

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

ADMINISTRATION OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN CAPE COAST  
METROPOLIS IN THE CONTEXT OF DECENTRALISATION IN GHANA

JOSEPH NATHANIEL AIKINS

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BY

JOSEPH NATHANIEL AIKINS

Thesis submitted to the Institute of Educational Planning and Administration of the Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Educational Administration

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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: Joseph Nathaniel Aikins

### Supervisors' Declaration

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

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Name: Rev. K. Arko Boham

## **ABSTRACT**

The study was to determine how the decentralisation policy is being implemented in the Senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis in the context of Decentralisation in Ghana. Specifically the study assessed the structures put in place to decentralise administration in the senior high schools. The descriptive survey design was employed to shape the study, while the purposive and stratified sampling methods were used to select a sample of 232 respondents from the ten senior high schools in the metropolis as well as the two Directors of Education (The metro and regional directors).

A structured questionnaire was the instrument for data collection which consisted of closed and open-ended items. The data collected were analysed with frequencies and percentages using the SPSS Windows 13.0. The major findings were that; the central government is the sole financier of the second cycle education. With the level of management functions, the study revealed that heads of institutions do not have the authority to hire and fire staff and in the area of training received by administrators on the policy. The study further revealed that many staff members do not have any idea of the decentralization policy and its implementation in senior high schools.

The following recommendations were made; Senior High School management should be given the mandate to increase the matching programme content to local interest whereby there will be a variety in the quality and content of education provided. Again training programmes should be organised during vacation with some incentives to motivate staff, so that almost all staff would be able to attend to enrich their administrative skills to implement the decentralisation policy effectively.

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## **DEDICATION**

To my big brother Rev Frank Aikins, my Beloved wife Mrs. Lola Aikins  
and my children Diane, Cheryl, Nathasha and Caleb Frank Aikins

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

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

Formal education was introduced in the then Gold Coast in the 16<sup>th</sup> century by the European Merchants. The education system, ideas, and practices were similar to traditional British education to promote colonial interests. The colonial administration, especially promoted the training of clerical and administrative staff by either setting up new schools or strengthening existing ones (McWilliam & Kwamena Poh, 1975).

As far back as 1852, the newly created colonial British Administration had enacted its first legislation to provide better education for the inhabitants of Her Majesty's fort and settlement on the Gold Coast. Thereafter the administration and control of education (schools) in the Gold Coast between 1882 and 1961 were more of a dual partnership between government and the missionaries than decentralisation (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975).

McWilliam & Kwamena Poh (1975) further explained that, whether the schools were set up by the missionaries or the colonial administration, local communities played a key role in providing infrastructural facilities for the schools. Antwi (1992) also emphasised that the local communities and chiefs supported and showed interest in the establishment of schools, but the huge

financial outlay involved in putting up school buildings, hiring and paying of teachers and so on, soon became a huge challenge for poorer communities. With time it became obvious that the growth and development of formal education could only be achieved when the state took responsibility for education. The colonial government did not only accept this responsibility, but provided support for missionaries and other voluntary groups interested in formal education.

Foster (1965) as cited by Quist (2002) stated that when Ghana attained political independence from Britain in 1957, the foundation for effective co-operation in the management of Church and state schools had been established. Essential features of such co-operation, stipulated in the education laws reflected in the way the colonial state actively supported the missions with grants in aid (funds), and also required that the Church schools implement a curriculum that guaranteed high educational standards. In addition, the colonial state also categorised all such schools into assisted and non-assisted schools with the latter receiving no financial assistance from the state.

According to McWilliam & Kwamena Poh (1975) an Educational Ordinance was passed in the year 1961 by which the Minister of Education assumed the responsibility for the management and control of all the schools within and outside the public system. The Act recognised the existence of private and denominational bodies within the public educational system and their role in formulating and implementing educational policies. The Act further enjoined the Minister of Education to constitute local authorities into local education authorities after consultation with the Minister of Local Government. These

bodies were specifically to build, equip and maintain all primary and middle schools in their localities (p.79).

Quist (2002), further explained that the 1961 Ordinance which was amended in 1965 sought to introduce educational centralisation in the management of secondary education most especially, and has remained the law governing the provision and management of pre-university education in Ghana. The law, and the attempts made to implement it, obviously, marked a major departure from Nkrumah's own initiative to decentralise educational management at the primary level in Ghana and from earlier laws passed in the colonial era (1882-1887) which sought to emphasise educational decentralisation as a policy option.

The 1967 Mills Odoi committee recommended for the restructuring of education. Under the new system, each of the then regional education offices were to be headed by Deputy Chief Education Officers (Regional Directors of Education), who in turn would supervise the District Education Officers (District Directors of Education) who are senior education officers (McWilliam & Kwabena-Poh, 1975). The history of decentralisation in Ghana is traced back by Ayee (2000), to the introduction of the indirect rule by the British colonial authorities in 1878, lasting until 1951. During this period, the colonial administration ruled indirectly through the native political institution (i.e. chiefs), by constituting the chief and elders in a given district as the local government functions (Nkrumah, 2000). Nkrumah again made an interesting observation that, under indirect rule, downward accountability of chiefs to people was replaced

with upwards accountability to the colonial authorities thus: “the democratic ideals underlying chieftaincy in Ghana, which makes chiefs accountable to their peoples, began to suffer as the recognition by the central government was more crucial to the chief than the support of his people” (p. 55).

Thus, there are some echoes here, as well as obvious differences, with relations in the contemporary period between central and local government in Ghana, dispelling any lingering notions of a necessary association between decentralisation and democracy, and confirming how decentralisation can be used as a political mechanism by ruling political elites to reinforce their control.

Attempts at decentralisation reforms were introduced at different times, for instance in 1974 under the military regime of Lt. Col. Acheampong, generally characterised by deconcentration, and aimed at strengthening central government control at the local level (Nkrumah, 2000). In 1975, the National Redemption Council (NRC) Amendment Decree 357 established a professional body, the Ghana Education Service (GES). Its main functions among other things included curriculum development, inspection, general supervision, provision and management of pre-university institutions. However, the Ministry of Education remains responsible for all policy matters on education throughout the country (Antwi, 1992).

According to Nkrumah (2000) a historical aspect of the decentralisation reforms was introduced in the early period of the then military government (1981-1992). In 1993, the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) government announced a policy of administrative decentralisation of central government

ministries, alongside the creation of Peoples Defence Committees (PDC) in each town and village. The PDCs, made up of local PNDC activists as self identified defenders of the 'revolution', effectively took over local government responsibilities, though often limited to mobilising the implementation of local self help projects, while the deconcentrated ministries played a more significant role. Ayee (2000) noted that despite the PNDC's populist rhetoric, its interest in decentralisation reflected that of previous regimes, that is, an interest in the administrative decentralisation of central government and not devolution of political authority to local level.

This is the base line of argument of the Ghanaian populace in support of a decentralisation system of education in the country. The Ghanaian public has long been demanding a hand in decision making in educational matters. The public argues that education is a national, personal, as well as a family affair. Within the Ghanaian context, political decentralisation seeks, among other things to develop central administrative authority to the district levels. The Local Government Act of 1996 assigns the functions and duties of primary responsibility for the implementation of development policy and programmes to the metropolitan, municipal and district assemblies.

Earlier, under the 1988 amendments of PNDC Law 207, administrative arrangements were made for converting 22 central government departments (including education) into departments of district assemblies. The law further states that, the staff of these departments is to operate as the staff of the District Assemblies (DA). Their appointments shall be either the public service

commission or the head of the civil service (Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MoLGaLD) 1996). On the contrary, the existing district education directorates are not departments of the district assemblies, but directorates of the GES and appointments to the district education offices are still made by the GES.

Despite the various programmes and initiatives that were implemented over the years to provide and improve upon education, the education system has been and continues to be plagued by several deficiencies. These weaknesses became pronounced as the economic decline that began in the mid-1970s deepened in the early 1980s. As a result, much of the early post independence acclaim about the success story of the educational system had begun to appear as a mirage by the mid 1980s. In September 1987, the country embarked on massive reforms in the educational sector in order to reverse this decline in the education system and to reorient the schools towards a more cost-effective, relevant and practical system (Anamuah-Mensah, 2002).

Some of the principles governing the 1987 reform were to enhance sector management and budgeting procedures through a merger of planning, monitoring and evaluation functions. The decentralisation of decision-making and supervision from the region to district and circuit levels was also to ensure an increase level of school visitation and supervision. As a result of the reform the governance changes resulted in decentralisation of management and in the setting up of a number of management bodies at the school and district levels to manage teaching and learning in the schools. Writing on the topic “Decentralising the



Educational systems, the Daily Graphic stated amongst other things that the introduction of the decentralisation of education has brought about preoccupation in the discourse of education policy reform over matters such as the quality and standards of education among the developing nations (Dehlor, 2007).

Looking at the functions of the ministry of education since the introduction of the decentralisation of education, it shows that the educational system is highly centralised and that all efforts for decentralisation have not produced satisfactory results in terms of salaries, posting, appointments, finance and so on. Many authors (Brooke, 1984; Ary, Jacob & Razavieh, 1985) speak of the problem in reaching a balance between centralisation and decentralisation (Rosenholtz, 1985).

Other serious constraints that confront decentralisation include: absolute lack of resources in some communities, social heterogeneity and conflict, passivity, poverty, illiteracy, organisational and administrative obstacles and the difficulty of sustaining participatory processes (Shaefer, 1991). In spite of these pertinent problems inherent in the decentralisation of educational administration and management, the implementation and practice of the concept in Ghana seek to harvest the gains of decentralisation by ensuring:

1. Respect for diversity;
2. Optional use of human and material resources;
3. A balanced distribution of educational investment; and
4. Effective and efficient administration (UNESCO, 1982).

Cape Coast metropolis where the study was conducted has a land mass of 122 square kilometres (km<sup>2</sup>) and a coastland strip of about 17km. It is the only metropolitan seat of government in the central region and used to be the capital town of the then Gold Coast. The metropolis is bounded on the North by the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District, on the West by the Komenda Edina Eguafo Abrem Municipality, on the East by Abura-Asebu Kwamankese District and on the South by the short coastal strip of 17km along the Gulf of Guinea (GES, 2008).

The major economic activities in the metropolis is fishing and agriculture, it is also a potential area of agro-processing for citrus as well as other primary agriculture produce. The rich cultural festival call Fetu Afahye, the scenic beach of the town, the forts and castles and other historical monuments are all potential sites of tourist attraction. Another economic site of the metropolis is the crocodile pond at Hans Cottage motel near Cape Coast. The area was chosen because of its rich educational history (GES, 2008).

Education in the country had its roots from the Cape Coast Castle in the 17<sup>th</sup> century. The aim was to train the indigenes to be able to read the bible and also teach catechism to new converts as well as improvement in moral values. Philip Quaque one of the beneficiaries of the only castle school education was sponsored by the Anglican Church to pursue further studies in Britain. Later on, the Wesleyan missionaries began education for young girls in the school very near the Cape Coast castle, which later developed into Wesley Girls High School. Here too, the focus was on morals and good house-wifery. Boys were later trained with

the aim of making them clerks or storekeepers. This training led to the establishment of Mfantshipim School in 1876 as the first second cycle school in the country.

The Anglican took steps further in providing college education to their trainees with the establishment of St Nicholas Grammar school now Adisadel College in 1910. In 1930 Roman Catholics followed suit with the establishment of St Augustine's College which began as a teacher training college. From then the stage was set for the spread of formal education from Cape Coast to other towns (GES, 2008). Appendix B outlines the map of Cape Coast Metropolis

According to the Annual School Census for Senior High Schools 2007/2008 undertaken by the Cape Coast metropolitan education office, there are ten (10) senior high schools in the metropolis, being the metropolis with the largest number of the senior high schools in the region, representing 17.9% of the total number of Government assisted senior high schools (56) in the central region. The area was therefore chosen to investigate how the senior high schools in the metropolis are administered in the context of the decentralisation policy in Ghana.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Prior to the inception of the current decentralisation system in 1988, decisions on educational issues were taken by the central authority (the central Government) and implemented by the local authorities. Administration of education in Ghana is still highly centralised with almost all policy decisions emanating from the ministry of education. Attempts at fully decentralising

education have not succeeded since all policy direction on education are centralised although education is believed to be decentralised. According to Makain (1998), “it appears that past decentralisation programmes might have failed due to the lack of commitment and political will on the part of government to prioritise education”.

The problems are many, but a few will be addressed: looking at how school administrators and teachers are recruited and posted to schools, how school personnel have to travel to the regional and national education headquarters to process their documents on promotions and increment in salaries, how fresh students are admitted into the senior high schools and finally how development projects are undertaken in the senior high schools. The study is to ascertain if the senior high schools are truly decentralised, and how the policy is being implemented, what type of training has been given to the administrators to administer the schools, and which function or type of decentralisation is being practised in the senior high schools?

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study is to determine how the decentralisation policy is being implemented in the senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

Specifically the study;

1. assessed the structures put in place to decentralise administration in the senior high schools.

2. investigated which type of decentralisation that is practiced in the senior high schools and identified the weakness in the existing administrative role with regards to the type practiced.
3. established type of training educational administrators receive in their quest to administer the decentralised educational institution.
4. identified the specific challenges administrators are facing in the administration of the decentralised educational institution.

### **Research Questions**

1. What structures have been put in place to decentralise administration in the senior high schools?
2. Which type(s) of decentralisation is or are practiced in the senior high schools?
3. What type of training have educational administrators received to facilitate their functioning in the decentralised educational system?
4. What specific challenges are educational administrators encountering in carrying out their responsibilities in a decentralised educational system?

### **Significance of the Study**

The study will be of great educational significance in the sense that it has the potential of identifying the functions that have been decentralised in the senior high schools.

1. The information can help the senior high school administrators to take realistic approach to policy maker's decisions regarding decentralisation in the senior high schools and they (policy makers) being responsive to

school administrators' reactions, suggestions and also to acknowledge lapses and failures in the educational system.

2. The study will also serve as base line material for replication in future.

### **Delimitation of the Study**

This study examined the implementation of educational administration in the senior high schools in the central region in the context of the decentralisation policy in Ghana. It was delimited to the Central Regional and Cape Coast metropolitan directors of education, school administrators which include the heads of senior high schools, assistant heads, senior house masters or mistresses, heads of departments and house masters or mistresses. The study was also confined to senior high schools in the Cape Coast metropolis in the central region of Ghana. Therefore the study was further delimited to the following indices of decentralisation;

1. the concept centralisation and decentralisation
2. empirical studies of decentralisation of education
3. decentralisation of the ministry of education in Ghana
4. the administrative functions of the school heads
5. decentralisation in the form of school-based management

### **Limitations of the Study**

The subjective nature of the questionnaire which required the respondents to air out their views on the state of decentralisation in schools and their areas of operation was a major blow. To hide the actual intentions, they might give false

information not reflecting the realities on the ground. This might affect the results of the study thus preventing any meaningful generalisation of the results.

### **Organisation of the Rest of the Study**

The study is organised into five chapters. The first chapter is the introduction which highlights the background of the study, the statement of the research problem, the purpose and significance of the study. In this same chapter, the limitations and delimitations of the study are spelt out. The second chapter reviews the relevant literature on decentralisation; it involves both the empirical studies and conceptual framework of the types, merits, complexities and reasons for decentralisation. The third chapter looks at the procedures used in conducting the study. Under this chapter, the design, population, sample and data gathering methods were illustrated. The analysis of data is presented in the fourth chapter. Data on how the decentralisation policy is implemented in the senior high schools, types of functions decentralised, type of training received by administrators, challenges encountered by administrators and strategies adopted to cope with were analysed using frequencies of responses and percentages. Chapter five recaps the results and findings obtained from the study. Recommendations are made for various partners in education and policy makers. Further research is recommended.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This chapter discusses the opinions that various authors have expressed about decentralisation in order to help put the topic under discussion into its proper perspective. It further discusses the extent to which some countries that have engaged in decentralising the management of their educational system, the failures and successes they have encountered.

The purpose of this chapter is to present a review of related literature on the implementation of the decentralisation policy in senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis. Specifically the chapter will review the following:

1. Clarification of the concept Centralization and Decentralization
2. Empirical studies of Decentralisation in Education
3. Decentralisation of the Ministry of Education in Ghana
4. The Administrative Functions of the School Heads
5. Decentralisation in the form of School-Based Management.
6. Summary

#### **Clarification of the Concepts: Centralisation and Decentralisation**

Centralisation refers to both the effective decision making powers and the allocation of resources from one centre. It involves both administrative and political powers. Centralisation has two dimensions horizontal and vertical.



Horizontal Centralisation refers to the Centralisation of authority in one branch at the same level of government. Example, the office of the Ministry of Education as has been the case at the national level in Ghana. Vertical Centralisation refers to the centralisation of authority at one level of government, invariably at the national level it dominates over all levels and is hierarchical (Greenstreet 1971).

In Ghana decision-making in education at all levels of Government and administration is virtually done by the Minister of Education and at the ministries. Centralisation both politically and administratively has colonial influences. The colonial government used centralisation as a control device to consolidate its hold over the colony in an era when the main concern was to maintain law and order (Greenstreet 1971).

McShane & Von Glinow (2000) relates that in Centralisation, formal decision authority is held by a small group of people, typically those at the top of the organisational hierarchy. Most organisations begin with centralised structures, as the founders make most of the decisions and try to direct the business toward their vision. But as organisation grow, they become more complex, work activities are divided into more specialised functions, a broader range of products or services is introduced and operations expand into different districts and regions. Under these conditions the founders and senior executives lack the decisions that significantly influence the business.

