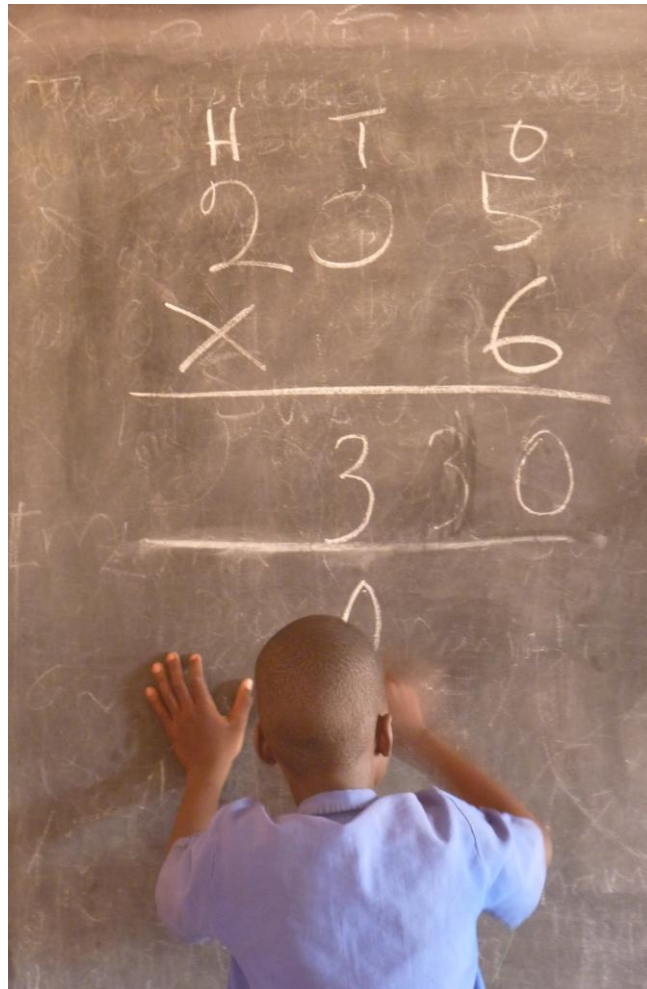


# Actors and educational challenges in a poverty context

An assessment of primary education in  
Tamale Metropolis, Ghana



Lydia van der Putten  
(3683699)

Utrecht University, Geosciences  
MSC International Development Studies  
Henk Huisman, supervisor

Amsterdam, 17-08-2012

## **Acknowledgements**

Ever since I was little, I travelled to far away countries with my parents. These trips let me discover other continents and revealed to me the large differences between them. I came into contact with children who live and go to school in a different environment and under different conditions. I have been corresponding with one of those children for a couple of years. For me, this marked the beginning of my interest in development work. Unfortunately, after graduating from high school there was no higher education with a particular focus on development work on offer (HBO). Therefore, I decided to choose an education in which I could incorporate development work as an enhancement to my academic knowledge and experience. In order to find out if primary education delivery was my main interest, I started working as a volunteer in Cape Town and I did an internship at Edukans, a development organisation focused on education. Especially this internship made me realise that I would like to specialise in education and so I enrolled in the master programme International Development Studies at the University Utrecht. The goal was to gain a certain level of expertise through theoretical and practical insights. During my master's, I worked for Edukans in one of their educational programmes that distributed shoeboxes full of school supplies to children in developing countries. It was at this time that the opportunity emerged to do my research via Edukans in cooperation with their partner organisation Alliance For Strengthening Education Ghana (ASEG).

I am deeply thankful to my supervisor Henk Huisman for his support and for all the conversations which were inspiring and encouraged me to go ahead with the design of my research. I especially want to thank him for the faith he had in me and his guidance in setting up my own research. I would like to thank Edukans and in particular Dik Verboom, who has taught me so much about the practical side of development work. In Ghana, I would like to thank Abu Musah of the Alliance of Strengthening Ghana (ASEG) for his support and all of the partners of the network for their assistance during my research. I am also very grateful to my host family Zakarissa, who made me feel at home in Ghana and supported me in every possible way: from nursing me during illness to tracing me back when I got lost during school visits. Finally, I would like to thank my parents, sister, and Marek, who continued to support me throughout my stay in Ghana and the process of my research.

## **Executive summary**

All children have the right to education. Many countries, including Ghana, are committed to the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) for achieving universal primary education. Ghana introduced school feeding programmes and the capitation grant in order to strive for free basic education and abolished school fees. Although universal access to primary education will not be achieved in the near future, it does not mean that Ghana has not made some notable progress in, for instance, student enrolment. However, the increasing numbers of children in school have a direct influence on the need for more classrooms, textbooks, educated teachers, learning materials, and infrastructure. Therefore, it is interesting to incorporate the quality dimension of education within this study to define how the commitment to achieve universal access is affecting the quality of education in everyday life. Moreover, from a geographical perspective Ghana faces other challenges in securing access to and quality of education. The development process in Ghana has been occurring very unevenly within the country, particularly in the Northern Region. The disparities which have come about are reflected in the performances of social services including education.

### **Research objective**

The objective of this study is to uncover the characteristics and the role of various actors in Ghana's primary education and to define the challenges faced in the delivery of quality education. The focus lies on Tamale Metropolis (TM) in order to gather sufficient information on best practices. By visiting primary schools and conducting semi-structured interviews with the actors, this study tries to expose challenges from both the supply and demand side of education. The main question which this research aims to answer is therefore: *What are the characteristics of actors in the delivery of quality primary education in Tamale Metropolis? And what challenges are faced in enhancing the quality of primary education?*

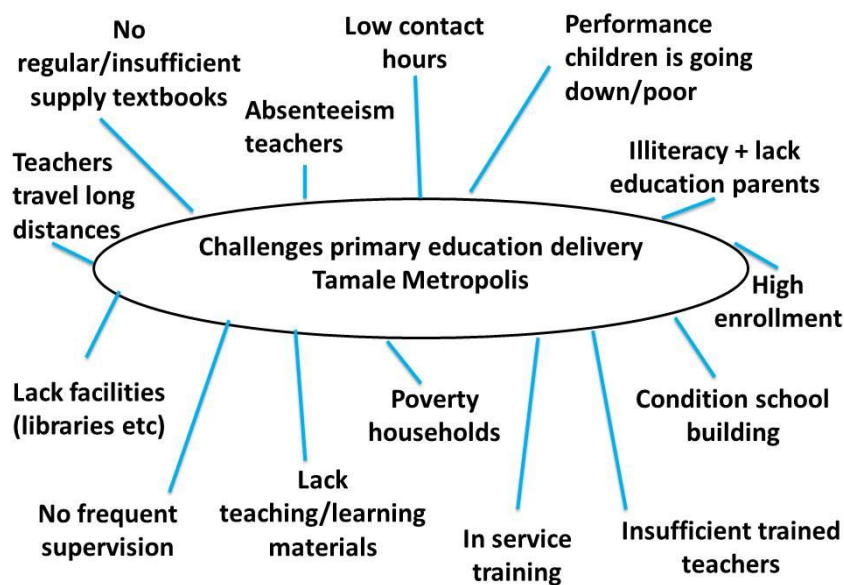
The research has been done in cooperation with the Alliance for Strengthening Education in Ghana (ASEG), the host organisation for this study. ASEG is a network organisation that supports improved access and quality of basic education in the north of Ghana. Over a period of almost four months, the system of primary education in the study area was examined. Moreover, for the sake of comparison this study also includes observations of primary schools in the Greater Accra region.

### **Practice and challenges of education in TM**

Since its nation's independence in 1957, Ghana's government initiated various policies to improve the system of education. One of these interventions is decentralisation, which has brought various actors on a local level closer to the implementation of education. The various actors in the study area, who are involved in providing quality primary education, include the Tamale Metropolitan Education Office (TMEO), Education Units, the community, principals, teachers, and civil society organisations. Education Units and principals are accountable to the TMEO, whereas the latter, in turn, are accountable to the Tamale Metropolitan Assembly (TMA).

One of the main objectives of this study is to define challenges in education. Figure 1 gives an overview of the most pressing challenges which I encountered during my research period in Ghana.

*Figure 1: Overview of the most pressing challenges*



*Source: Fieldwork 2012*

Figure 1 shows the complexity of indicators where challenges reveal themselves in various dimensions, such as teaching and learning, supervision, facilities, and the community. In order to facilitate the learning process, children need a committed and trained teacher; subsequently the resources to gain knowledge and participate in class are important. In the study area teacher absenteeism, lack of teaching and learning materials, and the high percentages of untrained teachers are indicated as the most pressing challenges.

Challenges in schools are reported to the TMA, whose responsibility it is to supply, maintain, and supervise the schools. The TMA is kept informed on a frequent basis of the various challenges witnessed by supervisors who visit the local schools and communities. Therefore, the TMA is an actor who can respond quickly and adequately to the needs of schools, which is a key requirement to guarantee quality education. However, insufficient authority is a major constrain here, because it impedes the TMA to respond to the direct needs raised by their schools and communities in a way that it sees fit.

### ***Supply and demand side of education***

The Tamale Metropolitan Education office and Education Units are strongly focused on the supply side of educational delivery, including the provision of textbooks, infrastructure, and furniture. This in contrast to civil society organisations that design initiatives that are more focused on the demand side, the 'client power' of communities. This is really valuable for quality education, because a community can play an important role in monitoring the school and in addressing other actors on their responsibility, for instance teachers who must counter their absenteeism. With respect to the community, households in the study area face various household constraints including poverty, high illiteracy rates, large family sizes, lack of education of their own, and a high dependency on subsistence farming or trade. These household constraints influence whether parents can read their children's report cards or if they can financially supply them with enough teaching and learning materials for all school subjects. These factors connect education to wider influencing factors such as the poverty context and the level of economic opportunities. In many households and particularly in rural areas in the Northern Region poverty, for instance, is still strongly present, causing the need for support from children in household chores or family income. This prevents them from finishing school or even attending school at all.

### ***The Northern Region***

The findings of the Northern Region are compared to schools in the south in order to address the socio-economic and political divide in Ghana. Disparities emerge while comparing the characteristics of the schools, particularly in regard to the conditions of the school buildings and furniture, which are often more basic and in a poorer condition in the north. Also the higher number of untrained teachers is causing a disadvantaged position for the north in providing quality education. If a country faces inequality between regions, it is highly important to address this astutely in order to retain stability and safety and to give all citizens of a country equal opportunities for improving their lives and futures.

This especially holds true for Ghana, where the Northern Region faces high poverty levels and does not fully benefit from the positive developments in the south. Therefore, governmental organisations, among others, must strive for quality education in the Northern Region as quickly as possible. Access to quality education is the main and most lasting vehicle to give people the opportunity to escape from an existence in poverty. Besides addressing this North and South divide in education, it is important to incorporate whether schools are located in urban or rural areas, because the geographical context affects the aforementioned challenges. Especially the situations in rural schools in the North have to be addressed, because they face the largest disadvantages in the delivery of quality education.

### ***Conclusion***

It is essential that while striving for universal access to education, the quality of education is a simultaneous goal and needs to be secured too. To sustain and guarantee quality education, especially in a country which has committed itself to universal primary education, it is important that actors involved in educational delivery hold each other accountable and are fully aware of the current constraints and consequences thereof. In order to do so, all actors have to be fully aware of their responsibilities and those of others. Efficient communications and transparency are key factors here. I define the major contribution of this research being a means to raise this level awareness among actors, to promote transparency in the process of quality education, and to illustrate how much is still needed to bring about change within all the outlined challenges.

## Table of content

Acknowledgements .....	2
Executive summary .....	3
Table of content .....	7
List of abbreviations.....	9
List of tables and figures .....	11
Introduction.....	13
Chapter 1. Views on quality and access of primary education, decentralization and accountability.....	15
1.1 Education for all .....	15
1.1.1 Right to education .....	15
1.1.2 Access to education .....	18
1.1.3 Quality of education .....	19
1.1.4 Demand and supply side.....	24
1.2 Decentralisation .....	27
1.2.1 Participation.....	29
1.2.2 Decentralisation social services .....	32
1.3 Accountability .....	33
1.3.1 Accountability relationships.....	34
1.3.2 Accountability and social services .....	36
1.4 conclusion .....	38
Chapter 2. Ghana: The national setting of the study characterised .....	40
2.1 Ghana.....	40
2.1.1 Characteristics of Ghana.....	40
2.1.2 Development in Ghana .....	42
2.2 Decentralisation Ghana .....	43
2.2.1 Defining decentralisation in Ghana.....	43
2.2.2 Decentralisation of the education system Ghana.....	44
2.2.3 Challenges decentralisation Ghana.....	46
2.3 Primary education Ghana .....	47
2.3.1 Primary education delivery: supply side.....	47
2.3.2 Primary education delivery; demand side.....	51
2.4 Conclusions .....	53
Chapter 3. The Northern Region and TM: The study area within its regional setting characterised .....	54
3.1 Northern Ghana .....	54
3.2 Primary education Northern Region .....	56

3.2.1 Primary education delivery: supply and demand side .....	57
3.3 Tamale Metropolis .....	58
3.3.1 Primary education in the study area .....	59
3.4 The host organisation ASEG.....	62
3.5 Conclusions .....	63
Chapter 4. Methodology .....	64
4.1 Research .....	64
4.1.1 Research objective.....	64
4.1.2 Putting into practice and limitations of the study .....	65
4.1.3 Respondents and methods .....	66
4.2 Conceptual model.....	68
4.3 Selection of study areas and primary schools.....	70
4.4 Conclusions .....	71
Chapter 5. Characteristics and responsibilities of actors in the delivery of primary education in Tamale Metropolis .....	72
5.1 Primary education delivery study area .....	72
5.2 Actors in education.....	74
5.2.1 TMEO, Education Units and principals.....	75
5.2.2 Civil society organisations and communities .....	77
5.3 Relationships of accountability .....	79
5.4 Conclusions .....	80
Chapter 6. Challenges quality education in the study area .....	82
6.1 Challenges supply side education .....	82
6.2.1 Supply of resources on a local level.....	85
6.2 Challenges demand side education .....	86
6.3 conclusions.....	90
Chapter 7. Comparison educational delivery: Greater Accra and the Northern Region....	92
7.1 Challenges supply side .....	92
7.1.1 hardware .....	92
7.1.2 Software.....	95
7.2 Conclusions .....	96
Synthesis .....	98
Epilogue .....	107
Bibliography.....	108
List of Annexes.....	114



## List of abbreviations

ASEG	Ghana Alliance Strengthening for Education
COME0	Conference of Managers of Education Units
CREATE	Consortium for Research on Educational Access and Equity
DFID	UK Department for International Development
DCE	District Chief Executive
DA	District Assembly
DACF	District Assembly Common Fund
DEOC	District Education Oversight Committee
EDQUAL	Research Consortium on Implementing Education Quality in Low Income Countries
EFA	Education for All
ERNWACA	Research Network for Central and West Africa
FCUBE	Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education
GES	Ghana Education Service
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MOESS	Ministry of Education, Science and Sports
NER	Net Enrollment Rate

PTA	Parent-Teacher Association
TM	Tamale Metropolis
TMA	Tamale Metropolitan Assembly
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UPE	Universal Primary Education
SBM	School Based Management
SMC	School Management Committee
TMEO	Tamale Metropolitan Education Office
WSD	Whole School Development

## List of tables and figures

Figure	Page	Name
1	4	Overview most pressing challenges study area
2	16	Kpanvo primary school, Tamale rural
3	19	Pupils Kanville primary school, study area
4	23	Framework for understanding quality education
5	25	Enabling environments for quality education
6	30	PTA meeting Kpanvo primary school
7	31	Ladder of participation
8	35	Actors in social service delivery
9	39	School going children
10	41	Map of Ghana
11	45	Kotingli primary school, mathematics
12	58	Tamale, capital city of the Northern region
13	62	Meeting TMEO and teachers
14	69	Conceptual model
15	70	Supply and demand side educational delivery
16	72	Map TM and the nine primary schools
17	76	Activities of a TMEO and Education Unit in a school
18	77	Central role of principals
19	78	Activities community and civil society organizations in education
20	80	Relationships of accountability in TM
21	82	Challenges defined by the TMEO and Education Units
22	86	Challenges defined by the community
23	88	Challenges defined by civil society organisations
24	90	Overview of the most pressing challenges
25	93	Primary school Northern Region
26	94	Primary school Southern Region
27	100	Overview of the most pressing challenges

Table	Page	Name
1	21	Quality of education defined by the humanist and constructivist tradition
2	27	The five A's of social service delivery, focused on education
3	36	Relationships of accountability

4	42	Indicators education Ghana
5	49	Spending on education, % of GDP Ghana
6	52	Primary Gross Enrolment rate (GER) for 2003 – 2006
7	52	Urban and rural schools; proficiency level Maths and English
8	54	Household characteristics Northern region Ghana
9	55	Occupation economically active population (15 years+) Greater Accra and the Northern region
10	57	Per unit expenditure by region 2009
11	58	Primary school qualified teachers as percentage of teaching force
12	59	Type of dwelling TM
13	60	Enrolment and number of boys and girls TM
14	60	BCE results TM
15	61	Percentage of untrained teachers
16	67	Overview respondents and methodologies
17	71	Selection of primary schools
18	73	Overview selected primary schools
19	74	Presence PTA/SMC primary schools in education
20	83	Number of trained and untrained teachers in the study area

Boxes	Page	Name
1	20	Focusing on learning
2	48	MOESS spending education
3	50	Capitation Grant

## **Introduction**

Education gives children the skills they need to get better jobs and improve their standard of living. Educated children are more able to make informed choices. They are healthier, better off and so are their children (DFID, 2010, p.8).

In the World Development Report of 2004 the basic services, particularly health, education, and sanitation, are central in the search for ways of making them work for poor people. In all sectors it is a fact that social services often fail, especially with regards to underprivileged people. In order to make social services work, it is important that all policies are intended as inclusive. In terms of education, this means a commitment to universal access to education: All children have the right to education.

### ***Ghana***

Ghana is known as a 'donor darling', a country to which to a great extent of foreign aid is directed. While Ghana is headed to becoming a middle income country, poverty is still persistent. Four out of every ten Ghanaians still live in poverty. Ghana is committed to the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) for achieving universal primary education. The government introduced school feeding and the capitation grant in order to strive for free basic education and abolished school fees. Despite significant improvements in enrolment ratios, Ghana remains unable to achieve universal primary education and continues to put a lot of effort into the educational sector, with support of foreign aid and its own commitment to the MDG. Has this led to improvements in education? And what is the role of poverty which is still experienced by many households?

### ***Securing quality education***

If more children attend school, the need for more classrooms, textbooks, trained teachers, learning materials, infrastructure, and involved community members will grow simultaneously. Therefore, it is interesting to incorporate the quality dimension of education in this research in order to define how the official commitment to achieve universal access is affecting the level of quality of education. Are schools experiencing higher enrolment ratios? If so, what kind of effects does this have on classroom practices? What are the challenges schools face? Is there a variety of needs or can particular needs be distinguished? Do schools experience a decline in quality education? What is the role of prominent actors in education? Do schools struggle with shortcomings in (human) resources? In order to sustain access to education, it is important that children receive quality education. If this is not the case, then there is a great risk of children not finishing school or not keeping up in their further education.

### ***The objective of the study***

The objective of the study is to uncover the characteristics and the role of various actors in Ghana's primary education and to define the challenges faced in the delivery of quality education. The focus lies on TM in order to gather sufficient information about best practices. The various actors in the study area, who are involved in providing quality primary education delivery, include the Tamale Metropolitan Education Office (TMEO), Education Units, the community, principals, teachers, and civil society organisations. By visiting primary schools and conducting semi-structured interviews with the actors, this study tries to expose challenges from both the supply and demand side of education. The main question which this research aims to answer is:

*What are the characteristics of actors in the delivery of quality primary education in Tamale Metropolis? And what challenges are faced in enhancing the quality of primary education?*

The research has been done in cooperation with The Alliance for Strengthening Education in Ghana (ASEG), the host organisation for this study. ASEG is a network organisation that supports improved access and quality of primary education in the north of Ghana. Over a period of almost four months, the system of primary education in the study area was examined. Primary education is the basis for further education and to attain basic skills, making it important that the quality is sufficient.

### ***Structure of the study***

This study contains seven chapters. Below a short introduction is given to each chapter; Chapter 1 introduces the theoretical body which forms a basis for the empirical chapters and provides a background to the central concepts of this study.

Chapter 2 concerns the geographical context of this study, in which the educational system and decentralisation are particularly addressed.

Chapter 3 examines the characteristics of TM in the setting of the Northern Region.

Chapter 4 specifies the research question and presents the conceptual model and the application of the central concepts.

Chapter 5 is the first empirical chapter and illustrates the characteristics of the educational system in TM. The responsibilities, roles, and activities of actors are central.

Chapter 6 defines the major challenges in primary education delivery and their interrelations.

Chapter 7 compares the findings of the study area to the Greater Accra region and takes the North and South divide into particular account.

## **Chapter 1. Views on quality and access of primary education, decentralization and accountability**

“Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.”

(UNESCO, The right to education, article 26.1)

In the Universal Declaration of Human rights it is stated that all children have the right to education. Since the endorsement of the declaration, achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE) has been on the international agenda. In addition to access to education, the quality of education is becoming increasingly stressed which entails that each child must be provided with an available school place or learning opportunity, qualified teachers, and adequate recourses and equipment (UNICEF, 2007, p 31). This chapter defines the central concepts of access and quality. Why is education important? Which factors define the accessibility of education? How can quality education be defined?

The decentralisation process aims to improve government efficiency and to make policies more responsive to the poor. In regard to Africa, it is important to consider that the majority of the poor people in Africa lives in rural and remote areas. Decentralisation can be the accurate mechanism to reach and involve these people, yet the process of decentralisation does not automatically create these effects. This chapter tries to address questions such as; What does decentralization entails? How can decentralization and accountability be beneficial for social service delivery?

### **1.1 Education for all**

#### ***1.1.1 Right to education***

When a child grows up in a poor environment, skills and knowledge obtained by education can provide access to opportunities which can then support them to escape a life in poverty. Education is one of the fundamental human rights and is central to development. The UK Department for International Development (DFID) argues that education gives children the skills they need to get better jobs and improve their standard of living. Educated children are more able to make informed choices. They are healthier, better off and so are their children (DFID, 2010, p.8). In 1948, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was enacted consisting of universal rights which apply to all human beings. In the Declaration of Human Rights, primary education is seen as a universal minimum for all children which countries need to accomplish.

The value of education can be seen with respect to a social and economic level, where the latter is related to the development of cognitive skills. In general, a more educated society may translate into higher rates of innovation, higher overall productivity, and faster introduction of new technology (UNESCO, 2005, p 41). This makes education one of the most powerful instruments known for reducing poverty and inequality and for laying the basis for sustained economic growth, sound governance, and effective institutions. One clear conclusion is that good quality in education should facilitate the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that have intrinsic value and also help in addressing important human goals (UNESCO, 2005, p.19). Beside the cognitive skills, education also develops social skills which Amartya Sen calls 'human capabilities'. They are the essential and individual power to reflect, make choices, seek voice in a society and enjoy a better life (Sen,1999).

*Figure 2: Kpanvo primary school, Tamale rural*



*Source: Fieldwork 2012*



Education is a key indicator to achieve the MDG's aim to establish universal primary education and to ensure that by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling (DFID, 2010, p. 3). Enhancing access to primary education is an important goal of many developing countries. Achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE) has been on the international agenda since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was enacted. It entails that all children of primary school age participate in the school system and complete primary school. To achieve universal primary education is an important dimension of development.

However, in addition to access to education, improvement of the quality of education is mutually important. The global monitoring report for education for all states that in the many countries that are striving to guarantee all children the right to education, the focus on access often overshadows the issue of quality. Yet, quality determines how much and how well students learn and the extent to which their education achieves a range of personal, social and development goals (UNESCO, 2005, p.19).

Where resources are scarce, the requirement to make education universally available can mean a reduction in the per capita funding for each child, leading to higher teacher/student ratios, overcrowded classrooms, lower building standards, and fewer resources/materials available, thereby sacrificing quality for access (UNICEF, 2007, p 23). The view that emphasis on access to education has led to inadequate attention being paid to quality and that improving the quality of existing schools should become a policy priority is gaining ground (UNESCO, 2005, p.19). For instance, it is becoming increasingly clear to all that each child must be provided with an available school place or learning opportunity, qualified teachers, and adequate resources and equipment (UNICEF, 2007, p 31). When children attend primary school, the quality of education cannot be taken for granted. The reason why the quality of a primary education might not be sufficient or may be under pressure lies in the increasing enrolment rates of pupils. According to the Education for All (EFA) monitoring report, the achievement of universal participation in education will be fundamentally dependent upon the quality of education available. For example, how well pupils are taught and how much they learn can have a crucial impact on how long they stay in school and how regularly they attend (UNESCO, 2005). The quality of education is increasingly emphasised in various international declarations. The Right based approach of Education for All is one of them and in this declaration three interlinked and interdependent dimensions about the right to quality education are emphasised. Central is that human rights related to education cannot be realised unless and until all three human rights are addressed. The dimensions of the right based approach of education are shown below (Unicef, 2007, p.4 ).

**The right to education:** the right of every child to education on the basis of equality and opportunity and without discrimination on any grounds. To achieve this goal, education must be available for, accessible to and inclusive for all children.

**The right to quality of education:** the right of every child to a quality education that enables him or her to fulfill his or her potential, realise opportunities for employment and develop life skills. To achieve this goal, education needs to be child-centered, relevant and embrace a broad curriculum, and be appropriately resourced and monitored.

**The right to respect within the learning environment:** the right of every child to respect for her or his inherent dignity and to have his or her universal human rights respected within the education system. To achieve this goal, education must be provided in a way that is consistent with human rights, including equal respect for every child, opportunities for meaningful participation, freedom from all forms of violence, and respect for language, culture and religion.

### ***1.1.2 Access to education***

ERNWACA defines the following factors which are significant in inhibiting access to education: opportunity cost, socio-cultural barriers, and institutional issues (ERNWACA, 2002, p. 131). Although basic education is free, families encounter opportunity costs. When a child goes to school it can contribute less to the subsistence of the family. Furthermore, socially and culturally defined values are influencing the accessibility of primary education. For example, gender or religion can play a role in whether children access a primary school or not. Finally, the institutional issues which consist of the educational context around a primary school such as literacy programmes and pre-primary education. Physical and social factors of accessibility are essential as well, for instance poverty which can result in children having to work in and around the house to provide for their family. African governments have been especially dedicated to meeting the second MDG, which is aimed at children being able to complete a full course of primary schooling.

Increasing primary education expenditure is one of the major drives to enlarge the enrolment in primary education. However, behind the major strides to achieve universal primary education are various challenges Africa has to face. The first challenge is ensuring that children remain in school to finish a whole course of primary schooling. This has proven to be a major challenge, because more than 30% of primary school students drops out of school before reaching the final grade. The second challenge relates to the quality of education in Africa. And the third challenge relates to the poverty situation in Africa. Nearly 1.4 billion people live on less than US\$ 1.25 a day. Household poverty is thus one of the strongest and most persistent factors contributing to educational marginalisation (Maparura, 2010, p 3).

*Figure 3: Pupils Kanville primary school, study area*



*Source: Fieldwork 2012*

Many countries in Africa have made major strides in achieving universal primary education with 58% enrolment in 1999 up to 76% net enrolment in 2008 (Maparura, 2010, p 3). In regard to the challenges faced by Africa in achieving universal primary education, accessibility of education is an important dimension. Accessibility consists of physical and social factors which can refer to the distance to school, household chores, and the burden faced by children of combining work and schooling. Living outside a stable family environment, having a lack of basic resources including books in the home and a place to work, malnutrition, and exposure to disease and lack of exposure to the medium of instruction outside of the school context are all predictors of low levels of numeracy and literacy (Tikly, 2010, p 18).

### **1.1.3 Quality of education**

Quality is at the heart of education. It influences what students learn, how well they learn, and what benefits they draw from their education. The quest to ensure that students achieve decent learning outcomes and acquire values and skills that help them play a positive role in their societies is an issue on the political agenda of nearly every country.

As many governments strive to expand basic education, they face the challenge of ensuring that students stay in school long enough to acquire the knowledge they need to cope in a rapidly changing world. Assessments show that this is not happening in many countries (UNESCO, 2005).

***Focusing on learning***

Whether or not expanded educational opportunities will translate into meaningful development –for an individual or society- depends ultimately on whether people actually learn as a result of those opportunities, i.e., whether they incorporate useful knowledge, reasoning ability, skills and values. The focus of basic education must, therefore, be on actual learning acquisition and outcome, rather than exclusively on enrolment. Active and participatory approaches are particularly valuable in assuring learning acquisition and allowing learners to reach their fullest potential.

*Box 1: Focusing on learning. Source: World Conference of Education for All, 2000 EDQUAL*

Quality systems have become an integral part of educational systems across the world and the language of quality has become commonplace in educational settings (Brundrett, 2011). However this does not imply that there is consensus about what the quality of education entails. There is no universally accepted definition of education quality and no general theory as to what determines the quality of education has been validated by empirical research (UNESCO, 2005, p 22). The quality of education is a complex concept with many related indicators. EDQUAL argues: “All the elements associated with educational quality are interrelated.” (EDQUAL, 2005, p 2). For policy makers, development organisations, primary school staff, and ministries of education defining the quality of primary education raises questions such as: Which elements define the quality of education? How do you measure the quality of education? How can you improve the quality of education?

The World Declaration on Education for All identified quality as a prerequisite for achieving the fundamental goal of equity. The notion that expanding access alone is insufficient becomes more and more recognised. For instance, how well pupils are taught and how much they learn can have a crucial impact on how long they stay in school and how regularly they attend. Furthermore, whether households send their children to school likely depends on judgements they make about the quality of teaching and learning provided – upon whether attending school is worth the time and cost for their children and themselves (UNESCO, 2005, p 28).

