UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

IMPACT OF SCHOOL CAPITATION GRANT ON SCHOOL ENROLMENT, GENDER PARITY, PERFORMANCE AND RETENTION IN PUBLIC BASIC SCHOOLS IN TAMALE METROPOLIS OF THE NORTHERN REGION OF GHANA



NASHIRU MUSAH

IMPACT OF SCHOOL CAPITATION GRANT ON SCHOOL ENROLMENT, GENDER PARITY, PERFORMANCE AND RETENTION IN PUBLIC BASIC SCHOOLS IN TAMALE METROPOLIS OF THE NORTHERN REGION OF GHANA

 \mathbf{BY}

NASHIRU MUSAH (BA. POLITICAL SCIENCE WITH STUDY OF RELIGIONS)

(UDS/MDS/0141/10)



THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF AFRICAN AND GENERAL STUDIES, FACULTY OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE IN DEVELOPMENT STUDIES.

DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I hereby declare that, except for the references which have been duly cited, 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:	
Name: NASHIRU MUSAH	

Supervisor's Declaration

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:	

Name: DR. ABDULAI ABUBAKARI



ABSTRACT

The Capitation Grant Scheme is one of the national policies in Ghana that is geared towards improving basic education. Under the Ghana School Capitation Grant Scheme (GSCGS), every public basic school receives a grant with a specified rate per pupil. Studies have shown that in the Tamale Metropolis, school enrolment at the basic level has improved due to the introduction of the Capitation Grant Scheme (CGS). However, available statistics have revealed falling standard of education at the Basic Education Certificate level in the Tamale Metropolis is rising. This study seeks to analyse the impact of the CGS on school enrolment, gender parity, performance and retention in public basic schools in the Tamale metropolis using mainly descriptive analysis. The results showed that the Capitation Grant Scheme had impacted positively on enrolment in schools without any significant improvement in academic performance after the introduction of the scheme. The findings also showed a positive but insignificant impact of the scheme on Gender Parity. It revealed that, the Capitation Grant had no significant effect on the quality of teaching and learning. The factors which had significant influence on parents' decisions to enrol their wards in public basic schools in the Tamale metropolis are proximity of school to parent's home, Capitation Grant Scheme, adequate infrastructure, the existence of Arabic education, peer group influence, lower school fees and the quality of teaching staff. The recommendations are direct measures that can be executed to strengthen the application of the school Capitation Grant Scheme in order to ensure quality and improved performance in our schools especially, in the Tamale metropolis and beyond.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First of all, I express my profound gratitude to Almighty Allah for His guidance and inspiration throughout my academic work. I also express my gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Abdulai Abubakari for his advice, guidance, from the very beginning of this work, till the final date of submission. I also extend my appreciation to the Head of Department, Dr. Damasus Tuurosong and other senior members in the Department of African and General Studies for their contributions, more especially, during the seminar presentations.

My heartfelt gratitude also goes to the Tamale Metropolitan Education Office for providing me with enrolment and other data for Basic Schools in the Metropolis. I am also thankful to all the respondents particularly, the head teachers and staff, circuit supervisors, parents, pupils and others for spending their precious time in responding to my research questions. I also appreciate the contributions of my colleague Master of Philosophy (MPhil) students for all their suggestions and comments as I was in constant consultations with some of them throughout my research.

Greatest appreciation also goes to my research assistants without whom I would not have been able to collect the necessary data from the various respondents.

Finally, I wish to extend my profound gratitude to my parents Alhaji Musah Abu and Fuseina Alhassan Mumuni and all other family members for their encouragement and support throughout this research work.



DEDICATION

To my family for their immense support to the success of my education up to this stage.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

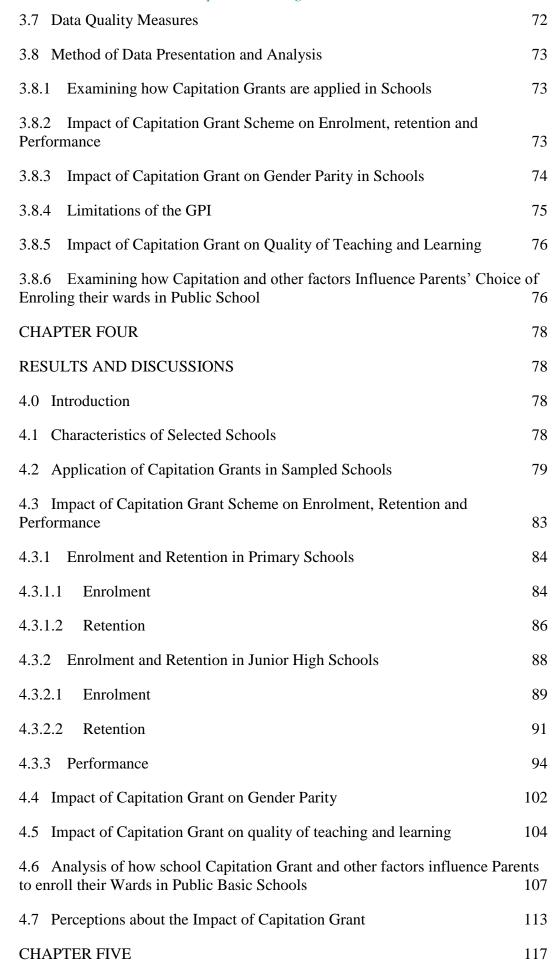
DECLARATION	i
ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iii
DEDICATION	iv
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS	xii
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 Problem Statement	6
1.3 Research Questions	10
1.4 Research Objectives	11
1.5 Specific objectives	11
1.6 Justification of the Study	12
1.7 Definition of key Terms	12
1.8 Organization of the Study	15
CHAPTER TWO	17
LITERATURE REVIEW	17
2.0 Introduction	17
2.1 Overview of the Relevance of Education to Human Life	17
2.2 Education in Ghana	18
2.2.1 Basic Education	20
2.2.2 Secondary Education	22
2.2.3 Tertiary Education	23
2.2.4 Access to Basic Education	24
2.2.5 Access to Secondary Education	25



2.2.6 Access to Tertiary Education	27
2.2.7 Challenges of Education in Ghana	29
2.3 Overview of Capitation Grant: Global Perspective	30
2.4 Historical Development of Capitation Grant in Ghana	31
2.5 School Capitation and its Relevance in Ghana	34
2.6 Challenges of Capitation Grant	35
2.7 Educational Policies and their Impact on Education in Northern Ghana	37
2.8 Literacy and education in the Tamale Metropolis	41
2.9 Historical Review of Basic School Enrolment in Ghana	42
2.10 Ghana Capitation Grant Scheme and School Enrolment	46
2.11 Case Studies on School Capitation Grant	47
2.11.1 The Nigerian Experience	48
2.11.2 Case Study from Tanzania	49
2.11.3 Case Study in Kenya	50
2.12 An Overview on Factors Influencing Access to Quality Education	51
2.12.1 Quality of Education: Matter of Agreement	53
2. 13 Gender Gap in Education	55
2.14 Factors Contributing to 'Successful' Primary Schools	57
2.15 Conceptual Framework	59
CHAPTER THREE	63
METHODOLOGY	63
3.0 Introduction	63
3.1 Study Area	63
3.2 Study Design	66
3.3 Targeted Population Size	67
3.4 Sampling Procedure	69
3.5 Sources of Data	71
3.6 Data Collection Procedure	71







SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS 11/		
5.0	Introduction	117
5.1	Summary of Findings	117
5.2	Conclusion	121
5.3	Policy Recommendations	122
5.4	Limitations of the study	123
REF	FERENCES	125
API	PENDICES:	137
I	Questionnaire for Head Teachers/Teachers	137
II	Questionnaire for parents/SMC	141
III	Interview Guide for Circuit Supervisors	143
IV	Interview Guide for PTA Members and SMC Members	144



LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Gross Enrolment Numbers and Ratios for Basic Education in Ghana	43
Table 2.2: Gross Enrolment Data for Basic Schools in Tamale Metropolis	44
Table 2.3: Analysis of BECE Performance in Core subjects in the Study Area	
(2008-2013)	44
Table 2.4: Percentage passes in all subjects in BECE in the study area (2008-	
2013)	
Table 2.5: Percentage Change in Primary Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) of Ghan	ıa
(2000-2004) and (2005 -2009)	
Table 3.1: Targeted Populations in Primary Schools by Circuit	68
Table 3.2: Targeted Populations in Junior High School by Circuit	68
Table 3.3: Populations of Public Basic Schools in Tamale Metropolis and Selected	
Sample	70
Table 4.1: Level of Schools	79
Table 4.2: Years of Schools Establishment	79
Table 4.3: Highest Expenditure Rankings of Items in Capitation	81
Table 4.4: Condition of Items covered by Capitation Grant in schools	82
Table 4.5: Regularity of Capitation Grant in 2010, 2011 and 2012 Academic	
Years	83
Table 4.6: Enrolment before and after Capitation Grant in Primary Schools (n=	- 78)
	86
Table 4.7: Drop-out Statistics in Primary Schools (n= 78)	87
Table 4.8: Percentage Drop-out Primary Schools (n= 78)	88
Table 4.9: Enrolment Before and After Capitation Grant in Junior High School	
(n=22)	91
Table 4.10: Drop-out Statistics in Junior High Schools (n= 22)	92



Table 4.11: Drop-out Statistics for Boys and Girls in Junior High School (N=22)	
	93
Table 4.12: BECE Performance of Junior High Schools .	95
Table 4.14: Performances of Pupils in Core Subjects in 2012	98
Table 4.15: Gender Parity Index for Primary Schools in Tamale Metropolis	103
Table 4.16: Gender Parity Index for Junior High Schools in Tamale Metropolis	
	104
Table 4.17: Analysis of Impact of Capitation Grant on Quality of Teaching and	
Learning	105
Table 4.18: Analysis of TLM on Performance (Categorical Data %)	107
Table 4.19: Determinants of Parents Decision to Enrol Their Wards in Public	
Schools	110
Table 4.20: Level of Agreement with Factors Influencing Parents Decision on	l
Enrolment	112



