ASSESSING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN IMPROVING BASIC EDUCATION DELIVERY IN THE GOMOA EAST DISTRICT, CENTRAL REGION GHANA

BY

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Thesis Submitted to the Department of Agricultural Economics and Extension, College of Agriculture, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy degree in Non-Governmental Organisation Studies and Community Development

MAY 2017
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:  Francis Ahiabor

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.

Principal Supervisor’s Signature:……………… Date:………………

Name: Dr. Albert Obeng Mensah

Co-Supervisor’s Signature:…………………… Date:………………

Name: Dr. William Gharrey
ABSTRACT

The main aim of this study was to investigate the extent to which communities in the Gomoa East District participate in improving basic education delivery. Specifically, the study looked at the activities that communities perform and the extent to which they engage in those activities to improve access, infrastructure development and academic performance, as well as ensuring effective monitoring and supervision. The sampled respondents consisted of basic school heads and teachers, School Management Committee, Parent Teacher Association and Unit Committee executives. Respondents were selected using the random sampling approach and questionnaire used as instrument for primary data collection. The study showed that community members were aware of the need to participate in the provision of basic education and saw their participation as very significant to improving education delivery. However, they had little knowledge on the specific roles they needed to play in the school to improve education delivery. The study also revealed that lack of understanding of educational issues, poor communication and lack of resources and time on the part of parents and community members in general were major setbacks to participation in education delivery in the area. This study also notes that the top three ways of improving education delivery were using local language at meetings, informing community members about positive things happening in the school and ensuring effective communication between the school and the community by involving community members in decision making about the school.
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DEDICATION

To my lovely wife Dorcas Arthur Kyeremeh, my sons Samuel Edem Vidzro
(Kaboo), Oswald Kekeli Ahiabor and bosom friend Dr. Prosper Kanyong
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DECLARATION</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEDICATION</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>ix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS</td>
<td>xi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background to the Study</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Objective of the Study</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specific Objectives of the Study</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Questions</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance of the Study</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delimitation</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitation</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition of Terms</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation of the Study</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning of Community and Participation</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Participation in Education</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forms and levels/degrees of Community Participation in Education</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Measuring Community Participation 27
Importance of Community Participation in education 29
Factors/Challenges that hinder Community Participation in Education 35
Ways of improving Community Participation in education delivery 38
Strategic initiatives to improve Basic Education delivery in Ghana 41
Theoretical Perspectives 50
Analytical Approach and Framework 57
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY 61
Introduction 61
Research Design 61
Population 62
Sample and Sampling Procedure 62
Research Instruments 63
Pre-Testing of Research Instrument 64
Data Collection Procedure 66
Data Analysis 66
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION 67
Introduction 67
Biographical Data of Respondents 68
Community’s view about the Importance of their Participation 72
Forms/Extent of Community Participation 77
Challenges to Community Participation in Improving Basic Education Delivery 84
Ways of Promoting Community Participation in Improving Basic Education Delivery 88
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Table Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Dimensions of community participation</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Composition of survey respondents</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Reliability Score for Pretested Instrument</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Reliability Score for Corrected Instrument</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Gender of Respondents</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Professional Qualification and Educational level of Respondents</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ladder of Participation</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Elements of Community Participation</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Structure of Community Participation</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Analytical Framework</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Mosaic plot showing Importance of Community Participation</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Mosaic plot showing Extent of Participation in promoting Access</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Mosaic plot showing Extent of participation in promoting academic performance</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Mosaic plot showing Extent of participation in improving educational infrastructure</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Mosaic plot showing Extent of participation in improving management, monitoring and supervision</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Mosaic plot showing Challenges to community participation</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Mosaic plot showing ways of Improving community participation</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADEOP</td>
<td>Annual District Education Operational Plans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADP</td>
<td>Accelerated Development Plan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBO</td>
<td>Community Based Organisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBPR</td>
<td>Community Based Participatory Research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CGPP</td>
<td>Community Government Partnership Programme</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CP</td>
<td>Community Participation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACF</td>
<td>District Assembly Common Fund</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEOC</td>
<td>District Education Oversight Committee</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEWP</td>
<td>District Education Work Plan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDC</td>
<td>Educational Development Center</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESP</td>
<td>Education Strategic Plan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCUBE</td>
<td>Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GES</td>
<td>Ghana Education Service</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GET Fund</td>
<td>Ghana Education Trust Fund</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GoG</td>
<td>Government of Ghana</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIPC</td>
<td>Highly Indebted Poor Countries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGF</td>
<td>Internally Generated Fund</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JHS</td>
<td>Junior High School</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KG</td>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA</td>
<td>Metropolitan Assembly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MESS</td>
<td>Ministry of Education Science and Sports</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRA</td>
<td>Participatory Rural Appraisal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTA</td>
<td>Parents’ Teacher Association</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SFEP</td>
<td>Social Forestry, Education and Participation Project</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMC</td>
<td>School Management Committee</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPAM</td>
<td>School Performance Appraisal Meetings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UC</td>
<td>Unit Committee</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nation Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPE</td>
<td>Universal Primary Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAT</td>
<td>Value Added Tax</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WCEFA</td>
<td>World Conference on Education for All</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Education is generally considered a key factor in the economic, political and social development of any nation. Over the years, it has become apparent that basic education generates substantial positive benefits to the pupils and the society in general (Abdinoor, 2008). It enhances the reasoning ability of the individual, increases the number of skilled human resource, national productivity and fosters good governance, which will ultimately lead to the overall economic growth of a country. Education in Ghana at the different levels namely, basic, secondary and the tertiary gives attention to human capital development; clearly this tends to result in economic development.

Basic education is not only compulsory in Ghana, but a right for all citizens in the country, and it is the responsibility of the parent as well as the community as a whole to make sure that children of school going age attend school to acquire the basic skills, knowledge, values and attitude which will shape them for life. Even though the school lays the foundation for the skills, knowledge, values and attitudes to be acquired, and talents to be nurtured for the development of the nation, this can only be achieved through effective collaboration between the state, parents, the community as well as the teachers.

Investing in people’s education is becoming more important for future economic growth. It also helps a nation to depend less on its depleting
natural resources by promoting individual development, which in turn gives people the ability to escape hunger and poverty (Abdinoor, 2008).

It is without doubt that, any country, which is unable to develop the skills and knowledge of its people and to utilize them effectively in the national development, will be unable to develop anything else. This is because improving the capacity of people through education enable them to exploit and utilize other resources effectively and efficiently; thus, helps to end hunger and poverty through the reduction of unemployment and acceleration of economic growth. Therefore, there is the need for community schools stakeholders to understand the relevance of education and collaborate with the government and other relevant agencies for the education of the younger generation (Namphande, 2007). Consequently, the provision of quality education to children cannot be overemphasized.

This need has resulted in making educators, policymakers and others involved in education to seek ways for the efficient utilization of limited resources, and to identify and solve problems in the education sector. Their efforts have contributed to realizing the significance and benefits of community participation in education, and have recognized community participation as one of the strategies to improve educational access, infrastructure, management, supervision and performance (Uemura, 1999a).

There is growing interest to improve education delivery in developing countries through community participation (Stiglitz, 2002; Mansuri & Rao, 2012). Many countries have created local institutions, such as school committees and Parent Teacher Associations to coordinate this. However, it has been recently revealed that some of these institutions fail to
live up to their mandate (Duflo, Dupas, & Kremer, 2012). They pointed out that community participation is not something new in the delivery of education neither is it a panacea to solve complex education related problems. In fact, not all communities, in the past, have played a passive role in children’s education, the authors stressed. Backing this assertion, Williams (1994) stresses that, until the middle of the last century, responsibility for educating children rested with communities. Although there are still places where communities organize themselves to operate schools for their children today, community participation in education delivery according to Ahwoi, (2010) has not fully gain root in several communities.

Article 7 of the World Declaration on Education for All that emerged from the World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA), which was held in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990, states that “national, regional and local educational authorities have a unique obligation to provide basic education for all, but they cannot be expected to supply every human, financial or organizational requirement for this task” (World Conference on Education for All [WCEFA], 1990). New and revitalized partnerships at all levels will be necessary: partnerships among all sub-sectors and forms of education; partnerships between government and non-governmental organizations, the private sector, local communities, religious groups and families (WCEFA, 1990).

Because basic learning needs are complex and diverse, meeting them require multi-sectorial strategies and actions which are integral to overall development efforts. Many partners must join with the education authorities,
teachers, and other educational personnel in delivering basic education if it is to be seen, once again, as the responsibility of the entire society. Article 7 of the WCEFA further states that, genuine partnerships contribute to the planning, implementing, managing and evaluating of basic education programmes. When we speak of an expanded vision and a renewed commitment, partnerships are at the heart of it (WCEFA, 1990). This implies the active involvement of a wide range of partners, families, teachers, communities, private enterprises (including those involved in information and communication), government and non-governmental organizations, institutions, etc. in planning, managing and evaluating the many forms of basic education (WCEFA, 1990).

In line with Ghana’s decentralization process, the Education for All/Fast Track Initiative, and the Paris declaration on Aid Effectiveness, Participatory Approach was recommended for education planning at the various levels of education (Addae-Boahene, 2007). Therefore, stakeholders such as Unit Committees (UC), School Management Committees/Parent Teacher Associations (SMC/PTAs), and Community and Religious Leaders (CRLs) were to be part of the planning and implementation of the various educational decentralization plans (Ministry of Education, 2003).

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

In order to strengthen community ownership of schools, School Management Committees (SMCs) were set up across the country to strengthen Community Ownership of schools. These committees are to make school authorities and teachers more responsible and accountable. Also, they are to strengthen the management and administration of schools. Added to the School Management Committee (SMCs) are Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs). The PTAs and the SMCs were created with the intention, among other things, to enhance communities’ sense of ownership and participation in education service delivery (Akyeampong, 2007). These bodies which are recognized in Ghana’s educational sector can bring improvement in educational pursuits and consequently the human resource development of the nation if they are helped to function well.

However, the SMCs together with PTAs in the basic schools now aim at forging stronger links between the home, the school and the community; bringing parents and school authorities to work jointly for the development of the school, to raise funds to support infrastructural projects, and/or provide some basic needs like furniture, sports equipment, library books and supplementary school requirements (Addae-Boahene, 2007). The Whole School Development (WSD) programmes have over the years trained community participation coordinators in all the districts and municipalities in the country. The programmes were also able to collaborate with the Inspectorate Division of the Ghana Education Service (GES) to train district personnel on how to conduct School Performance Appraisal Meeting
(SPAM). At SPAM, school management committees, teachers and the rest of the community meet to discuss the results of pupils’ performance on Performance Monitoring Test (PMT) administered locally and from the deliberations on the data draw up plans to improve the quality of schooling (GES, 2004).

The fact still remains that Community Participation activities should lead to a better sense of ownership of schools on the part of parents and other community stakeholders/members. This will in turn help to ensure that education provided is of good quality and relevant to children’s future lives. Additionally, it should also lead to increased support to schools from their communities in areas of financial and other contributions (Addae-Boahene, 2007).

In the past, according to the Educational Development Centre (EDC), some Ghanaian communities have played a vital role in the development and provision of education. Many of the basic schools in Ghana were originally initiated by communities. They independently recruited teachers and provided places of learning for their children. As the schools progressed, they were absorbed into the public school system. This led to management and control of the schools shifting to central government and the subsequent decrease in community involvement EDC (2012). This gradual centralized control and management of the education delivery system over a long period has had a reverse effect on the local community commitment and involvement in the quality, management and access or participation in education in Ghana.
The Ministry of Education (MOE) and Ghana Education Service (GES) recognize the importance of reciprocal partnership of school-community stakeholders in effecting changes in the schools. Under the Free, Compulsory, Universal, Basic Education (FCUBE) era, the MOE and GES have committed themselves to building a systematic approach to assisting community organizations to play a major part in the regeneration of their schools. It is the belief of the MOE and GES that communities which in most cases are made up of parents have an important role to play in enforcing standards, developing and maintaining school infrastructure, and creating a partnership between teachers, pupils and district authorities (GES, 2011).

Statement of the Problem

All over the world, educators, policymakers, as well as stakeholders, are making frantic efforts to find ways of utilizing scarce resources in the education sector more effectively and efficiently. There is an attempt to gather appropriate resources in the educational sector to provide good quality education for all children of school-going age. The central government is one big organization in a modern state that can obtain the chunk of the needed resources to provide education for all (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975) cited in Addae-Boahene (2007).

