user charges in universities, investing in financial instruments, research projects and consultancy, revitalizing university farms, and setting up business ventures.

Keywords: Accelerator Theory of Investment, Human Capital Theory, Innovations, Internal Funds Theory, Neoclassical Theory, Sustainable Funding, University Education

Introduction

The funding of university education cannot be over-emphasised, because of its significance in the management of the national economy and its value to humans. Investments in university education are viewed to be worthwhile, because of its strategic initiatives and contributions to the national economy. University education is a form of *tertiary education which* focuses on learning endeavours that are specialized fields, which may be academic or vocational education (UNESCO, 2011). The tertiary education, which is also referred to as third-level, third-stage or post-secondary education, is the level of education that follows the completion of secondary education. The World Bank (2017) defined tertiary education to include universities and vocational or trade schools and colleges. There is a dearth of literature on the funding of university education. However, there is an avalanche of literature on the funding of education. Some of these had been reviewed

in my earlier studies on funding of education. There is a heavy reliance on such studies as university education is a component of education and of tertiary or higher education.

The economists of education link the economic advancement of countries with the quality of education provided to its citizens, thereby reinforcing the utmost importance of education to a nation. For instance, Kalusi (2001) asserts that a nation may not experience rapid economic growth and societal development if they cannot provide quality education to its citizens. This view agrees with Kayode and Irele (2019) who posit that the provision of quality education extends beyond the acquisition of skills, knowledge and character. Still, it is a requirement for the successful development of a nation. There is a positive relationship that exists between the development of a country and education, and is acutely established that such education is viewed as a significant index of development. Afolayan (2014) suggests that educating people improves productivity, enhances health awareness and improves individual empowerment. According to a World Bank report on partnership for educational projects in Nigeria, education enables all citizens to participate in developmental activities - which in itself is a primary benefit for the people (The World Bank, 2020a). This reflects the importance of education such that if citizens are deprived of quality education, they would be exempted from the process of development, thereby placing them at a disadvantaged position within the society.

There has been the major emphasis placed on the quality of education provided to people in recent times. As Adediran (2015) explains, the quality of education available to citizens is largely dependent on the funding available to support such initiatives. The role of knowledge within the wider society is so significant that adequate funding must be provided to effectively support developmental activities and reap the full benefits of education. Odigwe and Owan (2019) argue that education fulfils the human need for knowledge acquisition and creating a means to maintain and ensure continuous development. This view aligns with Rowell and Money (2018) who suggest that education ensures the development of people, whilst providing a means to meet other human basic needs. They further suggest that education often determines how employment and income are being distributed for individuals within a society. Another role of education is its influence on social welfare through its possible impacts on the health and life expectancy of people in a nation (Callaway & Musone, 1968; Adeyemi, 2011).

Funding university education is an exigent issue that continues to draw global attention. It is an aspect of education that continues to elicit more attention from present generation and may continue to be of interest to future researchers. The role of education in economic development cannot be disputed. Fabunmi (1997c; 1999a; 2005a; 2006a and 2012c) established the fact that education is a major determinant of economic development. Education provides skills and improves the productive capacity of the individual.

Fabunmi (2013) asserted that the availability of a skilled workforce is a prerequisite for economic development. The United Nations Education, Social and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) expects budget for education to constitute a substantial proportion (or percentage) of total national budgets (Onigbinde, Agunloye, Atiku, Faleye, Olaleye, Jolayemi, Fauziyyah and Johnson, 2018). However, most developing nations continue to under fund education and university education in particular.

The funding of education in Nigeria has been established to be very inadequate by Fabunmi (2019). The high debt burden of Nigeria might be a cause of the underfunding of education in Nigeria. However, Fabunmi (2019) identified lack of political will as the main cause. According to Fabunmi (2019), educational institutions in Nigeria continuously fail the integrity test and consistently fail to meet global standards because they persistently fail to meet up global funding standards. Fabunmi further compared that the budgetary allocations for most of leading universities in the world and that of the education sector in Nigeria, using the 2018 Budget figures. The budgetary allocations for each of the universities, except the University of Oxford, Princeton University and Imperial College, exceeded the total budget for the education sector in Nigeria. Nigeria makes a lot of money from exportation of crude oil. It is one of the largest producers of crude oil in the world. Nigeria continues to dwindle to nothingness, because of political leaders' inability to manage the economy and education sector in particular.

