

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE PROVISION OF BASIC  
EDUCATION IN THE MFANTSIMAN MUNICIPALITY OF THE  
CENTRAL REGION OF GHANA

BY

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## DECLARATION

### Candidate's Declaration

*I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.*

Candidate's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Ato Zubair Johnston

### Supervisors' Declaration

*We hereby declare that the preparation of this thesis were supervised and presented in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.*

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## **ABSTRACT**

The study was conducted to explore the state of community involvement in the provision of basic education in the Mfantsiman Municipality of the Central Region. The research design used for the study was a descriptive survey.

A total sample of 260 respondents made up of officers of municipal education directorate, teachers and PTAs/SMCs and Municipal Assembly members were selected for the study. These respondents were drawn from 50 Basic Schools which were randomly selected from the total number of 98 schools in the municipality. The simple random sampling using the lottery method was used to select the respondents. The survey employed the use of questionnaire which was pilot tested with a Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient of .832. The descriptive statistics was used to analyse data where frequency counts, percentages and tables were employed.

The analysis revealed that community participation was greatly felt in terms of the provision of land for school projects and communal labour to help put up school projects. However, it was realised that community involvement in terms of financial assistance was relatively low. Again, members of the community did not show keen interest in the teachers' use of instructional hours as well as in the welfare of teachers.

The research thus recommends that collaboration between the school and the community be strengthened to ensure that the community's participation in education delivery becomes stronger. Again, there should be effective strategies such as frequent visits by circuit supervisors to monitor the use of contact hours.

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## **DEDICATION**

To my dear wife, Naana and my two children,

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

FCUBE	Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education
SMC	School Management Committee
PTA	Parents' Teacher Association
DEOC	District Education Oversight Committee
WSM	Whole School Management
GES	Ghana Education Service
PMT	Performance Monitoring Test
MoE	Ministry of Education
ADP	Accelerated Development Plan
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
SIF	School Improvement Fund
UBE	Universal Basic Education
CARE	Cooperation for Assistance and Relief Everywhere
KG	Kindergarten
JHS	Junior High School
MDE	Municipal Directorate of Education
CGPP	Community Government Partnership Programme
CP	Community Participation
MASAF	Malawi Social Action Fund
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
SSA	Sub Saharan Africa

UNESCO	United Nation Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
EFA	Education for All
UPE	Universal Primary Education
GoG	Government of Ghana
MESS	Ministry of Education Science and Sports
PSDP	Primary School Development Project
CBO	Community Based Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **Background to the Study**

It is recognized the world over that education is a very important tool in national development. This is because it is through education that the nation's human resources which ultimately determine the character and pace of its social and economic development is developed (Forojalla, 1993).

Since independence, a number of governments of Ghana through the Ministry of Education have formulated and implemented policies and codes of discipline for schools with the aim of improving and making education accessible to all children of school- going age. These policies and codes include the Code of Discipline for Basic Schools (1986), Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) (1996), Government White Paper on new Educational Reforms (2004) and the introduction of Capitation Grants of 2004. These policies have translated into increased enrolment and retention rate in the basic schools. The policy of Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education which was introduced in 1996 represented the effort by government to ensure that all children of school-going age received free and compulsory quality primary education by 2005. This policy, among other things, helped to:

1. create motivation for a coordinated sector programme providing a framework for donor support to education, and
2. create a drive for educational decentralization with greater recognition of the important role of community participation in school management for school improvement. (Akyeampong, 2004).

Community participation in the provision of Basic Education could be complex. However, in most cases, the presence of a school in a locality makes the community feel and have the opportunity to take full control and management of the school. When there is a school in a community, the members of the community see themselves to be part of the decision-making process of the school and also as supervisors of the learning and teaching processes of their children (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993). According to the Commonwealth Secretariat, the community provides services, control resources and utilize the available resources to the full benefit of their children in the community. The Secretariat further points out, that communities are naturally interested in their own well being and survival so as to have a keen interest in their offspring or new recruits. Consequently, the community attempts to hand over knowledge, value and skills which are special to the group.

According to Manu (cited in Buah-Bassuah, 2004) the quality of education a community's children receives depends on the level of interest and involvement and governance of its schools. It is often argued that if the communities are willing to participate in the provision of education for their youth, then they must have the right to take active part in determining the kind of education their

children should receive. As the community assists in funding education it must also have the right to hold educational personnel accountable for the smooth running of the educational institution.

In order to ensure community participation in the provision, management and governance of schools, the government of Ghana made provision for it in the 1994 Ghana Education Service Act, Section 9 sub section 2. Among other things, the Act provides for the establishment in every district, a District Education Oversight Committee (DEOC). The Committee was concerned with providing school buildings and means of proper supervision of teaching and learning. There should also be proper monitoring of teaching and learning materials.

In order to strengthen community ownership of schools, School Management Committees (SMCs) were set up across the country to strengthen Community Ownership of schools. This committee was to make school authorities and teachers more responsible and accountable. Also, it was to strengthen the management and administration of schools. Added to the School Management Committee (SMCs) are Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs). The PTAs and the SMCs were created with the intention, among others things, to enhance communities' sense of ownership and participation in education service delivery (Akyeampong, 2004). These bodies which are recognized in our educational sector can bring improvement in our educational pursuits and consequently the human resource development of our nation if they are helped to function well. However, the establishment of School Management Committees (SMCs) together with PTAs in the basic schools now aims at forging stronger

links between the home, the school and the community; bringing parents and school authorities to work jointly for the development of the school, assisting fund-raising activities, providing some basic needs like furniture, sports equipment, library books etc. and supplementing school requirements.

Siita (cited in Mankoe 2002), affirms that community participation in decision-making at the grassroots level forms the cornerstone of the District Assembly Concept. This participation includes the provision of educational services to promote access and community participation in education service delivery at the local level.

The Whole School Development (WSD) programme has over the years trained community participation co-ordinators in all the districts and municipalities in the country. The programme was also able to collaborate with the Inspectorate Division of the Ghana Education Service (GES) to train district personnel on how to conduct School Performance Appraisal Meeting (SPAM). At SPAM, school management committees, teachers and the rest of the community meet to discuss the results of pupils' performance on Performance Monitoring Test (PMT) administered locally, and from the deliberations on the data draw up plans to improve the quality of schooling (Government of Ghana, 2004).

The fact still remains that Community Participation activities should lead to a better sense of ownership of schools on the part of parents and other community members. This will in turn help to ensure that education provided is of good quality and relevant to children's future lives. Additionally, it should also

lead to increased support to schools from their communities in areas of financial and other contributions.

In Ghana, communities have played a vital role in the development and provision of education. Many of the basic schools in Ghana were originally initiated by communities which willingly recruited teachers and provided places of learning for their children. As the schools progressed, they were absorbed into the public school system. This led to management and control of the schools shifting to central government and the subsequent decrease in community involvement. This centralized control and management of the education delivery system over a long period has had a reverse effect on the local community commitment and involvement in the quality, management and access or participation in education in Ghana.

The Ministry of Education (MOE) and Ghana Education Service (GES) recognize the importance of reciprocal partnership of school-community leaders and local school authorities in effecting changes in the schools. Under the FCUBE, the MOE and GES have committed themselves to building a systematic approach to assisting community organizations to play a major part in the regeneration of their schools. It is the belief of the MOE and GES that communities which in most cases are made up of parents have an important role to play in enforcing standards developing and maintaining school infrastructure, and creating a partnership between teachers, pupils and district authorities to bring about needed changes. (GES, 2001).



## **Statement of the Problem**

All over the world, educators, policymakers as well as stakeholders are making frantic efforts to find ways of utilizing scarce resources in the education sector more effectively and efficiently. This is an attempt to gather appropriate resources in the educational sector to provide good quality education for all children of school-going age. The central government is one big organization in a modern state that can obtain the chunk of the needed resources to provide education for all (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975). Despite all the good efforts made over the years and are being made, it is evident that the government being the major stakeholder in education cannot provide every educational need and therefore stands to gain immensely when communities take active part in the educational delivery of their locality. Community participation in education has existed for quite some time now and most communities have played active roles when it comes to educational delivery in their area. Williams (1994), states that until the middle of the twenty first century, responsibility for educating children rested with the community.

Community participation in the provision of education is gaining more grounds because it ensures a sense of belongingness and ownership of the educational facility. Many attempts have been made over the years by governments to involve communities in the education process. The Accelerated Development Plan (ADP) of 1951 encouraged the local councils and the people to partly fund and implement basic education in their communities. However, many

of the local councils were hard pressed with funds and could not provide enough support for the schools in their areas.

Educational Reform Programmes which evolved later also hammered on the issue of local community involvement in funding education in the country. Many people believe that the government is not doing enough when it comes to the provision of school inputs such as buildings, furniture, textbooks and teachers especially in the rural areas. Atakpa and Ankomah (1998) established that the most important factors relating to quality learning include interactions of students with their families, peers, teachers and the head of the school. They further assert that for schools to realize quality student achievement and performance there should be competent leadership, capable teaching force, professional teacher support and supervision, use and care of supplies and equipment and school/community support and interaction.

According to Uemura (1999) although there are still places where communities organize themselves to operate schools for their children, community participation in education has not been fully recognized. In the Mfantseman municipality, very little research has been conducted regarding the involvement of the community in basic education delivery. The study therefore sought to find the extent to which communities in the Mfantseman municipality participate in the administration and provision of basic education in the Mfantseman Municipality of Education.

### **Purpose of the Study**

This study was a descriptive survey intended to identify the community's participation in the provision of basic education in the Mfantsiman municipality.

The specific research objectives were to:

1. Find out the roles played by the community to develop basic education in the Mfantsiman municipality
2. To identify the impact of community participation on access and participation in the municipality.
3. To find out the role played by the community in the monitoring and supervision of basic education.
4. To unearth the challenges encountered by communities in basic education delivery. This research was conducted to address these concerns.

### **Research Questions**

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. Which roles do communities in the Mfantsiman municipality play in developing basic education?
2. How does community participation impact on access and participation in basic education?
3. What role does the community play in the monitoring and supervision of basic education?

4. What are the challenges encountered by the communities in the Mfantseman municipality in basic education delivery?

### **Significance of the Study**

The study hopes to encourage stakeholders in education to participate fully in the educational delivery in the Mfantseman municipality. Furthermore, the findings will serve as a source of information to parents, students, teachers, traditional rulers and other stakeholders. Parents will be fully aware of the kind of support required of them to make education delivery a success. Students on the other hand will do their possible best to avail themselves for the teaching and learning process. The findings of this study will help teachers and officers of the Mfantseman educational directorate to play their expected roles to develop basic education in the municipality. Again, the study will provide PTAs and SMCs in various schools with strategies to improve the learning conditions of schools. . Furthermore, the findings is hoped to inform the community members on the need to join hands with the government in the provision of basic education in their locality. The findings will also add to existing literature.

### **Delimitation**

The scope of this study was limited to community participation in basic education. The researcher specifically aimed at dealing with the District Directorate of Education, Municipal Assembly, School Management Committees

(SMCs), Parent Teacher Associations and Teachers in the municipality. The study is confined to basic schools with kindergarten up to junior high schools.

This study was purported to cover some selected public basic schools in the Mfantsiman municipality. The reason being that these categories of schools have similarities and peculiar problems. Consequently, a good representative of the target group could help to generalize the findings to all public basic schools in the Mfantsiman Municipality. This study was confined to issues related to community involvement in the provision of basic education, particularly touching on the role played to develop basic education, the role played in the monitoring and supervision, the community's support towards improving access to basic education and the challenges encountered in the provision of basic education in the Mfantsiman municipality.

### **Limitation**

In collecting data for the study questionnaires were distributed to the respondents to complete after which the questionnaires were collected some days later. The possibility of the respondents conferring from each other could affect the quality of the result. With this in mind the researcher prior to administering the questionnaire met and assured the respondents of their confidentiality and the need for them to be independent and provide genuine information. Again, the researcher being a teacher who has taught in the Mfantsiman municipality before, his personal bias in analysing the issues could have affected the results. However,

the researcher tried to remain as neutral as possible so as to make the findings a basis for generalization.

### **Organization of the Study**

This study is put into five main chapters. Chapter one is the introduction of the study. It describes the background to the study, statement of the problem and purpose of the study. Additionally, it sets out four research questions that the study is expected to answer, significance of the study, delimitations of the study and limitations of the study.

Chapter two contains the review of related literature on the subject. Areas reviewed include; community, participation, community participation in education, community schools in Africa, rationale for community schools in Africa, participative management theory, forms of community participation in education, historical perspective of basic education in Ghana, importance of community participation in education and challenges to community participation in education.

Chapter three describes the method used to conduct this research. It comprises the research design, population of the study, sample and sampling procedure, data collection procedure, instrument testing, administration of instrument and data analysis plan. The analysis of results and findings from the study were discussed in chapter four. These include roles played to develop basic education, the impact of community participation on access and participation in

basic education, roles played by the community in the monitoring and supervision and the challenges faced by communities in the delivery of basic education.

Chapter five deals with the summary of the research process, summary of the main findings, conclusions drawn from the findings, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

#### **Introduction**

In recent times, community in education has become a global concern of all the stakeholders in the educational enterprise. This has led to educational discourse among eminent and prolific writers all over the world. Literature reviewed concerning this study focused on the following subheadings;

1. Meaning of community
2. Meaning of participation
3. Community participation in education
4. Community schools in Africa
5. Rationale for community schools in Africa
6. Participative Management Theory
7. Forms of community participation in education
8. Historical perspective of basic education in Ghana
9. Importance of community participation in education
10. Challenges to community participation in education



## **Meaning of Community**

A community, according to Serjiovanni (2001), is a collection of individuals who are bonded together by natural will and who are together bound to a set of shared ideas and ideals. This bonding he continues is tight enough to transform them from individual behavior to a group one.

The Commonwealth Secretariat (1993) also refer to a community as a group of people living in one place or locality such as a village or town having the same or similar interest. According to the Secretariat, communities are naturally interested in their own well-being and survival and so have keen interest in their offspring or new recruits. As a result, people in a community attempt to share things in common by transmitting the knowledge, value, or skill which is special to their group.

In another dimension, Midwinter (1975) asserts that communities are organized around relationships and the felt interdependence that nurture them. They create social structure that unifies people and binds them to a set of shared values and ideas.

According to Midwinter (1975), one important asset of any community is the school. The school is seen as one of the main transmitters of knowledge, values and skills needed by the society. Therefore for effective school organization, there is the need for a thorough knowledge of the school environment such as the people and their occupation, culture and aspirations.

From the foregoing one can conclude that a community is made up of a group of individuals with shared ideas who create unifying structures that bind them in areas of knowledge, skills, values, culture and aspirations.

### **Meaning of Participation**

Participation is a situation where a person or group of persons can have something to say about a decision. The idea about participation is a simple way to inspire people and a technique towards achieving success in developing harmony and attaining common goals of an organization.

Participation, as described by White (1982), is the regular and significant individual or group involvement in organizational decisions that affect individual standards. Participation further ensures that the organization is on target in terms of responding to the needs of the clients it serves. Participation further focuses on the specific ways in which staff can be involved in the management processes with the objective of improving the organization's effectiveness. Participation may also be used to determine the way a job should be performed, how a group should divide up the work and what the goals might be. Participation aims at making everyone part of the system. Similarly, Mclagan and Nel (1995) claim that the focus of participation is of short and long term value in satisfying multiple stakeholders. People everywhere in the system are equally responsible for creating it.

From the foregoing, a community may refer to a group of individuals living in a locality with a common goal and interest. Participation, on the other

hand, is a situation where every member of a group gets involve to make something happen. Community participation therefore refers to people in a locality with common goal and interest, doing things in common, to achieve greater results.

### **Community Participation in Education**

Community participation has received increased attention in both international and national policy in recent years. It is considered important as an end in itself (as a democratic right), as well as a means to the achievement of sustainable development and poverty alleviation (Stiglitz, 1997). According to Stiglitz, the interest in community participation has occurred simultaneously with an intensified focus on achieving gender parity in education, and community participation may be seen as one of the means to achieve this goal. One of the potential outcomes of community participation as an end in itself is the transformation of gender relations, allowing the opportunity for women to participate alongside men in decision-making, for example. As a means to an end, community participation in education is seen as a way to increase resources, improve accountability of schools to the community they serve, ensure a more cost-effective use of resources and, importantly, be responsive to local needs. As a result, it intends to improve equitable access, retention, quality and performance of schooling.

