

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

FACTORS INFLUENCING HOUSEHOLDS' CHOICE OF SCHOOL:
EXPLORING THE CONTRIBUTIONS AND LIMITS OF PRIVATE
SCHOOLS IN ACHIEVING UNIVERSAL BASIC
EDUCATION IN TECHIMAN
MUNICIPALITY,
GHANA

TAHIRU SULEMANA

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2017

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MUNICIPALITY,
GHANA

BY

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ID No. UDS/MDS/0246/12

Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of Integrated Development
Studies, University for Development Studies in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Award of
Master of Philosophy Degree in
Development Studies

August, 2017



DECLARATION

Student

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

Candidate's Signature: Date:

ULEMANA TAHIRU

Supervisor

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University for Development studies.

Supervisor's Signature: Date:

DR. ABDULAI ABUBAKARI



ABSTRACT

There have been limited empirical studies on this subject matter in the Techiman Municipal area, hence the need for this study. The objective of this study is to ascertain why households in the Techiman Municipality choose to enroll their children in private basic schools when free public basic schools are available. The research design of this study was a cross-sectional survey that sought to analyze factors influencing household's choice of school. Both qualitative and quantitative data collection approaches were used to collect data. The study interviewed key informants using an in-depth interview technique and administered questionnaire to household heads and owners of private basic schools. The socioeconomic statuses of households such as household income, occupation and household head's education have substantial influence on the choice of type of basic school. Higher status households are more likely to enroll their children in private schools and are also less likely to mention cost, which is associated with public school enrollment as a determinant of household's choice of school type. The findings suggest that performance of schools in BECE plays an important role in households' choice of type of school and the growth of private basic schools in the municipality is a result of the failings of the public school system. The private basic schools in the municipality help to increase access to education, promote competition and effective supervision of pupils and teachers. The private schools in the municipality face challenges such as high taxes, financial constraints, and frequent transfers of pupils, default in payment of school fees and inadequate teaching and learning materials. In conclusion, it is the relatively better-off households that enroll their children in private schools. As a result, the study recommends that it would be in the interests of the poor if the performance of the public basic schools is improved. Therefore, GES should promote effective accountability and supervision in public basic schools which could help to improve their performance in BECE.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The outcome of this research work could not be attributed to the effort of the researcher alone. I am heartily thankful to my supervisor, Dr. Abdulai Abubakari, whose patience, encouragement, guidance and significant role from the commencement of the research work to the final stage enabled me to develop an understanding of the subject and to write this thesis. I really appreciate the advice and services he rendered to me. I could not have imagined having a better supervisor than him.

My deepest gratitude goes to all individual participants who availed themselves to be interviewed in offering their experiences and ideas that made the research a success. Special thanks go to the Techiman Municipal Director of Education for giving me permission and introductory letter that made data collection easy for me.

I also owe my deepest gratitude and appreciation to my family for their unfailing love, prayers and care.

God richly bless you all.



DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my family and in memory of my beloved parents who sacrificed their resources in ensuring that I attained formal education.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
BECE	Basic Education Certification Examinations
EFA	Education for All
FCUBE	Free Compulsory and Universal Basic Education
GES	Ghana Education Service
GNAPS	Ghana National Association of Private Schools
GoG	Government of Ghana
ICT	Information Communication Technology
ILO	International Labor Organization
JHS	Junior High School
JS	Junior Secondary School
KG	Kindergarten
LCPs	Low-Cost Private Schools
LFPS	Low-Fee Private Schools
MOES	Ministry of Education Science and Sports
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Education Fund



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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Education is a key in human capital formation which helps to convert the natural resources to tangible goods and services for economic growth and eradication of poverty. Investment in education benefits the individual, society, and the world as a whole (Garg, 2011). Education has significant bearing on the standard of living for the people as it improves productivity through enhanced capability of the human capital. International Labor Organization (1996:98) observed that "economic growth and prosperity as well as sustainable development are directly related to human resource development." However, quality of human resources depends on the quality of education provided by the educational institutions, which influences households' choice of types of schools.

One important way in which parents are involved in their children's education is the selection of schools for their children. However, their decision to select and invest in their children's education depends on a number of social, economic and cultural factors (Rehman et al, 2010).

The availability of state and private schools in education systems enables parents to choose from a wide range of school options. This opportunity of choice empowers parents to select the best schools and create market-driven positive change in education system (Walsh, 2012), as well as gives power to parents to demand school options suitable to their needs (Cucchiara & Horvat, 2009) and the needs of their children. However, freedom of choice may be limited to the extent that the poor may not have substantial school choice in essence and may rather activate a function of education to reproduce inequality (Nishimura and Yamano, 2008).





In recent years, private sector has emerged as a vital source of educating the populations around the world. In many countries, education is offered by both public and private sector educational institutions. Largely, it is free of cost in public schools whereas in private schools, the parents have to bear the financial burden (Rehman et al, 2010). However, rapid economic growth, increased opportunities for social mobility and elevated aspirations for educational achievement coupled with the disillusionment with the quality and effectiveness of government schools have fueled demand for private schools, including some of the poorest households.

Article 26 of the UN Declaration of Human Rights states that parents have a prior right to choose the type of education they want for their children. The UN believes that what the parents, especially the poor need in the present day is not just the Right to Education, but the Right to Education of Choice.

Access to education is considered a basic human right and the role of the state in delivering this right is legally codified in international rights treaties including the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNICEF and Asian Development Bank, 2011). As result of this, governments across the world have made some efforts aimed at expanding access to education for all their nationals, particularly at the basic level. But due to budgetary constraints of governments in emerging and developing countries, they are not able to reach the 57 million children who presently are out of school while ensuring that the 250 million children in school who cannot read or write are learning (United Nations 2013). For these reasons, Ghana's Education Act of 1961, Article 25 (2) of 1992 constitution and Education Act of 2008 (Act 778) of Ghana made provision for the establishment of private schools to supplement the government's efforts, in order to dispose of enough schools to cater to the ever-growing demand for education, especially at the basic level. The Education Act of 1961 led to the creation of the Private Schools Unit at the Ministry of

Education in August 1973. During the establishment of Ghana Education Service (GES) in 1974, the Private Schools Unit was placed under Ghana Education Service, which made the GES the supervisory body of pre-tertiary private schools. This ensures conformity to GES guidelines and regulations, with particular reference to the educational reforms.

Private education is expanding rapidly in rich, poor and middle-income countries leading to increase in access to education. According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2005), between 1991 and 2003 private school enrollments across the globe grew far quicker than those of public schools. The fastest growth was in Africa: 13 percent as opposed to 52 percent for public education (International Finance Corporation, 2010). In Ghana, it is estimated that between 2006 and 2009, the private sector grew at a rate of 5%, far out-pacing public sector growth, estimated at 9% (International Finance Corporation, 2010). In 2011, there were 55,202 basic schools in Ghana and 18,380 of these were private, representing 33% of all basic schools. Private school enrollment accounts for 21% of the total basic school enrollment (Ministry of Education, 2011a). Recent statistics from Techiman Municipal Education Directorate suggests that the number of private basic schools has been growing rapidly in an era of fee-free education. Statistics from Techiman Municipal Education Directorate (Ghana Education Service) for 2013/2014 academic year indicates that 44% (178 out of 409) of Basic Schools (KG, primary and J.H.S) are privately owned. Therefore, this thesis explores the factors influencing demand and supply of private schooling in the Techiman Municipality.



1.2 Problem Statement

The private school phenomenon has gained impetus and increased visibility in the Techiman Municipality in recent years. The willingness of parents to enroll their children in private basic schools which are relatively expensive despite the availability of public basic schools, contradicts the notion that privatizing education would deny some children access to formal education due to financial constraints (Walford, 1994).

Previous studies carried out on this subject matter in Ghana with exception of Akaguri (2011) have focused on factors that influence households' decision to enroll their children in school. Other studies have also focused on comparing the performance of public and private schools, and the contributions of private schools. However, there is very little empirical evidence on why parents opt to send their children to either the public or private basic education system. Not much has been done to ascertain the factors that influence households' decision to enroll their children in public or private basic schools. For instance, Nsiah-Pepurah (2004) conducted a study in the Kumasi Metropolis to assess the role of private schools in the development of education in Ghana. Okyerefo, et al. (2011) also investigated factors influencing pupils' academic performance in privately owned Junior High Schools in Accra, Ghana while Rolleston and Olatunmbi-Olateju (2012) conducted a comparative study of cases of Ghana and Nigeria's public and private sector provision of education. However, there have been limited empirical studies on this subject matter in the Techiman Municipal area, hence the need for this study.

1.3 General Research Objective

The overall objective of this study is to ascertain the factors influencing the demand and supply of private basic education in the Techiman Municipality.



1.3.1 Specific Objectives

The study seeks to address the following four specific objectives:

1. To examine the factors that influence household choice of type of basic school for their children in the Techiman Municipality.
2. To ascertain the factors that promote the growth of private schools in the study area.
3. To determine the contributions of private basic schools in the provision of basic education in the study area.
4. To examine the challenges faced by private schools in the provision of basic education in the study area.

4 Research Questions

4.1 Main Research Question

What are the factors influencing the demand and supply of private schools in the Techiman Municipality?

4.2 Specific Research Questions

In order to construct explanation of the issues discussed above, the following questions need to be answered:

1. What factors influence household choice of type of basic school for their children?
2. What are the factors influencing the growth of private basic schools in the study area?
3. What are the contributions of private schools in the provision of basic education?



4. What are the challenges faced by private basic schools in the provision of basic education in the study area?

1.5 The Significance of the Study

The significance of any academic work can be seen in its linkage to large importance, practical or theoretical problems, social policy issues or concerns of practices. The study is very useful in

all these aspects as elaborated below:

The study would provide benchmark data that would assist policy makers in the formulation of sound economic, social and especially educational policies that will aim at improving access and quality of basic education in Ghana. The findings may inform the development of appropriate policies, systems and tools to support effective collaboration between the government and the private sector in the provision and management of basic schools in Ghana. The research is to help the government or the state to bring to the barest minimum the problems associated with the provision of basic education.

The findings of the study would afford Ministry of Education and Ghana Education Service as well as public basic school administrators the opportunity to understand the motivation of parents for sending their children to private basic schools. This information would be helpful and serves a basis to improve parental involvement and satisfaction in public basic schools.

The study would also contribute immensely to academic knowledge and serve as a reference document to stimulate further researches on the subject area which have potential in promoting sustainable private schools and development. This study will contribute to the literature by helping to fill the void in the research on why parents choose private schools. The study would



also expose other private schools related issues that would generate further research to the academic field.

The outcome of the study when published could create awareness on fundamental issues of private schools in the provision of basic education which could promote well informed discussions by the stakeholders and development partners.

.6 Scope of the Research

The scope of this study is limited to Techiman Municipality. Geographically, the research covers the boundaries of Techiman Municipality of the Republic of Ghana. The research encompasses the factors determining household choice of schools, factors that promote growth of private schools, contributions and challenges of private schools in the provision of basic education as well as recommendations. The target population comprised all household heads, proprietors/proprietresses of private basic schools, key officials of the Ghana Education Service, and executives of Ghana National Association of Private Schools (GNAPS) in the Techiman Municipality.

.7 Limitation of the Study

The research was largely based on the perceptions and experiences of the research participants which the researcher had no control over. The researcher, however, complemented his findings with quantitative data and also interviewed different categories of respondents to make the findings more reliable.

The researcher had difficulty accessing the relevant literature on the topic from relevant institutions and persons. The researcher therefore wrote letters to the institutions to seek their



expressed consent. This made it very easy for the researcher to have access to relevant information. The researcher also had a problem with the retrieval of questionnaires that were sent out to some household heads and some proprietors could not locate the first questionnaires given to them. This forced the researcher to resupply participants with new questionnaires and also resorted to telephone interviews. This helped the researcher to get most of the participants to respond to the questionnaires. Also, some of the people sampled were reluctant to participate in the study, however tremendous effort was made by the researcher to persuade them to participate.

2.8 Definition of Key Terms/Concepts

Private school is a school that is established, funded, controlled and managed by a non-governmental organization or a private individual or a group of individuals.

Public sector refers to any politically established and maintained organizations or departments whose principal objective is the provision of collective goods and services and the promotion of the general wellbeing of the populace. It refers to government structures and departments that are in at promoting the welfare of the people.

Private sector refers to the organizations and institutions owned and managed by individual people or group of individuals whose objective is to maximize profit or promote the welfare of the people. Private sector covers all non-state actors which include commercial entities, NGOs and faith based organizations.

Level of education refers to the highest level of formal school that a person ever attended.

Private sector participation refers to the involvement of private individuals and organizations in service delivery that is usually seen as a primary responsibility of the government or the state.



1.9 Organization of the Study

This study is presented in five chapters namely; Chapter one which consists of the introduction of the problem which covers; the background of the study, problem statement, the objectives of the study, significance of the study, scope of the study, the limitations of the study and organization of the study. Chapter two comprises of relevant literature on the subject matter and the theoretical framework, whilst chapter three highlights the profile of the study area, research design and methodology. Chapter four presents in-depth analysis, as well as discussion of findings. Chapter five highlights the main findings of the study, draws conclusions and recommendations.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

This section provides a review of the previous works done in related contexts. Principally, this section presents a review of households' choice of types of schools and previous empirical findings on private schools, and highlights of the contributions and challenges faced by private schools and theory that explains incentives of households' school choice decision as well as conceptual framework.

2.1 Factors Influencing Household Choice of Type of School

This section discusses the factors that influence households' choice of types of schools. Literature review reveals that household school choice is based on certain factors such as the quality of education, convenience and safety of pupils, religious affiliations of schools and socio-economic background of parents (Goldring and Philips, 2008). These factors have direct and indirect influence on households' choice of types of schools.

2.1.1 Socio-Economic Background of Household and Household Head

There is an argument that if households perceive schooling as an investment good, then household income in principle should not directly affect the household decision to invest in education (Behrman and Knowles, 1999 cited in Akaguri, 2011; Colclough, et al., 2003). However, the fact is that the non-poor households are more likely to have better information about the benefits of education and quality of schools and therefore are more likely to take risk in investing in their children's education (Bray and Bunly, 2005; Goldring and Philips, 2008 and



Akaguri, 2011). The socio-economic differences of households and household heads or parents impact on their school choice. Household income or assets which are normally proxy for household resources are also positively related to educational choice (Shneider, et. al., 1996 cited in Akaguri, 2011).

The segment of poorer or disadvantaged families accessing private schooling is often relatively small when compared with higher-income families. According to Harma (2008), an increase in education expenditure is likely to be correlated with household income and private school choice. In India, for example, Härmä and Rose (2012) found that only 10% of children from the poorest quintile were accessing private schools in their study area, compared with 70% of the richest quintile. A similar study in rural India by Härmä (2011) found that a smaller portion of children of unskilled laborers attending private schools than of children of farmers or skilled workers. The socio-economic differences of households and household heads or parents impact on their school choice. The lower the household income, the less the household's ability to bear the costs associated with private schooling and the greater the likelihood that the child will either not be enrolled or will be enrolled in a public, rather than a private, school. For instance, according to Shneider et al. (1996) cited in Akaguri (2011), household income or assets which are normally proxy for household resources are positively related to educational choice. For example, Mrekar and Goldring (1999), the higher the income raises the household's capacity to afford the cost of private education increases. The higher households' income the more likely they enroll their children in private schools compared with their low income household counterparts. The children from better socio-economic background enroll in private schools, while children from lowest socio-economic background enroll in government schools because of their parents' inability to afford the cost of private schooling. This is because income is one of the most





important factors which affect most of human social and economic decisions (Rehman et al., 2010). For instance, Kingdon (1996) and Harma (2008) found that in rural and urban India respectively households who owned economic assets were more likely to enroll their children in private schools comparative to household without such economic assets. According to Alderman et al. (2001) as household income increases, schooling choices move very rapidly away from government school and no school options towards private school. With economic and social capital, relatively affluent households are more able to afford private schooling, and more likely to choose private schools. Also, according to Akaguri (2011), in rural areas, households that are relatively better off including those that have social network of friends and relatives that provide them with resources for education may enroll in fee paying private schools. His study reveals that households which have poor socio-economic background are less likely to choose private school. Also, Akaguri (2011) study indicates that the household's direct schooling expenditure per child is statistically significant on household school choice. His study shows that rise in education expenditure per child increases the relative likelihood of the household head selecting either private school only or a combination of public and private school as compared to public school only. Nishimura and Yamano (2008) also find that girls from wealthier households, measured by the household assets, are more likely to attend private schools than girls from less wealthier households. Nishimura and Yamano (2008) find that the probability of attending a private school, of any type, doubles from 5 to 10 percent when the asset value increases from the 25 percent to 75 percent.

The question of whether low-cost private schools (LCPSs) are serving the poor is widely debated in the literature, with a majority of empirical studies finding many are reaching at least some low-income families (Day-Ashley et al., 2013). However, the portion of poorer or disadvantaged

families accessing private schooling is often relatively small when compared with higher-income families. As indicated above, in India, for example, Härmä and Rose (2012) found that only 10% of children from the poorest quintile were accessing private schools in their study area, compared with 70% of the richest quintile. A similar study in rural India documented a smaller portion of children of unskilled laborers attending private schools than of children of farmers or skilled workers (Härmä, 2011b cited in McLoughlin, 2013). In rural Ghana, Akaguri (2013) revealed that even where children from the lowest quintiles are enrolled in LCPSs, they are also the most likely to drop out.

Meanwhile, according to Akyeapong et al, (2007:68-69), a USAID sponsored survey of public/private schools in 2001 found that most parents of pupils attending private schools were traders (34%), farmers (30%) or had jobs in the public sector (about 15%). This compares to public schools in their study where parents of about 54% were farmers and 22% traders. This suggests that either private schools are less accessible to farmers' children and/or children from higher socio-economic backgrounds tend to access private schooling more. Also, Akyeapong et al's (2007) study sponsored by USAID revealed that private schools in peri-urban areas were accessed by households that could afford to pay.



or Woodhead et al. (2012), many government schools are becoming “ghettoized” – attended mainly by those from the poorest, most disadvantaged and marginalised groups in society..., which will serve to reinforce wider structural inequalities. In support, Härmä (2009) cited in Dixon (2012), states that in rural villages in Uttar Pradesh the poorest do not have the choice to enroll their children in low-cost private schools as the poor cannot afford them. However, Oketch et al. (2010) found that private school utilisation by wealth quintile among the informal

settlements show that there were more pupils from the poorest households that were attending private schools compared to the least poor. Conversely, they also found that the trend in non-slums was the opposite, where the percentage of pupils attending private schools consistently increased with increasing wealth. Overall, they found that few pupils from least poor households for both settlements were attending private schools compared to other wealth quintiles and nearly one half of the pupils from the poorest households in the slums attend private schools.

Fremer and Muralidharan (2008) found that nearly three-tenths (28%) of the rural population had access to a private school – leaving over seventy percent (72%) without access. Similarly, in India, Dixon (2013) revealed that, while a majority of school children (74.1%) in rural areas were registered in state schools, in urban areas the majority of children (66.6%) were registered in private schools (Dixon, 2013). For some, the relatively lower density of private schools in rural versus urban settings implies restricted ‘choice’ for rural users, and diminishes the effects of competition between suppliers” (Härmä, 2011a cited in Mcloughlin, 2013). However, the reason why the private schools are clustered in urban areas is because the urban inhabitants have higher capacity to afford the cost of private education than their counterparts in the rural areas.

1.2 Convenience and Safety of Children

The distance to school is very important factor in households’ school choice decision. According to Akaguri (2011), the distance a child has to travel from home to school and back influences household demand for schooling. This is because the further away the school is from the home the higher the cost household incurs when a child is enrolled in school, if all other factors are held constant (Colclough, et al, 2003).





According to Akaguri (2011:36), “household choice of private schooling may be influenced by the safety and convenience of schools to their children.” For Akaguri (2011), where the location of a public school is remote from a child’s home or where the school is considered by a household to be unsafe for children, they are more likely to enroll in the nearest and safe school even if such a choice would imposed heavy cost burden on the household. Again, in China, Tooley (2009) reveals that households in remote areas prefer to enroll their children in private school because of the distance and danger of travelling to the nearest public school. As a result of this, households would have no choice but to enroll their children in the only available private school in the community. Similarly, Akaguri (2011) reveals that the distance a child has to travel from home to school is statistically significant in explaining school choice in respect of choosing the combined school option compared to public school only. Akaguri (2011) reveals that for each kilometer a household’s residence is located further away from school, the relative likelihood of selecting the combined school option compared to public school only is reduced by 0.95 times. However, according to Alderman et al. (2001), increasing distance to a school type lowers the relative utility of choosing that option, and the effect is more significant for government schools than for private schools. Furthermore, Alderman et al. (2001:16) also indicates “school distance affects schooling choice in much the same way as school fees. Private school choice is less sensitive than government school choice to distance. The cross-effects indicate that increased distance to one school type increases enrollment in the other school type and also increases use of the no school option.” For McEvoy (2003) students whose parents can afford private transport have the choice of attending ‘elite schools’ outside their immediate area, while students whose parents cannot afford private transport are forced to attend their nearest school. This is because, transport cost when added to school fees increases the total costs of schooling which could be

beyond what the poor can afford. Besides that if the transport cost is more than the cost of private school fees, as rational beings, parents are more likely to enroll their children in private schools instead of enrolling them in faraway public schools.