Centralisation may improve consistency and reduce cost, but it does reduce local flexibility. This is the main reason why companies are moving towards shared service centralising human resources, accounting, information

system and other support functions in one unit than having them scattered around different divisions (Mcshane, & Von Glinow, 2000).

Decentralisation on the other hand is complicated and many agencies and governments tend to discuss and implement it without a concise conception of its meaning. Decentralisation is again defined here as the transfer or delegation of legal and political authority to plan, make decisions and manage public functions from the central government and its agencies to field organisations of these agencies, subordinate units of government, semi-autonomous public corporations, area wide or regional development authorities, functional authorities, autonomous local government or non-governmental organisations. The degree of political and legal power that is transferred or delegated depends on the form of decentralisation used.

The concept of decentralisation is the process of re-assigning responsibility and corresponding decision-making authority for specific functions from higher to lower levels of government and organisational units. Educational decentralisation is a complex process that deals with changes in the way school system go about making policy, generating revenues, spending funds, training teachers, designing curricula, and managing local schools. Such changes imply fundamental shift in the values that concern the relationships of students and parents to schools, the relationships of communities to central government, and the very meaning and purpose of public education (Fiske, 1996).

Fiske (1996) again explain decentralisation as a shift in the location of those who govern, about transfers of authority from those in one location or level

vis-a-vis education organisation, to those in another level. The location of authority is expressed in terms of the location of the position of the governing body, an example, is the delegation of authority at the district education offices. According to McGinn & Welsh (1999) “Possible locations of authority are considered thus; the central government; regional governing bodies; metropolitan, municipal, district and schools.”

The term decentralisation again implies dispersal of something aggregated or concentrated around a single point. A good example used to describe this dispersal is that of a pyramid. Most public and private organisations rely on leaders or specially designated persons to make decisions for the rest of the members of the organisation. In both the public and the private sector, large organisations turn to be hierarchical in structure, that is, they have multiple layers of authority. Decisions made at the top layer affects more people, and those made at the bottom affect fewer people (McGinn & Welsh, 1999).

In the Ghana Education Services, the sector minister is at the top. The minister is connected downward with the director – general and three or more deputy director generals, each of whom is connected downwards by the ten regional directors. Each of the regional directors is connected downwards to the metropolitan, municipal and district directors, who supervise the schools. So decentralisation moves authority downward from the apex of the pyramid downward to the base (Anamuah-Mensah, 2002).

## **The Role of Centralised Education**

Education began by apprenticeship of learning by doing model, and was controlled by individual teachers or masters. As time went by, the communities took control with each pursuing its own objectives. Initially instructions were provided by persons chosen by religious organisations or teachers because of their beliefs or level of education. These persons were not trained teachers even so, these systems were effective in teaching basic skills. The expansion of education in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries occurred simultaneously with the development of strong government, which sought standardisation of the content and processes of schooling. Government then took over and assumed an authority over education, having control and making education centralised ((UNESCO, 1982).

A perusal of the constitutional provisions reveals that central government is expected to play a significant role in the field of education. In Ghana, the Ministry of Education discharges the major responsibilities in the field of education. According to Aggarwal (2001), the Ministry of Human Resource Development in India, is just like the Ministry of Education in Ghana. They Perform the following functions:

### **Planning**

Educational planning is part and parcel of the total planning of the country. The central government of India determines targets and prepares the educational plan to be implemented by the country as a whole (Aggarwal, 2001).

Hanson (1997) has conviction that “a successful decentralisation initiative requires strong and well trained leaders who have sufficient experience to carry out a new designed plan” In Ghana, planners are based in the Ghana Education Service headquarters where curriculum development is done, so whatever decision is taken by the planners from the headquarters will be carried over to the regional and the district levels (Ministry of Education, Science and Sports, ‘MoESS’ 2007).

### **Educational Reforms**

From time to time, the government of India sets up commissions which go into various aspect of education at different levels and provide valuable recommendations and suggestions. These recommendations are further considered by the experts and the state is requested to implement the recommendations of the expert bodies (Aggarwal, 2001).

In Ghana, we have some of these commissions like the Dzobo committee of 1987 and the president’s committee on review of education reform in Ghana of 2002 that reviewed the trend of educational reforms and made valuable recommendations and suggestions (MoESS, 2007).

### **Organisation**

The government of India had set up institutions like all India Council of Technical Educational Research and Training which provides guidance to the states in the filed of education (Aggarwal, 2001).

In Ghana, there is the National Education Council which is the highest body of education. The government of Ghana in 1988 set-up the university

rationalisation study which made certain recommendations, most of which have been systematically implemented. All tertiary institutions should adopt the academic year semester system and the course credit system: the institution should be non-residential and abolish the dining hall system. A national council for higher education, and a board of accreditation as a joint admissions and matriculations board for tertiary education was established. The national distance educational council and the distance council secretariat was set-up in 1995 and 1996 respectively (MOE, 2002).

### **Direction**

The central government of India also directs and guides the state government, local bodies, and private enterprises to encourage or put education on the right footing. This is being done by the ministry through the central board of education control. As the local government requires financial help for the local programmes they look for grants from the central government. The central government allocates suitable grants to the states, local bodies and private agencies. This it exercises considerably on education (Aggarwal, 2001).

In Ghana, the Ministry of Education directs and guides the regional and district education sectors, and the private schools through the GES. They do so for the attainment of the educational goals and objectives in the country. When the district and regional education sectors prepare their budget they submit it to the central point through the GES for approval and grants are allocated to them (MoESS, 2007).

## **Equalisation of Educational Opportunities**

The government of India is wedded to the establishment of an egalitarian society and therefore had taken many steps to provide equal educational opportunities to the weaker sectors of the society; it has initiated a large number of programmes in this direction (Aggarwal, 2001). The government of Ghana had instituted the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) programme, with the introduction of the Capitation grants and recently the school feeding programme on a pilot bases to increase enrolment and access to education (MOE, 2002).

## **Pilot Projects**

The ministry of human resources development and the government of India have undertaken a large number of pilot projects like rural universities, regional institutions, curriculum reforms and text books supply. By starting these projects, the ministry aimed at providing enlightened leadership all over the country (Aggarwal, 2001). Mankoe & Maynes (1994) believes that this kind of centralisation poses problems in countries with large regional variations in the supply of qualified teachers; some countries for example, find it difficult to recruit qualified teachers to small towns and rural areas. On the other hand the transfer of authority for decisions about personnel qualification should, therefore, be made only when local decision makers have acquired competence in the curriculum. In Ghana, the government had undertaken a number of pilot projects like building of schools in various districts or towns to encourage participation which will go to enlightened leadership all over the country (MoESS, 2007).

All the indicators above goes to prove that Ghana is operating a centralised system of education because everything is based at the headquarters, if a teacher needs study leave to improve his academic knowledge he has to go to the headquarters of education to work on it. Before a teacher can get most of the things in education, he or she needs to travel to the centre for it to be done, imagine the inconveniencies of travelling from Wa in the Upper East region of Ghana to Accra to process a document. Education is financed by the central government so every budget prepared by all code centres in education ought to be sent to the centre for review and approval. Supervision and monitoring is sometimes done by the headquarters, making the educational system in Ghana a centralised one.

### **Types of Decentralisation in Ghana**

Decentralisation is defined as “any act in which a central government formally cedes powers to actors and institutions at lower levels in political-administrative and territorial hierarchy” (Ribot, 2001, citing Mawhood, 1983). According to Winkler (1991) decentralisation varies by the level of government getting the decision-making power, the kind of decisions being moved, and the orientation of the decentralisation.

According to Cui (1993) Decision-making power can be moved to the regional government, the local government, the community, or the school. Hanson (2000) believes that if decision making authority is delegated down the ranks to the hierarchy of the staff, then decentralisation has taken place. In other words



Hanson believes that internal democratisation or administration is synonymous with decentralisation at the institutional level.

According to Fiske (1996), this can take place in one or two ways: political decentralisation or administrative decentralisation. Political decentralisation involves assigning decision-making power to citizens or their representatives at lower levels of government, thus shifting authority to include people outside of the government. Political decentralisation requires significant consultation with and agreement from all parties involved. Administrative decentralisation on the other hand, maintains power in the central government while shifting authority for planning, management, finance and other activities to lower levels of government or semi autonomous authority. This type can take place without much involvement outside of the government. The ways that power is moved via decentralisation can be outlined as deconcentration, delegation, and devolution.

Deconcentration is the transfer of authority to levels within the central government and it involves the shifting of management responsibilities from the central to regional or other lower levels so that the centre retains control. This often takes the form of creating or expanding powers of regional directorates (Fiske, 1996).

Administrative decentralisation or deconcentration according to Manor (1995) is the relocation of branches of the central state to locally-based officials, who remain part of, and upwardly accountable to central government ministries and agencies.

Deconcentration is the least extensive form of decentralisation. At one extreme this mainly involves the shifting of workload from central government ministry to staff located in offices outside the national capital without any authority to decide how functions should be performed. As opposed to this, there is a transfer of decision-making discretion to field staff, allowing them some latitude to plan, make routine decision and adjust the implementation of central directives to local conditions, within guidelines set by the central ministries, but even here the field staff are employees of central ministry and remain under its direction and control. It must be emphasised that many people do not consider this to be decentralisation (Greenstreet, 1971).

Delegation is another form of decentralisation. According to Greenstreet (1971), it is the delegation of decision-making and administration authority for specific function to an organisation that is only under the indirect control of the central government ministries. Often, the organisations to which public functions are delegated have semi-independent authority to perform their responsibilities, and may not even be located within the regular government structure. This represents a more extensive form of decentralisation than administrative deconcentration.

But Winkler (1991) refers to delegation as the transfer of government tasks to autonomous organisation, which may receive government funding and are accountable to the central government. He emphasises that, delegations occurs when central authorities lend authorities to lower levels of government, or even to the semi-autonomous organisations, with the understanding that the authority can

be withdrawn. Vocational and higher education are often delegated within education system, and it is not very common with regard to provision of basic education.

Just like Winkler (1991) and Manor (1995) refers to delegation as the transfer of fiscal resources and revenue-generating powers, including authority over budgets and financial decisions, to either deconcentrated officials and or central government appointees or to elected politicians. Manor (1995) at the same time referred to devolution (power) which is also another way by which power is moved via decentralisation as the transfer of powers and resources to sub-national authorities which are largely or wholly independent of the central government.

But Winkler (1991) refers to devolution as the creation of autonomous and independent sub-national units of government, which have authority to raise revenues and spend when power is devolved. The transfer of authority over financial, administrative, or pedagogical matters is permanent and cannot be revoked on a whim. Decision-making authority is divided between the central and regional governments, which are often highly centralised. Devolution according to him may result in strong central authority and community financed and managed schools. It may also result in a federal form of government in which the general purpose of the regional or local government is to have responsibility for finance and provision of basic education. Basic education may either be devolved to regional or local governments, or both.

Greenstreet (1971) on the other hand refers to devolution as the most extreme form of decentralisation in the strengthening or creation of independent

level and unit of Government. Some administrative theorist, he again argues postulate devolution as a concept and arrangement quite separate from decentralisation. He cited Sherwood's example for devolution and decentralisation as two different phenomena and would use "decentralisation" to describe an intra-organisational pattern of power relationship and devolution to describe an inter-organisational pattern of power relationship.

### **Reasons for Educational Decentralisation**

Decentralisation as the term implies can refer to a dynamic relationship between the centre and the periphery. The centre and periphery can be seen as the ends of a continuum and also as relative concepts depending on the context (Mintzberg, 1995). What is considered decentralization at one level can easily be seen as centralisation at another, decentralisation usually refer to a movement from centre to the periphery (Brown, 1990). The basic function of democratic decentralisation is to ensure that the development planning is responsible to the region and needs of the population. In short, it ensures peoples' participation (Mock, 1997). According to Aggarwal (1991), the national policy on education and the programme of action in India emphasised the importance of the decentralisation of planning and management of education at all levels by ensuring greater community participation.

In Ministry of Justice (2005), 'Acts' 240 of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana envisage establishing municipalities in the urban areas. Regions are expected to develop adequate powers, responsibilities and finance upon these bodies so as to enable them to prepare plans and implement schemes for

economic development and social justice. These acts provide a basic framework of decentralisation of powers and authorities to the municipal bodies at different levels. However, responsibility for giving it a practical shape rests with the regions, regions are expected to act in consonance with the spirit of the acts for system of local self-government (P. 85).

Decentralisation will also strengthen the local business and the local community as a whole. It will make it possible for various regions and districts to design programmes and activities better adapted to the needs of the local communities. It was argued that a more flexible and locally oriented school had a positive effect on students' motivation and learning, gave them a feeling of belonging to the local community and made them aware of the role they had to play in the community. The foundation of this argument is that the local schools should first of all be an agent in the local community and not for the large society (Pinkney, 1997).

Decentralisation has been proposed by government in order to change the resources and amount of funds available for education. This can be done by increasing the overall amount of money spent on education; shifting the sources of funding from one social group to another other than within levels of government (McGinn and Welsh, 1999).

One of the objectives of decentralisation according to McGinn and Welsh (1999) is to improve the operation of the educational system. The examples, they gave are; increasing the efficiency in allocation and utilisation of resources, increasing the matching of programmes to employers' requirements and increasing

the use of information about issues, problems or innovations thereby improving efficiency.

Decentralisation has again been proposed to benefit local government primarily, by; increasing revenues for education available to local government, increasing the capacity of local governments, improving the responsiveness of central government to local government requirements, and redistributing political power, weakening actors at the centre in favour of those outside the centre (McGinn and Welsh, 1999).

On the other hand as indicated by Winkler (1991), “Educational decentralisation has been formally or informally advocated by government of india to improve the educational systems’ finance, increased efficiency/effectiveness, redistribution of political power, improved quality and increased innovation”(p.68). The financial rationale for educational decentralisation addresses the issue of how resources for education are raised. It holds that decentralisation will generate revenue of the educational system by taking advantage of local resources of taxation, as well as reduce operational cost. In this model, the goal is to shift some of the financial burden for education to the region or local government, community and organisations. This rationale is particularly appealing for developing countries, since they often find themselves faced with severe financial constraints. It also assumes that more active involvement by more social institutions and groups will lead to an increase in revenue available for education.

Furthermore the increase in efficiency or effectiveness deals with how educational resources are used. It focuses on the unit cost of basic education provided by a centralised government that often does not have the capacity to administer the entire sector. The above argues that decentralisation leads to more efficiency by eliminating many bureaucratic procedures and motivating staff to be more productive. In centralised system all decisions must be made outside of the area where they matter the most, often far away from the actual issue. Thus, allowing the local government units to decide on resource allocation will result in better efficiency since they know better the specific needs of their particular system. This view is collaborated by Oyugi (2000) when he stated that the dependence of local authorities on central government funding leads to a loss of operational autonomy.

Another issue deals with the application of national standards for educational provision. This prevents cost savings that could be achieved through adjustments of educational inputs to local or regional price differences. A variant of the efficiency argument, the effectiveness rational argue that centralised planning policies have led to education that is very expensive, thus resulting in a decrease in quality as countries find themselves faced with financial constraints. This rationale holds that being more responsive to the local community, parents are eliminating the need for centralised decision-making which can improve administration and accountability.

The element of redistributing of political power aims to restore legitimacy to institutions by redistribution power and giving citizens a greater management

role. When dealing with decentralisation, national leaders must deal with two conflicting objectives: maintaining control over their policies while maintaining the legitimacy of the rules. Centralisation promotes control while decentralisation promotes legitimacy. This type of political decentralisation can give the local community greater “voice”, empower groups that support the government, and or weaken opposition groups. This type of decentralisation is “less concerned with transfer from one level to another than with transfer from one group to another” (McGinn, 1994). It should be kept in mind that political motives are usually involved to a certain extent, regardless of the rationale for decentralisation.

On the aspect of improved quality, it states that, decentralisation will improve education by moving decision-making closer to the needs of each school, but its focus is more on local cultural differences and learning environments. In addition, it is believed to improve accountability by giving incentives for quality performance to teachers and school staffs.

The final school of thought on decentralisation is increasing innovativeness. This concept argues that having many suppliers of education can lead to a wider variety of experiences and innovations through increasing the “competitiveness” of the system and encouraging providers to act to satisfy the wishes of the citizens.

### **Merits of Decentralising Education**

Several arguments have been advanced in favour of educational decentralisation Aggarwal (2001) stated that since we have come to accept



democracy as a way of life, the form of governing education therefore should be decentralised. Administration at the local level will stimulate local initiative. There have been a number of initiatives in the educational sector in Ghana; all these initiatives are meant to address important issues that confront the effective administration and management of education. One of the major causes of the failure of these initiatives is more often than not the fact that planning of these interventions have become the prerogative of the GES (headquarters) and handed over to the people for implementation. When this situation occurs, it makes the intervention very frustrating to the people who are meant to implement them. Decentralisation of educational planning will therefore stimulate local initiatives and participation of the people who are aware of their needs and aspirations and are in constant search for solution to these needs. Therefore, when the opportunity is created for individuals in the educational sector at the district level, they will be prepared and willing to contribute their quota to the successful implementation of their plan when they see the impact of the plan in their own community it will boost their morale for more initiatives (Aggarwal, 2001).

Concentration of authority in a few hands kills initiatives and undermines authority. Since independence Ghana had been practising a centralised planning system of education which means that few individuals are entrusted with the destiny of all children and adults in Ghana as far as education is concerned. Most often these individuals who have been tasked to plan education do not have the data to plan with. The people in the districts who would make the data available see themselves as irrelevant as far as educational planning is concerned. They

become consumers rather than planners. They have no option than to follow the planned programme (Aggarwal, 2001).