Despite all the good efforts made over the years and are being made, it is evident that the government, being the major stakeholder in education, has difficulties providing every educational need and, therefore, stands to gain immensely when communities take part in the educational delivery. Community participation in education has existed for quite some time now
and most communities have played active roles when it comes to educational delivery in their area. Williams (1994) cited in Bekoe and Quartey (2013), stated that until the middle of the twentieth century, responsibility for providing educational facilities for children rested more with the community.

Community participation in the provision of education is gaining more grounds because it ensures a sense of belongingness and ownership of the educational facility. Many attempts have been made over the years by governments to involve communities in the education process. For instance, the Accelerated Development Plan (ADP) of 1951 encouraged the local councils and the people to partly fund and implement basic education in their communities. The 2003 Education Strategic Plan (ESP) introduced by the Ministry of Education was one of such initiatives. Under the participatory approach to education planning initiative, stakeholders such as School Management Committees, Parent Teacher Associations (SMC/PTAs), District Assembly (DA), and Unit Committees are to be active participants in the planning and implementation of education programs and projects (Ministry of Education, 2003). Following Ghana’s decentralization process, and shift from the traditional planning approach in the education system, the District Education Strategic Plan (DESP) was introduced to ensure full participation and ownership of the local stakeholders in the education programs in their own communities (Addae-Boahene, 2007).

Despite the institutional and policy changes made to achieve multi-stakeholder involvement in educational delivery, in the Gomoa East District of the Central Region of Ghana, the involvement of some of the
communities in improving basic education delivery has not been forthcoming or not encouraging (District Education Directorate Report, 2014). The reason(s) for this situation in this District have not been studied yet. This aside, the seemingly limited community participation in the schools’ activities most often results in policy failures or, in some cases, poor academic performance, because the government cannot do it all alone. It will require the involvement of other stakeholders such as community members to improve education delivery in the area (Addae-Boahene, 2007).

A School Performance Appraisal Meeting (SPAM) report presented by the district director of education cited low community/stakeholder participation as a major cause of the deplorable conditions of schools in the district and the poor performance of schools in the district in the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE). The success of most basic schools depends largely on the kind of community participation in the schools’ activities. The standard of education at most schools in the district has not been encouraging over the years due to the lack of participation of community members in promoting education (SPAM Report, 2014). Community members who are the parents and guardians of the pupils in the school seem not to care about anything that concerns the school. This does not augur well for the achievement of quality education in the district.

It is against this background that the research deems it necessary to ascertain stakeholders/community contribution in improving basic education delivery in the district with a view to determining what could be done to encourage greater involvement.
General Objective of the Study

The main objective of this study is to assess community participation in improving basic education delivery in the Gomoa East District in the Central Region of Ghana. The specific objectives and research questions for this thesis are given below.

Specific Objectives of the Study

Specifically, this study sought to:

1. Examine community/stakeholders view about the importance of their participation in improving education delivery in the District.

2. Discover the forms and the extent to which the community participate to improve basic education delivery relating to promoting access, performance, infrastructure and management, monitoring and supervision.

3. Identify the factors/challenges that hinder community members in their efforts to improve basic education delivery in the District.

4. Identify effective ways of promoting community participation in improving basic education delivery in the District.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following questions:

1. What is the community’s view on the importance of their participation in improving basic education delivery in the district?

2. What form and to what extent do community’s participate to improve basic education delivery relating to promoting access, performance, infrastructure and management, monitoring and supervision
3. What are the factors/challenges that hinder community members in their effort to improve basic education delivery in the district?

4. What are the effective ways of promoting community participation in improving basic education delivery in the district?

Significance of the Study

The study hopes to encourage stakeholders in education to participate fully in education delivery in the Gomoa East District. Furthermore, the findings will serve as a source of information to parents, students, teachers, traditional rulers and other stakeholders. NGOs, Parents and other groups working to promote community participation will be fully aware of the kind of support required of them to make education delivery a success.

The findings of this study will help teachers and officers of the Gomoa East Educational Directorate to play their expected roles to develop basic education in the district. Again, the study will provide PTAs and SMCs in various schools with strategies to improve the learning conditions of their schools.

Furthermore, the findings envisage informing the community members on the need to join hands with the government in the provision of basic education in their locality. The findings of this study will also add to the existing body of knowledge about community participation in basic education delivery in Ghana and how this concept is being implemented around the country.

Delimitation

The scope of the study was limited to community participation in basic education (kindergarten up to Junior High Schools) in the Gomoa East
District. The researcher specifically aimed at dealing with the Unit Committees, School Management Committees (SMCs), Parent Teacher Associations, Teachers and Head teachers in the district.

This study covered some selected public basic schools in the Gomoa East District; the reason was that these categories of schools have similarities and peculiar problems. Consequently, a good representative of the target group could help to generalize the findings to all public basic schools in the Gomoa East District.

This study would be confined to issues related to community involvement in the delivery of basic education, particularly touching on the role played to develop basic education, the role played in the monitoring and supervision, the community’s support towards improving access to and performance of basic education and the challenges encountered in the provision of basic education in the Gomoa East District.

**Limitation**

During data collection for the study, questionnaires were distributed to respondents to complete after which they were collected some days later. There was a challenge in getting a sufficient number of the questionnaire completed and returned for meaningful analysis to be made in the descriptive survey approach used on the first round of collection. However, with the assistance of engaged staffs and a multiple visits to the schools/communities by the researcher a return rate of 97.5% was recorded.
Definition of Terms

Community schools

The term Community Schools used in this study refers exclusively to government assisted basic school sometimes called Public Schools. These are schools that receive Capitation Grant and teaching and learning materials from the government through the District Education Offices and the District Assemblies. Examples of these schools includes the District Assembly(DA), Municipal and Metropolitan Assembly (MA) and Mission schools run by the government in the various communities in the district.

Basic education

In this study, basic education will be taken as referring to education instruction children receive in the first 9 years of their formal education. This is because in Ghana, most of the community schools are by design supposed to offer the first 9 years of basic education. In addition, the community schools I will carry out my study fall in this category that offer primary education according to the definition I have given.

Stakeholders

Stakeholders herein are defined as those individuals, groups of people who have interest in and are affected by decisions and policies about their community school. Hence, this thesis focuses on stakeholders that are mandated in one way or the other to see to the development of their schools. They include teachers, PTAs, SMCs, Unit Committees, Assembly men and women among others.
Organization of the Study

This study would be organized into five main chapters. Chapter one covered the introduction of the study. It comprises the background to the study, statement of the problem and purpose of the study. Additionally, it set out the four research questions that the study would be expected to answer, significance of the study, delimitations and the limitations of the study.

Chapter two contained the review of related literature on the subject. Some of the areas reviewed included; community participation, community participation in education, forms/levels of community participation, importance of community participation in education and challenges to community participation in education.

Chapter three dealt with the method that was used to conduct the research. It comprised the research design, population of the study, sample and sampling procedure, data collection procedure, instrument testing, administration of instrument and data analysis plan. The analysis of results and findings from the study was discussed in chapter four. These included the background characteristics of respondents, roles played by the community to develop basic education, and the challenges facing the communities in the delivery of basic education.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

In recent times, community participation in education has become a global concern of all stakeholders in the educational enterprise (Kalemba, 2013). This has led to educational discourse among eminent and prolific writers all over the world. Literature review concerning this study would focus on the following sub-headings:

1. Meaning of community participation
2. Forms, levels and measurement of community participation
3. Measuring community participation
4. Importance of community participation in education
5. Effect of community participation and the development of basic education
6. Challenges to community participation in education.
7. Ways of improving community participation in the development of basic education.
8. Theoretical Perspectives
9. Analytical Framework/Approach

Meaning of Community and Participation

A Community

According to Mathie and Cunningham (2003), community is a slippery concept. It is used in a range of senses such as denoting actual groups of people as in a village, neighborhood or ethnicity boundary. It can also refer to particular qualities expected among people as in ‘a sense of
community’. Bray (2000) contends that there are 94 alternative definitions of community and observes that the list is still not exhaustive. Without going too deeply into the matter, it is useful based on the observation by Bray (2000) to note that a community has at least some common features such as; a network of shared interests and concerns, a symbolic or physical base, an extension beyond the narrowly-defined household and has something that distinguishes it from other similar groups. For the purpose of this research, the study defines a community as people living in a defined locality and/or other people or organizations outside the local community who share common interests with the local people.

**Participation**

The widespread use of the language of participation in development across a spectrum of institutions, from radical NGOs to local government and even to the World Bank raises questions about the exact meaning of this buzzword. According to Cornwall (2008), participation can be used to “signify almost anything that involves people”. Mikkelsen (2005) quoting the world bank defines participation as a process through which stakeholders have an opportunity to contribute, influence and share control over development initiatives and make decisions over the use and control of resources that affect them. On the other hand, Dale (2000) adds another dimension and contends that participation may also refer to the involvement of a range of other stakeholders who may have different interests and abilities. For the purpose of this study, the definition of ‘participation’ by Mikkelsen (2005) would be adopted to guide the study as this fits activities/events taking place in the area being considered in this study.
Community Participation

Community participation normally refers to the involvement of members of a community in decision making process and common goal achievement. According to Caveye (2010), community participation in development context refers to “involvement by members of a community to predetermined programs and objectives with assistance of external intervention”. The involvement and endorsement of community members in intervention programs or initiatives from a government bodies, community based organization, non-governmental organization or corporate groups can serve as illustration of community participation or involvement. Community participation has been described as an active involvement of defined community at least in some aspect of project design and implementation where the key objectives are the incorporation of local knowledge into the project’s or initiative’s decision making process (Mansuri & Rao, 2013).

A more complex definition have been proposed by Ratanavaraha and Jomnonkwao (2013) as a process of enabling people to involve in planning and implementation of development initiatives with collaborative thinking and decision making on their problems. It involves the use of mutually creative generation of knowledge and skill alongside appropriate guiders as well as monitoring organization and related staffs implementation, thus, resulting in increasing level of living and solving community problems.

Community participation is defined by Grant (1979) as an expression of political decentralization which entrusts to more than one group of citizens, all or some position of decision making responsibilities formally reserved for the professional administration. Community participation in
education is that in which citizens and social agencies affected by the
schools are partners in making important school policy decision in areas
such as selection of school personnel, infrastructure, budget and plans for
integration (Narwana, 2010). One can therefore say that community
participation in education is a process whereby the community in which the
school is situated share common responsibilities in providing quality
education for the children in the society.

For the purpose of this study, the definitions and the variables
indicating desired participation in education delivery outlined by Grant
(1979) which includes efficiency in resource use, good academic
performance, improved access etc. would be adopted for the study and
analysis.

**Community Participation in Education**

Education takes place not only in schools but also within families,
communities, and society (Uemura, 1999a). Despite the various degrees of
responsibilities taken by each group, none can be the sole agent to take 100
% responsibility for educating children. Parents and families cannot be the
only group of people for children’s education as long as their children
interact with and learn from the world outside their families. Communities
and society must support parents and families in the upbringing, socializing,
and educating of their children. Schools are institutions that can prepare
children to contribute to the betterment of the society in which they operate,
by equipping them with skills important in society. Schools cannot and
should not operate as separate entities within society (Uemura, 1999b).
Since each group plays a different role in contributing to children’s education, there must be efforts to make a bridge between them in order to maximize their contributions. Education takes place most efficiently and effectively when these different groups of people collaborate. Accordingly, it is important to establish and continuously attempt to develop partnerships between schools, parents, and communities. Studies have identified various ways of community participation in education, providing specific channels through which communities can be involved in children’s education.

Colletta and Perkins (1995) illustrate various forms of community participation: (a) research and data collection; (b) dialogue with policymakers; (c) school management; (d) curriculum design; (e) development of learning materials; and (f) school construction. Heneveld and Craig (1996) recognized parent and community support as one of the key factors to determine school effectiveness in Sub-Saharan Africa. They identify five categories of parent and community support that are relevant to the region: (1) children come to school prepared to learn; (2) the community provides financial and material support to the school; (3) communication between the school, parents, and community is frequent; (4) the community has a meaningful role in school governance; and (5) community members and parents assist with instruction.

Williams (1994) argues that there are three models of Education and Community. The first one is traditional community-based education, in which communities provide new generations of young people with the education necessary for transmitting local norms and economic skills. In this model, education is deeply embedded in local social relations, and school
and community are closely linked. The government, being of little use in meeting the specialized training needs of industrialized economies, plays a minor role, providing little basis for political integration at the national level.