In China, Tooley (2009b) reveals that households in remote areas prefer to enroll their children in private school because of the distance and danger of travelling to the nearest public school.

hao and Alper (1998) conclude that the absence of primary schools in some communities constitutes a barrier to access to schooling. As a result, households would have no choice but to enroll their children in the only available fee paying private school in their communities.

parents usually demonstrate greater preference for private education as the accessibility of private schools relative to public schools increases in a cluster. “The less time it takes to travel to private school relative to a public school within a cluster, the higher will be the probability of enrolling in a private school” (Hamna and Sahar, 2014:24). However, according to Hamna and Sahar (2014), parents are very sensitive to the proximity of private schools relative to public schools when they are choosing a school for their daughters. Their study show that, as the relative distance between a private school and public school increases in a cluster, parents are less likely to choose a private school for their daughters. Hamna and Sahar (2014) find parents’

choice of private school for their sons is not tied to the proximity of that school relative to a public school in the area. Looking at Hamna and Sahar’s (2014) study, while distance matters for females at the lower level, it is insignificant in the case of males at the same level. However, at the high school level, Hamna and Sahar (2014) find that distance does not influence school choice for males or females.



2.1.3 Household Heads' Education Attainment

Parents or household heads with higher educational attainment levels tend to place more value on education and this is reflected in their interests and attitude shown in education (Akaguri, 2011). In addition, the level of educational attainment enables parents to seek relevant information about schools and thus able to make more informed decisions on educational choice (Goldring and Philips, 2008). Parents or household heads who have attained formal education are able to make cost-benefit analysis of human capital development (educating their children) and become conscious of the future pecuniary and non-pecuniary returns of education. "When households undertake informal cost-benefit analyses to decide whether or not to send a child to school, they are in effect balancing other priorities against education." (Bray and Bunly, 2005:3). This puts them in good position to make informed decision by enrolling their children in better schools, however those who have not attained formal education have no capacity or less capacity to make informed decisions and they are more likely to educate their children in low performing schools. Educated parents have a better chance of assessing the quality of their child's school (Andrabi et al., 2002). Educated parents are comparatively well aware of significance of good schooling especially if they have been themselves students of both types of schools (Rehman et al, 2010). Consequently better or highly educated parents are in a better position to send their children to private schools if they perceive private schools to be of a higher quality. Aldermana et al. (2001) suggest that parental education has similar productivity effects across public and private schools. Glick and Sahn (2000) also found that coefficients for parents' education were of like signs and magnitudes across public and private school choices in Madagascar. For Goldring and Philips (2008), parental education, household income and occupation are positively related to school



choice. They indicate that parental educational and household income levels are positively correlated to the choice of private school.

Parents or household heads with higher educational attainments tend to place more value on education and this reflects in their interests and attitudes shown in education. They recognize the importance of education. Similarly, in Ghana, Akaguri (2011) reveals that household heads' years or levels of education significantly affect their school choice. He reveals that an additional year of education increases the relative likelihood of private school choice by 1.2 times, while the likelihood of choosing the combined school option is increased by 1.1 times. The indication is that more highly educated household heads are more likely to choose private school only or a combination of public and private schools rather than public school only. For Goldring and Phillips (2008) the level of educational attainment enables parents to seek relevant information about schools and thus able to make more informed decisions on educational choice. Their educational attainments afford them opportunity to make informed choice.

1.4 Occupation of Household Head

The occupation of household, particularly household head affects household school choice decision. In Ghana, for instance, Akaguri (2011) reveals that among the various occupations on which households depended for their income and livelihood, those engaged in self-employed agricultural activities show that this had a positive impact on selection of both public and private schooling when compared to households not engaged in that occupation; and the likelihood of the household head choosing this option relative to public school only increases by about threefold. Those households engaged in self-employed agricultural activities are considered to be the poorest due to the low and erratic nature of their earnings and such circumstances pose a



significant constraint on their capacity to enroll their children in private schools. As a result they are more probably to choose combined school option or public school. Akaguri (2011) also reveals that engaging in petty trading increases a household's likelihood of selecting both public and private schools relative to public school only by about twofold. Moreover, in respect of households engaged in a major trading activity, the relative likelihood of choosing a private school rather than a public school only increases by about fourfold. Household members engaged in petty trading were more able to support the schooling of their children than their counterparts not working in this sector (GSS, 2003 cited in Akaguri, 2011). Households that are engaged in petty trading are more likely to earn a small daily income, which could help them to meet their children's education costs. Such households are likely to select both public and private school, while households engaged in major trading or manufacturing enterprises are most likely to fall into the highest income quintile and therefore capable of meeting the costs of private education. As a result, households engaged in major economic activities are more likely to choose private school only compared to public school only.

1.5 Quality of Education (High Performance in Standardized Tests)

According to Kingdon (1996), households that place priority on academic achievement are more likely to choose private schools because of their better performance in examinations and test scores. Where households perceive the quality of a particular type of school to be very low, they may decide not to enrol their children or may look for alternative schooling, owing to a perception of likely low returns. In support of this phenomenon, Lankford and Wyckoff (1992) reveal that lower public school test scores in elementary schools increase the probability of parents choosing to enrol their children in private schools.





Better performance of private schools in test scores and examinations influence households in choosing private schools over public ones (Kingdon, 1996; Tooley and Dixon, 2007; Tooley, 2009). Meanwhile this depends on household's ability to afford the cost of private schooling. The wealthier families tend to react to the quality of education, while poorer pupils stay in schools regardless of the quality (Nishimura and Yamano 2008). The poor households may be willing to change their children's current schools as a result of poor performance or quality. But because of their inability to afford the cost of private education, they will let their children remain in the current schools no matter the performance of the schools. However, households or families who are able to pay for high school fees choose private schools for their children. For instance, according to Addae-Mensah (2000) cited in Akaguri (2011), over 70 percent or more of the students who enter universities in Ghana are from middle and upper income families. These students' parents invested heavily in their education by enrolling them in expensive private schools which gave them opportunity to attend top secondary schools in the country. Also, Akaguri's (2011) the qualitative analysis indicates that household heads interviewed who chose private schooling overwhelmingly cited the better education outcomes of the low-fee private schools (LFPSs) compared to the public schools as their principal motivation for selecting the FPSs. This suggests that where there are private schools in communities and public schools are perceived to be of low quality, poor households particularly those that are willing to increase their participation in school education, may enroll in private schools, especially when they perceive them to be of higher quality and more responsive to their needs. Andrabi et al. (2007) and Rehman et al. (2010) reveal that private school pupils tend to outperform public school pupils, which explain parents' preference for private over public schools. Rehman et al. (2010) also point out that parents opt for private schools because the private schools produce better

examination results. Moreover, Andrabi et al. (2007) find that there is a huge learning gap between private and public schools, and private school pupils tend to outperform public school children which arouse households' preference for private over public schools. However, better performing private schools are associated with pupils from wealthier households which are also described by other forms of socio-economic advantage (Akyeampong, et. al., 2007).

1.6 Perceived Lack of Commitment of Public School Teachers

or Akaguri (2011), in addition to quality of education, the perception that public schools lacked commitment and discipline compared to private schools, coupled with the higher aspirations of some poor households, strongly fuelled the interest of some of the poor in private education. When parents and households lose confidence in public schools due to the perception of lack of commitment to work, it serves as motivation for them to sacrifice their incomes in order to educate their children in private schools no matter their economic statuses when the perceived benefits are high.

1.7 Household's Direct Schooling Expenditure per Child

After controlling for the sex of a child, Akaguri (2011) finds that the household's direct schooling expenditure per child is statistically significant on household school choice. The results show that a rise in education expenditure per child increases the relative likelihood of the household head selecting either private school only or a combination of public and private school as compared to public school only. According to Akaguri (2011), an increase in income increases the choice of schooling options for the household and not just for one child. For (Harma, 2008), an increase in education expenditure is likely to be correlated with household income and private school choice. Harma (2008) argues that real school choice has to do with a household's ability



to pay school fees and related expenses without cutting back on basic household needs such as food, medical care and other household essentials. According to Harma (2008), the mere decision to enroll in a private school does not connote real choice, especially if households have to spend significant proportion of their income on just one child.

2.1.8 Peer Effects

There is an element of peer effects. People who have their children in private schools do have influence on their neighbors. Neighbors tend to send their children to private schools where their neighbors are sending their children believing that education where parents pay fees would be of better quality compared to state provision (Tooley et al., 2008; Oketch et al., 2010).

2.1.9 Religious Values

Religious values in the demand for private schooling are clearly important. Parents send their children to religious schools in part to help preserve a religious identity and instill religious values (Cohen-Zada, 2006 and Cohen-Zada & Sander, 2008). Cohen-Zada & Sander (2008) find that both religion and religiosity have important effects on the demand for private schools. According to Cohen-Zada & Sander (2008) the share of Catholics in the population has a significant concave effect on the probability of attending a Catholic school, which peaks when the share of Catholics in the population is about 27%. Cohen-Zada & Sander (2008) result is consistent with Cohen-Zada (2006) study that showed that the share of Catholics in the population may reduce the demand for Catholic schools if Catholic parents prefer that their children attend schools with other Catholics. Cohen-Zada & Sander (2008) found that the effects of religion and religiosity in the study area varied depending upon the type of private school in question. Cohen-Zada & Sander (2008) found that Catholic religiosity increases the demand for



Catholic schools and has no effect on the demand for other types of private schooling, and fundamentalist Protestant religiosity increases the demand for Protestant schools and has no effect on the demand for other types of private schooling. Meanwhile, Cohen-Zada and Sander (2008) also found that non-fundamentalist Protestant religiosity increases the demand for non-sectarian private schools and has no effect on the demand for other types of private schooling. Campbell et al. (2005) Cohen-Zada and Sander (2008) and study showed that households with no religion were more likely to choose non-sectarian private schools for their children. These suggest that religiosity is a key factor that affects who attends private schools.

1.10 Employment Opportunities

According to Hamna and Sahar (2014), parents are more likely to choose private schools if they think employment opportunities that require a high level of education are available to their children after completion. For Hamna and Sahar (2014) the availability of lucrative employment opportunities can inspire parents to invest more in their children's education since such jobs would promise higher returns on their children's education in future. However, "parents are less likely to choose private schools for their children if the prevalent job opportunities do not require specialized education. Thus, if parents perceive the availability of jobs such as farm or factory labor, they have a 12 percent lower likelihood of choosing a private school." (Hamna and Sahar, 2014:20). Parents consider private education a means of significantly improving their children's potential for procuring sought-after jobs such as in the government sector or a profession.

The decision to invest in a child's education seems to be linked to weighing its costs (that is, both direct and indirect costs) against expected returns. If the expected future returns are low, parents will be less willing to bear the cost of private education. Moreover, if parents do not



think that the quality of education acquired in school will improve the likelihood of availing the prevalent job opportunities, investing in private education may not be considered worthwhile (to Hamna and Sahar, 2014).

However, according to Hamna and Sahar (2014), richer parents are more likely to enroll their children to private schools even when the prevalent job opportunities do not require specialised education. For Hamna and Sahar (2014), poor households who perceive low education jobs to be more prevalent are less likely to choose private schools for their children, but the effect is reversed for households in the upper tail of the wealth distribution. According to Hamna and Sahar (2014) despite the perceived availability of low education jobs, richer households continue to have a greater likelihood of choosing private schools for their children. This suggests that the impact of perceived availability of employment opportunities on school choice varies by the socioeconomic statuses of households.

1.11 Sources of Information Influencing Household Choice of School Options

According to Srivastava (2007), households' school choice decision processes to a certain extent relied on gathering information about potential schools on different characteristics, such as fee structure, fee management practices, teachers' attendance rate, school facilities, school environment, children's results, and medium of instruction. For Srivastava (2007) information gathered is used to make a decision on the relative quality of different local schools according to the households' own indicators and mental models. Srivastava (2007) found that households' primary and irresistible sources of information were other parents in the neighborhood or village, family members, and close friends who were considered trustworthy and reasonably informed. People who have their children in private schools do have influence on their neighbors.



According to Srivastava (2007), the information gathered was largely comprised of the household's sources, experiences of and general perceptions about focus schools compared with other local schools. According to Srivastava (2007), apart from a small minority of households that visited focus schools prior to enrolling their children, or who had some direct knowledge by having previously accessed it, most gained something similar to "hot knowledge" (Ball, 2003 cited in Srivastava, 2007) by speaking to other parents. The households engaged in dynamic conversation about local schools, and also actively sought information about them, and called on each other for 'insider' knowledge. Those households who have their children in the schools in question do have great influence on their neighbors. According to Srivastava (2007), once the information is sought, it is matched against similar information about other local public and LFP schools and linked back to attitudinal factors. With the information sought, they do cost-benefit analysis on the perceived quality of local schools and select school they want their children to attend.

.2 Factors that Promote the Growth of Private Schools

Private participation in education has increased significantly over the last two decades across the globe, serving all types of communities from high income to low income families. Although governments remain the main financiers of education, in many countries private agents deliver a sizable share of education (Patrinos et al., 2009). Private education is expanding rapidly in rich, poor and middle-income countries. Between 1991 and 2003 low-fee private school enrollments across the globe grew far quicker than those of public schools. The fastest growth was in Africa: 113 percent as opposed to 52 percent for public education (International Finance Corporation, 2010). According to Barrera-Ororio et al. (2009), at global level, enrollment in private primary schools grew by 58% between 1991 and 2004, while enrollment in public primary schools grew



by 10%. In Ghana, it is estimated that between 2006 and 2009, the private sector grew at a rate of 26%, far out-pacing public sector growth, estimated at 9% (International Finance Corporation, 2010). In 2011, there were 55,202 basic schools in Ghana and 18,380 of these were private, representing 33% of all basic schools. Private school enrollment accounts for 21% of the total basic school enrollment (Ministry of Education, 2011b).

he private school sector continues to grow and has immense potential of growing further and from the literature review there are many factors influencing this growth. These factors include the unmet (excess) demand for education, poor performance of public schools, over-crowded classrooms, teacher absenteeism, language preference and the costs of 'free' public education.

.2.1 Excess Demand and Differentiated Demand for a Better Quality of Education

he two main demand factors have been identified as responsible for the growth of private education, namely; unmet (excess) demand for education above what the state can provide, and differentiated demand for a better quality of education or alternative types of education than the state can provide (UNESCO/IIEP, 1991 cited in Center for Development and Enterprise, 2015). Excess demand for education creates a viable market for the private sector investment in the education sector. The private sector sees the shortage of supply of education by the government as an opportunity to invest in the sector. According to Kitaev (1999) and Sosale (1999) cited in Tafula et al. (2007), growth and expansion of private education in both developed and developing economies is experienced where the market for education is characterised by excess demand, differentiated demand, household willingness to pay for education services, market criteria such as profit margin, affordability, fee charging and self-supporting accountability, schooling choice and effective management.





The supply-side factors of private education relate to situations where public provision of services does not meet the needs of the target population group leading to private provision in order to bridge the existing gap (Sosale, 1999; Nafula et al., 2007). When the public sector fails to provide enough educational infrastructure and opportunities as well as provide quality education to meet the demand of all households, the private sector becomes a viable option. For instance, according to Mcloughlin (2013), private schools emerge in locations where public schools are either underprovided or perceived to be of low quality. In a locality where the supply of public schooling is insufficient to meet demand of families, the excluded families who perceive the benefits of education to be greater than the opportunity costs, and can afford to pay fees, will seek alternatives in the private sector (Oketch et al., 2010).

Similarly, according to Heyneman and Stern (2013), private schools have proliferated in developing countries in order to meet excess demand resulting from an insufficient supply of public school spaces and/or to provide alternatives to a failing public education system. According to Mcloughlin (2013), a number of empirical studies find that private schools emerge in locations where state schools are either underprovided or perceived to be of low quality. The perception that the public schools deliver low quality education discourages parents from seeking public school education for their wards but rather educate their wards in private schools which they believe will help them better their lives.

Differentiated demand also promotes the growth of private schooling in areas. A family opts for private school because of the product variety offered. According to Estelle (1993), Mcloughlin (2013) and Oketch et al. (2010), private and public schools are imperfect substitutes. This is more likely where there is greater income diversity within the population. Oketch et al. (2010)

inquired whether excess or differentiated demand was driving the uptake of private schooling across parts of Kenya. Their study, which compared choice in two slum settlements and two non-slum settlements, concluded that excess demand was the main factor driving poorer parents to send their children to ‘low-quality’ LCPSs in slum areas. They found out that parents wish to send their children to free public schools, but are crowded out owing to limited public school places in their locality. However, according to McLoughlin (2013), wealthier families in non-slum areas were sending their children to private schools through preference or differentiated demand specifically, because of the perceived higher quality of private schools. Oketch et al (2010) found that parents in slums in Kenya were choosing private schools because of the low quantity of public schools in their vicinity, whereas parents in non-slum areas were choosing private schools because of the perceived lack of quality of public schools in their area. This shows that if parents are discontent with what the state provides no matter their socioeconomic situations, they will do whatever possible to seek private education for their progenies. According to Heyneman and Stern (2013:2), “traditionally, wealthy families have seen private schools as alternatives to the public system, but in the past few decades this same trend has been seen for low-income families as well.” Parents’ desire for a particular type of education that the public system cannot provide is a strong factor.



2.2 Declining Standards in Public Schools and Higher Performance of Private Schools

One of the main *raison d'être*s for the expansion of private schools is the poor quality of public schools. In the view of Patrinos et al. (2009), public perceptions of poor quality education at public schools at all levels are driving the expansion of private schooling. Before households or parents decide to spend their incomes to educate their children in private schools, there must be an assumption on their part that private schools will provide higher-quality services and better

educational opportunities to their children. According to Center for Development and Enterprise (2015), private education has expanded rapidly in India and poor parents make great sacrifices to send their children to private schools. This is often as a result of their disillusionment and disappointment with public schools and their willingness to pay for their children to attend very rudimentary private schools. For McLoughlin (2013:1) “Irrespective of incentives to get children into government schools, parents sometimes choose private schools because of perceptions of better-quality teaching and facilities, and a preference for English language instruction.”

According to Checchi and Jappelli (2004), private schools allow parents to decide the amount and the quality of education that they believe appropriate, given their degree of altruism and the expected talent of their offspring. Parents who wish to invest in the human capital of their children beyond the level provided by the public school system can opt out and choose a private school. In principle, with perfect capital markets parents’ choice is unconstrained. But given limited borrowing capacity, parents are constrained. They cannot choose private schools if their current resources are below some threshold level (Checchi and Jappelli, 2004).

2.3 Effective Accountability Systems

Poor quality of education in government schools as a result of weak accountability systems is widely reported as the major reason for the rapid growth of the private school sector. Private schools are generally perceived to be more accountable and offering better quality education.

The Probe Report (1999) cited in Goyal and Pandey (2009) notes that in a private school, the teachers are accountable to the manager who can fire them, while the manager is also accountable to the parents who can withdraw their children. In a government school the chain of accountability is much weaker, as teachers have a permanent job with salaries and promotions



unrelated to performance. Tooley (2009a) claims that low-cost private schools are likely to provide lower teacher absenteeism due to increased accountability to parents and school owners. Therefore parents who can afford the cost prefer to send their children to these private schools where they think they can have the required quality education in terms of performance (Nsiah-Peprah, 2004).

2.4 Poor Supervision and Negative Attitudes of Public School Teachers

In a school setting where teaching and learning takes place, effective supervision plays a very vital role in ensuring provision of quality education by improving students' academic performance. According to Neagley and Evans (1970), effective supervision improves the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom. For Kremer and Muralidharan (2008) and Tooley et al. (2008), private schools congregate in areas where rates of government school teachers' absence are highest. In view of Okyerefo et al. (2011), the academic performance is better in private schools due to more effective supervision of work.

According to Ashly et al. (2014), Desai et al.'s study indicated that government school teachers were only 2 percentage points more likely to be absent than their private school counterparts.