When thinking about the quality of education, it is useful to distinguish between educational outcomes and the processes leading to them (UNESCO, 2005, p. 16). The 'constructivist' and the 'humanist' traditions of research both define the quality of education. The first defines cognitive learning as the major explicit objective of all educational systems and emphasises the policy mechanisms, efficiency, and cognitive skills in defining the quality of education. From this perspective, achievement is a major factor in defining the quality of education and improvement in scores in standardised tests is central. Literacy and numeracy lay the foundation for the development of cognitive skills that are key for economic growth. The rationale for investing in education lies in the contribution that education can make to economic growth (EDQUAL, 2010, p 2). Table 1 provides an overview of quality education delivery defined by the humanist and constructivist tradition.

*Table 1: Quality of education defined by the humanist and constructivist tradition*

Humanist	Constructivism
Responsiveness to the individual learner's circumstances and needs	Standardised and externally defined and controlled curricula, based on prescribed objectives and defined independently from the learner
Learning as a process of social practice	Tests and examinations are considered central features of learning
Role of assessment gives learner information and feedback about the quality of individual learning	Assessment is seen as an objective measurement of learner behaviour against pre-set assessment criteria
Teacher's role is that of a facilitator/instructor	Teacher directs learning as the expert who controls stimuli and responses

*Source: Ridell, (2007)*

The humanist tradition underlines the rights in education for all and defines the value and role of education in creative and emotional development. In this tradition the learners are at the centre and the classroom level is emphasised. In the humanist tradition it is about what is being taught not only including the cognitive aspect but also for instance learning about HIV/AIDS, life skills, basic knowledge, and practical skills (EDQUAL, 2010, p.1).

In 2000, the Dakar Framework for Action affirmed that quality was at the heart of education and is a fundamental determinant of enrolment, retention, and achievement. In the EFA Dakar goals, the second goal was formulated as: "Ensuring that by 2015 all

children have access to complete, free and compulsory primary education of good quality” (UNESCO, 2005, p 28). The Dakar goals committed 164 nations to the provision of primary education of good quality, which had not been specified in earlier commitments. In the Dakar framework the quality of education is underlined as an important determinant of whether the Education for All is achieved. The Dakar forum emphasised the need to improve all aspects of quality of education to achieve recognised and measurable learning outcomes for all, especially in literacy, numeracy, and life skills (EDQUAL, 2005, p 4). Since the 1980s, the quality elements of education have been related to the achievements of pupils and other indicators such as expenditures per pupil, length of the instructional programme, and the presence of materials.

In the late 80’s, another dimension to the quality of education could be identified which indicates the complex web of factors that were influencing the quality of education. This dimension still continues to this day and focuses on the interrelationship of the various variables which are related to schools. The complexity of education is widely stressed, which is emphasised as “No general theory as to what determines the quality of education has been validated by empirical research.” (Ridell, 2007, p. 11). The complexity of education is a result of the various related factors such as infrastructure, method of teaching or the functioning of a school management. It also comes into the foreground in the broader functioning of a primary school, in a context of various policies, defined at the central and local government levels. The research consortium on implementing education quality in low income countries (EDQUAL) defines good quality education as “one that enables all learners to realise the capabilities they require to become economically productive, to develop sustainable livelihoods, to contribute to peaceful and democratic societies and to enhance well-being. The learning outcomes required vary according to context, but must include threshold levels of literacy, numeracy and life skills.” (EDQUAL, 2010, p 1). Furthermore, good education quality must be the following (EDQUAL, 2010, p 1):

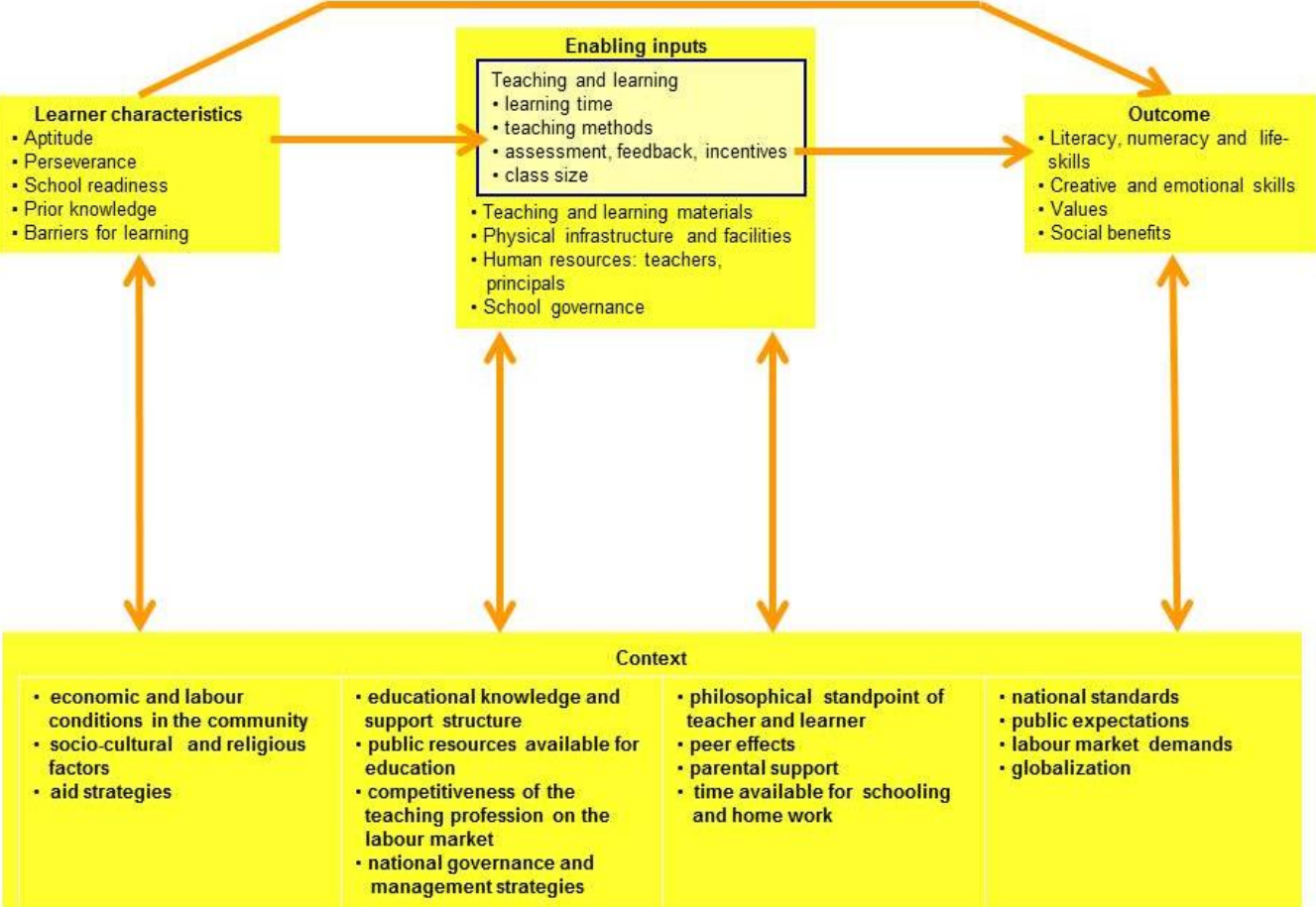
- Inclusive : All learners have the opportunity to achieve specified learning outcomes.
- Relevant : Learning outcomes are meaningful to all learners, valued by their communities and consistent with national development priorities in a changing global context.
- Democratic : Learning outcomes are determined through public debate and ensured through processes of accountability.

Smaller class sizes, more textbooks, teaching in service training, and teaching strategies that focus upon the needs of the learner are resource strategies that make a difference, particularly in poorer countries (UNESCO, 2005, p 75). The World Bank defines the following two inputs for education delivery (World Bank, 2009):

- Hardware : School buildings, classrooms, libraries, furniture, school facilities and other infrastructure.
- Software : Curriculum, pedagogy, textbooks, writing materials and other supplies.

Challenges in regard to quality primary education delivery are defined based on a framework of the following five dimensions: learner characteristics, contextual, enabling inputs, teaching and learning, and the outcomes dimension (UNESCO, 2005). Figure 4 provides more detailed information about what each dimension entails and how they relate to each other.

Figure 4: Framework for understanding quality education



Source: UNESCO (2005), *The quality imperative*



The learner characteristics dimension is about how people learn, which is influenced by their capacity and experience. Determining characteristics can include socio-economic background, health, place of residence, cultural and religious background, and the amount of learning. The dimension about the context describes the links between education and society and how they influence each other. Education can help to change society by improving and strengthening skills, values, communications, mobility, personal prosperity, and freedom. In regard to the outcomes dimension, important factors are achievement, attainment, and broader benefits to society. Finally, the enabling inputs dimension incorporates teaching and learning.

Teaching and learning is often underlined as the key area for human development and change. The success of teaching and learning is likely to be strongly influenced by the resources made available to support the process and the direct ways in which these resources are managed. If a school has no teachers, textbooks or learning materials, it will not be able to run effectively (UNESCO, 2005, p 35). This study will focus on the enabling inputs dimension consisting of:

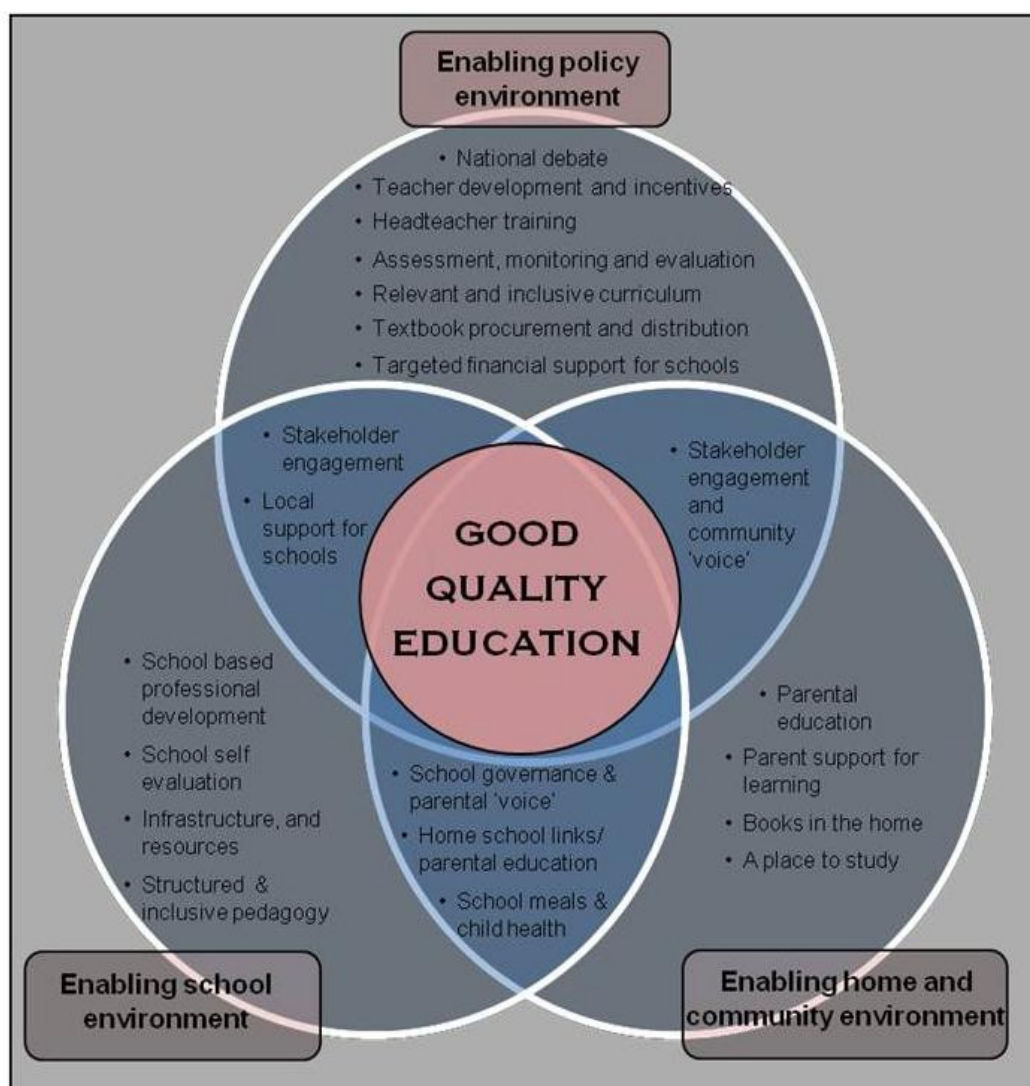
- teaching and learning materials
- physical infrastructure and facilities,
- human resource and school governance
- teaching/learning.

#### ***1.1.4 Demand and supply side***

However, besides the enabling inputs, it is important to stress the broad context and accompanying processes which will be addressed by the next section. A good quality education arises from the interaction between three inter-related enabling environments: policy, the school, home and community environment (EDQUAL, 2010, p 1). Each environment contributes to the quality of education in collaboration with the other environments. The accompanying processes within each environment are key for ensuring that enabling inputs are concerted in desired outcomes (Tikly, 2010, p 13). If the three environments function in a stable and supporting context, they can complement each other and hold each other accountable. The three enabling environments are; policy, school and home/community environment. This creates a context of interaction around a primary school which can enhance the quality of education, expressed by Figure 5.



Figure 5: Enabling environments for quality education



Source: EDQUAL 2010

### **Enabling policy environment**

In the enabling policy environment local and national policies play a role. The role of local government in providing guidance and training for improving school management, learning and accountability as well as increasing community participation highlights the significance of local external relations to school processes (CREATE, 2006, p 49).

### **Enabling home and community environment**

Increased accountability and parental and communal voice are often perceived as important for driving up the quality of primary education (EDQUAL, 2010, p.1). In research on communities and their involvement in schools, households, including primarily the parents of the children in school, are defined as the primary community members. Increased community involvement is seen to be important in improving their

children's enrolment and persistence in school as well as school accountability to the community (CREATE, 2007, p 30). The most prevalent participation of a community in schools occurs through school fees or fund-raising projects. Furthermore, participation of the community emerges through participatory institutions, for instance school management committees, parent-teacher associations, governing bodies, and village education committees. Research in various African contexts has shown that there is unequal access to participation in such bodies according to socio-economic status, race, social class, location, political affiliation, and gender (CREATE, 2007, p 32). In discussing the participatory institutions for community involvement, it is important to stress that the introduction of these institutions does not ensure greater power of decision making and accessibility for everyone. There is evidence of a positive impact of involving the community in school governance. However, the magnitude of the impact strongly depends on the types of training and the degree of parental involvement (Winkler, 2007, p 13). The ways in which the community participates are laid down by the central and/or the local government. ERNWECA defines four main types of community financing of education (ERNWECA, 2002, p 133):

- Contributions of the whole community (most commonly in the form of labour towards construction work in the school)
- Parental contributions in the decision-making process (PTA and SMC)
- Participation focused on access (moral conviction, registration of births)
- Participation focused on teaching and learning

### ***Enabling school environment***

An enabling school environment consists of various factors related to curriculum, pedagogy, school management, and the infrastructure of a school. These are all extremely important in determining the quality of primary education. In Ghana, Whole School Development (WSD) initiatives have been started to enhance the quality of primary education. WSD considers the school to be a unit for change where the community, teachers, school management boards, principals, teachers, and pupils are crucial partners in the functioning and quality of a school. In a WSD programme, a primary school is considered the unit for change to which decentralisation and change of management at the local level are initiated to achieve this.

Increased authority and responsibility are being given to schools, communities, and district authorities to improve the quality of teaching and learning (UNESCO, 2005, p 170). In many developing countries, decisions about education delivery are taken at a central level and applied to all primary schools. This approach does not take the various needs and circumstances of an individual school into account.

Therefore, educational decentralisation will allow local actors to combine their strengths to effectively enhance the quality of education. Akyempong stresses the following dimensions of WSD to improve the quality of teaching and learning: efficient school management, quality of teaching and learning, working environment of teachers and in service training, child centred practice, and improvement of local community participation in school development (Akyempong, 2004, p 7). Table 2 shows important indicators for education that arise in the demand and supply side of education.

*Table 2: The five A's of social service delivery, focused on education*

Affordability	Direct and indirect cost of primary education
Adequacy	Sufficient supply of resources
Accessibility	Geographical distance to a primary school
Acceptability	Cultural and social values
Accountability	Role and responsibilities

*Source: DFID (2004)*

The supply side of education delivery is more complex and consists of direct service providers, the organizations of these service providers, and their institutional arrangements. The supply side entails the provision of textbooks, human resources, and the physical infrastructure of a primary school. The demand side of education includes civil society which, in the context of education delivery, refers to the home/community. The demand side is also referred to as the beneficiaries of the social services. In organising the demand side capacity building is of importance. High quality demand is based upon a deep analysis of problems or issues and their causes and on a thorough exposure and assessment of options to address these issues and to enhance the understanding of how service providers can contribute at all.

**1.2 Decentralisation**

Decentralisation can be found in many countries all over the world and is intended to bring government policies closer to the people. The process of decentralisation transfers responsibilities and power from a central to a local level. The World bank argues; "Many people believe that the process of decentralisation will substantially improve efficiency, transparency, accountability and responsiveness of service provision; better reflect local priorities and encourage participation; and eventually improve coverage and quality" (World bank, 2000, p. 52).Decentralisation takes place in an existing context and system of a country and then takes on many forms and practices. Also the level of devolved power varies and creates decentralisation in various forms.

The United Nations Development Programme defines decentralisation as:

“Decentralisation refers to the restructuring or reorganisation of authority between institutions of governance at the central, regional and local levels. Decentralisation could be expected to contribute to key elements of good governance, such as increasing people’s opportunities for participation in economic, social and political decisions and enhancing government responsiveness, transparency and accountability.” (UNDP, 1999, p.2).

In many countries the process of decentralisation is initiated under pressure from international development organisations and public authorities which were unable to secure finance for the delivery of public services. In the last two or three decades, decentralisation has become almost synonymous with reforms in governance and accountability in many developing countries (Akyeampong, 2007, p 7). The extent to which the transfer of power and authority to the local level takes place determines the form of decentralisation. Successful decentralisation consists of political, financial, and administrative decentralisation. First, political decentralisation, in which political commitment from the centre is essential for effective decentralisation, entails accountability mechanisms and policy coherence. Secondly, fiscal decentralisation relates to the condition that the local governance level has access to financial resources and to the transfer of powers to raise taxes. Finally, administrative decentralisation refers to the creation of administrative bodies, systems or mechanisms at a local level to support the decentralisation process. Decentralisation also divides the roles between the central and the local level and how the links between them function together (Cabral, 2011, p. 4). Decentralisation involves the roles and relationships of all societal actors, including government, private sector, and civil society. Power relations and the distribution of power are central in the process of decentralisation, because the degree of transferred power and authority defines the form of decentralisation.

Four forms of decentralisation can be distinguished based on the degree of power, responsibilities, and authority. (UNDP, 1999, p.6):

- Devolution: autonomous lower-level units that are legally constituted as separate governance bodies. Through devolution, the central government relinquishes certain functions or creates new units of government that are outside its direct control.
- Delegation: semi-autonomous lower level units where government decision making, administrative authority and responsibility for carefully spelled out tasks are transferred to institutions which are either under government indirect control or semi-independent.

- Deconcentration: very limited transfer of authority, where units will have delegated authority in policy, financial, and administrative matters without any significant independent local inputs.
- Privatisation: planning and administrative responsibility or other public functions are transferred from government to voluntary, private or non-government institutions.

If we take Africa into consideration, the decentralisation process was initiated between 1980 and the early 1990s. The international community has been an important driver behind this process. The decentralisation process in Africa aims to improve governmental efficiency by making policies more responsive to the poor. In regard to the African continent, it is important to consider that the majority of the poor people in Africa live in rural and remote areas. Decentralisation can be the accurate mechanism to reach and involve these people. However, the process of decentralisation does not automatically create these effects. Conyers argues that many of the problems with decentralised service delivery in Africa lie in the design and implementation of reform initiatives and insufficient attention to changes in broader governance structures and underlying economic conditions (Conyers, 2007, p. 18). This indicates that decentralisation needs to be embedded in a system where the central and the local government are capable of distributing decision making and enhancing participation.

Developing countries are increasingly turning to administrative decentralisation as a strategy for addressing a number of critical governmental needs, such as increased accountability and more effective delivery of public services (UNDP, 1999, p.10). In Africa, decentralisation is often largely driven by political motivations. Decentralisation experiences in the region have consisted mostly of deconcentration of administrative functions rather than true devolution of power (Cabrial, 2011, p. 2). By distributing the authority, responsibility, and financial resources for public services to the local level, accountability mechanisms and quality can be strengthened.

### **1.2.1 Participation**

Decentralisation and participation are closely associated with each other, because an important intention behind decentralisation is to bring policies closer to the people in order to enhance their participation. By enhancing participation of the civil society, problems and needs of the demand side of education delivery can be identified. Arnstein defines citizen participation as *"the redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens presently excluded from the political and economic processes to be deliberately included in the future. It is the means by which they can induce significant social reform"*

which enables them to share in the benefits of the affluent society.” (Arnstein, 1969, p. 216).

Figure 6: PTA meeting Kotingli primary school

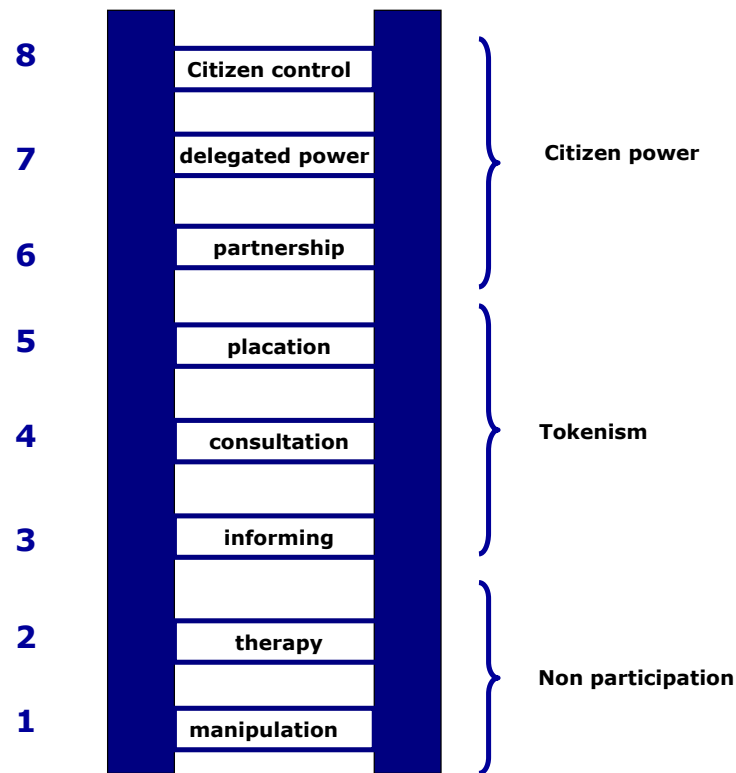


Source: fieldwork 2012

Decentralisation is often emphasised as a mechanism to promote participation and empowerment of the local people. Cabrial argues: “Local governments are spatially and institutionally closer to the people which can enhance their understanding of local needs and what will make the local level better able to respond than the central level.” (Cabrial, 2011, p. 3). When local government is responsible for policies within a specific region or district, it will enable them to address the local needs. A local focus can increase the opportunities of taking the local needs and developments into account and responding adeptly to the needs of people. However, transferring responsibilities and power to a local level does not automatically imply that participation of local people will be increased. Responsibilities and authority can be transferred to a local governance, but at the same time the central government can hold control over allocation of policies, budget, and projects. Van Vliet argues: “Formal local participatory channels often lead to rituals of participation rather than meaningful participation by key stakeholders and ordinary citizens in local governance.” (Van Vliet, 2011, p 4).

For instance, a local government controls important forms of participation such as determining the agenda and invitation list and making decisions about financial matters. In Figure 7, a participation ladder is shown, which describes the level of citizen participation.

Figure 7: Ladder of participation



Source: Arnstein (1969)

The participation ladder provides insight into the many ways in which participation may emerge. It shows that the opportunity to participate does not ensure that citizens will in fact participate and raise their voices. Wherefore it is essential to take power relations and the role of power holders into account before participation in the form of citizen power can take place. The lowest two rungs of the participation ladder define the non-participation of citizens. For the rows therapy and manipulation, the real objective is to educate the participators instead of strive for genuine participation. The rows 3, 4, and 5 describe the level of 'tokenism'. Here citizens are allowed to be heard but they lack the power to ensure that any action will be taken about their needs and views. At the level of 'tokenism', the power holders maintain power over decisions. Finally, the rows 6, 7, and 8 describe citizen power on different levels. If a partnership is established, it means citizens can negotiate with power holders. The two highest rungs of the ladder represent a level of participation where citizens can obtain the majority of decision-making seats or can have managerial power. This holds true for situations where a central government maintains control or does not provide fiscal resources, a local government has less capacity to respond to the local needs. Other elements which influence the level of participation in local governance are mechanisms, institutions, and relationships that are present in the local context. The presence of mechanisms and institutions is important to encourage the participation of local people. However, the presence of mechanisms does

not guarantee participation of all citizens. Cabrial argues: "It all depends on who participate and under which terms, which is determined by local power structures." (Cabrial, 2011, p. 7). The level of representation of, for instance, a parent association of a primary school also has to be taken into account. Already existing power structures can have a major influence on the community members, who are themselves representatives of that local community.

### **1.2.2 Decentralisation social services**

Social services include health, education, drinking water, and sanitation, which are also the most common forms of services provided by local governments in developing countries. Public service delivery no longer belongs exclusively to the government on the local and central level, but also increasingly to the private sector and civil society organisations. Decentralisation in the educational system transfers power from the central ministries of education to local governments, communities, and schools. UNESCO states: "The belief that putting responsibility in the hand of local educational authorities will improve the quality of education by improving decision making and allocating resources more effectively is the guiding idea informing the decentralisation of education." (UNESCO, 2008, p 34). In the educational system, various levels of decentralisation can take place, from administrative deconcentration to a much broader transfer of financial control to the local level.

Decision-making about the educational sector is complex, because it relates to various functions which are also often complementary. The central and the local government levels have to decide about the distribution and control of the various functions of an educational system. Setting standards, curriculum design, teaching methods, student evaluation, and teacher recruitment are often controlled by the central government, because it is generally better equipped to address this type of issues. The salaries of teachers and the construction and maintenance of schools are often responsibilities of the local government (World Bank, 2000, p. 52). Educational decentralisation is defined as a complex process that changes the way in which a school system approaches policy making, generating revenues, spending funds, training teachers, designing curricula, and managing local schools. Educational decentralisation is most often seen in the context of fiscal and administrative decentralisation and overall promoted as one of the most important schemes to expand education access, improve education quality, and enhance efficiency in service provision and financing (UNESCO, 2008, 34).

The potential of improvement for a local governance with regards to quality and efficiency of social services rests on a combination of financial, monitoring, institutional, and managerial factors (Robinson, 2007, p 7). From a political perspective, political



leadership and the devolution of power to elected local authorities are important conditions for increasing the access and quality of social services on a local level. To increase the participation of local people, institutions play a key role in facilitating this engagement. One example is school boards, which provide insights into the practices of a primary school and form a mechanism for the community to participate. For strengthening participation in social services, a local government needs to create a method of working which is open to community involvement and response to citizen initiatives. To realise this, a local government needs financial autonomy to increase its capacity to support participation in social services and to set up institutions to enhance participation.

CREATE argues; "Decentralisation of education service delivery can create community pressure for transparency and accountability in school management." (CREATE, 2007, p.10). The process of decentralisation can bring education closer to the people because it encourages the creation of mechanisms and institutions through which the community can participate. A community becomes more closely involved through the daily practices of a primary school. Because of their own knowledge and experience or that of their children about the daily practices of a school, the community finds itself in a strong position to claim accountability. By giving voice and decision-making power to local stakeholders, who know more about the local educational system than central policy makers, decentralisation can improve educational outcomes (Fullan, 2009, p 33). One way to decentralise decision-making power in education is the creation of a school-based management (SMB). In many countries, school-based management systems are introduced, although they function under various names. In school-based management, an individual school forms the basis for improving the quality of education and for increasing accountability of all stakeholders. It provides power to the people whose children attend the primary school, which can enhance the responsiveness to the local people and context. The aim of a school-based management is basically to empower a school management with the context of its community.

### **1.3 Accountability**

"Accountability describes the rights and responsibilities that exist between people and the institutions that affect their lives, including governments, civil society and market actors." (IDS, 2006,p.1). Accountability defines the responsibilities and power relationships between actors. Rights are important to take into account while defining accountability because in order to claim their rights, people need to know which they are exactly, how they are being addressed, and how decisions are made and by whom. Local accountability refers to the capacity of ordinary citizens to demand explanations and justifications from their local government and service delivery institutions (answerability)

as well as the possibility to sanction local officials once they underperform (controllability) (Van Vliet, 2011, p 3). According to Newell, accountability is not only an outcome, but also a process where both answerability and enforceability are achieved through on-going engagement between citizens and institutions (Newell, 2006: p. 13). The process of decentralisation can be linked to accountability by bringing decision-making closer to the people on a regional, district, and village level. By increasing participation on a local level, participation is enhanced for people and institutions who need to hold each other accountable. Van Vliet argues: “[I]ntegrating accountability mechanisms into sector policies has a positive impact on service delivery performances.” (Vliet, 2010, p 7).