The second model is government-provided education, in which governments have assumed responsibility for providing and regulating education. The content of education has been largely standardized within and across countries, and governments have diminished the role of the community. However, a lack of resources and management incapability has proven that governments cannot provide the community with adequate educational delivery, fully-equipped school buildings, and a full range of grades, teachers and instructional materials. This triggers the emergence of the collaborative model, in which community plays a supportive role in government provision of education.

Epstein (1995, 1997) suggested ways to help children succeed in school and later life, and focuses on partnerships of schools, families, and communities that attempt to: (a) improve school programs and school climate; (b) provide family services and support; (c) increase parents’ skills and leadership; (d) connect families with others in the school and in the community; and (e) help teachers with their work. The author summarizes various types of involvement to explain how schools, families, and communities can work productively together:

1. Parenting— to help all families to establish home environments that support children’s learning at schools
2. Communicating— to design effective forms of school-to-home and home-to-school communication that enable parents to learn about
school programs and their children’s progress in schools as well as teachers to learn about how children do at home

3. Volunteering – to recruit and organize parent help and support

4. Learning at home – to provide information and ideas to families about how to help students at home with home-work and other curriculum-related activities, decisions, and planning

5. Decision making – to include families in school decisions, to have parent leaders and representatives in school meetings; and

6. Collaborating with the community – to identify and integrate resources as well as services from the community in order to strengthen school programs, family practices, and student learning (p. 74).

Community participation in education from the above discussions, can be summarized as the various activities that parents/guardians and other stakeholders perform that are geared toward enhancing pupils comfort, performance and achievement.

**Forms and levels/degrees of community participation in education**

The term “participation and education delivery” can be interpreted in various ways, depending on the context. Shaeffer (1994) clarifies different degrees or levels of participation, and provides seven possible definitions of the term in education delivery, including involvement through:

1. The mere use of a service (such as enrolling children in school or using a primary health care facility)

2. The contribution (or extraction) of money, materials, and labor
3. ‘attendance’ (e.g. at parents’ meetings at school), implying passive acceptance of decisions made by others
4. Consultation on a particular issue
5. Participation in the delivery of a service, often as a partner with other actors.
6. Participation as implementers of delegated powers; and
7. Participation in “real decision making at every stage,” including identification of problems, the study of feasibility, planning, implementation, and evaluation (p. 23)

Shaeffer (1994) stresses that the first four definitions use the word involvement and connote largely passive collaboration, whereas the last three items use the word participation instead, implying a much more active role. Shaeffer further provides some specific activities that involve a high degree of participation in a wider development context, which can also be applied in the education sector. These have been categorized into four major groups with their respective activities to help in the determination and analysis of various stakeholders’ levels of participation in education delivery in the study area:

**Access Promotion**

Ensuring regular attendance

Ensuring stay and completion

Advocating enrollment

Offering education benefits

Advocating girls education
Identifying factors contributing to educational problems such as low enrollment, high repetition and dropouts.

**Improving Performance**

Boosting moral of school staff
Supporting teachers
Attending school meetings to learn about children learning progress
Providing skill instruction
Helping children with studying
Garnering more teaching and learning resources
Preparation of children readiness for school, by providing them with adequate materials and stimuli for cognitive development.

**Infrastructural Development**

Providing accommodation and security for teachers
Making decision about school location and schedules
Contributing in labour, materials, land and funds
Constructing, repairing and improving school facilities

**School Management, Monitoring and Supervision**

Raising money for school activities
Monitoring and following up on teachers attendance and performance
Forming village education committees to manage schools
Scheduling school calendars
Handling the budget to operate school (Shaeffer, 1994).

Cornwall (2008) proposes the importance of understanding the differing degrees and kinds of participation. In this vein, Cornwall advises that most typologies of participation carry a normative assumption which
places different forms of participation along an axis of good to bad participation. Many of these typologies and ladders of participation have been produced based on the intentions of those who produced them. Among them, Arnstein’s (1969) ladder of participation is one of the best known and it was originally developed in the late 1960s but still retains contemporary relevancy. Arnstein’s Ladder of participation is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Ladder of Participation (Source: Kalembe, 2013).

According to Arnstein (1969), Citizen Control appears at the top of the ladder, representing good forms of participation with a category at the bottom of non-participation in which therapy and manipulation are placed. On this ladder, a distinction is made between Citizen Power which includes Citizen Control, delegated power and partnership, and tokenism in which she includes consultation, informing and placation. Arnstein’s ladder is important for this study because it will help explain the stage along the ladder in which stakeholders’ participation in the studied community schools would fall. This will help to give insight on the kind of participation which exists in community schools and areas for improvement will be identified.
According to Lyndon, Selvadurai, Mat, Besar, Aznie, Ali and Rahim (2012), community participation usually have several elements such as planning and implementation, monitoring and evaluation (Figure 2) and it is essential to community participation in that the members of the community should discuss, consult and reach consensus among them about any program or initiatives to be implemented in their community so all members could benefit and as a result enhance their quality of life.

Figure 2: Elements of community participation (Source: Lyndon et al., 2012)

Thus, Kalembe (2013) suggested that successful community participation must contain support for grassroots community level, the establishment and strengthening of networks among stakeholders and a commitment to accelerate the programme to ensure it influence the majority. However, all these indicators seem to be criteria of evaluation for a specific program rather than issues that constitute community participation. Therefore, Wilson and Wilde (2003) propose four dimension of community participation that can contribute to a better understanding of community participation instead of trying to define it through evaluation criteria (Table 1).
Table 1- Four Dimensions of community participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influence</td>
<td>How specific programs involve communities in the shaping of regeneration plans/activities and in all decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusivity</td>
<td>How specific programs ensure all groups and interest in the community can participate and the ways in which inequality is addressed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>How specific program develop effective ways of sharing information with communities and clear procedures that maximize community participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity</td>
<td>How specific program provide the resources required by community to participate and support both local people and those from other group/agencies/shareholders to develop their understanding, knowledge and skill</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cavaye (2010) describes community participation as being like “onion rings” (Figure 3). At the center of the “core” of community efforts, there is a small number of highly committed and motivated people. Around the “core” these are the people who get involved in the activities organized by the core and provide the support to the core’s initiatives, these are known as “participant”. In the third ring, there are the “observers”, these are the people who normally watch and/or critically monitor the progress of the activities and initiatives developed by the “core” and supported by the “participants”.

Although “observers” might have interest and they do not yet become actively involved. Around the “observers”, there is a larger circle that consisted of the people that are “aware” of the activities organized and taken place in the community but are not interested to participate in such programs or activities. The last circle is constituted by the people in the community that are not aware of any of the activities or programs happening in their community.
Measuring Community Participation

Community participation in research is hypothesized to increase the potential for designing, implementing and sustaining interventions that better fits community needs (Israel, Schulz, Parker & Becker, 2001), enhance community capacity (Minkler, Vasquez, Tajik, & Peterson, 2008), and lead to policy changes (Cook, 2008). Despite increasing interest in the use of Community-Based Participatory Research (CBPR) (Viswanathan, Amerman, and Eng, 2004) and Community-Partnered Participatory Research (CPPR) (Jones, Koegel, & Wells, 2008) approaches, validated measures of the extent of community partners’ participation in various educational development initiatives have yet to be developed. Without high quality measures, it is impossible to empirically ascertain the value and impact of active community engagement in education delivery (Wallerstein, 2006).

In their article on “Measuring Community Participation in Research” Mikesell, Bromley, and Khodyakov (2013) offered two new approaches to
measuring community participation in research: a nominal-level measure suitable for either self-administered survey or an interview protocol and a set of items best fielded as close-ended items in a survey or interview. They argued that the three-model approach has high face validity and provides a simple description of the perception of community participation in research activities and offers a framework for asking additional, open-ended questions about how community partners are engaged in educational activities. They however, conceded that though useful for uncovering complexity of community participation, such as identifying the difference in community and academic perspectives and illustrating how community stakeholders’ roles change as the project evolves, the three-model approach may not be the best choice for capturing, and assigning numeric values to multiple dimensions of community engagement, which suggests that it may suffer from low level of content validity.

Therefore, for the purposes of quantifying the extent of community participation in this study, these approaches would be suitable especially, since several activities and multiple partners are required to participate in the survey. Instructions for respondents would indicate simply taking part in a meeting/communal labour or being a member of a group and performing any school related activities (Green & Fletcher, 2003). It is widely recognized that measuring these subjects is not straightforward and the methodology employed in surveys plays a part in influencing the levels of involvement. Interpreting data from different surveys and sources needs an awareness and understanding of how different approaches and variations in questioning techniques may influence responses. Thus, without adopting the desire
approaches or methodologies appropriate or desired responses may not be obtain.

**Importance of Community Participation in Education**

The goal of any kind of activity that attempts to involve community and families/parents in education according to Cornwall (2008) is to improve the educational delivery so that more children learn better and are well prepared for the changing world. There are various reasons to support the idea that community participation contributes to achieving this goal.

Extensive literature research has resulted in identifying the following rationales that explain the importance of community participation in education. Hall (2011), Honda and Kato (2013) observed that involving community members could lead to strengthening accountability in school management. Again, Blimpo, Evans, and Lahire (2014) found that effective community participation leads to improved student learning in rural communities in Kenya. Oakley (1991) pointed out that the benefits or achievements of people’s participation include the following:

**Efficiency**: there is a greater chance that available resources will be used more efficiently when there is greater participation in a project. It is cost effective because local people take responsibility and administer the project.

**Effectiveness**: participation allows people to use their resources and skills in a more effective way.

**Self-reliance**: participation allows people to think about solutions instead of focusing on their problems thereby sustaining the project. It actually removes the mentality of being dependant, but rather people become aware
of the problems and they become more confident and this fosters greater independence.

**Coverage:** most government programs do not reach out to all those in need hence participation of non-state actors will reach and provide services to underserved areas, (p.56).

A World Bank Report (2012) cited the Maximization of Limited Resources as one of the benefits of community participation in education delivery. The Report noted among other things that learning materials as well as human resources are limited everywhere, particularly in developing countries. The focus therefore has shifted to finding efficient and effective ways to utilize existing limited resources. Although some communities have historically been involved in their children’s education, it has not been fully recognized that communities themselves have resources to contribute to education, and they can be resources by providing local knowledge for their children. Involving parents, families, and communities in the process of research and data collection can reveal to them factors that contribute to lower enrollment and attendance, and poor academic performance in their schools.

Furthermore, parents are usually concerned about their children’s education, and often are willing to provide assistance that can improve the educational delivery. In places where teacher absenteeism and poor performance are critical issues, parents can be part of the system of monitoring and supervising teachers, ensuring that teachers arrive at classrooms on time and perform effectively in the classrooms. Parents and communities are powerful resources to be utilized not only in contributing to
the improvement of educational delivery but also in becoming the core agent of the education delivery. In Madagascar, the report noted for example, where Government investments at the primary level have been extremely low, parents and communities contribute money, labour and materials (World Bank 2004). The absence of government support leaves the school infrastructure, equipment, and pupil supplies to the parents and the community. As a result, community and parents are in the center in keeping the schools going (World Bank, 2004).

Goldring, (1994); Colleta and Perkins, (1995) argued that communities’ and parents’ involvement helps provide curriculums and learning materials that reflect children’s everyday lives in society. When children use textbooks and other materials that illustrate their own lives in their community, they can easily associate what they are learning with what they have already known. Goldring (1994) cited examples in Papua New Guinea, where community schools set the goal to link the culture of the pupils’ home community with the culture of the school. Accordingly, the schools consider the community as the center of learning as well as the focus of education. As a result, the community schools have become central to the national curriculum development which enables community life, such as festivals, customs, musical instruments, and local business activities, to be reflected in the curriculum (Goldring, 1994).

Colleta and Perkins (1995) also mentioned another example in Colombia’s Escuela Nueva program for multi-grade schools that incorporates a number of innovative components, including community participation in school curriculum. In each learning task, self-instructional
textbooks guide students to identify examples and cultural elements from their own experience and allow local materials to be accumulated in the learning centers. The oral tradition is transcribed and classified. Local crafts, jobs and economic activities, health problems, geography, landscapes, transport, sports, dances, food, animals, vegetation, and minerals are also described and classified for use in learning experiences. Children in Escuela Nueva are using curriculum relevant to their way of life and that of their communities, which helps develop a series of basic learning needs, skills, attitudes, values, and knowledge that enable the children to continue learning and applying what they learn in their communities.