Many writers have deliberated at length on the issue of Community Participation in their educational pursuits to facilitate the development of their

area. White (1982) argues that community participation guarantees the use of indigenous knowledge and expertise. This is as a result of the fact that the indigenous professionals are so much familiar with the environment and therefore are able to make changes which are progressive. Participating in education makes the indigenous people self-reliant and put basic knowledge and skills in their hands. Community participation has contributed to growth in human dignity in the society. As such, if it is well structured can make people emerge as masters on their own destiny.

In Houghton and Tregear (1969), they believed that community participation is a key factor to propel a school to perform its function as a transmitter of the culture of the people. They further argued that educators and policy makers are becoming more and more aware of the fact that if education is isolated from the cultural environment it cannot effectively transmit the cultural values of the society for development. Many schools in developing countries have not lived up to expectation in terms of how the schools themselves adapt to the needs of the community in which they are situated.

According to Manu (1997), community participation emphasizes the idea of a community's reflection of the systems approach to management. This approach suggests that society is made up of interrelated set of elements functioning as a whole and that no department is fully independent of another. He emphasized that no department of a society can act independently or make decisions without considering the effect it will have on other departments. In this wise, the present school community is seen to be familiar with group structures in

the areas served by the school. This means there are groups and subgroups in the areas served by the school and that all these groups in the community have different interest and values as far as the school is concerned. Some of these groups are opinion leaders and as a result represent power structures in the community. It therefore pays great dividend for educational authorities and their staff to be aware of these groups and learn to work in co-operation with them and also through them for influencing people in the school community.

Community participation in education therefore implies that the school must be open and that there should be constant involvement of the community in its affairs. Such a system must be characterized with the flow of information from both the school and the community in a congenial atmosphere. This can help establish some kind of cordial relationship between the school and the community.

According to Uemura (1999), education takes place most efficiently and effectively when the school and the community collaborate. This is why all efforts must be made to bridge the gap between them in order to maximize their contributions. Accordingly, it suffices to establish and continuously attempt to develop partnerships between schools, parents and communities.

According to Heneveld and Craige (1996), parental and community support are key factors to determine school effectiveness in Sub-Saharan Africa. Consequently, five categories of parent and community support that are relevant to the region are identified as:

1. Children attend school ready to learn.

2. The community should provide financial and material support to the school.
3. The community must have a meaningful role to play when it comes to school governance.
4. There must be frequent and effective communication between the school, parents and the community and
5. Both the community members as well as parents must extend a helping hand when it comes to instructing the children.

According to the World Bank report (1997), community participation in basic education has been jointly taken by United Kingdom (UK) and Ghana governments under the School Improvement Fund (SIF) project. The SIF initially examined community participation in Ghana to improve the quality of education and increase access. The SIF is a mechanism for financially small-scale initiatives to encourage community-based demand-driven initiatives that represent a potential for improving the quality of teaching and learning. Again, it fosters a sense of community ownership of schools and hence increases the interest and active participation in the education process. This SIF manifested in the form that made the communities provide labour in putting up their school structures.

Since the end of the 1980s, there has been a growing body of opinion among politicians, academicians and the wider public that has been concerned to promote participation in education practices for children, students, parents and teachers. Participation on the strength of this is perceived and presented mostly as an increased and active involvement of these target groups in the activities and

decisions that concern their lives. Participation in education has grown rapidly towards the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and become an interesting subject to many educational stakeholders. However, it has been argued that participation has never been a straight forward journey and there is doubt that it has reached its destination especially in rural schools (Squelch & Lemmer, 1993).

The Ghana Education Service in conjunction with the Ministry of Education is responsible for providing details for the implementation of approved national policies and programmes relating to pre-tertiary education. However, community participation in the provision and management of pre-tertiary education is very vital. As a result, the Ministry of Education has since 1994 declared that the management and supervision of schools can no longer remain the monopoly of GES. This is why the Ministry is doing all it can to encourage communities to take up some of the responsibilities in the management and supervision of the school system. Hence the District Oversight Committee (DEOC) and the School Management Committee (SMC) have been instituted to strengthen community ownership of schools (Manu, 1997).

### **Community Schools in Africa**

In most of the African countries during the colonial period, schools were started and run by communities and churches. In Ghana for instance with the coming of independence, these schools were taken over by the government and became the basis of the public school system. Community schools, therefore, have a long history in parts of Africa. The *écoles spontanées* in Chad are examples of

primary schools entirely created and financed by communities in the post-colonial period. Community participation is a term that covers a wide range of activities. Community schools may include a high level of local participation that projects community roles more clearly. Communities have significant responsibilities in creating, constructing, financing, and managing the school, recruiting and paying teachers, and procuring school materials (Tietjen, 1999). These schools differ from government schools in their funding sources, governance, management structure, organization, and, often, curricula. In most countries, according to Tietjen, a community school is a community-based, owned and managed learning institution that meets the primary educational needs of pupils, who for a number of reasons cannot enter government schools.

A number of distinguishing factors about community schools are that a committee of community representatives do manage and organize these schools, which can be locally or externally initiated. Community schools target orphans, underprivileged children and girls. These schools provide educational opportunities for underserved groups (rural poor, ethnic minorities, girls) at a sustainable cost. They are located within communities that don't have easy access to public schools. Management of the schools involves a partnership among private organizations, communities, and government. Teachers are recruited, trained, and supported from the local area. Schools use a locally-relevant, child-centered curriculum and pedagogy while covering the basic knowledge and skills required by the formal education system so that successful pupils can continue in government schools. Community schools often provide education where families



have no alternative. Usually, the community builds schools and hires teachers while the Ministry of Education provides supervision. Though the schools belong to the community, they are included in the national education system (Hartwell & Pittman, 1999).

## **Rationale for Community Schools in Africa**

### **Increasing Access**

Increased access, particularly for children from neglected populations (rural areas, ethnic minorities, girls), is the main reason for creating community schools. The issue of access is linked to the lack of government resources. One strategy to achieve Universal Basic Education (UBE) is expecting local participation to be an integral part of basic education. Governments seek financial contributions from communities to complement their own investments in providing primary education. While it remains the responsibility of national governments to guarantee education, the current reality of most African countries is such that the only hope for achieving UBE is for communities to contribute to the cost and management of schooling. Local communities in Chad, facing a lack of government-provided primary education during that country's civil war, created, financed, and managed schools completely independently to meet educational demand (Muskin, 1999). Today, CARE International generally creates community schools to increase access to education for children who would otherwise have no access (Hartwell & Pittman, 1999).

### **Relevance to Local Needs**

Though community schools differ from country to country, they are usually based on the same principle: more relevant to the wants and needs of the community than government schools, better integrated into the environment (mostly rural), and teaching practical subjects as well as theory (World Bank, 2000).

### **Cost Effectiveness**

Uemura (1999) asserts that education stakeholders want to use limited resources effectively and efficiently to solve problems and provide quality education for children. Community schools are thought to have three advantages over conventional schools: have potential for expanding access to more students and neglected populations; are more responsive to the local demand for education (decide structure, language, who teachers are, curriculum, give better learning outcomes) and are cost-effective with comparable or better instructional services for less money (Tietjen, 1999). According to Save the Children/USA (2001), each community has the human and financial resources necessary to begin educating its children and the cost of education can be considerably reduced without reducing quality.

### **Improving Quality and Increasing Student Achievement**

Community participation in education is a strategy to improve educational access and quality (Uemura 1999). According to Uemura, World Learning's Community School Program in Ethiopia operated under the theory that if

communities could be mobilized around their local schools and if school committees competed for and obtained funding for school development, then educational quality could improve and more children would succeed in school.

Dowd (2001) has shown that parents and community involvement in education has a positive effect on student outcomes. In developing countries, planners and policy makers see the potential of community support in enhancing pupil outcomes. Community support plays a role in increasing outcomes in three ways: (i) adding resources to education efforts; (ii) extending education coverage or increasing local demand for quality education; and (iii) enhancing the implementation of education, its relevance, and the accountability of the education system. One critical question, however, is whether or not community participation is important for delivering quality education; technical expertise may be more important than local support (Rugh & Bossert, 1998).

### **Decentralization**

One school of thought contends that community schools are a way to implement educational decentralization. For some time, governments and international agencies have been advocating decentralization as a mechanism for improving education provision in developing countries. An alternative approach to educational administration and management has been to entrust management decisions downward in the hierarchy, often to community levels. This has been accompanied by governance reforms promoting the participation of stakeholders in educational management (UNESCO, 1990). Critics of community participation

think that the limited resources should be used to increase the government's capacity to deliver quality education efficiently and effectively. Mobilizing the community to take over the provision of education only postpones the reform of state institutions.

The counter argument is that governments may never have the resources to provide universal basic education and that community support must supplement state efforts, particularly for difficult-to-reach populations (Rugh & Bossert, 1998). Supporters of community participation in education argue that it is a good idea in itself, beyond achieving educational services and outcomes, as it contributes to the growth of civil society and democratic institutions (Rugh & Bossert, 1998).

### **Increased Access and Enrollment**

Increased access and overall enrollment rates contribute significantly to national education, and community school enrollment is a significant percentage of total enrollment in some countries. For example, ten percent of enrolled children in Mali and Togo are in community schools (Marchand, 2000). In general, the choice is not between a community school and a government school; rather it is between a community school and no school (Muskin, 1999). World Education in Mali noted a 20 percent increase in the number of children in schools, and a steady increase in the number of schools offering upper-level primary grades (World Education/Mali, 2001). World Learning in Ethiopia has seen a higher overall enrollment rate in the region where its program operates thus

total enrollment increased by 8.9 percent and girls' enrollment by 13.8 percent on average (World Learning, 1999). The Community School Alliances project in Ghana has seen improving enrollment levels. Both World Education and Save the Children in Guinea were seen to have increased access through building new classrooms and recruiting new teachers, though the difficulties in supplying teachers for the Save the Children schools meant that access did not increase as much as was hoped for (Rifkin & de Marcken, 2000).

### **Gender Equity**

Girls' participation in primary education has grown in a number of programs and gender equity in enrollment has been reached or improved over government school rates. World Learning in Ethiopia reports that female attendance and success are high. The percentage of girls in classes went from 33.3 to 38. In grade 4, community schools had 36 percent girls, compared to only 28 in government schools (World Learning, 1999).

### **Participative Management Theory**

In Ghana, democratic participation in education has been improving since the passage of the Educational Act of 1994. The ministry of education has been making efforts to sensitize learners, teachers, parents and communities regarding their democratic role and responsibilities in education. The Ministry of Education emphasises that it is working on the decentralization process of some of its programmes and activities to consolidate and enhance the already decentralized

activities of the education regions. One of the reasons for this exercise by the Ministry of Education is to provide regional and local authorities and people at the grassroots level decision-making powers in matters that concern them. It is important that this process is extended to school community levels. It is believed that decentralizing both responsibility and authority is the key to upgrade the quality of schools and to maximize the local contribution to the whole education system.

Participative management had an improbable origin. It evolved during World War II from collaboration between Kurt Lewin and anthropologist Margaret Mead in an attempt to reduce civilian consumption of rationed foods (Weisbord, 1987). In 1920, Lewin realised that scientific management was incomplete. Lewin believed that the old manager formula of planning, measuring, controlling, leading which Frederick Taylor devised was sound, but to him it was very hard to apply it today unless everybody was indeed in the process (Weisbord, 1987). According to Weisbord, Lewin again emphasized that the establishment of democratic groups in education in which members actively participate in decisions are more productive in terms of both human satisfaction and the achievement of goals than authoritarian groups. Weisbord (1987) argues, in another development, that while Frederick Taylor sought to rid workplaces of authoritarianism and conflict through scientific management, Lewin strove to free the world from prejudice, ignorance, and self-hate through social science. In other words, Lewin's major contribution to management was his way of thinking; to him every change requires a new participative experiment (Weisbord, 1987).

Though Lewin according to Weisbord, opened the participative management doors in the early 1900s, the emergence of bureaucracy theory by Karl Marx overtook it. Marx's concept of bureaucracy can best be understood within the general framework of his theory of class conflict, the crisis of capitalism and the eventual advent of communism.

Although Marx's bureaucracy was more related to the state and not directly to the management of organisations, it gave birth to the bureaucratic forms of organization of Max Weber. According to Abrahamsson (1993), Weber perceived the capitalist order of production as one important driving force for the emerging of bureaucratic patterns of organisation. Weber's notion of a tight hierarchy gradually penetrated all social institutions including schools. Because bureaucracy emphasises power and authority, it received huge support in South Africa and Namibia during the time of the apartheid regime, where it was given room to grow and become accepted by all as the best way of managing educational organisations.

Lauglo (cited in Bush, 2003) states that bureaucratic centralism is pervasive in many developing countries. He links this to both former colonial rule and the emphasis in central planning on many postcolonial governments. However, this does not mean that bureaucracy and centralized systems were confined to one time colonized countries. According to Bush (2003), France, the United Kingdom and Greece have all experienced highly centralised and bureaucratic education systems over the past 30 years. However, bureaucracy, as a form of management, came under increasingly sharp criticism towards the end

of the 20th century. Some writers associated bureaucracy with the abuse of power. This abuse of power could be internal to the organization (over centralisation and lack of democratic decision-making) or external in its relation to society (Rogers & McIntire, 1983). Abrahamsson (1993) describes the theories of bureaucracy as a negative social element; a repressive force and a parasite, undemocratic and an outgrowth of illegitimate power. Bureaucracy is also blamed for its inability to bring about transformation. Mclagan and Nel (1995) assert that as we enter the twenty-first century, conditions are ripe both for the decline of authoritarianism and for the rise of participation. This period, they argue, is a crossover time from one form of governance to another.

To achieve transformation, bureaucracy and traditional management are today often replaced by shared governance, collaboration and collegiality in many organisations. According to the participative and bureaucracy theories presented, these two forms of management/governance have been grinding into and against each other for many decades (Mclagan & Nel, 1995). Mclagan and Nel again argue that it is important to understand the deeper dynamics that are responsible for the changes and to see the depth and breadth of the shift. Thus, according to Masschelein and Quaghebeur (2005), since the end of the 1980s, there has been a growing body of opinion amongst politicians, academics and the wider public that has been concerned to promote participation in educational practices for children, students, parents and teachers. Participation on the strength of this is perceived and presented mostly as an increased and active involvement of these target groups in the activities and decisions that concern their lives. Consequently,



participation seems to be a desirable option in the sense that its foundation makes sense both in theory and practice as well as morally and socially. Participation aims to make everyone part of the system. Similarly, Mclagan and Nel (1995) claimed that the focus of participation is of short and long term value in satisfying multiple stakeholders, people everywhere in the system are equally responsible for creating it. As a result, participation in education has grown rapidly towards the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and has become an interesting subject to many educational stakeholders, including myself. However, as argued, participation has never been a straightforward journey and there is doubt that it has reached its destination, especially in rural schools.

### **Characteristics of Participative Management**

Senge (2006) introduced a strong characteristic of participative management which he termed the 'learning organization'. Senge believed in five components of the learning organization namely personal mastery, mental models, team learning, shared vision and systems thinking. According to him, each component provides a vital dimension in building organisations that can truly 'learn' and continually enhance their capacity to realise their highest aspirations. Moloji (2006) supports the idea of making schools learning organisations. He emphasised that for our schools to become learning organisations we need to facilitate learning at four levels namely: the individual, the team, the organization and the society. The lesson to be gained from learning at four levels is that if we combine our will, motivation and action, and

collaborate with parents and the wider community in our efforts to transform schools, we will not fail. Organisational learning can help the individual, groups and the whole organisation to continuously transform the organisation in the direction that can include and satisfy all stakeholders. Learning organisations can create an ideal situation that can be achieved through the highest participation of all involved individuals and groups.

The issue of participative management includes the idea of inviting people into the decision-making process. Decentralization involves the assigning of decision-making tasks to lower levels. Participative decision-making is one of the main features of participative management where all or some members of the organization become part of the decision-making process and own the decision taken. Participative decision-making has many advantages both to the organization and to the employees. According to Du Preez (2003), joint or participative decision-making facilitate a pleasant work climate and job satisfaction. Participative decision-making requires mutual understanding and co-operation among participants and becomes more effective when all people involved make decisions that contribute to the achievement of organization aims and objectives. Yukl (2002) also stated that co-operation is more likely when the decision is important to followers and they perceive that they will actually have some influence over the final decision. Hence, participation leads to empowerment. When people are encouraged to participate in the organization's activities they always feel motivated and empowered.