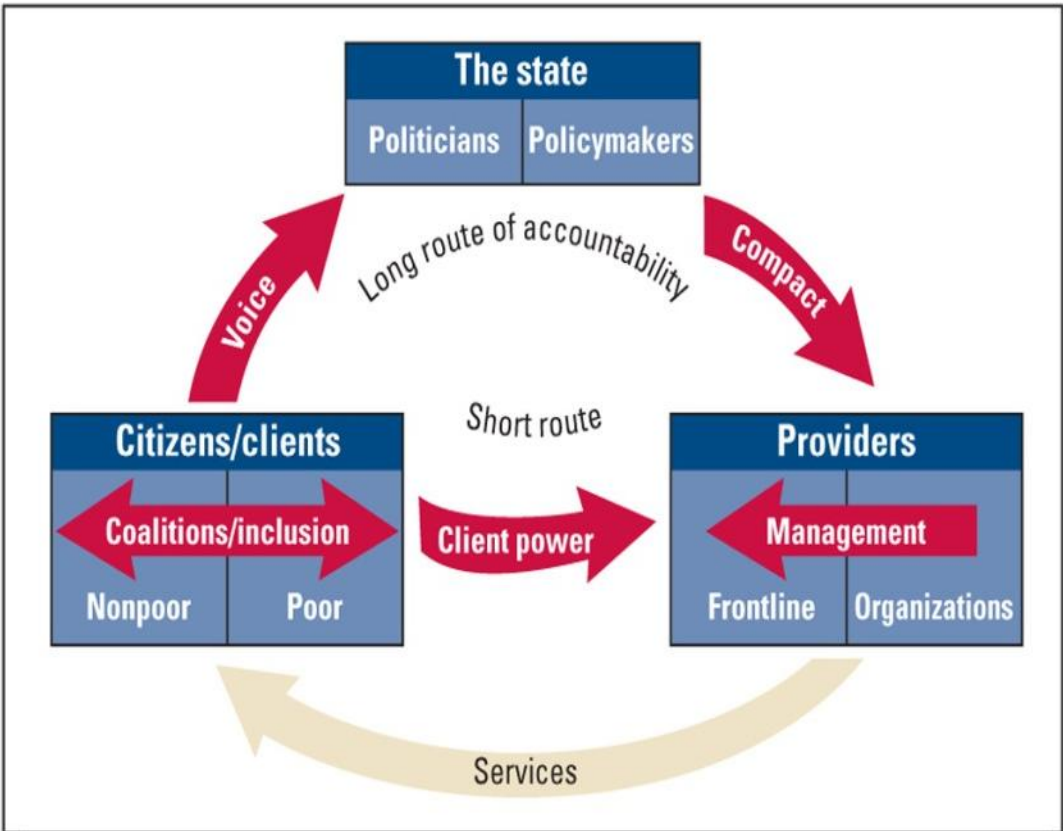
The following four types of accountability can be distinguished (Newell, 2006, p. 45 - 54): Social, political, financial, and civil society accountability. These four types of accountability will be elaborated to provide insight into the layers of accountability and the various relationships it can define. First, political accountability stresses the role of the state and its responsibilities towards citizens. Officials who work for the state have responsibilities in executing tasks and making decisions on behalf of citizens. The state and its officials can create a mechanism of self-imposed accountability, which is also referred to as ‘horizontal accountability’. Secondly, social accountability entails that citizens hold the government accountable for carrying out their responsibilities and participate in processes to demand for accountability. Social accountability goes beyond the traditional mechanisms of accountability, such as elections where citizens can vote for their representatives. Through social accountability citizens hold their government accountable by using strategies like social mobilisation. This type of accountability is also known as ‘vertical accountability’. It is demanded from below by citizens and civil society groups. Thirdly, financial accountability focuses upon the responsibilities of the state in regard to finance, income, and funds. Important tools for financial accountability are auditing, monitoring, and budgeting. Finally, civil accountability is often informal and mostly related to social accountability, even though it is less focused on achieving major changes in the state. Civil accountability stresses the capacities of citizens and their power to instigate change, such as seeking new management alternatives in social service delivery.

### **1.3.1 Accountability relationships**

The World Bank Development report of 2004 stresses the importance of accountability in situations where successful services for people emerge from institutional relationships in which the actors are accountable to each other (World Development Report, 2004, p.46). In social service provision, various actors are involved which indicates the existence of a

variety of responsibilities, interests, and relationships. However, the WDR report of 2004 stresses that practices of accountability between citizens, policymakers, and service providers have not often proven effective and have therefore resulted in public services functioning even more poorly. As a result, weaknesses in any of the relationships between these actors start to grow. For accountability relationships, it is important to understand the conditions under which actors emerge, gain capacity, and engage in social accountability. In the service delivery chain, roles are defined between three actors, who are linked together in relationships of power and accountability. Figure 8 provides an overview of citizens/clients, politicians/policymakers, and organisational providers.

Figure 8: Actors in social service delivery



Source: World Development Report 2004.

Each actor will be discussed to gain insight into the characteristics of each actor and their role in social services.

**Citizens/clients:** have dual roles in the relationships of accountability. They are citizens as well as direct clients. For this group of actors access to well running social service delivery is of great importance.

**Politicians/policymakers:** are part of the state and they control or exercise power and decision-making. Policymakers are the actors that set the standards and decision-making, while politicians set the directions for an appropriation or interpretation of a policy. In policy making, there are numerous actors, including public officials, educational and finance ministers, and teachers’ unions. When decentralisation is initiated and responsibilities for financing and delivery of education are transferred to the local level, the number and responsibilities of policymakers becomes more complex.

**Service providers:** are the frontline educational service providers consisting of the school, teachers, and other resources. However, the school faces another layer of service providers as well, including assessment experts and district or regional offices.

The providers are in direct contact with citizens, which makes them well-informed of the needs, developments, and processes on a local level. Decentralisation can strengthen providers on a local level in their response to citizens and their consideration of local needs. This is also referred to as the short route of accountability, which is shown by Figure 8. The long route of accountability exists only between the state and the citizens/clients or the providers.

**1.3.2 Accountability and social services**

Accountability in education creates extensive relationships on various levels and between various actors in society. For instance between citizens, politicians, policymakers, and providers. In analysing a primary education system, four relationships of accountability can be defined (World Development Report, 2004, pp. 113). These relationships of (Table 3) relate accountability to education in regard to communication, voice, actions, and power.

*Table 3: Relationships of accountability*

Voice	how well citizens can hold the government accountable for the performance and educational system of primary schools.
Compact	the communication of the responsibilities and objectives of public engagement to public and private organisations that provide educational services.
Management	actions that create effective frontline providers within educational systems such as teachers and administrators.
Client power	how well citizens can increase the accountability of schools and education systems.

*Source: World Development Report 2004.*

Accountability in education is complex because of the variety of actors and responsibilities involved. Winkler defines five actions which can strengthen accountability in education and thus can lead to improved quality of education. Each action will be discussed to analyse the particular dimensions of education and how education and accountability are related (Winkler, 2004, p. 6).

### ***Strengthening client voice***

Client voice defines the distance between clients and their policy maker. A great distance between clients and policy makers complicates listening and responding to the voice of these clients. Decentralisation transfers decision-making to a local level, which brings it closer to the households/clients. By involving the community in schools, client voice can become louder because the community will have more knowledge about the daily practices of the schools. Mechanisms such as parent-teacher associations and school boards need to be installed to support the involvement of the community in the performance of a primary school.

### ***Improve management***

Action in management to enlarge accountability relates to performance of schools and tools for assessing that performance. Accountability is about being transparent towards one another about responsibility and being answerable for resulting consequences. Providing information on the performance of a school is essential in holding each other accountable. In this particular context, monitoring plays an important role. To improve the impact of monitoring, performance targets need to be developed and a schools needs to be oriented towards participation of the community. When a school encourages a community to give feedback on the system and quality of education, management can consequently be improved.

### ***Provide better information to clients***

Clients can have an important role in accountability in education, if they are provided with sufficient information about a school's methods and its performance and how this information should be interpreted in regard to other primary schools, performance targets, and national/local educational policies. Availability of information is not the only key requirement, the information also needs to be presented to the community in an accessible and understandable manner. Information required for accountability can be about schooling rights, responsibilities, inputs, outputs, and outcomes. Bruns argues that when parents have little information at their disposal on the performance of schools or on

the inputs those schools are entitled to receive, their position in holding service providers and governments accountable is weak (Bruns, 2011, p. 14).

### ***Clarify roles and responsibilities***

Providing education is often divided between various levels of government, which creates divided and shared responsibilities at various levels. The dispersion of responsibility to other levels may increase the quality of education, although transparency and clarity about roles is required. According to Bruns, there is a trend in many countries towards increasing autonomy, devolving responsibility, and encouraging responsiveness to local needs. All of this is aimed at raising performance levels (Bruns, 2011, p. 15). Introducing school-based management is a commonly used method to transfer responsibility and decision-making authority over a primary school to the local level.

### ***Increase incentives and consequences***

To facilitate the effect of accountability, it is important that a good or enhanced performance is rewarded. Winkler argues that traditionally organised and managed education systems offer little in terms of incentives for good performance (Winkler, 2004, p. 6). Using incentives in education can create a context around a school where the involved actors feel encouraged to strive for improvement. Clear examples are funding of good development plans, publicizing good and bad performance, and rewarding schools that perform beyond expectations. Incentives could also be linked to teacher incentives, where policies have linked pay or tenure directly to the teacher's performance. Supporting legal and political reform processes, including the quality of the decentralisation process, at the national level generates an enabling environment for enhanced accountability and improved service delivery at the local level. Traditionally development policies have either focused on strengthening civil society (demand side) or on building the capacity of local government (supply side). However, effective accountability mechanisms result from interventions that foster connections and co-operation between local state and non-state actors (Van Vliet, 2010, p 7).

## **1.4 conclusion**

In the Universal Declaration of Human rights it is stated that all children have the right to education. Currently in many countries, achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE) is a goal that many countries strive for. The notion that expanding access need to go together with quality education becomes more and more recognized. Achieving universal access has to happen in a context in which all children have an equal opportunity to a good quality learning environment. Quality education is a central concept to which this study aims to define the major challenges which inhibit quality education.

Decentralisation in the educational system transfers power from the central ministries of education to local governments, communities, and schools. Decentralization can take place in various forms, depending on the extent of transfer of authority and responsibilities. A key component of decentralisation is the creation of institutions to create opportunities for people to participate. Decentralisation is a central concept in this study because quality education is examined on the local level of Tamale Metropolis. Due to decentralization, the local actors in this Metropolis gained more authority and responsibility by the process of decentralisation. Accountability is strongly related to decentralisation because it defines the responsibilities and power relationships between actors. The objective of this study is to define the characteristics of actors in the study area and the major challenges in quality primary education. Therefore, it is important to incorporate accountability in order to define the responsibilities of actors and how these relate to each other.

*Figure 9: School going children*



*Source: Fieldwork 2012*

## **Chapter 2. Ghana: The national setting of the study characterised**

In Ghana various aspects of a low income country are still present including poor infrastructure, poverty, unreliable electricity network and sanitary issues. The average income may be high, most people are poor (Vica Versa, 2012, p: 22).

In Ghana's Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS), the central goal is to accelerate the growth of the economy in order to achieve a middle-income status within a measurable planning period. However, currently four out of every ten Ghanaians still live at a level of poverty and the country is indicated as a low middle income country. This chapter includes an assessment of the present day system of education delivery within a decentralised context. It also address the potential obstacles therein, such as the transfer of authority and responsibilities. How has decentralizations in Ghana been taking place? How has it been emphasising the educational sector? And how does it relate to national unity and traditional authorities?

### **2.1 Ghana**

Ghana is located in West Africa and its neighbouring countries are Togo, the Ivory Coast, and Burkina Faso. The southern part of Ghana borders on the Gulf of Guinea and the country is about 238,533 square kilometres. The south of Ghana consists mainly of rainforest, but going northwards the landscape changes to savannah and scrubland. Ghana is relatively small in comparison to other countries in Africa. However, Ghana has the second largest population in West Africa after Nigeria.

#### **2.1.1 Characteristics of Ghana**

In 2011, the population in Ghana was about 24,971,073 million people and its population growth rate was 1.8% (CIA, 2011). Life expectancy of a Ghanaian is indicated at 63 years. Like other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, the population of Ghana is young, 38% of the population is between 0 and 14 years. Since January 2003, Ghana is officially known as the Fourth Republic of Ghana. The country has a constitutional democracy, in which the head of the state is also the head of the government. The country is divided into ten administrative regions which are further divided into 23 administrative districts. At the end of the fifteenth century, the first Europeans came to the country, namely the Portuguese. Their settlement along the coast was soon followed by that of the British. In 1957, Ghana became independent, which made Ghana the first official country in colonial Africa. During colonial times Ghana was called the Gold Coast in West Africa because of its many natural resources, such as gold, timber, and diamonds (Gocking, 2005, p. 47). The population of Ghana is concentrated along the coast and particularly in the two largest cities, Kumasi and Accra, which are situated in the south of Ghana.



In Ghana, 44% of the people are Akans, who live primarily in the forest regions and in the north. About 63% of the Ghanaians believe in some form of Christianity. The Mole-Dagbani are the second largest ethnic group in Ghana and around 25% of the population is Catholic. Muslims live mainly in the northern regions of Ghana and make up 16% of the entire population. More than 50 languages and dialects are spoken in Ghana and English is the official language of the nation (Gocking, 2005, p. 11). Figure 10 shows a map of Ghana.

Figure 10: Map of Ghana



Source: Ghana Districts, 2010

### 2.1.2 Development in Ghana

Ghana is often referred to as a 'donor darling', a country to which significant numbers of foreign aid is directed. In 2010, Ghana received 1,693 billion dollars of development funds, of which 53% was bilateral. The Netherlands, Ghana's ninth largest donor in both 2009 and 2010, contributes with on average an amount of \$86 million a year. The World Bank is the largest donor with an average amount of \$285 million a year (Aerts, 2012,p: 20). In the Human Development Index, Ghana ranks the 135<sup>th</sup> place out of 187 countries. Its development agenda has been focused on growth and poverty reduction with the MDG's being adopted as the minimum requirements for socioeconomic development. In the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS), the central goal is to accelerate economic growth in order for Ghana to achieve a middle-income status within a measurable planning period. Furthermore, the GPRS states: "the lesson is that the single most crucial key to the attainment of economic success is the educational quality of a nation's work force" (Government of Ghana, 2005). Table 4 provides information on some of Ghana's indicators in relation to education.

Table 4: Indicators education Ghana

Indicators education	Total
Adult literacy rate (both sexes, (% 15 years and over)	66.6%
Mean years of schooling (of adults over 25 years)	7.1 years
Mean expected years of schooling (of children under 7 years)	10.5 years
Public expenditure on education (% of GDP)	5.4%

Source: Government of Ghana (2005)

If we take the poverty context in Ghana into account, farmers are most affected by rural poverty in Ghana. They depend on outdated farming tools and lack access to improved seeds and fertilizers to increase crop yields. Most of Ghana's poor live in rural areas without basic services, such as health care and clean water. Many of them are engaged in micro and small enterprises or gain an income out of daily casual labour. Today, two-thirds of the working population outside of agriculture is active in the informal economy, of which many are persistently poor (ILO, 2004, p:4). A situational analysis by UNICEF-Ghana showed that many Ghanaian children are financially poor and with inadequate access to food, safe drinking water, health, and education. In terms of health, the report noted that the infant and child mortality rates for children under the age of five were still high: 108 per 1,000 children (UNICEF, 2000).

## **2.2 Decentralisation Ghana**

To analyse decentralisation, the circumstances of a country, its process of decentralisation, and its institutional arrangements are important to take into account. Therefore, how decentralisation is taking place in Ghana will be central to this section.

### **2.2.1 Defining decentralisation in Ghana**

In 1988, a local governmental law was enacted in Ghana that shifted the devolution of power and competence from the central level to the local level (Crook, 2003). The principles of participation in local government and accountability to the local level are: "To ensure the accountability of local government authorities, people in particular local government areas shall, as far as practicable, be afforded the opportunity to participate effectively in their governance." (Crook, 2003; 9). Ghana's now decentralised system is structured at various levels: regional, district, local councils, and village development committees. The Government of Ghana argues; "Decentralisation will be the major driving force in strengthening efficiency and accountability of resources and results. Basic education will be made accountable to local level authorities with development and operational responsibilities transferred from central government to the districts. Self-regulation mechanisms through school communities at grass roots will be introduced" (Government of Ghana, 2000).

The regional level consists of ten regional coordinating councils, which coordinate and regulate the activities of the District Assemblies in their region. The district is represented by 110 District Assemblies (DA) that are the highest political authorities on the local government level. District Assemblies were introduced in 1989 to improve electoral participation and to further enhance participation of local people. The Assembly is responsible for the overall development of the district and for coordinating and harmonising activities of all development agencies including central government ministries and NGO's. The body has a legislative and executive function and implements five year plans and budgets. Both of which are subject to approval by the central government and funded by the District Assemblies Common Fund (DACF), under which 5% of the national budget is allocated to the district (Ramavat Goel, 2010, p 6). 70 per cent of the representatives of the District Assemblies is elected, while the central government appoints the remaining 30 per cent. The District Chief Executive (DCE) is at the chair of the executive committee of the District Assemblies and is appointed by the central government creating a system in which a centrally appointed chairs the most powerful body at the district level (Van Vliet, 2011, p 8). The district's educational directorate is the primary unit in directing and reporting on educational service delivery.

### **2.2.2 Decentralisation of the education system Ghana**

In 1986, educational reforms were initiated in Ghana to change the structure of the school system, to improve the teaching/learning process, and to make educational planning and management more effective (World Bank, 2004). In Ghana, the decentralisation of the educational system is presented as an attempt to strengthen management efficiency and accountability by enhancing the decision-making power regarding education at a local level. The local government acts of Ghana of 1988 and 1993 shifted the administrative responsibilities over education to institutions, districts, and regions through various institutions of the Ministry of Education and Sports (MOESS). The MOESS underlines the importance of the relationship between the Ministry of Education and its agencies, the regions, districts, and the schools (Ministry of Education Ghana, 2003, p 17). The aim of educational management is to strengthen and improve educational planning and management. In Ghana's ESP, educational management is defined as the third area of focus wherefore the following goal is defined: "The Ministry, its agencies and schools will make the most efficient use of scarce resources within clearly defined roles that will develop a new culture of service, support and mutual trust." (Ministry of Education Ghana, 2003, p 24). To achieve this goal, it is important to identify, clarify, and empower management roles at all levels of the educational system and to strengthen monitoring and accountability systems across the whole sector. The process of decentralisation within education manifests itself at two main levels:

- Regional level: regional directorates of education are established in each of the ten regions by the Ghana Education Service to coordinate the activities of the district directorates of education within their jurisdiction
- District level: district directorates of education are established by the District Assemblies (DA) within their jurisdiction. The DA's have a responsibility to build, equip, and maintain schools in their districts with the overall accountability for effective delivery of educational services in the district down to local grassroots level

Ten regional and 138 district educational offices represent the central ministry and are responsible for implementing policy that is set by the central Ministry of Education. Decentralization of education is intended to improve the operational efficiency and to create a responsive approach to educational delivery at the level of district, community and school. Each district in Ghana is responsible for implementing the set policies for education. The District Assemblies have a responsibility to build and maintain schools, establish district directorates of education, and appoint district education oversight committees.



Figure 11: Kotingli primary school, mathematics



Source: Fieldwork 2012

Thus, the MOESS is responsible for the policy, planning, and monitoring of the educational sector (Open society Initiative for West Africa, 2010, p 6) and the District Assemblies are responsible for infrastructure, supervision, and monitoring of primary education. One hundred and ten District Assemblies have established District Education Assembly funds for this purpose (EDQUAL, 2004, 15). However, the District Assemblies are not fully autonomous in most expenditure decisions, such as salaries, teacher management, investment of the budget, and textbook provision. Each district has a director of education who is responsible for school management, supervision, budgeting, and data collection/analysis for each district office. In the process of decentralizing the school system, the allocation of resources has been passed to the local districts and circuits and more specifically to the principals who manage these schools (UNESCO, 2008, p 8). School work, educational plans, classroom work, and teaching are overseen by principals and circuit supervisors. The latter are responsible for monitoring the school practices on behalf of the district.

A further division in decentralisation of education is made to the level of districts in the shape of District Education Oversight Communities (DEOC's), created in 1995 to perform

a monitoring role in Ghana's primary education system. The DEOC's in Ghana monitor the conditions of school buildings, infrastructure, textbooks, and the behaviour of teachers and pupils. Another of their interesting monitoring functions is taking complaints from teachers, students, and community members. The aim of the institution is to deepen stakeholder participation in managerial issues, supervisions, and school governance by the communities.

Ever since 1997, educational services have been decentralised, including the introduction of School Management Committees (SMC) to enhance community management and accountability (World Bank, 2004, p 2). In 1995, the Ghana Education Service Act created various institutions which functioned within the primary education system in Ghana. The SMC's already existed within the secondary education system and in 1997 they were also introduced to the primary education system. In over 80% of the primary schools in Ghana, a school management board is present. Only half of the schools had a school management board that gathered together on a regularly basis or provided any support past years and even fewer helped the school in dealings with external agencies. In practice, the community level School Management Committees (SMC's) are also named as school boards. They are concerned with education on a school level and conduct small-scale evaluations of school-based projects and activities. The SMC's maintain an important relationship with the region and district because of their reporting role on school performance. The SMC's also take on an informing role as they provide information on the needs and deficits of a school (Ministry of Education Ghana, 2002, p. 34). Another mechanism which supports participation in primary education is parent-teacher associations (PTA). In 2009, over 99% of public primary schools have a PTA. The presence of a PTA can enhance the quality of education, but this depends on how PTA's provide support to the schools and how valuable their contributions actually are. Parents in a PTA can, for instance, keep an eye on teacher attendance patterns (World Bank, 2004, p 16).

### ***2.2.3 Challenges decentralisation Ghana***

The central government has deconcentrated a number of responsibilities to the District Assemblies. However, the central government still maintains a great degree of control over decision-making and policies. Firstly, in regard to administrative decentralisation, government officials working for the District Assemblies are still maintained as employees of the central government. Secondly, there is no fiscal autonomy. The District Assemblies derive their income mostly from the District Assembly Common Fund.

This restricts the local government in its access to financial resources, because the central government retains its authority to raise the most profitable taxes.

Finally, political decentralisation refers to the appointment of the DA's officials, but the central government still plays an influential role in the electoral process because it appoints 30% of these officials (Hoffman, 2010, p.7). The DA's officials themselves play a powerful role in local governance but cannot be appointed unaligned with their party. If so, local governance would be able to undermine centralized control.

Another challenge lies in Ghana's traditional system in which chiefs play a major role. Currently, chiefs exert governmental power but this is limited to the Regional Houses of Chiefs and to advising the government. However, if the extent of informal power is taken into account, chiefs are still highly influential in policies of development. With regards to the process of decentralisation, involving chiefs can be beneficial due to their position in local governance and their unofficial authority. It can create support and participation from the local people. However, it can also lead to a situation where chiefs gain a more powerful status than the local authorities. This poses a challenge, as explained by Hofmann: "In the Northern parts of Ghana where chieftaincy disputes exist, extending more power to traditional authorities is likely to result in dragging the state even more deeply into these violent disputes" (Hoffman, 2010, p 14).

Furthermore, through decentralisation chiefs gain more power, which can lead to sharper differences between districts and their ethnic groups. It can also affect national unity, because of decreasing control and power in certain regions or districts. On the other hand, in Ghana, there are various ethnic groups that can enhance their control and authority in a district due to the process of decentralization. This aspect also interrelates with the role and authority of chiefs, who often represent an ethnic group. Decentralisation may cause increased inequalities between regions, where the poorer regions will definitely start out with fewer resources and will not be able to compete with others. The problems faced by a poorer region are most often amplified by geographical conditions and climate. Contrastingly, the wealthy regions have the capacity to maintain and attract investment, which in turn provides the tax base to expand and further improve the quality of education, for instance.

## **2.3 Primary education Ghana**

### **2.3.1 Primary education delivery: supply side**

After Ghana's independence in 1957, its educational system became known as one of the best educational systems in Sub-Saharan Africa. Unfortunately, in the 1970s Ghana's educational system was affected by an economic decline, because the quality of its primary education was adversely influenced. The proportion of GDP devoted to education declined from 6.4% in 1976 to about 1% in 1983 and 1.7% in 1985. The government responded with the Ghana Education Service (GES) intervention strategy.

These reforms were seen as necessary to improve the quality of education and to provide more equitable access. The intervention was aimed at the following focus areas in education (Akyeampong, 2004, p. 10): Child-centred primary practice in literacy, numeracy, and problem-solving with a view to improve the quality of teaching and learning in basic school classrooms, community participation in educational delivery, competencies of teaching and learning through school-based in-service training, participatory planning and resource management at school and district levels and improvement of efficiency in resource management.

In Ghana, the MOESS has the overall responsibility for policy, planning, and monitoring of the educational sector. It focuses on policy making, enforcement of educational standards, quality teacher training, development of books and other educational materials. It controls thirteen satellite agencies, including the GES which is the main implementing organisation for education and is responsible for service delivery such as supervision of schools/teachers, annual expenditure on education (a large part), determining teacher numbers, allocation of textbooks and deployment of teachers. The box below shows MOESS' spending within the educational sector (ERNWACA, 2009, p9)

**MOESS spending education**

Salaries	: 64% in 2006 and 94.3% in 2007
Administration	: 6% in 2006 and 4.6% in 2007
Service expenditure	: 12% in 2006 and 0.7% in 2007
Investment expenditure	: 18% in 2006 and 0.4% in 2007

*Box 2: MOESS spending education. Source: ERNWACA, 2009*

The majority of the educational budget is channelled through the MOESS, yet this budget is almost solely spent on the teachers' salaries: 94.3% of the 2007 educational budget went into salaries and related costs for educational workers, leaving very little for investment elsewhere (Open society Initiative for West Africa, 2010, p 9). This partly explains why so many primary schools lack essential equipment and the recruitment of more qualified teachers is a problem. The government's budget covers salary costs, administrative expenses, and investment activities and leaves very little for school expansion and infrastructural development. Table 5 shows spending on education as a percentage of GDP of the central government in the period of 2003 – 2015.



Table 5 : Spending on education, % of GDP Ghana

	2003	2004	2005	2010	2015
Spending education as % of GDP	5.8%	6.0%	6.0%	5.7%	5.6%
Spending primary education as % of GDP	2.1%	2.2%	2.3%	2.1%	1.9%

Source: Ministry of Education Ghana, 2003, education strategic plan

Table 5 shows that the spending on education as a percentage of GDP rose to 6% in 2005, but will decline to 5.6% in 2015. This also applies to the spending on primary education as a percentage of GDP, which rose to 2.3% in 2005, but will decline to 1.9% in 2015.

Weaknesses in the provision of education are enduring and in 1992 the Compulsory Free Basic Education (FCUBE) programme was introduced, which was aimed at solving the weak points. This initiative made schooling at the basic level free and compulsory for all school-aged children by the year 2005. To deliver the objectives of the FCUBE programme, the Whole School Development (WSD) programme was initiated. Its key aims are to improve the quality of teaching and learning, the management efficiency of the educational sector at the central and district level, and access and participation in basic education. In Ghana, the implementation of the WSD programmes has been realized through the structures of the Ghana Education Service (GES) that strives for improvement of primary education. Akyeampong summarises the programme as follows: “the WSD programme in Ghana has been framed within the context of a policy of educational decentralisation underpinned by a change management strategy that is aimed at improving quality of teaching and learning, access and participation in primary schools.” (Akyeampong, 2004, p.11). The WSD programmed is perceived as a national school improvement intervention, trying to shift more power and responsibility concerning school improvement to the school community and district level. To facilitate this participation, community structures such as District Education Oversight Committee (DEOC), School Management Committee (SMC), and Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) have been put in place. Optimizing primary education is aimed at by establishing partnerships between head teachers, schools, district education authorities, and the community Ghana.

Ghana introduced the Capitation Grant to fund non-salary expenditure. However, whilst the grant has had a positive effect on enrolment, it has not significantly made an impact on academic achievement. A key issues here are the overall size of the grant and the inefficiencies in its administration (Tikly, 2010, p 15).

### **Capitation Grant**

In 2004 – 2005, the government of Ghana abolished all fees charged by schools and provided schools with a small grant for each pupil enrolled. The Capitation Grant was introduced to financially and administratively support the FCUBE policy of free universal primary education. The Capitation Grant scheme allocates GH3 cedis per student per year to all basic public schools. The programme is aimed at increasing student enrolment in basic schools by removing the financial barrier. The funds are supposed to be channelled towards the provision of teaching and learning materials, school management (travel and transportation, stationery and sanitation), community and school relationships, support for needy pupils, school-based in-service training, minor repairs. and sports/culture levies.

*Box 3: Capitation Grant. Source: UNESCO, 2008 Universal primary education in Ghana*

In Ghana's ESP, the quality of education is defined as the second area of focus wherefore the following objective is defined: "Make the various resources available to the system (including teachers, teaching practices, learning conditions and facilities) more effective and more equitable and target educational outputs for improvement" (Ministry of Education Ghana, 2003, p 24). The ESP underlines that despite the substantial progress that has been made over the years in providing access to education, Ghana continues to grapple with serious challenges concerning the quality of education.

Recent performance monitoring tests have confirmed that relatively few students in primary schools acquire the necessary knowledge and skills as identified in the current curriculum (Ministry of Education Ghana, 2003, p 17). The policy goal for the quality of education is to improve quality of teaching and learning. By linking the student results of the NEA to school characteristics, the following school factors were found to be significantly associated with stronger student performance (Ministry of Education, 2012, p 11):

- Availability of textbooks
- Proportion of female teachers
- Proportion of educated/qualified teachers
- Visits from circuit supervisors
- Schools keeping administrative registers

The major problems challenging the quality of education in Ghana are: large numbers of unqualified teachers in school, absence of the requisite curriculum materials in the majority of schools, deteriorated school buildings, furniture and equipment, and the prevailing notion that the provision of education was the sole responsibility of government, depriving the system of any meaningful role that the various communities could play (ERNWACA, 2002, p 129). Community participation has been identified as one of the areas that can help to improve the quality of education in Ghana.