World Bank (1995a) stated in its report that communities can help identify and address factors that contribute to educational problems, such as low participation and poor academic performance. The report cited a case study in the Gambia, in which the techniques of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) were adapted to education. The work was carried out in order to understand why girls do not attend schools, to mobilize communities around these problems, and to assist them in organizing their own solutions (World Bank, 1995a). Thirteen local researchers were trained in PRA which allowed the participation of all groups in a community, including illiterate and literate, young and old, females and males. A sample of seven rural villages was selected, in which a team of researchers worked with residents focusing on group discussions, mapping of the village, calendars of income and expenditure, and matrices of community and education problems. The research revealed that key disincentives to educating girls were related to: (a) inadequate supply of schools, particularly
middle schools; (b) high costs of schooling; (c) higher risk of early pregnancy; (d) loss of respect for traditional values, particularly obedience and humility towards husbands; and (e) perceptions, particularly among men, that girls will be less successful in life generally. A further step was taken in two of the seven communities where residents were invited to select six important problems from a longer list that they had developed previously which they could begin to address in a practical way, utilizing mainly their own resources. Various options for solving problems were devised and those seeming to have the highest chance of success were integrated into a Community Action Plan.

UNICEF (1992) suggested that community participation can contribute to promoting girls’ access to education. Through participating in school activities and frequently communicating with teachers, parents and communities can learn that girls’ education contributes to the improvement of various aspects of their lives, such as increased economic productivity, improved family health and nutrition, reduced fertility rates, and reduced child mortality rates. Involving parents and communities in discussions as part of school activities also helps to identify factors that prevent girls from schooling. Parents are encouraged to express their concern, and reasons why they are not sending their daughters to school. For instance, many parents in rural areas are reluctant to send their daughters to schools located in distance areas, because of concern about the security of their daughters on the way to and from the school, the report noted. In addition, since girls are important labors in the household, helping their mothers to do the chores and take care of their young siblings. The time that requires going to and from school
seems too much to waste for the parents. These issues are serious obstacles and have to be addressed and overcome in order to promote girls’ education. Involving parents and communities in school activities also helps to identify possible teachers in the community, especially local female teachers which greatly help girls’ education. Furthermore, in places where communities are indifferent in girls’ education, elderly people or religious leaders who are respected by community members can convince them to send their girls to schools, if the dialogue with these respected people takes place successfully.

Finally, Cariño and Valismo, (1994) have argued that community participation in education helps in creating a nourishing school atmosphere and a positive Community-School Partnerships. They suggested various ways to bring parents and community members closer to schools which they serve, including: (a) minimizing discontinuities between schools and communities, and between schools and families; (b) minimizing conflicts between schools and communities, schools and families, teachers and parents, and what is taught in school and what is taught at home; (c) making easy transition of pupils going from home to school; (d) preparing pupils to engage in learning experiences; and (e) minimizing cultural shock of new entrants to schooling (Cariño & Valismo, 1994).

Communities can contribute to schools by sending respected community members, such as religious leaders or tribe heads, to the classrooms and talk about community history, traditions, customs, and culture, which have been historically celebrated in the community. Schools themselves can contribute to community efforts by developing sustainable solutions to local problems. One example is found in the Social Forestry,

The purpose of the project is to change teaching, learning, and school-community relations by involving fifth and sixth grade students in studies of local village problems related to forest management. The students visited communities and asked questions about village history and the origins and causes of various forest-related problems. Community members helped them understand concepts taught in schools, and students used any resource available within the communities to enhance their understanding. In addition to gathering data from villagers, students went to nearby forests to study plants and animals as part of their regular science lessons.

Some local villagers came along as “experts” to help them understand various species indigenous to that village. McDonough and Wheeler (1998) examined the project and found that communities have much to contribute to the education of their youth. If given the chance to become more involved in the education of their youth, communities come to see that their knowledge about village history, social relations, and economic structure is relevant to what students could learn in school. In addition, the curriculum can be linked to daily life and teachers are able to use a much wider array of resources to improve student learning.

Factors/Challenges that Hinder Community Participation in education Delivery

Kumar and Corbridge (2002) observe that the perception that local people lack sufficient knowledge and skills to take control of projects is a major challenge affecting local people’s involvement in the education
planning process. This assertion is supported by Harriet, Anin, and Yussif, (2013) when they reported that low knowledge level and poor flow of information account for the low involvement and participation of stakeholders at the local level. Furthermore, local government officials fell threatened by the empowerment of the local steering committee, and accused them of being agents of political parties and thus hinders full commitment and participation from the local people (Wilcox, 2002; Addae-Boahene, 2007). Also the “notions of local empowerment according to Wilcox, (2002) ran contrary to the “elite mentality” of local officials, possibly inherited from the colonial past, who see the rural populace as primitive and lacking initiative to make productive contribution to education planning processes. Baku and Agyemang (2002) are of the view that the main problem inhibiting community participation in education delivery in our local communities are:

1. wrong timing of SMC/PTA meetings;
2. responsibilities assigned to the communities by government being beyond the capability of the communities;
3. failure on the part of education authorities to share information and
4. general lukewarm attitude of the local people arising from loss of interest toward participating in the planning process.

Also, Kolkman, Kok and van der Veen (2005) opined that differences in levels of knowledge between local citizens and government officials lead to mistrust and marginalization which affects local community participation. Language barrier is another factor that inhibits local participation. When the government representative and the local people do not speak the same language, the local people usually are excluded from
participating in decision making (Kolkman et al., 2005; Addae-Boahene, 2007). Mosse (2001) cited lack of organized structures at the community level, poor communication between government agencies and local community; 'bureaucratic red tape' especially where more than one government agency are involved, lack of or inadequate mobilization and participatory skills, and extension officers often considered as strangers by local people as factors that inhibit local community participation.

Addae-Boahene (2007) argues that there are several factors which impact the nature and quality of stakeholders’ participation within a service delivery organization. These factors include participation style, relationship, information sharing and interaction. There is a perception that stakeholders with reactive approach to planning processes gives sign of poor relationship between the community and the implementing agency. Local stakeholders with negative relationship with other stakeholders participate less frequently and to a lesser extent as compared to a stakeholder with positive relationship. Therefore ensuring positive relationship with all stakeholders during project planning and implementation is very crucial (Mansuri & Rao, 2003; International Association for Public Participation, 2006). Moreover, much emphasis on formal communication, such as written documentation in a specific format during project planning and implementation leads to participation challenges among stakeholders. On the other hand, informal communication strategies such as face-to-face communication and sketching lower overall complexity and cost and often improve time to advertise or share ideas. For this reason, it is imperative to balance formal and informal
communication strategies to ensure effective participation and involvement of local stakeholders.

Finally, where the implementation agency is co-located within the other stakeholders, it becomes much easier for them to interact regularly and actively but as the agency become more geographically distributed, the chances of project success decreases (Mansuri & Rao 2003; Chambers, 2005; World Bank, 2006).

**Ways of Improving Community Participation in Education Delivery**

Various authors have suggested various approaches of enhancing community participation in a project/education delivery. Addae-Boahene (2007) asserts that where local people are involved in decision-making at all stages of a project cycle, participation then becomes high and the best results follow and the opposite is true. Ameyaw-Akumfi (2001) also cited Addae-Boahene, (2007) indicating that most of the basic schools in Ghana were initiated by communities, which willingly recruits teachers and provided places of learning for their children. Most of these schools were later absorbed into the public system and the management and control of these schools then shifted to central government authorities with minimum community participation. This shift in the management and control of education delivery affected, to a large extent, the local community commitment and involvement in quality basic education delivery system. For example the SMC had a legal backing based on Ghana Education Service Act, 1995 in exercising their responsibilities within the school system.
Also, the 1987 Education Reform made provision towards community ownership of basic schools within a locality. It recognized provision of basic education as a joint venture between government and the communities where government provides curriculum materials, equipment, teachers, supervision and management. School Management Committee/Parent Teacher Association on their part donate or provide educational infrastructure, contributes to the teaching and learning process as resource persons and ensures access to education through registration of births, determination of the school-age population, moral persuasion or compulsion to get children enrolled, and imposed fines on defaulters. Heck (2003) indicates that self-formed and self-run groups and organizations approach is appropriate for full participation leading to empowerment of the poor. Other approach of ensuring community participation is the use of extension staff, community development and decentralized planning approaches. Government departments’ or ministries’ field staff or extension staff whose primary role is to provide a link between policy makers and the local people are used to achieve effective participation in planning and implementation of various projects including education related projects. They provide information about the needs of local areas, conduct impact assessment, mobilize local people and create awareness about roles and responsibilities, explain project planning and implementation, and assist in the implementation of projects (Nkunika, 1987).

Similarly, strategies and interventions such as training of teachers, SMCs, PTAs and Unit Committee members on their roles and responsibilities and participatory approaches such as community drama,
education forum, town meetings, reviews and updates, and public hearings among others to encourage and promote participation (Addae-Boahene, 2007). These impacts on participatory governance, participatory management, participatory planning, school performance monitoring, networking and coalition building, resource mobilization, advocacy, and district authorities’ responsiveness to education needs of citizens (Berends, 2009; World Bank, 2006; Gwang-Chol, 2006).

Duflo, Dupas, and Kremer (2012) found that contract teachers who were hired by school committees raised student test scores and that providing training for parents reduced rent seeking of centrally-hired civil-service teachers in Kenya. Das, Stefan, Habyarimana, Krishnan, and Muralidharan, (2013) found that providing grants to schools increased new student enrollment and improved school resources, although there was no impact on student test scores. Galiani, Sebastian, Gertler and Schargrodsky (2008) have shown that providing school grants and training for school committee members has limited or no impact, but that additional interventions such as the democratic election of committee members, and the facilitation of meetings between the school committee and the village authorities generate positive effects on student learning. These results show that grant giving and training have limited or no effects, but that linkage and elections have positive effects on student learning.

In Gambia, Blimpo, Evans, and Lahire (2014) found that comprehensive stakeholder training combined with school grants reduced student and teacher absence, and improved student learning in villages with high literacy, while it had the opposite results on learning in villages with
low literacy. Betancourt (2009) argued that people will participate if we make it easy for them to participate. Meetings must be schedule at convenient time for community members to attend. One must create multiple entry points and ways for people to get the chance to contribute to education delivery in their area. Thus, multiple measures have to be strategically adopted in our effort to enhancing community participation in education delivery.

**Strategic Initiatives to Improve Basic Education Delivery in Ghana**

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

**Educational Decentralization and Management**

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

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

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

As noted in the World Bank’s (2009) evaluation report, Schools in wealthier districts will benefit from both higher levels of district support and higher parental contributions, resulting in discrepancies in resource availability. The worst resourced schools are ‘bush schools’, that is, schools in off-road rural communities. Such schools have difficulty in attracting qualified teachers, and parents who are there can hardly afford any cash
contributions. There is growing dichotomy within the public sector between these schools and those of relatively more affluent parents in urban areas (World Bank, 2009).

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

**School Management Committee (SMC)**

The School Management Committee is a committee designated under the Ghana Education Service Act of 1994 (Mankoe, 2002). It is a school community based institution aimed at strengthening community participation and mobilization for education delivery. The SMC is a representation of the entire school community. The school community therefore becomes its constituency.

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

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

**Parent-Teacher Association (PTA)**

A parent-teacher association is an association of parent and teachers in a particular school or cluster of schools. Any parent, guardian or teachers who are interested in children’s education can also become members. According to Mankoe (2002), executive members of the PTA are Chairperson (parent), Vice chairperson (parent), Secretary (teacher), financial secretary (parent), treasurer (parent), first committee member (parent), second committee member (parent), third committee member (head teacher), and an ex-officio member (school welfare officer). The PTA performs the following functions:
1. Assist in school maintenance and repair of infrastructure
2. Negotiate for land for projects for the school, for example they negotiate for land for school farm and football field

3. Sees to the children or teachers welfare by provision of accommodation and school text books

4. Monitor pupils’ performance through regular visits

5. Helps in resolving conflict and problems

6. Helps in maintaining school discipline (MoE, 2013).

**District Education Oversight Committee (DEOC)**

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

1. Ensures proper implementation of educational policies at the local level

2. Assists in implementing the activities of the SMCs and PTAs

3. Provides necessary guidelines to enable schools to operate effectively

4. Provides some educational needs, example, furniture and roofing sheets (Mankoe, 2002).

**Financing of Basic Education**

According to Plato, the ancient philosopher, the provision of Basic Education to the members is a civil duty of the State. Empowered by this notion coupled with the government policy of FCUBE, it has increased financing availability to education at the Basic level. We identify four main sources of funds to the Basic level, namely the government, the district, internally generated fund and non-governmental agencies.
In 2004, the Government of Ghana introduced a capitation grant scheme for school operating budgets for primary schools as part of the strategy to decentralize education provision. Originally, it was introduced in 40 districts and later extended to 53 districts designated as deprived. In 2005, the scheme was extended nationwide. Currently, the capitation per child is on average GH4.50. Initial evidence indicated that its introduction had led to massive increases in enrolment (overall about an additional 17 percent rise at the basic education level). As a percentage of unit cost per primary school child, however, this amount is insignificant. In 2005, the actual unit cost for a child in a public primary school was GH 65 (approximately $60) (MESS, 2006). Thus, although the total capitation budget may be high, it has done little to raise the unit cost for a primary child and by implication the quality of education that child receives. The expansion due to capitation was linked to the ‘abolition’ of fees which was a requirement. In one particular district, additional enrolments included about 33 percent of children who had dropped out (MESS, 2006). But as expected, the surge in enrolments has brought new challenges and pressures on manpower and resources. Two key ones that have been identified by the Ministry of Education include the need to improve the infrastructure of public basic schools, and training of head teachers to manage the funds appropriately to deliver quality learning outcomes (MESS, 2006).