According to Davidoff and Lazarus (2002), empowerment has two processes namely subjective and objective empowerment. Objective empowerment requires people's participation and involvement in all sections of the organization and involves the taking of power, building structures where people can participate and involve themselves in decision-making processes. Davidoff and Lazarus (2002) again emphasize that empowerment is fundamentally related to participation, and it is important simply because it is a basic human need to feel a sense of control over your life. Empowerment leads to human satisfaction, and enhances a sense of confidence and belonging among individuals in the work place and this is the aim of participative management. When people in any context participate in shaping the life and direction of that situation, their capacity is enhanced. The more people participate, the more meaningfully they will be able to participate. Therefore appropriate structures and processes need to be in place to facilitate such participation and control, and also responsibility needs to be shared.

Furthermore, participative management needs understanding, co-operation and effective facilitation to satisfy all involving parties. Openness, trust, transparency and accountability are some of the features of participative management. Teamwork is also one of the core principles of participative management. According to Everard, Morris and Wilson (2004), teamwork depends on effective meetings, effective decision taking, effective communication, the identification of team roles and effective delegation. Teamwork in an organization creates synergy because the sum of the effort of

team members is far greater than the sum of people working alone. In a team situation, each member contributes to the success of others and this collaboration of different members to bring about an integrated achievement is the secret that lies behind the success and effectiveness of high performing organizations. Teamwork enhances participation and collegiality among organizational members. It helps people to realize their personal and team goals, improve communication, develop a sense of vision, achieve the organizational goals and strive for success.

### **Contemporary Focus on Community Participation**

The Government of Ghana has rediscovered community participation as an essential input in the education system and as a means of expanding educational services. Whether through the non-formal sector or through participation directives for formal schools, the current education strategy is gradually integrating community participation initiatives. Decentralization, localization of education management and provision of incentives and resources for proactive communities are just some of the new participatory approaches that the government has begun to promote. As many proponents suggest, the potential benefits of promoting community participation far outweigh the financial cost, and can, in fact, lead to a net reduction in the cost of delivering educational services. A study of the educational policy history in Ghana is instructive in gaining an accurate understanding of the culture of community participation in the education sector (Akyeampong, 2006).

### **Issues under Community Participation**

Uemura (1999) proposes the following expected outcomes of community participation: 1) maximizing limited resources, 2) developing relevant curriculum and learning materials, 3) identifying and addressing problems, 4) promoting girls' education, 5) creating and nourishing community-school partnerships, 6) realizing democracy, 7) increasing accountability, 8) ensuring sustainability, and 9) improving the home environment. Four issues that Uemura considers to be essential in the evaluation of the effectiveness of community participation and their ability to bring about the expected outcomes are outlined and discussed. These issues of consideration are 1) the form and degree of community participation, 2) the method by which community participation is stimulated, 3) the potential sustainability of community participation activities and 4) the multi-sectoral benefits that can be gained from the promotion of community participation.

### **Form and Degree of Participation**

Diverse activities and practices can be labeled as community participation, but each is likely to require a different degree of involvement and provoke a distinct outcome (Govinda & Diwan, 2003). The contributions that communities offer can be categorized in the following ways:

#### **Time/Interest**

An individual's dedication to a project might range from participating largely as an observer (e.g., as an audience member or source of moral support) to

contributing skills and leading community participation efforts. Further examples at the lower end of the continuum may include attending school events and voting for PTA officials. At the higher end, examples might include serving as a PTA committee member.

### **Labour**

An individual may choose to donate physical labour for the construction of new classrooms, serve on the PTA, or tutor and mentor children.

### **Physical Resources**

This is generally associated with community members providing resources for the construction or beautification of school facilities. Examples of resources include gardening tools, raw materials for construction (e.g., hay and tree limbs), construction tools, equipment, and machinery.

### **Money**

Monetary donations are generally most demanded by schools at the early stages of school improvement efforts and are considered by many to be a less active form of contribution because relatively little time is involved. Depending on the level of poverty in a community, however, this form of participation is not necessarily the easiest.

In comparing the various forms of participation, it is difficult to assign any one form priority over another. Each form of participation can represent a varying

degree of quality and impact. For example, high levels of participation in the form of time and interest have the potential to cultivate a proactive leadership in the community; low levels of participation might simply imply parents' attendance at school events a much more passive form of participation. Clearly, the impact of the community leaders will vary greatly from that of the passive event attendees. Therefore, it is recognized here that an increasing amount of community participation, in terms of quality and quantity, could lead to higher returns to community participation in schools.

Uemura (1999) presents some examples of how participation impacts on education. Even though this list is not exhaustive, it demonstrates some of the positive forms of participation that communities can utilize to improve schools. The areas of participation identified include advocating enrollment and education benefits; boosting morale of school staff; raising money for schools; ensuring students' regular attendance and completion; constructing, repairing and improving school facilities; contributing labor, materials, land and funds; recruiting and supporting teachers; making decisions about school locations and schedules; monitoring and following up on teacher attendance and performance; forming village education committees to manage schools; actively attending school meetings to learn about children's learning progress and classroom behavior; providing skill instruction and local culture information; helping children with studying; garnering more resources from and solving problems through the education bureaucracy; advocating for and promoting girls' education; providing security for teachers by preparing adequate housing for

them; scheduling school calendars; identifying factors contributing to educational problems (low enrollment, high repetition and dropout); and preparing children for schooling by providing them with adequate nutrition and stimuli for their cognitive development.

In considering the degree of participation, Shaeffer (1994) has put forth a useful framework that helps to place common participation activities in schools on various points of participation. He argues that participation can be analysed in terms of the degree of participation and the areas of education in which greater participation can occur. The examples given by Shaeffer which apply to community members, government officials and parents are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

**Ladder of Participation**

- 
1. Complete non-participation and exclusion from school affairs, except in the provision of resources
  2. Involvement in motivating children and helping them with their homework
  3. Involvement as an audience and passive supporters at school-run meeting or assemblies
  4. Participation as consultants on school issues
  5. As partners in teaching or training
  6. As implementers of delegated powers
  7. As citizen of a community in control of the school
-



Although these categories oversimplify the true nature of the relationship between the community members and schools, the ladder serves as a useful tool for categorizing the varying degrees of participation. In the first three stages of participation, community members are largely disconnected from the school decision-making. However, at higher levels, community members assume leadership roles and influence the choices made by school administrators. As they increase the quantity and quality of their participation in schools, communities move from a relatively passive to a more proactive state.

Generally, the most commonly promoted form of participation in poor or marginalized schools centers on financial contributions. These donations are essential in the establishment of safe and healthy school environments, especially when government support is limited. Simply contributing money, however, is a highly passive form of participation that doesn't necessarily ensure true involvement and decision-making power. Therefore, instead of addressing the root problems of a weak school system, it simply sustains the methods currently employed by that system, regardless of a lack of quality. Additionally, the financial contribution of poor communities is very limited and can have little impact on school quality in the long-run if other forms of higher-level participation are not adopted

### **Method of Stimulation**

The method by which community participation is stimulated can be an essential factor in determining how it will be perceived and carried out within a

community. Likewise, methods employed to seek community participation can also have an impact on the effectiveness and sustainability of its practices. As such, a distinction between internal and external stimulators of community participation must be carefully considered when assessing its efforts. Furthermore, a discussion of stimulation efforts must also consider how implementers attempt to overcome the obstacles to community participation at various levels.

### **Internal Stimulation: Behaviour Change from Within**

The effort of local community members to stimulate participation from within the community is limited by two significant obstacles: gaining the buy-in of the community itself and gaining the support of higher stakeholders (Govinda & Diwan, 2003). Although the internal stimulator does not face the same cross-cultural barriers to success that external agents do, community members may face the disadvantage of not having as much money or prestige as external actors. As a result, internal actors often must seek to inspire hope and motivation in the community without the added incentives of money, support and external assistance

UNESCO (1990) identifies the following reasons for behavioral rigidity and lack of community motivation for participation.

1. Lack of time, energy and sense of efficacy required for such involvement.
2. Lack of appreciation of the overall objectives of education.
3. The belief that education is essentially the task of the state.
4. Ignorance of the structure and functions of the school.

5. The school's disinterest or resistance to community or parental involvement.
6. An understanding by parents of their own competence in educational issues.

Beyond the challenge of having to convince community members that participation can have an impact on the quality of their schools, the local implementer must also overcome the other socially and economically induced obstacles to participation. Poor communities are prone to suffer from a lack of hope and vision for change (Brager, 1967). As exemplified by reasons one, five and seven in Shaeffer's (1994) ladder of participation, this may be because they lack experience participating or because they have rejected the possibility of change and have resigned themselves to the poor conditions in which they live.

In either case, poverty and its many behavioral consequences can be a strong limitation for the stimulation of community participation by community-based agents. Within the same community, an external stimulating agent can often motivate community members to shift their behaviors and ultimately, change their mindsets by bringing in new ideas and ways of looking at common situations.

The second potential limitation of community-based stimulation concerns the need to mobilize higher-level decision makers. By function of being community-initiated, such a movement will heavily rely on local knowledge, resources and buy-in to bring about behavior change. Without strong commitment from higher-level decision makers, grassroots-level behavioral changes will eventually lose momentum and fail to become fully institutionalized. Above all,

institutionalization serves as a vital determinant of successful community mobilization efforts (Govinda & Diwan, 2003). This would allow for a faster rate of change and potentially increase the benefits associated with community participation. As such, isolation from high-level stakeholders is an important risk associated with community-based participation stimulation efforts. Missing or delaying the process of institutionalizing good practices will weaken the effort to bring about significant behavioral change in favour of community participation.

### **External Stimulation: Behaviour Change through Project Implementation**

The cross-cultural nature of external interventions is a significant limitation in all development projects. International NGOs, bringing in new ideas, often fail to consider that implementation of these new ideas would require broad-based behavioral changes. Therefore, lack of understanding of indigenous cultural practices can lead to failure.

The stimulation of community participation is a highly context-sensitive venture. Limited contextual knowledge and information, as well as the lack of local legitimacy, often prove to be significant barriers to the success of external community Participation stimulation projects. In the end, even participatory research methods and stakeholder consultations do not guarantee local buy-in and a high valuation of participation. Thus, although high costs are associated with an external stimulator, the barriers to success are also great and highly dependent on the methods employed by the stimulating agent (Govinda & Diwan, 2003).

Additionally, when funds, small as they may be from the donor's perspective, are used to stimulate behavior change, the issue of sustainability again arises. Once communities are left to their own means to sustain the work that has been stimulated with external funding, the questions of how capable, empowered or motivated the communities will be arise. In an effort to improve chances for sustainability, community participation projects now promote behavioural change by offering training (UNESCO, 1990).

Perhaps one of the greatest benefits that external promoters of community participation have is the ability to create momentum for change because greater amounts of money and human resources are invested into the process of stimulating and institutionalizing behavior change (Govinda & Diwan, 2003). Additionally, external stimulators often have government support and thereby gain legitimacy. Furthermore, interaction at high levels allows for the institutionalization of community participation practices, matching the community bottom-up efforts with a top-down mandate for participation. Thus, through influence and training offered both at the community and policy level, foreign influence can bring a new sense of hope (Akyeampong, 2006).

### **How to Stimulate**

How community Participation can be stimulated was yet another motivating question for this research. For the reasons discussed above, there are great limitations that both internal and external stimulators face. Important categories to consider are whether participation is inhibited because communities

are averse to it (for various reasons) or because there is no institutional framework or experience with participation (Brager, 1967). A collective lack of participation may be the result of an overarching cause that influences the community's motivation and attitude with regards to participation.

In looking at the case examples and the schools in Ethiopia, the criteria used to evaluate the success of community participation stimulation efforts include: 1) the form and sustainability of the demonstrated participation; 2) the community-wide reach of participation activities (i.e., looking at the percentage of community members who are active); 3) the level of community leadership in identifying and solving problems; and 4) the physical and social impact that participation has brought about in the community.

### **Sustainability**

Though the issues outlined above inherently draw out the concern over sustainability, it is helpful to organise the various ways in which sustainability can be affected so as to better analyse the Community-Government Partnership Programme (CGPP) schools and the case studies.

Different actors at different levels of society impact the implementation and level of community participation; as such, the sustainability of community participation practices is vulnerable at each of these levels. At the policy level, compulsory mandates can help to inspire community participation by holding all the lower-level implementers accountable (Govinda & Diwan, 1994). Thus, the government, as it does in Ghana, can require school administrators to establish

PTAs and other vehicles driving community participation. However, for mandates to be effective, they must be accepted and implemented at the community level. Sustainability can only be strengthened when communities develop a sense of ownership of the school and of the participation process. It is in initiating this feeling of ownership that stimulators, both internal and external, can truly promote change (Akyeampong, 2006). According to Akyeampong, at the school level, sustainability will be determined by the extent to which school administrators systematically integrate elements of community participation into their school's activities. For example, if schoolteachers do not accept the value of a highly functioning and active PTA, their participation in a mandatory PTA system will be ineffective, even if it is sustainable by mandate.

Finally, sustainability is not only determined by the continuity of the practices that create an empowered and mobilized community, but also the viability of the community's long-term strategy for managing and changing their lives and their school. For example, if the primary function of a well-organized, mobilized and sustainable PTA is to develop proposals for donor funding, one must wonder if the dependency on donor money is not itself unsustainable. This scenario was commonly observed in the CGPP strategy for community participation. Although each step in the process of planning, organizing and compiling a proposal to gain donor funding is useful, the excessive use of donor money in the short run may lead to long-term dependency. Additionally, an over-emphasis on donors' contributions can run the risk of falsely associating and equating so-called community participation with fundraising (Uemura, 1999).

## **Multi-Sectoral Approach**

The final issue for consideration is the extent to which community participation practices have been extended, or are extendable, to produce positive contributions in other areas of community life. Thus far, community participation has been promoted as a tool for improving the education system but it is, in fact, easily argued that participation has the power to bring about certain systemic changes (Govinda & Diwan, 2003). Once a community's perception has evolved to embrace community participation as a significant method of improving the school, this same perception can be extended to resolve other problems and to achieve the broader goals of the community.

According to Uemura (1999), the health sector is often associated with education due to the proven synergies that exist between the two sectors. The potential synergy has been demonstrated by the tendency of educated mothers to provide better health care for their children. Additionally, as the barriers to good health are often associated with a lack of accurate information, the education sector can play a significant role since it is the main medium of transferring knowledge and information to the community. Thus, as community participation is stimulated in any one sector of community life, the heightened sense of ownership, control, and skills that community members develop should be used to identify and address a broad range of issues. This idea of a multi-sectoral orientation to community participation practices is another ingredient to ensure sustainability. Communities may be less resistant to participating in their community's development if their participation is sought for the holistic



development of the community as opposed to the exclusive development of any one sector.

### **Forms of Community Participation in Education**

Community participation in education has been practiced in many countries over the world, particularly in Africa. It usually takes the form of providing support for school construction. Many forms of community participation in education have emerged in recent times where they have been formalized in policies and programmes of various governments. This study considered four main types of community participation which are evident in education with implications for education. These were: spontaneous community schools, international agency-supported community schools (integrated and alternative forms), community participation in government schools and community participation in cross-sectoral programmes.

### **Spontaneous Community Schools**

Community schools usually involved the community in areas of construction and management of schools. However, the extent to which the community is involved may vary considerably. The failure of some governments in the provision of schools has led to many countries establishing and supporting in the provision of schools in many African countries. In Kenya, for instance, the secondary school system evolved largely as a result of community support. Those

schools are seen as one of the closest examples in Africa to spontaneous grassroots initiative for the delivery of education (Rugh & Bossert, 1998).

However, over time, the lower quality of these schools compared with government schools became increasingly apparent, given the limited time and resources communities were able to provide. It was evident that there was almost a gender balance in secondary enrolment; boys benefited more from the better-resourced state schools while girls were over-represented in the poorer quality community schools (Rugh & Bossert, 1998). Hyde (2003) asserts that locally-supported community schools at both the primary and secondary level had also been in existence elsewhere. For instance, urban Zambia differed from government schools only because they were completely funded by local contributions and fees.