### **2.3.2 Primary education delivery; demand side**

In Ghana's GPRS, it was decided to eventually make school attendance obligatory for all children for a period of eleven years (4-15), including two years of Kindergarten and three years of Junior High School. The lesson behind the decision is that the single most crucial key to the attainment of economic success is the educational quality of a nation's work force. Primary education in Ghana is compulsory for children from 6 – 12 years old and consists of 6 years of school in which the focus is on basic literacy, numeracy, science, and social studies. English is the principal language of school instruction. Yet, in the first few years of primary education the local language is used and gradually declines in the third or fourth year of primary education. Ghana has defined an Education Strategic Plan (ESP) for 2003 – 2015 including the following priority policy interventions that will deepen and sustain the progress made in the sector under the Growth Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS) and accelerate growth (Government of Ghana, 2005):

- Increase access to and participation in education and training at all levels
- Bridge gender gaps in access to education in all districts
- Improve the quality of teaching and learning
- Improve efficiency in the delivery of educational services
- Promote science and technology education at all levels with particular attention to increased participation of girls.

Ghana's ESP is committed to a sector-wide approach (SWAP), in which every sub-sector and focus area within the educational sector are taken into account. A SWAP in Ghana is also aimed at the participation of all internal and external development partners in education. Ghana has made major strides in providing access to basic education, to which enrolment has increased significantly as a result of the grants and the removal of fees. Table 6 illustrates the Gross Enrolment Rates (GER) in Ghana which increased in the period 2003 – 2006.

Table 6: Primary Gross Enrolment rate (GER) for 2003 – 2006

	2003/2004	2004/2005	2005/2006
Total GER	86.5	87.5	92.1
Boys GER	89.5	90.5	95.3
Girls GER	83.1	84.0	88.1

Source: Ministry of Education Ghana (2003)

Ghana shows in line with a large majority of other countries that improvements in access put pressure on effectively achieving learning outcomes. The improved access measured in enrolment has brought new challenges in learning and education (World Bank, 2011, p 36). Primary reasons are the lack of consistent policy funds, especially to provide resources and reward staff needed to supply quality teaching (Open Society for West Africa, 2010, p. 3). Furthermore, disparities between schools in the urban and rural deprived schools are considerable (Table 7).

Table 7: Urban and rural schools; proficiency level Maths and English

Grade	Type of school	Maths		English	
		Min Comp	Proficiency	Min Comp	Proficiency
P3	Rural	42%	9%	56%	11%
	Urban	74%	29%	74%	29%
P6	Rural	44%	6%	69%	17%
	Urban	65%	21%	88%	46%

Source: Ministry of Education Ghana, National Education Assessment (NEA)

Table 7 shows that urban P6 pupils are more than three times as likely to achieve proficiency math scores than their rural counterparts (21% versus 6%). If we take a look at P3, pupils from urban schools achieved proficiency level scores on both the math test (22% versus 9%) and English test (29% versus 11%) (Ministry of Education, 2012, p 9). Despite increases in funding as well as efforts to improve equity in resource allocations, substantial differences remain. This is resulting in urban areas and other particular regions enjoying greater resource allocations including a higher number of qualified teachers, greater textbook availability, and greater funding levels per child.

## **2.4 Conclusions**

The decentralisation process has created specific roles and accountability mechanisms in Ghana. This study aims to define the characteristics of actors, therefore a clear image of each in education and their responsibilities and activities is important. For incorporating decentralization as a central concept it is really important to take the features and characteristics of this process in a national setting into account. As in the case of Ghana District Assemblies have become the main authority on a local level. This process of transferring responsibilities and authority to the local level could potentially enhance the participation of local people in decision-making. However, it can also lead to a situation where chiefs gain a more powerful status than the local authorities or may cause increased inequalities between regions, where the poorer regions will definitely start out with fewer resources and will not be able to compete with others. If decentralization brings this about it can have an influence of the stability and safety of a country.

This study focuses on primary education, the basis for further education and to learn basic skill, making it important that the quality is sufficient otherwise children cannot keep up in higher education. The government of Ghana initiated various policies to shape and improve the system of education including Compulsory Free Basic Education (FCUBE), Whole School Development and the introduction of the Capitation Grant. To examine quality education in the specific national context of Ghana it is important to be familiar with these and other major polices and features of the Ghanaian primary education system. This study aims to address the challenges that Ghana faces in enhancing and sustaining the quality of education. In this perspective Ghana is an interesting country because it shows, despite success in increasing enrollment ratio's, challenges in performance and learning conditions.

### Chapter 3. The Northern Region and TM: The study area within its regional setting characterised

In Ghana, as in many other African countries, there are disparities between the Southern and the Northern regions which emerge in geography and climate, poverty, and social services including education (Harsch, 2008).

In the current system of primary education delivery in Ghana a difference between the northern and southern regions remains present, in which the north continues to experience lower levels of educational performance. This chapter examines the characteristics of the Northern Region with an emphasis on the system of primary education. The study area is Tamale Metropolis, the capital city of the Northern Region. The metropolis has for seven years now been performing poorly at the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE). The second section addresses education in TM and what factors call for change.

#### 3.1 Northern Ghana

Ghana consists of ten regions including the Northern Region. The region is divided into 23 districts and occupies an area of about 70,383 square kilometers. The region’s climate is relatively dry with a single rainy season. The Northern Region has a population of 1820,806 inhabitants, which is about 9.8% of the total population. The population has a growth rate of 2.6%. Of the 1820,806 inhabitants in northern Ghana, 1337,016 people live in a rural locality. The region is predominantly rural with almost 95% of all settlements in the region containing fewer than 500 people (HIRD, 2009, p. 25). The age distribution depicts a very young population, with over 45% below the age of 15. The predominant group in the region is the Mole Dagbon (52%) and the predominant religion is Islam, which accounts for 56.2% of the whole region (Ghana Statistical Service, 2005, p 4). Table 8 provides characteristics of households in the Northern Region.

Table 8: Household characteristics the Northern Region Ghana

Indicator	Total
Number of households	245,617 households
People living in a rural residence	75.6%
Average household size	7.4 persons

Source: Ghana Statistical Service 2002.

Table 8 shows that there are 245,617 households in the Northern region of which 75.6% lives in a rural residence. The average household size is 7.4 persons indicating that families are quit large with various children. The Government of Ghana argues; “more should be done to improve the quality of housing and access to good drinking water and that economic opportunities in the north must be expanded”(Ghana Statistical Service, 2005, p 66). Table 9 provides information about the economic opportunities of people of 15 years and older in Greater Accra and the Northern Region.

*Table 9: Main economic activities Greater Accra and the Northern Region (15 years and +)*

	Northern Region	Greater Accra
Economically active (15 years+)	181,011	667,535
Professional and technical	59,104	167,388
Administrative and managerial	1,675	11,042
Agriculture, animal forestry	120,232	489,105

*Source: Ghana Statistical Service 2002.*

Table 9 shows that agriculture, hunting, and forestry are the main activities in the Northern Region (120,232 people of 15 years and older). This in contrast to Greater Accra where the main economic activities are in regard to professional and technical functions (167,388 people of 15 years and older). The lack of significant industrial activities in the Northern Region limits the economic opportunities available to young people which is resulting in a large-scale migration of the youth to the more industrialised regions in the south.

Historically and geographically, there are important distinctions between the regions in the northern and southern parts of Ghana. First of all northern Ghana’s geography. There is poorer agricultural land, lower rainfall, higher temperatures and it is more onshore. These features have been impediments to the overall development of the region. Despite Ghana’s relative prosperity, poverty remains pervasive in the country’s three northern regions, which now account for half of Ghana’s population living under the poverty line (UNICEF,2008). Similar to other countries in West Africa, where numerous social tensions tend to crystallise in violent conflicts between ethnic groups, it is important for Ghana to focus on the northern regions to secure unity and stability (CRISE, 2006).

For example, Nigeria and Ghana are both experiencing a socio-economic divide between the north and the south. Muslims are predominantly living in the north and Christians in the south. However, in Ghana the level of inequality has generally remained stable, which is contrary to the situation in Nigeria where group inequalities have been more explicit and have led to numerous conflicts (Mancini, 2009, p. 5).

The north and south divide is also reflected in Ghana's history of education. Until the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, education in Ghana had an informal character and took place within the household. Then, formal educational systems were initiated by the colonial powers. Missionaries launched primary schools at the coast of Ghana and in 1907 the first missionary school was opened in southern Ghana. Nevertheless, establishing an educational system was focused on the south, creating a gap between the two regions. The north was mainly seen as a source of human labour for the benefit of the south of Ghana. De Lange argues that after nearly twenty years of effective colonial rule, the British administration had only established four schools in the Northern Region. By 1922, the total enrolment in these schools was 243 children from a population estimated at 631,139 of whom at least a third would have been children of school-going age (De Lange, 2007, p. 36).

During colonial times, broadening access was done selectively to ensure that quality was not undermined. This left the Northern Region with its population density unattended to. After Ghana's independence, education was placed high on the political agenda, resulting in various policies to improve education. One of the major policies is the provision of free compulsory basic education. During this period, a special scholarship was established to support people from the Northern Region going to school. If we take a look at the current primary school attendance in the north and south of Ghana, there is still a visible difference between the regions. The north continues to experience lower levels of educational performance.

### **3.2 Primary education Northern Region**

Educational access in the northern regions of Ghana is substantially smaller than in the regions of the south. Various topics define the lower levels of access in northern Ghana, including the socio-economic status of households, a lack of teachers in rural areas, the nature of communal settlements, and higher level of teacher absenteeism. In the Northern Region, primary school net attendance for 2006 was 49.7% against 80.1% for Greater Accra (CARE, 2007, p. 59).



### **3.2.1 Primary education delivery: supply and demand side**

Rural and remotely located schools show significantly lower results than others. Especially in the Northern Region there are poorer learning conditions, such as large classes with 70 or more students and a large amount of untrained teachers. Furthermore, a significant proportion of schools does not own textbooks nor a sufficient number of textbooks (Ministry of Education Ghana, 2012, p 10). Therefore, the financial resources of a region start to play an important role.

*Table 10: Per unit expenditure by region 2009*

	Annual per district expenditure	% difference from the national average
Ashanti	\$3578	6%
Central	\$3478	3%
Greater Accra	\$4305	28%
Northern	\$3042	-10%
Upper East	\$3129	-7%

*Source: World Bank 2011*

Table 10 shows that expenditure in the Northern Region lags behind the national average by -10%. Fewer resources per child are allocated to the regions in which the majority of deprived districts are located. An important input for the quality of education, particularly in the deprived districts, is the percentage of the teaching force that has actually qualified themselves as teachers. The number of trained teachers is one of the most important factors in increasing learning outcomes. Students taught by educated teachers scored significantly better academic results than those taught by uneducated teachers (MOES, 2012, p 13). As a short-term response, the government introduced the selection of 24,000 serving teachers for upgrading their qualifications and the recruitment of 33,000 youth, under the Community Teaching Assistance Module of the National Youth Employment Programme, as teaching assistants in the most rural deprived areas.

In Ghana, teacher absenteeism, especially in rural schools, has been a recurring concern for educational authorities (EDQUAL, 2004, p 10). The remoteness of rural schools in the Northern Region contributes to both lower teacher motivation to be deployed to the area and to the reality of major infrastructural deficiencies caused by poor health conditions, lack of electricity, limited transport, and a lack of personal development opportunities. Table 11 shows that there are large differences between the percentages of qualified teachers at a national level and the more rural deprived regions.

Table 11 : Primary school qualified teachers as percentage of teaching force

% of qualified teachers	2003/2004	2004/2005	2006/2007
National	73.9	72.4	70.8
Northern Region	52.2	51.6	54.3

Source: UNICEF (2007)

Table 11 shows that in 2006/2007 on the national level 70.8% of the teachers was trained. This is in contrast to the Northern Region of which only 54.3% of the teachers is trained. This suggests that the Northern Region must be accorded special attention to bring its level of qualified teachers up to the national standard and that teachers must be given special incentives to encourage them to accept a position in the Northern Region. This will support the Northern Region in its attempt to enhance performance levels and to allow children in the region an equal chance in learning.

### 3.3 Tamale Metropolis

#### 3.3.1 Characteristics

Ghana is divided into 110 districts of which Ghana's Northern Region consists of eighteen districts. Each district is represented in an Assembly and these can be metropolitan (population over 250,000), municipal (population over 95,000) or district (population 75,000 and over). Tamale Metropolis (TM) has a population of 350,000 people and is thus indicated as a metropolis. TM was founded in 1907 to function as an administrative centre for the northern territories. Currently, it is the capital city of the Northern Region (Figure 12).

Figure 12: Tamale, capital city of the Northern Region



Source: Fieldwork 2012

The city is situated 200 km south of Burkina Faso’s border and lies approximately 500 km north of the coast. TM is one of the fastest growing cities in West Africa and the fourth largest city in Ghana. The city accounts for 16% of the total population in northern Ghana (World Development Report, 2006). The attraction of the city to many people lies in the rapid increase in the number of small shops, stalls, banks, and markets. The city continues to grow into an economic centre. The main activities are trading and farming, only a small percentage of people work in the formal sector (UNHabitat, 2009, p: 6).

TM consists of urban and rural areas. The disparity between urban areas and the surrounding rural areas is highly apparent. Moving away of the city centre to the smaller communities a transition simultaneously occurs to scarcer paved roads, electricity, running water, health facilities, and local shops. In these rural communities 2.000 to 4.000 people live on average and the most common type of housing is a compound in the form of a triangle including 4 – 6 round houses.

*Table 12: Type of dwelling TM*

Dwellings	Number
Detached house	6142
Semi-detached house	2827
Flat/apartment	946
Rooms (compound)	31,601
Hut/buildings (same compound)	3305

*Source: Ghana districts (2010)*

Table 12 shows that most of the people (31,601) live in compounds. Subsequently, a detached house is the most common type of dwelling in which 6142 of the people live. The compound houses are often made of mud and thatch and are located in the rural areas. This type of housing is in contrast to the urban areas of TM, where most of the houses are made of bricks.

**3.3.1 Primary education in the study area**

The main activities of the TMA are legislation, policy, budgeting, implementation, coordination, and supervision. In regard to education, the TMA has defined the following objective for educational delivery: “To provide relevant education, in collaboration with civil society organizations and other stakeholders in all spheres of life, irrespective of tribe, religious affiliation or gender/sex, to enable the child to acquire skills that develop wholly the individual to reduce poverty and promote socio-economic growth in the

Metropolis” (UNHabitat, 2009, p: 11). The TMA has ten departments of which one is focused on education, the TMEO. The activities of this department are teaching and learning in schools, regulations and educational policies, infrastructure, and necessary logistics. The Education Units are other important actors in educational delivery in TM. Before the process of decentralization they delivered primary education, but they are now placed under the structure of Ghana Education Service. Primary schools, which are faith-based, report to the Education Unit to which they belong.

Currently, there are 742 basic school within the metropolis, including 267 primary schools, 112 Junior High schools and 10 Senior High Schools. Table 13 provides information on the total enrolment of primary school children.

*Table 13: Enrolment TM*

	Total enrolment	Boys	Girls
Primary schools Tamale Metropolis	56.165	35.921	32.826

*Source: Fieldwork 2012*

In TM, the total enrolment is 56.165 children of which 35.921 are boys and 32.826 are girls (Table 13). There are 236 primary schools, of which 136 are indicated as primary schools that are in need of construction and maintenance. The situation regarding furniture is highly inadequate for both teachers and pupils. Furthermore, illiteracy rates are high for the Northern Region and indicated at 76.2% by the latest census of 2000 (UNHabitat, 2009, p: 9). For seven years now, TM has been performing poorly at the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) (Ghana Districts, 2010). Table 14 provides information about the BECE results in the period 2004 – 2010.

*Table 14 : BCE results TM*

Year	Place in Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE)
2004	60th
2005	69th
2006	88th
2007	91st
2008	89th
2009	91st
2010	103rd

*Source: Ghana Districts (2010)*

In total, there are 134 Metropolitan/District Assemblies in Ghana which are participating in the BECE. In 2004, TM obtained the 60<sup>th</sup> place in the BECE and over the years, its results have dropped only further. In 2010, TM obtained the 103<sup>rd</sup> place out of 134 Metropolitan/Districts in Ghana (Table 14). The Mayor of Tamale, Alhaji Abudulai Harruna Friday, argues: "The 91st and 89th positions of Tamale in the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) of 2007 and 2008 respectively are unacceptable and therefore everything must be done to change the situation for the better." (Kuyini, 2011). In TM high percentages of untrained teachers is indicated as a major constraining factor in order to enhance the performance of children. Table 15 shows the increase in the number of unqualified teachers in TM in the period 2000-2006.

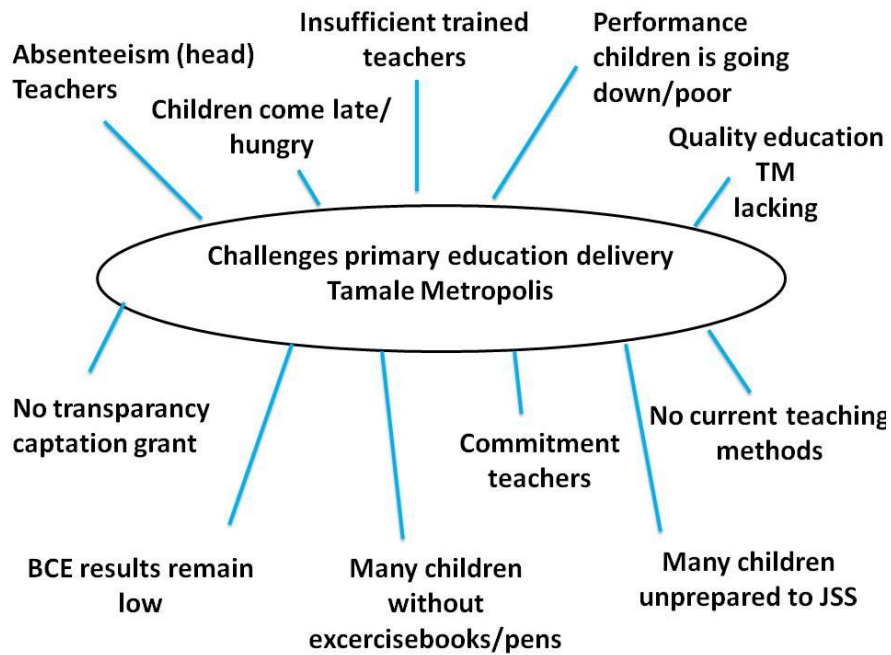
Table 15: Percentage of untrained teachers

Year	Trained teachers	Untrained teachers	% trained teachers	% Untrained teachers
2000/2001	1239	163	88.4	11.6
2001/2002	1147	243	82.5	17.4
2002/2003	1189	237	83.4	16.6
2003/2004	1331	284	82.4	17.6
2004/2005	1221	305	80.1	20.0
2005/2006	1296	349	78.8	21.2

Source: Ghana Districts (2001)

During the period of 2000 – 2006 the percentage of untrained teachers grew from 11.6% in 2001/2002 up to 21.2% in 2005/2006 (Table 15). One of the interventions to address the high percentage of untrained teachers and the performance of children has been a meeting of the Metropolitan Director of Education with all primary school principals and teachers during various occasions in the various neighborhoods of the city. The key message of the meeting is focused on the issue of low quality educational delivery in Tamale Metropolis and in what way stakeholders need to contribute to change the current situation. Figure 13 shows the major components of the message forwarded to the principals and teachers by their Metropolitan Director of Education (Source: Fieldwork 2012).

Figure 13: Meeting Metropolitan Education Unit and classroom teachers



Source: Fieldwork 2012

During the meeting, the absenteeism of teachers, the insufficient number of trained teachers, and the lack of teaching and learning materials were indicated as the most pressing challenges by the Metropolitan Director of Education.

### 3.4 The host organisation ASEG

This research has been conducted in collaboration with the Alliance for Strengthening Education in Ghana (ASEG). It is a non-governmental organisation (NGO) based in Tamale. ASEG is currently identifying projects in the northern part of Ghana. It was established in 2009 as an alliance of Christian non-governmental organisations in educational delivery. The aims and objectives of the organisation are:

- To contribute to improve access and quality of basic education, equally for girls and children with special educational needs as well as other marginalized groups in Ghana.
- To cooperate with other organizations in a strong and open network that is able to keep duty bearers in education accountable for access to quality education and to influence policy development for education in Ghana.
- To establish a strong network of partners.
- To facilitate the capacity building of members of the alliance.

The Ghana Alliance for Strengthening Education (ASEG) aims at solidifying efforts in education through cooperation with relevant partners. ASEG consists of Dutch and Ghanaian NGO's, which choose to work together in a network to be able to complement and reinforce each other. In Ghana, the ASEG alliance consists of Presbyterian Education Unit (PCG), Northern Network Education Development (NNED), Ghana Institute for Languages, Literacy and Bible Translation (GILLBT), Assemblies of God Relief and Development Services (AGREDS), and Literacy through development (LDP). In regard to the Netherlands, Edukans is the ASEG's partner in funding.

In the GPRS of Ghana there is stated that the quality of education has suffered under the current expansions. In the case of basic education for all, the government has undertaken not only to meet the numerical targets of the MDG's but also to return the quality that was lost back into education that is offered to children in deprived and rural areas (Government of Ghana, 2005, p:22). ASEG defines its contribution to the quality of education in northern Ghana by combining its expertise, past experiences, and resources. The NGO was established in response to the rising need for NGO's to work together to strengthen their expertise and impact. Its STAR school model is now used as a monitoring tool and can unite the various NGO's in the network to enhance the quality of education of primary schools. The model defines indicators in the learning environment, school management, community involvement, teaching, and learning. All partners can bring their expertise together on one or more of these indicators. ASEG's focus upon support to primary education has resulted in efforts made to ten focus schools. After the first year, ASEG will expand its support to a larger number of primary schools and will eventually also support Junior Secondary Schools (JSS).

### **3.5 Conclusions**

In Ghana, the divide between the southern and northern Region emerges in reference to levels of poverty, geographical context, and social services. The latter includes education, in which the Northern Region takes on a disadvantaged position, which is mostly reflected in a high percentage of untrained teachers. This disadvantage is highly apparent in the study area. In the meeting of the Education Director and teachers, the need for change was central. I think that change is an urgent matter for TM, because it needs to overcome so many barriers which constrain quality and the learning performance of the children in the region. In order to achieve this, it is important to focus on factors that can guarantee quality in association with access to education, especially when it comes down to the study area, a city that is growing so rapidly and attracts many people from the Northern Region. The quality of the current education system must be enhanced to secure high levels of quality for future schools and pupils.

## Chapter 4. Methodology

"By combining multiple observers, theories, methods, and empirical materials researchers can hope to overcome the weakness or intrinsic biases and the problems that come from single-method, single-observer, single-theory studies." (Roulston, 2010).

In the first three chapters of this thesis, the theoretical and geographical framework of the study have been presented. This chapter will now introduce the research objective, the main research question and its sub-questions. In order to address the research objective in an adequate manner, certain factors of importance have to be defined: Which research methods are most suitable to give an answer to the main research question? How are the central concepts put into practice? How can the research objective be captured in a conceptual model? This chapter addresses all these issues in order to set up an explorative study.

### 4.1 Research

#### 4.1.1 Research objective

The objective of this research is to uncover the characteristics and role of actors primary to education and to define the faced challenges in the delivery of quality education. This focus here lies on Tamale Metropolis in order to gather information on best practices. The main question that this research thus aims to answer:

*What are the characteristics of actors in the delivery of quality primary education in Tamale Metropolis? And what challenges are faced in enhancing the quality of primary education?*

In order to be able to answer the main question, three sub-questions have been defined. These are illustrated below.

- What are the characteristics and responsibilities of actors in delivering quality primary education in Tamale Metropolis?

The system of educational delivery in the study area consists of various actors. This study will define the responsibilities of these actors and how they relate to each other. Furthermore, the activities of each actor in primary education delivery will be identified. This data will be shown in various figures in order to gain a full understanding of the features of and relations in education on a local level.

- Which challenges are faced in the delivery of quality primary education?

The delivery of quality education can be constrained by various factors. This chapter will present the challenges determined by the various actors, in order to gain insights into



the situation of educational delivery in the study area. The supply and demand side of educational delivery are taken into account while defining these challenges.

- To what extent do the challenges for enhancing the quality of education differ between the Northern and Southern region and in urban and rural areas?

In Ghana there is a divide between the Northern and Southern region which emerges in a variety of factors. One of them is education and for the sake of comparison, schools in Greater Accra are also included in this study. Furthermore, primary schools are situated in urban and rural areas and therefore delivery of education occurs in very different contexts. This makes it interesting to examine challenges faced by urban and rural schools.

#### **4.1.2 Putting into practice and limitations of the study**

The aim of this study is to conduct an explorative study. As discussed in the first chapter, the quality of education is a complex concept with many related indicators and dimensions. As also indicated in Chapter 1, the context of a primary school is built up out of three inter-related enabling environments: policy, the school, the home, and the community environment (Figure 5 ). The concept of quality education has been put into practice by the UNESCO's framework (Figure 4) for understanding educational quality. This framework shows how quality education entails various indicators relating to a wide number of dimensions. This study will focus on the indicators of the enabling inputs dimension, primarily: teaching and learning materials, physical infrastructure and facilities, and human resources. Edukans has developed the STAR school model to identify quality education on primary schools. The STAR model can be used to inform all stakeholders about the issues, challenges, successes and progress in a school. The model is based on UNESCO's framework for understanding quality education (Figure 4). The model takes the school as the starting point for quality education and has the following five dimensions:

- an adequate, safe learning environment (infrastructure & facilities, accessibility)
- pupils learning in an effective and joyful way (relevant knowledge, skills, attitudes)
- qualified teachers teaching effectively, with high commitment (knowledge, skills, attitudes)
- capable school management, with vision, monitoring capacities and maintaining good relations with households, communities and other stakeholders
- parent and community involvement in governance of the school (and not incidentally, when work has to be done)

These five dimensions have been incorporated in the research while defining the data collection methods. As for instance during observations wherefore the indicators of the learning environment have been addressed for identification of the physical infrastructure.

#### **4.1.3 Respondents and methods**

Triangulation in research is important in ensuring that various opinions and viewpoints are taken into account. Roulston stresses the importance of triangulation by arguing that: *"By combining multiple observers, theories, methods, and empirical materials researchers can hope to overcome the weakness or intrinsic biases and the problems that come from single-method, single-observer, single-theory studies."* (Roulston, 2010). The challenges expressed by actors of quality education will be taken into account from various perspectives on either side of the the supply and demand chain. In order to incorporate the perspectives of these actors, the following data collection methods have been applied: field mapping, (semi-) structured interviews, focus group discussions, observations, and questionnaires. Each methodology will be introduced below and shortly discussed in regard to its relevance to this thesis.

- Field mapping of actors in Tamale Metropolis

The aim of field mapping is to construct an organization chart which shows the majorly involved actors in educational delivery in the study area including their features, activities, and relationships. By means of using various organization charts the various relationships between for instance the TMEO and Education Units can be examined in more detail.

- Observations physical infrastructure and teaching and learning

One of the aforementioned quality indicators, physical infrastructure, has been observed in the selected primary schools for the sake of this research. Examples are sanitary facilities, conditions of the school building, availability and quality of furniture, and the number of classrooms. The dimension of the 'learning environment' of the STAR school model has been used to collect the data.

- Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews have been conducted with actors in primary education delivery. The main objective of these interviews was to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the challenges expressed by various actors. The major contribution of these interviews has been to gain insights into the actual processes and reasoning behind

the observations that has been done at the primary schools and behind the answers taken from the questionnaires.

- Questionnaire teachers

The process of teaching and learning was observed in the classroom by using the STAR school model. Nevertheless, in order to gain insights into teaching and learning from the perspective and challenges expressed by teachers, a questionnaire for the teachers of P1 – P6 has been conducted. It also presented information about factors such as the frequency of homework and individual assignments. This information was more difficult to capture by observations than through a questionnaire.

- Focus group discussion

Focus group discussions with the PTA/SMC of a primary school have been organised. A benefit of this type of research is that a large number of people can be reached. In regard to the community, this proved to be convenient because many of the people are involved actively in a primary school and therefore a large group of representatives from the community could be included in this study.

Table 16 provides an overview of the different respondents and the data collection methodologies used for them. The main focus lay on conducting semi-structured interviews and observations of the learning environment.

*Table 16: Overview respondents and methodologies*

Type of methodology	Respondents	Total
Semi-structured interviews	TMEO, Education Units, principals, teachers, civil society organisations	25
Observations STAR school model)	Primary schools Northern Region and Greater Accra	28
Questionnaire teachers	Primary school teachers P1 – P6 study area	50
Focus group discussion	PTA/SMC meeting	3

*Source: Fieldwork 2012*

Based upon the literature and the contextual outline of this study, the following assumptions were able to be formulated:

- Clearly defined roles and responsibilities of the actors will have a positive effect on the quality of primary education.
- Available information/data on the quality of a primary school can enhance the capacities of actors to claim good quality education.

- Illiteracy of a community can have a determining influence on whether the community is able to enhance its involvement in school governance.
- The most pressing challenges will be defined in regard to the number of qualified and unqualified teachers and the supply of textbooks.
- Primary schools in Greater Accra and the Northern Region will show disparities during observations in the schools.