This paper seeks to explore the funding of university education in Nigeria. In a bid to achieve this, the different approaches of funding university education would be examined. A critical look into the nature of funding and the sources of educational funding would be investigated. The development and execution of university educational policy concerning its current and future stability in Nigeria would be examined.

Theoretical Issues

The following theories are very relevant and will be used to illustrate this discourse: (1) Human Capital Theory; (2) Accelerator Theory of Investment; (3) Internal Funds Theory; and (4) Neoclassical Theory of Investment.

Human Capital Theory

The theory is of the view that the greater the investment in education the more the benefits to the individual or nation. Fabunmi (2005) argued that the huge post-war investments in education which was made by the government of Japan and the quick recovery of the country from the ravages of the Second World War led to the development of the human capital theory. Scholars of economics of education continue to link investments in education to enhancement in knowledge, skills, productivity and income. The term human capital theory was noted have been used by a United States' labour economist, Jacob Mincer, about 67 years ago (Mincer,

1958), in a paper which dwelt on income differentials in the American society. The main proponents of this theory and those who made substantial contributions to the theory, are two Nobel prize-winners, Theodore Schultz (1960, 1961) and Gary Becker (b. 1930).

The main foundational pillar to this theory is linking differential income distribution to education claiming that it can be best explained by establishing a causal connection between wages and individuals' levels of education (and training). The other foundational pillars include equity, sustainability, productivity, empowerment, cooperation, health, and security. In order for any society to achieve full human development, it needs to invest heavily in education and health; and also ensure fairness, long-term viability, active participation of citizens and residents, individual agency, collaborative efforts, and safety for all. Theodore Schultz's human capital theory was of the view that economic growth was significantly impacted by the level of "human capital" a society possessed. This implies that the skills and knowledge that were acquired through education of its workforce would act as an investment that can lead to increased productivity and higher earnings; and thus, driving economic development. According to Becker (1964), investments in education and training will improve productivity.

In the early days of human capital theory, researchers focused on exploring the extent to which earnings could be linked to educational attainment. Longitudinal studies were undertaken which compared the earnings of high school graduates as opposed to college graduates in the USA (Mincer, 1958, 1974). The results of the studies suggested that, at the very least, there was a positive relationship between highest level of education experience and higher wages. Schultz (1960, 1962) who noted that college graduates earned more, argued that the costs of a college education could be understood as an investment which would later generate financial rewards in the form of comparatively higher wages. It is good to note that the costs of education included not just those of fees and living expenses, but also the opportunity costs of foregoing earned income during college years. Schultz's work is marked by its clarity and accessibility. (Schultz, 1960, p. 571).

Accelerator theory

The accelerator theory is an economic postulation, which is of the view that investment expenditure increases when either demand or income increases (Keynes, 1936). The theory is also of the view that when there is excess demand, investors should either decrease demand by raising prices or increase investment to meet the level of demand (Keynes, 1936; Jorgenson, 1963). The accelerator theory, which is a major concept of Keynesian economics, stipulates that capital investment outlay is a function of output. For example, an increase in national income, as measured by the gross domestic product (GDP), would see a proportional increase in capital investment expenditure.

The accelerator theory concept was allegedly introduced by Thomas Nixon Carver and Albert Aftalion. Unfortunately, the original document could not be traced. However, the Keynesian economists popularized it. John Maynard Keynes introduced the theory in his seminal paper titled "The General Theory of Employment, Interest, and Money," which was published in 1936. Keynes recognized that changes in investment are not solely driven by interest rates but are also influenced by the level of demand for goods and services.

In the 1940s, an American economist, Alvin Hansen developed the accelerator principle, which was an extension of Keynes's ideas. He emphasized the role of the accelerator effect in business cycles, showing that fluctuations in investment are significant drivers of economic fluctuations. He proposed that investment decisions are not just influenced by current income or demand levels, but are also sensitive to changes in the rate of income growth (Hansen, 1938).

Internal financing theory

This is otherwise referred to as the theory of capital structure, internal financing or self-financing. It entails using the profits or assets of an organization as a source of capital to fund a new projects or investments (Hasan, 2018). The internal sources of finance contrast with external sources of finance of an organisation (Hubbard, Kashap and Whited, 1995). Buzzacchi, Scellato & Ughetto (2013) argued that the availability of funds within a company is a major driver for investment decisions. However, the success and growth of an organisation depends on its financial management. The use of internal financing does not explicitly mean success or growth for the organisation. A range of sources, including but not limited to retained earnings, the sale of assets, and the reduction and control of working capital, could be used to drive expansion. The availability of internal finance does not have any massive effect on business growth (Hansen, 1938).