### **International Agency-Supported Community Schools**

In recent times, community schools have become a way by which donors by-pass inefficient central governments and give support directly to schools. They often provide their support through international Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), which in turn work with local NGOs. They aim to build on the strengths of NGOs which have a comparative advantage of working at the grass-roots and being responsive to local needs. A number of international NGOs are actively involved in promoting community schools. They include Save the Children (UK and US), Care International, Action Aid, World Education, and

UNICEF. Community involvement in these schools can comprise a broad range of forms of participation including for example:

1. School construction and maintenance
2. Payment of teacher salaries
3. Recruitment of teachers, and
4. Modification of curriculum (including fewer, more relevant subjects, choice of language etc.).

Two types of international agency-supported community schools are discernible: ones intending to integrate ultimately into the state system, and ones operating as an alternative to the state system. Those intending to integrate into government system usually operate in a similar way to state schools, using the same curriculum for example. The involvement of the community in these schools is more limited and can be seen as a temporary, stop-gap solution in response to the lack of government resources.

In Bangladesh, Community schools which operate as an alternative to government schools are often modeled on sharing similar features. These have the advantage of being most flexible and responsive to local needs, and are perhaps the closest to a genuinely participatory model of community participation, with attempts to engage community members in a broad range of activities. In particular, these community schools aim to address a range of problems evident in the conventional state schools through, for example:

1. Reducing distance between home and school
2. Responsiveness to local conditions, including children's work patterns

3. Providing an appropriate curriculum in local languages
4. Recruiting teachers familiar with local environment at lower cost (with lower qualifications), and encouraging recruitment of local female teachers
5. Shorter pre-service teacher training together with on-going in-service training.

Many of these responses address some of the problems which have been found to disproportionately affect girls' educational opportunities in Sub Saharan Africa (SSA) context (Colclough, Rose & Tembon, 2000). These effects include, for example, the fear for girls' safety when schools are a long way from home; the demand for girls' domestic work; and the lack of female role models in schools and the community. However, they create a challenge for children to integrate into the state system after completion of the initial cycle in a community school given the difference in curriculum. There is a danger, therefore, that a two-tier system is created with those attending community schools marginalised from the state system, attendance at higher levels of which is likely to be necessary to gain access to job opportunities. The most evident example of these alternative community schools in SSA are those supported by USAID through Save the Children (United States) first in Mali from 1992 and later in Malawi in 1995. These were termed Village-based schools and they provided a very wide variation of success between community schools in these two countries.

In many African countries, a number of community school programmes (both integrated and alternative models) supported by different NGOs co-exist.

These are often small-scale operating in areas under-served by the state system although attempts to scale-up coverage of community schools are evident in some countries.

### **Community Participation in Government Schools**

According to Rose (2002), the construction of government schools has always been supported by community contributions in many countries. In Malawi, for example, from the commencement of formal education, self-help was recognised as important by both the Missions and the colonial administration, predominantly with the aim of supplementing the insufficient resources available for education, as well as of making people more involved in their children's education. Prioritisation of public resources towards urban areas continued post-independence despite recognition that self-help projects in rural areas often failed due to limitations on the time and resources of poor members of these communities. These were contributing factors to the uneven development of schooling opportunities which have continuously favoured urban areas.

Community participation has been continuously promoted and formalised through both international and national policy, with even greater attention paid to it in recent years. It is not coincidental that a more explicit emphasis on community participation has corresponded with the economic crises which have adversely affected education systems in African countries since the 1980s, together with rapid expansion of school systems in the context of the drive for achieving universal primary education and associated abolition of fees to

stimulate demand, necessitating the search for alternative sources of resources (Bray & Lillis, 1988). The World Bank (1995) proposes, for example, that while user fees at the primary level are no longer supported, cost-sharing with communities is desirable particularly where public resources are insufficient. This is evident in Malawi where following the abolition of primary school fees in 1994, alternative sources of resources for education were required. The 2000 Policy Investment Framework of the Education Ministry in Malawi contained the information that although local communities and parents are increasingly playing a role in educational finance especially with regard to sharing in the cost of buildings and their maintenance, transport to schools, food, uniforms, learning materials and extra-curricular activities, their contribution remains not quantified. Community participation is particularly significant at the primary level. More than 75% of Malawi's primary schools have been built with the support of local communities. Primary school maintenance has largely been a responsibility of communities (Ministry of Education, 2000).

The formation of school committees is an important way in which community involvement is being promoted in many countries, often with stipulation of quotas for females on the committee.

### **Community Participation in Cross-Sectoral Programmes**

Social funds have also become an important way for some donors to divert their funds directly to the communities they intend to support in recent years. Social funds consider community participation to be important both for the

identification of priority areas as well as for carrying out programmes. The inter-sectoral Malawi Social Action Fund (MASAF), supported by the World Bank, has been particularly influential in the education sector of Malawi since the 1990s with up to two-thirds of the first round of MASAF funding for community projects allocated to primary school construction (Parker & Serrano, 2000). The apparent high demand for education projects in MASAF has been attributed to the introduction of Free Primary Education in 1994 has resulted in the dramatic increase in the enrollment of children and the subsequent requirement of more classrooms. In addition, since school committees are already established in most communities, these provide a structure from which MASAF funding could be applied. Moreover, head teachers have played an important role in creating awareness of MASAF within communities so the communities are most aware of the opportunities available (Kishondo, 2000).

Similarly, 70 percent of projects arising from the social fund in Zambia were allocated to schools. The reason for the prioritisation of education was seen to be related predominantly to the extended presence of PTAs at the local level (Parker & Serrano, 2000). Investment funds focusing specifically on education have been established in Ghana (Condy, 1998). Their objective has been more specifically to improve the teaching and learning environment as a result of increased community participation and ownership. However, as with social funds in Malawi and Zambia, evidence from Ghana indicates that they were heavily reliant on a few local teachers, local elites or external advice and support because

community members often lacked skills to conceptualise and plan a project, and the ability to handle finance, budgeting and implementation.

Social funds have played an important role in placing a value on community contributions. In Malawi, for example, communities are involved in identification, preparation and financing with the intention of improving prioritisation and efficiency in the use of resources. Community co-financing is seen as a way to ensure community ownership and as a true reflection of demand (World Bank, 1996). Thus, the community is expected to contribute 20 percent of resources to the project, with contributions of labour and materials valued at their market rates. There are potential gender implications of this form of making known of community participation (Rose, 2003). Those implications are discussed below.

Generally, the different forms of community support for education range from the models of formalisation of community participation in social funds and government policy which in practice promote community participation primarily as a way to extract resources for community schools which are programmatically-sensitive models with broader aims incorporating attempts to be more genuinely participatory in a variety of school-related activities. Even so, where community schools are promoted by international agencies, they still reflect a top-down model of introducing community participation.

The community, among other things, can get involved in the running of the school through the following ways. The whole community can come together



and undertake some communal work in the form of construction work, carrying sand, water and stone in the building of structures.

Another way by which community's presence may be felt is when parents become active in PTA and pay dues as well as school fees on time. Other organizations such as religious bodies and Non Governmental Organisations may extend a hand of friendship to help the school put up some needed structures.

The community could also get involved in the delivery of education by providing land, money and sometimes decent accommodation to the school to take care of newly- posted teachers as well as old staff.

The community may have to stretch a hand in the form of sending elders who are well versed in the rich culture of the people to train members of the school. The PTA, as part of the community, may contribute to motivate teachers in the school to put up their maximum best. The PTA, SMC and the District Oversight Committees can pay regular visits to the school and attempt to identify as well as help provide solutions to the basic needs of pupils.

In the light of dimensions resources and governments' acknowledgement of its inability to meet local needs, community participation serves as a bridge that enables the following:

1. enhancing some financial responsibility from government
2. strengthening the policy delivery framework of the government
3. creating channels for dialogue among a cross-section of stakeholders

4. opening up a process of continual negotiation on the political agenda in which the views of the poor are taken into account and
5. helping to maintain partnerships (Robb, 1998).

The underlying assumption of all these functions is that it puts on board more communities on the educational ladder where a lot of learning takes place.

### **Models of Community Participation**

Community participation has over the years transformed into different forms and types. In most cases, the type that it takes depends on the intended outcomes sought. In general, the expectations for community participation models include a greater dedication to stay in school and complete higher grade levels, improved learning, greater accountability of schools to local community members, and reduced costs. Different interventions might be targeted towards providing more conveniently located schools, adopting more appropriate schedules, promoting changes in attitudes regarding the value of education, stimulating better communication between schools and families, achieving higher rates of learning and promoting public health education. All in all, it is presumed that a community's participation, at least, can ensure that material inputs for quality schooling are in place, children and teachers attend school, and more importantly children have time to do their homework (Bossert & Rugh, 1998). According to Bossert and Rugh, three models could be looked at. They are: 1) the Accountability Model, 2) the Partnership Model, and 3) the Demand Model.

As implied by its name, the first model seeks to mobilize communities around a particular problem area needing improvement within schools. For example, communities may choose to focus on making local school officials and teachers more accountable for their level of performance. Teachers who are accountable to the community are more inclined to come to work every day.

With the second model, parents compensate for the inadequacies or limitations of local government in the regulation and day-to-day functioning of schools. They become involved primarily in decisions about school locations and daily schedules so that they feel more comfortable sending their children to school. This model is considered a good option for remote communities in which literacy is low and community participation is weak.

The third model presents education as a transportable commodity that takes different forms and has different objectives based on the desires of a particular community. A facilitator, generally provided by the government, presents various educational options for a particular community such as class sizes, curricula and the community selects the educational style that best suits their needs. In general, then, the community forms a representative committee that elicits the concerns of various groups. The committee decides the long-term goals for education and selects the option that the community can afford to support.

### **Historical Perspective of Basic Education in Ghana**

The current basic education structure and curriculum has its roots in Ghana's colonial past. The earliest schools in pre-colonial period in the Gold

Coast were started to educate the mixed race children of the European traders. Much later, the colonial government provided education to sustain the machinery of colonial rule, but the major effort to expand education was the work of Christian missions which regarded education as necessary for missionary activity. Later, some aspects of pre-independence education were characterised by attempts to create incentives for all children to attend school. Before independence, for example, Northern Ghana was targeted with special incentives, such as free education to encourage children to enroll. As demand for education rose, more schools were opened by missionary organisations and by 1881, about 5000 pupils were enrolled in 139 schools (Graham, 1976). This expansion concentrated mainly in the south and spread slowly till the era of the Gold Coast governor, Gordon Guggisberg (1919–1927). Guggisberg produced the clearest ideas on educational expansion in colonial Ghana when his administration proposed 16 principles for the development of education in the Gold Coast. These principles stressed equal opportunities for boys and girls, relevance of education to local economic activities, technical and vocational education, the place of the vernacular in teaching, and the importance of well-trained teachers to deliver quality education. By and large, many of these principles have continued to inform post-independence education reform agenda. Guggisberg, however, did not subscribe to the idea of education as a free and compulsory commodity.

As the end of the colonial era approached demand for education became more pressing and in 1945 the government proposed a 10-year education expansion plan which aimed to achieve universal primary education within 25

years (i.e. by 1970). The plan was set within what it judged as affordable limits of educational expansion.

The next significant wave of education expansion was the 1951 Accelerated Development Plan (ADP) for education, which aimed to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) for all. The ADP produced a basic education structure consisting of: six years of primary education, four years of middle school education (both terminal and continuing), five years of secondary schooling and two years of sixth-form education for entry into university. The main strategy of ADP was to improve access to basic education by abolishing tuition fees. After independence, it was still considered a priority to make basic education free and the 1961 Education Act was introduced to support this vision. In all, these policies helped to expand access rapidly (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975).

The ADP had its critics. Busia (cited in Foster, 1965) argued that it consisted of ill-digested series of proposals based on political expediency. Others argued that rapid expansion without ensuring sufficient numbers of trained teachers was unwise because it would compromise quality. Foster (1965) held a more optimistic view, and argued that the initial dip in quality as a result of rapid expansion was to be expected and did not negate the importance of rapid education expansion. He noted the little doubt that the period of rapid expansion did lead to a lowering of academic standards within the primary and middle schools, but it was equally true that the emergency teacher training schemes could enable the system to recover at a rapid rate once the initial peak of enrolments

was past. The opponents of the plan, in reiterating criticisms which had formerly led the British administration to proceed cautiously in the diffusion of education facilities, ignored more significant consequences of mass educational expansion (Foster, 1965).

The concern that rapid expansion undermines quality continues today especially where no effective strategies are in place to train and retain teachers. A further criticism of the ADP was that it created a financial burden for local authorities who were expected to fund about 40 percent of teachers' salaries, with the remaining 60 percent coming from central government. The inability of local councils to discharge this responsibility contributed to some of the difficulties experienced in maintaining the quality of education provision as enrolments increased. Some of the lessons to emerge from the accelerated development of education include the importance of ensuring that teacher supply and demand meets with rapid enrolment expansion; improving the capacity of local authorities to recruit and incentivise local teachers; and finally the importance of management of educational inputs ( McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975).

### **Expanding Basic Education in Northern Ghana**

Rapid expansion in the early years of education development did not benefit every part of the country. Attention focused on the south and created a gap in provision between Northern Ghana (currently the three Northern regions: the North, Upper East and Upper West), and the rest of the country. The roots of this gap can be traced to the Guggisberg era which resisted the temptation to expand

access rapidly because of its concern about the impact on quality. Basically, the Guggisberg administration adopted a cautious approach (Bening, 1990) – rooted in the principle of developing a primary education system that was thorough and from the bottom up. As McWilliam and Kwamena Poh (cited in Akyeampong, 2006, p. 216-217) noted “the idea of a thorough primary education system meant that even when resources were available to expand access to primary education, and in Guggisberg’s era there was enough to triple provision, there was reluctance to do so because trained teacher demand could not be matched with supply to support accelerated expansion”. Quality was imperative and expanding access was done selectively on the basis of available educational inputs such as trained teachers availability and assurances that expanded facilities would not be underutilised. Thus low population density areas particularly in the North did not receive much attention when it came to plans to expand access to primary education.

Akyeampong (2006) argues that part of the solution to this problem should have been multi-grade teaching because of how it allowed for schools of low population density to use just one or two teachers to teach all grades (Little, 2006). This makes redundant the one teacher per class idea as the main quality assurance indicator. On attainment of independence in 1957, a Special Scholarship Scheme was instituted to close the gap between the North and South of Ghana. Even though this scholarship helped to improve access, Northern Ghana continues to experience low levels of educational performance. For example, repetition rates in primary schools in the North are generally higher than

the national average and the phenomenon of out of school children is particularly acute there.

### **Expanding Basic Education: the Junior**

#### **Secondary School Concept**

After 1966, when the Nkrumah era ended, the quality versus expansion debate resurfaced with calls to scale back accelerated education expansion plans and focuses more on quality provision. Other concerns included unemployment of school leavers and issues of quality and relevance of education to the world of work. A committee on education recommended that elementary education should be extended to 10 years with a break in year eight for selecting suitable candidates for secondary education. Those who were not selected went on to complete two years continuation classes with an emphasis on pre-vocational education. This recommendation saw many middle schools becoming continuation schools in the early 1970s. Issues of inadequate access resulting from non-enrolment and drop-outs did not feature as prominently as they did in the late 1950s to mid 1960. Education developments in the late 1960s to early 1970s conceptualised primary education mainly as preparation for entry to either secondary education or middle schools for early employment. Middle school leavers could attend technical and vocational schools and four-year post-primary teacher training colleges.

Concerns about inequitable access to secondary education became an issue in the early 70s (Addae-Mensah, Djangmah & Abenyega, 1973). Later, the continuation school concept was severely criticised as promoting inferior education for the masses whilst secondary schools became the preserve of elite



Ghanaian children (Dzobo, 1987 cited in Ministry of Education, 1999). The concept of a three-year Junior Secondary School as the common post-primary school for all products of primary schools recommended in 1971 by a Government Committee on Education was a key recommendation of the “New Structure and Content of Education” in 1973. Primary school was followed automatically and compulsorily by three year junior secondary for all. Selection for entry into a senior secondary school was to take place after junior secondary education.