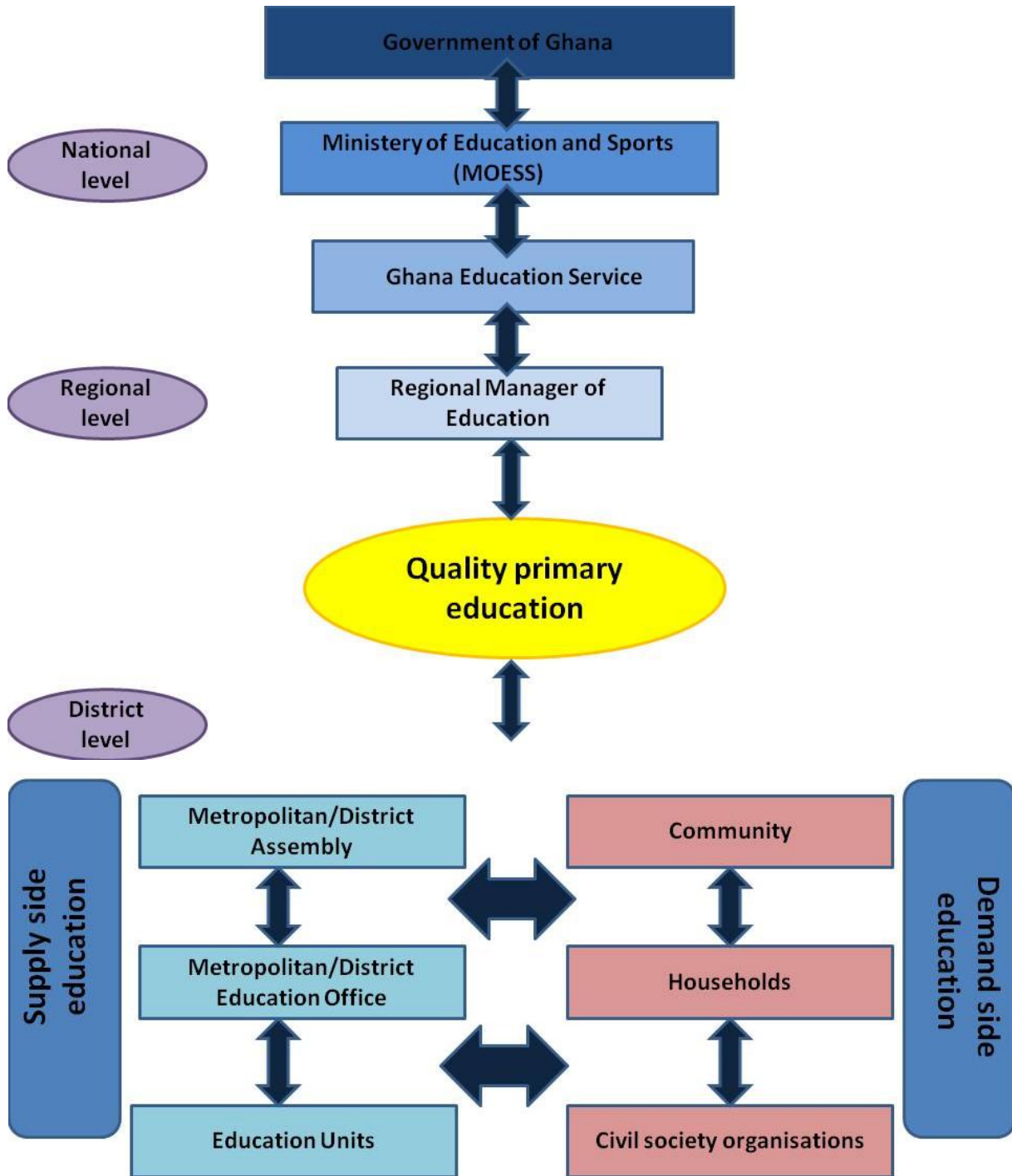
For this study, certain limitations can be defined, of which one applies to the scope of selection of schools. There are 234 primary schools in the study area, of which nine primary schools have been selected. This study tries to illustrate the current status of primary education delivery in the northern parts Ghana and its most pressing challenges and does not intend to present data which can be generalised to refer all primary schools in Ghana. The selection of a small number of primary schools for this study has been based on the ambition to spend sufficient time becoming familiar with the learning environment of these schools, the daily challenges they face and to incorporate as many perspectives of the various actors as possible.

Taking the specific type of primary schools into consideration, this study only includes religion-based primary schools in which both the TMEO and Education Units play a supervising role. If I were to analyse educational delivery without the involvement of an Education Unit, it would have been valuable to also include Assembly schools. Furthermore, during the research period, there have been three and a half weeks of school holiday, two weeks of exams, and various leisure days due to Independence Day and sports days. The effect of this leisure time has been that there was less time for school visits and for arranging meetings with the PTA/SMC-members. This was slightly unfortunate because the more days spent at the primary schools, the more I could have gathered an even more comprehensive notion about the challenges that faced a primary school.

## **4.2 Conceptual model**

The conceptual model (figure 14) shows the system of primary education seen from Ghana's national, regional and district level.

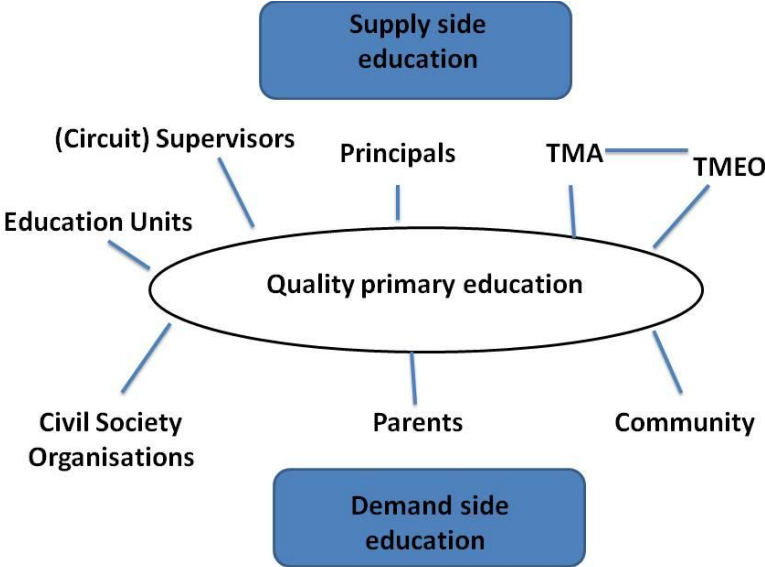
Figure 14: Conceptual model



Source: Fieldwork 2012

Encircling the central concept of quality education, the involved actors in education are shown. Each environment contributes to the quality of education in collaboration with other environments (EDQUAL, 2010, p 1). Therefore, this study focuses on both the quality dimensions in a primary school as well as its broader context by also including the TMEO, Education Units, community, and civil society organisations. The upcoming empirical chapters of this thesis will present findings about the supply and demand side. These sides of educational delivery in relation to their various actors in educational delivery are shown by figure 15.

Figure 15: Supply and demand side educational delivery



Source: Fieldwork 2012

**4.3 Selection of study areas and primary schools**

The main study area is Tamale Metropolis, which also includes various rural communities. Alliance for Strengthening Education Ghana (ASEG), the partner organisation of this study, has selected the Northern Region to establish programmes in support of primary schools. The Greater Accra region is included in this study for the sake of comparison between education delivery in the Southern and Northern Region.

As explained in more detail in chapter 7, there are disparities in education in the Southern and Northern Region of Ghana. However, it is important to take into account that the focus in this study lies on Tamale Metropolis and that for Greater Accra only observations of the physical infrastructure and basic indicators have been collected. Table 17 provides information about the location of the selected primary schools, either in urban or rural areas. Greater Accra is also included in this overview to be able to compare the findings of the study area.

Table 17: Selection of primary schools

Region	Urban Schools	Rural schools
Northern Region	Tamale Presby Primary, Nyohini Primary A, Nyohini Primary B, Exptal Primary and Kanville Primary, Gambaga Primary	Kpanvo, Bagliga, Kotingli Nyerezee, Langbinsi, Dagriboagro, Langbina and Zogligy primary schools
Greater Accra	AYI Mensah Primary, Tokpo Primary, Djorkpo Primary, Lubuse Primary, Osuwem Primary, Kasunya Primary, Natriku Primary	Abokobi Primary, Haatso Primary, WASS Experimental I, WASS Experimental II, Otinibi Primary, Redco Primary 1, Redco Primary II, Babayra Primary I, Babayra Primary II

Source: Fieldwork 2012

As table 17 shows this study tries to involve an equal number of schools in Greater Accra and the Northern Region just as an equal number of urban and rural schools. Comparing findings can provide insights into the scope of the uncovered challenges and to what extent they occur within other schools.

#### 4.4 Conclusions

Prior to leaving to the area of study it is important to reflect upon the type of research and the data collection methods. I chose for qualitative research to expose the underlying causes of insufficient quality on schools by interacting with the main actors in education . During the entire period of research, the main objective and (sub) questions are important to take into consideration. During the time in the study area there are so many factors that play an influencing role. It is important to incorporate them but only in a way where you are not too much distracted of the focus of your research. Therefore, it is important to continuously reflect upon the objective and the (sub) questions. Defining the limitations of the study made me think about the scope of my research and whether the selection of nine primary schools in the study area would be sufficient. Some limitations are only encountered in the field, as in my case, the many free days for primary school children. In the subsequent empirical chapters 5,6 and 7 the main findings of this study will be presented.

# Chapter 5. Characteristics and responsibilities of actors in the delivery of primary education in Tamale Metropolis

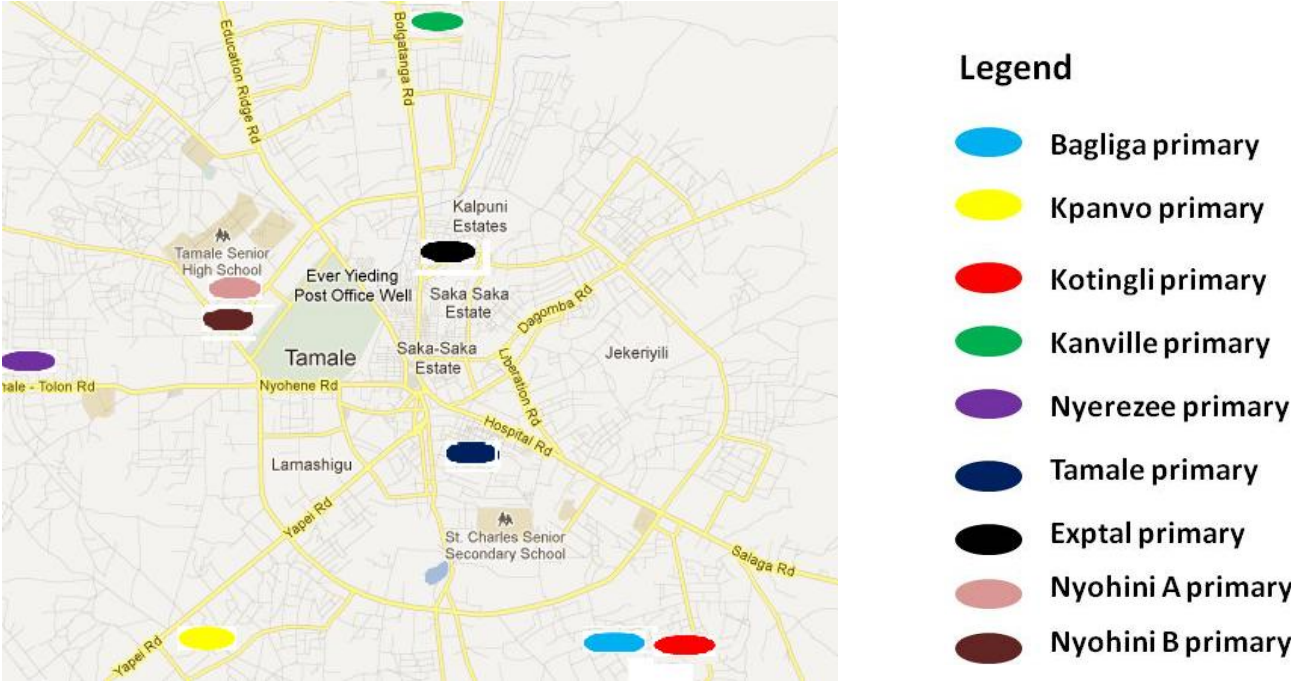
“The Ministry, GES and schools will make the most efficient use of scarce resources within clearly defined roles that will develop a new culture of service, support and mutual trust” (Ministry of Education Ghana, 2003, p 24).

In the study area, there are 267 primary schools and the major actors involved therein are the TMEO, Education Units, principals, teachers, community, and civil society organizations. The implementation of educational delivery is performed daily and due to decentralization the TMEO, Education Units, and principals have enhanced roles in reporting, decision-making, and addressing each other on their responsibilities. This raises some important questions to understanding education within the current context of the study area: How does the system of education in TM work in practice? What are the characteristics of the actors involved? How do actors inform each other and hold each other accountable? In what kind of activities are they participating?

## 5.1 Primary education delivery study area

Figure 16 shows a map of the study area with the nine schools included in this study.

Figure 16: Map TM and the nine primary schools



Source: Fieldwork 2012



Primary schools Nyohini A and B, Kanville, Exptal, en Banvim are situated in the urban areas and more specifically in the centre of their towns. Nyerezee, Kotingli, Kpanvo, and Bagliga are located in the rural areas of Tamale. Table 18 illustrates the enrolment, the number of boys and girls in the schools, and the location of the school in either an urban or rural area.

*Table 18: Overview selected primary schools*

Primary school	School enrolment	Boys	Girls	Urban/rural
Tamale Presby Primary	451	236	215	Urban
Nyohini Presby Primary "B"	743	368	375	Urban
Nyohini Presby Primary "B"	597	296	301	Urban
Kanville Presby Primary	843	412	431	Urban
Exptal. Presby Primary	735	403	332	Urban
Bamvim Presby Primary	480	257	223	Urban
Nyerezee Presby Primary A	289	182	107	Rural
Kpanvo Presby Primary	284	136	148	Rural
Bagliga Presby Primary	248	144	104	Rural
Kotingli Presby Primary	321	183	138	Rural

*Source: Fieldwork 2012*

Table 18 indicates higher enrolment ratio's for the primary schools in urban areas on average 642 children. In rural areas, the enrolment ratio is on average 286 children. It is furthermore to pay attention to the gender aspect in these statistics. On average, the number of boys in school is slightly higher than the number of girls. In order to provide additional detailed information about the features of primary education delivery in the study area, Annex 1 shows an overview of the physical infrastructure of the nine selected primary schools. In all of these schools, the conditions of the school building is moderate. The building structure is not in good shape and regular maintenance is lacking. Every primary school seems to have enough classrooms, except for Bagliga primary school, which only has three classrooms available for P1 – P6. In every classroom, a blackboard is available, but there are often not enough tables and benches for all the children. This fact applies in particular to the schools with high enrolment ratio's, including Nyohini A and B, Kanville, Experimental Presby, and Tamale Presby primary schools.

For determining the levels of quality education, it is essential to take other matters into account as well, such as the involvement of and relations within the school's direct community (Table 19).

Table 19: Presence PTA/SMC primary schools

Primary school	PTA	SMC
Nyohini A	7	7
Nyohini B	5	3
Kanville	7	5
Experimental	5	5
Tamale Primary	4	5
Nyerezee	7	6
Bagliga	7	9
Kpanvo	7	9
Kotingli	9	9
Total	58	58

Source: Fieldwork 2012

On average, a PTA consists of six members. To become a member of a PTA community, a person needs to have children going to that particular school. A SMC also consists of on average six members and they are people who are influential within the community (Table 19). Thus, for a SMC-member it is not a requirement to have children going to school in that district. In some of the selected schools, there were one or two women involved in a PTA or SMC, but in most there were no female members at all. This is quite remarkable considering at PTA- meetings at three out of nine schools one-third of the attendees turned out to be women.

On average, both the PTA and SMC hold at least four meetings per year. In reference to all schools in this study, the PTA and SMC were mainly involved in the construction of classrooms or the maintenance of the school building and its furniture. In schools with a school feeding programme, the community was also involved in preparing and distributing the food. In regard to the training needs, these are mainly focused upon literacy training and capacity building. The rural communities, particularly, suffer illiteracy and this explains the cry for additional training. PTA members originating from rural areas expressed that there are other needs stemming from their living situations that must also be tended to, because they are visibly constraining their capacities. Clear examples are a lack of health clinics, their dependence on subsistence farming, and an absence of running water and electricity.

## 5.2 Actors in education

The implementation of educational delivery is performed by various actors in the study area. This chapter, and particularly the following paragraph, focuses on the actors and

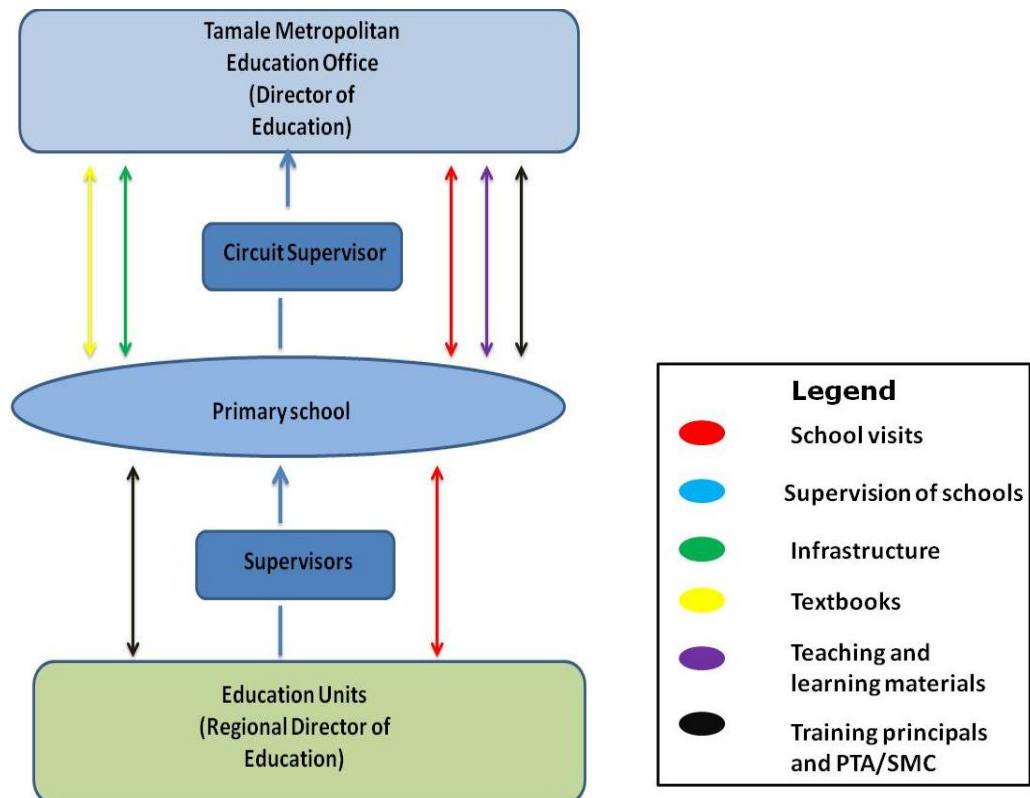
defines their characteristic features, activities, and their relations to each other. Annex 2 shows the activities of each actor within the educational system. If a box is crossed, it indicates that actors are involved in that specific activity. The following sections provide more detailed information about each actor and their activities.

### **5.2.1 TMEO, Education Units and principals**

There are two main bodies responsible for educational delivery in the study area. First, the Metropolitan Assembly holds a responsibility to build, equip, and maintain primary schools. To achieve this goal, a TMEO has been established to ensure effective teaching and learning, access and quality of education in public and private schools. Tamale Metropolitan (TM) is divided into 22 circuits and each circuit had a supervisor who visits and monitors the primary schools located within that circuit. Circuit supervisors who visit the primary schools disregard the nature of the primary school, whether it is a religion-based school or a metropolitan school. It is the Metropolitan Director of Education who performs a reporting and advising role towards the Tamale Metropolitan Chief Executive about education in Tamale Metropolitan. They also both meet in the Metropolitan Education Oversight Committee (DEOC) a legal body responsible for ensuring quality education and appropriate logistics of supplies provided to schools by the GES.

Education Units came into existence through the work of missionaries who established church schools. During the foundation of the school system in Ghana, the religious bodies had agreed with the government upon Education Units. These established a system of secular education in Ghana, consisting of religion-based primary schools and the TMA primary schools. In Tamale, as well as in Ghana as a whole, there is a parallel system of education consisting of assembly and religion-based primary schools. Education Units supervise education at primary schools that have the same faith as the Unit. The main objective of the Education Units is to oversee primary schools and to report about progress and challenges to the TMEO. The regional managers of each Education Unit come together in the Association Conference of Managers of Education Units (COMEU) to discuss relevant issues, occurring problems, and strategies in educational delivery and to lobby together for a fair share of the resources distributed by the Regional Education Office. Figure 17 shows the activities of the TMEO and the Education Units in TM in a faith based primary school.

Figure 17: Activities of the TMEO and Education Units

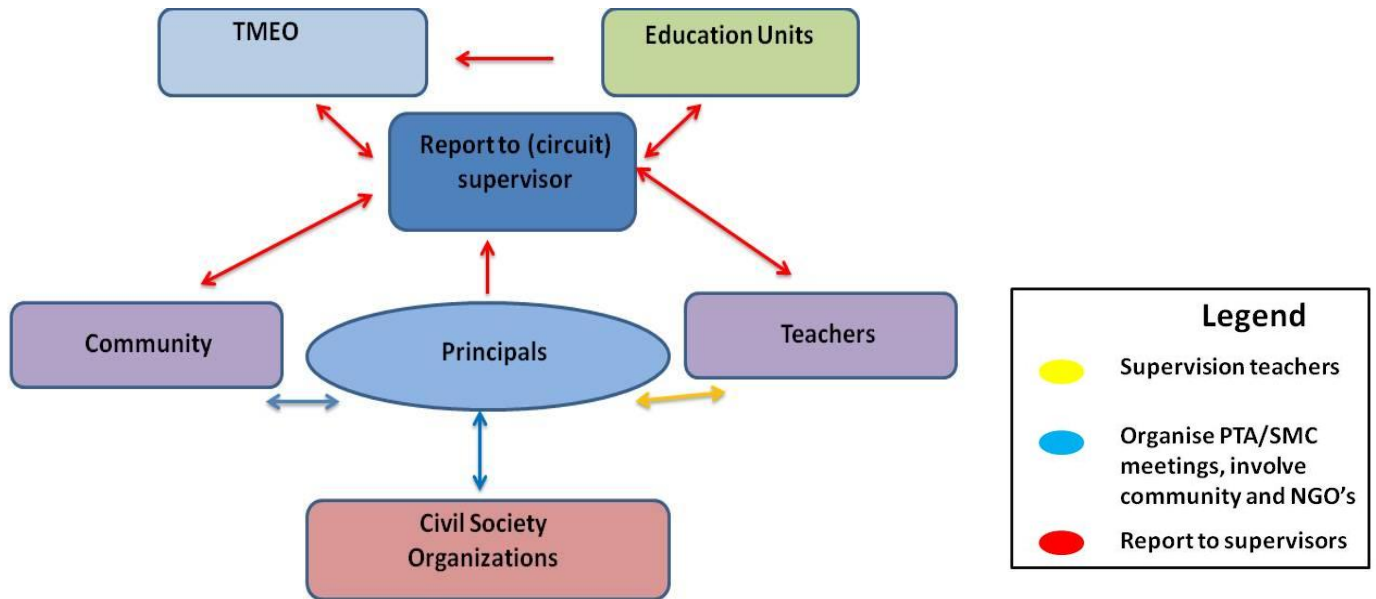


Source: Fieldwork 2012

Both the Education Unit and TMEO are in a dialogue with the principals, they observe in classrooms and peruse through lesson notes, registers, and attendance lists. The provision of textbooks and infrastructure explicitly falls under the responsibility of the TMA. The Education Units only occasionally give support when they receive funding from the church. Teaching and learning materials are assumed as expenditure for households just like school uniforms.

Finally, both the TMEO and the Education Units are involved in hiring teachers and arranging transfers. Nevertheless, it is important to point out that the Education Unit can only post and transfer teachers after they receive an approval from the TMEO. The training of principals is performed by either of the institutions, depending on whether there are funds available. The principal of a school is mostly involved in supervision and reporting activities. In figure 18 the central role of principals in reporting on school activities to the TMEO, Education Units, and the community is shown.

Figure 18: Central role of principals in education



Source: Fieldwork 2012

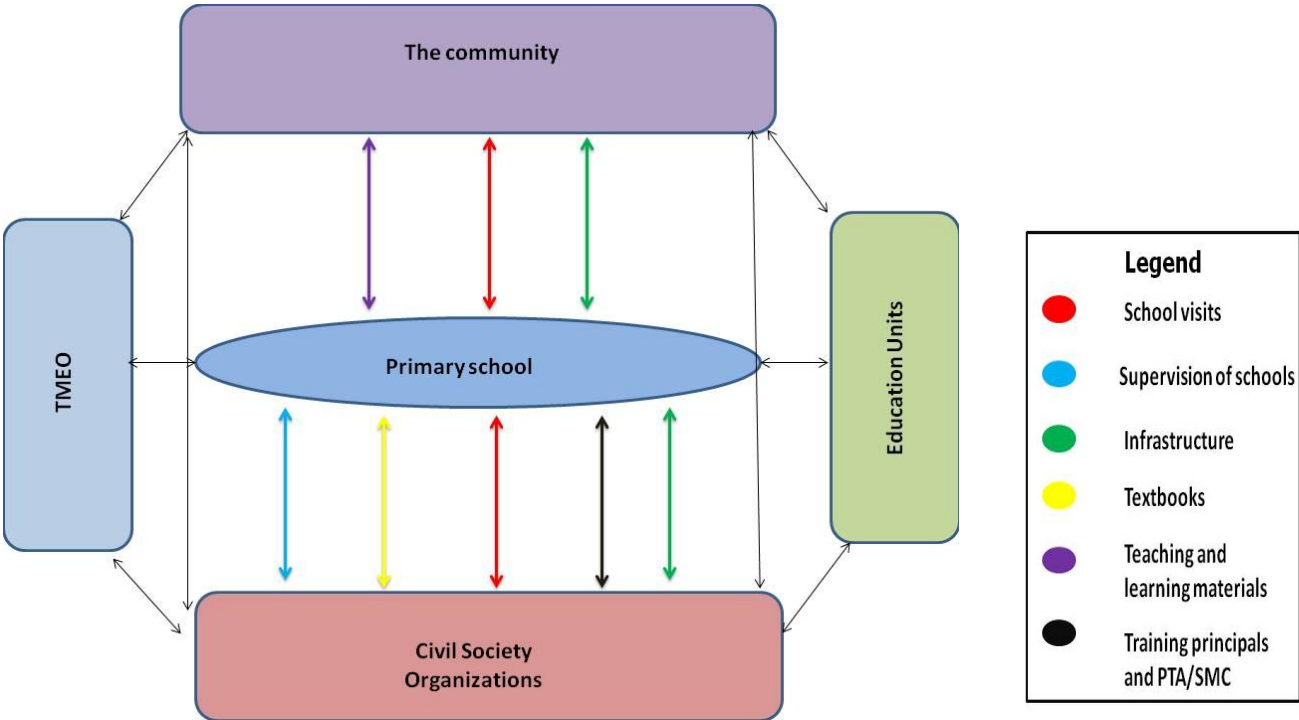
If there are any urgent matters in regard to attendance of teachers, infrastructure or the availability of textbooks, it is the principal's duty to report these to the (circuit) supervisors. A principal of a religion-based primary school reports to either the supervisor of the Education Unit or to the circuit supervisor of the Tamale Metropolitan Education Office. Additionally, the principal performs a facilitating role in organizing PTA/SMC-meetings and the involvement of the community in the governance of a primary school. For a principal, it is also of the utmost importance to maintain close relationships with civil society organisations to create extra support and training opportunities for the primary school. Finally, it is the principal who plays an important role in classroom management, including direct supervision of teachers and observation of teaching and learning activities in the classroom.

### 5.2.2 Civil society organisations and communities

The community and civil society organisations also play an important role in the delivery of quality primary education. In the study area, the community either lives in the rural areas outside the town centre or within the urban centre of Tamale. The majority of these communities is involved in farming activities. In these villages, there is no running water or electricity available and the roads are unpaved. Other facilities such as health clinics and shops are lacking as well.

On average, around 2.000 to 4.000 people are living in the villages of the study area and their type of housing is a triangular shaped compound with 4 – 6 round houses. Figure 16 provides a map of TM and the nine schools in the study area. Every primary school in TM is represented by a PTA to involve the community in school governance. Many of the civil society organisations have programmes or projects linked to the educational sector. The majority of the civil society organisations has settled its headquarters in TM, but they often operate in the whole Northern Region. In which activities civil society organisations and the communities are involved in primary education delivery can be viewed in figure 19.

Figure 19: Activities community and civil society organizations



Source: Fieldwork 2012

Frequently, the main activity of the community is focused upon infrastructure and maintenance of the primary schools, either by raising funds or offering support through manual labour. The community can also be responsible for proving learning materials, such as exercise books and pencils, to their school-going children. Furthermore, the community also visits the primary schools on a regular basis, although it is important to stress that this does not apply to all households. Figure 19 also shows that the Tamale Metropolitan Education and Education Units are both also in contact with the civil society organisations and the community. The role of civil society organisations is expressed through meeting the practical needs of schools including: textbooks, infrastructure,

furniture, sanitary facilities, teaching and learning materials. However, in addition to this type of support, NGO's play a defining role in the community of a school and they focus upon other communal issues that influence educational delivery.