Even though with this example the difference is very small, the private school pupils or students will have more access to their teachers than those of government school pupils and this can lead to differences in performance and achievement of the pupils. This could attract parents to enroll their children in the private schools instead of enrolling their children in fee free public schools.



2.2.5 Reductions in Public Expenditures on Education

Inadequate funding of public schools limits the capacity of the public schools to admit more pupils and provide high quality education. According to Colclough (1997) cited in Heyneman and Stern (2013), inadequate or uneven distribution of government finance leads to demand for schooling that non-government schools can fill. Checchi and Jappelli (2004) observed that the amount of funding of public schools has a great impact on the private enrollment rate because changes in the level of spending for education affect public school quality. Reductions in public expenditures on education tend to reduce the quality of public schools, thereby heightening the demand for private education and making private education viable.

According to Akpotu et al. (2009:23), “the establishment of private schools is no doubt a response to the failings of the public school system.” The inability of state schools to provide high quality education and improve upon the performance of pupils in external examinations through the provision of needed logistics serves as disincentives for households to enroll their wards in the state schools. Therefore parents who can afford the cost prefer to send their children to these private schools where they think they can have the required quality education in terms of performance.

2.6 High Levels of Teaching Activity in Private Schools (High Commitment)

Looley et al. (2011) cited in Ashly et al. (2014) deduce that levels of teaching activity are significantly higher in private schools than government schools. Kremer and Muralidharan (2008) conclude that there is more teaching activity in private schools versus government schools, along with less multi-grade teaching, and substantially more contact time between teachers and pupils. If there is more contact time between teachers and pupils, it gives pupils



opportunity to learn new things which helps in improving the performance and learning outcomes of the pupils, and the opposite is also true. Muralidharan and Sundararaman (2013) emphasize that government school teachers tend to spend significantly more time on administrative work than private school teachers. This takes off some of instructional or contact hours they are supposed to spend with the pupils and impart knowledge in the pupils. According to Ashly et al. (2014), Kingdon and Banerji's (2009) study in Uttar Pradesh, in which public school regular teachers self-report spending about 75 percent of their school time teaching as compared to the 90 percent reported by private school teachers. According to Ashly et al. (2014:20), "not only levels of activity, but approaches to teaching, are sometimes considered to be of better quality in private than government schools." The results of this would be improved performance and learning outcomes of the pupils.

2.7 Favourable Government Policy on Private Education

Government policies can influence the demand and supply of private schooling. The prevailing public policy on private education affects the growth of private schools. The nature of national policy on private education in a country is an important factor in determining the existence of private schools. The existence or nonexistence of government policy may encourage or discourage development of schools (Nafula et al., 2007). For instance, the introduction of free primary education policy in Kenya exacerbated the perceptions of low quality in state provision (Tooley et al., 2008). Again, according to Nafula et al. (2007), in Kenya, government policies such as 'cost sharing' in the 1980s and commitment to Universal Primary Education and EFA affected, in one way or another, the establishment of private schools. However, some governments in developing countries use punitive measures to prevent the private sector from establishing schools. For example, 'private schools were outlawed in Tanzania in the 1970s'



(James, 1993:577). In this situation there will not be any private schools, because those individuals and non-governmental organizations that trespass are punished to deter others. However, policies such as improved supply of public schools of high quality can deter the demand for private schools. “Control mechanisms can also make it difficult for private schools to emerge and thrive, and allowing more parental involvement in the management of public schools can help to address and accommodate the differential tastes within a public education system that would otherwise lead to the emergence of private schools” (James, 1993:577). Government policies can either encourage or discourage the demand and the growth of private school education. According to James (1993), the provision of subsidies to private schools helps to increase the supply of private education, while government spending on public schools also helps increase their quantity and/or quality and decreases disposable income, which helps in decreasing the demand for private education.

The role of the government in the expansion of nongovernment schooling cannot be overlooked.

In Nepal, for example, there has been demand for private schooling but it has been difficult to implement due to significant government opposition (Caddell, 2007 cited in Heyneman and Stern, 2013). Likewise, in Nigeria the government has been found to intimidate, rather than

support, private schools (Phillipson et al., 2008) cited in Heyneman and Stern, 2013). Barbados,

Mauritius and many of the transitional economies (including Belarus, Uzbekistan and Moldova)

have also faced government obstacles when private actors have attempted to expand the country's low-cost private education sector (Kitaev, 2004). Additionally, while private education has been expanding rapidly in parts of Malawi, the central government has been seeking to maintain control over the education sector, which has made the expansion more difficult (Rose, 2005 cited in Heyneman and Stern, 2013).



2.2.8 Favourable Legal and Regulatory Framework Governing Private Schools

The legal and regulatory framework governing private schools is another factor that affects the growth of private schools in a country. According to Nafula et al. (2007), a lighter regulation will enable the private sector to operate and hence proliferate growth of schools, while a tighter regulation implies that private sector duplicates the public sector. This will promote moderate growth in the sector and also avoid explosion of low quality private schools.

2.9 Realization of Investment Dimension of Education

According to Hughes (1998:66) and Swart (1992:2), “as rational beings, individuals’ actions are guided by the desire for more of economic commodities than less, because they desire to maximize satisfaction.” Education industry is seen as an investment avenue through which proprietors (school owners) can maximize profit. According to Nsiah-Peprah (2004:60), “private schools see it as a business. They make money and acquire property through payment of school fees, parent-teacher association fees and levies for the construction of classrooms and purchase of equipment like computers.” The main aim of an entrepreneur is to maximize profit from his or her investment. In addition, gluttony seems to be inherent in human nature. As an individual’s conduct is guided by the economic motive, he or she will do everything in his or her power to amass wealth (Sedisa, 2008).

According to Blaug (1980) cited in Akpotu and Akpochafo (2009), education is a profitable private investment and higher earnings of educated people are significant element in the demand for education. The wages and salaries earned by educated workers inspire people and households to demand for education for themselves and their progenies for the betterment of their lives. Blaug (1980) advised that it might be fruitful to look at the demand for education and training as



an investment demand to prospective lifetime earnings. Education is not only an investment to the individual and his family, but also to the governments, corporate bodies and institutions or entrepreneurs. The realization of this investment dimension of education, no doubt has necessitated the increasing desire of private educational entrepreneurs in all levels of the educational system. The growth in the private educational institutions has been alarming. Most proprietors appear to see the educational sector as the quickest and safest means to receive quick returns on investment with minimal risks, as there are always students to admit (Akpotu and kpochafo, 2009). The number of children of school going age keeps ballooning and this makes viable for education entrepreneurs to invest in the sector to amass wealth. The education sector seen as an avenue through which individuals and private organizations can maximize profit with low risk. With these low risks associated with the education industry, prospective education entrepreneurs are motivated to invest in education to maximize profit. According to Nafula et al. (2007:9), “in most private schools, school fees, which is the most preferred financing method of private education, motivates private sector investment in education particularly in for profit educational institutions”. Private schools owners make money and acquire property through payment of school fees, parent-teacher association fees and levies for the construction of classrooms and purchase of equipment like computers.



2.10 Oversupply of Teachers and Hidden Costs in Government Schools

Phillipson et al. (2008) cited in Heyneman and Stern (2013) also suggests that low-cost private education has increased in developing countries in recent years due, in part, to an oversupply of teachers, hidden costs in government schools, high private tuition, and a preferable language of instruction as well as poor public performance and religious preference. The availability of teachers, particularly untrained teachers, helps owners of private schools to get access to cheap

labor which helps increase their profit margins. There are many graduates and secondary school leavers who are unemployed and are willing to accept low salaries. This makes the cost of labor very low for the private school owners. Also, parents who want to avoid the cost of free public education and can afford to pay the fees of private schools, send their children to private schools.

2.3. Contributions of Private Schools in the Provision of Basic Education

The private sector plays an important role in the provision of education. In the modern education age when virtually all nations both developed and developing have accepted that education is a basic human right that should be made accessible to all, private schools have become a distinct reality in almost all developing countries including Ghana, playing very critical role in education delivery particularly basic education and the role of private sector in the provision of education cannot be overemphasized. The private schools play crucial role in the provision of education in diverse ways. From the literature reviewed, the following are the contributions of private sector participation in the provision of education.

3.1 Promotion of Competition in Education Delivery

The private schools help promote competition which helps to enhance quality in education provision. According to Friedman (1955), subjecting failing schools to market competition could lead to improved quality. There is need for competition, which can only be realized when private sector is involved. It is argued that competition will boost quality of education. This competition can be fostered if there are other players besides the government that keep one another in check. The private schools can compete for students with the public sector. This can make the public sector to react to the competition by improving the quality of public education (Commonwealth Education Partnerships, 2009; Patrinos et al., 2009). The competition can



positively affect the quality of education in both public and private schools. The competition will serve as motivation which will inspire schools to put in more effort in order to protect their image and increase their profit margins, particularly the private schools. “Private schools. . . provide greater variety for selective parents, more effective use of funding, and a competitive incentive for public schools to improve” (Lincove, 2007:2). Market competition among schools for students will create strong incentives to improve educational productivity (Friedman, 1962).

The participation of private sector to pressure on the public schools to improve the quality of education they provide and the performance of their pupils in the external examinations (standardized tests). For instance, according to McLoughlin (2013), Andrabi et al.’s (2009) randomised controlled trial (RCT) found that market competition leads to quality improvements across all school types in an area of rural Pakistan, although this was only after comparable information on school performance was provided to (potential) users. However, in this case, CPSs responded to the effects of competition more zealously than the government schools did (McLoughlin, 2013). In a bid to outwit the competitions in the form of other private schools or to win more students even from the public schools, private schools may invest in academic infrastructure. They could make their buildings and infrastructure (classrooms & laboratories and student hostels) more current and well equipped than their public counterparts. In this regard for many private schools, student welfare is given more consideration than in public institutions.

However, “in the developing countries, private provision is seen more as a supplement to the inadequate public sector spending rather than as a means to trigger competition. Nonetheless, under some systems state vouchers are used to encourage market behaviour with state subsidy. It is, therefore, unlikely that the presence of private providers will increase the performance of state schools because the two operate as separate parallel systems, not in competition with one



another” (Oketch et al., 2010:25). But if the examination results of both private schools and public schools are made public, it can trigger public discussions which can put pressure on public school teachers and education directorate to put in more effort to improve the performance and academic achievements of public school pupils and students.

Again, “when public school capacity can accommodate all students, private schools become competitive by offering either high quality education or differentiated product. When public school capacity is low, private schools fill the gap but with no competitive incentive to improve quality” (Lincove, 2007:3). Therefore, if the government wants to introduce market forces and competition into education sector with aim of improving quality of education, there is the need for the state to channel more resources in the public education delivery to make education accessible to many pupils and students, if not all as well as improve the quality. Meanwhile, according to Heyneman and Stern (2013), there are instances when the non-government system—with its emphasis on individualised instruction and personal attention—can help improve the public system.

3.2 Provision of Education for the Poor

Heyneman and Stern’s (2013) study found numerous instances of non-government schools accommodating children of the very poorest component of the community. One needs to keep in mind that there are many categories of non-government schools. According to Heyneman and Stern (2013:11-12), “There are those that provide education for orphans of parents who died of AIDS, those managed by churches or other charitable organizations, others offer schooling as a last resort to those who cannot gain access to publicly provided schooling regardless of whether it is classified as free of cost. While it is true that fees will always be too high for some families,



there is evidence from many countries that private schools are reaching the poorest children, many of whom have been turned away from the public sector”. Experience suggests the non-government school sector is a permanently important contributor to Basic Education-for-All and thus has implications for each of the main multilateral and bilateral institutions with Education for All objectives (Heyneman and Stern, 2013:12).

3.3 Augmenting Government Effort

According to Patrinos et al. (2009), increased private sector participation in the provision of education helps governments to absorb student demand. As a result of insufficient public provision of education in low income countries, the private sector is seen as one of the means to achieving universal enrollment as it expands supply while shifting costs away from government (Lincove, 2007). Private provision of education augments public provision which contributes greatly in achieving universal basic education. Provision of education, especially basic education, is seen as the sole responsibility of government. However, this responsibility is very huge for the government alone to shoulder. Private provision supplements government effort in achieving Education for All in this era of budget deficit and financial constraints.

Government cannot cater for the needs of all the students and teachers in the country because of its limited facilities and low logistical endowments (resource/financial constraints). The involvement of the private sector in the provision of education helps augment government effort by harnessing private sector resources and expertise into the educational sector thereby making education available to the children of school going age. The private education service providers have been the solace for the growing population and a fertile avenue for teacher employment. The government cannot satisfactorily cater for the level of demand for education services in the



country for all levels of education. Private education service providers therefore are a necessary intervention. Tooley and Dixon (2006) revealed that the low-cost private schools provide higher quality teaching inputs and learning outputs than public schools. This role played by the private schools augments government's efforts in the provision of education.

Demand for education is increasing very fast and without private involvement, the government would be unable to match this demand with supply as a result of budget constraints. Private sector involvement helps increase financial resources committed to education sector and supplement state capacity to absorb growing demand while assuring quality education.

According to Hallak (1990) cited in Nsiah-Peprah (2004), demand for education outstrips supply in many countries with many serious consequences including classrooms that are overcrowded and uncomfortable, poor conditions, and high failure rates together with poor morale due to dreary environments which swell up the numbers of dropouts. Private schools fill the gap between what the government is able to supply and the demands of the people (Nsiah-Peprah, 2004). Development of private education is considered, to a large extent, a means to lessen the pressure on government funding while ensuring access to education and guaranteeing greater household control over efficient management of their expenditures for education (Nafula et al., 2007:7). The population of school going age keeps growing at alarming rate every year and without the support and investment of the private sector in education sector, the burden on the government would be very great which could create problems. The private sector involvement plays very critical role by making resources available to cater for the unmet demands, thereby helping to reduce the burden of the government and also helps the government in achieving its educational goal.



2.3.4 Increasing Access to Education

The private schools help to expand access to education to the growing school going age children. For instance, the Government of Ghana struggles to keep up with the growing demand, and it is estimated that additional 6,000 basic school classrooms are needed annually to meet the growing demand (IDP Foundation Inc., 2012). According to Nsiah-Peprah (2004), private schools are filling the gap between what government is able to supply and the demands of the people. In addition, according to Rose (2009), non-state actors play three main roles in education provision. For Rose, the non-state actors contribute in meeting excess to education by filling the gap in poor quality government provision, which has deteriorated as a result of rapid expansion of demand for education. The non-state actors also help in providing access to education to those unable to access the government education system because of insufficient or inappropriate supply; and also assist in meeting differentiated demand such as specific cultural or religious preferences. For example, statistics from the Ghana Ministry of Education and Sports (2006) cited in Akaguri (2011) indicate increase in the number of private basic schools with percentage share of total national basic schools of 43%, 25% and 23% for pre-school, primary and junior secondary schools respectively in 2004.



For Lusk-Stover and Patrinos (nd), private involvement can increase financial resources committed to education and supplement state capacity to absorb growing demand while assuring standards. The main rationale for involving the private sector is to maximize the potential for expanding equitable access to schooling and for improving learning outcomes. According to Heyneman et al. (2011), the growth of the private school sector, particularly the increase in Low-Cost Private Schools (LCPS), has contributed to improved access to education in Ghana. Private involvement in education helps to increase the level of financial resources committed to the

sector and supplement the limited capacity of government institutions to absorb growing demand. Private sector participation makes classrooms and other educational facilities available for the enrollment and education of ever growing school age population.

Lusk-Stover and Patrinos (nd) noted that there is also increasing evidence to suggest that the private sector is well equipped to meet the growing differentiated demands of specific groups, for example, religious ones - even when the state provides sufficient places in public schools. For example in Haryana, India, private unrecognized schools were found to be operating in “every locality of the urban centers as well as in rural areas” typically adjacent to a government school (Aggarwal, 2000:20). It was estimated that 50 percent of primary school-aged children in Haryana were being educated in the private sector. Indeed, the choice for parents was no longer whether to send their children to school but to “which type of school” (Aggarwal, 2000: 21). In Lahore, Pakistan, it was found that around 50 percent of children from families earning less than US\$1 a day attended private schools, even when there was a free government alternative (Alderman et al. 2001 cited in Dixon, 2012). Again, in the poor urban and peri-urban areas of Lagos state in Nigeria, 75 percent of school children are attending private schools. In the Ga West District, Ghana, which has about 500,000 inhabitants—around 70 percent of whom live on or below the poverty line—75 percent of the 779 schools located were private, these serving around 65 percent of children (Tooley et al. 2005; 2007a cited in Dixon, 2012). Tooley (2009) also reports that, across several mostly urban localities studied in India, Nigeria, and Ghana, facilities were generally better in private than government schools, including access for children to drinking water, electricity, and teaching aids and materials.



According to Heyneman and Stern (2013), most OECD countries achieved universal education with a mixture of government and non-government schooling, and there is no OECD country without non-government schooling. According to them, in some OECD countries, such as Japan and Korea, non-government supplementary education is the norm rather than the exception. Precedents set by the socialist states of Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, where schooling was delivered solely by the government, shifted as soon as they had the opportunity. In former socialist states non-government schooling is now a normal source of education. Furthermore, while it was once true that there was a great disparity between private enrollments in developing versus OECD countries, there has been a convergence in the aggregate in recent years (Heyneman and Stern, 2013). Ultimately, Heyneman and Stern (2013) reject the notion that universal enrollment in OECD countries was achieved without the assistance of non-government schooling.

3.5 Promotion of Effective Supervision and Easy Decision Making

Supervision is considered as one of the major factors that contribute to the effective delivery of quality education, especially at basic level, therefore in a school setting where teaching and learning takes place, effective supervision plays a very crucial role in ensuring quality education by improving students' academic performance. The quality of supervision is very critical element in school processes for both students and teachers. According to Neagley and Evans (1970), effective supervision improves the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom. Effective supervision leads to professional development and improved teaching practice as well as pupils' academic performance and achievement. It ensures that instructional periods are put into good use and also ensures that pupils are learning what they are being taught in classrooms. Effective supervision ensures continuous improvements and sustainability of the gains that have



been made in terms of performance and academic achievement of pupils. According to (Sempungu, 2011), private institutions are well supervised by their private owners since in many of them the owners are part of the administrators. In this regard there are low cases of teachers absenting themselves from work. However, in the public basic schools also there should be intensive monitoring and supervision by both the Directors of Education and the monitoring teams and other schedule officers. But in many districts in Ghana there are lack and inadequate logistics to ensure effective monitoring and supervision. For instance, in the Techiman Municipality, there are only two cars at the education directorate and these are not in good condition for effective monitoring and supervision of head-teachers and teachers in various public schools. Unlike private schools where the proprietors are always in the schools and monitor what goes on in their schools, in public sector, the directors of education and the monitoring teams are isolated from the schools.

There is quick and easy decision making, this is because there are few bureaucratic procedures to go through as opposed to the red tape that is witnessed in the many government processes. It is easier to implement decision in private institutions. The private schools are more easily supervised and with less bureaucratic procedures (Sempungu, 2011). The academic performance

of pupils is better in private schools than in public ones due to better and effective supervision of work (Etsey et al., 2005). Effective supervision is a tool of motivating both teachers and pupils to work to the best of their abilities which leads to improvement in teaching and learning outcomes.

In the view of Sempungu (2011:45), “the presence of owners among the management helps in monitoring the work relations and establishes collegiality.” And “motivation of staff is a lot higher as the school owners are usually more informed on what is happening on the ground” (Sempungu, 2011:45). It promotes teacher punctuality and regularity at school and makes



teachers spend quality time with pupils and students. This promotes effective teaching and learning which leads to good results and outcomes. This explains why private schools achieve good examination results with untrained teachers. This is because effective supervision motivates teachers to put in more efforts.

“Private institutions are more result oriented as compared to public schools. Because their performance in national examinations determines how many students will apply for vacancies and numbers are crucial for the survival of such institutions since these numbers mean financial survival. It is the results of the school that will determine the input of students that the school will get in terms of not only numbers but also quality of students” (Sempungu, 2011:45). “Some studies show that the learning outcomes in private schools are equal to or better than those of public school students” (Lusk-Stover and Patrinos, nd: 23). According to Muralidharan et al. (2011) cited in McLoughlin (2013), there is strong evidence that private school pupils achieve better learning outcomes than state school pupils. However, the true private advantage is often small and may be overemphasized (Javaid et al., 2012; Singh, 2012 cited in McLoughlin, 2013).