### **Education Reforms and 1995 FCUBE**

Educational reforms in 1974 introduced the idea of thirteen years of pre-tertiary education; six years primary school, three years Junior Secondary School (JSS), and four years Senior Secondary School (SSS). It also mooted the idea of pre-technical and pre-vocational subjects – an attempt to make the JSS curriculum comprehensive and thus cater for all talents and provide them with practical skills. Unfortunately, the implementation of the 1974 educational reforms in its pilot form coincided with the decline of the Ghanaian economy. According to Addae-Mensah (2000) throughout the 1970s, the Ghanaian economy declined considerably. In 1982, per capita income was 30% below the 1970 per capita income level. The index of real monthly earnings fell from 315 to 62 over this period. This was a period which witnessed acute shortages in teachers, textbooks and instructional materials throughout the country’s schools. Teachers left in droves to Nigeria because its new found oil wealth had become a magnet for

attracting thousands of teachers seeking better pay and conditions of service. By this time the Ghanaian society had become increasingly polarised and education was also increasingly becoming a tool for social stratification (Addae-Mensah, 2000). By 1983, access to basic education and other levels of education were at their lowest (World Bank, 2004).

The coup that brought the Rawlings government into power in 1981 was basically anti-elitist (Donge, 2003). The government came promising to create a more equitable society. Driven by a strong socialist ideological agenda, the education system was earmarked for radical reform to achieve two key things. First, reforms were seen as necessary to improve the quality of education provision – a survey had shown that a large majority (often more than 80%) of children completing grade 6, or even JSS 1 ‘were completely illiterate’ (MOE, 1986). Second, reforms were needed to provide more equitable access to primary and secondary education. In 1985/86 academic year, students in secondary schools represented only 7% of the relevant age group and primary enrolments had stagnated from the early 1980s until 1987 when it started rising (MOE, 1986). Thus, the 1987 education reforms set out to improve access to basic education but also emphasised the need to include measures that would improve quality, efficiency, and equity in the education sector. It set the following objectives and introduced a new structure of education which was really an implementation of most of the 1974 proposals:

1. To expand and make access more equitable at all levels of education;

2. To change the structure of the education system to 6 – 3 – 3 – 4, reducing the length of pre-tertiary education from 17 to 12 years;
3. To improve pedagogic efficiency and effectiveness;
4. To make education more relevant by increasing the attention paid to problem solving, environmental concerns, pre-vocational training, manual dexterity and general skills training; and
5. To contain and partially recover costs and to enhance sector management and budgeting procedures.

Progression from primary to junior secondary school required no external examination. The curriculum combined general academic studies and practical skills training. The main objective of the 1987 reforms was to implement the 1974 reforms nation-wide. It also introduced the 3-Year SSS instead of the 2-Year SSS Lower followed by the 2-Year SSS Upper which was proposed under the 1974 plans. Three principal objectives of the new system were that it would:

1. enable all products of the primary school to have access to a higher level of general academic training as pertained in the lower forms of the traditional secondary school to address the inequity between secondary school and the middle school/continuation school;
2. provide practical skills training in technical and vocational subjects to all children;
3. prepare majority of children whose formal education terminated after JSS for the world of work.

It is now generally acknowledged that the implementation of the technical and vocational aspects of the reform was less successful because of the inadequate supply of well-trained technical and vocational instructors. The JSS workshops intended for pre-vocational and pre-technical education failed to work as planned. But as Foster (1965) noted years before, the idea that schools would use the skills and expertise of local artisans and craftsmen and women to support teaching pre-vocational and technical courses was unlikely to work in practice because it failed to recognise the difficult challenge of implementation. To date, the 1987 reforms have benefited the most in terms of investment to improve access and quality of basic education, and although it has made an impact on educational performance in Ghana, many educational performance indicators suggest that there is still more to do if the goals of EFA are to be achieved and sustained.

In 1995, the ‘free compulsory universal basic education’ (FCUBE) reforms were introduced to fix the weaknesses in the 1987 reforms. FCUBE aimed to achieve UPE by 2005. Clearly, this target has been missed. Additionally, it sought to improve girls’ enrolment and has generally succeeded in achieving this target (MESS, 2006). Implementation of the FCUBE was supported by the World Bank Primary School Development Project (PSDP). Two main areas of activity of the PSDP were the following:

1. Policy and management changes: (i) increased instructional time, (ii) reduced student fees and levies, (iii) improved skills and motivation of head teachers, (iv) community involvement in selection of head teachers,

(v) orientation of district officials and community leaders, (vi) support to school supervision, and (vii) school mapping

2. Investment in physical infrastructure: (i) construction of classrooms, (ii) construction of head teachers' housing, (iii) provision of roofing sheets.

Communities were to be responsible for building the external walls (“cladding”) for pavilions constructed by the project (World Bank, 2004). The FCUBE programme met with several problems and constraints. Management weaknesses undermined its impact including poor supervision at system and school level (Fobih, Akyeampong & Koomson, 1999). According to the FCUBE 1999 implementation report, one of the important lessons learnt in the implementation of the FCUBE programme is the fact that continuing to expand access to basic education and increasing physical inputs into the system are not effective unless the quality of activities at the school level improves significantly (MOE, 1999).

This echoes Guggisberg’s concerns expressed as far back as the 1940s. The World Bank’s assessment of its role in improving educational access and quality through its support to both 1987 and 1995 reforms is generally positive. It concluded that its contributions have led to reversing the deterioration of the educational system, increase in the number of schools from 12,997 in 1980 to 18,374 in 2000, and increase in basic school enrolment rate by over 10 percentage points. (World Bank, 2004).

Despite these appreciable gains, analysis of access indicators show that there are still difficulties in reaching a significant proportion of children who do

not enroll at all. In particular, gains made in enrolment have been difficult to sustain throughout the 9-year basic education cycle. The Bank's evaluation report admits that improving quality and quantity of education infrastructure (i.e. classrooms) is an important strategy but is not by itself adequate, and that more needs to be done to ensure equitable access to quality basic education.

### **Education Reform proposed by 2002 Review Committee**

An optional two-year nursery schooling for children aged 4 and 5 became part of the mainstream education system in 2002. Starting from 2007, formal basic education has been extended to eleven years, starting with two years kindergarten, followed by six years primary, then three years junior secondary schooling, and finally four years senior secondary schooling. Formal basic education for children is now expected to begin at age 4 and end at age 15 (GoG, 2004).

The recent report of the President's Committee on review of education reforms in Ghana upon which the government's White Paper on Education is based recommended that the lower primary curriculum should consist of seven components. The compulsory elements should be: English Language, Ghanaian Language & Basic Mathematical Skills. The remaining four are French (optional), Introduction to ICT, Creative Arts, and Physical Education. Upper primary subjects would consist of nine subjects of which French will be optional. The rest would be English Language, Ghanaian Language, Mathematics, Integrated Science, Introduction to ICT, Religious and Moral Education, Citizenship

Education, Creative Arts and Physical Education (PE). The President's Committee on Education Reforms recommended a four core subjects added to other 'practical subjects'. However, these would make huge demands on teacher and textbook supply. Ultimately, these have implications for access especially if the management and human resources required to deliver the curriculum are either not available or inadequate. Besides, given the intractable teacher shortage and deployment problems that Ghana continues to face and the difficulties in resolving this problem, (Akyeampong, 2003) schools in rural areas are likely to find the curriculum requirements difficult to meet, which could have negative consequences on quality and access.

### **Recent Strategic Initiatives to Improve**

#### **Access to Basic Education**

Two policy initiatives stand out in the recent attempt to achieve universal basic education in Ghana. The first is the push for education decentralisation and management, and the second is the introduction of capitation grants.

#### **Educational Decentralisation and Management**

The 1951 ADP provided the foundations for decentralised educational management in Ghana by making local councils responsible for the provision and maintenance of educational facilities, while central government took responsibility for teachers' salaries. The decentralisation process was further strengthened by the Education Act of 1961, which reaffirmed control and management of education at the local level to local councils. However, poor

managerial capacity and the weak financial resource base of the local councils appear to have undermined the decentralisation process. Both the 1987 Reform and the 1992 Constitutional Provision re-echoed and reemphasised the need for decentralisation. Consequently, the Ghana Education Service (GES) in 1998 started a process of de-concentration of pre-tertiary education management by shifting some of its responsibilities and powers in the management of resources, services and staff to district and school levels.

Basically, decentralisation of education is intended to improve the operational efficiency and promote a more responsive approach to education service delivery at the district, community and school level. In line with the expanded mandate under the decentralisation process, emphasis shifted to increasing budget lines and budget shares of the district education office and as a part of the Education Strategic Plan implementation process, districts were mandated to prepare District Education Work Plans (DEWP) reflecting projections and targets up to 2015. Districts are also expected to prepare 3-year Annual District Education Operational Plans (ADEOP) to inform the preparation of district budgets. In some quarters, there is concern that decentralising education provision is happening too quickly and can reinforce disparities and inequities between districts. Districts which lack the required human resource capabilities may find it difficult to tackle problems of access and quality of basic education. Already, there is evidence that decentralisation may be contributing to disparities in the quality of public basic schools with implications for access. As noted in the World Bank's (2004) evaluation report,



Schools in wealthier districts will benefit from both higher levels of district support and higher parental contributions, resulting in discrepancies in resource availability. The worst resourced schools are 'bush schools', that is, schools in off-road rural communities. Such schools have difficulty in attracting qualified teachers, and parents who are there can ill afford any cash contributions. There is growing dichotomy within the public sector between these schools and those of relatively more affluent parents in urban areas (World Bank, 2004).

The categorisation of deprived districts according to objective criteria which define deprivation of educational facilities provides a mechanism for identifying needs to be addressed to correct imbalances. Rural communities are usually placed at some considerable disadvantage when it comes to assuming greater responsibility for contributing and managing education service provision. If education decentralisation is to become an effective vehicle for improving access and quality in public basic education, then there needs to be credible plans that ensure that deprived districts would have the requisite resources and manpower to achieve desirable educational outputs (e.g. high enrollments and better completion rates).

### **School Management Committee (SMC)**

The School Management Committee is a committee designated under the Ghana Education Service Act of 1994 (Mankoe, 2002). It is a school community based institution aimed at strengthening community participation and mobilisation

for education delivery. The SMC is a representation of the entire school community. The school community therefore becomes its constituency.

Membership of the SMC is made up of the District Director of Education, Head teacher, District Assembly representative, Unit representative, traditional ruler, representative from Education Unit (if the school is a unit school), two members of teaching staff and an old students' association representative.

The SMC performs the following functions:

1. Controls the general policy of the school
2. Presents periodic report to the Director General of Education through the District Director of Education
3. Ensures that premises of the school are kept in a sanitary and structurally safe condition and generally in good state of repair
4. Submit reports to the District Assembly through the assembly person.
5. Helps the head teacher in resolving conflict and report to the District Director.
6. Refers dismissal or suspension cases to the District Director for action.

### **Parent-Teacher Association (PTA)**

A parent-teacher association is an association of parent and teachers in a particular school or cluster of schools. Any parent, guardian or teachers who are interested in children's education can also become members. According to Mankoe (2002), executive members of the PTA are Chairperson (parent), Vice chairperson (parent), Secretary (teacher), Financial secretary (parent), Treasurer

(parent), first committee member (parent), second committee member (parent), third committee member (head teacher), and an ex-officio member (school welfare officer). The PTA performs the following functions:

1. Assist in school maintenance and repair of infrastructure
2. Negotiate for land for projects for the school, for example they negotiate for land for school farm and football field
3. Sees to the children or teachers welfare by provision of accommodation and school text books
4. Monitor pupils' performance through regular visits
5. Helps in resolving conflict and problems
6. Helps in maintaining school discipline

### **District Education Oversight Committee (DEOC)**

The DEOC is the policy maker of the district as far as education is concerned. Membership includes the District Director of Education and Circuit Officers. It functions as follows:

1. Ensures proper implementation of educational policies at the local level
2. Assists in implementing the activities of the SMCs and PTAs
3. Provides necessary guidelines to enable schools to operate effectively
4. Provides some educational needs, example, furniture and roofing sheets.

(Mankoe, 2002).

## **Financing of Basic Education**

According to Plato, the ancient philosopher, the provision of Basic Education to the members is a civil duty of the State. Empowered by this notion coupled with the government policy of FCUBE, it has increased financing availability to education at the Basic level. We identify four main sources of funds to the Basic level, namely the government, the district, internally generated fund and non-governmental agencies.

### **The Government (The Capitation Grant Scheme)**

In 2004, the Government of Ghana introduced a capitation grant scheme for school operating budgets for primary schools as part of the strategy to decentralise education provision. Originally, it was introduced in 40 districts and later extended to 53 districts designated as deprived. In 2005, the scheme was extended nationwide.

Currently, the capitation per child is on average c¢GH4.50. Initial evidence indicated that its introduction had led to massive increases in enrolment (overall about an additional 17 percent rise at the basic education level). As a percentage of unit cost per primary school child, however, this amount is insignificant. In 2005, the actual unit cost for a child in a public primary school was c¢GH 65 (approximately \$60) (MESS, 2006). Thus, although the total capitation budget may be high, it has done little to raise the unit cost for a primary child and by implication the quality of education that child receives. The expansion due to capitation was linked to the ‘abolition’ of fees which was a requirement. In one

particular district, additional enrolments included about 33 percent of children who had dropped out (MESS, 2006). But as expected, the surge in enrolments has brought new challenges and pressures on manpower and resources. Two key ones that have been identified by the Ministry of Education include the need to improve the infrastructure of public basic schools, and training of head teachers to manage the funds appropriately to deliver quality learning outcomes (MESS, 2006).

Currently, the provision of capitation is based on a single allocative formula determined at national level - districts with acute poverty and socio-economically disadvantaged receive the same amount per child as more affluent districts. Clearly, more detailed study is needed to provide insights into how the capitation grant scheme can achieve better pro-poor outcomes.

### **Other Sources of Financing Basic Education**

Since the education reforms of 1987, substantial government and donor funds have gone into funding the basic education sector. Apart from government and external sources, non-statutory funding sources to education have included internally generated funds (IGF) arising from textbook user fees, local authority levies, local authority funds, contributions from school management committees, parent teacher associations (SMC/PTAs) and other benevolent societies. Since 1995, basic education in Ghana has been administered and funded under a sub sector programme whose sources of funds generally break down as follows: (i) Ghana Government Ministry of Education Budget, (ii) External Funding Agencies

(Development Partner contributions and HPIC relief funds), (iii) Ghana Education Trust Fund (GET Fund), (iv) District Assemblies Common Fund (DACF), (v) Internally Generated Funds (IGF), and (VI) Private Sector/ Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and Community based Organisations (CBOs). The Government of Ghana budget takes care of personnel emolument (salary costs), administrative expenses, and service and investment activities, which leave very little for school expansion and infrastructure development. Teachers and Education managers' salaries currently take up over 80 percent of the total education expenditure (MOESS 2005). Resources from the DACF are mostly used to support the provision of infrastructure at the district level. IGF at the basic level are spent by the schools directly and does not form part of the annual budget, but this represents a small percentage of DACF expenditure.

The GET Fund, which is generated from 20 percent of all VAT receipts, is used to supplement short falls at both the tertiary and pre-tertiary levels, while the DACF (5 percent of tax revenues) is allocated for local government. Out of this, district assemblies are expected to allocate about 24 percent for the development of basic and secondary education infrastructure. NGO and CBO contributions to educational financing are diverse (MESS, 2005).

Donor funding and other sources (e.g. from NGOs) go directly to fund school quality improvement, with external/donor inflows often used to supplement GOG shortfalls. These resources reflect expenditures under educational programmes/projects supported by the international funding agencies. Within the external/donor inflow are resources made available for education

resulting from HIPC debt relief. Since 2005, an additional external funding source has been the Education for All (EFA) catalytic funds. Donor funding is a major component of non-salary expenditure in education. Of the projected total resource for education in 2005 (¢ 6.8 trillion), government contributions accounted for 57 percent, donor 11 percent and GET Fund 22 percent (MESS, 2005). An analysis of recent trends in funding shows that the government of Ghana funding of Education (total resource) has declined, whilst donor funding has remained generally below 10 percent. These funding patterns raise the importance of making strategic choices and reassessing the targets and goals for achieving EFA in Ghana. Without a significant injection of funds to basic education, sustainable gains in access where expansion and quality improvement take place concurrently to ensure ‘meaningful access’ are unlikely to be achieved. What is also required is a re-examination of general education expansion plans to ensure that they are underpinned by a more realistic assessment of capacity and resources. In addition, it is important for post-basic expansion plans to take into account its impact on basic education sector which still requires substantial funding to achieve the 2015 targets. Research suggests a direct relationship between high secondary education household costs and low demand for primary education. This should not mean holding back on plans to expand access to post-basic education, but rather that plans are devised that link progress towards EFA with realistic expansion of the post-basic sector (MESS, 2006).