Additionally, decentralisation of educational planning is helpful in solving educational problems in the local areas. There are a number of problems confronting rural schools in particular. These problems if not solved, have the potential of undermining the organisational goals of the schools, unfortunately however, most of these problems are either unknown to the people who are affected by these problems or they do not possess the requisite skills to solve them. For instance teacher absenteeism in Agona Odoben in the Asikuma Odoben Brakwa (AOB) District could only be addressed by the SMC, PTA and the staff of the school, or better still the district assembly and the District Education Office. Aggarwal, (2001), postulates that any attempt to solve this problem from the central administrative point will only be a cosmetic treatment to the issue. It is therefore important to use local resource (human resource) to address local problems (MOE, 2003).

Decentralisation of educational management results in some level of community participation through School Management Committees (SMCs), District Education Oversight Committees (DEOCs), District Education Planning Committees (DEPTs) and District Teacher Support Team (DTST) to assist with in-service training (INSET). The introduction of other structures such as School Performance Appraisal Meetings (SPAM) provides opportunity for local committees to make direct input for improving teaching and learning and ultimately pupils' performance (Ministry of Education (MOE, 2003).

Decentralisation of educational planning will involve many who have the knowledge, skill and expertise in planning for their own community. For example the Capitation Grant Scheme that has been instituted recently needs to be adhered to. The District Director or officers of education do not have the power or authority to add or to subtract to suit their local needs. An example of one of the guidelines is that the Assistant headteacher and the headteacher are the signatories to the school's account. This guideline had been made only to address the problem of accessing the money when the Circuit Supervisor is the co-signatory with the head. But a place like Cape Coast Metropolis where the Circuit Supervisor is easily accessible he or she, as a matter of fact, should be a co-signatory in order to enhance accountability and efficiency. Once the guideline was handed over to the district with its direction to go by religiously, the district will encounter many problems monitoring the utilisation of the fund. When the Circuit Supervisor according to Aggarwal (2000), is a co-signatory he could regulate any unnecessary expenditure that the school will expend on.

Administration of Education at the local level is conducive to creativity and it enables local management to be flexible in their approach to decision in the light of local conditions this contributes to staff motivation by enabling middle and junior management to get a lot of responsibilities and encourages the use of initiative by all. One might therefore say decentralisation moves decision-making closer to the people and may give them greater say in school decisions as well as greater ability to hold service providers accountable. Whether it leads to improved education or not is indeed debatable. In principle, schools are empowered to

determine their own priorities and to develop their own school to improve teaching and learning. In practice weak management capacity, insufficient funding, inadequately trained teachers and weak system support make it difficult to realise the positive potential of decentralisation. The empirical research evidence on educational decentralisation is mixed but frequently shows that increasing parental participation in schools governance, giving teachers the right to select their own textbooks and granting school directors the authority to recruit teachers contribute positively to education quality (UNESCO, 1982).

Decentralisation will also strengthen the local community. It will make it possible for various regions and districts to design programmes and activities better adapted to the needs of the local communities, it was argued that a more flexible and locally oriented school had a positive effect on students motivation and learning, gave them a feeling of belonging to the local community and made them aware of the role they had to play in the community (Republic of Ghana, 1988).

### **The Complexities of Decentralisation**

As illustrated by Lauglo (1995), “in spatial terms, to decentralise means to disperse objects away from central point on correct using the term refers to not only to that process but also to the condition of objects being located remote from a centre, though it might have been useful to adopt decentralising in order to denote or structural condition as is distinct from reprocess” (p.5). Lauglo continues to stress that even in spatial terms centralisation is a highly imprecise notion. As in the case of the present study its impreciseness is visible when it has

to do with the distribution of authority in organizations such as national education system. Lauglo was keen to note that conceptually, decentralisation is far more problematic than centralisation authority. Indeed in current usage decentralisation refers to a variety of organisational forms which differ in their rational and in their implications for the distribution of authority on different agencies, groups and stakeholders.

Education decentralisation efforts are underway in every region of the developing world. The precise designs of this policy reform varies by country, but most decentralisation initiatives fall in one or two types as Rondinelli (1984) define four degrees of transfer of authority; decentralisation, delegation, devolution and privatisation.

Decentralisation reforms spread central authority without transferring it to other bodies. For example, if a national government establishes offices for test administration in regional capitals, it reduces the concentration of authority in the national capital. Simply decentralisation reforms shift authority for implementation roles, but not for making them. Some countries including Ghana have delegated authority for public education to the representatives of the minister, located in each of the state or provincial or regional capitals. This was the first step in the decentralisation reform of Mexico beginning in 1979 (Osei-Tutu, 2004).

Delegates appointed by the national minister were given authority over essential aspects of education in each of the various states or regions, the delegates consulted with state government officials such as the minister (Osei-

Tutu, 2004). In the case of Ghana, authority is delegated to the Regional Director of Education who deliberates on issues from time to time with the Regional Minister but is directly responsible to the sector ministry.

The devolution of service delivery is scheduling of responsibilities from national to local government. The term implies that something is given back to an organisation from which it had been taken. Devolution is usually used by people calling for transfer of authority to the local units of government, and in Ghana the metropolitans, municipalities or the districts fall in this context (Kelly, 1998).

The delegation of many service delivery decisions and functions to the level of the school cannot be overemphasised. Some countries attempt both types of decentralisation simultaneously. Under the first, devolution of educational programmes and other service-delivery responsibilities fall in the purview of the sub-national government which may be partly or entirely responsible for funding education (United State Agency for International Development 'USAID', 2003).

Under the second, school autonomy, a school board or school management committee is usually formed to provide oversight and is made up of elected community representatives in addition to teachers and the school director. Usually the school directors are given new management powers and responsibilities and almost all of the school funding is provided by the government doing the decentralisation (USAID, 2003).

In reality, many countries adopt education decentralisation policies for reasons which have done very little to improving schooling; for example Argentina decentralised education to provincial government in order to reduce the

federal government's fiscal deficit, and Spain decentralised education to regional government to accommodate the demands of different ethnic or language groups (Rugh and Bossert, 1998).

The challenge facing education ministries and donors is how to implement these policies to facilitate improved service delivery and to avoid some of the dangers which could worsen both the quality and equity of public education. The implementation of decentralisation policies poses numerous challenges. The Educational quality in the developing world 'EQDW' (2005) enumerates the following;

First, the design of decentralisation as specified in legislation and decrees may create uncertainty as to which level of government or which decisions-maker is responsible for what. It is not unusual for decentralisation legislation to be in conflict with other existing laws. It is also not unusual for education ministries to continue to tightly regulate the curriculum and determine teacher employment and pay leaving little room for local control.

Second, the capacities of the schools boards to govern schools or district directors to manage schools or teachers and others to work collectively to reform the school are often weak and need development.

Third, system support to the newly decentralised authorities may not exist. Sub-national government, schools boards, and parents may have very little information about their schools' academic and financial performance relative to other jurisdictions or schools. Circuit supervisors sometimes lack the culture and capacity to provide guidance and assistance, as opposed to enforcing rules.

Teacher in-service education may remain supply-driven by the education ministry and little training and other support may be given to the districts to better manage and lead. Finally, at times decentralisation is not accompanied by the increase discretionary funding required for schools to exercise their new responsibilities for self-improvement.

Education development projects are helping address many of these problems often in creative ways. Training in preparing school improvement plans, accompanied by funding of those plans, provides a powerful stimulus for school communities to work collectively to define their own priorities and to school reform. Training school boards and creating new information system, (e.g. school report cards) oriented towards parents rather than planners provides a basis for improved accountability. Funding schools grants for specific purposes such as text books, teacher training and school renovation gives schools experience in managing funds and empower school boards while addressing real problems in service delivery. Establishing and funding realistic minimum standards of service provision reduces inequalities and helps ensure decentralisation which automatically does not leave the poor behind. Decentralisation is not a magical solution to the real problem facing education in developing countries like Ghana, but the introduction of decentralisation policies provides opportunities for change to improve schooling (p. 4).



## **Empirical Studies on Decentralisation in Education**

### **School and Community in Canada**

In the past, many schools in Canada deliberately isolated themselves from the community. They cut themselves off from the outside world physically and philosophically. Attitudinal changes have challenged this isolation; citing the need for increased awareness of interdependence of school and their environment (Caldwell & Spinks, 1992). From the idealism of the community school movement of the 1970s and the more pragmatic concerns for the efficient use of resources of the 1980s, there emerged a new trend in the 1990s containing both ideological perspectives (Glegg, 1994).

Joint ventures involving schools, libraries, recreational organisations and the community as a whole have become common features throughout the world, with some striking example in British Columbia. These ventures have not been without their problems, especially in the realms of legal liability and administrative coordination, but there have been some encouraging success stories (Casner-Lotto, 1988).

The term community may be interpreted in many different ways and it is suggested that too close an alliance with one particular community may encourage the return to isolation of earlier days (Glegg, 1994). The small community schools in Canada, modest though they might be were often the only places available for any sort of community activities. The realities of every day life in a small town brought the communities closer to the school. The hardships, financial problems or otherwise, had to be shared by the school and the

community alike. Miller (1991) has advocated the strengthening of ties between the school and the community as one way of helping rural America through the problems brought about by a distressed economy and a declining population. The idealism and missionary ardour of this approach is well demonstrated in the passage of (Glatthorn, 1975):

For decades past, the school and community have existed in an uneasy and unhealthy relationship. Consequently, they often perceive each other as adversaries, competing for dollars, space and children's loyalties (Sickler, 1991). The students suffer most from this unhealthy relationship. They were buffeted between two worlds and critically deprived by being shut from the real learning that can only take place outside the artificial world of the school (Bray, 1991).

In more recent times, the trend is toward integration. Profound ideological reasons are advanced to demonstrate why school and community should work together. To Dwyer (1989) an example of a true integration is the provision of Libraries which are obvious targets for joint use of schemes for schools and communities. It has become more common for schools and communities to share educational facilities to ensure year round use (Rhoads, 1986), to promote joint use grounds, to promote day care facilities (Tanguay, 1983) and to simply encourage the community's involvement and interest in their school (Prawda, 1992). Shared use of facilities by catholic and protestant schools in Ontario community suggests a number of advantages, including more awareness and tolerance by students and parents alike (Cassie, 1981).

An American task force on school facilities describes the under use and poorly maintained facilities as a disgrace (Govinda, 1997). Various papers have promoted school community cooperation on facilities in order to save money and enhance revenue potentials (Ayers, 1984), cut down on rental expenses and encourage cost sharing (Nathan, 1984), and make the system more businesslike (Wood and Worner, 1981).

The joint use of facilities by a school community brings with it problems as well as the presumed financial, social and educational advantages. Not the least of these is the legal ramifications, appropriate insurance coverage as well as clear and enforceable rules about facilities usage to address concerns about user injury and property loss (Morley, 1990). There are also questions about who owns the schools, and indeed whether schools even have the legal right to go beyond offering educational programmes to children. The move to integrate school and community more closely has not been confined to any one region. It is a common feature in the Netherlands, Japan and Hungary (Gilbert, 1982; Shoop, 1983).

### **The British Columbia Case**

In British Columbia, the ministry of education has advanced two sets of arguments in favour of closer cooperation between school and community. On one hand, an inner city programme initiative has been launched to bring local communities together to develop strategies to address difficulties experienced particularly in inner school communities, such difficulties as poverty, transience and absenteeism on the part of students were identified (British Columbia Ministry of Education, [BCMOE], 1993). This initiative clearly relies on the

philosophical, educational and social arguments for closer school community involvement in education.

On the other hand, the ministry of education is working with ministry of municipal affairs to develop new joint approach to school site planning and faculty use. In future, a higher priority will be given to the funding of school capital constructions which are developed in cooperation with local municipalities than those which are not. Senior Officials in the ministry have stressed that better use needs to be made of tax dollars in this regard. Some striking examples have recently appeared. Richmond is spending 25 million dollars on a joint school community centre to serve 1,000 students and provide community and health services, fitness activities and a day care centre (B.C. MOE, 1992). There are many other types of this cooperation, indicating willingness on the part of educational and municipal administrators and planners to work together.

#### **Current Practice in Ghana: Sissala District**

Ayoo (1999), reported in the Ghanaian Times, July 17<sup>th</sup> 1999 edition, that out of the 1.1 billion old cedis received as the Sissala Assembly's share of the District Assembly Common Fund (DACF) 1988, 505.9 million old cedis was spent on the provision of educational infrastructure, furniture and other logistics to improve teaching and learning in the area. Ninety-one million old cedis was spent on the rehabilitation of a three classroom block and the construction of an additional one for the united primary school. Communities like Gwollu, Bandei, Kupulina and Dolbizon which have put up their own school structures through

communal labour and voluntary contribution are assisted with cement, boards and roofing nails to complete their projects Ayoo (1999).

According to Ayoo (1999), apart from the provision of educational infrastructure, the District Education Planning Team also organised workshops in all the seven zones to sensitise stakeholders at the zonal levels about the new educational reforms. The District Education Oversight Committee met and deliberated on problems militating against effective teaching and learning in the District. They identified the unwillingness of teachers to accept postings to deprived areas of the District. The World University Service of Canada started operating a girl child education centre in the district in 1999 to whip up girl child education in the area. This is to support the National Population Census Report of Ghana's expectation of national ratio of 51.49% in favour of female (Ghana Statistical Service, 2002).

This will in totality increase the capacity of local government which is being encouraged in the present government. That is, improving the responsiveness of central government to local government requirements to strengthen local capacity for decision making. This will increase the relevance of programmes or matching programme content to local interest and also increased the range of options available to students thus reducing inequalities in access to education of quality Ayoo (1999).

### **Decentralisation of the Ministry of Education in Ghana**

The Ministry of Education has overall responsibility for the education sector, policy, planning and monitoring. Education delivery and implementation

are however devolved to regions, districts and institutions through various agencies of the Ministry. The Ghana Education Service (GES) is the agency responsible for implementing the Basic and Senior High School Education component, including Technical and Vocational Education and Training Institutes. The National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) and Non-Formal Education Division (NFED) are the other agencies in the education delivery system (MOE, 2003).

The Mills Odoi committee's recommendation for the restructuring of the Ministry of Education was implemented as far back as the 1970's. Under the new system, each of the then nine Regional Education Offices was to be headed by a Deputy Chief Education Officer. Each in turn supervised the District Education Officers which were managed by Senior Education Officers. At the headquarters there were two main divisions, namely:

1. General Education and Technical Division. A Chief Education Officer who was responsible to the Principal Secretary headed each sector.
2. There were also three Deputy Education Officers and one Chief Inspector of Schools. They are in charge of general administration, curriculum, research and development Officers in charge of functions (Agyeman, 1993).

Stemming out of the Mills Odoi Committee's recommendation of 1967, the 1975 National Consultative Committee on Educational Finance as cited by

Attigah (2001) recommended that district councils should take over the functions of the educational units and absorb their personnel where necessary.

Later that year, according to Antwi (1992), “The National Redemption Council (NRC) Amendment Decree 357 of December, 1975 established a professional body, which is the Ghana Education Service” (p.42). Its main functions, among others, include curriculum development, the provision and management of schools. However, the Principal Secretary of the Ministry of Education heads the administrative machinery and is also responsible for education and accountable for all policy matters on education throughout the country.

The structure of the GES provides that the management and administrative control of pre-university was vested in the Ghana Education Service Council. This is a member council of which the Director General of the Ghana Education Service and the Principal Secretary of Ministry of Education are permanent members. The Council is the highest governing body of the service and serves as a buffer between the Ministry of Education and the GES. The Council has advisory bodies such as the Appointments and promotions Board, the Disciplinary Board, Administration and Finance Committee, Education, Planning and Research Committees who in diverse ways assist in the council’s functions of recruitments, appointments, postings and transfer, discipline and general execution of functions (MOE, 1992).

The Ghana Education Service (Amendment) Decree, 1976 (SMCD63), provides that the Director General (DG) shall be the Chief Executive of the

Service. The DG shall perform his executive functions through the personnel of the Service who are organised at the national headquarters, regional and district offices and institutional establishments (Antwi, 1992).

Attigah (2001) relates that assisting the Director General in the performance of his duties are two Deputy Director Generals (DDG). Their appointment is provided under the same Decree, Section II. As at January 1981, the DDG1 had assumed responsibility for the administrative matters in the 10 regions, which are conterminous with the political administrative regions. The DDG 2 took charge of administrative matters at the headquarters of GES.

Again Attigah (2001) emphasises that a Regional Director heads each of the 10 regional education offices. The Regional Director is charged with detailed administration of pre-university institutions in his region. His functions and duties include financial control, supervision, inspection and personnel management in the region. District Directors manned the District Directorates of Education. They perform similar functions as the regional directors who include the heads of secondary schools, principals of training colleges and polytechnics. The other group of Assistance Directors acts as professional heads at the various units of regional and district offices.

In 1988, the PNDC decree 207 decentralised the administrative functions of the headquarters to the district. The education office at the district, by this measure, takes over the management and administration of all pre-university educational institutions in the district. The status of the District Education Officer



was raised from the rank of Assistant Director to Director to commensurate with the functions and duties of the new directorate.

Among other administrative functions, the district director had the responsibility of promoting teachers up to the rank of senior superintendent. He or She was also empowered to decide on disciplinary matters affecting the service staff in the district, however, issues relating to dismissals were to be referred to the Director General of the Service for approval.