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: The conceptual framework of the Ghana School Capitation Grant	62
Figure 3.1: Map of Tamale Metropolis	66
Figure 4.1: Enrolment in Primary Schools (2001-2012) (n=78)	85
Figure 4.2: Drop-out Rate of Pupils in Primary Schools (n=78)	88
Figure 4.3: Enrolment for Junior High School (n=22)	90
Figure 4.4: Drop-out Rate of Pupils in JHS (n=22)	94
Figure 4.5: Percentage of Passed Candidates in BECE (2005-2012)	96
Figure 4.6: End of Term Examination Scores in English Language (n=30)	99
Figure 4.7: End of Term Examination Scores in Mathematics (n=30)	100
Figure 4.8: End of Term Examination Scores in Social Studies	101
Figure 4.9: End of Term Examination Scores in Science	102



ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADEA Association for the Development of Education in Africa

BECE Basic Education Certificate Examination

CG **Capitation Grant**

CGS Capitation Grant Scheme

CREATE Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and

Equity

EFA Education for ALL

EPDC Education Policy and Data Center

ESP Education Strategic Plan

FCUBE Free Compulsory and Universal Basic Education

FPE Free Primary Education

FTI Fast Truck Initiative

Gross Domestic Product GDP

GER Gross Enrolment Ratio

GES Ghana Education Service

GEU Girls Education Unit

GoGGovernment of Ghana

GPI Gender Parity Index

GPRS Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy

www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh

GSS Ghana Statistical Service

ICT Information Communication Technology

IMF International Monetary Fund

JHS Junior High School

JSS Junior Secondary School

MDGs Millennium Development Goals

MICS Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey

MMDAs Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies

MoE Ministry of Education

MoFA Ministry of Food and Agriculture

MOESS Ministry of Education Science and Sports

NER Net Enrolment Ratio

NGOs Non-Governmental Organisations

OECD Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development

OIF International Organisation of Francophonie

PETS Public Expenditure Tracking Survey

PSDP Primary School Development Project

SSS Senior Secondary School

SWAP Sector-Wide Approach



TAMBSNET Tamale Metropolitan Basic Schools Parent Teacher

Association/School Management Committee Network

UN United Nations

UNDP United Nations Development Programme

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UNICEF United Nations International Children Education Fund

UPE Universal Primary Education

WASSCE West African Senior Secondary Certificate Examination



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The importance of education to human beings cannot be over emphasized. Education has been defined as "all efforts, conscious and direct, incidental and indirect, made by a given society to accomplish certain objectives that are considered desirable in terms of the individual's own needs as well as the needs of the society where that education is based" (Fanfuwa,2003 cited in Palladan and Maigari, 2010).

Although efforts continue to be made towards achieving Education for All (EFA), including scaling-up of resources for primary education, progress has not been impressive, particularly in Africa where most of the world's out-of-school children live (CREAT, 2008). Africa's share of the worlds out of school children is set to grow sharply by 2015. Indeed, Bruns *et al.* (2003) have predicted that by 2015 three out of four of the world's out of school children will live in Africa. The problem of students at risk of dropping out of school is a worldwide concern, affecting both developed and developing countries. According to UNESCO (2011), approximately 140 million children and adolescents are out of school worldwide. The Education Policy and Data Centre (EPDC) of UNESCO estimates that about one quarter of children in developing countries who enter first grade do not make it to the fifth grade (Ingram *et al.*, 2006).



A number of studies indicate that household income is essential to determining a child's access to education. It informs the decision to enroll, attend and to drop out of school (UNESCO, 2010; Bruneforth, 2006; Birdsall *et al.*, 2005). In their studies, Hunt(2008), and Ibrahim and Oduro-Ofori (2005), indicated that income has a determining effect on schooling because education normally involves overt costs like school fees and covert costs such as school uniforms and transportation. In this regard, it has been reported that children from disadvantaged regions of the world, who are mainly from poor families and rural areas were less likely to remain in school (Rouse and Barrow, 2006; Ainsworth *et al.*, 2000 and Alexander, *et al.*, 1997).

Education is widely considered to be critical for development. Many economists have emphasized the impact of education on economic growth (Barro, 1991; and Lucas, 1988), although some others have raised questions about the causal relationship between education and economic growth.

Finally, educationm is also seen as a means to improve health and reduce fertility (Schultz, 2003 and 1997) and is seen as an intrinsic good in itself. This general notion is clearly expressed under the Millennium Development Goal aimed at achieving universal access to primary education by the year 2015, and eliminating gender disparity in education by 2015.

Improving the quantity and quality of education remains an important goal for many countries including Ghana. This is in line with the United Nations Millennium Development Goal in respect of universal primary education and the country's own constitutional requirement. Improving the quantity and quality of



education require policies which address both demand and supply-side constraints of education. The provision of more textbooks, classroom blocks, and trained teachers among others tend to ease supply-side constraints to education. On the other hand, policies such as the Capitation Grant and School Feeding Programme seek to ease the demand-side constraints to education. For instance, in the Ghana Education Service's (GES, 2006) guidelines for the distribution and utilization of Capitation Grants, it is argued that one of the reasons why children in Ghana do not attend school is that their parents cannot afford to pay the levies charged by the schools. It is in line with this that the Government of Ghana set up the Capitation Grant which commenced in the 2004/2005 academic year. Under the scheme every public primary school receives an amount of GH¢3.00 per pupil enrolled as of 2008.

Capitation refers to distributing funds based on entire student enrolment.

Capitation Grants are intended to be spent on the day-to-day running costs of the school such as, cleaning, lighting, maintenance of school premises and grounds and the provision of teaching and learning materials and resource.



The government of Ghana has over the years, undertaken programmes and initiated policies in a bid to widen education access to many Ghanaian children. Among some of the pro-poor programmes initiated to increase enrolment levels are the Capitation Grant and the Ghana School Feeding programmes. According to the 2010 progress report on the Millennium Development Goals, Ghana is on track to achieving the Millennium Development Goals by 2015 (UNDP/GOG, 2012). The Capitation Grant is one of the key strategies adopted by the Government of Ghana to motivate the country's drive to achieve universal

primary education. Past and present governments over the years have demonstrated a commitment to free universal primary education and have used different legislations to encourage access and participation in primary education. Significant among these legislations are Article 38 of the 1992 Fourth Republican Constitution, the Education Act (1961), Free, Compulsory Universal Basic Education, 1996 (FCUBE) programme and the Education Strategic Plan, 2003. The Capitation Grant Scheme (CGS) was implemented during the 2004-2005 academic year. The pilot programme was first enforced in 40 most deprived districts in Ghana out of 110 to take them up to the standards of the well-off districts over a period of time. The selection of the 40 districts under the pilot phase was done based on the following criteria;

- Input criteria have to do with the number of core textbooks per pupil, number of seating places per pupil, percentage of qualified primary teachers, per student budget at primary level, and pupil-teacher ratio at primary level.
- Achievement criteria have to do with the success rate in the Basic Education
 Certification Examination for English and mathematics.
- Access criteria also have to do with the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and per centage of girls enrolled.

The first year of implementation corresponded with agitations from civil society groups estimating that the FCUBE failed in providing free, compulsory, and universal basic education for every Ghanaian child (in 2003/04, primary GER at



the national level was 86.3% and only 76.1% in deprived districts). Consequently, the CGS was quickly extended to all public schools in Ghana in 2005/06.

According to Hunt (2008), poverty interacts with other points of social disadvantage to further increase the likelihood of vulnerable children dropping out of school. Poverty has been found to force children into paid labour which poses a threat to their schooling as it creates pressure on their time (Hunt, 2008). Lyon and Rosati (2008), as cited in Akorfa and Charles (2011), found that globally, child labour is the main impediment to achieving universal primary education. The 2007 World Bank country report on child labour indicated, that one in five children in developing countries were involved in child labour. Child labour affects schooling because children who worked did not have the time, energy or money to go to school (World Bank, 2007). In Ghana, about 35 % of children aged 6-11 and 44% of those aged 12-15 who participated in a study on child labour, left school because they saw school as uninteresting and useless (GSS, 2003).



Besides household income, family structure and family size have profound influence on school drop-out. In many parts of Africa, polygamous family structures were found to result in a higher incidence of marital conflict and marital distress. Such structures led to the absence of the father and to economic hardships which in turn had a negative impact on the child's schooling (Elbedour, *et al.*, 2002). Additionally, a large number of children in a family meant less resources allocated to each member (Eloundou-Enyegue & Williams, 2006).

1.2 Problem Statement

Education is widely considered to be critical for development. The internationally-agreed Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) call for universal primary school enrolment by 2015. However, until recently there were no good assessments of how best to achieve this goal or how much it would cost. Nicaise (2010) argues that it will be difficult to attract additional children to school, since most children who are not in school are earning income their families need. Other studies such as Darko *et al.* (2009) and Akyeampong *et al.* (2007) argue that children of primary-school age are not that productive and that modest incentives or improvements in school quality would be sufficient to attract them to school.

In recognition of the benefits of education, Ghana has initiated educational programmes to promote enrolment at the basic level of education. These programs include free tuition, the School Capitation Grant, and the School Feeding Programme which are all implemented under the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) programme. Despite these initiatives, many children continue to drop out of school before completing their basic education. According to the Ministry of Education, in its Educational Sector Performance Report (2006), out of 1000 children who enter primary one, only 56% progress to primary six. One hundred and fifty-nine of this figure drop out and the rest repeat. CREATE (2007), in its Analytic Report for Ghana believes the drop-out figure of 159 per 1000 is under reported considering the number that progress to primary six.



In the view of Edward and Armah-Attoh (2010), one of the main reasons why children did not attend school in Ghana was that their parents could not afford to pay the levies charged by the schools. Despite the policy of fee-free tuition in basic schools, many district education directorates charged levies as a means of raising funds to finance for example, school repairs, cultural and sporting activities. This had the effect of deterring many families, particularly the poorest, from sending their children, especially, girls to school.

In spite of the several interventions worldwide to improve access to basic education, many children of school going age are still not enrolled in school, with more than 70 per cent living in Sub-Sahara Africa and South Asia (World Bank, 2002). In addition, the quality of schooling in developing countries is often very low. Grade repetition and leaving school at an early age are common, teachers are often absent from classrooms, and many children learn much less than the learning objectives set in the official curriculum (Glewwe, 1999; Hanushek, 1995; Harbison and Hanushek, 1992; Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991). Over the years, successive governments in Ghana have instituted programmes and policies to make education, especially, basic education affordable and accessible to all people and to improve educational outcomes. For example, the first government introduced free education in the three Northern Regions. Other interventions included the supply of free textbooks, exercise books, pens and pencils to basic school pupils to reduce the financial burden on parents towards their children's education. Again, in the 1980s the government came out with educational reforms which introduced the Junior and Senior Secondary School concepts. The Reforms reduced the duration of basic education from ten to nine years and that of the



secondary from seven to three years. The reforms also sought to give graduates employable skills as well as increasing their years of work.

The Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) was adopted in 1995 (Ghana National Education Campaign Coalition, 2007). The educational situation in Ghana has improved over the years. Quantity and quality of schooling has improved. The trend in Primary Gross Enrolment since 1987 has been fairly flat until 2000. Since 2000 increasing percentage of Ghanaians of school-going age has attended school. For example, Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) increased from 57% in 1999/2000 to 86.5% in 2003/2004 (Ahadzie, 2008; UNICEF, 2007).

In spite of this, the country had not achieved total coverage of all school going age children. In a bid to fulfill its commitment to achieving the goal of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and its commitment to the United Nations goal of universal primary education by 2015 and the Millennium Development Goals on education, the government of Ghana introduced the Capitation Grant during the 2004/2005 academic year. The Capitation Grant covers the extra cost and levies (such as examination, facilities management, security charges, games and sports) that parents usually pay as "school fees" in public schools. It also introduced the National School Feeding Programme in the 2005/2006 academic year. Each pupil under the scheme was covered by a feeding grant of GH¢0.30 a day (Nsowah, 2008). Osei, (2011) did a study on the effects of the Capitation Grant on education outcome in Ghana. The objective was to assess how the Capitation Grant has impacted on the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) pass rates, gross enrolment ratios and gender difference in pass rates. The study used data from the Ghana Education Service for all 138



educational districts in Ghana between 2003 and 2007. Using regression analysis, the study found that the Capitation Grant has not had significant impact on BECE pass rates in Ghana, no significant relationship existed between Capitation Grant and Gross Enrolment, and Capitation Grant has not impacted on bridging the gap between the BECE pass rates for male and female (CREATE 2008). It is a general knowledge that to achieve improvement in performance in educational outcomes (for example pass rates in examination); there is the need, among other things, for attendance at schools and retention in classrooms. These facts give rise to the question as to whether the introduction of the Capitation Grant and School Feeding programmes have led to an increase in basic school enrolment, improved attendance and sustained retention.

Although a lot has been written about the success of the Ghana School Capitation Grant Policy in terms of its impact on school enrolment (Amoako, 2014) outside the targeted communities, not so much attention is given to its impact on education outcomes especially, in the Tamale Metropolis of the Republic of Ghana. The studies on the Capitation Grant as reviewed above seem to suggest limited impact of the policy particularly, on quality of teaching and learning and performance. Several reasons may account for these some of which may include funding, fair grant disbursement, and administrative lapses including monitoring and evaluation lapses. Most of the schools still charge levies/fees as a result of inadequacy and delays in release of the Capitation Grant.

In the Tamale Metropolis just like many other metropoles and districts in Ghana, school enrolment at the basic level has improved due to introduction of the Capitation Grant. The same thing, however, cannot be said about the quality of



teaching and performance. .Available statistics have revealed that the falling standard of education at the Basic Education Certificate level in the Tamale Metropolis is rising. For instance since 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009 and 2010, the Tamale Metropolis secured 60th, 69th, 88th, 91st, 89th, 98th, and 103rd positions respectively, out of the 134 Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs) nationwide whose pupils wrote the BECE throughout those years (TAMBSNET, 2011). The report attributed this trend to lack of teacher commitment, poor pupils' attitude towards learning, lack of parental responsibility and logistics problems. The report also considered the effect of Capitation Grant Scheme or any other education policy on performance. This study therefore, intends to find out if the implementation of the Capitation Grant has made an impact on the enrolment, gender parity, academic performance and retention in public basic schools and whether it can help the country achieve the Millennium Development Goal 2 by 2015 as set by the government of Ghana.

1.3 Research Questions



Based on the problem statement as seen above and conclusions drawn from the studies reviewed, answers to the following research questions will assist in addressing the challenges of the Capitation Grant Scheme in boosting child enrolment of schools in the Tamale metropolis of Ghana:

- 1. In what ways do the beneficiary schools apply the Capitation Grant in the Tamale Metropolis?
- 2. How does the Capitation Grant affect enrolment, performance and retention in the selected schools in Tamale Metropolis of northern region of Ghana?

- 3. How does the Capitation Grant ensures gender parity in the selected Schools in Tamale Metropolis of northern Ghana?
- 4. Does the Capitation Grant enhance quality of teaching and learning in the selected schools in Tamale Metropolis of northern region of Ghana?
- 5. How do school capitation and other factors influence parents to enrol their wards in the selected public basic schools in Tamale Metropolis of northern Ghana?

1.4 Research Objectives

The overall objective of the research is to assess the impact of the Ghana School Capitation Grant Scheme on enrolment, gender parity, performance and retention in the Tamale Metropolis of the northern region of Ghana.

1.5 Specific objectives

The specific objectives of the study are to:

- Examine how Capitation Grants are applied by the selected schools in Tamale Metropolis.
- 2. Analyse the impact of Capitation Grant Scheme on enrolment, performance and retention in the schools in Tamale Metropolis.
- 3. Determine the impact of Capitation Grant on Gender Parity in beneficiary and selected schools in Tamale Metropolis.
- 4. Examine the impact of Capitation Grant on quality of teaching and learning in the selected schools in the Tamale Metropolis.
- 5. Analyse how school capitation and other factors influence parents to enrol their wards in the selected public basic schools in the Tamale Metropolis.



1.6 Justification of the Study

The outcome of this study would be relevant to school authorities, parents, government and stakeholders in education in the Tamale metropolis. This is because the study intends to bring out the challenges of the policy in addressing lapses in basic education especially, with regard to enrolment, gender parity, academic performance or progression and retention among school children. Detailed information on the disbursement and utilisation of the Capitation Grant would assist government to design appropriate intervention measures to ensure that the programme achieves its intended objectives of increasing enrolment, retention and providing quality education to Ghanaian children at the basic school level in Tamale Metropolis and Ghana as a whole. Besides, the report also would serve as a reference for other researchers to embark upon similar or related work in other parts of the country. Finally, the findings from the study would add to existing body of knowledge in the field of policy impacts on education.

1.7 Definition of key Terms



The key concepts of the study are:

Basic Education

In this study basic education comprises Kindergarten, Primary and Junior High schools or levels of education.

Capitation Grant

In this study, the School Capitation grants are funds provided by government to schools which are intended to be spent on the day-to-day running costs of the

schools; for example, cleaning, lighting, maintenance of school premises and grounds and the provision of teaching and learning materials.

Enrolment

In this study, enrolment refers to the number of children enrolled in a level (primary or Junior High School), regardless of age at a particular period of time.

Gender Parity Index (GPI)

The Gender Parity Index in the study is a ratio calculated as the quotient of female Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER_F) by males Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER_M) enrolled in a given stage of education (Primary or Junior High School level) for a particular academic year.

School Drop-out

School Drop-out in this study means a pupil quitting school either from Primary School or Junior High School before he or she graduates to the next level.

Retention

In this study retention refers to keeping pupils in school till they complete their education at the Primary and Junior High School levels.

Performance

This refers to the academic performance of pupils at the basic school level. This include, their average termly scores in core subjects for the primary school



(English, Mathematics, Science and Social studies) and the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) scores for the Junior High School.

Universal Primary Education

Universal Primary Education refers to one of the policies of the UN Millennium Development Goals on education with a goal to ensure that by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.

Education for All

In this study Education for All is a UNESCO project on Education which is to ensure increasing the availability and quality of education for children from marginalized countries in the world.

Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE)

In this study FCUBE refers to one of the Education policies in Ghana, whose basic objectives are improving the quality of learning and teaching, improving access to basic education facilities, encouraging private sector participation in the provision of education facilities and improving management efficiency.

Minor Repairs

This involves repairs on broken furniture, classroom windows and plastering of cracked walls and floors.



Teaching Learning Materials (TLM)

This includes demonstration materials such as illustrations on cardboards, and other equipment.

Stationery

This includes markers, pens, pencils erasers, A4 papers, and other examination materials.

School management Activities

These include organizing staff meetings, teachers' welfare, extra curricula activities, field trips.

Health and Sanitation

These involve primarily the provision of first aid medicals, wash basins and ensuring a clean school environment.

Environmental Sustainability

This includes the continuous planting of trees around the school compound.

1.8 Organization of the Study

The thesis is made up of five chapters. Chapter one is the introduction which contains the background to the study, problem statement, research questions, research objectives, justification of the study and definitions of key terms. Chapter



two presents a review of literature, while chapter three discusses the methodology.

Results and discussion are presented in chapter four while summary of findings, conclusion, and recommendations are presented in chapter five.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter entails a review of literature that covers School Capitation, focusing on programme objectives and institutional linkages that affect its implementation. The theoretical framework in this chapter examines the theory that gives backing to the analysis of issues related to the Ghana School Capitation policy particularly its effect on school enrolment and retention. Issues on global perspective of Capitation Grant including case studies from Nigeria, Tanzania and Kenya, the historical development and relevance of Capitation Grant in Ghana are also discussed in this chapter. An overview of educational policies and their impact on education in northern Ghana is also presented. Also, included in the discussion are the challenges of Capitation Grant in promoting education, factors influencing access to quality education and the conceptual frame work of the Ghana School Capitation Grant. The chapter concludes with a summary of findings and conclusions from the literature review.

2.1 Overview of the Relevance of Education to Human Life

Education is fundamental to enhancing the quality of human life and ensuring social and economic progress (UNESCO, 1997) and according to Smith (1776) as cited by Den Ule and Rasmussen (2010), no society can be said to be flourishing and progressive if greater part of its citizens are poor and miserable. Education is



the basic objective of development; it is an important end in itself. It is very vital for a satisfying and rewarding life. It is a means by which human dignity is restored. Global Partnership for Education¹ concluded that girls and boys, who learn to read, write and count will provide a better future for their families and countries. With improved education, so many other areas are positively affected. In short, education has the power to make the world a better place. This supports the fact that education is unarguably the key to a successful life, and that is why the Government of Ghana is doing its best to ensure that school- going children have access to free and quality education in the country.