3.6 Low Pupil-Teacher Ratio

One of the key parameters to consider in determining educational effectiveness and efficiency is the issue of pupil-teacher ratio. The ratio of teacher to pupil/student in some private institutions is low as compared to public institutions. According to Tooley (2005:174-175) cited in Dixon (2012:191), private schools placed fewer children in each class, i.e., they had smaller pupil-teacher ratios. There is therefore more contact between the learners and their teachers in these institutions. This boosts quality and effective monitoring of the learners (learning) activities. Kremer and Muralidharan (2008) cited in McLoughlin (2013) estimated that private school pupils



had three to four times more ‘contact time’ with teachers than their counterparts in government schools in India. Maitra et al. (2011) cited in McLoughlin (2013) found similar findings in India. According to McLoughlin (2013), Hartwig’s (2013) study in Tanzania found private secondary schools had an average PTR of 33:1 compared with 48:1 in government schools. Low pupil-teacher ratio gives teachers opportunity to effectively monitor pupils in class and ensure that pupils and students are learning what the teachers are teaching them. With low pupil-teacher ratio, teachers are able to pay attention to the individual learning needs of pupils.

.4 Challenges Faced by Private Schools in the Provision of Basic Education

The literature reviewed reveals that there many challenges faced by private schools which include financial constraints, sustainability problem, high taxes, poor school infrastructure, unfavorable regulatory frameworks. These challenges make the management and operation of private schools very difficult.

.4.1 Paucity of Funding

Availability of funds to private school owners is important. Lack of access to financing at reasonable costs severely restricts capacity to grow or expand and enhance facilities According to Agi (2013), most private schools in Rivers State in Nigeria are small in size, lacking teaching equipment and facilities and trapped in make shifts house or rented accommodation. According to Agi (2013), little patronages, astronomical costs of accommodation retard their ability to acquire education specific environment, equipment, quality teachers. However, all these are necessary to meet set standards for the operation of schools. However, according to Odeleye, Oyelamin & Abike (2012) cited in Agi (2013), banks hardly do business with small size schools compounding their problem in accessing loans facility. For Nupur (2011), banks typically do not



lend to low cost private schools because they lack the ability to provide tangible collateral and also most of them do not maintain formal accounts, making due diligence difficult. Another reason is that most owners of low cost private schools lack high personal net-worth/ credit score.

2.4.2 Poor School Infrastructure and Low Caliber of Teachers

Educational facilities and conducive environment play critical role in promoting effective teaching and learning and delivering quality education. However, the profit motive of private school owners makes them cut costs in providing educational services to their clients by employing cheap and untrained teachers. For example, Srivastava (2013) finds that the private schools generally lack trained teachers and teaching and learning resources. Also, Stern and Meyneman (2013) reveal that generally low fee private schools in Kenya are housed in small rented buildings or semi-permanent structures, electricity being an uncommon luxury and facilities are not up to the standards of public primary schools.

According to Agi (2013), most private schools in Nigeria, especially low fee private school are not be able to afford facilities and equipment necessary for offering certain subjects in the curriculum especially in the sciences, technical and vocational areas. This, Agi (2013) observes causes most of the private schools to focus more on social sciences and art subjects to the detriment of a balanced curriculum as required by the educational system. Also, Agi (2013) emphasizes that school environment is a critical factor in school operations and success.

However, according to Agi (2013), in Rivers State in Nigeria, over 70% of private schools are sited in either private homes or make shift buildings and do not have capacity for further expansion in the nearest future. The provisions of sporting facilities, library, convenience, dispensary, etc. are functions of space. In Kumasi Metropolis, Nsiah-Peprah (2004) also observes



that a majority of the private schools has poor infrastructure in terms of school buildings, libraries, workshops and others. This may be as a result of inadequate financial resources. The private schools face many barriers in accessing capital from financial institutions such as lack of collateral, high interest rates and fluctuating cash flow.

2.4.3 Financial Sustainability of Private Schools

Due to their inconsistent incomes, the dependence on tuition from low-income families inevitably places non-government schools at constant risk of bankruptcy (Heyneman and Stern, 2013). This is because fee limits could negatively affect the financial viability of private schools. For Heyneman and Stern (2013) schools that enroll students for no charge but fully rely on tuition fees could jeopardize their financial sustainability in the long term. For Nupur (2011:58), there is no customer 'loyalty'. It is easy for parents to transfer children to another school if they are unhappy with a particular school. Bad test results can lead to long term damage to brand, reputation and enrollments. For example, one poor examination result can damage the school's reputation badly enough to threaten the school's existence. Also, the growth of low cost private schools depends heavily on affordability of their fees. However, any undue increase in fee can lower enrollments (Nupuri, 2011). Increase in the cost of private education beyond the means of the poor would bar them from accessing private education. This could reduce their profit margins and could lead to collapse of the schools.

2.4.4 High Taxes

According to Heyneman and Stern (2013), the tax structure in some countries poses threat to financial sustainability of the private schools. They claimed that there is often little distinction between a for-profit enterprise and a non-profit enterprise. According to Heyneman and Stern



(2013), in Tanzania, for instance, all school fees are taxed as if they are profits. According to Heyneman and Stern (2013), in Jamaica, private schools were supposed to receive a tax waiver from the General Consumption Tax (like a value added tax), but none of the principals interviewed were aware of their tax waiver, hence all paid a GCT as if they were private businesses. Heyneman and Stern (2013) concluded that many low-cost non-government schools in their six case study countries are likely at risk with regard to long-term financial sustainability.

However, this concern could be further compounded by the inability of non-government schools to provide sufficient collateral for obtaining private loans. According to Heyneman and Stern (2013), because they are fiscally a major risk, banks and other lending institutions are reluctant to engage them in long-term planning or investment.

4.5 Poor Condition of Service and Remunerations

The condition of service of private schools teachers is very poor. This, according to (Agi, 2013), makes teachers in private schools to see their job as temporary arrangement and stepping stone, and do not settle down to develop their careers in such schools and contribute meaningfully well to education delivery. Teachers are usually high school or secondary school graduates. For instance, according to (Nupur, 2011: 34), “teachers with government mandated qualifications are not likely to join a low cost private school since government schools offer a much higher salary, with better retirement/ pension plans. A cynical view would add that given the low teacher accountability in government schools, teachers prefer a 'low pressure to perform' job there.” Aslam and Kingdon (2011) cited in Mcloughlin (2013) note that private schools often hire less experienced and less trained staff who earn low wages and salaries. Private schools operate at low cost by keeping teacher salaries low, but their financial situation may be precarious where they are reliant on fees from low-income households. According to Sempungu (2011), most



private schools pay teachers for the months when the school is in session (school term) and they receive no salary in the holidays. This puts them in a situation where they seem to be unemployed during the holiday months of the schools.

2.4.6 Challenges within the Regulatory Environment

Low cost private schools seem to have been treated as exceptions and outliers. The existence of low cost private schools have been ignored and denied for many years. According to Nupur (2011), few stakeholders in the education ecosystem considered them participants. “Market and regulatory practices are designed to keep government and ‘well-resourced’ private schools functioning. Regulatory hurdles to For-Profit school ventures have discouraged corporatization and inflow of private investment. While *edupreneurs* (education entrepreneurs) have invented work-arounds, there has been little incentive for larger players to enter. The constantly changing regulatory landscape makes long term investments risky” (Nupur, 2011: 57). For instance, cross-country case studies of Heyneman and Stern (2013) reveals governments often refuse to recognize private schools, ignore or deny their contribution or are outright hostile towards them. According to Heyneman and Stern (2013), in some cases they characterise them as low in quality and an impediment to national education objectives. Government’s recognition of the role of the private sector in national education policy can help build a politically stable environment in which the private sector can operate. Heyneman and Stern (2013) note that, generally, regulation needs to balance the protection of citizen welfare with sufficient flexibility to enable private providers to experiment and innovate free from the standardisation of large bureaucratic systems.



2.5 Theoretical Framework and Conceptual Framework

The main theories in which this study is situated are the human capital theory and rational choice theory.

2.5.1 The Human Capital Theory

The human capital theory views development in terms of investment in human capital (education) to promote economic growth and make an individual competitive to put him or her in position to achieve pecuniary and non-pecuniary returns. The human capital theory was first introduced by the classical economists including Adam Smith, but was made popular by Shultz (1961), Friedman (1962) and Becker (1965) cited in Psacharapoulos (1994).

Human capital theory rests on the assumption that formal education is highly instrumental and even necessary to improve the production capacity of a population (Schultz, 1971; Sakamota and others 1995; Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1997). The human capital theorists argue that an educated population is a productive population (Olaniyan, Okemakinde, 2008). Human capital theory emphasizes how education increases the productivity and efficiency of workers by increasing the level of cognitive stock of economically productive human capability which is a product of innate abilities and investment in human beings (Olaniyan, Okemakinde, 2008; Almendarez, 2011). The provision of formal education is seen as an investment in human capital, which proponents of the theory have considered as equally or even more worthwhile than that of physical capital (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1997).

The demand for education is high in this modern time because people believe that education creates opportunities for social mobility by enhancing both the status and income opportunities for those who have received it, it is this reason that parents are very keen to have their children



well educated (Sedisa, 2008). Education plays a great and significant role in the economy of a nation; thus, educational expenditures are found to constitute a form of investment. This augments individual's human capital and leads to the greater output for society and enhanced earnings for the individual workers. It enhances their chances of employment in the labor market, and allows them to reap pecuniary and non-pecuniary returns and gives them opportunities for job mobility (Almendarez, 2011). This encourages households to do whatever it takes to ensure that their children attain formal education.

Human capital theorists believe that education and earning power are correlated, which means theoretically, that the more education one has, the more one can earn, and that the skills, knowledge and abilities that education provides can be transferred into the work place in terms of productivity. Education is therefore considered as an investment because it is believed that it could potentially bestow private and social benefits. From an economic perspective, private returns of human capital are viewed in terms of earnings, while social benefits are viewed in terms of higher income tax collections, increased health awareness, increased levels of trust within communities, etc.

Aggerlind and Saha (1997) posit that human capital theory provides a basic justification for large public expenditure on education both in developing and developed nations. Governments all over the world invest lots of resources in educating their nationals because they believe that education plays vital role in eradicating ignorance, poverty and empowering the people to contribute meaningfully in national development. For example, the World Bank (1993) cited in Almendarez (2011) found that improvement in education is a very significant explanatory variable for East Asian economic growth.



However, there are numerous reasons to dispute the notion that one's education influences earnings. The first is that non-educational factors also influence earnings. Secondly, there are weaknesses in the way 'benefits' and 'costs' of education in Human Capital research are defined. Thirdly, there is skepticism of the indicators of social benefits claimed to have resulted from investment in education. Fourthly, limitations of data sources generally used in Human Capital research tend to distort reality. And finally, weaknesses are inherent in the way Human Capital research is conducted due to its nature as an economic research (Jamil, nd).

5.2 Rational Choice Theory

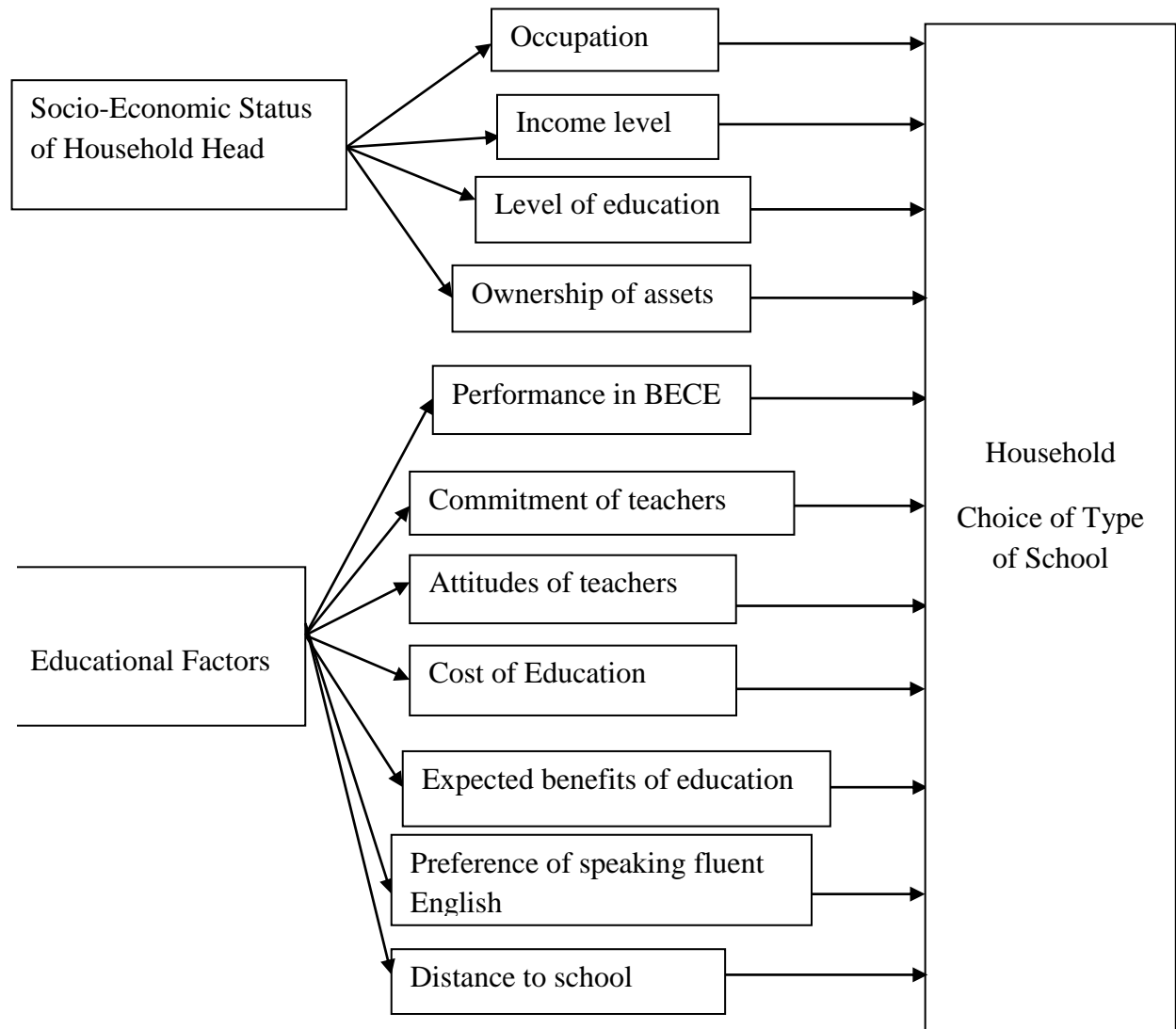
According to Scott (2000), a pioneering figure in establishing rational choice theory was George Tomans (1961). Rational choice theory (RCT) is basically about how incentives and constraints affect decision. According to Scott (2000), people calculate the likely costs and benefits of any action before deciding what to do. Rational choice theory governs the basic understanding of school choice. RCT follows the belief that all parents make decisions based on preferences that are constricted by real-world conditions and needs (Walsh, 2012). Rational choice theory suggests that parents are utility maximizers who make decisions from clear value preferences and can be relied upon to make decisions in the best interests of their children (Leaver, nd). It assumes that as rational beings, households and parents maximize utility by choosing better alternative for their children. Household's decision to enroll a child in either public or private school is weighed against the potential benefits and costs to the household. The rational choice theory assumes that households when deciding whether to choose public school or private school use the mathematical analysis in order to estimate the values of indicators of their preferences. It assumes that as rational beings, households maximize utility by choosing better alternative.



According to Chubb and Moe (1990), rational choice theorists believe that parents seek out the best school for their child, which they argue is based on academic quality. For that *raison d'être*, parents in that case consider a wide range of schools and filter through information in order to find and select the school with the highest academic quality (Kelly, 2007). However, individual and household decisions are often made without relevant information, careful consideration of evidence, or under pressure from others. For instance, according to Tooley et al. (2008) and Ketch et al. (2010), neighbors tend to send their children to private schools where their neighbors are sending their children believing that education where parents pay fees would be of better quality compared to state provision.



2.5.3 Conceptual Framework



Source: The Researcher, 2016

The direct and indirect costs of schooling, expected benefits of education, and household characteristics all affect household's school choice decision. For Morgan et al. (2014), households' schooling choices depend in large part on the costs and the perceived value of education. Besides the direct costs associated with schooling, households may value present contributions through child labor and other household contributions more highly than the child's

future earnings. The rich households demand for child labor is low compared to the poor, because non-poor households have capacity to employ and pay for labor services or labor saving devices, and thereby reducing the opportunity cost of the child's schooling (Glick and Sahn, 2000).

The conceptual framework is informed by demand-side economics of education financing, which establishes the negative price elasticity of demand for children's education in poor households (Gertler and Glewwe, 1990). That is a change in price has a large impact on demand. Even though school fees can remove supply-side limitations, they exclude those households most reluctant or unable to pay the fees, due to demand-side constraints or direct costs and indirect / opportunity costs such as loss child labor, household contributions of children, low expectations by parents of returns to investing in education for their children, unavailable credit markets for financing education, and social norms that discourage school participation (Hillman & Jenker, 2002 cited in Morgan et al., 2014). Also, better educated household heads have better chance of enrolling their children in private school. Educated parents have a better chance of assessing the quality of their child's school (Andrabi et al., 2002). Consequently better or highly educated household heads are in a better position to send their children to private schools if they perceive private schools to be of a higher quality.

The demand for formal education is high among households who recognize that education creates opportunities for social mobility by enhancing both the status and income opportunities for those who have received it. It is for this reason why parents are very keen to have their children well educated (Sedisa, 2008). Those who recognize the significance of formal education see educational expenditures as a form of investment and are more willing to enroll their children



in private school and invest more in their children's education. Also, households that place priority on academic achievement are more likely to choose private schools because of their better performance in examinations and test scores (Kingdon, 1996).

Public perception of commitment and attitudes of both public and private schools teachers towards teaching and learning have effects on the choice of type of school. While perceived high commitment and positive attitudes of private school teachers towards effective teaching and learning attract parents who want their children to be well educated to enroll their children in private schools. However, perceived low commitment and negative attitudes of public school teachers towards teaching and learning discourage parents from enrolling their children in public schools.

Also, the distance to and from school influence household choice of school as result of the cost of transport and road accidents. Where the location of a public school is remote from a child's home or where the school is considered by a household to be unsafe for children, they are more likely to enroll in the nearest and safe school even if such a choice would impose heavy cost burden on the household. Parents who cannot afford transport costs are more likely to enrol their wards in the nearby schools in order to protect their wards from road and keep them safe.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The success of any research depends largely on the methodologies and procedures adopted and utilized to carry out the research. This section focuses on background information of the study area, a research design, population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection instruments, quality assurance, data analysis techniques and ethical issues in data collection.

3.1 Background Information of the Study Area

3.1.1 Location and size of Techiman municipality

The Techiman Municipal Assembly is one of the 27 Districts in the Brong Ahafo Region of the Republic of Ghana. Techiman Municipality is situated in the central part of Brong Ahafo Region and lies between Longitudes 1049`E and 2030`W and Latitude 8000`N and 7035`S. It shares common boundaries with four districts namely; Techiman North, Wenchi Municipal, and Koranza Municipal in the Brong Ahafo Region and Offinso North District in Ashanti Region. The Wenchi Municipality lies to the North-west, Techiman North District lies to the North, Koranza South District to the South-East and Offinso North District in the Ashanti Region to the South-West.

The Municipality covers a total land area of 669.7sqkm representing approximately 1.7% of the surface area of Brong Ahafo Region. The Municipal capital, Techiman is a nodal town, where roads from the three northern regions converge. Trunk roads from Sunyani, Kumasi, Wa and Tamale all meet at Techiman thus making it a bustling 24 hours commercial center.



3.1.2 Political Administration of Techiman Municipality

The current Techiman Municipality had been part of Wenchi and later Nkoranza and Kintampo districts before its establishment as Techiman Municipal Assembly under Legislative Instrument (L.I.1472) of 1989 as a District Assembly. It later gained the status of a Municipality in 2004 under Legislative Instrument (L.I. 1799). Subsequently, Techiman North District Assembly was separated from Techiman Municipal Assembly through the creation of the new Legislative Instrument (L.I. 2096), 2012. There are five (5) councils (1 urban council and 4 Zonal Councils). There are also 56 Unit Committees comprising 5 members each. The Municipal Assembly comprises the Municipal Chief Executive, 45 Assembly Members elected and 18 other members appointed by Government and one Member of Parliament in the Municipality.