For effective administrative purposes, the district directorate was organised into four functional units, namely

1. Administration, Budget and Financial Control,
2. Planning, Monitoring, Data Collection, Research and Records
3. Manpower, Training and Personnel and
4. Supervision, Management of teaching and learning, Guidance and Counselling and Inspection.

By December 1995, the District Education Directorate had further been strengthened by the Education Act 506 to administer the district through a committee system. The following committees were therefore, appointed, namely:

1. The District Education Oversight Committee;
2. The Disciplinary Committee;
3. The Administration and Finance Committee;
4. The Education, Planning and Research Committees;
5. The Monitoring and Evaluation Committee.

The main functions of the District Education Oversight Committee were as follows:

1. the provision and maintenance of school blocks and other infrastructural requirements;
2. the provision of teachers and monitoring the regular and punctual attendance of both the teachers and pupils at school;
3. monitoring proper performance of duties of staff and pupils and matters relating to general discipline;
4. dealing with complaints to or from non-teaching staff and pupil
5. overseeing the environmental sanitation and other facilities; and
6. Supplying textbooks and other teaching and learning materials to schools.

The District Education Officer had the administrative duty of coordinating the activities of the committees. It was envisaged that with the committee system, the district directorates would perform effectively and efficiently.

### **The Administrative Functions of the School Heads**

Nwanko (1987) in Peretomode, (1992) defines educational administration as the systematic arrangement of human, material resources and programmes that are available for education and carefully using them systematically within defined guidelines to achieve educational goals. To him, the educational administrator is therefore essentially an organiser and implementer of plans and programmes meant for specific educational objectives. The school is a social system, where the interplay of human factors can make or mar the best laid plans, calls for the

institution of the process of administration. Nisbet (1974) has the contention that heads must be quite selective in identifying programmes that can assist them in their school improvement efforts especially regarding student's performance outcomes.

Osei Tutu (2004) also states that educational management is concerned with the planning and formulation of educational policies or programmes with a view of achieving educational goals. He gives an alternative definition of educational management as the application of the processes of planning, organising, co-ordinating, controlling and evaluating human and material resources for the achievement of stated educational goals or objectives.

Katz (1964) argues that successful administration appears to rest on three basic skills called technical, human and conceptual. The technical dimension emphasises effective handling of things and physical resources in an institution. The human aspect stresses the importance of human relationships and the way it affects people in an institution. Conceptual skills are also essential in enabling the administrator to harness all resources for the sustenance of an institution as a whole. In effect, within the school system, the school administrator plays a leadership role in the accomplishment of programmes, objectives and generally, the attainment of educational goals (Morphet, 1967).

The Commonwealth Secretariat (1993) 'module 6' defines leadership as the work a manager performs to cause people to take effective action. It states that the school head is the leader in the school setting and is as such involved in five main management activities of:

1. Decision-making: arriving at conclusions and judgments.
2. Communicating: creating understanding through the dissemination of relevant information.
3. Motivating: encouraging and inspiring people to take required action.
4. Selecting people: choosing people for the positions in the school.
5. Developing people: helping people to improve their knowledge, attitude and skills.

According to Hanson (2000), effective leadership is essential for the achievement of results, the head's leadership strengths or weaknesses affect the performance of the entire school positively or negatively.

Knezevich (1984) also states that administration can be explained in terms of roles and competences needed for the fulfilment of institutional goals and objectives. The roles and competencies are the set perceptions of the specialised functions and abilities demanded of those in administrative positions. Knezevich identified seventeen roles and their related competencies, some of these are:

1. Leader-catalyst: the leader-catalyst role demands the competency to motivate, stimulate and influence human behaviour in an organisation. Further, sensitivity, skills in group dynamics and the knowledge of the nature of leadership in education are of great importance for the fulfilment of this role.
2. Planner: competencies related to this role enable the administrator to anticipate future challenges and prepare personnel to cope with new demands as well as managing required changes. Special competencies in

organising to facilitate the planning process, skills to use and interpretation of planning models and techniques in computer based information systems are desirable.

3. Decision maker: competencies in problem solving, the use of decision making theories and systems analysis contribute to the fulfillment of this role (p. 17).

Knezevich (1984) again, believes that what makes educational administration an art is the ability of the administrator to blend all these roles and by forming a team to make the roles work effectively for the attainment of institutional goals and objectives.

Mullins (1993) observes that it is not easy to separate leadership and management. To be an effective manager calls for the role of leadership. Both leadership and management involve the successful management of people. The work a manager does according to Mullins requires the ability to lead; and leadership is in effect a subset of management synonymously because there is a close relationship between the two roles in the world of organizations.

Asiedu Akrofi (1978) states that the school administrator's roles include providing good instructional programmes, looking after the finances of the school, maintaining good public relations, recruiting staff and providing good student services. He further regards the school as a social system where the various administrative units, for example, the principal, teacher and students have specific responsibilities to perform. The effective operation of each unit in relation to one another determines the efficiency of the school as a social system.

Abosi and Brookman-Amissah (1992) 2<sup>nd</sup> ed, observed that in Ghana, the roles of the principal (headmaster or headmistress) and the vice principal (assistant headmaster or assistant headmistress) appear not to be well defined. The vice principal seems to have no well defined roles except those assigned or delegated to him or her by the principal or headmaster or headmistress.

The Commonwealth Secretariat (Module 7, 1993) however holds the view that the vice principal has a major role in supporting the principal in every aspect of school life including standing in for the principal whenever required. Accordingly, vice principals are usually given specific responsibilities for academic matters including school time table design, examinations and report writing. The organisation of academic departments is another important area where the principal delegates his or her authority. Specific duties assigned to heads of departments include making recommendations for staff appointments, sitting on interview panels for staff appointments, and involving staff in decision-making process through regular departmental meetings. The essence of delegation of duties is to effectively involve them (Head of Department) in those aspects of school management directly related to the running of the academic departments. This is to enable Head of Departments develop the sense of commitment to school programmes. Some other duties that are delegated are the role of senior housemasters or housemistresses crucial to the organisation of the domestic lives of students so far as their welfare and discipline are concerned; the allocation of class or form tutors to supervise the academic progress and welfare of students.

The GES Handbook for Principals of Post-Secondary Teacher Training Colleges (GES, 1992) clearly specifies the job description of principals, vice principals (academic and administration) and other senior staff in administrative positions in detail. The GES/MOE specifications debunk the statement of Abosi and Brookinan-Amissah (1992) 2<sup>nd</sup> ed, that in Ghana the roles of the principal and vice principal appear not to be well defined. The GES specifies the job description of principals, vice principals (academic and administration) and other senior academic administrative staff. The principal has a 17 point job description while the vice principals (academic and administration) have 12 and 13 points respectively. These explicitly state what each administrator is supposed to do at all time.

Miller (1991) notes that one of the major duties of the principal or headmaster entails the provision and disbursement of funds for the attainment of educational goals. This responsibility calls for the preparation of the school budget which is defined as the school programme expressed in financial terms. Findings from studies carried out by Anderson (1996), Biott and Rauch (1997), Daresh (1998), and Duke (1996) on the role of principals in decentralised institutions reveal that the mandates of school reforms have broad implications for them. Some of these roles have to do with external constituencies in creating and facilitating collaborative decision-making bodies, efficiently managing and securing revenues, aligning local curriculum with state and national standards, and interpreting and using the test results for school improvement. In this regard, Vandenberghe, Kelchermans and Maes (2000) also noted that today's principal

must become an interpreter of new laws, a programme manager, an instructional and transformational leader in order to meet the demands of the times. They contend that as external pressure for school reform and improvement increases, many government and state departments are supporting professional development for principals. In this respect, principals must be quite selective in identifying programmes that can assist them in their school improvement efforts, especially regarding student performance outcomes.

In some countries for instance, federal policies dictate that resources be made available for principals to enhance their management capabilities, believing that by so doing the quality of the teaching activities at the classroom level will also improve. Principals are, therefore, being held more accountable for their own professional development, particularly as a means for school improvement, rather than for their individual self-growth (Vanderberghe, *et al.*, 2000). Other recent studies focusing on professional development reveal the factors that affect principals' abilities to assist teachers and positively influence students' learning outcomes.

On one hand, principals have been found to favour attending in-service training programmes that assist them in interpreting educational policies as well as provide practical strategies for working with teachers to implement these innovations in their classrooms (Chune & White, 1989). On the other hand, teachers are more likely to implement ideas in their classrooms when principals are willing to share their beliefs and philosophies about teaching, provide supportive and constructive feedback about their teaching practices, and afford



teachers adequate learning space to experiment with new ideas (Clement and Vandenberghe, 2000).

Garrat (1995) observes that the notion of being a strategic thinker or leader, while not new, is vitally important as principals are forced to deal with an increasing complex external political environment. In his view, strategic thinkers "can rise above the daily managerial processes and crises to gain different perspectives of the internal and external dynamics causing change in their environment and thereby giving more effective direction to their organization" (p.2). From Mintzberg's (1995) perspective, strategic thinkers can see ahead, behind, above, below and beyond as well as see through. Caldwell and Spinks (1992) posit that Mintzberg's image of strategic leader's ability to see in all directions simultaneously, suggests that principals must concentrate their efforts on the following:

1. Discerning the local, national and international trends, issues, threats and opportunities that can affect the school;
2. Sharing knowledge with the school community and keeping them focused on important matters;
3. Setting priorities and formulating action plans for achieving desired outcomes; and,
4. Monitoring the implementation of new practices and determining their effect on the organisation and student learning.

### **Decentralisation in the form of School-Based Management**

According to White (1989), “school-based management (SBM) has become an important issue in educational policy as it is referred to as a programme or philosophy adopted by schools or schools districts to improve education by increasing the anatomy of the schools staff in making school site decision. While it is most common for SBM districts to allocate greater decision making authority to principals or headmasters, school districts that have initiated SBM programmes or incorporated SBM philosophy have also emphasised increased authority to teachers, students, parents and community members Chune and White (1988), gave an example that, in New York, the 1985’s school improvement plan focused on community participation in school decision making. He also recounted that since 1985 Indiana has implemented a school improvement programme that includes the active involvement of teachers, students, parents and other community members.

According to Rugh and Bossert (1998), success of School-Based Management in a decentralised system depends on the ability of school administrators to maintain the involvement of the community in decision-making. If one community group is able to dominate a school board or council to the exclusion of other groups, the experiment loses its democratic character. Adjudication between competing community groups becomes a primary task of the administration

The exact figure of how SBM is spread wide is not known. However, more than 100 schools district across America have experimented with aspects of

SBM (White, 1988). In California, alone, more than 60 districts are managed under a philosophy of shared decision-making or incorporated SBM programmes (Duke, 1996). Other states such as Florida, Minnesota and New York have numerous schools districts that are actively involved in initiating SBM programmes (Chune and White, 1989).

SBM is not a new idea. Similar programmes were initiated in the 1960's and 1970's, for example, New York City began a city wide decentralisation programme in 1967 and Detroit adopted a similar plan in 1970 (Fantini and Gittell, 1973). Critics have asked, if past effort to decentralise have not been successful. Why should SBM succeed? Supporters of SBM believe that the current movement is different. Previous attempts to decentralise were aimed at shifting authority from a large, central board of education to smaller local boards. Unlike the previous attempts, the current trend intends to make decision making policies to the consumers (Levacic and Downes, 2004).

Advocates of SBM argue that these efforts served merely to re-organise administrative responsibility by replacing the form of bureaucracy with another. Past reforms avoided a transfer of power to the school site. As Fantini and Gritell (1973) suggest with reference to the 1967 New York City decentralisation plan, the efforts essentially preserved the status quo (White, 1988).

SBM is different from past decentralisation efforts because it changes the entire system of district and school organisation and restructured most roles in the district (David, Purkey, and White 1988). The purpose of SBM is not simply to reorganise administrative responsibility as expressed by White (1988), but to

make changes in traditional structures of authority with new relationship among teachers, administrators, parents and students. Support for SBM comes from state and local policy makers, teachers, administrators and schools board members who believe that the closer a decision is made to a student served by the decision, the better it will serve the student. National Governor's Association have called for increased flexibility at the school site as a limit on state regulation that interferes with local autonomy. The ultimate goal of SBM as responded by White (1989) was to improve the teaching and learning environment for students (Makain, 1998,).

According to Vandenberghe, *et al* (2000), the decentralised process have given way to more centralised accountability measures in the management of schools. Schools are being mandated not only to identify rigorous learning standard but also to assess students learning outcomes using objective standardised measures. This standardised oriented movement had caused policy makers to ensure that schools were held accountable for what students should know and be able to do. To achieve this objective, prescribed standards have also been mandated at the national level through the state level to the local level.

According to Caldwell and Spinks (1998) , the decentralisation of decision making at the school level has brought about the types of decentralised schools the site based management: the shared decision making authority to school officials to take control over financial issues and staffing decisions. Budget, curriculum and staff decision are three areas of decision making most commonly decentralised in SBM, schools site budgeting allows principals or headmasters in

consultation with teachers and community representatives to allocate funds across a variety of budget categories according to priorities established in the school level. According to Oyugi (2000), the dependence of local authorities on central government funding leads to a loss of operational autonomy. . “School-site curriculum development enables school staff to develop the instructional programme, to select instructional materials as textbooks, and to design in-service training programmes” (Makain, 1998).

Participation in staffing decision allows headmasters, teachers and other school staff to determine the distribution of full time and part time positions, and the numbers of regular teachers, lead teacher’s and teacher aide positions. School staffs are not allowed to make tradeoffs among instructional aides, Vice & Principals, counsellors and janitors (Marchak and Thomason, 1976).

According to Anderson (1996), “Advocates of SBM argue that if school personnel are involved in making decisions, they will select like-minded staff that reflects their own values, goals and objectives”. This selection process enables school staff to hire specialists and aides with qualifications specific to students’ needs (p. 50). Again according to Wheeler, Raudenbush and Paigna (1989) the successful implementation of school based management run by professionals depend primarily on improvement of the level of professional expertise of those who participate in decision-making. Murphy and Beck (1995) on the other hand are of the view that such reforms vary according to whether authority is transferred solely to heads (called Administrative control) or whether teachers are included (called professional control).

Increased community participation according to White (1988) is often a central objective of SBM. The formation of schools site councils engaged community members, in cooperation with headmasters, teachers and occasionally students in shared decision-making regarding school issues. The selection, composition and responsibilities of the council vary from district to district and from school to school. Members volunteer or are elected to be on the council.

School site councils are involved in activities such as interviewing and recommending candidates for staff positions, establishing school priorities, making school budget recommendations and assessing the effectiveness of school programmes (Lindalow, 1981; Marburger, 1985). By improving communication and understanding between the school communities, the school site council creates a better learning environment for students. Decisions made by individuals at the school board and supervised for example, by the Municipal Director of Education (Parker, 1979; Pierce, 1978).

There is evidence that SBM is related to student achievement. The school effectiveness literature supports the need for school personnel to play an important role in schools decision making to increase the academic performance of students (Purkey and Smith, 1983). Problems in implementing SBM may arise from the structure of school organisation and the nesting of individual schools which in a series of larger organisations, such as conflicting state mandates, standardised curricula, budget and personnel constraints at the district and state level (Duke, 1996 and Prash, 1984).

Increased involvement of school staff and committee members in school policy decisions may conflict with state mandates prescribing curriculum from and content (Darling-Hammond and Berry, 1988). For example, Florida has imposed legislative action regarding curriculum standardisation and some districts with SBM programme have requested special status to divert from state requirements (National School Boards Association, 1988).

Although SBM increase the authority of school personnel regarding budget issues, decisions regarding instructional salaries, the number of teachers and instructional materials and equipment, will be limited by the amount of resources available (Gideonse and Westheimer, 1981). In addition, hiring decisions will be limited by enrolment trends, districts with teacher unions, and state teacher-student ratio requirements (Johnson, 1987).

Great hope is being placed on application of Site Based Management to education. To help build a healthy climate that will facilitate the development of staff commitment, there are essential factors which include “Mutuality of expectations, mutuality of dependence, mutuality of trust and respect, mutuality of communication and mutuality of vision” (White, 1988, p. 48).

### **Summary**

The concept of decentralisation has been given different meanings by writers and researchers. The study therefore looked at versions of some of them considering the level of Ghana’s development and her past experience. Decentralisation of education may lead to effective management, accountability and transparency by making planning meaningful and participatory in nature and

would lead to accelerated growth of education in Ghana. At the same time, with regard to decentralisation policies, it is expected that tensions may persist between accountability and market-driven provisions on one hand and models which emphasise participation in decisions by insiders.

Decentralisation can be a part of broad political reforms or it can be undertaken on its own since every country has a different reason and methods of decentralising. There are wide variations in decentralisation reforms, and these variations can be grouped into three broad categories:

1. Decentralisation is part of an overall decentralisation programme
2. Decentralisation of the government has already been provided for or has already taken place.

Decentralisation varies by the level of government getting the decision-making power, the kinds of decision being moved, and the orientation of the decentralisation. Decision making power can be moved to the regional government, the local government, the community of the school, this can take place in one of two ways: political decentralisation or administrative decentralisation.

It is important to note that decentralisation, especially in the education arena demands a lengthy period of gestation before it starts generating expected benefits. As Crawford (2003) summarised the whole notion of decentralisation as “systems that may be centralised in some aspects but decentralised in others, appropriate balance depends strongly on the political values of particular societies and the influence of specific contextual conditions”.