2.2 Education in Ghana

Education in Ghana was mainly informal before the arrival of European settlers, who built a formal education system addressed to the elites. With the independence of Ghana in 1957, universal education became an important political objective. The magnitude of the task as well as economic difficulties and political instabilities has slowed down attempted reforms. The Education Act in 1987, followed by the Constitution of 1992, gave a new impulse to educational policies in the country. In 2011, the primary school net enrolment rate was 84%, described by UNICEF as "far ahead" of the Sub-Saharan average (UNICEF, 2012). In its 2013-14 report, the World Economic Forum ranked Ghana 46Th out of 148 countries for education system quality. In 2010, Ghana's literacy rate was 71.5%, with a notable gap between men (78.3%) and women (65.3%). The *Guardian* newspaper disclosed in April 2015 that 90% of children in Ghana were

¹See http://www.globalpartnership.org/education



enrolled in school, ahead of countries like Pakistan and Nigeria at 72% and 64% respectively (World Economic Forum, 2011).

Education indicators in Ghana reflect a gender gap and disparities between rural and urban areas, as well as between southern and northern parts of the country. Those disparities drive public action against illiteracy and inequities in access to education. Eliminating illiteracy has been a constant objective of Ghanaian education policies for the last forty years; the difficulties around ensuring equitable access to education are likewise acknowledged by the authorities. Public action in both domains has yielded results judged significant but not sufficient by national experts and international organizations. Increasing the place of vocational education and training and of ICT within the education system are other clear objectives of Ghanaian policies in education. The impact of public action remains hard to assess in these fields due to recent implementation or lack of data.

The Ministry of Education is responsible for the administration and the coordination of public action regarding Education. Its multiple agencies handle the concrete implementation of policies, in cooperation with the local authorities (10 regional and 138 district offices). The State also manages the training of teachers. Many private and public colleges prepare applicants to pass the teacher certification exam to teach at the primary level. Two universities offer special curricula leading to secondary education teacher certification. Education represented 23 % of the state expenditure in 2010; international donor support to the sector has steadily declined as the State has taken on the bulk of education funding (Joe and Osei, 2012).

Education in Ghana is divided into three phases: basic education (kindergarten, primary school, and lower secondary school), secondary education (upper



secondary school, technical and vocational education) and tertiary education (universities, polytechnics and colleges). Education is compulsory between the ages of four and 15 (basic education). The language of instruction is mainly English. The academic year usually runs from August to May inclusive.

2.2.1 Basic Education

Basic Education lasts eleven years. The curriculum is free and compulsory (Age 4-15) and is defined as "the minimum period of schooling needed to ensure that children acquire basic literacy, numeracy and problem solving skills as well as skills for creativity and healthy living. It is divided into Kindergarten, Primary school and Junior High School (JHS), which ends on the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE).

Kindergarten lasts two years (Age 4-6). The program is divided in 6 core areas. Language and Literacy (Language Development), Creative Activities (Drawing and Writing), Mathematics (Number Work), Environmental Studies, Movement and Drama (Music and Dance), and Physical Development (Physical Education)

Primary school lasts six years (Age 6-11). The courses taught at the primary or basic school level include English, Ghanaian language and Ghanaian culture, ICT, mathematics, environmental studies, social studies, Mandarin and French as an International Organisation of Francophonie (OIF) associated-member; integrated or general science, pre-vocational skills and pre-technical skills, religious and moral education, and physical activities such as Ghanaian music and dance, and physical education. There is no certificate of completion at the end of primary school.



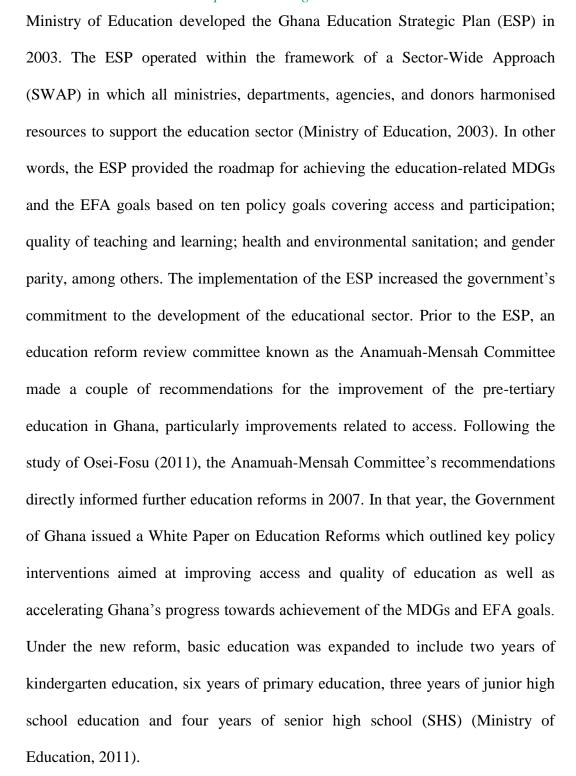
Junior Secondary School lasts three years (Age 12-15). The Junior High School ends on the Basic Education Certificate (BECE), which covers the following subjects: English Language, Ghanaian Language and Culture, Social Studies, Integrated Science, Mathematics, Basic, Design and Technology, Information and Communication Technology, French (optional), Religious and Moral Education.

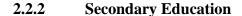
In spite of the levels of progression within the JHS up to the point of writing the BECE some pupils normally drop-out along the line. Several factors contribute to this phenomenon which includes the school environment.

According to *push-out* theorists, young people drop-out of school because of factors within the school (Knesting and Waldron, 2006). Jordan *et al.* (1996) defined push effects as "factors located within the school that negatively impact young people and cause them to reject the context of schooling." Some of these push factors include weak relationship with teachers, below average academic performance (Stearns and Glennie, 2006: and Wayman, 2002). In Ghana, the friction with teachers relating to arbitrary use of punishment, name-calling and comparison of student's academic performance to that of others were predisposing factors to school drop-out (Fobih, 1987).



One of the key government policies that emphasised access to quality and affordable basic education in Ghana was the 2003 Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS) II. The GPRS recognized education as one of the key priority areas of development necessary to produce the middle-level manpower necessary to accelerate Ghana's progress towards achieving broad middle income status (GoG/World Bank, 2011). Therefore, education was considered the topmost priority of development in the GPRS II. In furtherance of the GPRS II, the





Ghanaian students take the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) at the end of JHS Form three (ninth grade) in seven subjects. Admission to Senior Secondary/High School is competitive: nearly 150,000 students are admitted into



the 500 public and 200 private national secondary schools. The vast majority of Ghanaian students attend public boarding schools, many of which are highly competitive; there are only half a dozen international private secondary schools in the country, collectively graduating about 300 students a year and offering the IB or A-level curricula.

The Senior High School was introduced in 2007, expanding the system to four years but not otherwise changing the curriculum, a policy that was reversed after three years, as a result of which there were no graduates in 2010, and two cohorts graduating in 2013. In both the public and private national schools, all students take a Core curriculum consisting of English Language, Integrated Science, Mathematics, and Social Studies. Each student also takes three or four Elective subjects, chosen from one of seven groups: Sciences, Arts (social sciences and humanities), Vocational (visual arts or home economics), Technical, Business, or Agriculture. At the end of the Senior Secondary or Senior High School, all the students take the West African Senior Secondary Certificate Examination (WASSCE) in each of their seven or eight subjects. These examinations are taken nationwide between April and June each year, but the results are not available until the following August. Students who obtain between aggregate six and twenty four are admitted into tertiary institutions including teacher and nursing training colleges. Unfortunately, not all of these students gain admission into the country's tertiary institutions.

2.2.3 Tertiary Education

Ghana's tertiary institutions enrol over three hundred thousand (300,000) students in undergraduate, graduate, certificate and diploma programmes in a full range of academic and professional fields. The National Accreditation Board



(www.nab.gov.gh) lists 140 accredited institutions, both public and private, offering four-year degrees as well as two and three-year diplomas, which are not equivalent to Bachelor's degrees, but undergraduate transfer credit can be awarded. Twenty-six percent of tertiary students are enrolled in private institutions.

Ghanaian university admission is highly competitive, especially in fields such as medicine, engineering, law, business and pharmacy. The quality of education is considered reasonably high, evidence that human resources are more significant than material resources. In an effort to attract international enrolment, all Ghanaian universities operate on a modular, semester system.

2.2.4 Access to Basic Education

Closely related to enrolment is the question of access. Although at the primary level the nation has made significant gains in terms of enrolment, some children in urban suburbs, not to mention rural areas do not have access to primary education. In other countries, as educational opportunities open up, primary enrolment exceeds hundred (100%) initially. This is because children of older ages are also enrolled. However, the introduction of Capitation Grant and School Feeding Programmes did not have that effect, thus Ghana's 95% enrolment rate at the primary level could still mean a significant proportion of children between the ages 6-11 are not in school. The situation gets worse at the secondary level where 50% of JHS graduates who pass the BECE do not have access into SHSs (IMANIGhana, 2013).



There are a lot of factors influencing access to basic education in Ghana, it may include health; disability, HIV/AIDS, households, migration, child labour, educational costs, geographical differences and divisions, gender and access, supply of schools, teachers, non-state providers, and schooling practices (Acheampong *et al.*, 2007). Supply driven policies to improve access are also insufficient to enrol the hard to reach children who are out of school for economic or cultural reasons. This is particularly true for children in rural areas. In the view of Akyeampong *et al.* (2007), the introduction of fee-free basic education may not be enough for Ghana to achieve and sustain growth in enrolment and effective participation. Increased enrolments due to the introduction of Capitation Grant have clearly not been matched by adequate quality inputs into the school system to sustain the surge. The establishment of the Capitation Grant Scheme for Basic Schools nonetheless has impacted positively on the education system in Ghana especially, on enrolment.

2.2.5 Access to Secondary Education



According to the Ministry of Education Science and Sports (2007), demand for secondary education has grown. In the last five years alone, secondary enrolment has grown by as much as sixty per cent, although the completion rate of thirty four per cent in 2006 suggests drop-out is still high. In 2006, secondary net enrolment stood at about thirteen per cent after stagnating at ten per cent for a decade. What this means is that the proportion of secondary students not of the appropriate age for secondary is high. Therefore, despite the relatively high enrolments, the secondary education system has not been very efficient in delivering high numbers of graduates for further education and the labour market.

The Presidential commission on Education reforms in Ghana examined the reasons why most JHS students were unable to access senior secondary, and blamed this on a number of factors: inadequate facilities and infrastructure, parents unable to afford secondary fees, a lack of alternative tracks for students with different interests and abilities, an inability of students to meet the minimum requirements for further education and a lack of interest in further education (GoG, 2002).