3.1.3 Population Size, Structure and Composition of Techiman Municipality

The population of the Municipality, according to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, was 47,788 representing 6.4 percent of the region's total population. Males constitute 48.5 percent and females represent 51.5 percent. A greater percentage of the population (64.5%) lives in urban areas as compared with 35.5 percent in the rural areas. The Municipality has a sex ratio of 94.5. The population of the Municipality is youthful (13.6%) of the 0-4 age group, depicting a broad base population pyramid which tapers off with a small number of the 70 plus years (3.0%). The total age dependency ratio for the Municipality is 75.2, the age dependency ratio for males is higher (78.9) than that of females (71.9)



3.1.4 Household size of Techiman Municipality

Table 1 presents the distribution of household size in the Techiman Municipality by locality. From 2010 Population and Housing Census results, the Municipality recorded a total household population of 145,309 with 34,137 households, which translates to an average household size of 4.3 persons in each household. This is about the same as the regional average of 4.6. The rural average household size is 5.0 and that of the urban areas is 4.0. More than half (64.3%) of the total household population in the Municipality is found in the urban areas and 35.7 percent in the rural areas. Also, the percentage of households in the urban areas (69.0%) is higher than in the rural areas (30.9%).

Table 1: Household Size by Locality

Category	Total		Urban		Rural	
	Region	Techiman Municipal	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total household population	2,265,458	145,309	93,447	64.3	51,862	35.7
Number of households	490,515	34,137	23,566	69.0	10,571	30.9
Average household size	4.6	4.3	4		5	

Source: GSS/PHC (2010)

3.1.5 Population Distribution and Characteristics by Settlements in Techiman Municipality

There are only two (2) urban communities in the Techiman Municipality as of 2014. The remaining settlements are considered rural. The urban communities take 58.4 % of the municipal population as against 41.6% in the rural areas. Techiman has a population of 85,514 constituting



51.3% and Tanaso has a population of 11,805 constituting 7.1%. This implies that Techiman Municipality is urbanised in terms of population distribution (GSS/PHC, 2010).

The Techiman Municipal, according to the 2010 population and Housing Census, has a total population of 147,788. This constitutes 6.4 percent of the Brong Ahafo Region's population. Techiman Municipality has a land surface area of 649.0714sqkm and population density of 56.72 persons per square kilometers. This is very high and has a negative implication for the socio-economic development of the Municipality. The population below 15 years (0-14) is 39.0 percent in the Techiman Municipality depicting a variation with the Brong Ahafo regional population below 15 years (0-14) of 58.5 percent. The total population 15-64 years is 57.1 percent of the total population implying a large base of labor force. Taking the population age group 15-64 only, almost two-thirds (64.4%) is below 40 years while 35.6 percent is between the ages of 40-64 years. Significantly therefore, the data shows that about 65 percent of the population referred to as the labor force is below forty years. In relation to the sex structure, the male population is dominant 51.5 percent reflecting the regional (50.4%) and national patterns and that of developing countries in general.

1.6 Education and Educational Facilities in Techiman Municipality

The Municipality has educational institutions for all the levels. The university level is the highest order as far as education within the Municipality is concerned. Currently the Municipality can boast of two universities which have their campuses in Techiman. The Municipality which has both public and private schools is endowed with 161 kindergarten schools with enrollment of 13,011; 158 primary schools with enrollment of 32,430; 91 Junior High Schools with 12,335 pupils and 7 Senior High Schools with enrollment of 3136 students as well as two public nursing



colleges. Meanwhile, there are 208 registered private basic schools representing 46.5% of all basic schools in the municipality.

3.1.7 Literacy and Educational Background of Techiman Municipality

Of the population 11 years and above, 73.3 percent are literate and 26.7 percent are non-literate. The proportion of literate males is higher (50.8%) than that of females (49.2%). Almost seven out of ten people (68.9%) could read and write both English and Ghanaian languages. With reference to school attendance, of the population aged 3 years and above, 23 percent has never attended school, 41 percent are currently attending and 36 percent have attended in the past.

3.1.8 Justification for the Choice of Techiman Municipality for the Study

The choice of Techiman Municipality was first and foremost influenced by the fact Techiman Municipality hosts both public and private basic schools and some private basic schools are very close to public ones. However, there have been limited empirical studies on the factors that influence households' choice of types of schools in the Techiman Municipal area, hence the choice of the municipality for this study, as many researchers such as Aldermana et al. (2001) and Akaguri (2011) have made us to believe that distance to and from school influence household choice of private school as result of the cost of transport and road accidents (safety).

Secondly, almost all the communities in the municipality are accessible by road and the residents are engaged in diverse economic activities. The accessibility of the communities made data collection easy and cheap. According to Ampiah (2007) cited in Akaguri (2011), the criteria for selecting CREATES research sites were based on accessibility to communities, their relatively high economic deprivation, and whether they exhibited occupational activities that had the potential to impede children's access to schooling.



Thirdly, Techiman Municipality was chosen because I (the researcher) live and work in the municipality, and as a result I am familiar with the situation as well as know almost all the communities in the municipality. This made it easy to identify the communities for selection and administration of questionnaires and interviewing of research participants as I am familiar with them and the culture of the people. It also helped to avoid cost of travelling to research site to collect data.

.2 Research Design

For any investigation, the selection of an appropriate research design is crucial in enabling the researcher to arrive at valid findings, comparisons and conclusions. According to Kumar (1999: 6), “in scientific circles, the strength of an empirical investigation is primarily evaluated in the light of the research design adopted.” For this reason, a lot of factors were considered in selecting the research design (cross-sectional survey).

.2.1 Cross-Sectional Survey

The research design of this study was a survey type, more specifically a cross-sectional survey that sought to analyze determinants of household school choice in Techiman Municipal area and also look at the contributions and limits of private schools in achieving universal basic education. The reason for choosing a cross-sectional survey was that it is best suited to studies aimed at finding out the prevalence of a phenomenon, situation, problem, attitude or issue, by taking a cross-section of the population (Kumar, 1999). It is extremely simple in design. It also gives the researcher opportunity to decide what he wants to find out, identify the study population, select a



sample, and contact the respondents to find out the required information on the issues being studied. Survey is scientific instrument which give a sophisticated snapshot of current reality.

It calls for in-depth analysis to gather the outcomes. According to Cobertta (2003:159), survey technique in social research is “a technique of gathering information by questioning individuals, who are the object of the research and who belong to a representative sample, through a standardized questioning procedure, with the aim of studying the relationships among the variables.”

.2.2 Research Approaches

Both quantitative and qualitative data collection approaches were used to collect data. However, most of the studies undertaken on households' choice between public and private schools such as Kingdon (1996), Tooley (2005), Srivastava (2006) and Akaguri (2011) have used either quantitative or qualitative approaches or both. Akaguri (2011) employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches (mixed approach) in which qualitative information was nested in quantitative data collection and analyses. In this study, the quantitative method dominates and is complemented by the qualitative aspect (Creswell, 2003). The mixed methods strategy combines quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection, analysis and interpretation and enables the researcher to statistically establish reliable and valid results in terms of households' choice of type of school. The reason for employing both quantitative and qualitative data collection approaches is to provide a better understanding of the research problem. The selection of the mixed method for the study is that it allows the researcher to focus on the research problem, and then utilize pluralistic methods of data collection and analysis to generate knowledge about the problem (Akaguri, 2011). It is more likely to gain a deeper and better understanding of issues



under investigation through in-depth interviews of the executives of Ghana National Association of Private Schools (GNAPS), the Municipal Director of Education, four Deputy Directors of Education and the Coordinator of Private Schools in addition to the administration of questionnaires to household heads. For this raison d'être, the study is able to produce results that are more valid and reliable than would have been the case if only quantitative or qualitative approach was used.

.3 Sampling Frame and Units

As in all probability sample surveys, it is imperative that each sampling unit in the surveyed population has a known, non-zero probability of selection (Ghana Statistical Service, 2008). To achieve this, there has to be an appropriate list or sampling frame of the primary sampling units. The target population for this study is the population living within private households (particularly household heads) and owners of private basic schools in Techiman Municipality. However, officials of the Ghana Education Service, and executives of Ghana National Association of Private Schools (GNAPS) in Techiman Municipality were included to ensure no vital information is left out. These people were targeted for this study because they are the main stakeholders of education in the municipality and believed to have in-depth knowledge on private schools in the study area. The focus of this study was to provide an in-depth analysis of factors determining household choice of type of school, factors promoting demand and supply of private schools in the Techiman Municipality. To achieve this, it was important to carefully select respondents whose views would help explain the issues being studied.



3.4 Sample Size Determination

The researcher used a mathematical method to determine the sample sizes of household heads, and owners of private basic schools. Purposive sampling technique was also adopted to ensure inclusion of Municipal Director of Education and four (4) Deputy Directors of Education and Private Schools Coordinator, and five (5) executives of Ghana National Association of Private Schools (GNAPS) who have in-depth knowledge on education.

The formula propounded by Miller and Brewer (2003) was used to get the sample of household heads and owners of private basic schools for this study. With a confidence interval of 95 percent for household heads and owners of private basic schools applied in the formula propounded by Miller and Brewer (2003), the representation of household heads and owners of private basic schools in the sample is calculated below:

$$n = N \div [1 + N (\delta^2)], \text{ Where } n = \text{Sample Size, } N = \text{Sampling Frame and } \delta = \text{Margin of error (5\%)}$$

Number of households (N) = 34,137. A sample size of 395 of the households is arrived as follows:

$$= 34,137 / [1 + 34,137 (0.05^2)]$$

$$= 395$$

Number of proprietors (N) = 80. A sample size of 67 of the proprietors is arrived as follows:

$$n = 80 / [1 + 80(0.05^2)]$$

$$n = 67$$



In all, a total of 473 respondents were sampled including Municipal Director and Deputy Directors of Education (GES officials), and Private Schools Coordinator, household heads, owners of private basic schools as well as executives of Ghana National Association of Private Schools (GNAPS). Table 2 below shows total sample size and breakdown of respondents.

Table 2: Number of Respondents Sampled for the Study

Category of Respondents	Total Number	No of Participants	Sampling Technique
Household Heads	34,137	395	Stratified Sampling
Proprietors of private schools	80	67	Stratified Sampling
Officials of GES	6	6	Purposive Sampling
Executives of GNAPS	5	5	Purposive Sampling
Total	34,228	473	

Source: Field Survey, 2016

3.5 Sampling Techniques

Both probability and non-probability sampling techniques were used to gather information from respondents. This was done to ensure sample representativeness and reliability as well as ensured that vital information was not left out.

3.5.1 Stratified Sampling

The target population for this study from which the sample was drawn did not constitute a homogeneous group and was stratified into urban and rural strata. Stratified sampling technique was applied so as to obtain a representative sample. The target population was first separated into mutually exclusive, homogeneous strata (urban and rural strata) and then a simple was randomly



selected from each stratum. In a probability sample survey, it is important that each sampling unit in the target population has a known, non-zero probability of being included in the sample. To achieve this, an appropriate list or sampling frame of the Primary Sampling Unit (PSU) is required. The list of communities (urban and rural) with their respective population and household sizes (the 2010 Population and Housing Census) was used as the sampling frame for the survey.

To enhance the precision and reliability of the survey results, Techiman Municipality was stratified into rural and urban categories (strata). Techiman and Tanoso which are the only urban centers were stratified into 18 substrata (small communities) and 14 substrata were randomly selected. The rural category was made up of 14 communities and 9 communities (substrata) were randomly selected using computer software (Excel). Seventeen (17) households were randomly selected from each community. With the help of house numbering system, each household was assigned a random number using the Excel formula “=RAND()”. After obtaining the random numbers, the “Rank formula” (=RANK()<n) in Excel was then used to rank the random numbers. Any household with a value of *TRUE* corresponding to it was considered randomly selected for the study. However where a house contained more than one household, a lottery method was used to randomly select a household.

A random sample made up of 238 respondents from urban communities and 153 from rural communities were randomly selected according to probability proportional to population size to form the Primary Sampling Unit (PSUs). However, 4 additional households were randomly selected from 4 of urban communities (one from each), yielding a total sample size of 395 households for the whole municipality.



The basic schools in Techiman Municipality have been classified into 10 circuits; however 9 of them have private schools. Therefore, the 9 circuits were used as strata. Random samples were selected according to probability proportional to number of private basic schools in each circuit. The samples that were selected from the various strata were then combined into a single sample of 68 proprietors. The selected respondents were then administered with questionnaires.

stratified sampling technique was used because it enabled the researcher to reduce the variability and heterogeneity of the study population with respect to characteristics that have a strong correlation with what the researcher was trying to ascertain and this enabled the researcher to achieve great accuracy. It also helped to improve upon the representativeness of the sample. stratified sampling has greater ability to make inferences within a stratum and comparisons across strata (Kumar, 1999). It also has slightly smaller random sampling errors for samples of the same sample size, thereby requiring smaller sample sizes for the same margin of error. It also obtains a more representative sample because it ensures that elements from each stratum are represented in the sample.

5.2 Purposive Sampling Technique

Purposive sampling refers to careful selection, for inclusion in the study, of participants based on the possibility that each participant will enhance the variability of the sample (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). In a population universe, certain characteristics are not distributed evenly or uniformly. Purposive sampling technique was used primarily because there were a limited number of people who had expertise and in-depth knowledge of some of issues being investigated. In view of this, it was very appropriate to identify units of the population such as GES officials and executives of Ghana Association of Private Schools who satisfy the



characteristics of the phenomenon under investigation. This category of respondents was used to ascertain the factors influencing the growth of private schools, contributions and challenges faced by private schools in Techiman Municipality. Also, due to constraints of time and resources, it was only possible to involve a cross-section of the inhabitants in the study. In order to capture the perspectives of a balanced cross-section of views, the researcher used a combination of purposive and stratified sampling techniques. Purposive sampling was used to select and interview the Municipal Director of Education, 4 Deputy Directors of Education and coordinator of Private Schools and executives of association of private schools who had in-depth knowledge of the issues under investigation. This provided the researcher with opportunity to explore the issues under investigation. Random sampling is not always feasible, and not always efficient. A high dispersion of samples may induce higher costs for a researcher (Alexiades, 1996; Bernard, 2002; Snedecor, 1939 cited in Tongco, 2007). Purposive sampling was therefore used to select and include people who had in-depth knowledge of the issues under investigation.

.6 Sources of Data

The study drew its information from two main sources of data namely; primary and secondary.

.6.1 Primary Data

Primary data were specifically collected for the purpose of the research (Saunders et al. 2003 cited in Walther, 2009). The primary data were gathered through a survey questionnaire administration and interviews. Questionnaires were administered to household heads and proprietors/proprietresses of private basic schools. Interviews were used to supplement the questionnaires. Five officials of the Ghana Education Service and five Executives of Ghana National Association Private Schools in the Municipality were interviewed.



3.6.2 Secondary Data

The secondary data were sought from official documents and reports, books, journal and articles. The analysed BECE results of public and private schools were accessed from the Techiman Municipal Education Directorate. The researcher anticipated that the information from primary sources would not be sufficient for the study, and therefore supplementing it with secondary data played a very crucial role, as it was used as a base of getting a fair idea about the private schools in the other parts of the world, and what appropriate methodology should be used to get desired results for the research questions raised in this thesis. In addition, the study utilized knowledge based technologies such as the internet to access the secondary data. Secondary data were also accessed from both Techiman Municipal Assembly and Ghana Education Service.

4.7 Data Collection Techniques and Instruments

4.7.1 Structured Interview

One of the sources of data for the study was in-depth interviews through structured interviews of purposely selected participants (GES officials and executives of GNAPS) who responded to a number of questions. The purposely selected GES officials and executives of GNAPS were interviewed using interview guides. Interviewing is a commonly used method of collecting information from people. Any person-to-person interaction between two or more individuals with specific purpose in mind is called an interview (Kumar, 1999).

Interviews were a complementary primary data source because it was best suited to access the interpretations and experiences that participants had on the choice private schools and factors that affect the demand and supply of private schooling in the Techiman Municipality and the contributions and challenges facing private schools in the provision of basic education.



Structured interviews were conducted with some selected key informants such as the municipal director of education, deputy directors of education, executives of GNAPS to get more information about some of the variables.

Structured interviews were used because it provides uniform information which assures the comparability of data and requires fewer interviewing skills than does unstructured interviewing (Kumar, 1999). Interviewing has a wider application- an interview can be used with almost any type of population: children, handicapped, illiterate or the old (Kumar, 1999). In this study, it was used to find out the factors affecting demand and supply of private education and contributions and the challenges faced by private basic schools in Basic Education provision from executives of Ghana National association of private schools and GES officials.

7.2 Structured Questionnaires

Each household head filled out a questionnaire containing questions on personal characteristics (age, education, religion, gender, occupation, etc.), and family background (family structure and size, wealth and income etc.), household expenditure on schooling and opinions on various issues such as ways in which private schools have helped in education provision.



Questionnaires were used because they play a central role in the data collection process. They have a major impact on data quality and influence the image that the researcher or statistical agency portrays or projects to the public. They were also used because majority of the population of Techiman Municipality can read and write. This made it possible to use questionnaires in order to avoid personal bias of the researcher.



The questionnaires were used to solicit information from household heads, headteachers and proprietors of private basic schools on the subject under investigation. The researcher used both the closed-ended and open ended types of questionnaires. For the closed-ended type of questions, answers were provided to the questions and respondents were required to select the answer that applied in their case. These questions were necessary for exactitude of the specific factors determining households' choice of school and LFPSs. The open-ended questions on the other hand were a type of questions which no possible answers were given and the respondents were required to supply their own answers. Under the unstructured type-questions, the respondents had the opportunity to answer with almost unlimited number of words. This offered an opportunity for opened heart evaluation of the contributions and challenges faced by private schools in the provision of basic education in the Techiman Municipality. This tool is economical because it was used to collect large amounts of information at a low cost per respondent and besides, no interviewer was involved to bias the respondent's answers. But also convenient for respondents to answer when they had time.

According to Cox cited in Nel et al (1994) and Sedisa (2008), all questionnaires are designed to achieve three related goals, namely to maximize the relevance and accuracy of the data collected; to maximize the participation and cooperation of target respondents; and to facilitate the collection and analysis of data. The intention of the researcher is to achieve all these as best as possible and with minimum distortion. The questionnaires also contributed to triangulation and validation of responses that were gathered. It was also less expensive and offered greater anonymity as there was no face-to-face interaction between respondents and interviewer. In some situations when sensitive questions are asked it helps to obtain accurate information (Kumar, 1999). Also a survey questionnaire was used because a well-designed questionnaire is

easier to use and can collect valuable information on views and perceptions of the respondents (Bell 2005 cited in Sedisa, 2008). In addition, the researcher is a full-time employee and therefore did not have enough time to conduct extensive interviews necessary to adequately cover the scope of the study. The researcher had wished to make use of telephone interviewing, but it was very expensive for the researcher especially when each and every respondent was extensively interviewed.

.8 Data Analysis Techniques

Quantitative data analysis was done by utilizing a Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS), which was formally known as Statistical Package for the Social Scientist (SPSS) to draw correlations and other statistical relationships between variables in the structured questionnaires. SPSS was used because of its clarity in expressing quantitative relationships between variables in the forms of graphs, frequencies, cross-tabulations among others. The bar charts and tables were used to represent the data for interpretation. Qualitative and quantitative data obtained from the field were organized through data cleaning and processing by coding and editing before data entry process. Appropriate statistical tools were used to process the raw data for interpretation and relevant inferences were made from the output of the SPSS analysis. The qualitative and quantitative methods were equally utilized for analysis as and when they were needed. The use of SPSS and excel made the study free from personal values and biases. The quantitative data were summarized in tables. However, for the qualitative data, an interpretive analysis was done (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992).



3.9 Quality Assurance

The use of triangulation is for purposes of reducing bias that might be inherent in a particular data source or method of construction (Amin, 2005). Bias was minimized through qualitative and quantitative designs (duo approach) and conclusions drawn were the springboard for further studies. The sample size and study population among others were all carefully set to ensure most representation of the variables under the study thereby increasing the validity and reliability of the constructs studied.

The wording of the questionnaire and the interview questions were clear and simple. Simple language was used. The understanding of questions determines strongly the kind of responses that is given to a particular item on the questionnaire or question.

Editing was also done to scrutinise the completed research instruments to identify and minimize, as far as possible, errors, incompleteness, misclassification and gaps in the information that was obtained from the respondents. It is good practice for an interviewer to take a few minutes to peruse responses for possible incompleteness and inconsistencies. In the case of questionnaire, the researcher also checked the responses in order to reduce the problems such as incompleteness, errors among others.

The researcher also followed up to encourage the participants to complete questionnaires and retrieve unreturned questionnaires to help reduce non-response rate which could have impacted negatively on the results. Follow-up phone calls to those who did not initially respond to some questions helped increase the response rate.



3.10 Ethical Issues in Data Collection

Before any information was sought, expressed consent of the research participants and institutions was sought. No participants were coerced, forced or intimidated to participate. It is unethical to collect information without the knowledge of the participants, their informed willingness, and expressed consent. These are very important in producing reliable and accurate data. To achieve these, a letter was written to the municipal director of education of Techiman municipality to seek his expressed consent. The approval of the participating schools was sought. The subjects were made adequately aware of the type of information required from them, why the information was being sought, what purpose it was to be put to, how they were expected to participate in the study, and of how it would directly or indirectly affect them. Furthermore, it was very crucial for the researcher to inform the research participants about the nature and scope of the research so that they could make informed decisions on whether to participate or not. The researcher ensured that no respondents were made to participate against their will.