The Ministry of Education’s own analysis shows that in 2004, it cost about 14 times as much to educate a tertiary student as a primary student. This has

dropped to 10 times but even so, if a serious attempt is to be made to enroll all out of school children this will mean finding more resources for the basic education sector. The expansion of basic education from 9 to 11 years, coupled with other commitments of the GOG to expand and improve access to post-basic education has huge financial and capacity implications. According to the 2006 sector performance report, the 10 year work plan for the education sector was estimated in May 15, 2006 to cost \$15.4 billion (annually about \$1.5 billion). Further increases in basic school enrolments would raise these levels even more. Unless, donors increase their investment significantly and directly to support the expansion of basic education, increased enrolments will be difficult to sustain. Already, expenditure on primary education is falling behind the targets set in Ghana's Education Strategic Plan. The lesson from history suggests that expanding access is not simply a question of adequate financial resources; it is also about the system's capacity to address the non-financial constraints of expansion. Ensuring that children start school early is important but is no guarantee that they will complete the full cycle of basic education if the needed educational inputs and facilities are not present to mutually reinforce the effect. (MESS, 2006).

### **Importance of Community Participation**

Community participation as a policy solution has comparative advantage. This is because it allows for the creative and effective use of multiple



techniques using a range of different activities that engage communities and individuals in a way that is comfortable and accessible for those individuals.

Many writers have argued that community participation guaranteed the use of indigenous knowledge and expertise. White (1982) opines that experts in the community who are indigenous are so familiar with the environment and can easily make progressive changes. As such when the community participates effectively in the administration of the school, these knowledge, skills and expertise can be made available to the school

Manu (1997) argues that the quality of education a community's children receive is dependent upon the level of interest and involvement of that community in the management and governance of its school. According to Manu, if the communities willingly take part in the provision of education for its youth, they can conveniently push through the kind of education their children should receive. Again, the community will have the right to hold the educational authorities responsible for their children's performance when they assist in funding education.

According to Uemura (1999), when the community makes contributions such as financial, land, labour, material and time to the school, it tends to be more active in the school's activities. These activities include taking part in meetings and monitoring teacher's performance. The school in turn responds to the needs of the community by providing better quality education to the students. Uemura proposes the following expected outcomes of community participation: 1) maximizing limited resources, 2) developing relevant curriculum

and learning materials, 3) identifying and addressing problems, 4) promoting girls' education, 5) creating and nourishing community-school partnerships, 6) realizing democracy, 7) increasing accountability, 8) ensuring sustainability, and 9) improving the home environment.

Again, families that are more involved in school activities are more willing to co-operate with the school in an attempt to improve their children's learning. Parents further go the extent of helping their children with work given to them at school and provide all the things required by the children to make them physically and emotionally ready for learning.

### **Challenges Encountered in Community Participation**

There are a number of challenges that come about as a result of communities taking part in the activities of the school that belong to the community. According to Shaeffer (1992) the degree of community participation is particularly low in socially and economically marginal regions. This, according to him, may be attributed to various reasons such as a lack of appreciation of the overall objectives of education, a mismatch between what parents expect of education and what the school is seen as providing, the belief that education is essentially the task of the State, the length of time required to realize the benefits of better schooling, and ignorance of the structure, functions, and constraints of the school.

These reasons are similar to that of UNESCO (1990) stating reasons such as lack of time, energy and sense of efficacy required for such involvement,

a lack of appreciation of the overall objectives of education, the belief that education is essentially the task of the state, ignorance of the structure and functions of the school, the school's disinterest or resistance to community or parental involvement, and underestimation by parents of their own competence in educational issues. As stated by Beyene et al (2005), poverty and its behavioral consequences can be powerful obstacles to achieving effective community participation by community-based agents. They recognize the need to mobilize high-level decision makers as limitations to community participation. According to them, without strong commitment from higher-level decision-makers, grassroots level behavioral changes will lose momentum and fail to become fully institutionalized.

### **Summary of Literature**

Literature has been reviewed on related topics relevant to the study. The review took into account what community participation is all about, community participation in education, some schools established by communities in Africa and the rationale for community schools. The theory of participative management was also looked at together with forms that community participation takes, some historical perspective of basic education, importance and some challenges that confront communities when they participate in the provision of basic education.

Community participation, though difficult to define, simply refers to people in a locality with common goal or interest doing things in common with

the aim of achieving better result. It is believed that one important asset of any community is the school. The school is therefore seen as one of the main transmitters of knowledge, value and skills needed by the society.

Literature also established that if communities contribute to the provision and management of schools, much attention is given to the schools by the community. This is because the communities regarded the schools as their own and in most cases did all they could in their power to protect the school. It was also established in the literature that other sources of funding basic education apart from government and external sources included internally generated funds (IGF) arising from textbook user fees, local authority levies, local authority funds, contribution from SMC/PTAs and other benevolent societies. It was also seen that donor funding and other sources, for instance, from NGOs went directly to fund school quality improvement with external inflows often used to supplement GoG shortfalls. However, recent trends in funding showed that the government of Ghana funding of education has declined while donor funding has remained generally below 10 percent.

Literature again pointed out the need for communities to participate in the provision of education. Among these were the fact that community participation guarantee the use of indigenous knowledge and expertise, the communities also having the right to hold educational authorities responsible for their children's performance, the community being able to push through the kind of education their children should receive and many more.

There were some challenges such as lack of appreciation of the overall objective of education, the belief that education is essentially the task of the state, ignorance of the structure and functions of the school, the school's disinterest or resistance to community or parental involvement and financial constraints among others. These challenges were however, surmountable since the advantages to community participation far outweighed the challenges.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This chapter describes the procedure used in conducting the study. It deals with the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure. It again describes the research instrument used for the study, instrument testing, and administration of instrument and data analysis plan.

#### **Research Design**

The descriptive survey design was used for the study. This design enabled the researcher to obtain accurate information about specific characteristics of activities among the various stakeholders that are interested in the education of the Mfantseman municipality. According to Gay (1992), the descriptive survey is useful for this type of survey because it attempts to collect data from members of the population in order to determine the current status of that population.

The survey, as further described by Best and Kahn (1995), collates data from a relatively large number of cases at a particular time. However, Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) argue that a survey design may have the weakness of providing untrustworthy results since respondents may not be willing to reveal the truth. Again, getting a sufficient number of the questionnaire completed and returned for meaningful analysis to be made is another weakness of the

descriptive survey approach. On the contrary, in the case of this study, about 94% of the questionnaires administered were returned. The identity of respondents were assured of confidentiality and so they were frank and cooperative as far as data collection was concerned. The design was therefore used to elicit information from a large number of people at a particular time, thereby enabling the researcher to come out with the status of the communities' involvement in the provision of basic education in the Mfantsiman municipality.

### **Population**

The target population for the study comprised teachers of basic schools, circuit supervisors, a community participation coordinator, municipal director of education or their assistant, executives of PTAs in basic schools, SMC executives and assembly members in the municipality. There were 98 basic schools in eight circuits. The total number of teachers was 650. All the schools had PTAs and SMCs. There were eight circuit supervisors, one community participation coordinator, one municipal director and 15 educational subcommittee assembly members.

### **Sample and Sampling Procedure**

Fifty basic schools were randomly selected from the target population using the lottery method. By this, the names of the 98 basic schools in the municipality were written on pieces of paper, folded and put into a bowl. The names were then well mixed up and the researcher picked the names one by one

mixing up the content after picking, until the required number of schools had been obtained. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2005), for a population of 98 a sample size of 50 is ideal for a survey study.

In getting the number of teachers to respond to the questionnaire, the simple random sampling procedure was used to select 150 teachers from 50 schools. The lottery method of simple random sampling technique was used to select three teachers from each of the selected 50 schools. In this case, four slips of paper of identical sizes and shapes on which the numbers 1, 2, 3 and 4 were written were used. The total number of these slips of paper was equal to the number of teachers who qualified for the study in each school. The number '1' represented those who were to be selected and '2', '3' and '4' for those who were not to be selected. There were only three slips of paper bearing the code '1' among the slips of paper used for each school. The teachers were then asked to pick a slip of paper each. Only those who picked '1' were chosen for the study. In all, 150 teachers were selected from 650 teachers for the study. The selection of 150 teachers from the 50 schools was in line with Cohen et al. (2005) suggesting that a sample of 20% or more from a population is appropriate for a survey study.

The simple random sampling method was again used to select 35 SMC members from 50 schools. The municipal director or assistant, community participation coordinator and eight circuit supervisors were purposively selected to respond to a questionnaire. They were purposively selected because all of them were required to provide information for the study.



Fifty PTA executive from the selected schools and 15 assembly members of the education subcommittee were purposively selected. Purposive sampling was more appropriate for the mentioned groups because they possessed information required for the study. The sample of respondents from the basic school communities is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

**Composition of survey respondents**

Respondents	Number
Teachers	150
PTAs	50
SMCs	35
Municipal assembly	15
Municipal directorate of education	10
Total	260

**Research Instruments**

Data for the study was gathered through the administration of questionnaires (see Appendix B, C and D). According to Cohen et al (2005), questionnaire is widely used for collecting data in educational institutions. It is an effective instrument for securing factual information about practices and conditions of which the respondents are presumed to have knowledge and opinions on. Questionnaires are useful for the collection of data without the

presence of the researcher, and more often than not it is comparatively straight forward to analyse (Cohen et al, 2005). Questionnaires are effective tools used to obtain factual information about the conditions and practices of which the respondents are believed to have knowledge and opinions on.

There were three sets of questionnaires made up of closed and open-ended items. Closed ended questions are those that have given response options while open-ended questions are without any answer options.

The questionnaires were constituted using the four research questions. Assistance was sought from some of the teachers in the schools who helped in the administration of the questionnaire.

### **Instrument Testing**

The instrument for the study was pilot-tested on the 30<sup>th</sup> September, 2009. Six schools and their communities from the Abura-Asebu Kwamankese district of the Central Region were chosen for the pilot-test. This district was selected because it was close to the Mfantseman municipality and, most importantly, it had similar characteristics like culture, enrolment and infrastructure as the Mfantseman municipality. Most inhabitants in this district were subsistence farmers and fisher folks such as those in the Mfantseman municipality. This pilot-testing helped the researcher to determine the validity and reliability of the instrument. It also revealed the strengths and weaknesses of the items. To ensure validity of the items lecturers and some of my peers who had in-depth knowledge in questionnaire construction were contacted to identify those items which were

not appropriate. Those inappropriate items were duly removed while other suggestions for inclusion were made.

Three days were used for the pilot testing. The questionnaires were administered on the first day but not all of them were returned. The second day was used to collect the rest of the questionnaires. The third day was used for the analysis of the responses. All questionnaires to the respondents were retrieved indicating 100% return rate. The exercise was successful because respondents were assured of confidentiality and also, the essence of the exercise was thoroughly explained to them. The Cronbach Alpha reliability Co-efficient test for the responses gave .832.

The feedback from the pilot-test identified two questions which were vaguely worded. These questions were reworded with the help of my supervisor. The result of the pilot-test was finally approved on the 15<sup>th</sup> October, 2009 which paved the way for data collection.

### **Administration of Instrument**

In order to get the cooperation and help of the parties involved, a letter of introduction (Appendix A) from the University of Cape Coast was submitted and each school consulted and briefed on the purpose and the nature of the study. Before the administration of the questionnaires, all respondents were informed on the need for them to be as honest and sincere as possible in their responses. They were also assured of confidentiality regarding the responses they give. The questionnaires were administered to the selected respondents.

Respondents were allowed a maximum of two weeks to respond to the questionnaire so that they would not rush in responding to the items. This period was considered appropriate because a longer period could result in some respondents forgetting about the exercise and even some misplacing the instrument given them. The total questionnaires administered to the teachers were 150. Out of this 142 were retrieved successfully. The remaining 8 could not be traced because the teachers had misplaced them. Regarding the questionnaires administered to the PTA/SMC/Municipal Assembly respondents, 7 could not be retrieved. In all, 245 questionnaires out of the 260 administered were retrieved. This represents a 94.2% return rate.

### **Data Analysis Plan**

The study was a descriptive one where analysis involved the use of frequencies and percentages. The researcher developed a coding system for the responses of the questionnaires. The use of codes according to Sarantakos (2005), served as symbols and shorthand recording, whereby actions and behaviours are replaced by keywords or numerals. The data were fed into Software Products and Service Solutions which converted the raw data into frequencies and percentages.

In dealing with the questionnaire a four point likert-type scale was adopted to interpret parts two, three, four and five of the questionnaire. The items for the various parts of the questionnaire were weighted as follows; strongly disagreed (1), disagreed (2), agreed (3) and strongly agreed (4). For the purposes of analyses

strongly disagreed and disagreed responses were merged as disagreed while agreed and strongly agreed were also merged as agreed.

Analysis of the responses was done in the order of the research questions. The discussions also followed each research question. Tables were created for each research question, while discussions of findings were done orderly starting from research question one and ended at research question four.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This chapter presents and discusses the analysis of the study. The questionnaires were divided into sub-sections with regard to the four research questions for the study. Data gathered on respondents centered on the biography of respondents, data on the community's role played to develop basic education, the community's involvement directed at improving participation and access to basic education delivery, the roles played by the community in the monitoring and supervision of basic education and finally, the challenges to community participation in basic education delivery.

In the analysis, MDE stands for Municipal Directorate of Education, SMC represents School Management Committee, PTA represents Parents Teacher Association and MA represents Municipal Assembly members. Again, Freq means frequency and % means percentage.

#### **Biographical Data of Respondents**

The first part of the questionnaire demanded data with regard to respondents' gender. The information on respondents' gender is summarized in Table 3.

Table 3

**Gender of Respondents**

Gender	MDE		Teachers		SMC/PTA/MA		Total	
	Freq	(%)	Freq	(%)	Freq	(%)	Freq	(%)
Male	9	90	67	47.2	52	55.9	128	52.2
Female	1	10	75	52.8	41	44.1	117	47.8
Total	10	100	142	100	93	100	245	100

Table 3 shows the gender of the various categories of respondents used for the study. The total male officers at the Municipal Directorate of Education were 9 constituting 90% while only one constituting 10% of the total respondents was a female from the directorate. Out of the total number of teachers, 75 constituting 52.8% were females while 67 making up 47.2% form the male teachers. Similarly, the males who were SMC/PTA executives and Municipal/Assembly members were 52 constituting 55.9% whereas 41 constituting 44.1% were females.

Majority of the respondents at the municipal directorate of education and those who were PTA/SMC executives were males. The few women in this category suggest that most females normally do not occupy top positions. Also, the imbalance in the male dominated population could be as a result of the fact that most men tend to take up higher and top positions in the society than females. However, the greater number of female teachers than male teachers gives an indication that more females stay in the teaching profession as teachers than

males. Another reason for this could be that the attrition rate of male teachers in the teaching profession is high because most of them leave teaching to join other profession before they retire.

### **Research Question One**

#### **What Roles do Communities Play in Developing Basic Education in the Mfantsiman Municipality?**

Research question one sought information on the roles played by communities in developing basic education. Table 4 presents responses from respondents on the role played by the community in developing basic education in the Mfantsiman municipality.