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

**Other Sources of Financing Basic Education**

Since the education reforms of 1987, substantial government and donor funds have gone into funding the basic education sector. Apart from government and external sources, non-statutory funding sources to education have included internally generated funds (IGF) arising from textbook user fees, local authority levies, local authority funds, contributions from school management committees, parent teacher associations (SMC/PTAs) and other benevolent societies. Since 1995, basic education in Ghana has been administered and funded under a sub-sector programme whose sources of funds generally break down as follows: (i) Ghana Government Ministry of Education Budget, (ii) External Funding Agencies (Development Partner contributions and HPIC relief funds), (iii) Ghana Education Trust Fund (GET Fund), (iv) District Assemblies Common Fund (DACF), (v) Internally Generated Funds (IGF), and (vi) Private Sector/Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and Community based Organizations (CBOs). The Government of Ghana budget takes care of personnel emolument (salary costs), administrative expenses, and service and investment activities, which leave very little for school expansion and infrastructure development. Teachers and Education managers’ salaries currently take up over 80 percent of the total education expenditure (MOESS, 2005). Resources from the DACF are mostly used to support the provision of infrastructure at the district level. IGF at the basic level are spent by the schools directly and
does not form part of the annual budget, but this represents a small percentage of DACF expenditure.

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

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

The Ministry of Education’s own analysis shows that in 2004, it cost about 14 times as much to educate a tertiary student as a primary student. This has dropped to 10 times but even so, if a serious attempt is to be made to enroll all out of school children this will mean finding more resources for the basic education sector. The expansion of basic education from 9 to 11 years, coupled with other commitments of the GOG to expand and improve access to post-basic education has huge financial and capacity implications. According to the 2006 sector performance report, the 10 year work plan for the education sector was estimated in May 15, 2006 to cost $15.4 billion (annually about $1.5 billion). Further increases in basic school enrolments would raise these levels even more. Unless, donors increase their investment significantly and directly to support the expansion of basic education,
increased enrolments will be difficult to sustain. Already, expenditure on primary education is falling behind the targets set in Ghana’s Education Strategic Plan. The lesson from history suggests that expanding access is not simply a question of adequate financial resources; it is also about the system’s capacity to address the non-financial constraints of expansion. Ensuring that children start school early is important but is no guarantee that they will complete the full cycle of basic education if the needed educational inputs and facilities are not present to mutually reinforce the effect (MESS, 2006).

Theoretical Perspectives

The study would adopt the Alternative Development Theory as the main theoretical underpinning for the research findings and analysis. The alternative development paradigm, used for this study would be discussed to give the reader a review on how the major development theories serve to explain the findings for this study. It is important to note that the alternative development embraces a wide range of concepts which cannot all be applied to this study. Therefore, the study discusses only the relevant concepts which are participatory approach and community development concepts. The second part of this section gives the analytical framework/approach on which the data analysis for this study would be based.

The Alternative Development Paradigm

By definition, the term ‘alternative’ denotes a choice, and in particular the choice of a non-traditional or unconventional option (McLennan, 2012). The alternative approaches to development considered as alternative development, emerging from ‘another development’ in the
1970s, and the more recent position of 'post development', or alternatives to development. Alternative development has been concerned with redefining the goals of development and introducing alternative practices of development - participatory and people-centered (McLennan, 2012). Alternative approaches see the parties involved as interconnected partners in a mutual and emergent process (Addison, 2009). It can be viewed as concerned with local development, with alternative practices on the ground, or as an overall institutional challenge to Mainstream Development (MD), and part of a global alternative (Pieterse, 1996).

Proponents of alternative development argue that international capital transfers do not automatically convert into productive investment in the receiving country (Korten, 1987); and see global issues of poverty, environmental failure and social violence as related directly to the failure of development to address the areas of justice, sustainability and inclusiveness. Furthermore, they argued that past approaches to development may actually have exacerbated the problem (Korten, 1990).

These concerns have led to a call for alternatives grounded in the initiatives of popular organizations (Bebbington, 2001) and crystallized in the 1970s into an alternative, people-centered approach that emphasis agency, in the sense of people’s capacity to effect social change for themselves (Pieterse, 1996). This approach encourages people to mobilize and manage their own local resources, as it is believed that the decentralized, self-organizing approaches result in more efficient and productive resource management, reduction in dependence on external
resources, increased equity, increased local initiative and accountability, and a strengthening of economic discipline (Korten, 1987).

**Critics to the alternative development paradigm**

Despite gaining popularity as an approach to development since the 1970s, alternative development theory like any other theory has not gone scot-free. Critics have claimed that alternative development approach simply represent ‘a new form of top-down, paternalistic development occurring further down the development hierarchy. Participation emerges more prominently in words than in tokenistic deeds, and is often coerced rather than natural’ (Parnwell, 2008). Others have criticized alternative development for putting too much attention on local development and ignoring national and international policies and their impact on local development and this undermines globalization (Parnwell, 2008; Hailey, 2001).

Despite all these critics alternative development is still appropriate as a means of meeting the needs of people especially those not captured by main stream developmental efforts. In view of this, Parnwell (2008) contends that, “bottom-up development has gained in momentum and prominence since the 1970s, to the extent that it now challenges orthodox approaches as the mainstream paradigm in many parts of the developing world”. In the education sector, decentralization of educational management and financing and the expansion of NGOs and public-private service provision stimulate competition and efficiency among schools as well as broader access. Hence, many donors often call for a greater engagement of
the civil society for effective accountability and service delivery at the local level.

**Participatory Approach to Development**

The Participatory Development paradigm contends that people are capable of identifying their needs and aspirations in their own way. Chambers (1997), a proponent of participatory development states that participatory development is the continual involvement of communities to express and analyse the realities of their lives and conditions, to plan for themselves what action to take and to monitor and evaluate the results.

Different views on what really participation is and who participates is what complicates this concept. Mikkelsen (2005) adds that the conceptual diversity of participation may indicate or amount to little or to more than it being a catch word devoid of real content. For this reason, participation has been highly criticized and (Parnwell, 2008) contends that participation only occur in words and not in practice.

**Critic to participatory approach to development**

Despite being the hallmark of alternative development and its strength with regard to local development agency and grassroots approach, different scholars have recently questioned and criticized participatory approaches. According to Hailey (2001), the role and status of participatory facilitators who are seen as outsiders can use their positions and authorities to override existing decision making process within the community. Furthermore, there is suspicion that experts who advocate for participatory approaches to development sit on some high moral ground and immune to criticism and there is little research to critically explain their motives,
actions and agendas, Pieterse (2010). In this way other stakeholder’s contribution may be of less value or no value at all even though participation approach claims to be rooted in a dynamic relationship of mutual trust and respect. Pieterse (2010) again, held the sentiments that participation is a deeply problematic concept that seem to just be an improvement on the top-down approach as it tend to exclude others especially those who are on the receiving side of developmental efforts.

**Community Development Concept**

Community development is another concept under the umbrella of alternative development paradigm that is used to guide the analysis for this study.

*Community development*

According to Chavis and Wandersman (1990), community development is some kind of a process which aims at improving the conditions of community’s life. Pieterse (2010) defines community development as development below national level which served as a subsidiary theme in the colonial times and during modernization era but now receives a new emphasis with alternative development. Therefore, community development is in line with the new agenda of government rollback and decentralization, and individual participation that results in collective and individual good. According to Roodt (2001), community development is defined as “the conscious process wherein small geographically contiguous communities are assisted by the more developed community to achieve improved standards of social and economic life”. This is all done primarily through local efforts by local community participation.
at all stages from goal selection through mobilization of resources to execution of projects, enabling local communities to become self-reliant.

According to Mansuri and Rao (2004), community driven development project supported by aid organization aims at improving access to public services by enhancing a community’s capacity to act collectively to obtain the public good. In the same vein, Fonchingong and Fonjong (2003) acknowledges that the concept of community development, stresses on the importance of increasing people’s sense of responsibility, and looking at external assistance as just supplementary, but never replacing local initiatives or efforts. In view of this, the study sees community development concept very appropriate as a guide to data analysis for this thesis. This is because community schools are a local initiative, with an aim to improve access to and quality of education for the excluded and less developed rural populations of the Gomoa East District.

Community development concept: an alternative approach to local development

The greatest advantage of the community development concept is that it is a part of alternative development with an emphasis on development from below and applies a participatory approach. Several studies have also shown that the participatory approach in community development is beneficial in a number of ways such as; better managed and maintained community projects than those managed by local governments, improved access to public services through community constructed facilities. In the field of education for instance, Mansuri and Rao (2004) reported that community managed schools in El Salvador had fewer absentees than
centrally managed schools. Therefore, it is also important to go by Wandersman and Florin (1990) assertions that community development efforts have positive impacts in various communities. In the same vein Shaw 1971 (in Cooke, 2001) recognizes the value found in group processes such as the capability of groups to produce more and better solutions than those working alone and that groups learn faster than individuals.

In this study, the concept of community development will be used on the assumption that it refers to development that is initiated by the local community whose influence have had a positive impact on the management of community schools in the Gomoa East District.

A critic to community development concept

Available literature suggests that, community development concept has also been criticized just like any other concepts in the alternative development paradigm. According to Cooke (2001), community development concept with its emphasis on group action, fall victim of group dysfunction due to free riding which limits the effectiveness of the group approach to development. Moreover, Mansuri and Rao (2004) have acknowledged that projects in poorly organized communities are more likely to be mismanaged hence impacting negatively on the bottom up approach to development as in community development. In addition, the local community may also lacks adequate resources to scale up. Hence, they may be forced to rely on external funders such as the state or NGOs, whose resources maybe earmarked for their own agenda. Heavy dependency on state funding, as Pieterse (2010) hinted, may just mean that “we are still
riding in a top-down vehicle of development whose wheels are greased with a vocabulary of bottom-up discourse”.

Despite the critics to community development concept, it still remains vital in the field of development studies as it seeks to provide an alternative to failed state driven approach to development, hence, its relevance to this study.

Analytical Approach and Framework

This section of the thesis provides an analytical framework/approach for the study of community schools and how they are helping in improving education delivery. It gives a critical review on how both participation and community development concepts are applied to guide the analysis of data in order to provide answers to the set questions outlined in chapter one above.

Participation

According to Dale (2000), participation may refer to the involvement of a range of various stakeholders who may have different interests and abilities in a project. Going by this definition, community schools in the Gomoa East District have adopted a participatory approach which includes different actors at play. The participatory approach to development in this study is used due to the advantages it is associated with, in comparison to the top-down approach. This is in line with Oakley’s assumed benefits of participatory approaches discussed above in this chapter. The participation of the various stakeholders would be analyzed to give answers to the extent to which they are participating in improving education delivery.
Since the proponents of participatory approaches claim that participation applies a bottom-up approach and that it instills a sense of ownership and encourages application of innovative ways to development, this assertion would help to identify how innovative community schools are in trying to improve basic education delivery.

**Community development**

Since community development has been defined as development below national level and as an alternative approach to failed state driven development, the concept would become relevant as a guide to data analysis for this study. This concept would help to explain how local development through the development of community schools is necessary in improving/increasing access, performance, infrastructure, management and supervision of education delivery in the district.
By using the systems approach lens, community participation in education delivery can be visualized or conceptualized as an interplay of elements (actors/agents), processes (activities) and principles (participation levels/how) within an enclosed physical or contextual space (participation space/opportunity).

This participation space receives input or is influenced by external new and/or pre-existing forces (factors affecting participation). The output or results produced by the system (implications for enhancing community participation) becomes a product from the interplay of already existing internal system components and new/pre-existing external stressors.