Neoclassical Theory of Investment

The neoclassical investment theory assumes that firms invest if their current capital stock is smaller than the optimal capital stock (Jorgenson, 1967). Vice versa, firms disinvest in case their current capital stock is sufficiently larger than the optimal capital stock. The optimal capital stock can change for various reasons. The optimal capital budget refers to the amount of capital raised and invested and at which the marginal cost of capital is equal to the marginal return from investing (Modigliani & Miller, 1958).

The neoclassical model, as presented by Jorgenson (1967), is the view that a decrease in the relative rental price of capital will lead to an increase in the demand for capital services, and hence to increased investment. The neoclassical economics is a broad theory that focuses on supply and demand as the main driving forces behind the production, pricing, and consumption of goods and services. This school of thought emerged around 1900 and it competes with the earlier theories of classical economics.

Education and national economy

Earlier studies assert that education contributes to the economy (Becker, 1964; Mincer, 1958; 1974; Schultz, 1960 & 1962; Fabunmi, 1997, 1999, 2000, 2005, 2013, 2019 & 2020).

Table 1: Contributions of education to economy

Year	EducationGDP (N billions)	National GDP (N billions)	Percentage (%)
2001	260.17	8,134.14	3.20
2002	273.22	11,332.25	2.41
2003	300.57	13,301.56	2.26
2004	336.66	17,321.30	1.94
2005	383.82	22,269.98	1.72
2006	437.57	28,662.47	1.53
2007	491.61	32,995.38	1.49
2008	580.59	39,157.88	1.48
2009	694.10	44,285.56	1.57
2010	826.67	54,612.26	1.50
2011	1,110.72	62,980.40	1.76
2012	1,252.72	71,713.94	1.75
2013	1,549.93	80,092.56	1.94
2014	1,804.40	89,043.62	2.03
2015	2,116.35	94,144.96	2.25
2016	2,445.95	101,489.49	2.41
2017	2,590.86	113,711.63	2.28

Source: Computed from NBS (2018) Data

Table 1 indicates the financial contributions of the education sector to the national economy over a period of 18 years (2001–2017). The sectoral GDP at the current basic prices was used to measure the sectoral contributions. The financial contributions of the education sector to the national economy was very low in 2008 when it was 1.49% and 2009 when it was 1.48%. It was at the pick in the year 2001 when it was 3.20%.

Table 2 (a): National and education budgets – 2005 - 2024 in Naira

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

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

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

Table 2 (b): National and education budgets from 2005 to 2018 in US ($)

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

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

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

Table 3: Actual Values of National and education budgets – 2005 - 2024 in US ($)

Year	Exchange Rate (₦ to $)	National ($)	Education ($)
2005	131.27	13,711,725,779	914,417,062
2006	128.65	14,768,658,550	1,300,259,453
2007	125.81	18,354,852,157	1,503,853,230
2008	118.55	22,332,289,039	1,839,162,442
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Table 3 shows the actual value of budgetary allocations using annual education and national budgetary data. The US dollar values of budgetary allocations to education reached a peak in the year 2014 with a budgetary allocation of $2,720,439,032.

Table 4: Education Budget as a Percentage of the National Budget – 2005 - 2024

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

Source: FME (2018) Data

Table 4 indicates the percentages of annual education budgets to national budgets. Percentage budgetary allocations to education reached the peak in the year 2015 (10.76 %). All the percentages of budgetary allocations to education are far below the 15.00 – 20.00 % allegedly recommended by UNESCO. Onigbinde et al. (2018) claimed that UNESCO advised governments to allocate, at least, between 15 and 20 percent of annual budgets to education. Scholars' inability to locate the original UNESCO document has created confusion and made the claim to be doubtful. In view of the high returns to investments in education and positive contributions of education to the economy, it is, however, desirable to devote a substantiate proportion of the annual national budget to education.