Table 4

#### **Roles played by communities to develop basic education**

Roles	Responses		
	Respondents	Disagree Freq (%)	Agree Freq (%)
Accommodation for teachers	MDE	5(50%)	5(50%)
	Teachers	102(72%)	40 (28%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	33(35%)	60(65%)
Projects through payment of levies	MDE	3(30%)	7(70%)
	Teachers	75(53%)	67(47%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	34(36%)	59(64%)
Projects through communal labour	MDE	3(30%)	7(70%)
	Teachers	51(36%)	91(64%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	28(30%)	65(70%)



Remunerating hardworking teachers	MDE	10(100%)	0(0%)
	Teachers	103(73%)	39(27%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	49(53%)	44(47%)
Basic learning needs	MDE	3(30%)	7(70%)
	Teachers	40(29%)	102(71%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	24(26%)	69(74%)
Scholarship	MDE	5(50%)	5(50%)
	Teachers	94(66%)	48(34%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	52(56%)	41(44%)
Land for school buildings	MDE	2(20%)	8(80%)
	Teachers	27(19%)	115(81%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	10(10%)	83(90%)

Results from Table 4 indicate that out of a total of 10 municipal education directorate selected, 5(50%) of them agreed that the community provided accommodation for teachers. Again, 7 (70%) of the directorate agreed that the communities provided school projects through the payment of levies. Also, 7 (70%) of the directorate agreed that the community assisted to provide school projects through communal labour.

However, 10 (100%) of the directorate disagreed to the fact that the community remunerated hardworking teachers. Furthermore, 7 (70%) of the directorate disagreed to the fact that parents provided pupils with basic learning needs whereas 7 (70%) also disagreed that parents paid educational levies on behalf of their wards. On the issue of the community assisting the school to

acquire land for the construction of school buildings, 8 (80%) of the directorate were in total agreement that the community provided accommodation.

Results from Table 4 also indicated that out of a total of 142 respondents, 102 (72%) of the teachers disagreed that the community provided accommodation for teachers. On the issue of community members paying levies for the provision of school projects, 51 (36%) of the teachers indicated their disagreement. Adding to this, 91 (64%) of the teachers agreed that the communities assisted in providing school projects through communal labour. On the issue of the community remunerating hardworking teachers, a greater number of 103 (73%) of the teachers disagreed that hard working teachers ever received remuneration from the community. A total of 102 (72%) teachers also did agree to the issue that parents provided pupils with basic learning needs. Again, a total of 115 (81%) of the teachers also did agree that the community assisted the schools to acquire land for the construction of school building. When the issue of community members assisting the school to award scholarship for brilliant but needy children was analysed, 94 (66%) of the teachers did not agree.

From Table 4, the results indicated that 60 (65%) of the PTA/SMC/MA agreed to the fact that the community makes provision for accommodation for teachers. Additionally, 59 (63%) of the SMCs agreed to the fact that the community members assisted in the provision of school projects through the payment of levies. Again, on the question of community members providing school projects through communal labour, 65 (70%) of the assembly members were also in agreement. On the issue of community members remunerating

hardworking teachers 49 (53%) of the SMC/PTAs disagreed that teachers were remunerated. On the issue of the community providing their children with basic learning needs 69 (74%) agreed. Again, on the issue of awarding scholarships to brilliant but needy students by the community, a majority of 52 (56%) disagreed. Regarding the community making available land for the construction of school building, 83 (89%) of SMC/PTAs were in total agreement.

The above analysis indicates on one hand that the community performed certain roles like providing accommodation for teachers, paid levies for the provision of school projects and also provided communal labour. This shows that the communities were providing assistance that could improve educational delivery as put by (Uemura, 1999). This is also in line with the assertion by Rose (2002) that the construction of schools has always been supported by community contributions in many countries. For instance in Malawi, from the commencement of formal education, self-help was recognized as important by both the mission and the colonial administration with the aim of supplementing the insufficient resources available for education as well as making people more involved in their children's education.

In another development the scores obtained indicated that some areas need to be attended to by the community to help bring development in basic education. Most teachers who work hard do not receive any motivation from the community members, the community members failed to provide support for the maintenance of school buildings. The pupils are not provided with basic learning needs. Furthermore, the community did not assist the school to award scholarships to

brilliant but needy students. Community members were also not able to give out money for the development of the schools. This could be attributed to the fact that most of them especially those in the rural areas were poor and that majority of them struggle to meet the basic needs of their families. Again, it was revealed that most community members did not provide monetary support to help the school to develop. This confirms the argument by Beyene et al (2005) that poverty and its consequences can pose as obstacles to achieving community participation.

Impliedly, the analysis from the perspective of teachers disclosed that majority of the respondents agreed that the communities used communal labour to provide school projects and provided basic learning needs. Added to this is the manner in which they made land available for the construction of school buildings. This was in line with Du Prez (2003) that participative decision making empowers members and lead to teamwork and cooperation. This affirms the opinion by community members that the spirit of teamwork can help the school to take administrative decisions leading to the development of the school.

However, monies were not paid for the provision of school projects, teachers struggled to get accommodation in the communities they stayed and hardworking teachers were not in any way remunerated. Efforts should be made to address these issues and if possible award scholarships to the brilliant but needy pupils in the community.

Again from Table 4, it could be seen that the SMC/PTA/MA members have been making contributions towards the development of basic education in

the municipality. Notable among them are the provision of affordable accommodation to teachers, participated in school activities to help curb truancy, absenteeism and even indiscipline among students in the municipality. In one of the villages called Narkwa the chiefs and elders had resolved that children in basic schools must not be seen at funeral grounds after 6:00 p.m. Anyone caught disobeying was sanctioned together with the parents. This had kept school children indoors for studies especially on weekends. In Anomabo, a library provided by a Philanthropist had yielded some positive results. This had made students in basic schools to utilize their time profitably by reading and doing their assignments at the library. Books are also borrowed and used at home.

Moreover, the community members had complimented the effort of government to provide places of convenience for most of the schools. The communities through PTA meetings resolved to provide learning needs such as exercise books, pens, food, uniform etc to aid children's learning needs. Further discussion with reference to Table 4 also revealed that the SMC/PTA/MA members in Mfantseman municipality did contribute to school development by providing land for the construction of school projects, paid levies and provided labour force towards school projects. This confirms what was revealed by teachers on the same issue.

However, it became evident that parents did not motivate teachers who were hardworking in the community. It also became evident that no effort was made concerning the provision of scholarship for brilliant students by the

community members. These results also confirm the views by teachers on the provision of scholarship for students.

## **Research Question Two**

### **How does Community Participation Impact on Access and Participation in Basic Education?**

Research question two, sought information from the respondents on how the community provides services to improve access and participation in basic education.

Table 5

#### **The impact of community participation on access and participation in basic education**

Roles	Responses		
	Respondents	Disagree Freq (%)	Agree Freq (%)
Regular and punctual to school	MDE	3(30%)	7(70%)
	Teachers	71(50%)	71(50%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	33(36%)	60(64%)
Places of convenience	MDE	5(50%)	5(50%)
	Teachers	75(53%)	67(47%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	44(47%)	49(53%)
Resource persons	MDE	3(30%)	7(70%)
	Teachers	89(63%)	53(37%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	46(49%)	47(51%)

The value of education	MDE	2(20%)	8(80%)
	Teachers	68(48%)	74(52%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	28(30%)	65(70%)

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Results from Table 5 indicate that 7 (70%) of the municipal directorate respondents were in agreement that parents ensured their children were regular and punctual to school. Furthermore, on the provision of urinal and toilet facilities, 5 (50%) of the directorate responded on the affirmative. Again, 7 (70%) of the officers in the directorate agreed that the community often assisted the schools with resource persons in times of need. On the issue of parents assisting their wards to know the value of education, 8 (80%) of the directorate were in agreement that parents encouraged their wards to know the value of education.

From Table 5, it could also be seen that on the issue of parents ensuring that their children are both regular and punctual to school, 71 (50%) of the teachers agreed that their children were regular and punctual to school. On the community assisting to provide urinal and toilet facilities, 75 (53%) of the teachers disagreed. Regarding the community assisting the school with resource persons in times of need, 89 (63%) of the teachers also disagreed. Again, about 74(52%) of the teachers agreed that parents emphasized on the benefits of education to their children.

The results also indicate the following, on parents ensuring that their wards are regular and punctual to school, majority of the SMC/PTA/MAs constituting 60(65%) were in agreement that the children were regular and punctual. Again, on the issue of the community assisting in the provision of urinal and toilet facilities, a total of 49 (53%) SMC/PTA/MAs were in agreement that

the community helped to provide places of convenience. On the issue of whether the community members assisted the schools with resource persons when the need arose, 47 (51%) of the SMC/PTA/MAs agreed that the community provided assistance when the need arose. Concerning the issue of whether members in the community helped their children to know the value of education, a good number of 65 (70%) of the SMC/PTA/MAs did agree that the children were helped.

In the analysis, the officers of the municipal directorate acceded to the fact that parents whose children attend to basic education in the municipality ensure that their wards have access to urinal and toilet facilities. Also they made sure the children knew the value of education and its implications and the children were encouraged to be regular and punctual to school. The schools were helped with resource persons from the community to assist in specific areas. This is affirmed by White (1982) that community participation guarantee the use of indigenous knowledge and expertise. The analysis show that teachers were of the view some parents actually saw to it that their children were regular and punctual to school. This means the children were given education on the need to acquire formal education.

However, the teachers were not in favour of the idea that the community helped to provide urinal, toilet facilities and also made available resources persons when the need arose. This means that the community must extend a hand to help the school to acquire some structures such as urinal, toilet, library, furniture, football field just to mention a few, to help the school to function. Again, the teachers believed that the community members must avail themselves when



invited to help the school with resource persons to help infuse the cultural, traditional and religious values into the children. The result indicates that the community's involvement to provide these resources with the aim of improving access and participation to basic education is low.

It can be seen that the municipal education directorate, the teachers and the SMC/PTA/MAs were all of the view that parents ensured the punctuality and regularity of their wards to school. Again, all the three groups of respondents the (directorate, teachers and SMC/PTA/MA) agreed that the children were made to know the essence of being educated. However, the opinion of teachers was that regarding places of convenience in the schools, they are inadequate. Attention must be given to the issue of toilet facilities and urinals by the municipal directorate, municipal assemblies and the members of the community.

### **Research Question Three**

#### **What Role does the Community Play in the Monitoring and Supervision of Basic Education?**

Research question three sought information from respondents on the role played by the community in the monitoring and supervision of basic education

Table 6

**Roles played to monitor and supervise basic education**

Roles	Responses		
	Respondents	Disagree Freq (%)	Agree Freq (%)
Monitoring performance	MDE	0(0%)	10(100%)
	Teachers	46(32%)	96(68%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	21(23%)	72(77%)
Maintenance of discipline	MDE	2(20%)	8(80%)
	Teachers	27(19%)	115(81%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	10(11%)	83(89%)
Interaction with teachers	MDE	7(70%)	3(30%)
	Teachers	102(72%)	40(28%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	42(45%)	51(55%)
Regularity and punctuality of teachers to school	MDE	10(100%)	0(0%)
	Teachers	93(65%)	49(35%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	43(46%)	50(54%)
Utilization of contact hours	MDE	7(70%)	3(30%)
	Teachers	99(70%)	43(30%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	58(63%)	35(37%)

Results from Table 6 indicate that on the issue of parents attending PTA meetings and also monitor teachers and students' performance, 9(90%) of the directorate were in total agreement that parents monitor teachers and students performance. Again, 8 (80%) of the directorate agreed to the fact that the SMCs assisted the schools to enforce and maintain discipline. On whether the

community regularly interacted with teachers to know their problems and offered help, 7 (70%) disagreed that community members had no interaction with teachers. Furthermore, 10 (100%) of the directorate disagreed to the fact that the community often paid visits to ensure the regularity and punctuality of both teachers and pupils. Additionally, on the issue of community members frequenting the school to ensure efficient utilization of contact hours, 7 (70%) disagreed that members of the community ensured efficient utilization of contact hours.

Results from Table 6 again indicate that 115 (81%) of the teachers agreed that the SMCs assisted the school to enforce and maintained discipline. It could also be noticed from Table 6 that 96 (68%) of the teachers disagreed on the issue that parents took part regularly in PTA meetings and monitored both teachers and students performance. When the issue of community members interacting regularly with teachers to know their problems was analysed a total majority of 102 (72%) of the teachers disagreed to that statement. Again, on the question of the community paying frequent visits to the schools to ensure teachers and pupils punctuality, 93 (66%) of the teachers did not agree that community members ensured regularity and punctuality. This implies that the community did not bother about the regularity and punctuality of teachers in the school. Additionally, on the question of community members visiting the schools to ensure efficient utilisation of contact hours, 99 (70%) of the teachers disagreed that members ensured efficient use of contact hours. This implies that the supervisory role

expected of the community to compliment the effort of the education officers is very poor and much is needed to be done.

As revealed in Table 6, 72 (77%) of the SMC/PTA/MAs agreed that members attend regular PTA meetings, and monitor both students and teachers performance. On the SMC assisting the schools to enforce as well as maintain discipline, a greater number of 83 (89%) of the community members confirmed that this is always done. Also, 51 (55%) of the SMC/PTA/MAs confirmed that community members interacted with teachers often to seek the challenges that confront them and offered help. In another development 50 (54%) of the community members were in agreement that the community often paid visits to the schools to ensure that pupils and teachers were punctual and regular to school in most cases. On the community visiting the schools to ensure efficient use of contact hours, 58(62%) of the SMC/PTA/MA respondents indicated that contact hours were not efficiently used.

From the analysis in Table 6, the directorate agreed that PTA were regular at the schools and also monitored the performance of both students and teachers. This effort was complimented by the SMC who assisted to enforce as well as maintain discipline in the community. An assertion by Manu (1997) that the quality of education a community's children receive is dependent upon the level of interest and involvement of that community in the management and governance of the schools, confirms what pertains in the municipality.

However, according to the directorate, community members did not engage in regular interaction with teachers so as to know their problems. Also,

frequent visits to the schools to ensure teachers and pupils' regularity and punctuality by the community were not forthcoming. Regarding the issue of efficient utilisation of contact hours by teachers, the directorate maintained that members of the community were in disagreement. This suggests that in most cases even though teachers may be seen in the schools, they could be doing their private activities which would not benefit the pupils. Efforts should be made to curb the scenario that some Ghanaian workers including teachers report at their workplace but contribute very little in terms of output. Such an attitude has adverse effect on both the children and the economy as a whole.

Information in Table 6 indicate that members of the PTA, SMC and Municipal Assembly members did well to monitor the performance of teachers and pupils and also tried to enforce as well as maintained discipline. These views confirmed the earlier submission by teachers on this same issue and that argued by Manu (1997) that the District Education Oversight Committee and the SMC have been instituted to strengthen community ownership of schools.

According to Manu the key functions of the SMCs covers the area of monitoring pupils performance and maintenance of discipline while ensuring full utilisation of contact hours. Thus, most of the supervisory and monitoring roles in basic education delivery were provided by the SMC, PTA and Assembly members in the Mfantseman municipality. The analysis also revealed that though community members paid frequent visits to the schools they never bothered on the use of contact hours by teachers. This view was also held by the officers of the municipal directorate and even the teachers suggesting that, contact hours

were not effectively used by the teachers in the municipality. This raises serious concerns which have implications on the children's performance that must be addressed.

It can be concluded that majority of the directorate as well as teachers confirmed that community members did not interact with teachers to know and help solve their problems. Again, the directorate and teacher respondents were of the view that community members did not ensure regularity and punctuality of both students and teachers. This is a serious concern which must be given attention.

#### **Research Question Four**

#### **What are the Challenges Encountered by Communities in Basic Education Delivery?**

Research question four sought information from respondents on the challenges encountered in the course of basic education delivery in the Mfantsiman municipality.

Table 7

**Challenges encountered in basic education delivery**

Roles	Responses		
	Respondents	Disagree Freq (%)	Agree Freq (%)
No counselling	MDE	8(80%)	2(20%)
	Teachers	125(88%)	17(12%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	61(65%)	32(35%)
Inadequate teachers	MDE	7(70%)	3(30%)
	Teachers	84(59%)	58(41%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	45(48%)	48(52%)
Education should be the responsibility of government	MDE	2(20%)	8(80%)
	Teachers	46(32%)	96(68%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	30(33%)	63(67%)
Inadequate use of teaching learning materials	MDE	5(50%)	5(50%)
	Teachers	75(53%)	67(47%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	31(33%)	62(67%)
Inadequate drinking water, electricity and poor roads	MDE	2(20%)	8(80%)
	Teachers	71(50%)	71(50%)
	SMC/PTA/MA	24(26%)	69(74%)

The responses in Table 7 revealed that 8 (80%) of the directorate disagreed to the fact that children in the community are not given the necessary counselling and education needed. On the issue of inadequate teachers in the community, the responses of the directorate revealed that 7 (70%) disagreed that there were not enough teachers in the schools. On the question of whether

community members believed education was the responsibility of government, 8 (80%) of the directorate agreed that educational provision should be the responsibility of government. Again, when the issue of inadequate usage of teaching and learning materials in schools was visited, 5 (50%) of the directorate agreed that teachers did not often use teaching and learning materials. Next was the question which sought to find out whether teachers in the community lacked good drinking water, electricity, roads and good communication system. As many as 8 (80%) of the directorate were of the view that teachers lacked good drinking water, electricity, roads and good communication system.