Similarly, the diversification of secondary education meant to open up opportunities for the different aspirations and abilities of students, as well as improve streaming into different post-secondary education and training never fully materialized. One reason was that the quality of practical education students received depended on whether they attended a school in a rural or urban area. Generally, there is better quality provision in traditional boarding schools located mostly in cities and towns than in community day secondary schools found mainly in rural or peri-urban areas. Also the traditional schools attracted more qualified teachers than the community schools. Teacher shortages in the technical/vocational subject areas effectively reduced quality of provision and undermined student interest (see Akyeampong 2005). But, perhaps the most important influence on students' subject choice is the opportunity structure outside the school system. This has proved to be decisive for some students when it comes to selecting school subjects, and increasingly, many of these students are seeing liberal arts and science subjects as offering better opportunities than vocational and technical subjects (see King et al., 2005; Ampiah 2003).



Over the years, the ideological sentiments associated with technical and vocational secondary education has made sure that it remains at the forefront of education policy. But what this does not take into account is the pragmatic implication of costs, and how that might affect equitable access to quality. Community secondary schools which were introduced under the 1987 education reforms to make secondary education more affordable and accessible to students in rural populations, lacked adequate infrastructure, teachers and equipment to support their practical focus.

The National Democratic Congress (NDC) in its 2012 Manifesto, promised to build two hundred SHSs' if it was voted into power in order to improve access by the year 2016. But four years into its tenure, it does not seem the government could accomplish this promise since only ten schools have been completed and one hundred and twenty three others are at various stages of completion (Emmanuel, 2016).

Generally, secondary education is faced with the challenge of providing equitable and meaningful access so that drop-out reduces and learning achievements improve significantly. An additional challenge is the rising cost of secondary education to both government and parents and the potential that this has on constraining future growth (Akyeampong, 2005).

2.2.6 Access to Tertiary Education

Tertiary institutions in Ghana enrol over three hundred thousand (300,000) students in undergraduate, graduate, certificate and diploma programs in a full range of academic and professional fields. At the time of independence, Ghana



had only two (public) tertiary institutions (universities). Tertiary education in Ghana has been notably growing during the last twenty years, both in terms of enrolment and infrastructures. A substantial part of this development comes from the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFUND) and the private sector.

Currently, Ghana has nine public universities, and over twenty private (local- and foreign-owned) university colleges, ten public polytechnics and several other professional or specialised (both public and private) tertiary institutions. This growth can be interpreted to mean high demand for tertiary education. On the average, only about forty-nine percent of qualified applicants gain admission to the public universities creating a demand-supply gap of about fifty-one percent (Oduro & Senadza, 2004).

Despite the phenomenal rise in intake, participation rate of students in the age group seventeen to twenty one is very low (below five per cent) compared to developed countries (over fifty per cent). There is therefore, still some way to go before the full benefits of an expanded university system can be felt in the Ghanaian economy.



A challenge that progress in this sector faces is ensuring that there is wider participation from all groups, and not from well-off segments of society. The indication is that much of the increased participation in tertiary education is coming from relatively few urban secondary schools. In the University of Ghana, for example, a study revealed that between sixty to ninety per cent of students selected to various degree programmes came from the top fifty Senior Secondary Schools which constitute less than ten percent of senior secondary schools (Addae-Mensah, 2000). Expanding the base from which tertiary education draws

its students is going to be a major challenge for the future, and will mean improving the quality of secondary education in semi-urban and rural areas, and introducing targeted subsidies for poor households. One step that the New Patriotic Party (NPP) under the leadership of his Excellency, John Agyekum Kufuor took which helped to widen participation from across the country was the initiative to upgrade infrastructure facilities of one Senior Secondary School in each of the 138 districts as at then. This initiative had the potential of ensuring access to quality secondary education across the country, and increased wider participation in tertiary education (Addae-Mensah, 2000).

2.2.7 Challenges of Education in Ghana

Formal education is widely acknowledged as the foundation of civilization and development. In modern times, the scope of emphasis has been stretched from mere formal education to quality education. That is why governments all over the world are enjoined by the Education for All (EFA) agenda not just to provide education to all children of school-going age, but that they must not sacrifice quality education under any circumstance.

Formal education in Ghana dates back to the colonial period. The European merchants and missionaries, who settled in the then Gold Coast to ply their trade, were the first to establish schools in the country. At the time of independence, Ghana had only one university and a few elementary and secondary schools. However, in a space of fifty years, the number of public universities has increased to nine, in addition to ten polytechnics in all the regions and a plethora of private universities and tertiary institutions scattered throughout the country. Initially, the education structure was modeled on the British system but after independence in 1957, it underwent a series of reforms with the view to refining its quality. The



Education Act of 1961, The Dzobo Report of 1973, which recommended the Junior & Senior Secondary School (JSS) concept, the New Structure and Content of Education (1974), the Education Commission Report on Basic and Secondary Schools (1987/88), the University Rationalization Committee Report (1996), the Ghana Education Compulsory Universal Basic Education Programme (1996), the Ghana Education Trust Fund Act, 2000 (Act 581) and the Presidential Committee on the Review of the Education Reforms (2002), are some of the policy initiatives that have been taken by various governments in the past to refine the education system in the country.

For a developing country, such as Ghana, the provision of quality education is more imperative, given the fact that it serves as a catalyst to development. It is for this reason that over the years, successive governments have placed much emphasis on education, which for a very long time, has accounted for one-third (35%) of the country's national budget. In their bid to meet the development aspirations of the nation, many past governments (since independence) have introduced various educational reforms, but it appears the most appropriate policy has not yet been found. Therefore, even at a time when the country celebrated its Golden Jubilee in 2007, a new educational reform had been-rolled out.

2.3 Overview of Capitation Grant: Global Perspective

By replacing revenue lost by schools due to the abolition of school fees and contributions, the introduction of the Capitation Grant allowed children from all wealth backgrounds to go to school. This reduced social exclusion² as children from poor households could now afford to attend school (Uwaz, 2010). Capitation Grants are intended to be spent on the day-to-day running costs of the school, for



²Refers to a situation where a group of people are blocked from rights, opportunities and resources which are available to other members of a society.

example, cleaning, lighting, maintenance of school premises and grounds, and the provision of teaching materials and resources. School Grant policies represent a major reform in educational management. Schools, which before such policies had very little or no say about financial management, now receive grants directly from central authorities. They are at present not only asked to deal with these grants but also to use them more or less as they see fit in order to improve the school's functioning and quality. In some countries, especially, OECD member countries, this practice is not new; in quite a few countries, it dates back to the school-based management policies of the 1980s. In many developing countries, this reform is, however, much more recent as it is directly linked to the introduction of fee-free education over the past few years: as schools are no longer allowed to ask parents for fees, they are given grants to make up for the loss of income. This fits within the trend towards more school autonomy.

The Capitation Grant helps to ease supply side constraints to education, because it assures the availability of more learning and teaching materials (Levacic and Downes, 2004). In fully decentralized systems, the allocation of funds to each school is published and accessible for public scrutiny. The budget proposals, expenditure allocations and financial outlays of each school may be examined by any interested party. Therefore, provided the proper systems of checks and balances are in place, all those who handle funds for schools must do so in an accountable manner (Levacic, 2006).

2.4 Historical Development of Capitation Grant in Ghana

The Capitation Grant Scheme was introduced in 2004 as part of a wider strategy to decentralize education provision. To meet the MDGs for education and national targets established in the 2003-2015 Education Strategic Plan (ESP). The



programme was first piloted in Ghana's 40 most deprived districts in 2004 with support from the World Bank.

Overall, enrolment rose by 14.5% with over 36% being pre-school enrolment. This success led to the nationwide adoption of the Capitation Grant System in early 2005. Under this system, every public kindergarten, primary school and junior secondary school receives a grant per pupil per year. Schools are therefore, not permitted to charge any fees to parents. After a year of implementing the Capitation Grant scheme, total enrolment in the 40 selected districts had increased by about 15% (MOE, 2008).

Under the CGS, every public kindergarten, primary school and junior secondary school receives a grant of about GHC3.00 per pupil per year as at 2011. The quantum of financial resources to schools is dependent on the school population. The amount was distributed as follows: GH¢0.60 for sports, GH¢0.30 for cultural activities and the rest of GH¢2.10 for other expenses like the minor repairs, teaching and learning materials, in-service training for teachers and so on. These amounts were fixed based on an analysis of the average fees charged at basic level nationally. Schools were therefore, not permitted to charge any fees to parents (Kattan, 2006). It is worth stating though that, as a percentage of unit cost per primary school child, however, this amount is insignificant. In 2005, the actual unit cost for a child in a public primary school was GH¢64.43 (MOESS, 2006). Thus, although the total capitation budget may be high, it has done little to improve the quality of education that the child receives (Akyeampong *et al.*, 2007). The funds for the pilot program totaling GH¢2.85 million was provided as counterpart funds to the Education Sector Project as a pilot programme within the



2004/2005 academic year with the first release to the schools in November 2004 (World Bank, 2009). Initially limited to 40 districts, the Government decided to extend the capitation scheme to all primary education schools as from the start of the 2005-06 school year in response to pressure from civil society groups about the country's inability to fulfill its pledge under the FCUBE, and because the grant scheme had led to an impressive 14.5% increase in enrolment in the 40 piloted/deprived districts in the 2003/04 academic year (Fredriksen, 2007).

The Government of Ghana proposed to fund the scheme from the HIPC and the Social Impact Mitigation Levy Funds in 2006. The Capitation Grant per child in Ghana as at 2014 was on average GH¢4.50 (approximately US\$3.10) per enrolled child having been increased by 50 percent from the 2008 figure of GH¢3.00 (approximately US\$2) in the 2009 school year. An amount of GH¢ 8,000,000.00 was released in the first quarter of 2009 to pay for the CG of basic schools for the 2008/2009 academic year. As noted earlier, the CG per primary school child is still insignificant as compared to the per unit cost of primary education per child.



With reference to northern Ghana, access to education for all school aged children has still not been met despite numerous policy interventions including Capitation Grant. Factors which contribute to quality education according to the literature review include strong leadership, orderly school environment, frequent assessment, adequacy of textbooks and other teaching and learning materials, teaching methodology and educational policies among others. One cannot therefore, rely solely on the Capitation Grant Scheme to ensure success in quality education especially, when pertinent challenges have been identified with its implementation. Some of the challenges of capitation Grants identified by the

Ghana Education Service include, increased demand for additional classrooms, teachers, textbooks and other teaching and learning matrials. Others were difficulty of sustaining community participation and inadequate level of transparency in the administration of the Capitation Grant at the school level.