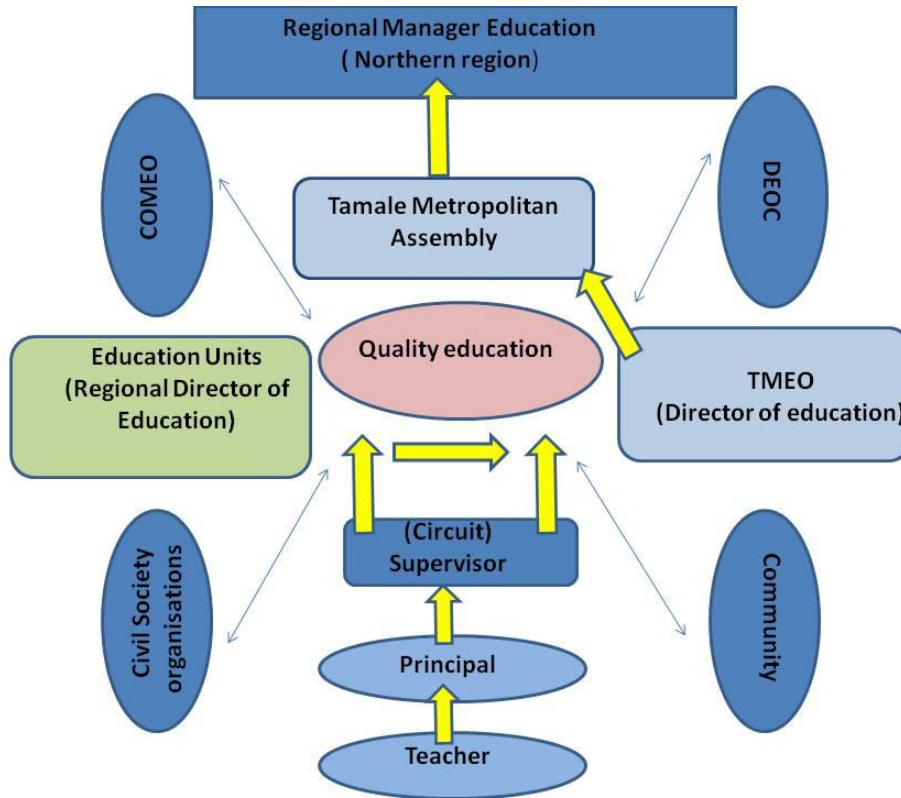
For instance, they can offer micro credit to households or they can provide for children to be able to be sent to school or they can arrange school feeding programmes for primary schools. Moreover, these civil society organisations often organise training and capacity building for the SMC/PTA.

Furthermore, civil society organisations start programmes related to important themes to secure the right of children to, among others, quality in regard to the education of girls, child sponsorship, youth clubs, and health/feeding of children. Ghana's government faces insufficient funds and other resources for the very basic equipment (infrastructure, textbooks, furniture) needed by schools and this makes it more difficult to address wider pressing issues such as equality in the education of girls, support to children who do not attend school (any more). Thus, the additional contribution of civil society organisations is valuable to primary education delivery and highly welcomed. As figure 19 already indicated, civil society organisations play a major supplementary role in the delivery of quality education due to the government's lack of capabilities and focus.

### **5.3 Relationships of accountability**

In analysing the characteristics and responsibilities of actors in primary education delivery it is important to take issues on accountability into account. In the global monitoring report of education, UNESCO argues for the need of an educational system in which all stakeholders are encouraged to improve that system (UNESCO, 2005, p 51). If the system is transparent enough and actors in primary education delivery can hold each other accountable for their actions, then it can have a positive impact on the performance of that system. It can stimulate the cooperation between actors and the fulfilling of responsibilities. Communities, for instance, can monitor the attendance of teachers and the DEOC can raise additional awareness of pressing issues in the primary schools. It is important that actors are aware of their responsibilities and that these are met. Transparency and communications are key factors. In the study area, Education Units, principals, and teachers are made accountable to the TMEO, whereas the latter in turn reports to the TMA. Figure 20 indicates to the accountability relationships on the decentralised level of education in TM.

Figure 20: Relationships of accountability in TM



Source: Fieldwork 2012

Figure 20 shows the relationships of accountability in Tamale Metropolis ranging from the Northern Regional Manager of Education to the principal of a primary school. The actors connected to each other by a yellow arrow, including the Tamale Metropolitan Education Office, Education Units, (circuit) supervisors, principals and teachers, all work under the Ghana Education Service. The yellow broken lines show the role of the DEOC, COMEO, civil society organisations, and the community towards the other actors in holding them accountable in facilitating quality primary education.

#### 5.4 Conclusions

The process of decentralisation in Tamale Metropolis has been able to closely engage various actors in the implementation thereof. The major actors in education in the study area are the TMEO, Education Units, community, teachers, principals, and civil society organisations. As this chapter has shown, the activities and responsibilities in primary education delivery are divided among the stakeholders. In the study area, Education Units, principals, and teachers are made accountable to the TMEO, whereas the latter in turn reports to the TMA.

Currently, due to the establishment of TMA's, there is a parallel system of education that has caused certain activities to be performed by two actors instead of just one. This holds true for the supervision of schools and the transfer of teachers. Schools



can now expect visits from two supervisors, which may in the current situation where a lack of supervision is experienced be an advantage. However, it also creates duplication of activities which may lead to ambiguities and inefficiency. The TMEO does have a number of responsibilities in particular, including the supply of textbooks, infrastructure, and the school budget. Only occasionally do the Education Units get involved in these matters. The TMEO has more authority and control than the Education Units do, which clearly has an impact on the educational system.

The process of decentralisation of educational delivery stimulates the short route of accountability (Figure 8), which brings actors on a local level closer together. The TMEO is informed by principals and circuit supervisors, both in direct contact with primary schools, bringing the TMEO closer to the everyday developments and challenges of each school. However, to what extent this short route of accountability is really beneficial for educational delivery depends heavily on the autonomy of the TMEO. In Ghana's current educational system, the TMEO is not fully autonomous in most expenditure decisions, such as salaries, teacher management, investment of the budget, and textbook provision, even though these are important conditions to being able to directly and adequately respond to the needs of schools or to react to voices of concern raised by the citizens of their municipality.

The TMEO and Education Units are strongly focused on the supply of teachers, infrastructure, and textbooks to schools. I believe more attention should also be directed to the demand side of education. In practice, there is a SMC and PTA at every school, but their role is often limited to offering support in the construction of new schools and the maintenance of existing ones. If there were more focus on capacity building of the community and ways to involve them in school governance, it can contribute to quality education. This is because the establishment of a PTA or SMC does not automatically imply full involvement of the community in governance and monitoring. In the study area, civil society organizations are already emphasizing the importance of community involvement in their programmes. This is in contrast to the TMEO, Education Units, and principals, who should in fact pay more attention to this matter and attempt to strengthen the 'client power' of a community in order for it to be able to monitor the school's performance and evaluate progress and other developments (World Development Report, 2004). I have found that this is really important in the pursuit for quality education, because a community finds itself within the direct surroundings of a school and is involved in the daily practices due to the attendance of their children. They can thus make a valuable contribution to school governance and related issues.

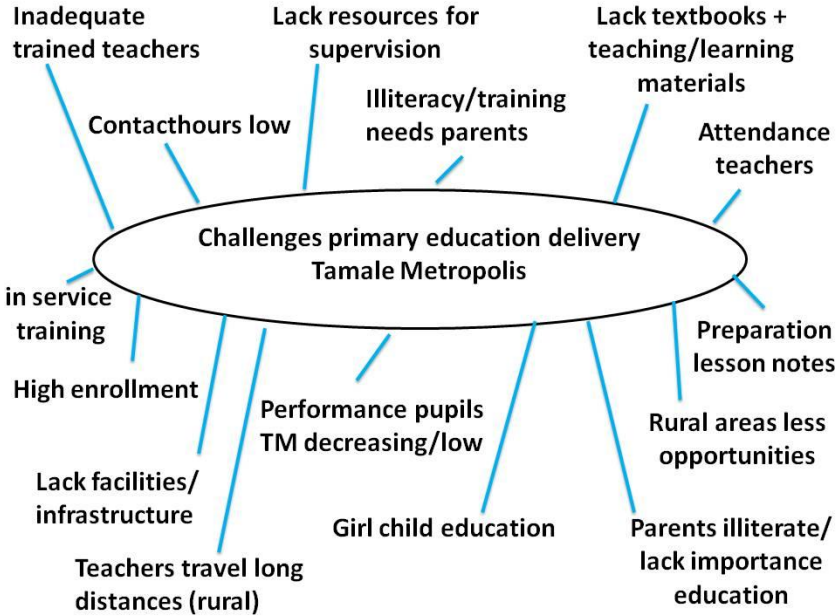
## Chapter 6. Challenges quality education in the study area

One of the main objectives of this study is to define the challenges in education for Ghana. This chapter examines the challenges appearing from the perspective of the actors as presented in the previous chapter. Thus, both the supply and demand side of educational delivery are addressed. Quality education is a complex concept, because all the elements associated with educational quality are interrelated (EDQUAL, 2005, p 2). Does this also apply to the challenges themselves? Do the challenges in Ghana’s educational system influencing to each other? Do the actors indicate correspondence between the challenges? Or can these challenges perhaps be viewed autonomously?

### 6.1 Challenges supply side education

This section illustrates the supply side of primary education delivery. Figure 21 provides an overview of the major challenges defined by the TMEO and the Education Units.

Figure 21: Challenges defined by the TMEO and Education Units



Source: Fieldwork 2012

A major factor that undermines quality education delivery defined by the Education Units and the TMEO is insufficient funds for regular supervision of the primary schools. Currently, the circuit supervisors of the Metropolitan Assembly and the supervisors of the Education Units lack resources to visit the primary schools on a frequent basis. They often receive little or no money at all to cover travelling expenses, which impedes frequent supervision. Especially the schools that are located in far away districts are already a challenge to visit, often only receiving a visit once a year or maybe not even on a yearly basis. Supervision, however, can be really important to motivate principals and

teachers and to monitor the process of development. The Regional Managers of the Presbyterian Education Unit argues: "Due to a lack of financial resources to visit the primary schools, effective and frequent supervision cannot take place. This leads to teachers working less effectively or adequately and in the end, children will take on a similar work ethic." (Regional manager Presbyterian Education. Source: Fieldwork 2012). Regular supervision has proven to motivate teachers to continue improving their teaching skills and methods and to be a perfect opportunity for them to receive feedback. This implies that supervision is also really important for the untrained teachers. Table 20 shows the number of trained and untrained teachers in the study area. The table is divided into a blue and white section to stress the difference between primary schools in urban (white) and rural areas (blue).

Table 20 : Number of trained and untrained teachers in the study area

	Nyohini Presby A	Nyohini Presby B	Tamale presby primary	Kanville primary	Experi mental primary	Nyerezee Primary A	Kotingli primary	Bagliga primary	Kpanvo primary
Total number of teachers	11	11	8	20	11	10	8	7	10
Number of trained teachers	10	11	6	14	10	6	3	2	4
Number of untrained teachers	1	0	2	6	1	4	5	5	6
Percentage untrained teachers	9%	0%	25%	30%	10%	40%	63%	71%	60%

Source: Fieldwork 2012

Generally speaking, there are considerable differences between the numbers of untrained and trained teachers in the primary schools of the study area. In the urban schools, the percentage of untrained teachers is below 50%, whereas the percentage of untrained teachers is overall highest in the primary schools in the rural areas, respectively 40, 63, 71 and 60% (Table 20). This high number creates an additional need for regular supervision. A lack of regular supervision will not only adversely affect teaching but also enlarge relating challenges such as a lack of commitment of teachers and an ineffective use of contact hours. Another challenge in regard to supervision on primary schools is

the dual role of the supervisors of the Education Units and MTEO. A principal reports challenges and developments to both institutions. Also from the perspective of the institutions themselves, the dual role of supervising creates challenges. One of the regional managers argues: "Due to decentralization faith-based primary schools are visited by two supervisors which creates lack of clarity of responsibilities and reporting." (Regional Director, Catholic Education Unit. Source: Fieldwork 2012).

Teachers and principals also play an important role in the implementation of quality education. The major challenges defined by 33 teachers and nine principals are thus interwoven into this research. In regard to the physical infrastructure, the school building and the (sanitary) facilities are a shared concern of all teachers and principals. Also the conditions of the learning environment, such as the lack of furniture, large class sizes, poor conditions of the classroom, and insufficient supplies of chalk, are experienced as challenges by the principals and teachers.

However, principals and teachers of rural schools did not report a challenge of insufficient classrooms. This can be linked to the higher enrolment numbers that primary schools in urban areas are faced with and their challenges in creating class sizes of more than 70 pupils, which automatically makes the need for more classrooms very pressing to them. High numbers of enrolment also affect the availability of furniture, which is only indicated as a challenge by principals of urban schools. The teachers and principals also point to the community when speaking of the challenges they come across and they refer specifically to the lack of interest in education by parents and to the high illiteracy rates. These factors impede parents to adequately support children in doing their homework or providing them with the necessary teaching and learning materials. In this perspective, also the farming season is indicated as a constrain in teaching, because many children are taken out of school to help with manual labour.

The challenges defined by the principals and teachers show similarities to challenges indicated by the TMEO and the Education Units. Insufficient supply of hardware, including textbooks, infrastructure, and teachers, is stressed by all actors. Additionally, it is essential to take the software dimension into account as well in addressing education in the classroom. To which the most frequently mentioned challenge is the lack of teaching and learning materials. These are often only available for teachers or have to be shared by the children. "The use of exercise books and pencils will facilitate effective teaching and learning to promote quality education. Unfortunately, many of the children do not have or do not have enough teaching and learning materials." (Principal Kotingly primary school. Source: Fieldwork 2012). Also during classroom observations, the lack of teaching and learning materials was striking. Many children did not have any or sufficient

exercise books and pens. These circumstances are also indicated by Annex 4, which shows the pupil: textbook ratio, the number of children with pencils/notebooks and the average number of teaching methods applied in a class. The Annex is divided into blue and white sections to stress the difference between primary schools in urban (white) and rural areas (blue). Adding to Annex 4, 33 teachers of P1 – P6 of the selected nine primary schools claimed they give homework to their pupils on a weekly basis. However, two-thirds of the teachers indicate that not all children do their homework. Furthermore, at each of the nine primary schools, pupils need to share textbooks with on average two to three other pupils. Another interesting dimension is the number of teaching methods applied in a class, of which principals indicate an average of three teaching methods. Teachers of these primary schools also indicate that they use less than four teaching methods in a class. Moreover, the extent of individual assignments in the classroom whereas 31 out of 33 teachers indicate that they give weekly individual assignments to their pupils (Source: Fieldwork, 2010).

### **6.2.1 Supply of resources on a local level**

As explicated earlier in this thesis, The TMEO and the Education Units are important actors in supplying primary education in the study area. The process of decentralisation has brought the implementation of education closer to the local level. The TMA and Education Units have therefore come into closer relations with the primary schools, which makes them more thoroughly informed about the needs, developments, and processes regarding the educational system on a local level. However, simultaneously the process as put into practice offers great challenges to the Education Units and the TMA, mainly because the central government retains an important role in among others funding and the development of policies. A major challenge pointed out by the educational institutions on a local level is the slowness or lack of sufficient (financial) resources provided by the central government. It makes the circumstances more difficult to comply with their responsibilities to build, equip, and supervise schools. As a result, there are issues regarding the adequacy of hardware, as indicated by Figure 21, particularly inadequate infrastructure and facilities. The TMA has delegated authority in policy, financial, and administrative matters without any significant independent local inputs, which points out a process of deconcentration.

Thus, for the implementation of educational delivery in Tamale, authority was transferred to the local level (TMA) strengthening the short route of accountability. However, due to the continuing control of the central government, effective functioning of this short route is inhibited. For example, if primary schools report the shortage of textbooks to District Assemblies (through the Metropolitan Education Office), the TMA informs the central government of the shortages. Here, the short route of accountability

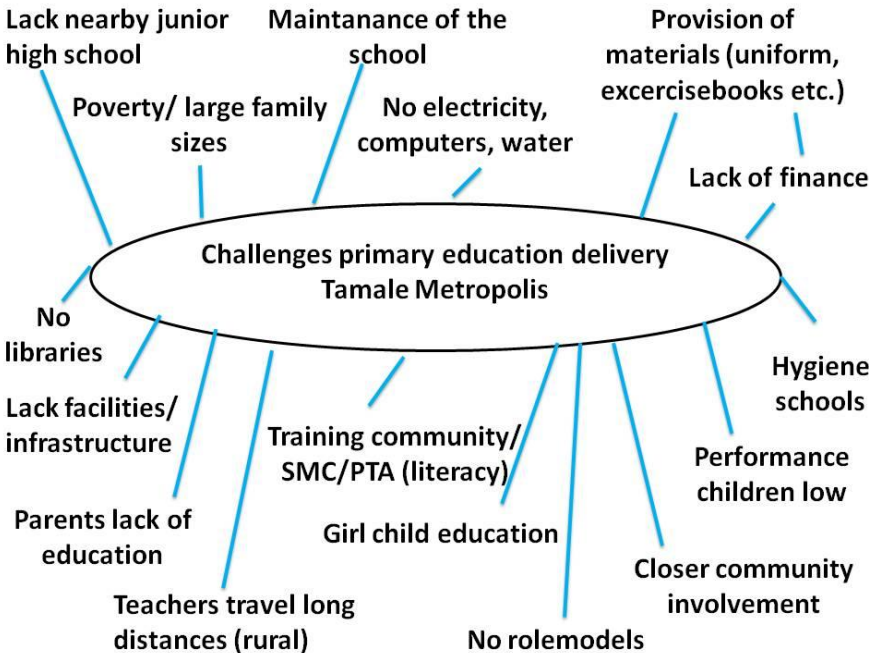
is affected, because the TMA must wait for the supply of textbooks arranged by the central government.

Interesting in this perspective is the capitation grant which was introduced to financially and administratively support the policy and goal of free universal primary education. Every primary school receives the grant with the explicit intention to stimulate the affordability of education, for instance in regard to costs of uniforms and teaching and learning materials. The control that a primary school exerts over the actual spending of the capitation grant enhances the short route of accountability, because it enables a school to react immediately to shortages in their own school. One of the principals argues: "The capitation grant is not sufficient to cover all costs leaving many factors not taken care of" (Principal Bagliga primary school. Source: Fieldwork 2012). Both the size of the grant and the set purposes of the capitation grant restrict a primary school in its freedom to react to the needs of the school in its own preferred way and to cover all opportunity costs.

**6.2 Challenges demand side education**

Civil society, including the community, represents the demand side of educational delivery. The community can play an important role in enhancing quality education by holding the TMEO, the Education Units, principals, and teachers accountable for their actions. In this study, the community raised various challenges concerning the quality of education on the schools of their children (Figure 22)

Figure 22: Challenges defined by the community



Source: Fieldwork 2012

The community identifies the lack of learning materials as one of the major challenges for delivering quality education. Ghana's government has abolished all school fees and provided schools with the capitation grant, channeled through the District Assemblies, to be able to cover costs. However, the capitation grant has been said not to be sufficient and leading to the community still left with additional costs for the schooling of their children. This heavily affects the affordability of education in the study area. The community is still expected to pay for teaching and learning materials and school uniforms.

The community members' illiteracy and their lack of awareness about the importance of education are frequently raised as challenges, either by the TMEO, the Education Units, principals, and teachers (Figures 21 and 22). The community also indicates that its own lack of education and its high illiteracy rates are the most pressing factors in striving for a quality educational system for their children. These factors makes it difficult for them to monitor a school's progress or to their children's report cards. Furthermore, also when children want to talk about and share what they have learned in school, they cannot turn to the community to comment on their newfound knowledge.

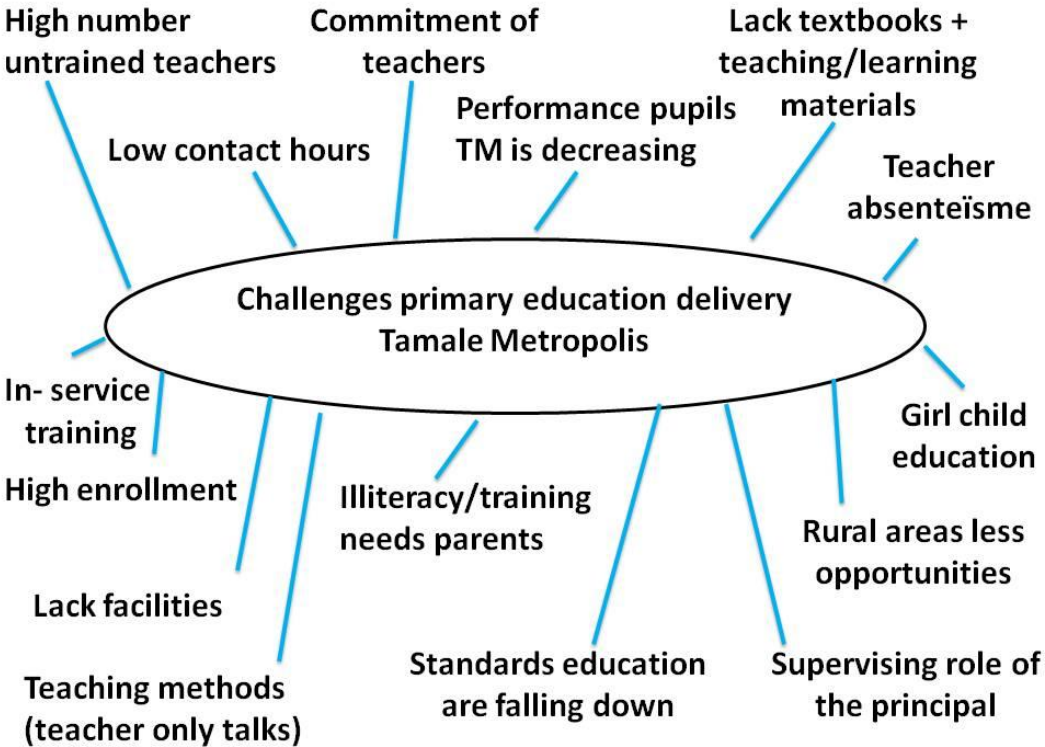
Another challenge mentioned by the community during this study is the lack of role models for the children. They are referring to people who come from the village and have come far in education and might be able to motivate to children to continue their schooling by telling them the advantages for their futures. Furthermore, the lack of accommodation for the teachers in the village seems an important issue. It causes teachers to travel long distances to be able to work at certain schools. The community also pointed out the inadequate sanitary facilities in regard to hygiene and health of the children who go to school. In addition, the lack of electricity is a frequently raised issue, because it impedes children from studying in the evening.

In the rural communities, poverty is a constraining factor for the households in sending all of their children to school. Important to take into account are the sizes of families in these areas. Large families have trouble raising enough funds to offer all of their children a decent education. The lack of funds plays a role in primary education, but the problem also stretches towards further education. Those schools are often even located further away and charge more levy's. One of the parents argues: "In the rural communities there are no nearby junior high schools; why should I send my children to a primary school when they have no opportunity to go to a junior high school?" (Issahdou Afhassa, Kotingli primary school. Source: Fieldwork 2012).

All of the factors mentioned above relate to the accessibility of education. Some children even need to support their households in their family income and farming activities. Illustrating that the opportunity costs play a role in the study area, the hours that a child spends in the classroom could have been spent on the farm or in support of household chores. As pointed out by one of the principals of a rural school in the study area: "During the farming season many of the children are taken out of the class by their parents to help on the farm." (Principal Kpanvo primary school. Source: Fieldwork 2012). By taking children out of the classroom, they start to lag behind their classmates and in Ghana, children cannot repeat a class. This results in children moving on to the next grade without sufficient knowledge.

Various civil society organizations have programmes in primary education delivery in the study area, where they play both an important role in supplementing 'hardware' and 'software' for the primary schools and in support of civil society. The latter has already been indicated as the demand side of education delivery. Figure 23 provides an overview of the most frequently cited challenges of the six civil society organizations (see 11 ) which are included in this study.

Figure 23: Challenges defined by civil society organisations



Source: Fieldwork 2012



Civil society organizations define major challenges on both the hardware and software dimensions of educational delivery, just as the actors did in paragraph 6.1. Overall, they indicate that education standards are falling and in particular the commitment of teachers and the low number of contact hours are major issues to them. Civil society organizations define in particular various challenges in the area of teaching and learning, including the high number of unqualified teachers, teaching methods, teacher absenteeism, supervising role of principals, and insufficient in-service training.

In establishing a close relationship between the supply and demand site of educational delivery, civil society organizations can play a crucial role because they operate on both sides. They often work on a broader scale within a community, such as child sponsorship and micro credit, which is in contrast to the activities of the TMO and the Education Units. They mostly interact with the community through the PTA and SMC. In the study area, the civil society organisations respond directly to important issues in regard to the accessibility and acceptability of education. Of the six civil society organisations, five have activities and programmes to support the education of young girls. However, not simply with a focus on sending more and more girls to school, but also on getting girls actively involved in school activities and learning in the classroom.

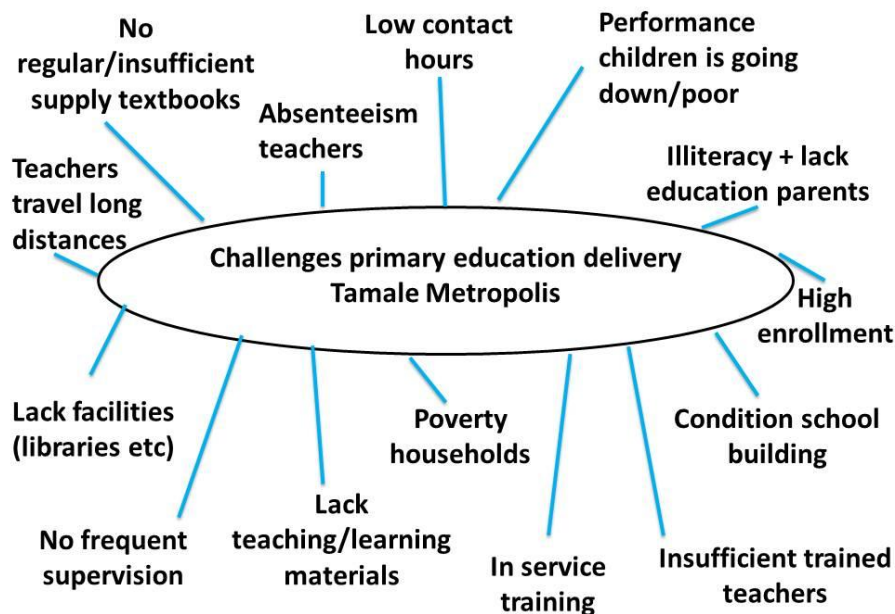
Moreover, civil society organisations can play a defining role in holding the government accountable for its actions and in encouraging the community to strengthen its own position towards governance. Due to the lack of supervision, which creates a situation where the actual performance and contact hours of teachers are monitored less and less, it is important that the government can be held responsible. The important role that a community can play is owed to the fact that the school needs to function within that particular community. Civil society organisations can cooperate with a community to enhance their capacity by means of literacy trainings or through discussions on the importance of proper education.

Currently, the community is mostly involved if a need for new infrastructure or maintenance arises. One of the civil society organisations argues that "the community should take the lead in monitoring the supply of textbooks, progress in maintenance/infrastructure of a school, and the attendance of teachers." (Programme officer School for Life. Source: Fieldwork 2012). New developments therein are in fact the establishment of joint-platforms of various PTA's and SMC's of various schools. Together they can organize meetings to raise better awareness of problems regarding the educational system and to better monitor the steps taken to solve the issues.

### 6.3 conclusions

A clear objective of this study was to uncover the various challenges faced by the actors involved in educational delivery in the study area. The challenges have thus been forwarded from the perspectives of both the supply and the demand side. Figure 24 defines the most pressing challenges which I encountered myself during my research period in Ghana.

Figure 24 : Overview of the most pressing challenges



Source: Fieldwork 2012

#### **Supply side of educational delivery**

I have found that the training of teachers needs to receive much more priority in order to achieve true quality education. The high percentage of unqualified teachers working at the selected primary schools (Figure 16) and insufficient in-service training need to be addressed in order for quality improvements to be possible. A programme officer of IBIS argues, as mentioned in this chapter: "It is better to have a committed, punctual, and interactive teacher teaching under a tree than a teacher without similar qualifications in a fully equipped classroom." (Programme officer, IBIS. Source: Fieldwork 2012). I agree with this viewpoint, because it is all about teachers transferring their knowledge to children, supporting and challenging them in their learning process. Currently, the TMEO's sanctions entail that a teacher who has been proven to be uncommitted and not punctual is simply transferred to another school. These sanctions simply transfer problems from one school to the other without adeptly working on a solution.

Therefore, it is important that the TMEO increases its authority and everyday control over educational delivery at a local level in order to fix the problem of teacher commitment. Furthermore, the insufficient number of available textbooks and other teaching and learning materials impedes and offers great challenges and also needs to receive the highest priority on the supply side of education, in my opinion.

### ***Demand side education delivery***

Household constraints experienced by the communities of the schools have revealed valuable insights into the status of the demand side of quality education. Households in the study area face poverty, high illiteracy rates, large-sized families, lack of education themselves, and high dependency on subsistence farming or trade. These factors have a massive effect on the implementation of quality education. Civil society organisations are aimed at contributing to finding solutions to these problems. Civil society organisations have stressed teacher absenteeism and low contact hours as the most pressing challenges to quality education. They try to raise awareness and lobby for change. Figure 23 shows how they address the challenges that have not been indicated by other actors, for instance poor supervision by principals, the education of young girls, and one-way teaching methods in the classroom. Possible solutions are mentioned: clubs for children (environmental, health etc.), training for teachers on interactive teaching methods, and uniting PTA's and SMC's in a network to gain more joint power in the community and school governance.

### ***Interrelated challenges?***

EDQUAL argues: "All the elements associated with educational quality are interrelated" (EDQUAL, 2005, p 2). This study has proven that this argument also holds true for the challenges within educational quality (Figure 24). Many of these challenges are indeed interrelated by means of indicators such as teaching and learning, community involvement, facilities, infrastructure, and human resources. These challenges also have to be seen in the broader context of other sectors and processes. The poverty dimension is a clear example as well as the process of decentralization. The responsibility over the supply of textbooks, other teaching and learning materials, qualified teachers, and infrastructure has been transferred to the TMA's, but in such a way that the central government is still the key authority regarding the supply of (financial) resources. This inhibits truly effective functioning of the desired short route of accountability.