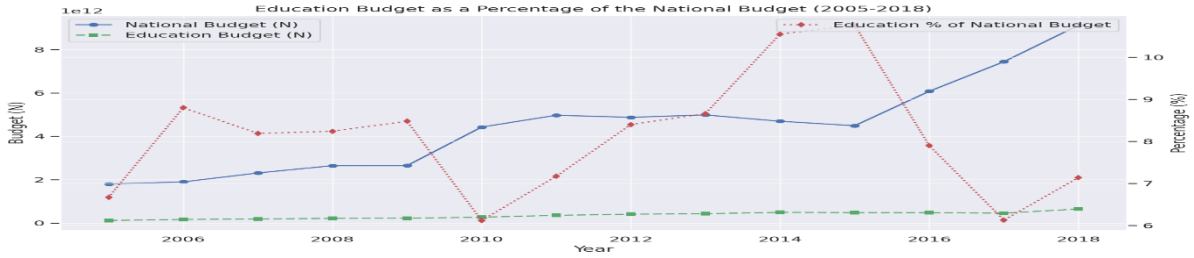


Figure 4: Percentages of annual education budgets to national budgets

Figure 4 indicates the percentages of annual education budgets to national budgets. Percentage budgetary allocations to education, which is illustrated with a red coloured line, reached the peak in the year 2015 (10.76 %).

Funding of university education

This explained with the aid of budgetary and released allocations to selected universities in Nigeria.

Table 5 – Capital Grants in 2019

SN	University	Ownership	Budgeted	Released	Percentage
1	Federal University of Gusau	FG	1,621,826,884.00	955,307,579.33	58.9
2	Federal University of Agric. Abeokuta	FG	882,234,843.00	392,893,937.00	44.5
3	ADSU, Mubi	SG	5,997,500,000.00	381,465,917.13	6.4
4	CRUT	SG	2,577,965,173.14	524,642,102.56	20.4
5	ACU, Oyo	PR	500,000,000.00	316,173,002.75	63.2
6	AUN, Yola	PR	111,575,595.25	111,575,595.25	100

Table 5 shows that out of the selected six universities, Ajayi Crowther University released 63.2 percent, which was the highest percentage of the budgeted capital grant.

Table 6 – Overhead Grants in 2019

SN	University	Ownership	Budgeted	Released	Percentage
1	UI, Ibadan	FG	172,364,149.00	114,909,432.64	66.7
2	ABU, Zaria	FG	160,581,979.00	107,054,652.68	66.7
3	CRU	SG	646,870,974.92	767,902,192.34	118.7
4	ADSU, Mubi	SG	1,325,000,000.00	317,106,240.18	23.9
5	Adeleke, Ede	PR	120,000,000.00	84,000,000.00	70.0
6	Al-Qalam	PR	969,020,169.00	460,993,519.13	47.6

Table 6 displays the budgeted and released overhead grants for six selected universities. Adeleke University released the highest percentage, which was 70.0 percent.

Cost of university education

This refers to the total expenditure on university education for a particular country in a specific year. The factors which may affect the cost of university education include: exchange rate, living costs, transportation costs, type of accommodation, and nature of the programme - whether it includes a work placement or apprenticeship.

Table 7 – Personnel Costs in 2019

SN	University	Ownership	Budgeted	Released	Percentage
1	UNN, Nsuka	FG	18,282,153,595.65	16,819,581,308.03	92.0
2	Bayero, Kano	FG	9,904,323,336.00	8,312,184,823.52	83.9
3	NDU, Wilberforce	SG	4,200,000,000.00	4,432,289,000.00	105.5
4	BSU, Makurdi	SG	5,004,308,653.00	3,787,198,956.00	75.7
5	Baze University	PR	1,600,000,000.00	1,600,000,000.00	100.0
6	Edwin Clark	PR	350,000,000.00	308,504,000.00	88.0

Table 7 on personnel costs shows that the Niger Delta University released 105.5 percent, which was N4,432,289,000.00, instead of the budgeted N4,200,000,000.00. While the Baze University released all that was budgeted.

Table 8 – Running Costs and IGR in 2019

SN	University	Ownership	Running Costs	IGR	Percentage
1	Uniben	FG	19,224,403,332.10	4,518,518,026.05	23.5
2	MAU	FG	4,730,098,308.16	1,127,351,116.57	23.8
3	LASU	SG	6,966,441,126.73	1,891,194,221.00	28.3
4	Maitama Sule	SG	1,795,389,437.01	303,420,200.00	16.9
5	Babcock	PR	12,887,998,970.00	212,674,964.00	1.7
6	Nile	PR	3,600,000,000.00	1,860,000,000.00	51.7

Table 8 reveals that Babcock University had the lowest percentage of 1.7 percent of internally generated revenue out of the selected six universities.