*Figure 4: Analytical Framework, Adapted from Kalemba (2013)*

Outcome for enhancing community participation
- Good school-community partnership
- Identifying and solving problems
- Efficiency in resource use
- Efficient management and supervision
- Functional participation
- Good academic performance
- Improved access
- Good infrastructure

Factors affecting participation
- Low knowledge level
- Poor flow of information
- Institutional arrangement
- Wrong timing of activities
- Too many responsibilities
- Lack of interest
- Mistrust
- Language barriers
In the practical participation space, the relevant stakeholders (Teachers, Unit Committees, PTA and SMC Executives) engage in several activities that promote access, enhance academic performance, improve infrastructure and ensure monitoring and supervision at several levels as shown in Figure 4 and explained by Arnstein (1969) in Kalembe (2013). Who participates, in what activity(-ies) and at what level(s) is influenced by a mixture of external procedural, institutional, cultural and socioeconomic factors such as low knowledge level, poor flow of information, institutional arrangement, wrong timing of activities, mistrust, etc. as shown in Figure 4. These factors, on their own (i.e. independent of the participation paradigm) have capacity to affects the quality of basic education. In applying the community participation paradigm to improve basic education as well, they still have capacity to compromise the participation process and the results that could have been achieved.

However, the framework recognizes that even though these external stressors can have a perverse effect on the whole process, community participation can produce effective results if perverse external stressors are handled well.
CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The chapter describes the procedure that was used in conducting the study. It consists of the description of the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure. It again describes the research instrument that was used for the study, instrument testing, administration of instrument and data analysis plan.

Research Design

The descriptive survey design was adopted for this study. This design enabled the researcher to obtain accurate information about specific characteristics of activities performed by the various stakeholders that are interested in the development of basic education in the Gomoa East District. According to Gay, Mills and Airasian (2006), the descriptive survey is useful for this type of survey because it attempts to collect data from members of a population in order to determine the current status of that population.

The survey, as further described by Best and Kahn (1995), collates data from a relatively large number of cases at a particular time. However, Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) argue that a survey design may have the weakness of providing untrustworthy results since respondents may not be willing to reveal the truth. This design was used to elicit information from a large number of people at a particular time, and this enabled the researcher to come out with the role, impact, constraints and/or opportunities of the
communities’ involvement in the improvement of basic education delivery in the Gomoa East District.

Population

The target population for the study was made up of all identifiable/recognised group of stakeholders of participatory educational delivery institutionalized by the participatory approach to education planning initiative (that is Teachers, Unit Committee Members, SMC and PTA Executives). In all the public basic schools in the Gomoa East District, there are a total of 1297 teachers, 325 PTA Executives, 455 SMC Executives (excluding teachers) and 125 Unit Committee Members, making a population size of 2202 (District Education Office Records, 2014).

Sample and Sampling Procedure

According to Ogah (2013), for a population of 2202, a total sample size of 332 will be representative enough to make a generalization. He indicated further that in a descriptive survey, the larger the sample size the more precise the description. However, the increase in precision keeps dwindling with the increase in sample size to the point where additional numbers add virtually nothing to precision. He stressed that using a large sample makes it possible to detect small relationships (or effects) which will be missed with small samples.

However due to the structure of the educational system in the district and to ensure representativeness of different types of the stakeholders, a sample size of 340 was selected for the study. This was done based on proportion-to-size of the various stakeholders in the population. This is presented in Table 1.
The district was stratified into the ten (10) educational circuits. Five circuits were randomly selected from the district using the lottery method (Bryman, 2013). With this method, names of all circuits in the district were written on pieces of papers, mixed up and five were picked. Using the same process, five schools were randomly selected from each selected circuit. This resulted in a total of 25 schools selected from the district for the study.

Table 2-Composition of survey respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>1,297</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMC Executives</td>
<td>455</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTA Executives</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unit Committee</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,202</td>
<td>340</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Out of the 340 respondents, 4 Unit Committee members, 10 PTA executives, 14 SMC executives and 40 teachers were selected from each of the selected circuits. In each of the selected schools/community, the list of the respondents was obtained from the head teachers and in some cases the assembly men. The researcher using the lottery approach selected the specified number of respondents for the study. If a selected respondent was unavailable, the next person was selected using same procedure.

Research Instruments

Data for the study was gathered through the administration of questionnaire. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), questionnaire is widely used for collecting data in educational institutions because it is an effective instrument for securing factual information about
practices and conditions of which the respondents are presumed to have knowledge and opinions on. Questionnaires are useful for the collection of data without the presence of the researcher, and more often than not it is comparatively straightforward to analyze, the authors stressed. Questionnaires are effective tools used to obtain factual information about the conditions and practices of which the respondents are believed to have knowledge and opinions on.

The questionnaires were designed in a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. The items for the various parts of the questionnaire were weighted as follows: strongly agree (1), agree (2), undecided (3), disagree (4) and strongly disagree (5). Other components of the questionnaires were also designed and rated as: not at all (1), very low (2), low (3), high (4) and very high (5). The questionnaire comprised items related to the four research questions. The first part consisted of biographical characteristics of respondents. The second part dealt with how stakeholders view the importance of their participation in improving education delivery. The third aspect looked at the roles the communities’ stakeholders are playing to improve basic education delivery while the fourth part elicits responses on the factors/challenges that hinder participation. The final part dealt with how stakeholder’s participation can be promoted in improving education delivery.

**Pre-Testing of Data Collection Tools**

The research questionnaires were tested in selected public schools, all in the Gomoa East District but not among the schools for the research before taking to the field for administration. Test of reliability of the
instrument was conducted using the Cronbach’s alpha level of 0.05. The reliability test results for the pretesting and the actual corrected data are displayed in Tables 3 & 4.

Table 3-Reliability Test of Research Instruments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Importance of community participation in improving basic education delivery</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Roles played by community in improving basic education delivery</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>.741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Challenges/ factors affecting community participation in improving basic education delivery</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ways of improving community participation in the delivery of basic education</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.768</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=31

Table 4-Reliability Test Score for Actual Research Instrument after Correction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Importance of community participation in improving basic education delivery</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Roles played by community in improving basic education delivery</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Challenges/ factors affecting community participation in improving basic education delivery</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ways of improving community participation in the delivery of basic education</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=332
Data Collection Procedure

The researcher visited some of the Schools, attended some SMCs and P.T.A meetings to establish rapport and to familiarize him with the areas and the various partners of the research. Afterwards, the researcher with the help of a trained assistant moved from one community to the other and from school to school on motor bike to distribute the questionnaires. Three days were used to distribute the questionnaire and were collected within a period of three weeks in the month of May.

Data Analysis

Crang and Cook (2007) acknowledge that data analysis as a process “involves doing nitty-gritty things with paper, pens, scissors, computers and software. It’s about chopping up, re-ordering, re-construction and (re) assembling the data we have so diligently constructed” (Frankel & Wallen, 2009). The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21 was employed in doing the analysis. Mosaic plots and percentages were also used to present and interpret the data collected for the study respectively.

Objectives 1, 2, 3 and 4 were analyzed using Frequency counts and percentages to describe the various components of the roles and levels of community member’s participation in education delivery.
CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter is primarily a presentation and analysis of the data derived from the survey conducted on the study. Data were presented using Tables and Mosaic plots and analysis was done using descriptive statistics (particularly percentages). Figures in the mosaic plots are in percentages (the figures were obtained as descriptive statistics in SPSS and the mosaic plot drawn in Microsoft Excel, version 2010). The mosaic plot was considered the best way to show all relevant information in one chart for all the results. The next possible alternative would have been to produce one graph or table for each question on the questionnaire resulting in several clustered bar graphs or long tables for each research objective.

The results from the stated objectives have been described through tables and mosaic plots with accompanying brief commentaries under the following headings.

1. Biographic data of respondents
2. Community’s views about the importance of their participation.
3. Forms and extent of community participation.
5. Ways of promoting community participation in education delivery.
In the analysis, UC stands for Unit Committee, SMC represents School Management Committee, PTA represents Parents Teacher Association and HT/T Head teacher or Teacher. Again, Freq means frequency and % means percentage.

**Biographical Data of Respondents**

The questionnaire solicited information on the respondents in terms of their gender, marital status, age, household size and academic and professional qualifications. Additional background information was collected on the occupation, position one holds in the school or community, the name of school and circuit and information on whether a respondent has his/her ward in the community school. The five sets of respondents were as follow: Head Teachers (HT), Teachers (T), Unit Committee (UC), School Management Committee (SMC) and Parents Teachers Association (P.T.A) executives. Table 5 shows the gender of the various categories of respondents used for the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5- Gender of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the distribution in Table 5, the only set of respondents which has greater number of females is the teachers. Out of the 188 respondents, 105 representing 55.9% were females. Males dominate the remaining set of respondents; UC, PTA, SMC and Head teachers. The total male UC
executives were 14 constituting 66.7% while half of the number (7) constituting 33.3% of the total respondents were female from the various communities. Out of the total number of head teachers, 4 constituting 66.7% were males while 2 making up 33.3% formed the female head teachers.

Similarly, the males who were SMC executives were 43 constituting 62.3% whereas 26 constituting 37.7% were females. Majority of the PTA respondents were also males. Male PTA executive were 28 constituting 58.3% while only 20 constituting 41.7% were females. The male dominance in these categories may be attributed to the fact that most men tend to take up higher and top positions in the society than females (Thompson, 2015). However, the greater number of female teachers than male teachers gives an indication that more females stay in the teaching profession as teachers than males. Another reason for this could be that the attrition rate of male teachers in the teaching profession is high because most of them leave teaching to join other profession before they retire.

Professional qualification of head teachers and teachers as well as the educational level of SMC, PTA executives and Unit Committee executives is summarized in Table 5.
Table 6—Professional Qualification and Educational level of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Education</th>
<th>No formal Education (%)</th>
<th>Primary Education (%)</th>
<th>MSLC/JSS (%)</th>
<th>SSS/Tech/Voc (%)</th>
<th>Teacher's post sec (%)</th>
<th>Teachers Dip (%)</th>
<th>Degree (%)</th>
<th>HND (%)</th>
<th>Masters Degree (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SMC executive</td>
<td>2 (2.9)</td>
<td>7 (10.14)</td>
<td>18 (26.1)</td>
<td>22 (31.8)</td>
<td>1 (1.45)</td>
<td>4 (5.8)</td>
<td>12 (17.4)</td>
<td>3 (4.35)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>69 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P.T.A executive</td>
<td>2 (4.17)</td>
<td>2 (4.17)</td>
<td>17 (35.42)</td>
<td>13 (27.1)</td>
<td>2 (4.17)</td>
<td>2 (4.17)</td>
<td>6 (12.5)</td>
<td>3 (6.25)</td>
<td>1 (2.1)</td>
<td>48 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UC</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2 (9.52)</td>
<td>2 (9.52)</td>
<td>6 (28.57)</td>
<td>1 (4.76)</td>
<td>5 (23.8)</td>
<td>4 (19.04)</td>
<td>1 (4.76)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>21 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head teacher</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1 (16.67)</td>
<td>4 (66.67)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1 (16.67)</td>
<td>6 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2 (1.06)</td>
<td>11 (5.85)</td>
<td>64 (34.0)</td>
<td>101 (53.)</td>
<td>1 (1.00)</td>
<td>9 (4.79)</td>
<td>188 (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>332</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 identifies the educational level of respondents. Curiously, 4 out of the total respondents (made up of 2 PTA and 2 SMC executive) have no formal education. It could be observed that 4 representing 66.67% out of 6 head teachers were degree holders, while one representing 16.67% holds a masters degree. Only one head teacher holds teachers diploma. This is in contravention with Education Act 2008, which states that the minimum qualification for headship at the basic school must be a degree.

It could also be deduced that majority of the teachers in the district holds degree in various fields of study. One hundred and one of the total respondents representing 79.53% that holds degree were teachers. This shows that the respondents had acquired professional excellence and therefore were well vested in what entails in education delivery and therefore could give much information on the issue under investigation.

It can be seen from Table 5 that concerning the distribution of respondents’ level of education all respondents have acquired some level of education except for a few PTA and SMC members who have no formal education. Twenty two (31.88%) out of 69 SMC, 13 (27.1%) out of the 48 PTA and 6 (28.57%) out of the 21 Unit Committee executives had acquired Secondary/Technical/Vocational education.
Community’s view about the importance of their participation

This objective sought to know how respondents perceived the importance of their participation in education delivery in their area. The responses have been presented in the Mosaic plot (Figure 5).