In a research, there is always a possibility that the researcher may accidentally cause harm to the participants (respondents). Therefore, precautions were taken by the researcher to adequately protect research participants from any physical, emotional and psychological harm that may be occasioned by their participation in the study. Harm, according to Bailey (1976:384) cited in Umar (1999:192), includes ‘...not only hazardous medical experiments but also any social research that might involve such things as discomfort, anxiety, harassment, invasion of privacy, or demeaning or dehumanizing procedures.’ The researcher also made sure that the research participants were not subjected to unusual stress, embarrassment, or loss of self-esteem or psychological discomfort.



The researcher also ensured that no information about the respondents was shared with others for purposes other than the research. The researcher also made sure that the identities of the participants were not disclosed. All the participants were assured that whatever they would say would be kept in confidentiality. And that their personality or their positions would not be used or exposed. Therefore participant's names or their designations were not referenced in any part of the report. The researcher also ensured that appropriate methodologies and procedures were used in carrying out the research to achieve reliable and accurate findings. As researcher, I had an obligation to use appropriate methodology in conducting this study. According to Kumar (1999:195), it is unethical to use a method or procedure the researcher knows to be inappropriate



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Socio Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The study covered 346 out of 395 household heads, 62 out of 67 owners of private schools randomly sampled and others such as 5 Ghana Education Service officials and 5 executives of GNAPS who were purposely selected. In all, four hundred and eighteen (418) respondents took part in the study. In effect, the response rate was 88.4%. The socio demographic characteristics of the respondents are illustrated in Table 3, Table 4 and Table 5.

Table 3: Categories of Respondents

Category of respondents	Frequency	Percentage
Household heads	346	82.8
Owners (proprietors) of private schools	62	14.8
Ghana Education Service officials	5	1.2
Executives of GNAPS	5	1.2
Total	418	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2016

As shown in Table 3, 82.8% of the respondents were household heads, while 14.8% and 1.2% were private schools proprietors and GES officials respectively as well as 1.2% being executives of GNAPS. This shows that majority of the respondents were household heads.



Table 4: Occupation of Household Heads

Occupation of Household Heads	Frequency	Percentage
Farmers	90	26.0
Public sector employees	49	14.2
Petty traders	96	27.7
Commercial traders	40	11.6
Casual workers	33	9.5
Private sector employees	21	6.1
Others	17	4.9
Total	346	100

Source: Field survey, 2016

From Table 4, it can be seen that 26.0% of the household heads were farmers while 14.2% were public sector workers. In the same vein, 27.7% and 11.6% of the household heads were petty traders and commercial traders respectively while 9.5% and 6.1% of the household heads were casual workers and private sector employees respectively. The analysis of results in Table 6 shows that many of the household heads in the Techiman Municipality engaged in petty trading and agricultural activities.



Table 5: Level of Education of the Household Heads

Level of education	Frequency	Percentage
No formal education	93	26.9
Basic education	123	35.5
Secondary education	66	19.1
Tertiary education	64	18.5
Total	346	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2016

Table 5 shows that 35.5% of the household heads in the sample have attained basic education, while 19.1% and 18.5% have attained secondary and tertiary education respectively. About 26.9% of the household heads have no formal education. This suggests that most of the household heads have attained formal education.

4.1 Factors that Influence Household Choice of Type of School in Techiman Municipality

This section presents the factors that have influence on households' school choice decision to enroll their children in private basic school or to choose the other alternatives such as public school and combination of public and private schools. Meanwhile, the main factors that the study finds to influencing household private school choice decision include income, costs of education, occupation of household head, level education of the household head, distance to school and the performance in examinations (BECE). The socioeconomic statuses of households such as household income, occupation and household head's education have substantial effects on the choice of school. Higher status households are more likely to enroll their children in private



schools and are also less likely to mention cost, which is associated with public school enrollment as a factor in their school choice.

4.1.1 Level of Education of Household Head and School Choice

Table 6 depicts how the level of education of household head affects household choice of private school in Techiman Municipal area.

Table 6: Level of Education of Household Head and the Choice of School

Level of education	What type of school is/are your child/children attend?			Total
	Public school	Private school	Combination of public & private schools	
No formal education	61.3%	35.5%	3.2%	100%
Basic education	59.3%	34.1%	6.5%	100%
Secondary education	47%	53%	0%	100%
Tertiary education	34.4%	64.1%	1.6%	100%

Source: Field survey, 2016

From Table 6, it can be seen that 61.3% of the household heads who have no formal education enrolled their children in public schools, while 35.5% of the household heads who have no formal education enrolled their children in private schools and 3.2% of the household heads who have no formal education enrolled their children in both public and private schools. About 59.3% of the household heads who have attained basic education enrolled their children in public schools, while 34.1% of them (household heads who have attained basic education) enrolled their children in private schools and 6.5% of the basic school graduates chose the combined



option. However, 47.0% of the household heads who have attained secondary education enrolled their children in public schools, while 53.0 % of them (household heads who have attained secondary education) enrolled their children in private schools and none of them choose the combined option. Also 34.4% of the household heads who have attained tertiary education enrolled their children in public schools, while 64.1% of them enrolled their children in private schools and 1.6% of them chose the combined option. The attainment of secondary education and tertiary education by household head increases the possibility of children from the household being enrolled in private school. However, no formal education or low educational attainment by household head like basic education, increase the likelihood that children from the household being enrolled in public schools. This is consistent with Goldring and Philips (2008) and Akagiri (2011) who revealed that parental education is positively related to school choice. Goldring and Philips (2008) indicate that parental educational levels are positively correlated to the choice of private school. This is because educated parents have a better chance of assessing the quality of their child's school (Andrabi et al., 2002).



Table 7: Correlation between Level of education of Household Head and School Choice

		Level of education	Choice of type of school
Level of education	Pearson Correlation	1	0.150**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.005
	N	346	346
Choice of school type	Pearson Correlation	0.150**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.005	
	N	346	346

Source: Field survey, 2016

As shown in Table 7, it is clear that there is significant positive correlation between the level of education of household heads and school choice. The reason could be that educated parents have better chance of assessing the quality of their child's school (Andrabet al., 2002). This is consistent with Goldring and Philips (2008) and Akaguri (2011) that parental education is positively related to school choice. Goldring and Philips (2008) indicate that parental educational levels are positively correlated to the choice of private school. Akaguri (2011) reveals that household heads' years of education significantly affect their school choice. Household heads with higher educational attainments tend to place more value on education and this reflects in their interests and attitudes towards education of their children. The higher the level of education of household heads the more they recognize the importance of education and inspire them to invest in their children's education. Increase in the level of education of household head increase probability of children in the household being enrolled in private school if they perceive private



schools provide the education they desire. This is because higher level of educational attainment enables parents to seek relevant information about schools and thus able to make more informed decisions on educational choice (Goldring and Philips, 2008).

4.1.2 Occupation of household head and household school choice

Table 8 illustrates how the occupation of household head affects household choice of private school in Techiman Municipality.

Table 8: Occupation of Household Head and Choice of School

Occupation	What type of school is/are your child/children attending?			Total
	Public school	Private school	Both public & private schools	
Farmers	83.3%	15.6%	1.1%	100%
Public sector employees	32.7%	67.3%	0.0%	100%
Petty traders	46.9%	50.0%	3.1%	100%
Commercial traders	25.0%	72.5%	2.5%	100%
Casual workers	72.7%	18.2%	9.1%	100%
Private sector employees	28.6%	61.9%	9.5%	100%
Others	41.2%	47.1%	11.8%	100%

Source: Field survey, 2016

From Table 8, it can be seen that farmers are more likely to enroll their children in public schools than in private schools. For instance, 83.3% of the farmers enroll their children in public schools,





while 15.6% of the farmers enroll their children in private schools. However, 67.3% of the public sector (government) employees enroll their children in private schools as against 32.7% of the government employees enrolling in public schools. This suggests that public sector employees are more likely to enroll their children in private schools than in public schools. Also, petty traders are slightly more likely to enroll their children in private schools than in public schools. Approximately forty seven percent (46.9%) of the petty traders enroll their children in public schools as against 50.0% of petty traders enroll their children in private schools, while 3.1% of petty traders enroll their children in both public and private schools.

Commercial traders are highly more likely to enroll their children in private schools than in public schools. A quarter (25.0%) of the commercial traders enrolls their children in public schools, while 72.5% of the commercial traders enroll their children in private schools and 2.5% of the commercial traders enroll their children in both public and private schools. However, 2.7% of the casual workers enroll their children in public schools as compared to 18.2% of the casual workers enrolling their children in private schools. Hence, casual workers are less likely to enroll their children in private schools than in public schools. The reason is that households engaged in petty trading are more likely to frequently earn and raise money to support the schooling of their children than casual workers and those engaged in agricultural activities whose incomes are erratic. The petty traders are more likely to earn a small daily income, which could help them to meet their children's education costs (Akaguri, 2011). Such households are likely to select both public and private school, while households engaged in commercial trading are most likely to be higher income earners and consequently capable of meeting the costs of private education (Akaguri, 2011).

About 28.6% of the private sector employees enroll their children in public schools as against 61.9% of the private sector employees enrolling their children in private schools. Private sector employees are, therefore, over twice more likely to enroll their children in private schools than in public schools. The private sector employees earn wages and salaries frequently and this gives them the capacity to be able to pay fees charged by private schools better than their counterparts engaged in agricultural activities as their incomes are erratic and this makes it more difficult to afford private education. The public sector and private sector employees earn salaries, which could help them to meet their children's education costs.

Table 9: Correlation between Occupation of Household Head and School Choice

		Choice of school type	Occupation of household head
Choice of school type	Pearson Correlation	1	0.250 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	346	346
Occupation of household head	Pearson Correlation	0.250 ^{**}	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	346	346

Source: Field survey, 2016

The Table 9 shows that there is significant positive correlation between the occupation of household heads and the choice of private school. This suggests that occupations of household heads have significant effect on the households' choice of school options.



4.1.3 Income Level of Household and School Choice

Table 10 depicts how household income affects household choice of school in Techiman Municipality.

Table 10: Household Income and School Choice

Total monthly household income in GH¢	What type of school is/are your child/children attending?			Total
	Public school	Private school	Both public & private schools	
1 - 500	71.1%	24.8%	4.0%	100%
501 - 1,000	44.6%	52.2%	3.3%	100%
1,001 - 1,500	33.3%	62.5%	4.2%	100%
More than 1,500	35.1%	63.2%	1.7%	100%

Source: Field survey, 2016

From Table 10, it can be seen that 71.1% of the households who earn GH¢1.00 to GH¢500.00 enroll their children in public schools, while 24.8% of them enroll their children in private schools and 4.0% enrolls their children in both public and private schools. However, 44.6% of those who earn GH¢501.00 to GH¢1,000.00 enroll their children in public schools, while 52.2% of them enroll their children in private schools and 3.3% adopts combined school option. Moreover, 33.3% of the households who earn GH¢1,001.00 to GH¢1,500.00 enroll their children in public schools, while 62.5% of them enroll their children in private schools and 4.2% of them enroll their children in both public and private schools. A little over 35.0% of the households who earn over GH¢1,500.00 enroll their children in public schools, while 63.2% of them enroll



their children in private schools and 1.7% of this group of households makes use of the combined option. This shows that the lower income households have a higher propensity of enrolling their children in public schools than in private schools. On the contrary, higher income households have higher tendency to enroll their children in private schools than public schools. Again, lower income households are more likely to go for combined school option that is enrolling their children in both private and public schools. The lower the household income, the less the household's capacity to bear the costs associated with private schooling and the greater the likelihood that their children will either be enrolled in public school or some will be enrolled in public schools and others enrolled in private schools, rather than in a private school. This is consistent with Alderman et al.'s (2001) which revealed that as household income increases, schooling choices move very rapidly away from government school and no school options towards private school. With economic and social capital, relatively affluent households are more able to afford private schooling, and more likely to choose private schools. Also, according to Akaguri (2011), in rural areas, households that are relatively better off enroll their children in the paying private schools. Contrarily, Oketch et al. (2010) found that private school utilisation by wealth quintile among the informal settlements show that there were more pupils from the poorest households that were attending private schools compared to the least poor.



Table 11: Correlation between Household Income and School Choice

		Choice of type of school	Household income
Choice of school type	Pearson Correlation	1	0.251 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	346	346
Household income	Pearson Correlation	0.251 ^{**}	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	346	346

Source: Field survey, 2016

The Table 11 shows that there is significant positive correlation between household income and school choice. The richer households are more likely to enroll their children in private schools than in public schools. The lower the household income, the lesser the household's ability to bear the costs associated with private schooling and the greater the likelihood that their children will either not be enrolled or will be enrolled in a public school, rather than in a private school. This is as a result of the inability of poor households to afford the costs of private education. This is consistent with Smrekar and Goldring (1999) and Schneider et al. (1996) cited in Akaguri (2011) who revealed that higher income households were more likely to enroll their children in private school compared with their low income households.

4.1.4 Age of Household Head and School Choice

The Table 12 depicts how the age of household head influence household choice of type of school in Techiman Municipality.



Table 12: Age of Household Head and School Choice

Age of Household Head	What type of school is/are your child/children attending?						Total	
	Public school		Private school		Combination of public and private school			
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
19 & below	0	0.0	3	100.0	0	0.0	3	100.0
20-29	17	45.9	19	51.4	1	2.7	37	100.0
30-39	52	46.4	56	50.0	4	3.6	112	100.0
40-49	55	51.4	47	43.9	5	4.7	107	100.0
50-59	42	66.7	20	31.7	1	1.6	63	100.0
60 & above	15	62.5	8	33.3	1	4.2	24	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From Table 12, it is clear that households headed by younger persons are relatively more likely to enroll their children in private schools than in public schools. While households headed by older persons are relatively more likely to enroll their children in public schools than in private schools. For instance, all the households headed by persons aged 19 years and below have enrolled their children in private schools. Again, 45.9% and 51.4% of the households headed by persons aged 20 to 29 years have enrolled their children in public schools and private schools respectively, while 2.7% of the households headed by persons aged 20 to 29 years have enrolled their children in both public and private schools. Furthermore, 46.4% and 50.0% of the households headed by persons aged 30 to 39 years have enrolled their children in public schools and private schools respectively, while 3.6% of the households headed by persons aged 30 to 39 years have enrolled their children in both public and private schools. In addition, 51.4%, 43.9% and 4.7% of the households headed by persons aged 40 to 49 years have enrolled their children in public schools, private schools and in both public and private schools respectively. On the contrary, 66.7% and 31.7% of the households headed by persons aged 50 to 59 years have



enrolled their children in public schools and private schools respectively, while only 1.6% of the households headed by persons aged 50 to 59 years have enrolled their children in both public and private schools. Moreover, 62.5% and 33.3% and 4.2% of the households headed by persons aged 60 and above have enrolled their children in public schools, private schools and in both public and private schools respectively.

1.5 Household Assets (House, Plantation, Car, Motor Bike) and School Choice

The Table 13 depicts at how household assets (house, plantation, car, motor bike) affect household school choice in Techiman Municipality.

Table 13: Ownership of House, Plantation, Car, Motor Bike and School Choice

Choice of type of school	Does a member of your household own assets such as a house, plantation, car, motor bike?			
	No		Yes	
Public school	66	64.7%	117	48.0%
Private school	34	33.3%	117	48.0%
Both public and private school	2	2.0%	10	4.0%
Total	102	100%	244	100%

Source: Field survey, 2016

From the Table 13, it can be seen that the households that do not own any assets such as a house, plantation, car, motor bike are almost twice (2 times) more likely to enroll their children in public schools than enrolling their children in private schools. The probability of the households that do not own assets enrolling their children in public schools is higher than enrolling their



children in private schools. That is 64.7% against 33.3%. However, households that own assets such as a house, plantation, car, motor bike have equal chance of either enrolling their children in public schools or private schools. A household choosing a combined option is highly associated with ownership of assets than non-ownership of such assets. The finding is consistent with Nishimura and Yamano's (2008) finding that the probability of attending a private school, of any type, doubles from 5 to 10 percent when the asset value increases from the 25% to 75% level. The wealthier families tend to react to the quality of education, while poorer pupils stay in schools regardless of the quality (Nishimura and Yamano 2008). Similarly, Harma (2008) and Kingdon (1996) found that in rural and urban India respectively households who owned economic assets were more likely to enroll their children in private schools comparative to household without such economic assets. Also, Oketch et al. (2010) found that few pupils from least poor households were attending private schools (20.95%) compared to other wealth quintiles and nearly one half of the pupils from the poorest households in the slums attend private schools (45.2%). Also, Härmä and Rose (2012) found that only 10% of children from the poorest quintile were accessing private schools in their study area, compared with 70% of the richest quintile.

1.6 Receiving Financial Support from Other Relatives and Friends and School Choice

The Table 14 illustrates how financial support from other relatives and friends (social networks) influence household school choice decision in the Techiman Municipality.



Table 14: Financial Support (Remittances) from Other Relatives and Friends and School Choice

Type of school	Does your household get any financial support from other relatives or friends?			
	No		Yes	
Public school	134	53.4%	49	51.6%
Private school	107	42.6%	44	46.3
Both public and private schools	10	4.0%	2	2.1%
Total	251	100.0%	95	100.0%

Source: Field survey, 2016

From the Table 14, it is clear that 53.4% of the households that do not benefit from financial support or remittances from relatives or friends enroll their children in public schools, while 42.6% of them enroll their children in private schools and 4% enroll their children in both public and private schools. On the other hand, 51.6% of those households that benefit from financial support or remittances from relatives or friends enroll their children in public schools, while 46.3% enroll their children in private schools and 2.1% enroll their children in both public and private schools. This suggests that households that do not benefit from financial support or remittances from relatives or friends are slightly more likely to enroll their children in public schools than in private schools, while those who benefit from financial support or remittances from relatives or friends are slightly more likely to enroll their children in private schools than public schools.



4.1.7 Other Factors that Influence Household School Choice in Techiman Municipality

The Table 15 illustrates the other factors beside socioeconomic statuses of households that influence household choice of type of school.

Table 15: Other Factors that Influence Households' School Choice Decision

Factors	Type of School		
	Public school	Private school	Combination of public & private schools
High performance in BECE	0.5%	49.0%	8.3%
Proximity (Distance)	6.6%	3.3%	-
Cost of education	45.9%	0.7%	91.7%
Speaking of good English	-	27.8%	-
Free education & feeding	25.1%	-	-
High commitment of private school	-	19.2%	-
Have trained & qualified teachers	9.3%	-	-
Their students perform well in SHS	12.6%	-	-
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Field survey, 2016

From Table 15, it is clear that 49.0% of the households who enrolled the children in private schools made the choice due to high performance of private basic schools in standardized external examinations (Basic Education Certificate Examinations (BECE)). However, only 0.5% of the households who enrolled their children in public school did so as a result of high performance. This shows that households who enroll their children in private basic schools are more sensitive to the performance of the schools in BECE than those who enroll their children in





public basic schools when making school choice. High performance of private schools in BECE emerges as the most influencing factor encouraging the choice of private schools, as Tooley (2009), Tooley and Dixon (2007) and Kingdon (1996) observed that better performance of private schools in test scores and examinations influence households in choosing private schools over public ones. Households that place priority on academic achievement are more likely to choose private schools because of their better performance in examinations and test scores (Kingdon (1996). Akaguri's (2011) the qualitative analysis revealed that household heads chose private schooling overwhelmingly due to better education outcomes of the LFPSs compared to the public schools. Similarly, Andrabi et al. (2007) and Rehman et al. (2010) also reveal that private school pupils tend to outperform public school pupils, which explain parents' preference for private over public schools. Rehman et al. (2010) also point out that parents opt for private schools because the private schools produce better examination results.

In addition, 3.3% of the households who enrolled the children in private schools made the choice because of proximity to school. While 6.6% of the households who enrolled the children in public basic schools chose this option due to proximity or distance to and from school. This shows that households who enroll the children in private basic schools are less sensitive to distance to school, as the effect is more significant for government schools than for private schools (Alderman et al. 2001). Similarly, Alderman et al. (2001) reveal that increasing distance to a school type lowers the relative utility of choosing that option; however the effect is more significant for government schools than for private schools. Akaguri (2011) reveals that the distance a child has to travel from home to school is statistically significant in explaining school choice in respect of choosing the combined school preference compared to public school only.