Table 9 - Average Costs of university education in 2019

SN	University	Ownership	Average Cost
1	University of Benin	FG	539,652.75
2	MAU, Yola	FG	334,040.00
3	LASU	SG	597,028.00
4	Maitama Sule	SG	312,857.14
5	Babcock	PR	640,270.20
6	Nile	PR	1,650,000.00

Table 9 shows that the average cost of university education in Nigeria in year 2019 to be lowest at the Maitama Sule University, where it was N312,857.14, and highest at the Nile University, where it was N1,650,000.00.

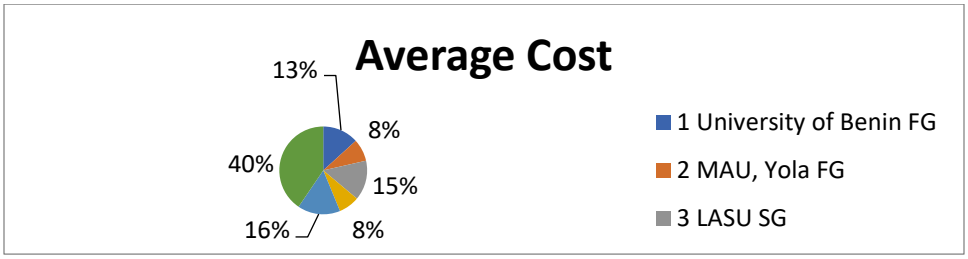


Figure 9: Average Costs of university education

Figure 9 also shows that the average cost of university education in Nigeria in year 2019 to be lowest at the Maitama Sule University, where it was N312,857.14, and highest at the Nile University, where it was N1,650,000.00.

Quality of university education

The National Universities Commission often use two measures of quality during resource verification and accreditation exercises. These are: student-teacher ratio and staff mix. Student-teacher ratio means the proportion of students to teachers. It is obtained by dividing student population by the number of teachers that are available for the programme. While the staff mix refers to each category of staff to the total number of staff available for the programme. It's often expressed in percentages.

Table 10 – Student Teacher Ratio in 2019

SN	Programme		TSR
1	Administration and Management		1:23
2	Agriculture		1:19
3	Arts		1:17
4	Basic Medical & Health Sciences		1:24
5	Computing		1:23
6	Education		1:22
7	Engineering and Technology		1:21
8	Environmental Sciences		1:17
9	Law		1:22
10	Medicine		1:6
11	Pharmacy		1:11
12	Sciences		1:19
13	Social Sciences		1:21
14	Veterinary Medicine		1:6
		Global Average	**1:25**

The Student- Teacher Ratio is an indicator of quality. The lower it is, the better the quality is presumed to be. Pharmacy had 1:11 which was the lowest in the year 2019.

Table 12 – Staff Mix by Discipline in Percentages in 2019

SN	Programme	Prof / Reader	SL	L1 and Below
1	Administration and Management	21	21	58
2	Agriculture	32	19	49
3	Arts	25	20	55
4	Basic Medical & Health Sciences	21	22	57
5	Computing	16	18	66
6	Education	25	19	56
7	Engineering and Technology	21	20	59
8	Environmental Sciences	19	20	61
9	Law	25	22	53
10	Medicine	33	29	38
11	Pharmacy	25	22	53
12	Sciences	25	17	58
13	Social Sciences	22	19	59
14	Veterinary Medicine	32	21	47
Global Average		**24**	**20**	**56**

The National Universities Commission (NUC) prescribed the staff mix below for undergraduate programmes in Nigeria:

a) Professors and Associate Professors: 20 percent
b) Senior Lecturers: 35 percent
c) Lecturer I and Below: 45 percent
Total: 100 percent

None of the undergraduate disciplines met up the NUC recommendations above.