From the mosaic plot (Figure 5), it can be observed that, the majority of the respondents (Figure 5) are in general consensus or agreement that their participation is essential in improving basic education delivery in the area. For instance, 288 (191 agreed and 97 strongly agreed) of the total respondents constituting 86.7% (57.5% agreed and 29.2% strongly agreed) hold the view that community participation help children to adapt well and stay in school till completion. This agrees with the thoughts of Cariño and Valismo, (1994) that community participation helps to create a nourishing school atmosphere that make schools child friendly and encourage them to stay in till completion. Only 24 respondents constituting 10.2% disagrees to this statement and 10 which constitute 3.0% were undecided. This implies that to a greater extent community participation can help to curb the problem of pupils’ absenteeism and truancy. Similarly, 82.5% (50.6% agreed and 31.9% strongly agreed) of the respondents believe that community participation help children develop their future potential. This confirms the assertion by Cornwall (2008) that when communities help to improve the educational delivery, more children learn better and are well prepared for the changing world. Thus, by inference, one could argue that greater and proper community engagement may result in more children realizing their future potential and achieving their future goals and aspirations.
On the statement that “community participation improve access to education delivery, 81.2% gave a positive response (50.2% agreed and 31.7% strongly agreed). Few respondents, 46 constituting 13.9% gave a negative response (11.8% disagreed and 2.1% strongly disagreed) that community participation improves access to education. Fourteen respondents constituting 4.2% were undecided. This finding is in line with UNICEF, 1992 report which suggested among other things that community participation in basic education delivery can contribute to promoting girls’ access to education. The report established a positive link between community participation and access to education especially of the girl child in most local communities. Policy measures aimed at improving access in the local communities must target the local community members to ensure success and sustainability.

The general consensus among respondents on the relevance of their participation in education delivery in their area is in agreement with the views of Jimenez and Sawada, (1999) [in, Mansuri & Rao, 2004]. In advocating for the community development concept in the field of education, they reported that community managed schools in El Salvador had fewer absentees than centrally managed schools. This also confirms Wandersman and Florin (1990) assertions that community development efforts have positive impacts in various communities. In the same vein Shaw (1971) recognizes the value found in group processes such as the capability of groups to produce more and better solutions than those working alone and that groups learn faster than individuals.
Figure 5: Mosaic plot showing outputs on the importance of community participation in improving basic education delivery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Makes children adopt well</th>
<th>Develop potentials</th>
<th>Effective and efficient use of resources</th>
<th>Get needed curriculum materials for learning</th>
<th>Improves access to education</th>
<th>Improves relations with school</th>
<th>Improves regularity of school attendance</th>
<th>Improves children's relationship with their parents</th>
<th>Positive impact on academic performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>49.7</td>
<td>46.0</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Digitized by UCC, Library*
**Forms/Extent of community participation**

This objective sought to find out from stakeholders the various activities and roles they perform in improving education delivery and the extent to which they undertake these activities. For ease of analysis, these activities were categorised under improving: (a) access, (b) academic performance, (c) infrastructure and (d) management, monitoring and supervision.

(a) **Forms/Extent of community participation in improving access to education**

![Mosaic plot showing outputs on the extent to which the community participate to improve access.](image)

*Figure 6: Mosaic plot showing outputs on the extent to which the community participate to improve access.*
Results from Figure 6 show that, the extent of community participation according to the sample of activities presented to respondents is generally low. With a large majority of the respondents (see figure 6) indicating “not at all” to the options provided, it could be inferred that, though the community does participate in all these activities, the extent is low. 110 (33.1%), 144 (43.4%), and 183 (55.1%) of the respondents indicated non-participation in building classroom, provision of drinking water and supply of textbooks respectively. Also a greater proportion of the stakeholders 192 (57.8%) and 191 (57.5%) indicated that the people do not take part in supporting feeding programme and providing library facilities respectively. This is what Arnstein (1969) describes as (non participation) therapy or manipulation in her categorization of levels of participation. On the positive side, it appears the community is doing considerably better in the areas of sensitization of parents to send their children to school, which links up with taking part in enrollment drive. Thus, as Lyndon, (2012) advised, community participation has several elements such as planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation; it is essential that members of the community discuss, consult and reach consensus among themselves on what and how to be involved in any educational initiatives so all members could participate and benefit and as a result enhance their quality of life.
(b) Forms/Extent of community participation in improving academic performance.

This aspect of Objective 2 sought to know what exactly community members are doing to improve academic performance and the frequency to which they perform these activities. Figure 7 displays the results.

**Figure 7**: Mosaic plot showing outputs on the extent to which the community participate to improve academic performance.
In comparison with the extent to which communities participate to improve access to basic education delivery (Figure 8), the extent to which they participate to improve academic performance is relatively better. For test items 2 (attending school meetings), 5 (meeting with school staff to discuss schools’ performance), 6 (stakholders meet to set goals that leads to students success) and 7 (parents or guardians help children with home work) [Figure 8] the cumulative percentage responses for the “high” and the encouragingly “low” side was numerically higher than the lower side. These four test items are all related to communication and dialogue between the community and school authorities. However, in relation to the challenges to community participation the results of the test items that received more agreement were the communication related items. Thus, suggesting that, though communication and dialogue between the communities’ and school authorities does happen, there are some challenges in there which if addressed will significantly improve academic performance in basic education delivery in the Gomoa East District.
(c) Forms/Extent of community participation in improving school infrastructure

This aspect of objective 2 explored the specific efforts community members make to improve school infrastructure as displayed in Figure 8.

Figure 8: Mosaic plot showing the extent to which the community participate to improve educational infrastructure.
In comparison with respondents’ opinion about community participation in basic education delivery relating to promoting access (Objective 2a), and improving academic performance (Objective 2b), responses (Figure 8) suggests that communities are doing better in relation to improving educational infrastructure. With the exception of “making accommodation arrangements for teachers,” percentage responses for the positive side of the “extent” levels are relatively higher. The results also showed that communities engaged mostly in providing land for constructing school infrastructure. Reflecting over the challenges that affect community participation (Figure 8) it can be observed that community members’ inadequacy in resources to support the school was one of the items that scored the highest percentage agreements. A number of possible explanations can be made for this condition; that the respondents understanding of “inadequate resources” did not include land since land for school projects in most of the communities are given by the chiefs. Respondents acknowledge the inadequacy of community members to make contributions though they are willing, or that community members are ready to generously contribute what they readily can afford.
(d) Forms/Extent to which community support in management, monitoring and supervision

This aspect of objective 2 also aimed at identifying what community stakeholders are doing to improve school management, monitoring and supervision in the district.

![Mosaic plots showing the extent to which the community participate to improve school management, monitoring and supervision.](image-url)

*Figure 9: Mosaic plots showing the extent to which the community participate to improve school management, monitoring and supervision.*
It can be observed from figure 9 that the extent of community members’ participation in management, monitoring and supervision is generally low from the high percentage of ‘not at all, very low’ and low recorded. Community’s seems to be performing better in monitoring and supervision at the school level than going further to liaising with the district for better qualified teachers to be posted to their community/school. Results from figure 9 also indicates that, though respondents opinion on the other test items in this construct were spread somewhat fairly on the “extent” continuum, responses to “liaising with the DEO to ensure quality teachers are posted” seem to be weighted disproportionately at “not at all.” Given that the direct contribution and participation of the community is called in question, it is understandable that community members’ participation would commonly scale down to dealing with DEOs.
Challenges to Community Participation in Improving Basic Education Delivery

The objective sought to identify the main factors confronting community members in their quest to contribute to improving education delivery in the district. The results have been displayed in figure 10.

Figure 10: Mosaic plot showing outputs on the challenges/factors affecting community participation
**Challenges to Community Participation in Basic Education Delivery**

The pattern in this chart reflects varying patterns in the responses about their agreement with a sample of factors that affect the participation of communities in the delivery of basic education. The analysis reveals that educational stakeholders (respondents) agree generally with the first four (4) factors in the chart, which border on community members’ inadequacies in terms of educational knowledge, resources and time. In terms of ranking (in descending order), the three most important factors affecting community participation are: inadequacy of community members’ resources to support school, community members’ poor understanding of educational issues, and community members’ thoughts of not having time.

There seem to be a divergence in the view of respondents on whether a communication gap exists between school authorities and community members, and whether this affects the delivery of basic education. The same divergence in opinion is found concerning whether the medium of communication and lack of trust are factors that affect community members’ participation in basic education delivery. The analysis shows on the half-right of the chart that respondents generally disagree on issues that relate to inadequacies or inefficiencies on their part. For instance, the various stakeholders gave higher negative response (Figure 10) to the following items which all point to inadequacies or inefficiency on their parts. The items included:

(i) School staff lacks skills working with community members. Eighty one point six percent of the stakeholders responded negatively 35.5% strongly disagreed and 46.1% disagreed with only 19.7% giving a positive response (12.0% agreed and 7.7% strongly agreed) and 6.6% were undecided.
(ii) Confusion over roles of school staff and community leader. Seventy point five percent (26.8 strongly disagreed and 43.7% disagreed) stakeholder rejected this as a challenge in the area. Only 21.7% (15.1% agreed and 6.6%) saw this as a challenge in the area. 7.8% of the stakeholders were however undecided.

(iii) School personnel may not wish to have parents interfere their schedules. Sixty nine point nine percent (28.0% strongly disagreed and 41.9% disagreed) of the respondents think this is not a challenge. Only 25.3% (20.2 agreed and 5.1% strongly agreed) sees this as a challenge. Five point seven percent of the respondents were undecided.

(iv) Parents past bad experience with the school. Fifty five point four percent (22.6% strongly disagreed and 32.8% disagreed) disagreed to this statement. Thirty point seven percent (21.4% agreed and 9.3% strongly agreed) however agreed with 13.9% being undecided.

One cannot tell whether these responses reflect the true situation in the area or were affected by the stakeholder’s personal biases since these items point to their inadequacies and inefficiencies. The only possibility of removing these biases if they really were was to have included the social desirability scale in the design of the test instrument.

Low knowledge level and or poor understanding were discovered as a great challenge. This confirms the findings of Hrriet, Anin, and Yussif (2013) when they reported that low knowledge level and poor flow of information account for the low involvement and participation of stakeholders at the local level. Poor communication gap and bad-timing of meetings also came out as a significant challenge in the area. These are in accordance with views expressed by Baku and Agyemang (2002) that the main problem inhabiting
community participation in education delivery in our local communities included among other things poor timing of meetings (including PTA/SMC meetings).
Ways of promoting community participation in improving basic education delivery

The target of this objective is to identify measures that could be adopted to enhance community participation in the district. The opinions of the stakeholders on some suggested ways of promoting community participation are displayed in figure 11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training and empowering community members</th>
<th>Involving community members in decision making about the school</th>
<th>Scheduling school program for parents during non-work hours</th>
<th>Giving parents the chance to lead some programmes/projects within the school</th>
<th>School authorities visiting the home of parents to invite them to</th>
<th>Regularly holding meetings to let community members understand</th>
<th>Clearly showing how community can contribute to achieve school goal</th>
<th>Telling community members the positive things happening in the school</th>
<th>Effective communication between the school and community</th>
<th>Using the local languages at meetings</th>
<th>Setting up guidelines for participation</th>
<th>Invite parents to visit the school during class hours to find out about student</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>53.39.3</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>43.121.4</td>
<td>58.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>43.121.4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 11:* Mosaic plot showing outputs on ways of improving community participation
Ways of Promoting Community Participation in Improving Basic Education Delivery

From the results/analysis (Figure 10), the top three (3) ways of improving community participation in basic education delivery (in descending order of total agreement percentage, that is, percentages for “Agree” and “Strongly agree” summed) are; using the local languages at meetings (96.4%), informing the community members about the positive things happening in the school (94.0%), and effective communication between the school and the community (92.8%). Involving community members in decision making about school 92.2% (50.6% agreed and 41.6% strongly agreed) also seems to be a very promising avenue for getting communities involved in basic education delivery. This is in accordance with the assertion Addae-Boahene, (2007) that where local people are involved in decision-making at all stages of a project cycle, participation then becomes high and the best results follow and the opposite is true.

Thus, where local people are involved; their views and inputs duly sought, their maximum participation would be guaranteed. Again, training and empowering community members are another effective way of enhancing community participation. Eighty six point eight percent (45.8 agreed and 41.0% strongly agreed) of the respondents believes training and empowerment will encourage participation in education delivery in the area. This confirms the findings of Blimpo, Evans, and Lahire (2014) that comprehensive stakeholder training combined with school grants reduced student and teacher absence, and improved student learning.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the study process and major findings, conclusions and recommendations. The chapter, therefore, is in four main sections.