It is therefore, not out of place to carry out an investigation into the impact of Capitation Grant on public basic schools in relation to enrolment, gender parity, performance and retention, in the Tamale Metropolis. Issues relating to the effect of Capitation Grant Scheme on academic quality and gender parity in particular are under researched.

2.5 School Capitation and its Relevance in Ghana

Several studies in Ghana have also shown that the high cost of schooling is often the most frequent reason cited for Children not attending school (Akyeampong *et al.*, 2007). With cost of providing food, clothing, school levies and registration costs being the three largest expenditure items facing households, it has been argued that faced with affordability constraints, most parents in Ghana have preference for boy child education over the girl child (Avotri, 2000; Akyeampong *et al.*, 2007). This could be part of the reason for the introduction of school capitation in the country the objective of which among other things include relieving parents of the financial burden of taking care of their children.

The impact of the 'Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education' (FCUBE) reforms adopted in 1996 was mitigated by the reduction of public funding as schools began levying indirect school fees such as registration fees, uniforms,



textbooks among others. However, this increase was almost fully counterbalanced by increasing drop-outs and limits in learning outcomes. Altogether, the effect of capitation grant on net enrolment was an increase of slightly more than 2.2 percent, but the effect on deprived districts was not significant given the high level of drop-out and prevalence of over-age enrolment (Adamu-Issah, *et al.*, 2007).

2.6 Challenges of Capitation Grant

Since the inception of School Capitation Grant, there has been some progress in terms of quality of instruction across sub- Saharan Africa. However, some clear challenges remain. According to Haki (2007) some of the challenges identified in Tanzania for example include underfunding, Complex system of disbursement and disbursement being unpredictable and variable.

The recent Uwazi study in Tanzania on the Capitation Grant makes the following conclusions: there was inadequate transparency around the Capitation Grant usage (Uwazi, 2010). Pilfering of education resources, misallocation as well as underutilisation and embezzlement of funds are some of the major glaring shortcomings highlighted by the recent government commissioned education tracking surveys. As such, corruption is one of the factors that have been identified to weaken the direct support to schools in Tanzania. This means even when funds are available, the ability of Capitation Grants to empower pupils from poor households and marginalized schools largely depends on how efficiently they are used.



A study conducted by the Ghana Centre for Democratic Development in 2010 showed that, one out of six district directors indicated that their schools have no school performance improvement plans (SPIP) which is a prerequisite for utilization of the grants. Furthermore, only 17 per cent out of the districts who prepared SPIPs submitted them in time for approval. Other issues relating to the management of Capitation Grants reported in the CDD-Ghana study were weak monitoring and supervision, lack of transparency in utilization of funds and general consensus that the grants are inadequate in meeting the needs of the schools (CDD-Ghana, 2010).

An issue affecting the Capitation Grants policy is the emergence of informal examination fees in basic schools. Whilst abolition of school fees is still in force, it is a common knowledge that basic schools still charge examination fees and other forms of levies. Head teachers believe that the current rate of the Capitation Grants of 4.5 Ghana cedi is inadequate in meeting the resource demand of their schools. These issues were apparent in the CDD study.



Darko *et al.* (2009) concluded that some of the challenges of school Capitation Grant Scheme identified by the Ghana Education Service include, increased demand for additional classrooms, teachers, textbooks and other teaching and learning materials. Other challenges identified were difficulty of sustaining community participation and inadequate level of transparency at school level.

2.7 Educational Policies and their Impact on Education in Northern Ghana

The Government of Ghana has tried in various ways to show her commitment towards the achievement of Universal Primary Education (as indicated by MDG 2) by ensuring that all children of primary school-age enrol and completed by 2015. The government has shown this commitment through policy directives and interventions like the Education Strategy Plan (ESP) for 2003-2015, the Growth Poverty Reduction Strategy, the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education Programme and the 1992 Constitution of Ghana. Strategies adopted to operationalize the policies include the introduction of the Capitation Grant (School Fee Abolition), expansion of Early Childhood Development services, promotion of measures to improve gender parity in primary schools, and the introduction of Nutrition and School Feeding programmes. These measures have led to improvement in various key indicators in education in recent years, notably, gross enrolment rates, gender parity index, net enrolment rate and net admission rate. In spite of increased enrolment rates, enrolment at primary level has not been increasing sufficiently to meet the goal of Universal Primary Completion by 2015. According to Leslie (2008), 63% of the children reaching SHS are from wealthiest families, 50% of the children from the poorest families never reach SHS and out of school children are Ghana's rural poor mainly from three northern regions of the country, (Leslie, 2008).

The elimination of gender inequalities in all spheres of life including education, as both a human rights issue and as impetus for poverty reduction and development



generally, has gained centre stage in the global and national development agendas (Agyare-Kwabi, 2013). According to the report, girls' education is particularly acknowledged as being a major catalyst in this endeavour, and has been clearly expressed in the development policies, programmes and strategies of most developing countries (Agyare-Kwabi, 2013).

Ghana has since independence made significant strides in its education system so as to conform to international declarations. Over the years, the country has shown commitment to achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE), which it initiated in the early 1960s. It has used various legislations and policy initiatives to encourage access and participation in primary education, including the Ten-year Plan for Educational Development (1946), Accelerated Development Plan of Education (1951), and the Education Act, (1961). The education Act of 1961 provided for compulsory primary education. Educational reforms in 1974 introduced the idea of thirteen years of pre-tertiary education which consisted of six years primary school, three years Junior Secondary School (JSS), and four years senior secondary school (SSS). By 1983 access to basic education and other levels of education were at their lowest (World Bank, 2004).



In 1987, Ghana undertook a major educational reform with support from the World Bank with the aim of expanding primary education but also introducing greater cost recovery for higher education. The policy also reduced pre-tertiary education from 17 to 12 years. Substantial government and donor funds were directed into funding the basic education sector (Akeampong *et al.*, 2007). This resulted in the opening of many new primary schools and Junior Secondary Schools throughout the country.

The 1992 Fourth Republican Constitution under Article 38 emphasized the country's commitment to the EFA agenda to achieve Universal primary Education (UPE) by 2015. However, some of the key challenges to achieving UPE - high poverty levels in the rural areas, inadequate funding for education investments and the low enrolment and retention of girls in school still exist (Aryeetey & Nimo, 2004). Determined to get more children into school therefore, the government (re-) launched the policy of free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) in 1995 supported by the World Bank Primary School Development Project (PSDP). Although Ghana's school enrolment rates were high compared to some other African countries, a persistent 40% of children between 6 and 11 years of age remained out of school as of 2003 (UNICEF, 2007). Ghana has been promoting free compulsory universal education since the 50's and has put in place measures to ensure access, and quality achievement in the system. There has been increased investment from \$US 384.5 million, (1999) to 1 billion US in 2006. The Government of Ghana also spent 30% of its budget on education and 25% on teacher salaries (GES, 2008). Education is share of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) increased from 5% in 1999 to 5.7% in 2006 and currently it is at about 11.1% which means the country is spending more than any African Country on Education which is above Fast Track Initiative (FTI) targets and many other western countries (World Bank, 2010).



Access to education for all school aged children in Northern Ghana has still not been met despite a number of state interventions since the inception of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education. The Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service acknowledge that FCUBE has been one of the main strategies

for bridging the access gap between northern and southern Ghana (CREATE, 2010).

Northern Region has had a slower educational growth due to a combination of socio-cultural, economic, and religious factors. The demand-based interventions of many NGOs and donor agencies have created less impact in Northern Region, due to the marginalized position of many communities in that region. In the Northern region, the education attainment of men is 0.9 years and for women is as low as 0.1 years (GSS, 2010).

Education in the Northern Region is not entirely different from that in the other parts of northern Ghana as a whole though comparatively, the Northern Region got government-built schools earlier than the Upper East and Upper West Regions. The first secondary school in northern Ghana was established in 1946 in Tamale. The first government Teacher Training College in the region was established in 1944 also in Tamale. Since then significant progress has been made. Enrolment levels in the Northern Region are among the lowest in Ghana. Though significant progress has been made in terms of provision of schools, colleges and a university, more needs to be done. The situation by 2000 was not much different. In some instances in the rural areas, the percentage fell though nationwide there has been a rise in enrolment since 1997³. The 2008 Ghana Living Standards Survey Report indicates that attendance rates are generally high in all localities except in rural savannah. While the rates range from a high of 97.0 percent in the other localities, in rural savannah it is 63.5 percent for males and 56.6 percent for females (GSS, 2008).

^{. . . .}

³ See http://acdep.org/wordpress/acdep-operational-regions/the-northern-region/

The neglect of education before independence and the little progress made by government towards education after independence as well as the poverty levels of the people in the Northern Region are the major causes of the disheartening situation in this region. Also among other causes are the numerous conflicts which, not only lead to poverty, but a debilitating consequence of high illiteracy rates, and unwillingness of development partners to invest in the region among others.

2.8 Literacy and education in the Tamale Metropolis

Education is critical for human development. It is a key policy of every government to provide adequate resources and an environment conducive for teaching and learning for its population. Education is the process of acquiring knowledge, skills, values and attitudes to fully develop individual capacities for societal well-being. In the Ghana 2010 Population and Housing Census, Literacy was defined as the ability to read and write in any language.



According to GSS (2010), of the metropolis population of 11 years and above, 60.1 percent are literates and 39.9 percent are non-literates. The proportion of literate males (69.2%) is higher than that of females (51.1%). Five out of ten people (54.8%) indicate they can speak and write both English and Ghanaian languages. Of the population aged 3 years and older (84,897) currently attending school in the metropolis 52.9 percent are males and the remaining 45.1 percent are females. Among those who have attended school in the past, males constitute 58.6 percent and the females represent 41.4. It indicates that both among those who attended school in the past and those who are currently males have higher

proportions. Among those currently attending school, 15.1 percent are in nursery, 18.2 per cent in JSS/JHS, 12.5 percent in SSS/SHS and the largest proportion (40%) is in primary. Only 5.7 percent of the population 3 years and older in the Metropolis are currently attending tertiary institutions.

2.9 Historical Review of Basic School Enrolment in Ghana

Primary or secondary school enrolment refers to the number of children enrolled in a level (primary or secondary), regardless of age (UNICEF, 2010). Progress has been made in increasing access across the levels of basic education, with all enrolment indicators improving (MOE, 2013). Moreover the number of out-of-school children has witnessed impressive reductions over the years. The Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), 2006-2011 report showed that the number of out-of-school children (aged 6 to 11) fell by 46% from 513,000 in 2006 to 278,000 in 2011.