It came out that decentralisation for school administration has had a noticeable positive impact on the morale and innovative behaviour of headmasters and teachers. Community control over schools has not increased, yet community participation in support of schools reduces the power of those in central government who rely on regulations and monitoring of inputs as major mechanism of outcomes. There would be an installed procedure for rapid detection of failure by local school districts to achieve system objectives which will allow central governments to take corrective measures, including the application of incentives to raise levels of performance. We are just now beginning to see the adaptation of this method of governance by national governments interested in the improvement of local education, whether it will lead to increase equity will depend on the objective of the groups that employ it.

When contemplating a move to decentralise school financed management, the ability of an educational system to implement the changes in administrative and management practices that are necessary for minimising opportunities for corruption at local and school level, must be an important consideration.

Educational decentralisation involves; how school systems make policy, generate revenues, spend funds, train teachers, design curricula and manage local schools. Again decentralisation in the Ghana Education system involves the Minister of Education, Director-General, Deputy Director-Generals (about 3 or more), Regional Directors (10 in number), Metropolitan, Municipal & District Directors, Heads of Institutions and their assistant (2 or more), departmental

Heads Tutors/Teachers Thus, decentralisation moves authority downward from the apex of the pyramid downward to the base.

The reasons for educational decentralisation is to strengthen the local business and the local Community as a whole, It is to improve the operation of the educational system e.g. increasing the efficiency in allocation and utilisation of resources, also it is to generate revenue of the educational system, It increases innovativeness to solve educational problems in the local areas and strengthen the local community whiles It results in some level of community participation through School Management Committees (SMCs), District Education Oversight Committees (DEOCs), District Education Planning Committees (DEPTs) and District Teacher Support Team (DTST) to assist with in-service training (INSET)

It was revealed that the school administrator's roles include providing good instructional programmes, looking after the finances of the school, maintaining good public relations, recruiting staff and providing good student services. He further regards the school as a social system where the various administrative units, for example, the principal, teacher and students have specific responsibilities to perform. The effective operation of each unit in relation to one another determines the efficiency of the school as a social system.

The success of School-Based Management in a decentralised system depends on the ability of school administrators to maintain the involvement of the community in decision-making. If one community group is able to dominate a school board or council to the exclusion of other groups, the experiment loses its

democratic character. Adjudication between competing community groups becomes a primary task of the administration.

The decentralisation of decision making at the school level has brought about the types of decentralised schools the site based management: the shared decision making authority to school officials to take control over financial issues and staffing decisions. Budget, curriculum and staff decision are three areas of decision making most commonly decentralised in SBM, schools site budgeting allows principals or headmasters in consultation with teachers and community representatives to allocate funds across a variety of budget categories according to priorities established in the school level. As Oyugi (2000) summaries, the dependence of local authorities on central government funding leads to a loss of operational autonomy. School-site curriculum development enables school staff to develop the instructional programme, to select instructional materials as textbooks, and to design in-service training programmes.

Findings from studies carried out on the role of principals in decentralised institutions reveal that the mandates of school reforms have broad implications for them. Some of these roles have to do with external constituencies in creating and facilitating collaborative decision-making bodies, efficiently managing and securing revenues, aligning local curriculum with state and national standards, and interpreting and using the test results for school improvement.

From studies shown, most decentralised countries in the world have not succeeded wholly in their decentralisation programme in the administration of education. They have only managed with some management functions while

centrally controlling others for the smooth operation of the system. In the end, however, one would expect the decentralisation philosophy and community involvement to have positive effects on school effectiveness throughout the school district structure.

From Osei Tutu's (2004) study, she examined the extent of educational decentralisation in the administration of training colleges in the central region of Ghana. She sampled 86 administrators in the training colleges in the central region and her findings reveal that there is one way means of funding that is, government's allocation of quarterly grants of students allowances, which had been found to be grossly inadequate to support the day to day administration of the colleges. In that respect she urged Principals to find ways which private initiated funds can be generated to help in the colleges' self development programmes.

Her study also revealed the urgent need to effectively equip those in administrative positions in the training colleges, with in-depth knowledge of what the education decentralisation policy is all about. Based on her finding this study seeks to find what is pertaining in the senior high schools in the context of educational decentralisation policy in Ghana.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This chapter outlines the methodology and research tools used to generate data for the study. It entails the description of the research design, area of the study, the population of the study, the sample and sampling procedure, the instrument for data collection, pre-testing of instrument, administration of instruments, data collection procedure and data analysis.

#### **Research Design**

The research design for the study is a descriptive survey. The aim of a descriptive survey is to make generalisations from the sample about some characteristics or behaviours of the population.

Goode and Hatt (1952) also see a survey, among other things typically as gathering data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of the existing situation. Furthermore descriptive research survey seeks to determine the nature of a group or situation as it exists at the time of the study (Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh 1985). The descriptive survey was chosen because it helps the researcher to draw meaningful conclusions and make generalisations from the study.

## Population

The target population comprised all educational administrators from the rank of regional and metropolitan Directors of Education, all heads, all assistant heads, senior housemasters or mistresses, house masters or mistresses and heads of departments in the 10 senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis. A statistical report obtained from the Cape Coast metropolitan education office in June 2009, indicates that the senior high schools in the metropolis have a total of 598 administrative personnel as shown in the table below, with the addition of the 2 directors (regional & metropolitan directors of education) making up a target population of 600 administrators (GES, 2008).

**Table 1: Distribution of Respondents by School**

School	Male	Female	Respondents
Adisadel College	65	12	77
ST Augustine College	54	15	69
Mfanstipim School	76	9	85
Wesley Girls High School	45	35	80
Holy Child School	30	17	47
Ghana National College	50	25	75
Christ the King Academy	22	20	42
Oguaa Senior High Technical School	21	11	32
University Practice Senior High School	28	16	44
Efutu Senior High Technical School	29	18	47
<b>Total</b>	<b>420</b>	<b>178</b>	<b>598</b>

Source: Annual School Census 2007 for Senior High Schools (GES, 2008)

## **Sample and Sampling Procedure**

A combination of purposive and stratified sampling methods was used to select the sample for the study. The purposive sampling was used because the selected sample by virtue of their characteristics will be able to give the information needed on the implementation of the decentralisation policy in the senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis, while the stratified sampling method was used to ensure that an adequate number of subjects were selected from different subgroups (strata) for example, in every group (school) there may be important differences between male and female administrators (subgroup). According to Krejcie and Morgan's table of sampling in research activities as cited by Sarantakos (1997), for a population of 600, a sample size of 234 was valid for a true representative of the target population (p. 173).

The regional and the metropolitan directors, head masters/mistresses, assistant head masters/mistresses, senior house masters/mistresses, heads of department and house masters/mistresses in all the 10 senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis were purposively chosen because they were assumed to have specialised knowledge about issues concerning their office (administration). Sarantakos (1997) is of the view that purposive sampling (a type of non-probability sampling) is a type in which the researcher selects the elements to be included in the sample on the basis of relevance to the research topic. The individuals selected were those who have expertise or experience related to the purpose of the study.

Since the senior high schools in the metropolis do not have equal number of participants, the proportional allocation or stratified sampling to select participants in each stratum (school) was employed by giving each school a quota to get the percentage of respondents that will be selected in each school based on the proportion of the respondents in the entire population to make up the sample of 234 respondents. If the emphasis is on the type of differences among strata, one selects equal numbers from each stratum, but if the study is interested in the characteristics of the entire population (as it is with this study) the proportional stratified random method is more appropriate (Ary et al., 1985).

The major advantage of proportional stratified random technique is that it guarantees representation of defined groups in the population. It also enables the study determine to what extent each stratum is represented in the sample (Ary et al., 1985). The method is also economical and offers accurate reason and a high degree of representativeness Sarantakos (1997). The strength of the respondents selected for the study is presented in Table 2.

Table 2 indicates that 10 headmasters or mistresses, 23 assistant headmasters or mistresses (academics and administration), 18 senior house masters or mistresses, 93 house masters or mistresses and 88 heads of department were purposively selected from all the 10 senior high schools. The simple random sampling technique (balloting without replacement) was employed to select a total of 93 house masters and mistresses and 88 heads of departments in view of their large numbers. First, the total figures from the various schools were collated and



the names designated for the two groups written separately on. are represented by M and females by F

**Table 2: Selected Respondents from the Schools**

School	Heads		A/H		S.H/M		H/M		H/O/D		TOTAL
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Adisadel College	1	0	1	1	2	0	13	0	6	6	30
St. Augustine's Col	1	0	2	0	2	0	10	0	6	6	27
Mfanstipim School	1	0	3	0	2	0	15	0	7	5	33
Wesley Girls High Sch	0	1	1	2	0	1	0	12	7	6	30
Holy Child School	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	6	5	4	19
Ghana National Col	1	0	2	1	1	1	6	6	6	6	30
Christ the King	1	0	1	1	1	1	3	3	3	2	16
Oguaa Snr High Tech	0	1	2	0	1	1	4	3	2	2	16
U.P.S.S	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	12
Efutu Snr High Tech	1	0	1	1	1	1	4	4	4	2	19
<b>Total</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>232</b>

Source: Annual School Census 2007 for Senior High Schools (GES, 2008).

### Instrument

Educational research lends itself to the use of several data gathering methods. Special areas of study have peculiar methods of gathering data. Others are also selected based on the suitability of an instrument used for the gathering of the data. The instrument used to gather data for this study was a self-constructed questionnaire for factual collection of data from respondents. Its construction was

guided by the concept of decentralisation of senior high schools, how decentralisation is implemented in the schools, the training received by the administrators, the weakness associated with the implementation and the remedies thereof.

The questionnaire consisted of a combination of close and open-ended questions. Close-ended items when employed aimed at ensuring uniformity in the responses and thereby prevent subjectivity of any kind. It also ensures effective editing and analysis of data. Close-ended items are highly subjective and relate more to the independent views held by the respondent on an issue. Because of the varied nature of responses presented, editing and analysis is somewhat cumbersome.

The open-ended questions sought to solicit the personal views of the respondents on the issues raised as regards the role of the administrators, the autonomy of the schools, the challenges faced in the implementation decentralisation policy, and the strategies adopted to cope with the challenges. The 5- point Likert Scale of the close-ended category were rated strongly agree (5), agree (4), undecided ( 3), disagree (2) and strongly (1), and employed as options for respondents to tick their choices to statements on how the decentralisation policy is implemented in schools, and which functions have been decentralised.

### **Development of Instruments**

Specifically a three category structured questionnaire was formulated as the instrument for the data. Category ‘A’ questions were for the heads and

assistants of the identified senior high schools, this categories (A) has two sections, section A and B.

- i. Section 'A' consisted of respondent's personal data on academic and professional qualification, work experience and current rank in GES. Six questions constituted this section.
- ii. Section 'B' was based on general administrative questions exploring the views of the respondents. Their views on how the decentralisation policy is implemented in the schools, which of their functions have been decentralised, the type of training they have received, and the challenges encountered in the policy were sought. In all, 10 questions were asked. This was made up of 4 Likert Scale type of questions with 5 degrees of options of strongly agree (the highest) to strongly disagree (the lowest), 4 open ended questions and 2 Yes or No questions. Appendix C outlines the structure of the questionnaire

Category 'B' questions were designed for senior house masters and mistresses, house masters and mistresses, and the heads of department in the identified schools. Questions in this category were similarly structured as category 'A' questions, comprising 5 questions on personal data in section A and 13 questions in section B. These questions bear the same headings as those in category A, see appendix D for the structure of the questionnaire

The category 'C' was also designed for the regional and metropolitan directors of education; it also had two sections, A and B.

- i. Section 'A' consisted of respondent's personal data on academic and professional qualification, work experience and current rank in the GES. In all 4 questions constituted this section.
- ii. Section 'B' was based on general administrative questions exploring the views of the regional and the metropolitan directors of education, on how the decentralisation policy is implemented, the functions that have been decentralised, the type of training received by the administrators, the challenges encountered in the decentralisation process and the measures adopted to cope with the situation. In all 10 questions were asked in this section with the same content as those in section B of appendix C. See appendix E for the structure of this questionnaire.

The final instrument was a 15 page document which comprises 4, 5 and 6 pages for the different categories respectively in all cases; the first pages sought information on the biographic data of the respondents. The remaining pages dwelt on the headings enumerated.

### **Pilot Testing of Instruments**

The instrument was pilot tested to ascertain the reliability and validity of the items. After computation of the Cronbach's Alpha co-efficient, a measure of reliability, yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.71 which was equal to the 0.70 postulated by Fraenkel and Wallen (2000) to be the minimum acceptable figure for statistical analysis. It was based on this premise that the instrument was used for the study.

The pilot testing the instruments enabled the researcher to identify the weaknesses pertaining to ambiguities in wording. It also enabled the researcher ascertain the length of time for responses to the questionnaire. There was the need to find out if the instructions accompanying the items were explicit enough to guide the respondents to complete the questionnaire as accurately as possible. The instrument was pilot tested in the Shama Ahanta East Metropolis in the western region of Ghana, where eight senior high schools were identified.

The metropolis was selected for its proximity and the fact that it shares similar urban characteristics of large school populations with regards to personnel, students, quality of teaching staff and adequate facilities just as Cape Coast Metropolis. The questionnaire was personally administered and collected during the pilot testing. Three senior high schools were purposively selected (one single sex school, one mixed school and one least populated school). Respondents made up of three heads, six assistant heads, three senior housemasters or mistresses, six house masters or mistresses, six heads of department totalling 26 from the three identified schools, the regional and metropolitan director of education were also selected for the pilot testing. Table 3 represents the distribution of respondents from the selected schools for the pre-testing excluding the two directors who adds up to make up the 26 selected respondents.

**Table 3: Purposively Selected Respondents from Schools**

School	Heads		A/H		S.H/M		H/M		H/O/D		TOTAL
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Archbishop Porter Girls	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	1	1	8
Fijai Senior High School	1	0	2	0	1	0	1	1	2	0	8
Dompem Senior High School	1	0	1	1	1	0	2	0	1	1	8
<b>Total</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>24</b>

Source: Fieldwork.2009

#### **Data Collection Procedure**

The researcher contacted the Director of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) of the University of Cape Coast for introductory letter that introduced the researcher to the prospective respondents, see appendix F for a copy of the letter. Due to unreliability of the postal system and the fact that the selected schools were easily accessible, copies of the questionnaire were delivered to the respondents in the various identified schools by hand. Upon the previous arrangement with the assistant heads of each institution, the researcher went to the school during break to contact the administrators (mostly in the staff common rooms), gave them their copies, brief them on the purpose of the study and also appeal for their co-operation.

The copies of the questionnaire were left with respondents each enclosed in an envelope to ensure privacy, to be submitted to the assistant heads (academic) after completion. The copies of the questionnaire were collected personally by the

researcher and most of the questionnaire took not less than three weeks before they were retrieved.

### **Data Analysis**

After collecting the data from the field, the researcher went through the number of instruments received to check whether the required number that was received. The study was a descriptive one, so quantitative analysis involving frequencies and percentages were used in analysing the data. The researcher developed a coding system based on the instrument for the responses and divided into two main segments namely personal data and general administrative issues.

Data from these two sources consisted of a five point Likert scale, close-ended and open-ended responses. The five point Likert scale and the close-ended responses were categorised, coded and quantified for according to the strength of the values of the Likert Scale of 1-5. Similarly, the open-ended responses were reduced into categories by grouping data that were inter-related, coding and quantifying them. These categories and codes formed the basis for the emerging data that was analysed. For the cases of computer application, categories (variable names) were abbreviated since the computer does not take more than eight variables at a time. The statistical product for service solution (SPSS) computer software Version 13.0 was used to analyse data into frequencies and percentages. The responses to the various items in each section of the questionnaire were computed into frequencies and percentages and frequency distribution tables drawn from the details of the analysis and presented for discussion in chapter four.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The analysis in this study focused on how heads and assistant headmasters or mistresses (category A), heads of departments, housemasters or mistresses, senior housemasters or mistresses (category B), and directors of Education (category C) view the implementation of the decentralisation policy in the administration of the senior high schools.

This chapter presents results and discussion of data collected from 232 out of 234 respondents with a return rate of 99.1%. The first part of the chapter presents a description of the demographic characteristics of the respondents; while the second part discusses the data collected on the administrative issues. During the entire research, respondents were requested to complete some open and close ended questionnaires, the responses supplied were classified with the liked questions in section 'B' of all the three categories. Frequencies and percentages were employed to report the results.

Demographic data of the respondents were examined under gender, qualification, rank and work experience. The details are given in the table 4 which shows that from an overall 232 persons sampled, only 95 (40%) are female while 137 (59.1%) are male. By categories, 20 of the category 'A' respondents were male while the remainder were female. In category 'B', 116 of the respondents



were male while the remainders were female. In category ‘C’, the respondent is a male.

The gender distribution was male dominated which implies that male administrators in the metropolis slightly outstrip the female administrators. This is contrary to the expectation of the national ratio of 51.49% in favour of female (Ghana Statistical Service, 2002).

**Table 4: Gender Distribution of Respondents**

Category of respondents								
Gender	A		B		C		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Male	20	15	116	85	1	1	137	59
Female	12	13	83	87	0	0	95	41
<b>Total</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>199</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork.2009

The academic qualifications of respondents in the three categories are summarised in the table 5, The table depicts the administrators in the metropolis as possessing a variety of academic and educational qualifications; with the heads and assistant head masters (category A) 32 (14%) and the senior house masters or mistresses, House masters or Mistresses and heads of departments 199 (86%) possessing their first and second degree respectively. The slightly dominant group of educational administrators in the metropolis was diploma qualification. However, this goes to support Wheeler *et-al* (1989) assertion that the successful implementation of school based management run by professionals depend

primarily on improvement of the level of professional expertise of those who participate in decision-making.