Summary of the Research Process

The study was a descriptive survey which aimed at gathering information on how the communities in the Gomoa East District participate in improving the delivery of basic education. Specifically, the study sought to identify the roles played to develop basic education, come out with how community participation impact on access, infrastructure and performance and reveal areas through which communities monitor and supervise basic education. It also identifies the problems encountered by communities in basic education delivery and measures for improving participation.

The four research questions used to guide this study were: What is the community view on the importance of their participation in improving basic education delivery in the district?; What form and to what extent is community participation to improve basic education delivery relating to promoting access, performance, infrastructure and management, monitoring and supervision?; What are the factors/challenges that hinder community members in their effort to improve basic education delivery in the district? and What are the effective ways of promoting community participation in improving basic education delivery in the district.
Literature was reviewed on issues that were related to the subject under study. The review touched on areas such as meaning of community participation; Forms, levels and measurement and the Importance of community participation in education. Other areas include the Effect and Challenges to community participation in education, Ways of improving community participation, the Theoretical Perspectives and the Analytical Framework/Approach for the study.

The sample for the study was 340 comprising 200 teachers, 50 PTA executives, 70 SMC executives’ and 20 Unit committee executives. The district was stratified into ten (10) circuits and a random sampling method was used to select five circuits. Five basic schools were selected from each circuit constituting 25 basic schools from the target population. Questionnaires were used as the instrument to collect data for the study. A pilot-test was carried out in six schools in the district that were not part of the sampled schools. The Cronbach Alpha Reliability Co-efficient for the research questions was 0.89.

After successful pilot-testing, questionnaires were sent out by the researcher to the respondents for the main study. The cooperation from respondents and colleagues helped to retrieve 324 out of the 340 questionnaires sent out. This indicated a 97.5% return rate. Responses to the questions were coded and entered into the SPSS for analysis and interpretation. The responses to the questions were analyzed according to the research questions.
Summary of Major Findings

The communities generally viewed their participation in basic education delivery as very important. They see children in the community as future leaders and their support for the school would help the school unearth and develop the innate potentials of the children for the benefit of the society. Respondents saw their contribution to school as an important way of helping children come to and remaining in school till completion thereby promoting access to education. They believed that to a greater extent their participation can help curb the problem of pupils’ absenteeism and truancy.

The study also revealed that the extent of community participation according to the sample of activities presented to respondents is generally low. Though the communities participate in these activities, the level is low. The communities do not do much when it comes to building classrooms, providing drinking water and supplying textbooks to enhance access. This is largely so because most communities see these roles as belonging to the government. There were also significant differences in opinion among respondents on their levels of involvement in education delivery. Though the community, a doing quite well in promoting enrollment drives as they help in sensitizing parents to send their children to school the extent of their involvement is still not very encouraging. Just few of the communities supplied text and supplementary readers to their wards or supervise their work as well as visit their schools to ascertain their progress and behaviours. This was particularly realized among schools in the East constituency of Gomoa East District.
It was clear that teachers were not supported in any way in terms of accommodation or listened to, in terms of their grievances. It was also found that the communities failed to award deserving and hardworking teachers.

On the contrary, the community’s seems to be doing well in attending meetings and helping children with their homework as a way of promoting academic performance. But they seemed not to be doing well in helping the school with the provision of teaching and learning materials, offering classroom learning support. Again, communities are doing better in relation to improving educational infrastructure. With the exception of “making accommodation arrangements for teachers,” percentage responses for the positive side of the “extent” levels are relatively higher. Communities mostly provide land for constructing school infrastructure.

In the management, supervision and monitoring of basic schools, it was revealed that with the exception of education officers who followed up on teachers and pupils attendance and performance, ensuring utilization of contact hours, community members do little or nothing in this regard. They know little of their specific roles to play in supervision, management and monitoring of school projects even though they were aware of the need of their participation. On the factors/challenges, the community faced in their attempt to support the school, it was revealed that inadequacy of community members’ resources to support school, community members’ poor understanding of educational issues, and community members’ thoughts of not having time are the major problem.

Finally, on measures to promote community participation, in order to improve education delivery, it was clear that using the local languages at
meetings, informing community members about the positive things happening in the school, effective communication between the school and the community and involving community members in decision making about school are the best avenue for getting communities to be involved in improving basic education delivery.

Conclusions

In conclusion, the study has revealed that community participation in the improvement of basic education is not a new thing in the Gomoa East District. People acknowledged and viewed as important their obligation to participate in their children’s schooling but are not well informed on their specific roles they need to play, in terms of, school management, supervision and monitoring teachers and pupils and provision of infrastructures and teaching learning materials. Generally, there was a low level of involvement in the various activities community members are engaged in their quest to improving education delivery. The study has also highlighted the main challenges confronting community members in their quest to helping improve education delivery including low knowledge level and lack of communication. It has also brought out vividly ways of improving the practice through the use of the local language at meetings, good communication links established between the school and communities and providing continual updates on events happening in the school to get them well informed on their specific roles they need to play.
Recommendations

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

1. That, heads of schools regularly sensitize and update community members on their roles and happenings in the school through the Community Information Centers and Churches in the community.

2. The SMCs, P.T.As and Unit committees should be regularly sensitized on their roles in improving access, school infrastructure, performance and management, monitoring and supervision in basic education delivery through workshops and seminars by the District Education Office and the District Assembly.

3. School authority must endeavor to update the community members on new developments taking place in their school. This will boost their interest and hence increasing their participation.

4. The SMC, PTA and UC members should sensitize the community to be more concerned about their children’s education and the welfare of teachers posted to the community. Especially, assisting newly posted teachers with their accommodation arrangements.

5. School authorities must ensure that they use the local language or language that everybody can understand at meetings and all other gathering involving community members.

6. The local community should be more concerned on the future of the community schools, and engage in activities that will help them generate
their own money than blaming donors, NGOs or government for their financial problems.

7. Stakeholders must make effort to ensure as many community members as possible send their ward to the community school to ensure greater participation.

8. Circuit-specific programmes must be designed to solve the problem of non participation in some of the circuits and also to encourage greater participation in others who are already doing well.

**Suggestion for Further Research**

In this study, it became clear that it is impossible to exhaust all aspects of such an important study. The study would like to give suggestions here under upon which other scholars can be interested to research further.

1. Since this study looked at the stakeholders’ perceptions, it would be interesting to get views/perceptions on community schools’ interventions in the district from ordinary community members. Such a study would get views from for example, parents and other members of the community whose children are in community schools.

2. It would also be interesting to explore any differences that might exist between those community schools found in urban areas with those found in rural areas.

3. Further study could also be conducted to find out the extent to which high illiteracy rate and low participation in education affect pupil’s academic achievement in the district.
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Science Ltd.


Hanoi, (2013)


APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DATA COLLECTION

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS AND

EXTENSION

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT FOR TEACHERS, UNIT COMMITTEE

MEMBERS, P.T.A. AND S.M. CEXECUTIVES

INTRODUCTION

The researcher is carrying out a study on COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN

IMPROVING BASIC EDUCATION DELIVERY IN THE GOMOA EAST

DISTRICT.

We would be grateful if you could please give your personal views by answering this questionnaire. We wish to assure you that all information given will be treated as confidential.

Thank you.

SECTION ONE: BIOGRAPHIC DATA

Instruction: Please Tick [✓] or Write the appropriate answer.

1. Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]

2. Marital Status: Married [ ] Single [ ] Devoiced [ ] Widowed [ ]

3. Age in Completed years …………………

4. Household size ………………………

5. Educational level: No formal education [ ] Primary education [ ]

  MSLC/JSS [ ] SSS/Technology/Voc [ ] Teacher’s Post-Secondary [ ] Teachers Diploma

  [ ] Degree [ ] HND [ ] Masters Degree [ ] Others [ ] Please specify…………

109
6. Occupation……………………………………………………………………

7. Position in school: SMC executive [ ] P.T.A executive [ ] Unit Committee
   member [ ] Head teacher [ ] Teacher [ ]

8. Name of Education Circuit……………………………………………………

9. Name of school………………………………………………………………..

10. Do you have your ward in the school(s) in your community?   Yes [ ] No [ ]

SECTION TWO:

IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN IMPROVING
BASIC EDUCATION DELIVERY

The following statement describes some importance of community participation
in basic education. Please tick [√] the response that describes your level of
agreement on the importance of community participation to your area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Importance of Community Participation</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Make children adapt well to school</td>
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<td>2. Help children in the community develop their future potential</td>
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<td>3. Community participation leads to effective and efficient use of resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>Roles communities play in improving education delivery</td>
<td>Extent of support/Involvement</td>
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<td>Not At All</td>
<td>Very Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Very High</td>
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</table>

### i. Roles in improving access to education delivery

1. Building of classrooms
2. Provision of drinking water
3. Supply of textbooks
4. Taking part in enrollment
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<td>5. Sensitizing parents to send their children to school</td>
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<td>6. Supporting feeding programme for the school</td>
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<td>7. Providing library facilities</td>
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<td><strong>ii. Roles in improving academic performance</strong></td>
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<td>8. Members who are knowledgeable provide classroom learning support</td>
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<td>9. Attending school meetings</td>
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<td>10. Provision of performance based incentives to improve learning outcome</td>
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<td>11. Provision of teaching and learning materials</td>
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<td>12. Meeting with school staff to discuss the schools’ performance</td>
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<td>13. Parents, teachers and students meet to set goals that leads to students success</td>
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<td>14. Parents/Guardians help children with their home works</td>
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</table>
### iii. Roles in improving educational infrastructure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roles communities play in improving education delivery</th>
<th>Not At All</th>
<th>Very Low</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Very High</th>
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<tr>
<td>15. Making accommodation arrangement for teachers</td>
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<td>16. Paying money to support school projects</td>
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<td>17. Provision of communal labour during school project</td>
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<td>18. Taking part in decisions about school infrastructure</td>
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<td>19. Provision of land for the construction of school infrastructure</td>
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### iv. Roles in improving School Management, Monitoring and Supervision

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<tr>
<th>Roles</th>
<th>Not At All</th>
<th>Very Low</th>
<th>Low</th>
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<tr>
<td>20. Visiting school to ensure efficient utilization of contact hours</td>
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<td>21. Regular meetings with staff to know the problems facing the school</td>
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<td>22. Visiting school to assess the progress of school projects</td>
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<td>23. Liaising with the district education office to ensure that qualified teachers are posted to the school</td>
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<td>24. Helping to raise money for the schools’ activities</td>
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<td>25. Monitoring teachers attendance to school</td>
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<td>26. Monitoring teachers performance</td>
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</table>
SECTION IV: CHALLENGES/ FACTORS AFFECTING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN IMPROVING BASIC EDUCATION DELIVERY

What is your level of agreement on the degree at which the following factors influence community participation in education delivery in your area?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Lack of communication between school staff and community members</td>
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<td>2. Poor understanding of educational issues by community members.</td>
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<td>3. Inadequate resources to support the school</td>
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<td>4. Community members think they do not have time.</td>
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<td>5. Ineffective medium of communication at meeting.</td>
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<td>6. Lack of trust between school authorities and the community</td>
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<td>7. School staffs lack skills in working with community members</td>
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<td>8. Confusion over the roles of school personnel and community leaders</td>
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<td>9. School personnel may not wish to have parents interfere their schedules</td>
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<td>10. Parents own bad experience with the school</td>
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</table>
SECTION V: WAYS OF IMPROVING COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN THE DELIVERY OF BASIC EDUCATION

Please, indicate by ticking [√] your level of agreement on the following whether they can help improve community participation in basic education delivery in your area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures for improving participation</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Training and empowering community members</td>
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<td>2. Involving community members in decision making about the school</td>
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<td>3. Scheduling school program for parents during non-work hours</td>
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<td>4. Giving parents the chance to lead some programs/projects within the school</td>
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<td>5. School authorities visiting the home of parents to invite them to participate</td>
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<td>6. Regularly holding meetings to let community members understand the value of school community partnership</td>
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<td>7. Clearly showing how community can contribute to achieve school goal</td>
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<td>8. Telling community members the positive things happening in the school</td>
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<td>9. Effective</td>
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<td>communication between the school and community</td>
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<td>10. Using the local language at meetings</td>
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<td>11. Setting up guidelines for participation</td>
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<td>12. Invite parents to visit the school during class hours to find out about students learning</td>
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