The next issue discussed was on whether parents felt their wards were not given the necessary counseling and education needed. To this 125 (88%) being the majority of the teacher respondents disagreed saying that the children were given the necessary counseling and education. Furthermore, when the question of whether teachers in the community were inadequate and that a lot of them refused postings to the community was asked, 84 (59%) disagreed saying there were enough teachers in the municipality. On whether the community members believe government should solely be responsible for the provision of education, 96 (68%) of the teachers were of the view that government should be responsible for the funding of basic education. Additionally, 75 (53%) of the teacher respondents disagreed that there was inadequate usage of teaching and learning materials by teachers. Again, on the issue of whether lack of good drinking water, electricity, roads and poor communication system served as a hindrance for teachers to stay in the community, half of the teachers that is 71 (50%) responded that the



mentioned issues really served as a hindrance for teachers to stay in the municipality.

Results from table 7 again revealed that four out of five factors were agreed to by the community members as the obstacles that hindered the participation and delivery of basic education in the municipality. With regard to the issue of inadequate teachers in the classrooms, 48 (52%) of the SMC/PTA/MAs agreed that not all classrooms were filled with teachers. Furthermore, about two –thirds of the respondents thus 63 (68%) of the SMC/PTA/MAs agreed that the government should be responsible for the delivery of basic education. Additionally, 62 (67%) of the SMC/PTA/MAs respondents agreed to the issue of inadequate usage of teaching and learning materials by teachers. Regarding the issue of drinking water, roads, communication system and electricity which were not in good state, 69 (74%) of the SMC/PTA/MAs acceded to that fact that the mentioned issues were not in good state. Another issue was an whether parents felt their children did not receive the necessary counseling and education needed. To this 61 (66%) of the SMC/PTA/MA respondents disagreed saying that the children were given the necessary counseling and education needed.

The responses by the directorate in Table 7 indicated that the necessary counseling and education was given to the school children. The directorate also maintained that there were enough teachers in the municipality. However, the directorate believed teachers in the municipality did not use enough teaching and learning materials for their teaching. According to the directorate, community

members were of the view that education provision should be the responsibility of government. This confirms the point by UNESCO (1990) among others that the community believes that education is essentially the task of the state. Attention must also be given to the issue of teaching and learning material usage and the lack of good access roads, water and poor communication systems as depicted by the officers of the municipal directorate of education.

According to the teachers and from the discussion above government should take up the responsibility of funding basic education. Again the teachers believed that there were enough teachers in the municipality and that the teachers used enough teaching and learning materials while teaching. This revelation was in line with the opinion of the municipal directorate. The stands of the teachers and the municipal directorate are in conformity with UNESCO (1990) stating among others that the community believed education should be the task of the state.

It is evident from Table 7 that majority of the things stated as challenges were in line with UNESCO (1990) stating among others as lack of appreciation of the overall objectives of education, the belief that education is essentially the task of the state and the school's disinterest or resistance to community or parental involvement as some of the issues. Further analysis in Table 7 as perceived by the SMC/PTA/MAs indicated that there is inadequate supply of teachers, usage of teaching and learning materials and general lack of basic things such as good roads, good drinking water and electricity and also the fact that education delivery must be handled mainly by the central government. This

confirms the assertion by Shaeffer (1992) among other things that there is lack of appreciation of the overall objective of education and a mismatch between what parents expect of education.

Concluding, it could be said that the directorate, teachers and the SMC/PTA/MAs were all in agreement that the municipality lacked good roads, good drinking water electricity and good communication system. These issues must be looked at carefully since good education thrives on them. Government in collaboration with the community should attend to these concerns especially in the rural areas.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **Summary of the Research Process**

The study was a descriptive survey which aimed at gathering information on how the communities in the Mfantseman municipality participate in the provision of basic education. Specifically, the study sought to identify the roles played to develop basic education, come out with how community participation impact on access and participation, reveal areas through which communities monitor and supervise basic education and identify the problems encountered by communities in basic education delivery. The four research questions used to guide this study were: Which roles do communities play in developing basic education in the Mfantseman municipality?; How does community participation impact on access and participation in basic education?; What role does the community play in the monitoring and supervision of basic education?; and What are the challenges encountered by communities in basic education delivery in the Mfantseman municipality?

Literature was reviewed on issues that were related to the subject under study. The review touched on areas such as meaning of community and participation, community participation in education, community schools in Africa, rationale for community schools in Africa, participative management theory,

forms, historical perspective, importance and challenges to community participation in education. The sample for the study was 260 comprising 150 teachers, 50 PTA executives, 35 SMC executives 15 municipal assembly members and 10 officers of the municipal directorate of education. The random sampling method was used to select 50 basic schools from the target population. To ensure fair representation 20% or more of the respondents were selected from each stratum of teachers, PTAs and SMCs. Assembly members and officers of municipal directorate were purposively selected.

Questionnaires were used as the instrument to collect data for the study. A pilot-test was carried out in six schools in the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese district in the central region. The Cronbach Alpha Reliability Co-efficient for the research questions was obtained as .832.

After a successful pilot-testing, questionnaires were sent out by the researcher to the respondents for the main study. The cooperation from respondents and colleagues helped to retrieve 245 out of the 260 questionnaires sent out. This indicated a 94.2% return rate.

Responses to the questions were coded and entered into the SPSS for analysis and interpretation. The responses to the questions were analysed according to the research questions.

## **Summary of Major Findings**

From the analysis of the various items the following findings were made:

1. The community provides land and assists in the construction of school buildings.
2. The community helps in the provision of school projects through communal labour.
3. The municipal education directorate, together with the SMC and PTA did not remunerate hardworking teachers in the municipality.
4. Community members did not often interact with teachers to know their problems and help solve them.
5. Parents monitor the regularity and punctuality of both teachers and students for effective teaching and learning.
6. Community members' participation in basic education delivery has increased enrolment of pupils.
7. Teachers did not make good use of contact hours.
8. Members of the community are reluctant to provide financial support for the development of the schools.
9. Community members do not take the welfare of teachers in the municipality at heart.
10. Parents in the municipality have the impression that their wards were not given the necessary counselling and education required.
11. Community members are concerned about inadequate use of teaching learning materials by teachers.

12. Unavailability of communication system, lack of electricity and poor roads in some of the communities deter most teachers from accepting postings to those areas.
13. Illiteracy rate of SMC/MA members, poverty and irresponsible parenting are some of the obstacles that hindered the delivery of basic education.

### **Conclusions**

From the findings of the study the following conclusions were drawn. The community members help in the supply of labour, maintenance of discipline and the provision of land for school projects. This is an indication that the community was not relenting its effort in the provision of basic education. Consequently, the community had gained a greater degree of ownership of the schools.

Parents' performance of their roles in terms of providing financial and moral support to their children and teachers was poor and much was needed to be done to help in the development of schools.

The school did not invite the community for assistance in area of resource persons. Illiteracy rate among the SMC and Assembly members was quite high and that impeded their role towards the delivery of basic education.

### **Recommendations**

In view of the findings and conclusions drawn, the following recommendations were made for effective community participation in basic education.

1. There must be a good communication linkage between the school and the community to emphasise roles expected of the school to the community and the community to the school.
2. The programmes of the school and that of the community must be integrated to enable all sides to get involved in the execution of the school's plan and that of the community.
3. Teachers must be motivated through a rewards system by the community and the directorate to accept postings and also stay in the rural areas for some number of years.
4. The community members must be encouraged by the school to get involved in the instructional delivery to help inculcate some moral and cultural values in the life of the children.
5. A good use of instructional hours is essential to the development and progress of the school. The municipal directorate of education must intensify its efforts of supervision to better the use of instructional hours.
6. The SMC, PTA and Assembly members should sensitize the community to be more concerned about their children's education and the welfare of teachers posted to the community.
7. The government must intensify its effort of extending electricity to all areas in the municipality. This could promote good learning habits by children and facilitate easy delivery of the curriculum.



### **Suggestions for Further Studies**

1. It is suggested that the current study will be extended to cover all public schools in the municipality.
2. Future studies should examine the causes of poor performance of public schools in the Basic Education Certificate Examinations.

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**APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX A**



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Our Ref: EP/90.1/V.2/68

November 26, 2009

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.....

**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION**

The bearer of this letter, **Ato Zubair Johnston** is a graduate student of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration of the University of Cape Coast. He requires some information from your outfit for the purpose of writing a thesis as a requirement of M.Phil degree programme.

We should be grateful if you would kindly allow him to collect the information from your outfit.

Kindly give the necessary assistance that he requires to collect the information.

While anticipating your co-operation, we thank you for any help that you may be able to give.

Mr. Y.M. Anhwere  
Asst. Registrar  
For: **DIRECTOR**

**APPENDIX B**

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MEMBERS OF THE PARENTS TEACHER ASSOCIATION, THE SCHOOL MANAGEMENT COMMITTEES AND MUNICIPAL ASSEMBLY MEMBERS**

The purpose of this study is to evaluate participation in the provision of basic education in the Mfantsiman municipality in the Central Region. Kindly respond to the following questions as frankly as possible. Your responses will be kept as confidential as possible. Thank you for your cooperation.

**PART I: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA**

Please answer the question by ticking the appropriate response in the space provided.

1. Gender                                      Male [    ]                                      Female [    ]

**PART II: ROLES PLAYED TO DEVELOP BASIC EDUCATION**

Below are some roles played by the community to develop education. Please tick [√] the responses that best describes the situation in your community.

<b>Roles to develop Basic Education</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
2. The community provides accommodation for teachers				
3. Community members make suggestions towards the development of the school.				
4. The community members pay levies for the provision of school projects.				
5. The community assists in providing school projects through communal labour.				

6. Parents and guardians ensure that their children are regular and punctual at school.				
7. The community remunerates hard working teachers.				
8. The SMCs assist the schools to enforce and maintain discipline.				
9. Parents regularly take part in PTA meetings and monitor students and teachers performance.				

Others (specify)

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**PART III: COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT DIRECTED AT IMPROVING PARTICIPATION AND ACCESS TO BASIC EDUCATION**

Which of the following services are rendered with the aim of improving access and participation to basic education in your community? Please tick the appropriate response(s) that suit your situation.

Service	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
10. The community provides support for the maintenance of school building				

11. The community assists in the provision of urinal and toilet facilities at the school.				
12. The community assists the school with resource persons when invited.				
13. Parents/guardians provide pupils with basic learning needs.				
14. Parents/guardians pay educational levies on behalf of their wards.				
15. Parents/guardians assist children to know the value of education.				
16. Members of the community assist the school to award scholarships to brilliant but needy children.				
17. The community assists the school to acquire land for the construction of school buildings.				

Others (specify).....  
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**PART V: CHALLENGES TO COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE PROVISION OF BASIC EDUCATION**

The following are statements describing the challenges/obstacles that come up when communities get involved in the provision of basic education. Please tick the response that best describes your situation.

<b>Challenges</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
18. Parents feel their wards are not given the necessary counseling and education needed.				
19. Teachers are inadequate because those who are posted to the community either do not accept postings or do not stay for long.				
20. The community members believe that education should essentially be the responsibility of government.				
21. There is inadequate usage of teaching and learning materials in the schools.				
22. Lack of good drinking water, electricity, roads and good communication				



system deter teachers from staying in the community.				
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Others (specify).....  
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**PART VI: WAYS OF IMPROVING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION  
IN THE PROVISION OF BASIC EDUCATION**

23. Suggest three (3) ways of which community participation in the provision of basic education can be improved.



**PART II: ROLES PLAYED TO DEVELOP BASIC EDUCATION**

Below are some roles played by the community to develop basic education. Please tick [√] the responses that best describes the situation in your community.

<b>Roles to develop Basic Education</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
3. The community provides accommodation for teachers.				
4. Community members make suggestions towards the development of the school.				
5. The community members pay levies for the provision of school projects.				
6. The community assists in providing school projects through communal labour.				
7. Parents and guardians ensure that their children are regular and punctual to school.				
8. The community remunerates hard working teachers.				
9. The SMCs assist the schools to enforce and maintain discipline.				
10. Parents regularly take part in PTA meetings and monitor students and teachers performance.				

Others (specify).....  
 .....

**PART III: COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT DIRECTED AT IMPROVING PARTICIPATION AND ACCESS TO BASIC EDUCATION**

Which of the following services are rendered with the aim of improving access and participation to basic education in your community? Please tick [√] the appropriate response(s) that suit your situation.

<b>Service</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
15. The community provides support for the maintenance of school buildings.				
16. Members of the community assist in the provision of urinal and toilet facilities at the school.				
17. The community assists the school with resource persons when invited.				
18. Parents/guardians provide pupils with basic learning needs.				
19. Parents/guardians pay educational levies on behalf of their wards.				
20. Parents/guardians assist children to know the value of education.				
21. Members of the community assist the school to award scholarships to brilliant				

but needy children.				
22. The community assists the school to acquire land for the construction of school buildings.				

Others (specify).....  
 .....

**PART IV CHALLENGES TO COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE PROVISION OF BASIC EDUCATION**

The following are statements describing the challenges/obstacles that come up when communities get involved in the provision of basic education. Please tick the response that best describes the situation and specify others.

<b>Challenges</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
23. . Parents feel their wards are not given the necessary counseling and education needed.				
24. Teachers are inadequate because those who are posted to the community either do not accept postings or do not stay for long.				
25. The community members believe that education should essentially be the responsibility of				

government.				
26. There is inadequate usage of teaching and learning materials in the schools.				
27. Lack of good drinking water, electricity, roads and good communication system deter teachers from staying in the community.				

Others (specify).....

**PART V: WAYS OF IMPROVING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE PROVISION OF BASIC EDUCATION**

28. Suggest three (3) ways of which community participation in the provision of basic education can be improved.



make suggestions towards the development of the school.				
5. The community members pay levies for the provision of school projects.				
6. The community assists in providing school projects through communal labour.				
7. Parents and guardians ensure that their children are regular and punctual at school.				
8. The community remunerates hard working teachers.				
9. The SMCs assist the schools to enforce and maintain discipline.				
10. Parents regularly take part in PTA meetings and monitor students and teachers performance.				

Others (specify).....

**PART III: COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT DIRECTED AT IMPROVING PARTICIPATION AND ACCESS TO BASIC EDUCATION**

Which of the following services are rendered with the aim of improving access and participation to basic education in your community? Please tick the appropriate response(s) that suit your situation.



Service	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
11. The community provides support for the maintenance of school building.				
12. The community assists in the provision of urinal and toilet facilities at the school.				
13. The community assists the school with resource persons in when invited.				
14. Parents/guardians provide pupils with basic learning needs.				
15. Parents/guardians pay educational levies on behalf of their wards.				
16. Parents/guardians assist children to know the value of education.				
17. Members of the community assist the school to award scholarships to brilliant but needy children.				
18. The community assist the school to acquire land for the construction of school buildings.				

Others (specify).....  
 .....

**PART IV: CHALLENGES TO COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE PROVISION OF BASIC EDUCATION**

The following are statements describing the challenges/obstacles that come up when communities get involved in the provision of basic education. Please tick the response that best describes the situation and specify others.

<b>Challenges</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
19. . Parents feel their wards are not given the necessary counseling and education needed.				
20. Teachers are inadequate because those who are posted to the community either do not accept postings or do not stay for long.				
21. The community members believe that education should essentially be the responsibility of government.				
22. There is inadequate usage of teaching and learning materials in the schools.				
23. Lack of good drinking water, electricity, roads and good communication				

system deter teachers from staying in the community.				
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Others (specify).....

**PART VI: WAYS OF IMPROVING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION  
IN THE PROVISION OF BASIC EDUCATION**

24. Suggest three (3) ways of which community participation in the provision of basic education can be improved.