**Table 5: Academic Qualification of Respondents**

Category of respondents									
Academic Qualification	A		B		C		Total		
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	
M Phil/MED/MA	20	50	19	48	1	2	40	17	
PGDE	0	0	24	100	0	0	24	11	
PGCE	0	0	8	100	0	0	8	3	
First Degree	12	8	146	92	0	0	158	68	
Diploma	0	0	2	100	0	0	2	1	
<b>Total</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>199</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>100</b>	

Source: Fieldwork.2009

The rank of the respondents in the three categories is summarised to show the distribution of respondents by rank in table 6. This portrays that 1 (0.4%) of the respondents was in the director's grade, 9 (3.9%) of the respondents were in the grade of Deputy Director (category A), 57 (25%) in the grade of Assistant Director I (23 in category A and 34 in category B), while 101 (44%) being the grade of Assistant Director II (category B), and also 64 (28) falling in the grade of Principal Superintendent (category B). The picture that emerges confirms that a larger number of serving administrators in the Senior High Schools in the metropolis are in the senior ranks starting from the principal superintendent rank.

**Table 6: Rank of Respondents**

Category of respondents								
Rank	A		B		C		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Principal Supt	0	0	64	100	0	0	64	28
Assistant Dir II	0	0	101	100	0	0	101	44
Assistant Dir I	23	40	34	60	0	0	57	24
Deputy Dir	9	100	0	0	0	0	9	4
Director	0	0	0	0	1	100	1	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>199</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork.2009

#### **Administrative Experience of Respondents**

The administrative working experience of all categories (A, B and C) of respondents is given in Table 7 below which indicates that out of the 32 category 'A' respondents (heads and assistants) sampled, 12 of them had spent between 1 to 5 years at post, while 50 (79%) of the respondents in category B (HOD's, senior/housemasters or mistresses) had stayed at post for a period ranging from 1-5years. This indicates that 169 (73%) out of the 232 administrators have been serving for between 6 to 25 years and above; it could thus be said that majority of the administrators are relatively old serving members of the Ghana Education Service. This large group may possess valuable experience in administration to improve and adapt to new educational policies.

**Table 7: Administrative Experience**

Category of Respondents								
Administrative Experience	A		B		C		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
1-5 years	12	19	50	79	1	2	63	27
6-10 years	20	16	103	84	0	0	123	53
11-15 years	0	0	21	100	0	0	21	9
16-20 years	0	0	18	100	0	0	18	8
21-25 years	0	0	7	100	0	0	7	3
<b>Total</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>199</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork.2009

Section 'B' examines the administration of senior high schools in the context of the decentralisation policy based on the research questions. The respondents were asked to react to 13 closed-ended items using the five point likert scale and write their responses. Seven open-ended items composite analysis is used to present the data. The collated data computes the aggregation of strongly agree and agree into positive response while disagree and strongly disagree are tied negative. Also, neutral designated those who were undecided on an issue.

## **Research Question One**

### **What Structures have been put in place to Decentralise Administration in Senior High Schools**

This sought to review structures such as; generation of funds organisation of instructions, personnel management, planning and structure, monitoring and evaluation, and autonomy of administrators.

#### **Respondents' Views on how Funds are Generated**

The views of how funds are generated in all the three categories are combined in Table 8 below. The findings from table 8 indicate that majority of the respondents 136 (59 %) were of the view that Senior High Schools are financed with funds from the central government to support administrative works. However, this makes the administration of the senior high schools more centralised and less autonomous as this goes to support Oyugi (2000) assertion that the dependence of local authorities on central government funding leads to a loss of operational autonomy. Again 132 respondents (56.4) do not agree that the community comes in to support the management of the senior high schools. This is in contrast with Winkler (1991) who argues that, the financial rationale for decentralisation addresses the issue of how funds for education are raised. It holds that decentralisation will generate revenue for the educational system by taking advantage of local resources of taxation as well as reduce operational cost. In this model, the goal is to shift some of the financial burden for education to the community or organisation and parents.

**Table 8: Generation of Funds**

Funds generation (funds from)	Positive		Neutral		Negative		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
House or department								
Levies	110	47	62	27	60	25	232	100
Community	56	24	45	19	132	56	232	100
PTA levies	66	28	61	26	105	45	232	100
Central government								
Fund	136	59	60	24	35	15	232	100

Source: Fieldwork.2009

### **Level of Management Function**

Respondents' views on the level of educational management function in the senior high schools have been categorised in table 9 below which indicates that, 108 respondents (47%) do agree that in organisation of instructions, senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis do select their own text books for instructions. This is in support of McGinn and Welsh (1999) stated that decentralisation was meant to improve the operation of the educational system by improving the quality of input to schooling. While about 100 (43%) respondents were also of the view that the school has no power to select their own curricula which is in contrast with McGinn and Welsh who claim that decentralisation was proposed in order to improve education per se, directly for increasing the range of options available to students and increasing matching of programmes to

employer's requirements. Findings from studies carried out by Anderson (1996), Biott and Rauch (1997) Darish (1998) and Duke (1996) on the role of heads in decentralised institutions is in contrast to this finding, their study reveal that the mandates of reforms have broad implications for them and one of the roles is aligning local curriculum with state and national standards, and interpreting and using the test result for school improvement.

**Table 9: Organisation of Instruction**

Organisation of instruction	Positive		Neutral		Negative		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Selection of text books	108	47	48	21	76	32	232	100
Selection of teaching Methods	105	45	46	20	81	35	232	100
Selection of school Curricular	83	36	49	21	100	43	232	100

Source: Fieldwork.2009

Distribution of personnel management are represented in table 10, the table shows that, 107(46%) and 151(65%) of the respondents do agree that management function like assigning of teaching responsibilities and pre-service and in-service training respectively have been decentralised. Thus administrators have the power to assign teaching responsibilities and organise pre-service and in-service training for staff development. This goes to support Clement and Vandenberghe (2000) view that teachers are more likely to implement ideas in their classrooms when heads are willing to share their beliefs and philosophies

about teaching, provide supportive and constructive feedback about their teaching practices, and afford teachers adequate learning space to experiment with new ideas. On the other hand 105(45%) of the respondents were of the view that the school has no power to hire and fire personnel which make the level of discipline low in the schools because personnel see the administrators to have no power to fully control them. In contrast McGinn and Welsh (1999) stated that in the city of Chicago a number of political legitimacy reforms have built governance unit at the school level, and that parents and residents have authority over professional staff in the local school as the school council can hire and fire heads and teachers as well as discipline students. Table 10 is the result bothering on the planning and structure of school routines.

**Table 10: Personnel Management**

Personnel Management	Positive		Neutral		Negative		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Hiring and firing of Personnel	90	39	37	11	105	45	232	100
Assigning teaching responsibilities	151	65	68	12	53	23	232	100
Pre-Service and in-service Training	107	46	41	18	84	36	232	100
Admissions of students	89	38	41	18	102	44	232	100

Source: Fieldwork.2009

Table 11 below indicate that, 129 (56%) and 138 (60%) respondents were of the view that management functions like school opening and closing and school improvement plans respectively have been decentralised this gives the



senior high schools administrators power to take decisions as regards when school closes and open and make improvement plans for the school. This is supported by Nisbet (1974) contention that heads must be quite selective in identifying programmes that can assist them in their school improvement efforts especially regarding students performance outcomes. According to Asiedu Akrofi (1978), one of the administrative tasks is to promote a good instructional programme, thus planning, improving and initiating programmes to achieve the result society aims at.

**Table 11: Planning and Structure**

Planning and Structure	Positive		Neutral		Negative		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
School opening and closing	129	56	44	19	59	25	232	100
School course content	106	46	50	22	76	33	232	100
School improvement plans	138	60	52	23	42	18	232	100

Source:Fieldwork.2009

### **Distribution of Respondents for Monitoring and Evaluations**

When respondents were questioned on the level of educational management functions in the senior high schools as regards monitoring and evaluation, they gave varying responses. Their answers have been summarised in Table 12.

**Table 12: Monitoring and Evaluation**

Monitoring and Evaluation	Positive		Neutral		Negative		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Inspection and supervision	182	78	32	14	18	9	232	100
Examination	55	24	32	14	145	63	232	100

Source: Fieldwork.2009

Table 12 depicts that, 182 respondents (78%) were of the view that educational management functions in the senior high schools are decentralised in terms of monitoring and evaluation. This is done through inspection and supervision. The majority of the respondents 145 (63) however, disagreed that examination is decentralised at the senior high school level because all final assessments made at the senior high schools are determined by an external body (West Africa Examination Council).

**Table 13: Autonomy of Administrators**

Autonomy of Administrators	Positive		Neutral		Negative		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Supply of teaching and learning materials	92	40	62	27	78	33	232	100
Maintenance of infrastructure, Development and staffing	72	31	69	30	91	39	232	100

Source: Fieldwork.2009

Table 13 indicates that, 92 (40%) of the respondents agree that senior high schools are more autonomous in terms of supply of teaching and learning materials. Whiles 91 (39%) were of the view that senior high schools had no power in terms of maintenance of infrastructure development and staffing. This presupposes that they depend on the central government for funds in repair works and maintenance as well as for recruitment of staff.

**Table 14: Reasons for Autonomy of Administrators**

Autonomy of Administrators	Freq	Percentage
School relies on the central government for maintenance, development, staffing and cost of teaching and learning material because funding of these are beyond the budget of the school	91	39
Allocation for maintenance and teaching and learning are woefully inadequate	76	33
Maintenance of infrastructure is done by the school and determine what kind of teaching and learning to acquire provided it can be accommodated by the schools budget	65	28
<b>Total</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork.2009

From table 14, 91 (39%) of the respondents expressed the view that schools rely on the central government for maintenance, development and staffing because funding for these were beyond the budget of the schools. This is in contrast to Winkler's (1991) claims that a decentralised institution should be

autonomous and have the power to raise revenues and spend. This boils down to the fact that schools do not have the power to generate their own resources to fund the school. On the other hand, 76 (33%) of the respondents were of the view that since the allocations to schools are woefully inadequate schools depend on their little internally generated funds to support the acquisition of teaching and learning materials. Again 65(28%) of the respondents are of the view that school administrators are autonomous in the area of maintenance of infrastructure and the determination of what kind of teaching and learning to acquire but provided that it can be accommodated by the schools budget. This presupposes that if they can not afford, then they will have to rely on the central government.

### **Research Question Two**

#### **Which type(s) of Decentralisation is or are Practised in Senior High Schools**

Research question 2 sought to elaborate on the educational functions decentralised, personnel recruitment, roles heads play in the recruitment of personnel, and the duties dedicated to staff.

#### **Distribution of Educational Functions Decentralised**

Table 15 shows the summary of responses on the functions that have been decentralised in the senior high schools.

**Table 15: Educational Functions Decentralised**

Functions Decentralised	Positive		Neutral		Negative		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Deconcentration	133	57	58	25	41	18	232	100
Delegation	108	46	49	21	75	32	232	100
Devolution	107	46	50	22	75	32	232	100

Source: Fieldwork.2009

From table 15 above, in the implementation of the decentralisation policy in the senior high schools in the Cape Coast metropolis, majority of the respondents 133 (57%) held the view that, the only function that has been decentralised is the deconcentration, where management responsibility is shifted from the central to school levels so that the centre retains control. As identified by Ribot (2001) deconcentration is the relocation of branches of the central state to local areas, entailing a transfer of power to locally-based officials in the institutions who remain part of, and held accountable to central government ministries like the GES headquarters in Accra. In the nutshell, all decisions taken in the institutions need an approval from the central government for it to be implemented.

**Table 16: Distribution of Respondents for Personnel Recruitment**

Personnel Recruitment	Frequency	Percentage
Posted after graduation by the GES	146	63
Recruitment by the head of the institution	20	9
Recruited by the metro director of education	31	13
Recruited by the regional director of education	35	15
<b>Total</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork, 2009

The process of finding potential applicants for anticipated vacancies is what Rosenholtz (1985) terms recruitment. For personnel recruitment as depicted in the table 16, 146 (63%) respondents out of the 232 sampled held the view that personnel are posted after graduation by the GES, giving the head of institution no

power to recruit personnel he or she feels will help achieve the set objectives of the institution. Rosenholtz further argued that it is a mistake for a head of an institution to assume that the correct mix of people will be available to fill vacancies without making concerted effort to find qualified individuals to fill specific human resources.

Table 17 shows that, 169 (77%) respondents were of the view that, the role heads of the senior high schools play in staff or personnel recruitment is by granting of assurance letters for GES to do the posting.

**Table 17: Roles Heads Play in Recruitment of Personnel**

Role played by heads in recruitment	Frequency	Percentage
Granting of assurance letters for GES to do the posting	169	73
Issued appointment letters and granted interviews before recruitment	20	11
Endorsement of the necessary documents after teachers have been posted to the schools	32	16
<b>Total</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork.2009

As to the authority to access and recruit personnel they feel to work with, they do not have, they only will have to wait for GES to do the recruitment since they have no power to pay the employee.

According to Mankoe and Maynes (1994), this kind of centralisation poses problems in countries with large regional variations in the supply of qualified teachers; some countries for example, find it difficult to recruit qualified teachers

to small towns and rural areas. On the other hand the transfer of authority for decisions about personnel qualification should, therefore, be made only when local decision makers have acquired competence in the curriculum.

Information gathered from category ‘B’ respondents and the duties that heads of institutions delegate to senior housemaster or mistress heads of department are summarised in Table18 which specifies that, 56 (28%) out of the 199 staff respondents in category ‘B’ were of the view that they were delegated to specific duties such as, giving advice to the head on boarding and administrative issues. Moreover, 10% of the respondents stated that, their duties were to organise departmental meeting on academic and administrative issues and ensure that students get recommended text books.

The fore-going confirm in part as expressed by Hanson (2000) that if decision making authority is delegated down the ranks to the hierarchy of the staff, then decentralisation has taken place. In other words Hanson believes that internal democratisation or administration is synonymous with decentralisation at the institutional level.

**Table 18: Distribution of Respondents on Duties Delegated to Staff**

Duties delegated to Staff	HOD’s		SHM’s		HM’s		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
To ensure that students get recommended text books	20	0	0	0	0	0	20	10
Organise departmental meeting on academic and administrative issues	18	47	2	11	0	0	20	10
Supervise and allocate houses to students	0	0	4	15	22	85	26	13

**Table 18 cont'd**

To manage and keep the houses in order	0	0	2	7	28	93	30	15
Welfare of students	20	43	4	9	23	49	47	24
Advise head on boarding and administrative issues	30	54	6	11	20	36	56	28

Source: Fieldwork.2009.

### Research Question Three

#### What Type of Training have Educational Administrators received to Facilitate their Functioning in the Decentralised Educational System

This sought to elaborate on training on decentralisation of education, and how beneficial the training received is.

#### Distribution of Respondents on Training Received by Administrators

Distribution of respondents on training received by administrators on decentralisation of educational management is captured in Table 19.

**Table 19: Training on Decentralisation of Education**

Category of Responses									
Response	A		B		C		Total		
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	
Yes	9	12	66	87	1	1	76	100	
No	0	0	156	100	0	0	156	100	

Source: Fieldwork.2009

For training received by respondents on the decentralisation of education, the table 19 indicates that, all responses received from categories 'A' and 'C' respondents 9 (100%) and 1 (100%) respectively agree to have had very few trainings on decentralisation of education while only 66 (30%) of the category 'B'



respondents stated that, they have had such training. The number of respondents who had such training from all divides of respondents is rather on the low side, that is 76 (33%) out of 232. The researcher wanting to find out why such a low turn-out rate of respondents was recorded went further to probe for the factors that accounts for response given. Most respondents in category ‘B’ gave the impression that most often one or two personnel are appointed to represent the school at such training course, hence the low turn-out and that unless proper planning is done towards the organisation of such training course, much cannot be achieved in terms of implementing the policy in educational management. According to Clement and Vandenberghe (2000) it is important for administrators to attend in-service training programmes to assist them in interpreting educational policies as well as provide practical strategies for working with teachers to implement these innovations in their classrooms.

### **Benefits of the Training received by Administrators**

When the 76 respondents were questioned on how beneficial the training received has been to them, they responded that it has improved their roles as administrators. Their responses are summarised in Table 20.

**Table 20: How Beneficial is the Training Received?**

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Improve managerial and administrative skills	36	47
Improve supervisory skills	22	29
Improve team work	18	24
<b>Total</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork. 2009

From Table 20, 36 (47%) of the respondents stated that the training has improved their managerial and administrative skills in the implementation of the decentralisation policy in the senior high schools, and should be organised when schools are in session for all administrators and school personnel to have access to such training. This view of the respondents is re-enforced by Hanson’s (1997) earlier conviction that “a successful decentralisation initiative requires strong and well trained leaders who have sufficient experience to carry out a new designed plan” (p. 34). However, minority of the respondents (24%), held the view that the training has improved team work and co-operation among colleagues. According to Caldwell and Spinks (1992) training improves strategic leaders’ ability to see all directions simultaneously, again guide them to concentrate their effort on setting priorities and formulating actions plans for achieving desired outcomes and monitoring the implementation of new practices and determining their effect on the organisation of students learning

#### **Research Question Four**

#### **What Specific Challenges are Educational Administrators Encountering in Carrying out their Responsibilities in a Decentralised Educational System**

**Table 21: Responses on Challenges Faced by Administrators**

Problems	Frequency	Percentage
Financial Constraints	54	23
Lack of authority to make local rules	27	12
Inefficiency in allocation of resources	25	11

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**Table 21 cont'd**

Late release of government grants	40	17
Lack of information and communication	17	8
Lack of proper orientation on job description	7	3
Maintenance of discipline among staff and students	10	4
Lack of teacher motivation	52	22
<b>Total</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>100</b>

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Source: Fieldwork.2009

The table reveals that 54 (23%) and 52 (22%) respondents identified financial constraint and lack of teacher motivation as some of the challenges they face. This is because school administration has no power to generate income on their own to support the financing of educational management in the senior high school. On the other hand because teachers are not well motivated they are not putting up their best in the administration of education and management.