Table 2.1 shows gross enrolment for basic education for the period 2005 to 2013. From the table, gross enrolment had increased at all the three levels of basic education in Ghana from 2005/06 to 2012/2013 academic years. In the view of MOE, (2010) the introduction of the Capitation Grant policy has contributed to the growth in enrolment at the basic school level especially, in 2006/07 academic year.

The same view is held by World Bank, (2009) MOE, (2008) and Acheampong (2007). However, there is the need for further inquiry into various policy interventions between 2006/07 to 2009/10 as these could also significantly influence the increases in enrolment over the period (MOE, 2010).



A comparison of enrolment and performance in the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) was made in the Tamale Metropolis and the data is as well presented in Tables 2.1 and 2.2 respectively.

Table 2.1 Gross Enrolment Numbers and Ratios for Basic Education in Ghana

Enrolment	2005/ 2006	2006/ 2007	2007/ 2008	2008/ 2009	2009/ 2010	2010/ 2011	2011/ 2012	2012/ 2013
KG	1,065,963	1,142,784	1,262,264	1,338,454	1,440,732	1,491,450	1,543,314	1,604,505
Primary	2,727,044	2,870,656	2,990,782	3,710,647	3,809,258	3,962,779	4,062,026	4,105,913
JHS	1,121,887	1,170,801	1,224,964	1,285,277	1,301,940	1,335,400	1,385,367	1,452,585
GER	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13
KG	85.30	89.00	89.90	92.9	97.3	98.4	99.4	113.8
KO	05.50	67.00	67.70	72.7	71.3)). 4	113.6
Primary	92.10	93.70	95.20	94.9	94.9	96.4	96.5	105
JHS	74.7	77.4	78.88	80.6	79.5	79.6	96.5	82.2

Source: Ministry of Education (2013)

Table 2.2 further illustrates enrolment, Gross Enrolment ratio and Gender Parity Index in the study area. Generally speaking, enrolment and Gender Parity had improved between 2008 and 2013 even though the GER after getting to its highest level in 2010 decreased to 98% and increased marginally to 108% in 2013 while the GPI also marginally declined from 0.97 to 0.98 between the periods 2008 to 2013.



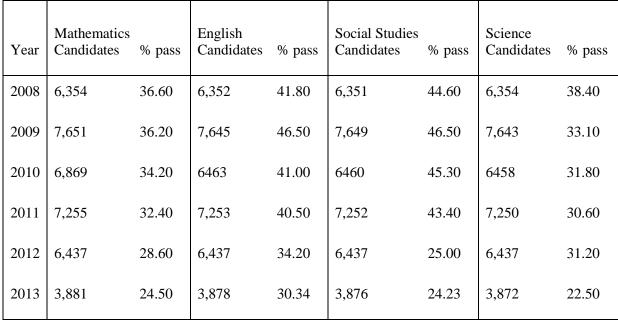
Table 2.2: Gross Enrolment Data for Basic Schools in Tamale Metropolis

Year	Kg	Primary	JHS	Total	Boys	Girls	GER	GPI
2008	10,421	22,639	9,318	42,378	21959	20,419	87%	0.97
2009	22,516	65,896	25,361	113,773	62776	50,997	117%	0.87
2010	24,042	66,316	26,098	116,456	62190	54,266	144%	0.87
2011	25,810	69,504	27,122	122,436	64,491	57,945	138%	0.88
2012	26,755	74,427	28,898	130,080	68,642	61,438	94%	0.98
2013	30,973	78,093	14,640	123,706	79124	44,582	108%	0.98

Source: Ministry of Education (2013)

Table 2.3 shows the performance in BECE examination between 2008 and 2013. Data for the 2005, 2006 and; 2007 were not accessible. From the table it can be seen that there has been continuous decline in performance in all the core subjects over the period.

Table 2.3: Analysis of BECE Performance in Core subjects in the Study Area (2008-2013)



Source: Ministry of Education (2014)



Table 2.4 below shows the performance in BECE examination between the 2008 and 2013. Data for the 2005, 2006 and 2007 were not accessible. From the table it can be seen that there has been continuous decline in the overall performance over the period. However, the overall performance in 2009 seems to be relatively better as the percentage of passes in the BECE was 42.72% with the worse performance recorded in the year 2013 with 32.60% passes.

Table 2.4: Percentage passes in all subjects in BECE in the study area (2008-2013)

Year	% Pass
2008	40.30
2009	41.10
2010	42.72
2011	40.32
2012	40.45
2013	32.60

Source: Ministry of Education (2014)



The review above suggests that, increased educational access and enrolment does not automatically translate into improved outcomes. As maintained by SNV (2006); "with increased participation of children in primary school, capacities to manage the educational system in order to achieve sustainable and better outcomes are critical to consolidating the gains made". It is therefore, not out of place to make an inquiry into the real impact of the Capitation Grant Scheme on school Enrolment and Retention in the northern part of the country more

especially, in the Tamale metropolis which lacks behind in as far as the educational profile of Ghana is concerned.

2.10 Ghana Capitation Grant Scheme and School Enrolment

The Capitation Grant Scheme (CGS) was implemented during the 2004-2005 academic year. The pilot programme was first enforced in 40 most deprived districts in Ghana out of 110 at the time to take them up to the standards of the well-off districts over a period of time. The selection of the 40 districts under the pilot phase was done based on the following criterion;

- Input criteria have to do with the number of core textbooks per pupil, number of seating places per pupil, percentage of qualified primary teachers, per student budget at primary level, and pupil-teacher ratio at primary level.
- Achievement criteria have to do with the success rate in the Basic Education
 Certification Examination for English and mathematics.
- Access criteria also have to do with the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and percentage of girls enrolled.

The first year of implementation corresponded with agitations from civil society groups estimating that the FCUBE failed in providing free, compulsory, and universal basic education for every Ghanaian child (in 2003/04, primary GER at the national level was 86.3% and only 76.1% in deprived districts). Consequently, the CGS was quickly extended to all public schools in Ghana in 2005/06' academic year.

However, there are mixed reports on the Impact of the Capitation Grant. In the view of Adamu-Issah *et al.* (2007), the decision to replace school fees with



Capitation Grants had a positive impact on enrolment during the 2009/10 school year with primary school gross enrolment rising by nearly 10 per cent from the 2005/06 figure. Overall, enrolment in basic schools increased by 16.7% in the 2005/2006 academic year from the 58.3% point in 2004/05. Enrolment of girls increased slightly more than that of boys. Every region in the country experienced a rise in enrolment; with the exception of the Northern Region in 2005/06 academic year. There was overwhelming increase in enrolment figures in 2004 in the pilot districts which led to a nationwide implementation of the policy in 2005 (World Bank, 2009). Evidence of improved enrolment after the implementation of the Capitation Grant Scheme is presented in table 2.5 below. As seen in the table, between 2000 and 2004 which is a pre-capitation period, the country experienced a decline in enrolment.

Table 2.5: Percentage Change in Primary Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) of Ghana (2000-2004) and (2005 -2009)

NER	2000	2004	% Change	2005	2009	% Change
Girl	62	56.6	-5.4	64.9	76.2	11.3
Boys	63.8	58	-5.8	65.3	75.5	10.2
Total	62.9	57.3	-11.2	65.1	75.9	10.8

Source: UNESCO, (2011)



Tanye (2008) noted that poor educational background of parents, the school environment, sexual harassment, and poor teaching and learning methods are among the key factors that militate against girls' enrolment in Ghana. The Capitation Grant Scheme seems to have had little impact on gender parity on school enrolment. The period after the implementation of Capitation Grants saw only a marginal increase in GPI of 0.01, which can be attributed to natural maturation (Dawuda, 2003). As people became aware of the importance of

education to development, they are more likely to ensure that their children irrespective of gender receive formal education. Even without capitation grants, gender parity was achievable probably as a result of the key interventions carried out over the previous years by the Girls' Education Unit and other similar organizations working to improve girls' education in the country (MOE, 2005).

2.11 Case Studies on School Capitation Grant

This section deals with case studies of Capitation Grant scheme in Nigeria, Tanzania and Kenya. It outlines the basic objectives, the implementation procedures and impact on education at the primary school level.

2.11.1 The Nigerian Experience

According to Sibbons *et al.* (2006) as cited in Theobald *et al.* (2007), there is high level of poverty in many areas of Nigeria, especially in the north. Socio-economic status of households affects children access to quality educations, costs and opportunity costs of attending school. It is usually the girls that miss out on schooling in poorer households. Theobald *et al.* (2007) cited in Sibbons *et al.* (2006) and reported that economic reasons were more likely to influence the chance of a girl child attending school rather than perceptions of their parents or social norms. Often children are needed to help household by bringing in additional income, carrying out household chores or looking after siblings. Many children do not attend school because family responsibilities outweigh the perceived benefits of schooling. This relates to the quality of education provision and how families perceive the returns.



Usman (2006) describes how financial cutbacks to educational projects have affected the running costs of nomadic primary schools in Nigerian. As a result, teachers in these schools can be found asking for financial levies to assist with buying resources and instructional materials. Some teachers also insist households supply all learning materials themselves. These costs are beyond the means of many rural, nomadic and often poor households (Usman, 2006).

2.11.2 Case Study from Tanzania

In Tanzania recent nationwide surveys show that majority of children are unable to read or do arithmetic at the required level (Uwezo and Twaweza, 2011). Children cannot learn new skills without a foundation in basic literacy and numeracy. Without this foundation they are also denied the opportunity to develop fully in the future. The amounts of money as Capitation Grant reaching schools are well below policy of USD 10 per primary pupil per year and are declining, from USD 6 in 2004 to USD 4 in 2009 to less than USD 2 in 2011 (Graaf, 2005).

According to Uwezo and Twaweza, 2011 and Graaf, 2005, there are three key challenges to improving education in Tanzania. These are:

- How to consistently get resources to the school or community level;
- How to effectively invest (government and donor) resources by gearing the education process to emphasize learning outcomes rather than educational inputs;
- How to generate rigorous evidence of what works and have it inform national education debate, policy and practice.