Also, 45.9% of the households who enrolled their children in public schools chose this option as a result of low cost of public education, while only 0.7% of the households enrolled their children in private schools because of low cost of private education. This shows that households that enroll their children in private schools are highly less sensitive to the cost of education as compared to those who enroll their children in public schools. However, 91.7% of the households who enrolled their children in both public and private schools took this decision because of high cost of private education. The implication is that households who enroll their children in private schools are less sensitive to the cost of education than those who enroll their wards in public basic schools. However, the reason for choosing combined option is because of high fees charged by the private schools. According to Oduro (2000), the high cost of schooling is often the most frequent reason cited for non-attendance. However, this study revealed that despite high cost of private education, households who have enrolled their children in private schools are less sensitive to it as the cost of private education ranges from GH¢90.00 to GH¢250.00 per month compared to virtually free education and in some instance free schooling in government schools. Meanwhile, since the cost of education is lower at public schools than at private schools and demand for private schooling is high, this suggests that low performance of public schools in BECE may have been the reason for the choice of private schools.



Furthermore, 27.8% of the households who enrolled their children in private schools selected private schools because the private schools encourage speaking of English. However, there was no household that enrolled their children in public schools because of speaking of good English language. Similarly, McLoughlin (2013) found that wealthier families in non-slum areas were sending their children to private schools through preference or differentiated demand. The result

of this study shows that preference of English language has an effect on households' choice of private basic school in the municipality. They enrolled their children in private schools because they believed the private schools encourage speaking of English Language. Moreover, 13.3% of the households had enrolled their children in public basic schools as a result of free education and feeding enjoyed in some public basic schools. This suggests that free education and school feeding programme have an effect on the choice of public basic school.

About 8.4% of the households indicated that they had enrolled their children in private schools because of high commitment of private school teachers in terms of punctuality, regularity to schools and the quality of time teachers spend with pupils in class. However, no household enrolled their children in public basic school because of commitment of public schools teachers. Meanwhile, Muralidharan and Sundararaman (2013) reveal that government school teachers tend to spend significantly more time on administrative work than private school teachers. This takes off some of instructional or contact hours they are supposed to spend with the pupils and impart knowledge in the pupils. Similarly, Ashly et al. (2014) revealed that Kingdon and Banerji's (2009) study in Uttar Pradesh, in which government school regular teachers self-reported spending about 75 percent of their school time teaching as compared to the 90 percent reported by private school teachers. However, 4.9% of the households had enrolled their children in public schools because the public schools have trained and competent teachers. Some of the households who enroll their children in public schools are influenced by the fact that the public schools have trained and competent teachers. Also, 6.6% of the households had enrolled their children in public basic schools because of the perception that the products or students of public basic schools perform well in Senior High Schools (SHS) level.



From the discussion, the relative significance of the various factors affecting household school choice differed very much between public and private school household heads. The household heads who have enrolled their children in private basic schools mentioned high performance of private schools in BECE, preference of English Language speaking and high commitment of private basic schools teachers as factors that influenced their choice of basic schools. While, the households who have enrolled their children in public basic schools emphasized that they were influenced by factors such as cost of education, free education and school feeding programme, high performance of public basic schools products at the senior secondary school (SHS) level and professional qualification and competence of public basic school teachers.

1.8 Influence of Radio Adverts and Word of Mouth on Household Choice of School

The Table 16 presents the sources of information that influence household school choice decision in the Techiman Municipality.

Table 16: Sources of Information That Influence Household Choice of School

Type of school	Sources of information			Total
	Radio adverts	Word of mouth	Others	
Public school	1.6%	83.6%	14.8%	100%
Private school	37.1%	51.7%	11.3%	100%
Combination of public and private school	0.0%	83.3%	16.7%	100%

Source: Field survey, 2016



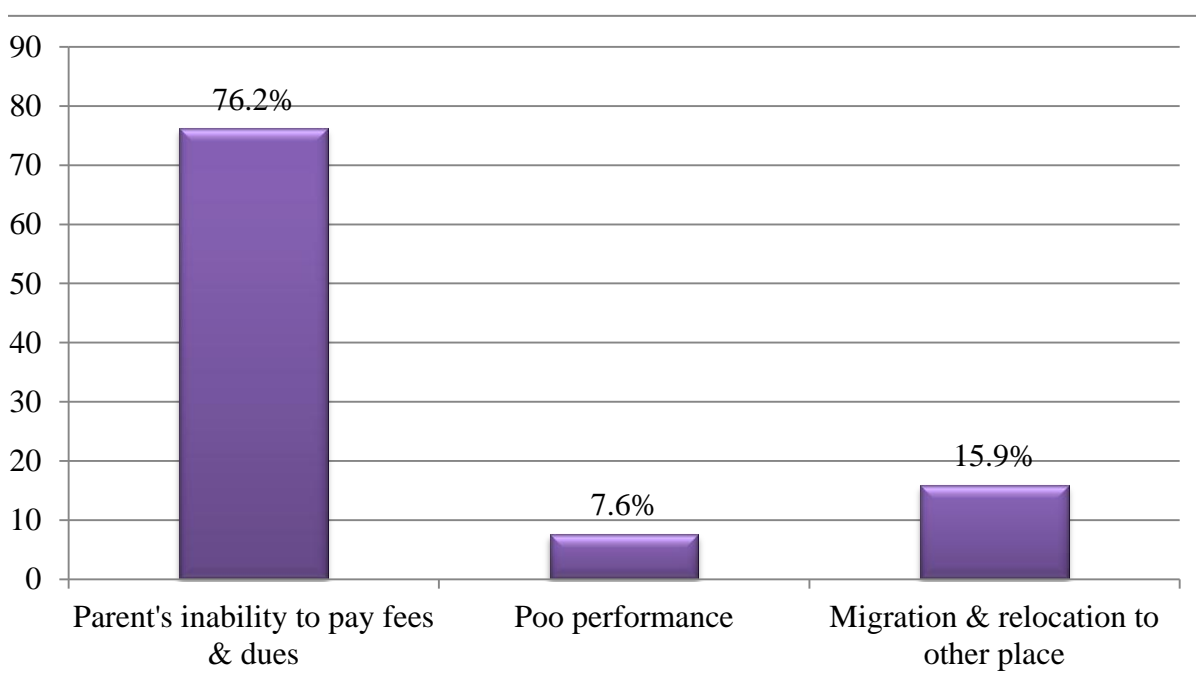
As illustrated in the Table 16, only 1.6% of the households who enrolled their children in public basic schools indicated they learnt about their children's current through radio adverts, while 83.6% of them learnt about their children's current schools through their friends and relatives (word of mouth) and 14.8% of them learnt about their children's current through other means such as personal observations and experiences. Meanwhile, 37.1% of the households who enrolled their children in private basic schools indicated they learnt about their children's current through radio adverts, while 51.7% of them learnt about their children's current schools through their friends and relatives (word of mouth) and 11.3% of them learnt about their children's current through other means such as personal observations. However, 83.3% of the households who enrolled their children in both public schools and private schools indicated they had information about their children's current schools through word of mouth and 16.7% of them learnt about their children's current schools through other means such as observations. This shows that radio adverts have great influence on household choice of private basic school than public basic school choice. In making school choice decisions, radio adverts influence more households to select private basic schools. However, majority of the households in the sample were influenced by their neighbors, relatives and friends in the process of school choice decision. This corroborates Srivastava (2007) who found that households' primary and irresistible sources of information were other parents in the neighborhood or village, family members, and close friends who were considered trustworthy and reasonably informed.



4.1.9 Reasons Why Pupils Drop Out From Private Schools or Leave Private Schools for Public Basic Schools in Techiman Municipality

Figure 1 depicts the causes of dropout in private schools and why pupils leave private schools for public schools in the Techiman Municipality. When the proprietors were asked why pupils in their schools either drop out or leave for public basic schools, they mentioned inability of parents to pay fees, poor performance and migration or relocation to other areas as reasons.

Figure 1: Reasons Why Pupils Leave Private Basic Schools in Techiman Municipality



Source: Field survey, 2016

As shown in Figure 1, 76.2% of the proprietors and proprietresses who indicated that some of their pupils had dropped out of schools or left for public basic schools claimed it was as a result of their parents' inability to pay fees and dues. This concurs with concerns raised by McLoughlin, (2013) that even where children from the lowest quintiles are enrolled in LCPSs, they are also

the most likely to drop out, and also Akaguri (2013) in the case of rural Ghana. The proprietors claimed that some parents found it difficult to pay fees, while others were reluctant to pay their children fees. However, 7.9% of the proprietors attributed it to poor performance of the pupils. According to the proprietors, when parents find out that their children are not performing well in private schools, they transfer them from the private schools to 'save' their monies. The proprietors claimed that they do not promote non-performing pupils in their schools; pupils who perform poorly are repeated in their class. Parents are discouraged from educating such pupils in private schools. This shows that some parents are motivated and willing to sacrifice some of their incomes to educate children in private basic schools, if their children are performing well or are brilliant. Also, 15.9% of them also attributed the phenomenon to migration of parents or relocation to other places.

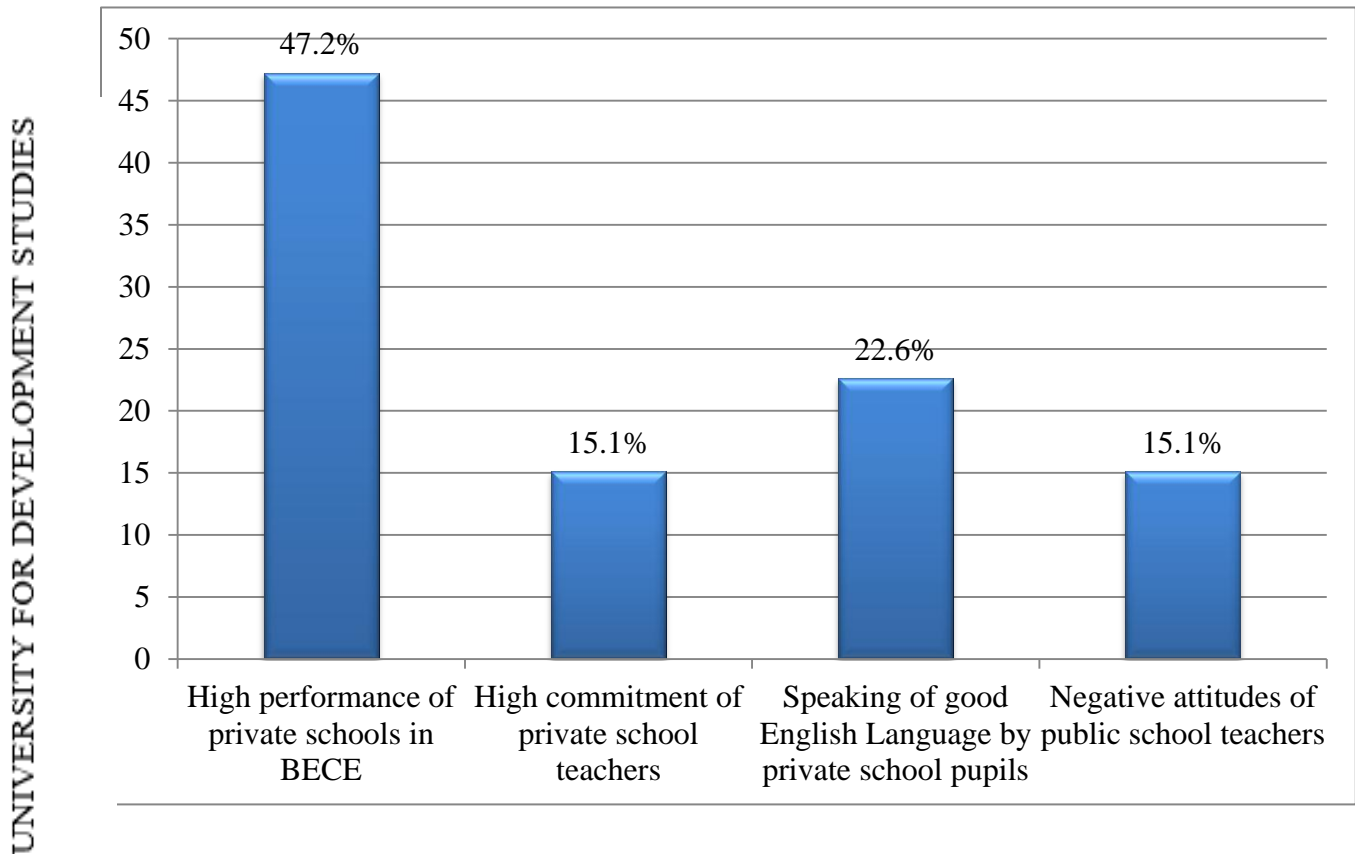
1.10 Factors that Influence Households to Change School from Public to Private Basic School in Techiman Municipality

When the household heads were asked whether they would change their children's current schools either from public to private and vice versa if they are offered the chance, 27.2% of them said they would change, while 72.8% said they would not change their children's current schools. Half of 27.2% of the household heads who said they would take any chance to change their children's current schools have their children enrolled in public schools, while 45.7% and 4.3% have their children in private schools and both private and public respectively. This suggests that households whose children are in public schools are relatively more likely to change schools if opportunities are offered than those that have their children enrolled in private



schools and both private and public. The Figure 2 illustrates the factors that would influence the households' decisions to change school from public school to private school.

Figure 2: Factors that Influence Households to Change School from Public to Private School



Source: Field survey, 2016



The Figure 2 shows that 47.2% of the 45.7% of the household heads who have their children in private schools said they would change their children's current schools attributed their decision to high performance of private schools in BECE. Also, 15.1% of the 45.7% of those who said they would change their children's current schools from public to private school would do so because of high commitment of private school teachers. Additionally, 22.6% of the 45.7% of the household heads who indicated they would change their children's current schools from public to

private school would do so because of promotion of speaking of good English Language in private schools, while 15.1% said they would also change their children's current schools from public to private because of the negative attitudes of public school teachers.

4.2 Factors Promoting the Growth of Private Basic Schools in Techiman Municipality

The study reveals that excess demand as a result of increase in the number of children of school going age, high performance of private schools in BECE, negative attitudes of public basic school teachers, promotion of speaking of English Language, perceived high commitment of private basic school teachers, good supervision & management of private schools, affordability and educational entrepreneurship are the factors that promote the growth and proliferation of private basic schools in Techiman Municipality. Table 17 illustrates the factors promoting the growth and proliferation of private basic schools in Techiman Municipality.



Table 17: Factors Promoting the Growth of Private Basic Schools

Factors Promoting Growth of Private Schools	Frequency	Percentage
Insufficient public basic schools (Excess demand)	114	28.1
High performance in BECE	244	60.2
Negative attitudes of public school teachers	154	38.0
Speaking of good English Language	166	41.0
Affordability	72	17.8
High commitment of private school teachers	208	51.4
Good supervision & management of private schools	161	39.8
Educational entrepreneurship	99	24.4

field survey, 2016

From Table 17, it is clear that 28.1% of the respondents think that insufficient public basic schools is responsible for the growth and large number of private basic schools in the municipality. They think that households' demand for basic education in the municipality exceeds what public basic schools can provide. They think the population of children of school going age is growing at a faster rate than provision of public education in the municipality, as Metch (2010) and McLoughlin (2013) indicated that where the supply of public schooling is insufficient to meet demand of families, the excluded families who perceive the benefits of education to be greater than the opportunity costs and can afford to pay fees, will seek alternatives in the private sector. Similarly, Heyneman and Stern (2013:2) also observed that private schools have proliferated in developing countries in order to meet excess demand resulting from an insufficient supply of public school spaces and/or to provide alternatives to a



failing public education system. This is the case of Techiman Municipal area, particularly Techiman township. For instance, there are 208 private basic schools representing 46.5% of all basic schools in the municipality. Without the private schools the demand for schooling would have exceeded the supply of basic education.

Again, 60.2% of the respondents also think that high performance of private schools in BECE is responsible for the growth of private basic schools in the municipality. The respondents believed that private schools perform better than public schools in BECE. Meanwhile, the statistics from the Techiman Municipal Education Directorate shows that private schools outperformed the public schools in 2013, 2014 and 2015 Basic Education Examinations. For instance, in 2013 Basic Education Certificate Examinations (BECE), the private basic schools in the Techiman Municipality scored 81.47%, while the public basic schools scored 66.89%. In 2014 BECE examinations, the private basic schools in the municipality scored 84.40%, while the public basic schools scored 63.50%. Furthermore, in 2015 BECE Examinations, the private basic schools in the Techiman Municipality scored 85.99% while the public basic schools scored 7.41%. This corroborates Andrabi et al. (2007) and Rehman et al. (2010) who reveal that private school pupils tend to outperform public school pupils, which explains parents' preference for private over public schools. According to Deputy Director of Education at Techiman Municipal Education Directorate in charge of Human Resource and Development, *"The private schools are well managed, and they perform creditably and better than the public schools. This encourages parents to enroll their wards in the private schools."* The private schools produce better examination results. Similarly, Center for Development and Enterprise (2015) emphasizes that private education has expanded rapidly in India and poor parents make great sacrifices to send their children to private schools as a result of their cynicism with public schools. Like





Patrinós et al. (2009), public perceptions of poor quality education in terms of poor performance of public schools are driving the rapid expansion of private schooling in the municipality. This also affirms Center for Development and Enterprise (2015) which observed that rapid expansion of private education in India where poor parents make great sacrifices to send their children to private schools is as a result of their disillusionment and disappointment with public schools and their willingness to pay for their children to attend very rudimentary private schools. The perceived deficiencies of public basic schools in terms of low performance promote the proliferation and growth of private schools. This is because with increasing awareness of the importance of education for human emancipation and development, parents will go for the private option, if public schools do not meet their expectation in terms of performance in BECE. Again, Deputy Director of Education in charge of Human Resource and Development at Achimota Municipal Education Directorate, gave his view as follows: *“Even though most of the private schools teachers are untrained, they are able to enforce effective teaching and learning better and ensure that their teachers work hard as compared to the public sector; the private schools work with targets, that is they always want their pupils to get good passes in Basic Education Certificate Examinations in order to attract more pupils to their schools for them to make more profits from their investments.”* The opinion expressed above shows that profit maximization is an incentive for them to perform in Basic Education Certificate Examinations. However, according to Ndandiko (2010), the typical public sector entity does not cater for financial return and does not match ownership, responsibility for decision making and distribution of returns (Ndandiko, 2010).

In addition, 38.0% of the respondents also think that negative attitudes of public school teachers are responsible for the growth of private basic schools in the municipality. Public perceptions of

negative attitudes of public schools teachers are driving the expansion of private schooling. The respondents think that negative attitudes of public schools teachers are tolerated. However, such negative attitudes are not tolerated in private schools. They think that in private schools, teachers are made to stay away from negative attitudes that do not promote effective teaching and learning and those who attitudes do not engender effective teaching and learning are fired. According to Ashly et al. (2014:20), Desai et al.'s study indicated that government school teachers were only 2 percentage points more likely to be absent than their private school counterparts. Negative attitudes of public schools teachers such as absenteeism do not promote effective teaching and learning.

Furthermore, 41.0% of the respondents think that promotion of speaking of good English in private schools is responsible for the growth of private basic schools in the municipality. The respondents believe that private schools pupils speak better and fluent English than their counterparts in public schools. They think that speaking of good and fluent English Language by private basic schools pupils attracts parents to enroll their children in private schools. The desire of parents for their children to speak good and fluent English is believed by the respondents to be one of the factors promoting the growth and proliferation of private basic schools in the municipality.

However, 17.8% of the respondents think that affordability of private schooling is responsible for the growth of private basic schools in the municipality. Some of the respondents think that the cost of private education is very low making it affordable for parents. High cost of private education serves as a barrier for the poor households to access private education; however, this



small number of the respondents believes that the cost of private education is low and that makes it easy for more households to afford the cost of private schooling.

Moreover, 51.4% of the respondents think that high commitment of private basic school teachers is responsible for the growth of private basic schools in the municipality. There is perception that private schools teachers are more committed to their work than the public basic schools teachers.

The respondents think that private basic teachers are regular and punctual to school and spend quality time with the pupils which results in high performance of the private schools in BECE. This is because in a private school, the teachers are accountable to the manager who can fire them, while the manager is also accountable to the parents who can withdraw their children (Okyerefo et al. 2011; Sempungu, 2011). However, in a government schools the chain of accountability is much weaker, as teachers have a permanent job with salaries and promotions unrelated to performance (Goyal and Pandey 2009). Therefore parents who can afford the cost prefer to send their children to these private schools where they think they can have the required quality education in terms of performance (Nsiah-Pepurah, 2004).