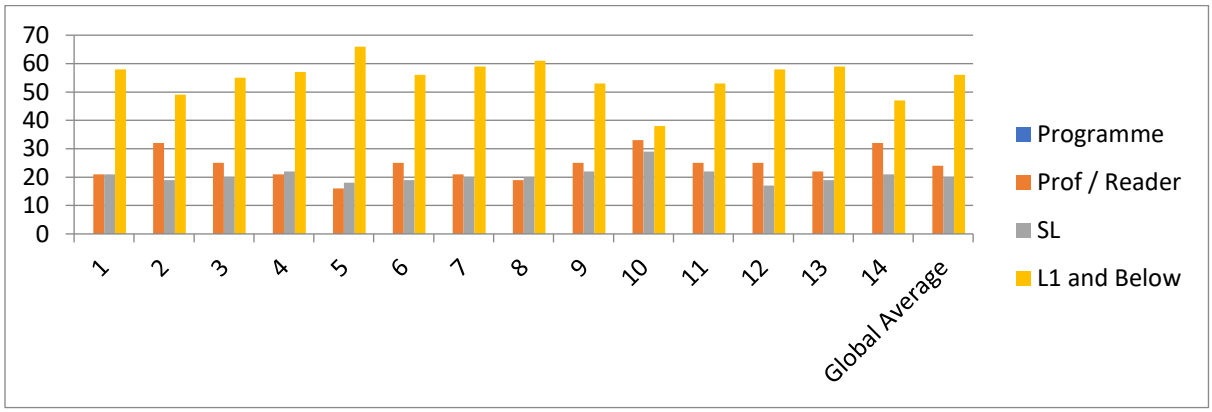


Figure 12: Staff Mix in Bars

Figure 12 illustrates the Staff Mix in the different disciplines in all the universities in Nigeria, using undergraduate data. Unfortunately, none of the undergraduate disciplines met up the NUC recommendations.

Implications of underfunding of university education on the Quality

These include the following:

Faculty shortage and brain drain: Low wages and inadequate research opportunities may drive qualified academics to seek better opportunities abroad. Thus, resulting in a shortage of skilled teachers.

Inadequate research Funding: This may limit research activities. Thus, hindering advancements in knowledge production and innovation.

Increased tuition fees: In order to bridge up the funding gaps, universities may raise tuition fees. Thus, making university education inaccessible for many students.

Limited access to resources: This may lead to poor learning conditions and this can demotivate students, and thus lead to lower academic performance.

Low graduate employability: Underfunding of universities may lead to graduates' lack of necessary skills and knowledge to meet up the demands of the employers.

Outdated equipment and materials: Inability to purchase modern equipment and teaching materials may adversely affect teaching and learning experiences.

Overcrowded classrooms: Budget constraints may lead to large class sizes, which may also reduce both individual attention and effective teaching.

Poor infrastructure: Inadequacy of funds might prevent necessary maintenance of infrastructures like buildings, classrooms, laboratories, libraries, and learning technology.

Social inequality: Underfunding of university education may deny the children from poor income homes access to university education. Thus, promoting further social disparities in the country.

Innovations for sustainable funding of university education

The discussion thus far points to an unstable funding of education which may hinder effective implementation of the sustainable implementation of the Strategic Development Goals. Certain positive steps must be taken to stop the impeding calamities of underfunding. The innovative ways to fund university education include:

1) **Alumni funds:** The alumni association can assist in the collection of donations from alumni and friends of a university or school that provides financial support to current and future students.
2) **Encouraging donations:** The general public, industries, charitable organisations, and philanthropic individuals and organisations could be contacted for regular funding and institution of endowments in universities.
3) **Increasing budgetary allocations to university education:** The government should increase allocations to universities.
4) **Introducing new courses:** Certain disciplines and new courses can attract more intakes and improve funding.
5) **Introduction of user charges in universities:** User charges can be impose on certain facilities, such as internet, health, photo-copying, printing, counselling, sports and gymnastics, etc.
6) **Investing in financial instruments and banking:** Universities can improve funding by investing in financial instruments, such as stocks, exchange-traded funds (ETFs), mutual funds, real estate investment trusts (REITs), bonds, derivatives contracts (such as options, futures, and swaps), checks, certificates of deposit (CDs), bank deposits, and loans. Establishing microfinance banks may also help to generate additional funds.
7) **Research projects and consultancy:** This also help to raise more funds for universities.
8) **Revitalizing university farms:** A lot of funds could be raised through agribusinesses.
9) **Setting up business ventures:** All sorts of business ventures could generate additional funds for universities.

Conclusion

In view of the discussion thus far, it is safe to conclude that our universities lack adequate and sustainable funding. Hence, the need for an innovative and sustainable funding model. The following constitute the innovative ways to fund university education: alumni funds, encouraging donations, establishing

microfinance banks, increasing budgetary allocations to university education, introducing new courses, introduction of user charges in universities, investing in financial instruments, research projects and consultancy, revitalizing university farms, and setting up business ventures.

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