Precisely, 40 (17%) of the respondents mentioned late release of government grants while 27 (12%) stated lack of authority to make local rules as some other challenges they face in the implementation of the decentralisation policy in school management. The delay in government grant making heads to be heavily indebted to food contractors, as they are unable to pay for students feeding cost on time affected the effective running of schools thus hindering the successful implementation of the decentralisation policy.

Precisely 25 (11%) of the respondents stated that inefficiency in allocation of resources to certain departments and schools in the metropolis to the detriment

of others hindered the smooth running of the schools and departments as well. Seventeen (8%) of the respondents are of the view that lack of information and communication is one of the problem they are facing. Because of the bureaucratic nature of the system, information from Ghana Education Service head office will have to go through the regional and metro directorates before getting to the schools. It sometimes gets hooked up in these offices without getting to the schools or their desired designations.

Maintenance of discipline among staff and students and lack of proper orientation on job description for newly appointed staff to responsible positions in the school was cited as another problem that 17 (7%) respondents were facing. This is because heads of institutions have no power to hire and fire staff and even students as well as inadequate in-service training for personnel.

According to Osei-Tutu (2004), decentralisation of the administration of the senior high school is basically meant to quicken decision making by both the heads and staffs to offset delays experienced under the centralised system. This view is collaborated by Caldwell and Spinks (1998) that, the decentralisation of decision making at the school level has brought about the types of decentralised schools the site based management: the shared decision making authority to school officials to take control over financial issues and staffing decisions. It is in the same context that Hanson (1997) states that, increased flexibility, through deregulation is the key to making decentralised schools work effectively. He however advises against abuses of power through the hiring of unqualified teachers and the incurring of large financial deficits.

### Suggested Solutions to Administrative Problems

Other investigation in line with research question 4 and suggestions made by respondents as solutions to problems bedevilling the decentralisation process are summarised in Table 22.

**Table 22: Solutions to Administrative Problems**

Suggested solution	Frequency	Percentage
Government grant should be released on time	54	23
Teachers should be motivated	40	17
Schools should be given free hands to generate their own funds	35	15
In-Service training should be organised for staff members	17	7
Increasing the efficiency in allocation of resources	25	11
Authority should be shifted to schools to take decisions	53	23
Intensify counselling services	8	4
<b>Total</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Fieldwork.2009

Table 22 shows that 54 (23%) of the respondents suggested that government's grants to the school should be paid on time, specifically at the beginning of the first quarter of the academic year, if this is done the need of the

school and other instructional materials like teaching and learning materials (TLM) and other academic inputs that are necessary for departments could be provided for the smooth running of the school.

Moreover, 53 (23%) of the respondents also suggested that authority should be shifted to school to make local rules. This view is corroborated by McGinn and Welsh (1999) that in some countries authorities have been transferred to the smallest units in the system which are the schools. This kind of reform is what is called the school-based management. Again this reform according to Govinda (1997) intends authority to be shared with community members but ends up with the experts making all important decisions. Most often responsibility is taken on by the heads. Within the professional expertise positions according to Murphy and Beck (1995) such reforms vary according to whether authority is transferred solely to heads (called Administrative control) or whether teachers are included (called professional control).

Forty of the respondents as indicated by the table suggested the intensification of teacher motivation system like awards and commendations for good performance in duties assigned as a means of making staff work diligently, while 35 (15%) of the respondents suggested that school administrators should be given a free hand to generate funds to support the smooth running of educational management as they claim central government do not or cannot provide the finance to meet demands for schooling. This is to change the sources and amount of funds available for education by relieving the central government of financial burdens (McGinn and Welsh, 1999).

Seventeen of the respondents suggested that, in-service training programmes based on the decentralisation policy should be organised for all personnel and those appointed to certain positions in the senior high schools to ensure that teachers become competent in performing their assigned roles. The impact of this kind of reform on management according to Wheeler *et-al* (1989) depends primarily on the incentives offered to schools for changes in performance. These intend depend on the ability of some external agency to assess the performance of the school and to hold it accountable. Wheeler *et-al* went further to state that the successful implementations of school-based management run by professionals depend primarily on the improvement of the level of professional expertise of those who participate in decision-making. For example even parents and communities can participate if they are made expert through training.

On the issue of allocation of resources, 25(11%) of the respondents suggested that efficiency of the resource allocation should be increased so that so schools manage it own administration. This is in line with the study by Murphy and Beck (1995) that management at the school level also occurs in reforms in which schools compete against each other for resources. This finding is also corroborated in the study by Welsh and McGinn (1999) that the decision of allocation of resources includes the authority to transfer funds from one kind of organisation to another. For example, in Chile, municipal government can allocate some of the resources they receive to private or smaller schools. In the other cases, the more central governments specify the categories within which funds

must be allocated. Responses from 8 (4%) respondents suggested that, counselling services should be intensified to counsel students on indiscipline towards the school rules and regulations and advice teachers on certain negative attitude on instructions and professional ethics. They further suggested that school disciplinary committees should be fully employed to assist in dealing with disciplinary issues that go beyond the scope of the counsellors.



## **CHAPTER FIVE**

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

The purpose of the study was to determine how the decentralisation policy is being implemented in the senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis. It assessed the structures put in place to decentralise administration, the types of decentralisation practiced, the training educational administrators receive and the specific challenges administrators face in the administration of the decentralised educational institutions. Major findings came out of the study to which this chapter has been devoted. The findings have been summarised and the conclusions and recommendations drawn based on the findings. Areas for further research have also been suggested.

#### **Summary**

Experiences in the decentralisation of educational management have not been uniformly positive in developing countries Crawford (2003). This study therefore saw it expedient to research into how the decentralisation policy is being implemented in senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

To do this effectively four research questions were posited to guide the study. Literature was reviewed the types of decentralisation and the administrative functions in vogue in schools. The descriptive survey design was utilised and a

combination of the purposive and stratified sampling methods were employed to select a sample of 232 from a population of 598 respondents, who responded to a self-structured questionnaire of 3 sections. This instrument was pilot tested to ascertain its reliability and validity for the study.

After the administration and collection of the data, the data collected were edited, categorised and coded, frequency and percentage values were calculated for the items, to which the summary, conclusions and recommendations based on the findings, have been presented.

### **Main Findings**

#### **1. Structures put in place to decentralise administration in Senior High**

**Schools:** In line with research question 1, the study revealed the following;

- (i) **Generation of funds:** The policy of the decentralisation programme advocate for the smaller units like the schools to generate funds to support administration of the senior high schools. But it is not the case with the senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis; the study revealed that the central government is the sole financier of second cycle education.
- (ii) **Level of management function:** The study revealed that majority of the respondents (47%) agree the senior high schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis do select their own text books for instructional method of teaching but do not have the power to select their own curricular which is centrally determined in contrast with the decentralisation policy that

proposes for community governance in making decisions on the curriculum for schools. McGinn and Welsh (1999) and Dolce (1996) are in agreement that one of the roles of school heads in a decentralised institution is aligning local curriculum with state and national standards, interpreting and using the test result for school improvement.

Again, the study reveals that heads of institutions do not have the authority to hire and fire staff. The results reveal that the best they can do is writing for their release from the school.

Also, the study reveals that authority has been devolved to schools in the area of re-opening, closing and improvement plans for schools. This is corroborated by Asiedu Akrofi's study which state that one of the administrative tasks is to promote a good instructional programme thus planning, improving and initiating programme to achieve the result society aims. Again, the study reveals that inspectional supervision have been decentralised to schools but academic performance is assessed by an external body instead of the school

(iii) **Autonomy of administrators:** According to Winkler (1991) a decentralised institution should be autonomous and have the power to raise revenues and spend, but the study revealed that schools rely on the central government for maintenance, development, staffing and cost of teaching and learning material. This is because funding of these are beyond the school budget and they have no power to generate their own funds to run administration. However, if this can be done, they

have to seek approval from the headquarters, but they still generate some little internal fund like PTA dues, house dues etc to support certain administrative activities. In analysing the study, it is revealed that there is no or little collaboration between the schools and the communities, thus the communities are not strongly involved in the school's administrative and decision making process. This is so because the school's programme content provided does not match with the local interest that will get the community to be actively involved in the activities of the school. This is in contrast with Schaefer's report (1991), the community school present a comprehensive strategy to improve opportunities for children to develop within their own environment. The key to the success of the concept of community schools is the integration of a range of service for the benefit of the learning experience of the young people and that the curriculum content of individual community schools depend on institutional and local need. In some secondary schools there is a clear focus on improved employability 'skill'. Community schools tend to offer a range of recreational activities to enrich the life of children in the community.

- (iv) Staff quality: The study revealed that the metropolis has a lot of qualified administrative personnel to sustain and push forward the school decentralisation policy in the senior high schools. It shows that the presence of the University of Cape Coast is having a positive

impact on staff development in the metropolis by up-dating the administrative and pedagogical skills of school staff in the metropolis.

2. **Administrative functions decentralised in Senior High Schools:** In line with research question 2, the study revealed the following;

- (i) **Functions decentralised:** Findings of the study reveal that 57% of the respondents agree that senior high schools have been deconcentrated in the implementation of the decentralisation policy, this is because management responsibilities like granting of assurance letters for personnel to be appointed, assigning teaching and other administrative responsibilities to staff members, inspecting and supervising of teaching and learning as well as other administrative issues are shifted from the central to centre retains control over management responsibilities like decision on raising and spending finances, hiring and firing of staff admission of new students, planning of curricular and school course content and final assessment of student's performance (examination) is controlled by the central government. This finding is in line with the study by Rondinelli (1984) which state that, deconcentration reforms shift authority for implementation of roles, but not for making them.
- (ii) **Duties delegated to staff:** Precisely 56 (28%) of all level of category 'B' respondents which is the majority agree that the major delegation of duty to staff is by giving advice to the head on boarding and administrative issues through regular meetings and the needs of the

various houses and departments to the heads of schools. The respondents contended that the delegation of duty is to ensure that students get recommended text books for instructions, organize departmental meetings on academic and administrative issues or needs, to supervise and allocate house for student, to manage and keep the houses in order, thus maintaining discipline among students and to ensure the welfare of students.

3. **Training received by Educational Administrators:** In line with research question 3, the study also reveal the following;
  - (i) Training received by administrators: In the area of training of personnel for the implementation of the decentralisation policy in the senior high schools; the study revealed that 76(33%) of the respondents have had some sought of training programmes organised to facilitate their effective functions in a decentralised system. Out of the total 76 respondents in categories 'A' and 'C' (heads and directors) have had the training programme with only 66 (42%) out of 159 respondents in category 'B' having undergone a training programme, making the training for staff in category 'B' to be at a low rate. This they blamed on the selection mechanism often adopted by heads of senior high schools and the time frame within which the programmes are organised. As a result many staff members do not have any idea on the decentralisation policy and its implementation for senior high schools.

Precisely 36 (47%) of the respondents who have undergone various training programmes affirmed that the training has improved their managerial and administrative skills in implementing the decentralisation policy effectively in the senior high schools. Twenty-two (29%) of the respondents regard these programmes as effective training grounds for improving supervisory skills which could help to make the decentralisation policy a success. Eighteen (24%) of the respondents agree that, the training programmes have improved team work in the implementation of the policy in the senior high school. These findings corroborate with the study by Hanson's (1997) assertion that a successful decentralisation initiative requires strong well trained leaders who have sufficient job stability to carry out well-designed plans.

4. **Challenges faced by Educational Administrators in the Senior High Schools:** In line with research question 4, the study revealed that all the 232 respondents in the 3 categories believe the following measures if taken would contribute positively to make the decentralisation process more effective;
- (i) Government grant to the senior high schools should be paid on time, specifically at the beginning of the first quarter of the academic year.
  - (ii) In-service training on decentralisation policy for all staff members and those appointed to responsible positions in the senior high school.

- (iii) Senior high schools should be given free hands to generate their own funds locally in order to manage certain administrative matters. The respondents were of the view that, this should be done by organising open days, appeal for funds from organisations, collaboration with the local community to help generate funds to strengthen the financial base of the school in the implementation of the decentralisation policy.
- (iv) Authority should be shifted to schools to take decision in managing the affairs of the school.
- (v) The counselling service should be intensified in the schools for the smooth running of educational management.

### **Conclusions**

It is observed from the study that even though majority of the respondents 59% are males, this has not in any way influenced the findings of the study. However, respondents time spent in an institution, their educational qualification and rank in the GES, have significantly contributed to the level of information so far gathered to support the study.

It was observed that senior high schools rely on the central government for their source of revenue generation and thus have no power to raise revenue and spend, unless they seek approval from the policy makers. Since the school administration finances are beyond the school budget they rely on the little PTA funds to support administrative work.

The study again revealed that, most staff in the senior high schools do not have any idea on the decentralisation policy and thus call for an urgent need for



training programmes to up date their knowledge in the decentralisation policy to effectively hold administrative positions in the school, since that will help those in administration of the senior high school to become more responsive to the tenets of the decentralisation policy.

With the problems facing the senior high schools such as delay in the release of government grants, lack of in-service training programmes on the decentralisation policy, lack of autonomy to raise funds locally to support administration, to hire and fire personnel and finally making local rules to run the schools. Hence, the ability of school administrators to find solutions to the problems is all that decentralisation is about.

### **Recommendations**

In line with the findings of the study, it is therefore recommended that:

1. As the study reveals that the main source of funding for the administration of the senior high schools is the central government's fund and this grant is said to be inadequate to meet the financial demands of the institutions and are not released on time which brings a lot of financial burdens to the educational administrators, the Government is urged to shift revenue generation to schools to support finances. This can be done by organising open-days, appeal for funds from the community and other organisations (NGOs) to support developmental projects in the school.
2. School board or council should be given authority to hire as well as fire personnel for the schools, so as to have some control over school for effective school management. However, this is being supported by Perris

(1998) that a number of political legitimacy reforms have build governance units at school level where parents and residents have authority over professional staff in the local school. The council can hire and fire heads and teachers and choose curriculum, discipline students and fix schedules.

3. Success of school-based management in a decentralised system depends on the ability of school administrators to maintain the involvement of the community in decision-making. If one community group is able to dominate a school board or council to the exclusion of other groups, the experiment loses its democratic character. Adjudication between competing community groups becomes a primary task of the administration (Rugh and Bossert, 1998). In view of this, it is recommended that there should be community involvement in decision-making as the study reveals that the programme content of the schools in the metropolis does not match to the local interest. As stated in Schaefer's report (1991), the key to the success of the concept of community schools is the integration of a range of services for the benefit of the learning experience of young people as the curriculum content of individual community schools depends on institutional and local need. Based on this, it is recommended that senior high schools should be given the mandate to increase the matching programme content to local interest whereby there will be a variety in the quality and content of education provided.

4. From the study it has been identified that most personnel in the senior high school are not well informed with the decentralisation policy and what it is all about. This is because there is always a small representation any time a training programme is organised, because they are organized when schools are in session. In view of this, it is recommended that such training programmes should be organised during vacation with some incentives to motivate staff, so that almost all staff would be able to attend to enrich their administrative skills to implement the decentralisation policy effectively.
5. The study again identified lack of teacher motivation in the metropolis and that the PTA motivation fund is the only source of motivation to staff. In view of this, it is therefore recommended that, to improve the senior high school management efficiency, the Metropolitan Assembly should market the potentials of personnel in the senior high schools in the metropolis by putting in some incentive packages for personnel in the senior high schools to attract them to stay and render useful services to them. This can be done by the provision of suitable and decent accommodation for personnel, end of the month incentive package and health insurance schemes for staff. With this the metropolitan assembly can pay regular visits to schools to assess situations on the ground to inject management efficiency in the senior high schools.

### **Suggestions for Further Research**

Since the study was conducted in the central region of Ghana, it is suggested that similar research be conducted in the other regions to evaluate how the decentralisation policy is being implemented.