## **Chapter 7. Comparison educational delivery: Greater Accra and the Northern Region**

“Many countries in Africa and other parts of the world are marked by regional inequalities, a reality that tends to get lost in discussions that focus mainly on national averages” (Harsch, 2008)

In Ghana, as in many other African countries, there are disparities between the southern and northern regions of the country visible in matters of geography and climate, poverty, and social services including the quality of education. In the current system of primary education delivery in Ghana, a difference between the north and south persists in the level of educational performance. So while Ghana as a whole has made some notable progress on some of the MDG's, the positive developments are unevenly distributed throughout the country, especially disadvantaging the Northern Region. Therefore, it is really important to focus ambitions in quality education on schools in the Northern region as quickly as possible. Access to quality education will grant this population the opportunity to escape poverty and hope for a better future. For the sake of comparison, this chapter examines the disparities in educational delivery in the two regions of Ghana.

### **7.1 Challenges supply side**

In various reports about primary education delivery in Ghana, including “Access in basic education in Ghana: the evidence and the issues” CREATE (2009) and “Achieving universal primary education in Ghana by 2012: a reality or a dream?” (UNICEF, 2007), the focus lies on the disparities between the quality of education in the northern and southern regions of the nation. In order to properly compare education in the two regions, annex 1, 5, 6 and 7 present information on the state of the physical infrastructure of the fourteen primary schools in the Northern Region and the fifteen primary schools in the Greater Accra region. This comparison reveals major similarities and differences.

#### **7.1.1 hardware**

In both regions, school structures are present but often not in a very good condition. Most of the school buildings are in a state of disrepair and require either major or minor reconstruction. The lack of maintenance is visible in all schools, including missing components or the poor state of the structure and classrooms. However, in the Northern Region, the school buildings are often even more basic or only exist of two to three classrooms. Furniture is present in all schools in this comparison, but this does not imply that there is indeed sufficient furniture available to accommodate all children.

In the Northern Region, due to remoteness of some schools, furniture is inadequate or lacking and in various schools in both regions, this is indicated as a challenge due to high enrolment ratios. In Greater Accra, the average enrolment of a school is 385 pupils against 363 pupils in the Northern region, showing that the Northern region on average has enrolment ratios that are slightly lower. In both Greater Accra and Tamale Metropolis, class sizes in rural areas are on average 15 – 25 pupils, whereas in the urban areas class sizes can reach class sizes of 70 – 80 pupils. The higher number of pupils in the urban areas is reflected in the pupil:textbook ratio, ranging from 1:50 to 1:80. The director of the Presbyterian Education Unit argues: "In terms of population Accra has grown tremendously, but the creation of new primary schools has not kept pace with the change in class enrolment ratios." (Director of Education Presbyterian Church. Source: Fieldwork 2012). This fact can also be claimed for the north, but only in regard to urban Tamale, because in rural schools the class sizes are often still quite small, ranging from 20 – 25 pupils.

Taking the dichotomy of urban versus rural into perspective, the physical infrastructure of schools in both urban Accra and Tamale are in a better condition than their rural counterparts. In the rural areas, the school structures are indeed present, but maintenance and components are in a poorer state. Components can be windows, doors, roofing, and the paint jobs of walls et cetera. An exception to this finding are rural schools in the Northern Region. Three out of the five schools have school buildings that are not in a poorer state but are below standard. This implies that there are only two to three classrooms available for all children and that they are in a really poor state.

*Figure 25: Rural primary school Northern Region*



*Source: Fieldwork 2012*

*Figure 26: Urban primary school Southern region*



*Source: Fieldwork 2012*

The same applies to the matter of furniture in rural areas in the Northern Region. There is an insufficient number of benches and even in three schools in the Northern Region, this study found, there was no furniture available at all. Interesting to examine the nature of these shortages by focusing on related factors. In urban areas, the lack of furniture is caused by continuously high enrolment ratios, which is in contrast to rural areas where the cause of the shortage often lies in the willingness and ability of the central government to provide for this type of hardware.

The government has initiated policies to improve the supply side of educational delivery in the northern regions, for instance school feeding initiatives. This goal corresponds to the research findings of this study in the sense that none of the schools in Greater Accra claimed to receive school feeding, but five out of the fourteen schools in the north claimed to benefit from school feeding programmes. Notably, school feeding is only provided to schools in rural areas. Research shows that in both regions, irrespective of the urban or rural locations of the schools, there are no teacher housing initiatives, libraries, computers, health facilities or special needs provision available. Other facilities such as running water and sanitary facilities are not represented well in any of the schools included in this study. If there is a water facility available, it is in the form of a tank to collect rain water and not in the form of running water, irrespective of the location in an urban or a rural area.

However, in the Northern Region there were four rural schools without even such a tank for water. Regarding the sanitary facilities, these are either in a bad state or only available as one facility for all boys, girls, and teachers. However, these facilities are

present in all schools in Greater Accra, but not in most schools in the Northern Region. In all rural schools, whether it be Greater Accra or the Northern Region there is no electricity available. The availability of electricity is more prevalent in the urban parts of Greater Accra, creating an advantage for the children because of the possibility of using ICT within education.

### **7.1.2 Software**

In chapter three, the high number of unqualified teachers, particularly in the Northern Region, has been discussed. The findings of this study confirm this alleged higher percentage of untrained teachers in the Northern Region, shown in annex 10. The balance between trained and untrained teachers is an important indicator of the effect of the teaching and learning. Schools in Greater Accra have on average lower percentages of untrained teachers, while the Northern Region has schools with significantly higher percentages of untrained teachers. In Greater Accra, five out of fourteen schools have a teaching force of only qualified teachers. The other schools in the region are characterised by an average of 15% untrained teachers. In the Northern Region, there are no schools with only trained teachers and on average 30% of the teachers is untrained.

By incorporating an urban versus rural perspective into this matter, the numbers of qualified and unqualified teachers provide other interesting insights. Annex 10 shows that in both regions the percentage of untrained teachers is higher in the rural areas, indicated by the blue colors of the cells. In urban Accra, the percentage of untrained teachers in five schools is 0% and in the other three schools 13%. In Tamale urban, there is only one school with 0% untrained teachers, whereas for the other five schools the percentages vary between 9% and 40%. Contrastingly, in Greater Accra, the percentages in rural areas vary between 13% and 53% and in the Northern Region, they range from 20% to even 83% in one of the schools.

Other important indicators of teaching and learning where disparities between the regions may become visible are shown in annex 4 and 9. The average number of teaching methods applied in the Northern Region (3.5) is slightly lower than in Greater Accra (4). Furthermore, in both regions, pupils do not have their own textbooks and share these with on average two to four other pupils. The same applies to other teaching and learning materials: in both regions, most of the children do not have their own pencils and notebooks. If we also take a look at the statistics of teaching methods, fewer teaching methods are applied in the rural schools than in urban schools in both the northern and southern regions. Three teaching methods are applied in rural areas on average, whereas in urban areas the average amounts to four or five methods.

Annex 3 and 8 shows the numbers of boys and girls enrolled in each school. In Greater Accra, the percentage of girls in school in the urban and rural areas is around 52% on average, which indicates an equality in the enrolment of boys and girls in the schools. The Northern Region, there is an average of 49% of girls. Especially by focusing on the rural communities in the Northern Region, the lower percentage of girls in the classroom becomes apparent, respectively 37%, 42%, 48% and 41%. In comparison, in rural schools in the Greater Accra region percentages of girls between 51 and 55% are shown. This indicates to lower percentages of girls in rural schools in the Northern Region. Research indicates a range of interconnected factors influencing the slightly lower levels of access in northern Ghana, including the socio-economic status of households, the lack of teachers in rural areas, the nature of communal settlements, and high teacher absenteeism (CREATE, 2009).

## **7.2 Conclusions**

### ***Greater Accra and the Northern Region***

During my visits to fourteen schools in the Northern Region and fifteen in the southern region, I witnessed the disparities in education myself. Also the data in annex 1 to 10 confirms the discrepancies in the quality of education within and between the Greater Accra and the Northern Region, especially regarding the more remotely located schools in the Northern Region (Figure 25) and in the southern region (Figure 26). Schools in the rural northern part of Ghana were extremely basic and often built out of mud. Rural schools in Greater Accra were also in poorer conditions than urban schools, but still the state of their school buildings is better than that of rural schools in the north. In other aspects, the disparity between the north and south is strongly evident, for instance in the ratios of qualified and unqualified teachers. The Northern Region has shown to face higher numbers of untrained teachers working in its schools. The northern parts' disadvantage also applies to the availability of teacher housing initiatives. These initiatives would prevent them from having to travel long distances and thus would also have positive effects on teacher absenteeism, the insufficient number of contact hours in a day, and teacher punctuality in the region.

These factors already have a powerful negative impact on the performance of rural schools, due to among others the lack of frequent supervision, and thus can also have a powerful positive impact on educational performance if addressed in a timely and appropriate manner. To achieve quality education that is equally distributed throughout the country, the creation of additional allowance and incentives for teaching in rural schools and in particularly in the Northern Region must receive a priority status.



### ***Equal opportunities (north/south and urban/rural)***

The disparities between Ghana's northern and southern regions are visible to all who visit schools in both parts of the nation. For stability and unity in Ghana, it is extremely important to address the divide between the north and the South. The situation in neighbouring countries shows this divide can amount to heavy social and political unrest in the country and result in violent fights amongst a population. In Ghana, in general, inequalities have remained stable, but this does not guarantee that the safety of the nation will continuously remain equally stable. The government must therefore strive for quality education in the Northern Region as quickly as possible to erase those particular disparities with the southern regions, but also to provide the population with the main and most lasting vehicle to escape poverty, to ensure better futures for themselves, and to facilitate safety in the country.

Secondly, regarding urban/rural disparities, I consider the high enrolment ratios of urban schools as the most significant challenge, because these ratios can affect the learning conditions of children in a negative way. These schools often do not have the resources to build additional classrooms or to decrease class sizes. Textbooks should not have to be shared by various children and teachers should be able to apply methods that allow for individual attention to pupils in the classroom and to adeptly monitor their educational progress. I believe more attention needs to be paid to the potential growth of schools on a yearly basis in order to be able to respond timely to ways of dealing with major increases in student enrolment.

This study has elaborated on how schools in rural areas experience disadvantages that have an impact on various dimensions of the goal of quality education. For these schools, I define the high number of untrained teachers as the most significant challenge, which cannot simply be addressed by increasing the number of trained teachers working in these schools. During my stay in Ghana, I frequently visited rural schools in the study area and each journey cost me a minimum of two hours of travelling. Teachers experience the same difficulties. Travelling expenses, in the form of fuel and maintenance costs of the motorbikes, soar. To overcome these obstacles, the introduction of additional allowance and incentives for teaching in rural schools is a necessity. EDQUAL argues: "A key challenge is to ensure that funding is sufficient and is efficiently distributed to schools. Efforts should support more equitable distribution of funds, teachers and materials with a specific focus on deprived districts." (EDQUAL, 2010, p 3). Currently, to realize quality education for all children in Ghana, equal distribution of essentials should be positioned higher on the political agenda.

## **Synthesis**

### ***Education in Ghana***

A strong commitment to universal access is important in order to strive for children obtaining the right to education irrespective of their gender and background. Many countries worldwide, including Ghana, strive to achieve universal primary education. This indicates the importance of education on both the international and national agenda. If more children go to school, the need for more classrooms, textbooks, trained teachers, learning materials, infrastructure, and involvement from community members grows simultaneously. While quality education is important because it determines how much and how well students gain knowledge and skills and the extent to which their education achieves a range of personal, social, and development goals (UNESCO, 2005, p.19). ERNWACA states that there is a considerable underinvestment in educational infrastructure and facilities in Ghana that must be urgently resolved. Otherwise expectations of increased access and quality of education by 2015 will prove elusive in Ghana (ERNWACA, 2010, p 9). Therefore, it is interesting to incorporate the quality dimension of education within this study to define how the commitment to achieve universal access is affecting the quality of education in everyday life.

Although all the expectations of the MDG's will not be achieved in the near future, it does not mean that Ghana has not made some notable progress. However that process has been occurring very unevenly within the country, especially in regard to the Northern Region. In Ghana, as in many other African countries, there are disparities between the southern and the northern regions which emerge in geography and climate, poverty, and social services including education. Also in Ghana's current system of education that type of difference between the northern and southern parts of the country is present, with the north continually experiencing lower levels of educational performance.

### ***Objective***

The objective of this study was to uncover the characteristics and role of actors in Ghana's educational system and to define the faced challenges in quality education, with a focus on Tamale Metropolis in order to gather information about best practices. Primary education is the basis for further education, because it teaches children the basic skills, which makes it important that the quality is sufficient. Children will otherwise not be able to keep up in higher education. In the study area, there are 267 primary schools which are situated in urban and rural areas. During a period of almost four months, the system of primary education in the study area has been examined. For the sake of comparison in best practices, moreover, this study also includes observations of fourteen primary schools in the Greater Accra region.

The main question which this research aimed to answer is:

*What are the characteristics of actors in the delivery of quality primary education in Tamale Metropolis? And what challenges are faced in enhancing the quality of education?*

The major actors in education in the study area are the Tamale Metropolitan Education office (TMEO), Education Units, the community, teachers, principals, and civil society organisations. By visiting primary schools and conducting semi-structured interviews with actors, this study attempted to expose the characteristics and challenges faced by these actors from various perspectives.

### ***Education in Tamale Metropolis***

Since independence in 1957, Ghana's government initiated various policies to improve the system of education, one of which is the process of decentralisation. This process has involved various actors on a local level more closely with the implementation of quality education. Responsibilities have shifted to a local level, which caused a new division of roles and the establishment of the TMA gaining the highest authority in the study area. The process of decentralisation within educational delivery stimulates the short route of accountability (Figure 8), because it brings local actors closer together. In the study area, Education Units, principals, and teachers are accountable to the TMEO, whereas the latter in turn reports to the TMA. The TMEO and circuit supervisors, who are both in direct contact with local schools, inform the TMA.

Currently, due to decentralisation, the TMA's perform similar roles to Education Units but only with a higher level of authority and control. Thus, schools can now expect visits from two supervisors, which in the current situation of insufficient supervision can be considered an advantage. However, it also creates inefficiency through duplication of activities, including direct supervision of schools and the transfer of teachers. While school visits reveal corresponding challenges between schools, often schools also face particular challenges. One school might suffer from high pupil/classroom ratios or a lack of textbooks as the most pressing challenges. Another might need to respond to a high number of untrained teachers or inadequacy of infrastructure. Therefore, it is important to take the particular needs of a school into account without making general assumptions about its needs. However, TMA's are not fully autonomous in most expenditure decisions such as salaries, teacher management, investment of the budget, and textbook provision. I have found that insufficient authority is a major constrain on progress, because the TMA is closely linked to the schools and aware of their common and specific challenges, but do not have the means to directly respond to those needs or

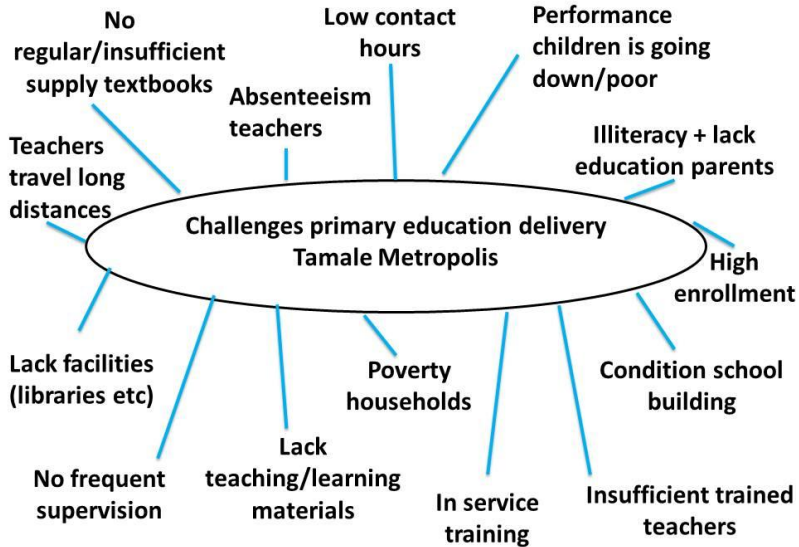
to react to voices of concern raised by citizens of their municipality, especially not in their own way.

The TMEO and Education Units are strongly focused on the supply side of educational delivery, as opposed to civil society organisations that design initiatives stemming from the community, the demand side of education. In practice, every school has a SMC and PTA, but their role is often limited to offering support in physical construction and maintenance of the school. The creation of a PTA or SMC does not automatically imply full involvement of the community in school governance and in monitoring of their children. The demand side must receive more attention and support by strengthening the 'client power' of a community. This will allow it to properly monitor the school's performances and to evaluate other related progress and developments on a regularly basis and in an effective manner (World Development Report, 2004). Possible solutions are capacity building and literacy training. In my opinion, this is really an important factor in pursuing quality education, because a community finds itself within the direct surroundings of a school and is involved in daily practices due to their children's enrolment. This means that they are willing and able to contribute in a meaningful way in the improvement of educational delivery.

**Reflections**

One of the main objectives of this study was to define challenges in the educational system of Tamale Metropolis. Figure 27 presents the most pressing challenges which I encountered during my research period in Ghana.

Figure 27: Most pressing challenges



Source: Fieldwork 2012

Figure 27 shows the complexity of indicators due to challenges revealing themselves in various dimensions such as teaching and learning, supervision, facilities, and the community. Taking all different types of challenges into account, it can certainly be quite difficult to determine where to start the process of quality enhancement of education.

#### *Most pressing challenges*

- Training of teachers

In my opinion, the focus on heightening the qualifications and commitment of teachers should get full priority. A programme officer of IBIS argued: "It is better to have a committed, punctual, and interactive teacher teaching under a tree than a teacher without similar qualifications in a fully equipped classroom." (Programme officer IBIS. Source: Fieldwork 2012). I agree, because teachers are the ones expected to teach the children knowledge and skills and support them in their learning process. Unfortunately, Ghana copes with high percentages of untrained teachers, mostly in the rural areas. It is also important to incorporate in-service training. Both trained and untrained teachers need regular in-service training keep up their knowledge. By taking teachers as a major factor in enhancing quality education, various related factors also have to be addressed, including low contact hours per day and teacher absenteeism. Currently, the TMEO mostly sanctions uncommitted and unpunctual teachers by transferring them to other schools. Thus, the problem is simply passed on to the next school, instead of finding a solution to it. Therefore, it is important that the TMEO increases its authority in order to be able to offer stimuli to the commitment of teachers. Adequate and frequent supervision can be a major stimulus. Frequent supervision may motivate teachers to come to school daily and to be more punctual.

- Lack facilities and teaching and learning materials

Secondly, the lack of school facilities and teaching and learning materials needs to be addressed. They ensure that children learn effectively and support teachers in their transfer of knowledge. In order to learn, children need a committed and trained teacher, but subsequently they require hardware to help gain that knowledge and participate in the class. However, in the selected schools, the availability of textbooks, pencils, notebooks, and instructional materials is limited. Often pupils are in class without these materials or have to share them with many other pupils. This has an impact on the opportunities of giving individual assignments, writing down answers for themselves, and actively participate in reading activities. In none of the selected schools there where facilities such as libraries, health facilities or computers, while I believe that these are bare essentials for pupils to encourage them in their learning and to provide them with more opportunities to learn.

Thus, I define the inadequate training of teachers and the insufficient supplies of learning materials and facilities as factors which highly need to be solved in order to start enhancement of the educational performance of pupils in TM.

#### *Household constrains*

The poverty context is not something that can be left out of this study. Poverty is a major issue in relation to quality education in Ghana, with the community indicating that there is insufficient money to buy teaching and learning materials for their children. Households in the study area face various constrains including poverty, high illiteracy rates, large family sizes, lack of education of parents and other family members, and high dependency on subsistence farming or trade. These factors have an effect on the children's school attendance and performance. Furthermore, illiteracy and lack of education among families within the school district create difficulties in the community's ability to properly monitor the children's progress, for instance through reading report cards. Many households, particularly in the rural areas in the Northern Region, poverty is still strongly present and results in children having to contribute to their family's income. During farming season, this necessity is reflected in the classroom by means of children being taken out of school to assist their household or work in the family business. Matters of education are thus tightly connected to other causes and effects, for instance to the economic status of households in a certain region.

#### *Divide north and south Ghana*

The disparity between the northern and southern regions is evident to anyone visiting schools in both regions, in particular in regard to the balance between qualified and unqualified teachers. As shown in this study, the Northern Region encounters higher numbers of untrained teachers working at schools and suffers from a poor state of school infrastructure. To maintain stability and unity in Ghana, it is essential to address this divide between the north and the south. Ghana's neighbouring countries show how this divide can led to social and political unrest in the country, which can result in violent conflicts. In Ghana, inequalities within its population, in general, have remained stable. Nevertheless, this does not guarantee that this state of safety and stability will continuously remain. Therefore, it is really important to strive for quality education in the Northern Region as quickly as possible to erase a substantial part of the disparity between the regions. It will provide the population in the north with access to quality education as the main and most lasting vehicle to escape poverty and live under safe conditions.

Second, the disparities in education between urban and rural schools must be addressed. EDQUAL argues: "A key challenge is to ensure that funding is sufficient and is efficiently

distributed to schools. Efforts should support more equitable distribution of funds, teachers and materials with a specific focus on deprived districts.” (EDQUAL, 2010, p 3). Currently, the inequalities between urban and rural schools are highly visible in the physical state of school buildings, furniture, and the ratios of qualified and unqualified teachers. To realize quality education for all children, equal distribution of necessities should be high on the agenda. Therefore, besides addressing the divide between the northern and southern regions in matters of education, it is important to include questions focussed on the difference between schools located in urban or rural areas. Their different contexts often present specific challenges. Particularly, rural schools in the north have to be given more attention and support, these suffer from a disadvantaged position in regard to school infrastructure and qualified teachers.

### ***Personal remarks***

During school visits, I witnessed the major challenges to schools and their communities with my own eyes, varying from issues of teaching/learning, the community, and supervision to the supply of textbooks and the lack of school facilities. This has raised the question whether I believe enhanced enrolment ratios should be considered as successes, when they prove to adversely affect the everyday quality of education. Most schools were not able to provide for the large numbers of pupils enrolling in its classes. If a school faces this type of challenge, it can inhibit children to fully benefit from the access they have been given to educational delivery. This is especially true when the challenges are as extensive as indicated in this study. A child going to school but not being provided with textbooks or other learning materials will benefit nothing from its enrolment. The child’s learning process comes to a stop before it has even begun.

On the other hand, access cannot be denied to these children, because all children have a right to education and education is fundamental for their personal and social development. In my opinion, universal access and quality both need to be guaranteed, while policies focused on broadening access to education should simultaneously go hand in hand with policies focussed on guaranteeing actual quality of education.

In Ghana, primary education has been made free of costs for all children to remove the barrier of fees for households. However, in practice, materials such as school uniforms and textbooks are lacking or only available to a few children, often costing their families money after all. This shows that by introducing free education more children have indeed been given the opportunity to go to school, but it also created new challenges and shortages at these schools. The current educational system in Ghana shows that the consequences of certain initiatives are unintentionally affecting the quality of education in a negative way and that there are not enough (financial) resources available to guarantee improvement or to meet the demands of all schools.

Enhancing access simply is not enough. It needs to go together with a thorough assessment of the path towards quality education. Not only by acknowledging the other as a challenge but also by discussing both as mutually influencing the development of interventions that will guarantee both. However, if we look further to the current situation in most developing countries, corruption and insufficient financial resources are possibly major barriers to making this happen.

#### *Research process*

Ghana is heading towards becoming a middle income country, which made me expect to find fewer and more compact challenges. During my time in the field, the opposite appeared to be true. I have learned how important it is to examine a research theme from different angles in order to overcome a single-focussed outlook. By doing so in my research, I was able to uncover the many different challenges in education that are encountered by various actors from various perspectives. It also provided me with insights into the extent to which, in this study, challenges occur only at particular schools or by means of particular actors or indeed have a broader context. Initially, I did not incorporate the issue of urban versus rural surroundings of a school into my findings. During my period of research in Ghana, however, I saw how important it is to take this factor into account, because an urban or rural context is often associated with particular challenges.

I learnt that in order to enhance quality education it needs to happen by means of a comprehensive approach. For instance, it is not sufficient to only address the school's infrastructure or the provision of textbooks at a school. A school and community need to be capable to maintain the school together and children need basic things such as pens and exercise books to be capable of making good use of the textbooks. Before I arrived in Ghana, I approached the system of education as a sector that stands on its own. During my time in the study area, I realized that education functions in a wider context and is part of a mutual chain of other influencing sectors. A clear example is the poverty context of the households in a school's district. It can determine whether children can go to school or follow all classes, whether they have sufficient exercise books and pencils, to what extent a community is involved in school governance, and in what shape the school buildings and furniture find themselves in. These are all factors that have an impact on the quality of teaching and learning and are substantially influenced by the living conditions of the family of the school-going child.

To others who will do similar research I would advise to take sufficient time to explore the study area in various aspects in order to become familiar with the system of education in everyday life. In my case, I found I had started too quickly with designing



my semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. Had I gathered more details on the educational system in the study area, I would have been able to design my questions for data collection to be more in-depth. In order to facilitate having a sufficient amount of research time, there is often pressure to start with conducting the actual research as soon as possible. However, familiarizing with the practice of the school systems and related actors also costs time, but it creates the opportunity to discover much more about the local practice through precisely formulated and in-depth empirical research methods.

#### *Suggestions for further research*

In regard to further research, I would advise to address community involvement, in order to gain insights into the factors that may enhance the contribution the community is willing and able to make to various activities within the process of educational delivery. Especially, schools where the PTA/SMC is involved in more activities simply related to infrastructure and maintenance of a school are interesting to examine into more detail. Interesting aspects would be levels of training, capacity building, the commitment of principals and teachers, and the living conditions of a community.

Furthermore, I would advise future research into the initiatives that aim to strengthen the demand side of education. Currently, Ghana Education Service is taking care of the supply side of education by the provision of teachers, textbooks, and infrastructure. The capitation grant has been introduced with the intention of addressing the demand side of education and in particular to make sure that parents are burdened as little as possible with paying levies for their children. During my research, the capitation grant was often raised as a means to address office stationary, repairs to school property and instructional equipment, which are factors that have more to do with the supply side of education. For further research, I think it is really interesting to focus on the capitation grant and to examine for what purposes the grant is currently used. This because the grant has been set up to support the parents of school going children, the demand side, however the grant is often used for other purposes not associated with the demand side.

#### *This study's contribution*

Since colonial times and the origin of the educational system in Ghana, there has been a divide in educational performance between the southern and northern regions. Up to now, this divide has still caused unequal learning opportunities for children in the north. This study contributes to existing knowledge and research on the matter by addressing the north and south divide and the high necessary changes therein. Not only to ensure national unity and safety, but also to concur high poverty levels, especially in the north.

Education may prove to indeed be the main and most lasting vehicle that gives the population of Ghana the opportunity to escape poverty and award itself with a better future.

All children have the right to quality education. Therefore, it is important that quality therein is always secured for each and every one of those children. Living conditions, (financial) resources, and (local) government structures among others are always open to change and can directly impact on quality education in a positive way. To sustain and guarantee quality education, it is of importance that actors hold each other accountable for actions. In order to do so, all parties have to be aware of the responsibilities of themselves and others and of the current challenges they are facing. I define the major contribution of this research as a means to raise this awareness among actors, to promote transparency in the process of quality education, and to illustrate how much is still needed to bring about change within all the outlined challenges.

Lydia van der Putten

## Epilogue

During my time in Ghana, I visited a selection of primary schools, of which many are situated in remote and rural areas. During the journeys to and from those schools, I passed by a great many other schools and communities. This made me realize how many schools are in fact in need of additional support and resources. My research includes a small selection of schools and four months in the field and its scope made me wonder about the following question: Can I leave behind a legacy to these schools and actors with whom I have been cooperating in my research?

On my last day in Tamale Metropolis, I attended a PTA-meeting for which many community members, local government officials, and teachers had gathered together. At the end of the meeting, I received a guinea fowl (for the record: one that was alive) accompanied by the words: "Because you have been there for us, not hasty and short, but with intention to find out what is really going on." Being able to return home with this message in mind has taught me a lot about the value of semi-structured interviews and everyday observations in unknown places and of learning about the stories of unknown people. And to be able to pass on their stories in order to contribute to making a change.

"There is no substitute for face-to-face reporting and research" (Thomas L. Friedman)

## Bibliography

ActionAid, (2010), Promoting rights in Schools: Providing quality public education. Johannesburg: International Head Office ActionAid.

AfriMAP, (2010), Ghana; effective delivery of public services: focus on education. Johannesburg: Open Society for West Africa.

Anuradha, Joshi (2008), Producing social accountability? The impact of service delivery reforms. In: Houtzager, Peter and Joshi, Anuradha and Gurza Lavelle, Adrian, red., Accountability, state reform and social accountability, pp. 10 -18. London: Institute of Development Studies

Akyeampong, Kwame (2004), Whole school development in Ghana. Education for all global monitoring report 2005, the quality imperative. UNESCO

Akyeampong, Kwame (2007), School processes, local governance and community participation. University of Sussex: Centre for International Education.

Arnstein, S (1967), A ladder of citizen participation. Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. 35, No 4, 1966, pp.216 - 244.

Bruns, B., D. Filmer, H. Patrinos (2011), Making schools work, New evidence on accountability reforms. Washington: World bank.

Brundrett, Mark (2011), Leadership for quality and accountability in education. London: Routledge

Cabral, Lidia (2011), Decentralisation in Africa: Scope, motivations and impact on service delivery and poverty. Future agricultures 20, pp. 2 - 13.

CIA World Factbook (2010), Ghana. <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/gh.html>. Retrieved: 10-12-2011.

Crawford, Gordon (2004), Democratic decentralisation in Ghana: issues and prospects. Politics and international studies 9, pp. 1 - 35.

CREATE (Consortium for research on educational access, transitions and equity) (2007), Access to basic education in Ghana: the evidence and the issues. University of Sussex: Centre for International Education.