Also, 39.8% of the respondents think that good supervision and management of private schools is responsible for the growth and large number of private basic schools in the municipality. The respondents believe that the private schools are well supervised and managed than the public basic schools. They believe that the owners of the private schools manage their schools and supervise the teachers well. This could make the teachers to also supervise the pupils very well to avoid the displeasure of the owners and managers of their schools which account for the high performance of the private basic schools in the municipality. In view of Okyerefo et al. (2011), the academic performance is better in private schools due to more effective supervision of work.



In support of this, according to Neagley and Evans (1970), effective supervision improves the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom. The effective supervision of private schools in the municipality is more likely to account for the high performance of private schools in BECE because over 93% of their teachers are untrained.

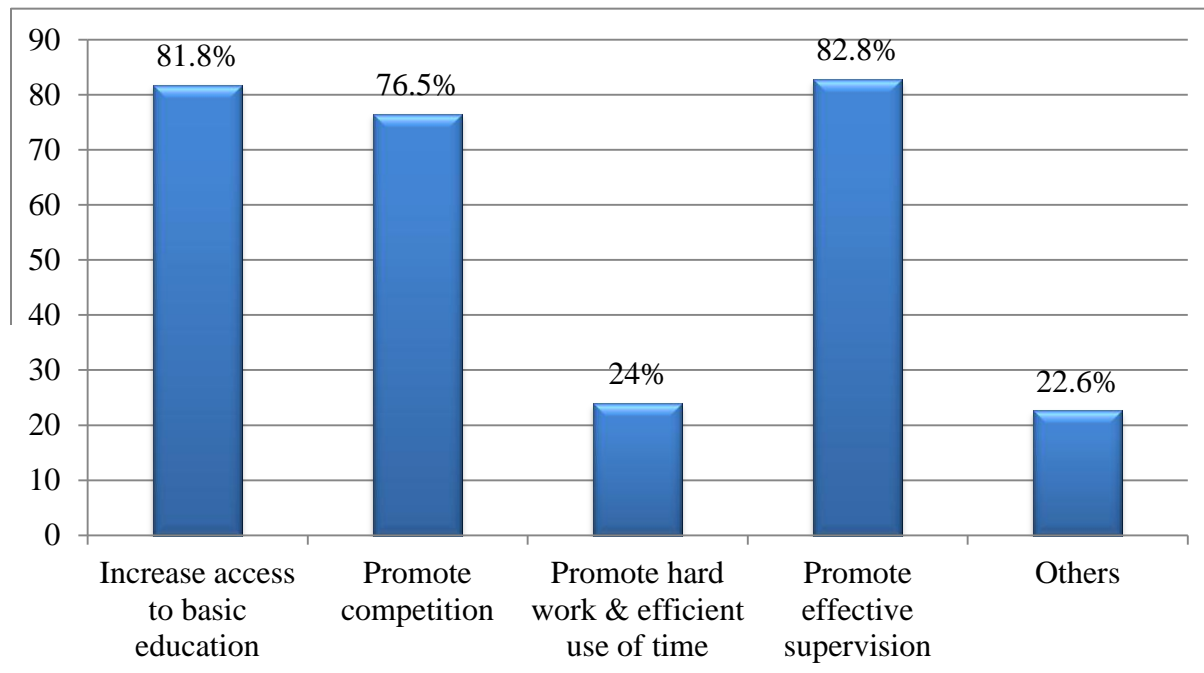
Lastly, 24.4% of the respondents also think that Educational entrepreneurship is responsible for the growth and the large number of private basic schools in the municipality. The respondents also believe that some people invest in private education as a mean of making money, as Akpotu and Akpochofo, (2009) observed that most proprietors see the educational sector as the quickest and safest means to receive quick returns on investment with minimal risks, as there are always students to admit.

3 Contribution of Private Schools in the Provision of Basic Education in Techiman Municipality

The Figure 3 looks at the various roles played by the private basic schools in the provision of basic education in Techiman Municipality.



Figure 3: Contribution of Private Basic Schools



field survey, 2016

From Figure 3, it can be seen that 81.8% of the respondents indicated that private basic schools in the municipality have helped to expand access to basic education. They indicated that the private basic schools supplement what the government provides and thereby ensuring that every child get opportunity to participate in basic school education, as indicated by Nsiah-Peprah (2004) that private schools fill the gap between what the government is able to supply and the demands of the people. As a result of insufficient public provision of education, the private sector is seen as one of the means to achieving universal enrollment as it expands supply while shifting costs away from government (Lincove, 2007). For instance, there are 89 public KGs and 80 private KGs, 92 public primary schools and 79 private primary schools, and 58 public Junior High Schools (JHS) and 49 private Junior High Schools in the Techiman Municipality. In total, there are 208 registered private basic schools representing 46.5% of all basic schools in the municipality. In effect, the private schools have helped to reduce the burden of the government



and lessen the pressure on government funding. As noted by Deputy Director in charge of Planning, Data Collection, Research, Monitoring and Evaluation at Techiman Municipal Education Directorate that: *“Demand for education is increasing very fast in the municipality and without private schools, the government would not be able to match this demand with supply as a result of budget constraints. Private schools in the municipality supplement government to absorb growing demand.”*

Also, 76.5% of the respondents also stated that private basic schools promote competition among schools in the municipality. The respondents think that the private schools compete among themselves for pupils to maximize returns. According to the respondents those private basic schools that perform well in BECE are able to attract more pupils to their schools and this makes them to get more returns from their investments. Some of the respondents, particularly, the GES officials indicated the performance of the private schools in BECE put pressure on the public basic schools in the municipality to improve their performance as a result of public outcry and criticisms, as Friedman (1955) emphasized that subjecting failing schools to market competition could lead to improved quality. The competition can positively affect the quality of education in both public and private schools. The competition may serve as motivation which will inspire schools to put in more effort in order to protect their image and increase their profit margins, particularly the private basic schools. For instance, according to McLoughlin (2013), Andrabi et al.'s (2009) randomised controlled trial found that market competition leads to quality improvements across all school types in an area of rural Pakistan, although this was only after comparable information on school performance was provided to (potential) users.



Furthermore, 24.0% of the respondents believe that private schools promote hard work. The respondents think that private schools ensure that teachers work very hard as a result of good supervision of teachers. They believe that private schools encourage the teachers to work hard, and for Kremer and Muralidharan (2008), there is more teaching activity in private schools than government schools, and significantly more contact time between teachers and pupils.

Additionally, 82.8% respondents believe that private schools promote effective supervision of pupils and teachers. Very large number of the respondents (82.8%) thinks that private schools promote effective supervision of teachers and pupils. They believe that private schools are able to supervise the teachers and pupils very well than their public counterparts. As Sempungu (2011) observed that private institutions are well supervised by their private owners since in many of them the owners are part of the administrators. In this regard there may be low cases of teachers absenting themselves from school.

Lastly, 22.6% of the respondents believe that private schools promote pupils/students discipline and also ensure pupils get access to computers. The respondents believe that private schools ensure that pupils are well discipline. They think that those pupils/students who are indiscipline are usually sacked from private schools to serve as deterrence to other pupils. While, others indicated private basic schools provide ICT facilities to their pupils.

4.4 Challenges Faced by Private Basic Schools in the Techiman Municipality

The private school operators indicated that the challenges facing them are high taxes, financial constraints, frequent transfers of pupils from school, inadequate teaching and learning materials



(TLMs) as a result of non-supply of TLMs by GES to private basic schools and parents' inability to pay fees. These challenges are shown in the Table 18.

Table 18: Challenges Facing Private Basic Schools in the Municipality

Challenges	Frequency	Percentage
High taxes	21	42.9
Financial constraints	35	71.4
Frequent transfers of pupils	28	57.1
Inadequate of TLM's	42	85.7
Default in payment of school fees	14	28.6
Total	140	

field survey, 2016

From Table 18, it is clear that 42.9% of the private basic school proprietors indicated high taxes as a challenge facing their schools. The proprietors and proprietresses explained that they are unable to pay taxes. This they elucidated makes it difficult for them to run their schools effectively. They claimed the high taxes they pay make it difficult for them to provide enough facilities and teaching and learning materials as well as pay their teachers to facilitate effective teaching and learning in their schools. As a result, many private schools would be at risk with regard to long-term financial sustainability (Heyneman and Stern 2013), if the taxes are raised beyond what they can afford.

Also, 71.4% of the private schools proprietors claimed that they face financial challenges. They claimed that they find it difficult to raise enough financial resources to pay their teachers and



expand their schools to accommodate more pupils in their schools. They also explained that they are unable to get money to acquire pieces of land to expand their schools to accommodate more pupils as a result of scarcity of financial resources. They claimed that inadequate financial resources make it difficult for them to expand their schools facilities and also make their buildings and environment conducive for teaching and learning to attract parents to enroll their children in the private schools. According to all of the executives of GNAPS interviewed, financial constraints is the main challenge facing and militating against their members which makes it very difficult for them to operate and run their schools effectively and efficiently in order to achieve their aims and objectives. According to them, they find it very difficult to mobilize enough financial resources for the operation and management of their schools and build enough classroom blocks to accommodate more pupils as well as buy school buses to transport pupils who live in distant places but wish to attend such schools, as Nupur (2011) revealed that banks typically do not lend to low cost private schools because they lack the ability to provide tangible collateral, and also most of them do not maintain formal accounts, making due diligence difficult.

Furthermore, 57.1% of the private schools proprietors also indicated frequent transfers of pupils from their schools is a challenge hindering the smooth running of their schools. They explained that their ability to raise enough funds depend heavily on the enrollment figures of their schools. They attributed the withdrawals of pupils from their schools to the establishment of more private schools in the municipality. However, the frequent transfers of pupils from private schools could be due to high fees and dues charged by the private schools. The frequent transfers of pupils will lead to fluctuation of incomes, and the dependence on tuition inevitably places non-government schools at constant risk of bankruptcy (Heyneman and Stern, 2013), as there is no customer



'loyalty' (Nupur (2011:58). It is easy for parents to transfer children to another school if they are unhappy with a particular school.

Moreover, 85.7% of the private basic school proprietors indicated that inadequate teaching and learning materials (TLM's) is a challenge facing private basic schools. They claimed that they are playing important role in augmenting government's efforts in providing education to Ghanaian children and reducing financial burden on the government. However, the Ghana Education service does not supply teaching and learning materials to them. They asserted that they have to use their scarce resources to purchase teaching and learning materials for the children in their schools. According to an executive member of GNAPS, *"We are educating Ghanaian children, but the government does not supply teaching and learning materials to our schools. We have to buy pupils' books, chalk and others from shops. This creates a lot of problems for us."* This situation could have indirect effect on the amount the private schools charge as school fees.

Lastly, 26.6% of the private schools proprietors interviewed indicated that parents' inability to pay fees on time is a challenge militating against the smooth running of their schools. They claimed some parents do not pay fees and dues on time and others do not pay full fees owe them. They elucidated that the inability of parents to pay fees on time has devastating effects on the operation of the schools as they are unable to pay their teachers on time thereby making some of their teachers to leave their schools for others.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This is the final chapter of this research which contains a summary of the findings of the study, the conclusions arrived at from the study and recommendations made from the examination of the primary data in the chapter four which revealed some interesting findings about determinants of household demand of private education and factors promoting growth of private basic schools in the Techiman Municipality as well as contributions of private basic schools and challenges faced by the private schools in the municipality.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The study found that increase in the educational levels of household heads, increases the chance for the households enrolling their children in private school. The attainment of secondary education and tertiary education by household head increases the possibility of children from that household being enrolled in private school. However, low educational attainment by household head like no formal education and basic education, increase the likelihood that children from the household being enrolled in public schools.

In addition, the study revealed that there is significant positive correlation between the occupation of household heads and the choice of type of school. This study found that among the various occupations on which households depend for their income and livelihood, those engaged in agricultural activities and casual work show that these two economic activities have a positive



effect on selection of public schools when compared to households not engaged in these occupations. The public and private sector employees and commercial traders are more likely to enroll their children in private schools than in public schools.

The study further found that there is significant positive correlation between household income and choice of type of school. The richer households are more likely to enroll the children in private basic schools than in public basic schools. The lower income households have a higher propensity to enroll their children in public basic schools than in private basic schools. On the contrary, higher income households have higher tendency to enroll their children in private basic schools than in public basic schools. Again, lower income households are more likely to go for combined option that is enrolling their children in both private and public basic schools.

Furthermore, the study revealed that the households that do not own houses, plantations, cars, motor bikes are more likely to enroll their children in public basic schools than enrolling their children in private basic schools. The probability of the poor households enrolling their children in public basic schools is higher than enrolling their private basic schools. However, households that own houses, plantations, cars, motor bikes have equal chance of either enrolling their children in public basic schools or private basic schools.

Additionally, the study found that high performance of private schools in BECE and the preference for speaking good and fluent English Language play very important role in influencing choice of private schools, while low cost of education influence the choice for public basic schools. The households that enroll their children in private basic schools are highly less sensitive to the cost of education as compared to those who enroll their children in public basic schools.



The study found insufficient public basic schools (excess demand), high performance in standardized examinations, negative attitudes of public school teachers, preference of speaking of good and fluent English Language, affordability of private education, high commitment of private school teachers, good supervision and management of private basic schools, and educational entrepreneurship are factors promoting the growth and proliferation of private basic schools in the study area. However, high performance of private schools in BECE emerges the most important factor influencing the private basic school phenomenon that has gained impetus and increased visibility in the Techiman Municipality in recent years.

The study disclosed that private basic schools in the municipality help increase access to basic education, promote competition in the education sector, promote hard work and ensure efficient use of time as well as promote effective supervision of pupils and teachers.

The study found that private basic schools in the municipality face challenges such as high taxes, financial constraints, and frequent transfers of pupils, default in payment of school fees and inadequate teaching and learning materials as a result of non-supply of teaching and learning materials to private schools by GES.

2 Conclusion

The findings of the survey are generally consistent with the limited evidence on household's choice of type of school in the literature. The socioeconomic factors of households such as levels of education, occupations, household income levels, age of household heads emerged as one set of the factors significantly influencing the choice of private school as the relatively better-off households are more able to afford the costs of private education and thereby enrolling their



children in private schools. The socioeconomic statuses of households such as household income, occupation and household head's education have substantial effects on the choice of school. Higher status households are more likely to enroll their children in private schools and are also less likely to mention cost, which is associated with public school enrollment as a factor in their school choice. The findings support the notion that privatizing education would deny some children, especially those from poor households, access to formal education due to financial constraints. Cost of private education prevents many households from accessing private education for their children, while perceived high commitment of private school teachers and better track records of private schools in Basic Education Certificate Examinations as well as the desires of some households for their children to speak good and fluent English Language have influenced interest in private schooling, hence the growth and proliferation of private basic schools in the municipality. Households tend to choose private schools because they are dissatisfied with services provided by public basic schools or they cannot find what they want in the public basic schools.

The growth of private basic schools in the municipality is no doubt a result of the failings of the public school system. Failure of the public system to improve upon the performance in BECE as well as ever growing number of children of school age is responsible for the proliferation and growth of private basic schools in the municipality, which has the potential of denying children from poor households opportunity to climb the educational ladder as majority of the poor patronize public schools which performance is low as compared to private basic schools. Better track records of private schools in BECE have influenced interest in private schooling, hence the growth of private schools in the municipality.



5.3 Recommendations

The promotion of effective accountability systems in public basic schools could be of great benefit to the households that patronise their services. The state and educational agencies such as G.E.S should ensure that public schools are more accountable to the communities they serve and effectively supervised by Ghana Education Service.

In addition, the government must help to minimize the challenges faced by the private basic schools, particularly problems of inadequate TLM's and high taxes, to make them operate effectively for the government own benefits, since the private basic schools augment government's efforts by providing basic education thereby reducing financial burden on the government.

The researcher also recommends that National Inspectorate Board (NIB) should put in place mechanisms for the effective supervision of public basic schools to help improve the academic performance of their pupils thereby making them more attractive to parents. Ghana Education Service should also intensify supervision in public basic schools. GES should ensure that heads of public basic schools and circuit supervisors provide good supervision. This will assist in

radicating negative tendencies (attitudes of teachers) such as lateness, absenteeism and laziness in the public basic schools thereby helping to improve the performance of public basic school pupils, which will help to win back the trust of the general public and make them enroll their children in the public schools. It is obvious that the high commitment and effective supervision of private school teachers may be the reason why their students outperform their counterparts in the public schools. Because over 93% of the private school teachers in the municipality are untrained (secondary school graduate) teacher.



The study revealed that it is the relatively better-off households that enroll their children in private basic schools. As a result, the study recommends that it would be in the interests of the poor if the performances of the public basic schools are improved, given that government support to the private education sector would only benefit the relatively better off households. Hence, the government must do whatever it takes to improve the quality and performance of public basic schools to change the negative attitudes of the public towards the public basic schools.

Government should institute performance contracts in the public schools to motivate teachers to put in their best. The negative attitudes of public basic school teachers towards teaching and learning could be changed if the government signs performance contracts with them, and this could help to improve the performance of public basic schools in BECE.

Lastly, financial constraint is one of the challenges of private schools. To address this issue, they need to go into partnerships with other people, which will help them to raise capital that would help them to expand their schools. This will also help them to enjoy financial economies of scale, as larger firms are usually rated by the financial markets to be more ‘credit worthy’ and have access to credit facilities, with favorable rates of borrowing. They are likely to pay a lower rate of interest.



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APPENDIX

Household Questionnaire

Please provide accurate information as possible. Information provided will be treated with confidentiality. Select a response by placing a tick (✓) the relevant item response box. If you wish to change a response then you should change the tick for the incorrect response to an (X) and then tick (✓) the alternative response that you wish to select.

-
- . Sex of household head (a) male [] (b) female []
 - . Which of the following age group are you? (a) 19 and below [] (b) 20-29 [] (c) 30-39 []
l) 40-49 [] (e) 50-59 [] (f) 60 and above []
 - . Religious affiliation of the household head (a) Christian [] (b) Muslim [] (c)
raditionalist []
 - . What is your highest level of education?(a) No formal education [] (b) Basic education []
(c) Secondary education [] (d) Tertiary education
 - . What is your occupation? (a) Farmer [] (b) Public sector employee [] (c) Petty trader []
(d) Commercial trader [] (e) Casual worker [] (g) Private sector salary employee
 - . How many members do you have in your household?
 - . How many members of your household are working?
 - 8. Number of school going age children (age 4 to 18) in your household(a) 1 [] (b) 2 []
(c) 3 [] (d) 4 [] (e) 5 and more []
 - 9. Are all the children of school going age in your household attending school? (a) Yes []
(b) No []
 - 10. If no, why are they not attending school?



11. What is your total monthly income? (a) GH¢ 1 – 500 (b) GH¢ 501 – 1,000 (c) GH¢ 1,001-1,500 (d) more than GH¢1500.00

12. Does the household or a member own any valuable asset(s) such as house, plantation, car, motor bike, land? (a) Yes [] (b) No []

13. Does your household get any financial support from other family members? (a) Yes [] (b) No []

14. What type of school is/are your child/children attending? (a) public school [] (b) private school [] (c) both public and private

15. What factor informed your decision for the choice of the school in question 14 above?

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16. How did you learn about this school? (a) Radio adverts [] (b) word of mouth (friends, relatives) [] (c) If other, state

17. If you could change your ward's current school (say from public to private/ or private to public) will you take the chance? (a) Yes [] (b) No []

18. If yes, why?

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19. How much does your household spend on a ward's schooling per month?
GH¢.....

0. Is the amount affordable to you? (a) Yes [] (b) No []

1. In your view, do you think the private basic schools in the Techiman Municipality are growing? (a) Yes [] (b) No []

2. If yes, what factors are responsible for the growth of private basic schools in the Techiman Municipality?

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3. In what way(s) have the private schools contributed to the provision of basic education?

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Questionnaire for Proprietors

1. In your view, do you think the private basic schools in the Techiman Municipality are growing? (a) Yes [] (b) No []

2. If yes, what factors are promoting the growth of private basic schools in the Municipality?

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Are the private basic schools helpful? (a) Yes [] (b) No []

If yes, in what way(s) have the private basic schools helped or contributed to the provision of basic education in the Municipality?

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Do you face any challenge(s) in running your school? (a) Yes [] (b) No []

If yes, what challenges do you face in the process of providing basic education?

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7. Within the past 12 months, have some of your pupils/students dropped out of school or left for public schools? (a) Yes [] (b) No []

8. If yes, why did they leave or drop out?
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Interview Guide for Ghana Education Service Officials and GNAPS Executives

Probe each question for details

. In your view, what factors are responsible for the growth of private basic schools in the Techiman Municipality?

. In what way(s) have the private schools contributed to the provision of basic education?

. What are the challenges facing the private basic schools in the Techiman Municipality?