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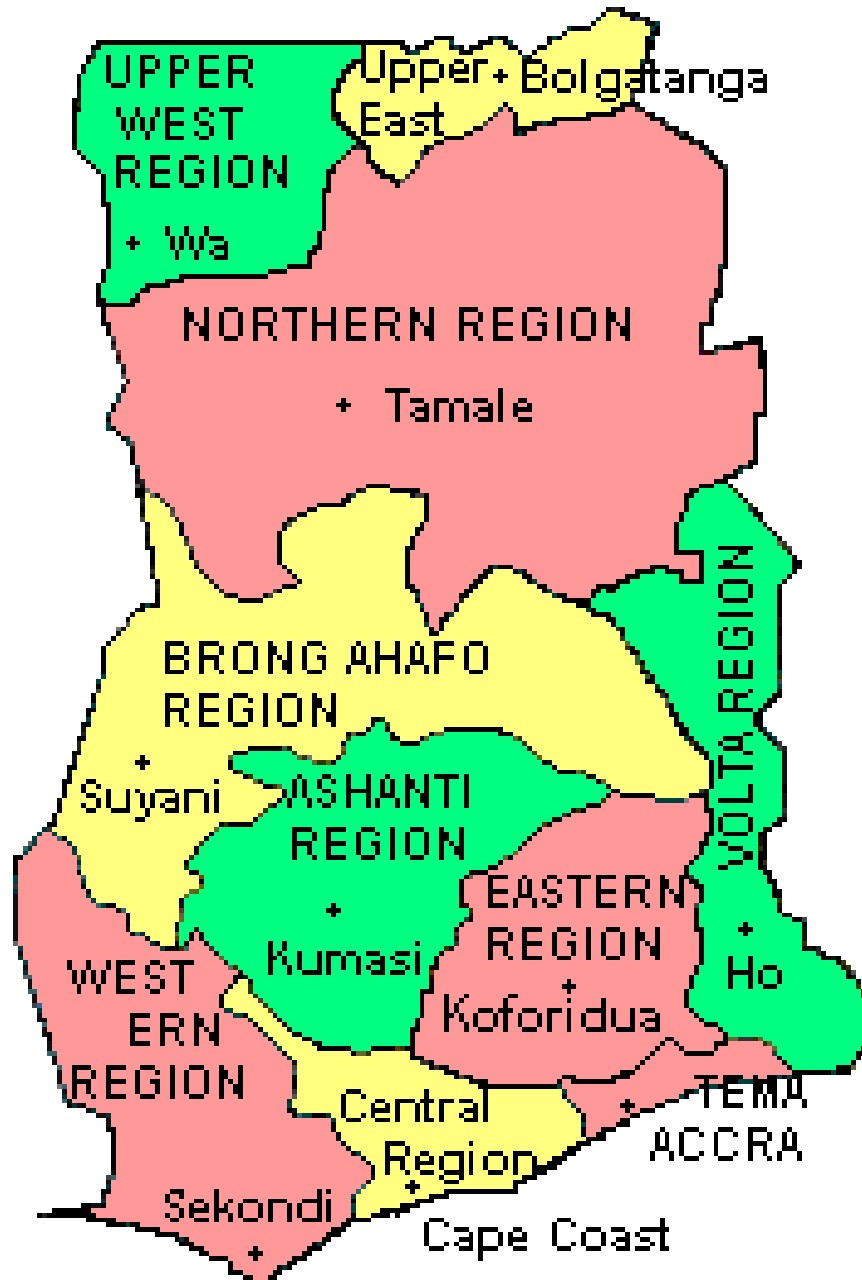
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## **APPENDICES**

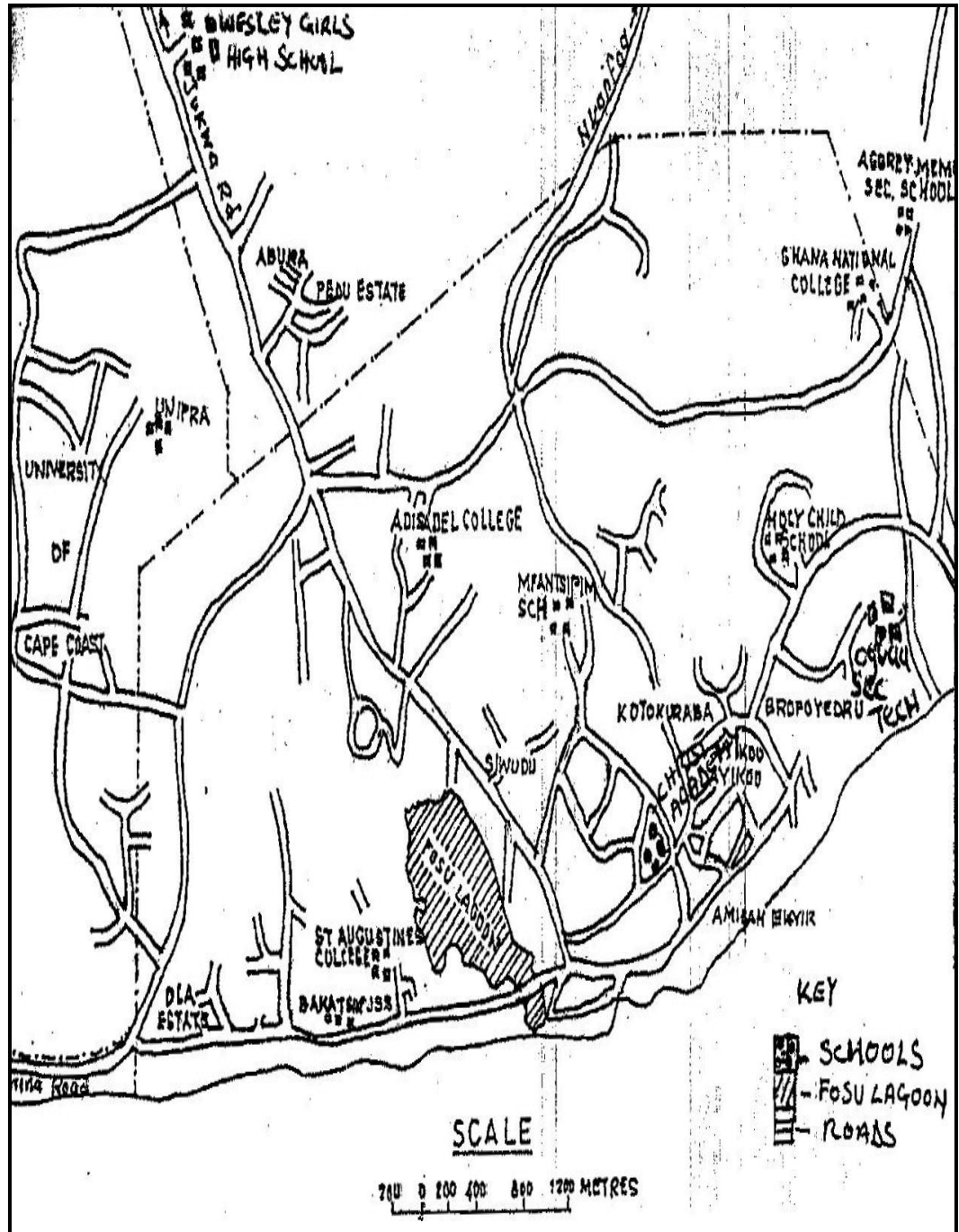
APPENDIX A  
A MAP OF GHANA



Kilometres  
0 100 200  
Scale = 1: 8,500 000

APPENDIX B

A MAP OF CAPE COAST



## APPENDIX C

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEADS AND ASSISTANT HEADMASTERS OR MISTRESSES OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Dear Sir/ Madam,

This questionnaire is intended to elicit information that will form the basis for your appraising the extent of the on-going educational decentralisation programme in the administration of senior high schools. Your candid opinion is highly welcome. You are assured of the confidentiality of any information so given.

#### SECTION A: Personal Data

Please tick [ ] or fill in the blank spaces where appropriate.

1. Gender Male [ ] Female [ ]
2. School.....
3. What is your highest academic/ professional qualification?
  - a. M. Phil/M.ED/M.A [ ]
  - b. PGDE [ ]
  - c. PGCE [ ]
  - d. First Degree [ ]
  - e. Diploma [ ]
  - f. Any other (specify).....
4. What is your current rank in the Ghana Education Service (GES)?  
 .....

5. What position do you hold in this institution?

a. Headmaster/mistress [ ]

b. Assistant headmaster/mistress [ ]

6. How long have you held this position in this institution?

.....

**SECTION B: General Administrative Issues**

Indicate the response closest to your view by circling the appropriate number of the following scale for each item in terms of magnitude or priority.

5-strongly agree, 4- agree, 3-undecided, 2-disagree, 1-strongly disagree,

**Structures been put in place to decentralised administration in the senior high schools**

7. How are administrators generating funds to manage schools?

a) Funds from central government. 1 2 3 4 5

b) Funds from PTA levies 1 2 3 4 5

c) Produce from school farms 1 2 3 4 5

d) Support from NGOs 1 2 3 4 5

e) Budget allocation 1 2 3 4 5

8. Which aspects of the educational management functions have been decentralised as far as the senior high school administration is concerned?

Organisation of instruction

a) Selection of their textbooks 1 2 3 4 5

b) Selection of teaching methods 1 2 3 4 5

c) Selection of school curricula 1 2 3 4 5

Personnel Management

- a) Hiring and firing of personnel 1 2 3 4 5
- b) Assigning teaching responsibilities 1 2 3 4 5
- c) Pre-service and in-service training 1 2 3 4 5
- d) Admissions of students 1 2 3 4 5

Planning and structure

- a) School opening and closing 1 2 3 4 5
- b) School course content 1 2 3 4 5
- c) School improvement plans 1 2 3 4 5

Monitoring and Evaluation

- a) Inspection and Supervision 1 2 3 4 5
- b) Examination 1 2 3 4 5

9. The senior high schools have more autonomy in terms of

- a) Supply of teaching and learning materials 1 2 3 4 5
- b) Maintenance of infrastructure, development and staffing 1 2 3 4 5

10. Please give reasons in support of your answer(s) to question 9 above?

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**Which functions have been decentralised?**

11. In the implementation of the decentralisation policy, which of the following functions have been decentralised in the Senior High Schools?

- a) Deconcentration - shifting management responsibility from the central to school levels so that the centre retains control. 1 2 3 4 5
- b) Delegation – Giving authority to schools to function and report on behalf of central government. 1 2 3 4 5
- c) Devolution – Develop and strengthen authority at the school level over financial, administrative or pedagogical matters. 1 2 3 4 5

**Type of training received by administrators**

12. Have you ever had the chance of attending any workshop/seminar on decentralisation of educational management?

- d) Yes [ ]
- e) No [ ]

13. If yes to Q12 above explain how beneficial this has been to you as an Administrator?

- a) Very beneficial [ ]
- b) Beneficial [ ]
- c) Not beneficial [ ]

14. Give reasons to support your answer to Q 13 above.

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**Challenges encountered by administrators and strategies adopted to cope with them.**

15. What specific challenges are you facing in managing your institution?

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16. What are the strategies adopted to cope with the challenges stated above.

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5. Length of time in the institution

- a. 1 – 5 years [ ]
- b. 6 – 10 years [ ]
- c. 11 -15 years [ ]
- d. 16 -20 years [ ]
- e. 21 – 25 years [ ]
- f. 25 years and above [ ]

**SECTION B: General Administrative Issues**

Indicate the response closest to your view by circling the appropriate number of the following scale for each item in terms of magnitude or priority.

5-strongly agree, 4- agree, 3-undecided, 2-disagree, 1-strongly disagree.

**Structures been put in place to decentralised administration in the senior high schools**

6. How do administrators generate funds to manage the houses or department?

- a) Funds from house or department levies 1 2 3 4 5
- b) Funds from PTA levies 1 2 3 4 5
- c) Funds from special house or department projects 1 2 3 4 5
- d) Funds from school accounts 1 2 3 4 5

7. Which aspects of the educational management functions have been decentralised as far as the senior high school administration is concerned?

Organisation of instruction

- a) Selection of their textbooks 1 2 3 4 5
- b) Selection of teaching methods 1 2 3 4 5

c) Selection of school curricula 1 2 3 4 5

Personnel Management

a) Hiring and firing of personnel 1 2 3 4 5

b) Assigning teaching responsibilities 1 2 3 4 5

c) Pre-service and in-service training 1 2 3 4 5

d) Admissions of Students 1 2 3 4 5

Planning and structure

a) School opening and closing 1 2 3 4 5

b) School course content 1 2 3 4 5

c) School improvement plans 1 2 3 4 5

Monitoring and Evaluation

a) Inspection and Supervision 1 2 3 4 5

b) Examination 1 2 3 4 5

8. Are the senior high schools more autonomous in terms of

a Supply of teaching and learning materials 1 2 3 4 5

b Maintenance of infrastructure, development and staff 1 2 3 4 5

9. Please give reasons in support of your answer(s) to question 10 above?

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**Which functions have been decentralised**

10. In the implementation of the decentralization policy, which of the following functions have been decentralised in the Senior High Schools?

- I. Deconcentration - shifting management responsibility from the central to school levels so that the centre retains control. 1 2 3 4 5
- II. Delegation – Giving authority to schools to function and report on behalf of central government. 1 2 3 4 5
- III. Devolution – Develop and strengthen authority at the school level over financial, administrative or pedagogical matters. 1 2 3 4 5

11. Please indicate how you were recruited into this institution

- a) Posted after graduation by the GES [ ]
- b) Recruited by the head of the institution [ ]
- c) Recruited by the regional director of education [ ]
- d) Recruited by the metropolitan director of education [ ]
- e) Others (please specify).....

12. State any specific role that the head of this institution played in your recruitment as a member of staff.

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13. Which of the following administrative duty (ies) are you performing in this institution apart from teaching?

- a) Senior housemaster/mistress [ ]
- b) Head of Department [ ]
- c) Housemaster/mistress [ ]

14. From your answer to question 13 above what delegated duties has the head assign to you in the school?

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**Type of training received by administrators**

15. As a senior housemaster/mistress or housemaster/mistress or head of department of this institution, have you received any special training to enable them operate more effectively as an administrator in a decentralized educational system?

- a) Yes [ ]
- b) No [ ]

16. If yes to question 15 above, how beneficial has the training been to you as an Administrator?

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**Challenges encountered by administrators and strategies adopted to cope with them.**

17. What specific challenges do you face in managing your house or department in the implementation of the decentralisation policy?

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18. What are the strategies adopted to cope with the challenges stated above.

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**APPENDIX E**

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR REGIONAL AND METROPOLITAN DIRECTORS  
OF EDUCATION**

Dear Sir/ Madam,

This questionnaire is intended to elicit information that will form the basis for your appraising the extent of the on-going educational decentralisation programme in the administration of senior high schools. Your candid opinion is highly welcome. You are assured of the confidentiality of any information so given.

**SECTION A: Personal Data**

Please tick [ ] or fill the blank space where appropriate.

1. Gender                      Male [ ]    Female [ ]

2. What is your highest academic/ professional qualification?

        M. Phil/M.ED/M.A                      [ ]

        i.    PGDE                                      [ ]

        ii.   PGCE                                     [ ]

        iii.   First Degree                           [ ]

        iv.   Diploma                                [ ]

        v.   Any other (specify).....

3. What is your current rank in the Ghana Education Service?

.....

4. For how long have you been a Director in Ghana Education Service?

.....

**SECTION B: General Administrative Issues**

Indicate the response closest to your view by circling the appropriate number of the following scale for each item in terms of magnitude or priority.

5-strongly agree, 4- agree, 3-undecided, 2-disagree, 1-strongly disagree,

**Structures been put in place to decentralised administration in the senior high schools**

5. How do administrators generate funds to manage schools?

- i. Funds from central government. 1 2 3 4 5
- ii. Funds from PTA levies 1 2 3 4 5
- iii. Produce from school farms 1 2 3 4 5
- iv. Expenditure 1 2 3 4 5
- v. Budget allocation 1 2 3 4 5

6. Which aspects of the educational management functions have been decentralised as far as the senior high school administration is concerned?

I. Organisation of instruction

- i. Selection of their textbooks 1 2 3 4 5
- ii. Selection of teaching methods 1 2 3 4 5
- iii. Selection of school curricula 1 2 3 4 5

II. Personnel Management.

- i. Hiring and firing of personnel 1 2 3 4 5
- ii. Assigning teaching responsibilities 1 2 3 4 5
- iii. Pre-service and in-service training 1 2 3 4 5
- iv. Admission of Students 1 2 3 4 5



III. Planning and structure

- i. School opening and closing 1 2 3 4 5
- ii. School course content 1 2 3 4 5
- iii. School improvement plans 1 2 3 4 5

IV. Monitoring and Evaluation

- i. Inspection and Supervision 1 2 3 4 5
- ii. Examination 1 2 3 4 5

7. Are the senior high schools more autonomous in terms of

- a. Supply of teaching and learning materials 1 2 3 4 5
- b. Maintenance of infrastructure, development and staffing 1 2 3 4 5

8. Please give reasons in support of your answer(s) to question 7 above?

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**Which functions have been decentralised**

9. In the implementation of the decentralisation policy, which of the following functions have been decentralised in the Senior High Schools?

- A. Deconcentration-shifting management responsibility from the central to school levels so that the centre retains control. 1 2 3 4 5
- B. Delegation–Giving authority to schools to function and report on behalf of central government. 1 2 3 4 5

C. Devolution – Develop and strengthen authority at the school level over financial, administrative or pedagogical matters. 1 2 3 4 5

**Type of training received by administrators**

10. Have you ever had the chance of attending any workshop/seminar on decentralisation of educational management?

a. Yes [ ]

b. No [ ]

11. If yes to Q12 above explain how beneficial this has been to you as an administrator?

a. Very beneficial [ ]

b. Beneficial [ ]

c. Not beneficial [ ]

12. Give reasons to support your answer to Q 11 above.

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**Challenges encountered by administrators and strategies adopted to cope with them**

13. What specific challenges do the heads face in managing their institutions in the implementation of the decentralisation policy?

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14. What strategies can they adopt to cope with the challenges stated above?

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## **APPENDIX F**

### **LIST OF SELECTED EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS**

1. Adisadel College
2. Christ the King Academy
3. Efutu Senior High Technical School
4. Ghana National College
5. Holy Child School
6. Mfanstipim School
7. Oguaa Senior High Technical School
8. St Augustine's College
9. University Practice Senior High School
10. Wesley Girls High School