CRISE (Centre for Research on Inequality, Human security and Ethnicity) (2006), Research and partners in West Africa. <http://www.crise.ox.ac.uk/partners-wafrica.shtml>. Retrieved: 22-01-2012.

Conyers, Diana (2007), Decentralisation and service delivery: Lessons from Sub-Saharan Africa. In: Robinson, Mark, red, Decentralising service delivery? pp. 18 - 33. London: Institute of Development Studies.

DFID (2000), Improving the quality of teaching and learning through community participation: achievements, limitations and risks, early lessons from the schooling improvement fund in Ghana. London: Department for International Development.

DFID (2010), Is hope insight? Five years to meet the Millennium Development Goals and defeat poverty. One world a million stories of development issue 50, pp. 1 - 21.

Educational Research Network for West and Central Africa (ERNWACA), (2002), A transnational view of basic education: issues of access, quality and community participation in West and Central Africa. Mali: Bamako.

EdQual (2005), Research on the quest for education quality indicators: issues, discourse and methodology. Tanzania: University of Dar es Salaam.

EdQual (2006), The concept of quality in education: A review of the internal literature on the concept of quality in education. Bristol: University of Bristol.

EdQual (2004), A review on the concept of quality in education: perspectives from Ghana. Ghana: University of Cape Coast.

EDQual (2009), Social justice, capabilities and the quality of education in low income countries. Bristol: University of Bristol.

EdQual (2010), A framework for education quality. Bristol: University of Bristol.

Fullan, (1999), *School based management: reconceptualising to improve learning outcomes*. Toronto: Ontario institute for studies in education.

Ghana Districts, (2019), Northern region; Tamale Metropolis.  
[http://ghanadistricts.com/districts/?r=6&\\_=80&sa=4031](http://ghanadistricts.com/districts/?r=6&_=80&sa=4031). Retrieved at: 08-07-2012.

Ghana Statistical Service, (2002), *2000 Population and Housing Census. Summary report of final results*. Ghana: Statistical Service.

Ghana Statistical Service, (2005), *2000 Population and Housing Census Northern Region. Analysis of district data and implications for planning*. Ghana: Statistical Service.

Ghana Statistical Service, (2008), *Women and Men in Ghana. A statistical Compendium 2008*. Ghana: Statistical Service.

Government of Ghana (2005), *Growth and poverty reduction strategy 2006 - 2009*. Accra: Government of Ghana.

High Impact Rapid Delivery (HIRD) (2009), *Monitoring the situation of children and women, Northern region Ghana*. Ghana: Statistical service.

Hoffman, Barak (2010), *The political economy of decentralisation in Ghana*. Georgetown: Center for democracy and civil society.

Kuyini, Bawa (2011), *Tamale Metropolitan poor performance in the BECE: implications and suggested actions*. Retrieved at:  
<http://www.ghanaweb.com/GhanaHomePage/features/artikel.php?ID=202163>.

Mancini, Luca (2009), *Comparative trends in ethno-regional inequalities in Ghana and Nigeria: evidence from demographic and health studies*. University of Oxford: Centre of Research on inequality, human security and ethnicity (CRISE).

Maparura, Shingirai, (2010), *Towards universal primary education: Africa's progress in meeting the 2nd Millennium Development Goal*. South Africa: Consultancy Africa Intelligence.

Ministry of education Ghana (2003), *Education Strategic Plan (ESP) 2003 to 2015. Policies, targets and strategies*. Accra: Government of Ghana.

Ministry of Education Ghana (2012), Ghana Education Service, National Education Assessment (NEA). Accra: Government of Ghana.

International council on human rights policy (2002), Local rule. Decentralisation and human rights. Geneva: Switzerland.

International Development Studies (2006), Making accountability count. Citizenship, participation and accountability. IDS policy briefing issue 33, pp. 1 – 4.

International Labour Office (2004), Working out of poverty in Ghana. United Kingdom: London.

Newell, Peter (2006), Taking accountability into account: the debate so far. In : Newell, Peter and Wheeler, Joanna, red., Rights, resources and the politics of accountability, pp. 37 – 59. London: Zed Books.

Ndegwa, Stephen (2002), Decentralisation in Africa: A stocktaking survey. African region working papers series 40, World Bank.

Open Society Initiative for West Africa, (2010), Ghana; effective delivery of public services, focus on education. Johannesburg: AfriMap.

Ramavat Goel, Pooja (2010), Other country decentralisation experiences: Ghana. National council of applied economic research.

Robinson, Mark (2007), Decentralising service delivery? Evidence and policy implications.. In: Robinson, Mark, red, Decentralising service delivery? pp 18 – 33. London: Institute of Development Studies.

Ridell, Aby (2007), Factors influencing educational quality and effectiveness in developing countries: a review of research. Eschborn: German Federal Ministry for Development.

Roger, Cocking (2005), The history of Ghana. London: Greenwood press

Sen, Amartya (1999), Development as freedom. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Standing (2004), Understanding the demand side of service delivery. London: DFID.

Tikley, Leon (2010), Towards a framework for understanding the quality of education. Bristol; University of Bristol

UNESCO, (2000), The right to education; towards education for all throughout life. Available on: <http://www.unesco.org/education/information/wer/PDFeng/wholewer.PDF>. Retrieved at: 4 January 2012.

UNESCO, (2004), History of the quality debate. New York: EFA Global Monitoring Report.

UNESCO, (2005), Education for all; the quality imperative. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO (2008), Targeting education funding to the poor: universal primary education, decentralisation and local level outcomes in Ghana. New York: EFA Global Monitoring Report.

UNDP, (1999), Decentralisation: A sampling of definitions. Available on: [http://www.undp.org/evaluation/documents/decentralization\\_working\\_report.PDF](http://www.undp.org/evaluation/documents/decentralization_working_report.PDF). Retrieved at: 28 December 2011.

UNDP, (2010), Ghana country profile: Human Development Indicators. Available on: <http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/countries/profiles/GHA.html>. Retrieved at: 05 July 2012.

UNDP, (2010), Millennium Development Goals: 2008 Ghana. Available on: UNHABITAT (2009), Ghana: Tamale city profile. Nairobi: United Nations Human Settlement Program.

UNICEF (2000), A situation analysis of children and women in Ghana. Ghana: Accra.

UNICEF (2007), A human rights based approach to education for all. A framework for the realisation of children's rights to education and rights within education. New York: UNICEF.

UNICEF (2007), Achieving Universal Primary Education in Ghana by 2012: A reality or a dream? New York: UNICEF.

UNICEF (2008), Ghana at a glance. Available on: [http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/ghana\\_1878.html](http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/ghana_1878.html). Retrieved at: 3 January 2011.



Van Vliet, Martin (2011), *Accountability and improved service delivery in Sub Saharan Africa, policy orientations*. Leiden: The African Studies Centre.

Vica Versa (2012), 'Booming' Ghana, profiteren de armsten wel mee? pp 20 – 23, 3 Volume 36.

Winkler, Donald (2004), *Strengthening accountability in public education*. Available on: [http://www.equip123.net/docs/e2-AcctPublicEd\\_PolicyBrief.pdf](http://www.equip123.net/docs/e2-AcctPublicEd_PolicyBrief.pdf). Retrieved at: 15 January 2011.

World Bank (2004), *Books Buildings and learning outcomes. An impact evaluation of World Bank support to basic education in Ghana*. Washington: World Bank.

World Bank (2011), *Education in Ghana. Improving equity, efficiency, and accountability of education service delivery*. Africa Region: AFTED.

World Development Report (2004), *Making services work for the poor people*. New York: Oxford University Press.

World Development Report (2006), *Bridging the North, South divide in Ghana*. Washington: World Bank.

## List of Annexes

Annex	Page	Title
1	109	Physical infrastructure Northern Region; Tamale Metropolis
2	111	Major activities actors Tamale Metropolis
3	112	Number of boys and girls in TM, urban and rural
4	113	Indicators teaching and learning Northern region, urban and rural
5	114	Physical infrastructure Northern Region: East Mamprusi
6	115	Physical infrastructure Greater Accra, urban
7	116	Physical infrastructure Greater Accra, rural
8	117	Number of boys and girls Greater Accra, urban and rural schools
9	118	Indicators teaching and learning Greater Accra Region, urban and rural
10	119	Number of trained and untrained teachers Greater Accra and the Northern Region, urban and rural
11	120	List of respondents
12	124	Interviews and questionnaires

## Annex 1. Physical infrastructure Northern region; Tamale Metropolis

	Nyohini Presby A	Nyohini Presby B	Tamale presby primary	Kanville primary	Experimantal primary	Nyereze Primary A	Kotingli primary	Bagliga primary	Kpanvo primary
Net enrollment	487	619	330	633	497	309	276	230	284
Pupil/classroom ratio	1:45	1:75	1:45	1:72	1:83	1:38	1:20	1:18	1:25
Number of classrooms	6*	9*	6*	6*	6*	6*	6*	3*	6*
Condition school building	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Good	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate
Blackboard	Present in each classroom	Present in each classroom	Present in each classroom	Present in each classroom	Present in each classroom	Present in each classroom	Present in each classroom	Present in each classroom	Present in each classroom
Furniture	Not sufficient	Not sufficient	Not sufficient	Not sufficient	Not sufficient	Sufficient	Sufficient	Not sufficient	Sufficient
Compound playground	Present but not maintained	Present but not maintained	Present but not maintained	Present and well kept	Present and well kept	Present but not maintained	Present but not maintained	Present but not maintained	Present but not maintained
Sanitary facilities	X	X	Moderate	Moderate only one facility	Moderate only one facility	X	Moderate only one facility	Moderate only one facility	Moderate only one facility
Electricity	X	X	X	Yes	X	X	X	X	X
Water supply	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water
Teacher housing/ library	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

School feeding	X	X	X	X	X	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Computers	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
health facilities	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

\*KG not included

## Annex 2. Major activities actors Tamale Metropolis

	TMEO	Education Unit	Civil society organisations	Principals	Community
Allocation of the school budget	X			X	
Hiring/transfer of teachers	X	X			
In service training teachers	X	X	X	X	
Provision of textbooks	X		X		
Provision of learning materials			X		X
Involvement of the community	X	X	X	X	
Training (head) teachers, community	X	X	X		
Infrastructure/condition of a school building	X		X		X
Monitor school management	X	X	X	X	
Monitor teaching/learning	X	X	X	X	
Monitor school development plan	X	X		X	
Inspection/visits primary school	X	X	X		X

### Annex 3. Number of boys and girls TM, urban and rural (blue cells) schools

Name school	Total	Boys	Girls	Percentage of Girls
Nyohini Primary "B"	743	368	375	50%
Nyohini Primary "B"	597	296	301	50%
Kanvile Presby Primary	843	412	431	51%
Exptal. Primary	735	332	403	54%
Tamale Primary	451	236	215	47%
Nyerezee Primary	289	182	107	37%
Kotingli Primary	321	183	138	42%
Kpanvo Primary	284	136	148	48%
Bagliga Primary	248	144	104	41%
<b>Total</b>	<b>4991</b>	<b>2546</b>	<b>2445</b>	<b>49%</b>

#### Annex 4. Indicators teaching and learning Northern region (urban and rural (blue cells) schools)

	Nyohini Presby A	Nyohini Presby B	Tamale Presby	Kanville	Experi mental	Nyerez ee A	Kotingli	Bagliga	Kpanvo
Enrolment ratio	487	619	309	633	497	330	276	230	284
Pupil- classroom ratio	1:45	1:75	1:45	1:72	1:83	1:38	1:20	1:18	1:25
Pupil/textboo k ratio	3:1	4:1	2:1	4:1	2:1	3:1	3:1	3:1	4:1
Number of children with pencils and notebooks	247	520	165	401	447	156	125	80	75
Average number of teaching methods in a class	4	4	4	5	5	3	3	3	3

## Annex 5. Physical infrastructure Northern region (East Mamprusi)

	Gambaga primary school	Langbina primary school	Zogilugu primary school	Langbinsi primary school	Dagriboagri
Net enrollment	316	264	146	402	297
Number of classrooms	6*	3*	4*	6*	3*
Condition school building	Moderate	Below standard	Below standard	Moderate	Below standard
Blackboard	Present in all classrooms	X	X	Present in all classrooms	Present in all classrooms
Furniture	Not sufficient	X (absent)	X (absent)	Sufficient	X (absent)
Compound playground	Present but not maintained	X	X	Present and well kept	Present and well kept
Sanitary facilities	Moderate only one facility	X	X	X	X
Electricity	X	X	X	X	X
Water supply	Yes	X	X	X	X
Teacher housing/liberary	X	X	X	X	X
School feeding	X	X	X	Yes	X
Computers	X	X	X	X	X
Special needs provision/health facilities	X	X	X	X	X

\*KG not included



## Annex 6. Physical infrastructure Greater Accra, urban schools

	Otinibi Basic	WASS experi mental I	WASS experi mental II	HAATSO	Baba Yara	Ayi Mensah	REDCO I	REDCO II
Number of classrooms	6*	6*	6*	6 *	6*	3*	6*	6*
Net enrollment	306	565	510	610	525	72	452	311
Condition school building	Good	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Below standard	Moderate	Moderate
Blackboard	Present each classroom	Present each classroom	Present each classroom	Present each classroom	Present each classroom	Present each classroom	Present each classroom	Present each classroom
Furniture	Sufficient	Not sufficient	Not Sufficient	Not sufficient	Not Sufficient	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	Sufficient
Compound playground	Present	Present	Present	Present	X	X	X	X
Sanitary facilities	Moderate only one facility	Moderate only one facility	Moderate only one facility	Moderate one facility	Moderate one facility	Moderate one facility	Moderate one facility	Moderate one facility
Electricity	Yes	X	X	Yes	Yes	X	Yes	Yes
Water supply	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water
Teaching housing/ library	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Feeding	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Computers	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Health facilities	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

\*KG not included

## 7. Physical infrastructure Greater Accra, rural schools

	Djorkpo primary school	Tokpo primary school	Lubuse primary school	Osuwem primary school	Kasunya primary school	Natriku primary
Net enrollment	276	220	145	609	392	400
Number of classrooms	6*	6*	3*	6 *	3*	6*
Condition school building	Good	Moderate	Below standard	Moderate	Below standard	Moderate
Blackboard	Present each classroom	Present each classroom	Present each classroom	Present each classroom	Present each classroom	Present each classroom
Furniture	Sufficient	Not sufficient	Not sufficient	Not sufficient	Not Sufficient	Sufficient
Compound playground	Present not maintained	Present not maintained	Present not maintained	Present not maintained	X	X
Sanitary facilities	Moderate only one facility	Moderate only one facility	Moderate only one facility	Moderate only one facility	X	X
Electricity	Yes	X	X	Yes	Yes	X
Water supply	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water	Rain water
Teacher housing/library	X	X	X	X	X	X
School feeding	X	X	X	X	X	X
Computers	X	X	X	X	X	X
Special needs provision/health facilities	X	X	X	X	X	X

\*KG not included

## Annex 8: Number of boys and girls Greater Accra, urban and rural (blue cells) schools

Name School	Total	Boys	Girls	Percentage of girls
ABOKOBI Presbyterian Primary and KG	518	266	252	49%
HAATSO Calvary Primary and KG	529	257	272	51%
WASS Experimental Primary One and KG	588	235	353	60%
WASS Experimental Primary Two	456	212	244	54%
AYI MENSAH D/A Primary and KG	72	45	27	38%
OTINIBI D/A Primary and KG	276	137	139	50%
REDCO D/A Primary 1 and KG	407	214	193	47%
REDCO D/A Primary 2	313	151	162	52%
BABAYRA Primary 1	421	185	236	56%
BABAYRA Primary 2 and KG	410	196	214	52%
Tokpo R/C Basic	156	84	72	46%
Djorkpo R/C Primary	177	87	90	51%
Kasunya R/C Primary	344	162	182	53%
Lubuse R/C Primary	100	48	52	52%
Natriku R/C Primary	244	111	133	55%
Osuwem R/C Primary	142	66	76	54%
TOTAL	5.153	2.456	2.697	52%

## Annex 9. Indicators teaching and learning Greater Accra region, urban and rural (blue cells) schools

Indicator	Otini bi Basi c	WASS experi mental I	WASS experi mental II	HAA TSO	Bab a Yara	Ayi Men sah	RED CO I	RED CO II	Djor kpo	Tokp o	Lubu se	Osu wem	Kasu nya	Natri ku
Net enrollment	306	565	510	610	525	72	452	311	276	220	145	609	392	400
Pupil/classroom ratio	1:30	1:80	1:75	1:70	1:80	1:12	1:56	1:51	1:35	1:20	1:15	1:55	1:54	1:50
Pupil/textbook ratio	3:1	3:1	3:1	3:1	4:1	2:1	2:1	2:1	3:1	2:1	2:1	5:1	6:1	3:1
Number of children with pencils and notebooks	150	530	460	450	400	66	378	280	148	80	105	386	214	300
Average number of teaching methods in a class	5	5	5	6	3	3	3	5	3	2	3	3	3	3

**Annex 10. Number of trained and untrained teachers Greater Accra and the Northern region urban and rural (blue cells) school**

Greater Accra	Total number teachers	Trained teachers	Untrained teachers	Percentage untrained teachers	Northern region	Total Number teachers	Trained teachers	Untrained teachers	Percentage untrained teachers
Otinibi Basic	8	7	1	13%	Nyohini A	11	10	1	9%
WASS experimental I	15	15	0	0%	Nyohini B	11	11	0	0%
WASS experimental II	20	20	0	0%	Nyerezee	10	6	4	40%
HAATSO	23	20	3	13%	Kanville	20	14	6	30%
Baba Yara	15	13	2	13%	Experimental	11	10	1	9%
Ayi Mensah	4	4	0	0%	Tamale presby primary	8	6	2	25%
REDCO I	13	13	0	0%	Kotingli	8	4	3	38%
REDCO II	11	11	0	0%	Bagliga	7	3	4	57%
Djorkpo	9	5	4	44%	Kpanvo	7	4	3	43%
Tokpo	12	10	2	17%	Gambaga	10	8	2	20%
Lubuse	8	7	1	13%	Langbina	4	1	3	75%
Osuwem	12	10	2	17%	Zogilugu	2	1	1	50%
Kasunya	14	10	4	29%	Langbinsi	6	1	5	83%
Natriku	13	6	7	53%	Dagriboagri	5	1	4	80%

## Annex 11. List of respondents

### Tamale Metropolitan Education Office

Institutions	District	Date
TMEO director of education	Tamale Metropolis	23 February 2012
Circuit supervisor Ann Zakarisa	Tamale Metropolis	02 March 2012
TMEO meeting with primary teachers circuit hospital	Tamale Metropolis	27 February 2012
TMEO meeting with primary teachers circuit education ridge	Tamale Metropolis	2 March 2012
TMA statistical service education	Tamale Metropolis	2 March 2012
TMA statistical service TM	Tamale Metropolis	7 March 2012

### Education Units

Institutions	District	Date
Presbyterian Education Unit, regional manager Amoli Abako	Tamale Metropolis	23 February 2012
Presbyterian Education Unit supervisor Emoliah	Tamale Metropolis	26 April 2012
Director of education Presbyterian church of Ghana Patience Arthur-Badoo	Greater Accra	19 March 2012
Catholic Education Unit regional manager, Philip Dahili	Tamale Metropolis	18 April 2012
Islamic Education Unit regional manager, Sheikh Ali Ibrahim	Tamale Metropolis	27 April 2012
Catholic Education Unit, regional director, Faustina Opoku Yeboah	Greater Accra	9 May 2012

### Principals

School	District	Date
Bugli Musah Kotingly primary school	Tamale rural	28 February 2012
Ben Dokurugu Nyhohini Presby Primary A	Tamale central	2 April 2012
Lansah Sulemana Nyhohini Presby Primary B	Tamale central	2 April 2012
Yakubu Kampa Exptal Presby Primary school	Tamale central	3 April 2012
Paulina Timbilla Nyerezee Primary	Tamale rural	3 April 2012

Victor Anena Kpanvo Presby Primary	Tamale rural	11 April 2012
Head teacher Mrs Asamawu A Ziblim	Tamale central	12 April 2012
Head teacher Bagliga primary	Tamale rural	7 Mei 2012
oyce Dei Nyhohini Primary B	Tamale central	2 April 2012
Mr Abukari Tamale Presby Primary school	Tamale central	11 April 2012

## Civil society organisations

Organization	District	Data
Coalition Northern Network Education (NNED) (affiliate Ghana National Education Campaign GNECC) Florence Koomson	Tamale	08 March 2012
Centre for Active Learning and Integrated Development (CALID) Folizy Alui	Tamale	18 April 2012
School for Life Abdulah Ziblim	Tamale	19 April 2012
CAMFED, Cyril Yabepone, Education Program Officer	Tamale	20 April 2012
AGREDS, George Maluk	Tamale	23 April 2012
IBIS, Klumbei Dafeungu	Tamale	27 April 2012
Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) metro secretariat Sulemana Adiza	Tamale	18 April 2012

## Visits primary schools TM

School	Activity	Date
Kotingly primary school	Interview head teachers + observations p1 / p6, PTA meeting, interview teachers, questionnaire	28 February, 09 March, 26 March, 10 April, 11 May
Bagliga primary school	Interview head teachers + observations p1 / p6, PTA meeting, interview teachers, questionnaire	8 March, 26 April, 10 April, 7 May, 11 May.
Kpanvo primary school	Interview head teachers + observations p1 / p6, PTA meeting, interview teachers, questionnaire	5 March, 9 March, 11 April, 11 May, 08 May
Tamale Presby Primary	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data + questionnaire teachers	Tuesday 27 March, 11 April
Nyhohini Presby Primary "A"	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data + questionnaire teachers	Tuesday 27 March

Nyohini Presby Primary "B"	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data + questionnaire teachers	Tuesday 27 March, 2 April
Nyohini Presby Primary "B"	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data + questionnaire teachers	Tuesday 27 March, 2 April
Exptal. Presby Primary	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data + questionnaire teachers	Wednesday 28 March, 3 April
Kanvile Presby Primary	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data + questionnaire teachers	Wednesday 28 March, 12 April
Nyerezee Presby Primary "A"	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data + questionnaire teachers	Thursday 29 March, 3 April

### Visits primary schools Greater Accra

School	Activity	Date
HAATSO Calvary Primary and KG	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	19 maart
WASS Experimental Primary One and KG	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	20 maart
WASS Experimental Primary Two	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	20 maart
AYI MENSAH D/A Primary and KG	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	20 maart
OTINIBI D/A Primary and KG	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	20 maart
REDCO D/A Primary 1 and KG	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	21 maart
REDCO D/A Primary 2	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	21 maart
BABAYRA Primary 1	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	21 maart
BABAYRA Primary 2 and KG	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	21 maart
Tokpo primary school	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	2 May 2012
Djorkpo primary school	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	2 May 2012
Lubuse primary school	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	3 May 2012



	data Accra primary schools	
Osuwem primary school	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	3 May 2012
Kasunya primary school	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	3 May 2012
Natriku primary school	Shoeboxes + learning environment and data Accra primary schools	3 May 2012

## **Annex 12. Interviews and questionnaires**

### **Questionnaire TMEO and Education Unit**

#### ***Introduction***

- Do you want to introduce yourself and the organization/institution?
- Can you give a description of your occupation/function?
- What are the main responsibilities and tasks of the regional education office/education unit/metropolitan office in delivering quality primary education?

#### ***Education system Tamale Metropolis***

- With which education institutions on a regional and Tamale Metropolis district level are you working together?
- What kind of factors do you need to report to the Metropolitan Assembly?
- How are the responsibilities for the delivery of quality education divided between the catholic education unit and the Metropolitan Assembly?
- How are tasks and responsibilities divided between the catholic education unit? Are there any shared responsibilities education with other stakeholders?
- How many primary school are under your responsibility?
- How often do you visit a primary school?
- If you visit a primary school, which factors do you take into account?
- What challenges do you face in monitoring the primary schools?
- How do you see the role of civil society organisations in primary education?

#### ***Quality of education in Tamale Metropolis***

- What are the main challenges for improving the quality of primary education in Tamale Metropolis? Can you indicate them in the table?
- What should be priorities for primary education in the Tamale Metropolis district?
- Which activities do you undertake to monitor the quality of education?
- Which activities do you undertake to monitor the quality of teaching?
- What challenges are reported by teachers and head teachers in the primary school?
- Are there any sanctions if a primary school performs poor in providing qualitative primary education?
- Do you face challenges to visit the rural primary school?
- How can the difference of the quality of education between primary schools in Tamale Metropolis be explained?

## **Questionnaire Principals**

### ***Introduction***

- Do you want to introduce yourself and the primary school?
- What are your duties and responsibilities?

### ***Education system of Tamale Metropolis***

- Which actors are involved by this primary school? (regional and Tamale Metropolis district level)?
- How many times does a education unit and metropolitan education office visit your school?
- What is the role of the metropolitan office in your school? What are the responsibilities of the metropolitan office?
- What is the role of the education unit in your school? What are the responsibilities of the education unit?
- How often does the education unit visit your primary school?
- How you need to report to the education unit? On which regularly basis?
- Which recommendations for improvement where made by the education unit?
- How often does a supervisor of the metro office visit your primary school?
- How do you need to report to the metro office? On which regularly basis?
- Which recommendations for improvement where made by the supervisor?
- What problems do you face in regard to the monitoring role of the Education Unit and Metro Office?
- How do you see the role of civil society organisations in primary education? Which civil society organizations are involved in the primary school?

### ***Quality of education***

- What are the main challenges for improving the quality of primary education at your primary school? Can you indicate them in the table?
- What challenges do you experience as a head teacher in providing quality primary education? Do you have suggestions for improvement?
- What are the responsibilities of the head teacher in securing the quality of primary education? Which activities do you undertake to monitor quality?
- What challenges are reported by teachers in the primary school?
- What challenges are reported by the PTA, SMC and parents?
- For which purposes did you use the capitation grant?
- To who do you need to report issues concerning infrastructure, textbooks and teachers?

## **Questionnaire civil society organisations**

### ***Introduction***

- Do you want to introduce yourself and the organization?
- Do you want to give a description of the organizations and its major goals?
- Can you give a description of your occupation/function?
- What are your main activities in education and/or primary education in the Tamale Metropolis district?

### ***Education system Tamale Metropolis***

- With which education institutions on a regional and Tamale Metropolis district level are you working together?
- To which institution do you need to report results and findings?
- With how many primary schools are you working together?
- Are you in direct contact with the head teacher and/or school management of primary schools? On which regular basis?
- If you visit a primary school, which factors do you take into account?
- Are you in contact with other stakeholders? As for instance a religious institution or regional education office/education unit/ metropolitan education?
- Do you have any links with the parents/community of a primary school?
- How do you see the role of civil society organisations in Tamale Metropolis in improving the quality of education?
- What challenges do you define in regard to the cooperation of various stakeholders in delivering quality education?

### ***Quality of education in Tamale Metropolis***

- What is your opinion about the quality of primary education in Tamale Metropolis?
- What are the main challenges for improving the quality of primary education in Tamale Metropolis? Can you indicate the challenges in the table?
- What should be priorities for the quality primary education in Tamale Metropolis district?
- Which mechanisms do you use to monitor the quality of primary education?
- What challenges do you face in monitoring the primary schools?
- What challenges are reported by the head teachers and teachers of a primary school?
- Which mechanisms are in place to hold primary schools accountable for the delivery of good quality education?

- Are there any consequences if a primary school performs poor in providing qualitative primary education?
- Do you face any challenges in visiting the rural schools?
- Do you experience differences in the quality of primary education between primary schools in Tamale Metropolis? How can these be explained?

## Questionnaire teachers

Name primary school: \_\_\_\_\_ Name teacher:

\_\_\_\_\_ P: \_\_\_\_\_

Can you provide an answer on the following questions? The circle for the right answer can be crossed. If you find a \_\_\_\_\_ line in an answer the number of children and times can be filled in. If more space is needed the backside of this paper can be used.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Do the children in your class have notebooks and pencils?</li> </ul> <p>Yes, all children No, only _____ children have textbooks and _____ have pencils</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Do the children in your class each have a textbook?</li> </ul> <p>Yes, all children No, only _____ children have textbooks</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>How often do you give the children homework?</li> </ul> <p>_____ a week _____ a month Children (almost) don't get homework</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Do the children make their homework?</li> </ul> <p>Yes, all children make their homework No, only on average _____ children make their homework</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Do the children bring their notebooks and pencils?</li> </ul> <p>Yes, all children bring their notebooks and pencils No, only on average _____ children bring their notebooks and pencils</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>How often do you give individual assignments?</li> </ul> <p>_____ times a week _____ times a month Less than 10 times a year</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>How many teaching methods did you use in your class last week?</li> </ul> <p>&lt;4 4-5 6-8</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>What is the average number of children in your class who didn't attend regular last week?</li> </ul> <p>1-4 5-9 10-14</p>
<p>What are challenges in teaching and learning on your primary school?</p> <p>_____ (for more space the backside of this paper can be used)</p>	<p>What are major challenges in the quality of education on your primary school?</p> <p>_____ (for more space the backside of this paper can be used)</p>

Can you indicate in the table if each factor is no challenge (1), a mediate challenge (2, 3 or 4) or a major challenge (5) on your primary school?

	<b>No challenge</b>				<b>Major challenge</b>
<b>Learning environment</b>					
Teacher housing	1	2	3	4	5
N of classrooms	1	2	3	4	5
Condition school building	1	2	3	4	5
Facilities (water, Electricity, computers)	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Learning</b>					
Availability of textbooks	1	2	3	4	5
Learning materials (pencils, notebooks)	1	2	3	4	5
Irregular attendance	1	2	3	4	5
<b>School management</b>					
Effective functioning team	1	2	3	4	5
Training/capacity building	1	2	3	4	5
Record keeping	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Involvement Parents and community</b>					
Report about activities	1	2	3	4	5
Number of meetings per year	1	2	3	4	5
Training needs	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for filling in this questionnaire!!!