2.11.3 Case Study in Kenya

According to Tessa et al. (2011) the abolition of user fees for government primary schools in Kenya in 2003 did not significantly increase net enrolment in public schools. Comparing public and private schools at the primary and secondary level, before and after the Free Primary Education reform, their study found out that the abolition of user fees shifted demand toward private schooling, evidenced by a simultaneous surge in private primary-school enrolment and fee Levels, (Tessa et al., 2011). In attempting to explain this unanticipated demand response, it was shown that public primary-school funding did not decline in the wake of Free Primary Education (FPE). In effect the study concluded, that the loss in fee revenue to public schools was offset by central government Capitation Grants and that FPE was successful in improving access to education for pupils from poorer households. It in fact, increased effective demand for public schooling relative to the demand of private schooling. The study also observed, that policies intended to promote equal access to primary schooling can have unintended consequences, as more affluent households attempt to send their children to more endowed private schools.



In a Kenyan Welfare Monitoring Survey and Integrated Household Budget Survey, the World Bank (2005/2006; 1997) reports on net enrolment rates by sector, before and after the introduction of Free Primary Education showed that the abolition of user fees for government primary schools in Kenya in 2003 did not significantly increase net enrollment in public schools. Comparing public and private schools at the primary and secondary level, before and after the free primary education reform, the report also found that the abolition of user fees

shifted demand toward private schooling, evinced by a simultaneous surge in private primary-school enrollment and fee levels (World Bank, 1997).

2.12 An Overview on Factors Influencing Access to Quality Education

There is a strong body of research and evidence which shows that investment in high quality basic education is the bedrock on which countries develop and prosper. With greater investment in education, and particularly when this education is high quality, individuals have higher incomes and economies as a whole perform better (Oketch, 2006; Harmon *et al.*, 2000; and. McMahon, 1999). Recent research has also suggested that quality education is particularly important. Hanushek and Woessmann (2008), conclude that "the effect of more years of schooling is greatly reduced by including quality, leaving it mostly insignificant".

The 2005 Education for All Global Monitoring Report, suggests that there is no general theory as to what determines the quality of education (UNESCO, 2005). It is therefore, important to identify and promote the most effective practices, that is to say, practices which help pupils to achieve desired learning outcomes in the most effective way. From this perspective, there is a general rejection of what is referred to as "traditional" teaching. This is an essentially expository form of teaching, dominated by the teacher, which relegates pupils to a passive role, reduces their classroom activity to the memorization of data to be recited to the teacher, and in particular, leads to the acquisition of skills of a lower taxonomic level. The proposed alternatives to this form of teaching may be grouped into two main categories: structured teaching approaches and discovery-based approaches (Gauthier, 2008; cited in Riddell, 2008).



The basic principles of structured teaching approach involve mastery learning, progression from simple to complex and the dominant methods are direct instruction and explicit teaching with the learning objectives being mastery of content, academic achievement and acquiring learning strategies. Discovery learning on the other hand can occur whenever the student is not provided with an exact answer but rather the materials in order to find the answer themselves. Discovery learning takes place in problem solving situations where the learner draws on his own experience and prior knowledge and is a method of instruction through which students interact with their environment by exploring and manipulating objects, wrestling with questions and controversies, or performing experiments Gökhan *et al.* (2007).

In Ghana, like elsewhere, quality in education faces definitional problems. It becomes more problematic when quality is conceptualized in terms of a particular aspect of education because as Dare (2005), observes, 'all the elements associated with educational quality are interrelated. A serious defect in one element is likely to have implications for quality in others'. Moreover, questions regarding quality may be posed about any important aspect of the educational system: infrastructure, school buildings, administration, leadership, management, teacher training, educational materials, teaching, and student achievement. More problems arise when the outcomes of education are the focus for defining quality. This is because purposes of education are cultural bound and value-laden. For example, for some people, the purpose of education is to foster students' cognitive, moral, and social development; for others it is a means of promoting social cohesion and nation building; while for some others, it is a preparation for the world of work.





Perhaps, a more simplified solution to the definitional problem lies in Harvey's (1995) linkage of quality to transformation. In this sense, quality education is narrowed to 'qualitative change.' Yet this does not resolve the problem. Viewed this way, the notion of quality becomes more perplexing when applied to education (Elton, 1992). This is because; education is an ongoing process of transformation of the participant: the student, learner or researcher. In this light, the achievement of universal participation in education will be fundamentally dependent upon the quality of education available. A plethora of studies have shown, that how well pupils are taught and how much they learn, can have a crucial impact on the effectiveness of school education they get. Furthermore, whether parents send their children to school at all is likely to depend on judgments they make about the quality of teaching and learning provided. As example, many parents want their daughters who go through the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) in Ghana to attend Wesley Girls Senior High School in the Central Region just because this school has been at the top of the country's league table for three consecutive years. By being on top of the league table, it is assumed, that teaching and learning in the school is of higher quality.

2.12.1 Quality of Education: Matter of Agreement

At the level of international debate and action, three principles tend to be broadly shared. These are the needs to understand quality education in terms of (a) content relevance, (b) access and outcome and (c) observance of individual rights. In much current international thinking, these principles are expected to guide and inform educational content and processes and also represent more general social

goals to which education itself should contribute. This is reflected in the thinking of the following international bodies:

UNICEF (2005) recognizes five dimensions of quality: the learners, the environments, content, processes and outcomes, founded on the rights of the whole child, and all children, to survival, protection, development and participation (UNICEF, 2005).

UNESCO's (2005) understanding of education quality seeks to identify unambiguously the important attributes or qualities of education that can best ensure that goals are actually met. Quality education should encourage learner's creative and emotional development, six in supporting objectives of peace citizenship and security, promoting equality and passing global and local cultural values down to future generations. It should allow children to reach their fullest potential in terms of cognitive, emotional and creative capacities. Improving the quality of education would require systems in which the principles of scientific development and modernization could be learned in ways that respect learners' socio-cultural contexts.



Thus, a quality education system must manage to provide all children and young people with a comprehensive education and with an appropriate preparation for working life, life in society and private life. This should be achieved without distinctions of any kind such as those based on parents' income, colour, gender, language, religion, political and other opinion, national or social origin.

2. 13 Gender Gap in Education

Tanye (2008), Dolphyne (1998), and Atakpa (1996), noted that poor educational background of parents, the school environment, sexual harassment, and poor teaching and learning methods are among the key factors that militate against girls' enrolment in Ghana. Likewise, the girls' education unit of the Ghana Education Service identified three categories of barriers to girls' education. These barriers are access barriers, retention barriers and achievement barriers.

Access barriers include the opportunity cost of sending girls to school, distance to school, lack of gender friendly sanitation facilities, and private cost of schooling to households. For instance, some girls in rural communities in Ghana stop going to school when they are in their menstrual period. Those schools do not have the necessary sanitary facilities to enable such girls manage their menstruation.

Retention related barriers comprise inadequate role-models, teenage pregnancy, and early marriages. Finally, achievement related barriers are low self-esteem, gender biases in classroom practices and inadequate guidance and counseling services (Addy, 2002). In addition to these barriers, various studies have shown that a proportion of girls who enroll in schools in some parts of Ghana dropout of school or do not transition from primary to junior high school as a result of migration decisions and culturally specific reasons such as kinship obligations including fosterage (Fentiman, Hall and Bundy, 1999). In parts of Northern Ghana, fosterage is a common reason for low enrolment and higher drop-out of girls in schools.



A majority of girls in fosterage homes migrate to the cities in search of nonexistent greener pastures. Such girls engage in head porter work popularly known as "kayaye" (Dawuda, 2003). Other factors that militate against girls' education are socio-cultural factors such as societal norms, laws, rules, beliefs, and practices (Tanye, 2008). Some people in Ghana, especially, those living in the rural areas, believe that the best place for the woman is the kitchen and that women should concentrate on making babies and taking care of household chores. Such people are in denial of the important role women can play in socio-economic development of a nation (Gyekye-Nimako, 1983 in Tanye, 2008). Traditional and religious practices have been another important factor that relegates women and girls to the background.

In Ghana, the traditional belief is that men are responsible for providing resources for the upkeep of the households. This kind of thinking has created an endogenous power relationship between men and women. An evaluation study conducted by Addy (2002) showed that not much progress has been made to address the gender gap in education. The report particularly noted that the fragmentation of the work of the various divisions of the Ghana Education Service regarding girls' education is affecting the realization of the girls' education policy in Ghana. For instance, the Science Education Unit of the Ghana Education Service has been organizing annual science, technology and mathematics education clinics each year to encourage girls to take keen interest in science related disciplines and this kind of programme should have been coordinated by the Girls Education Unit. Additionally, lack of logistics and budget lines for Girls Education Unit are other key factors that affect the girls' education policy (UNICEF-Ghana, 2002).



In the world report on women (UN, 2010) it was noted that while the world had made progress toward bridging the gender gap in education over the years, gender parity is far from being achieved. This underscores the relevance of incorporating gender dimensions in educational planning to ensure that gender issues are well catered for.

The above discussions suggests that gender gap in education is a multi-faceted issue that requires a multi-faceted approach in order to address it. It is not clear whether Capitation Grants alone can bridge gender gap in basic education though school fees could be a major obstacle to bridging the gap between girls and boys in school.

2.14 Factors Contributing to 'Successful' Primary Schools

The factors which contribute to 'successful' primary schooling are as follows: school factors, teacher factors, and instruction and policy factors.

School factors such as strong leadership, orderly school and classroom environment, teachers who focus on basics of curriculum, high expectations of students' potential and performance, frequent assessment and feedback, structured instruction, face-to-face instructional time, adequacy of textbooks and other materials, teacher quality.

Teacher factors like monitoring how well students are progressing, ability of grouping pupils by whole classes is ineffective, but positive for specific skills, teachers' subject mastery and verbal skills, teachers' expectations of students and teachers' passion for learning.



Instructions such as structured teaching methods, clear learning goals, sequenced introduction to new material, clear explanations, regular checking of understanding, time for pupils to practice new skills, completion of learning tasks, frequent testing and feedback. Policy making also involves leading role of government and policy continuity.

The above reviews have tried to distil the lessons emerging from the different approaches taken to improving education quality and effectiveness in developing countries.

Enrolment in schools represents the largest component of the investment in human capital in most society (Schultz, 2002). The human resources of a nation are considered to be the engine of growth of the country. These must however, be adequately developed and efficiently utilized. Education bestows on the recipients a disposition for a life-long acquisition of knowledge, values, attitudes, competence and skills (Aliu, 2001). Hence, rapid socio-economic development of a nation has been observed to depend on the calibre of human capital in that country. Education is thus central to the development process.



The government of Ghana produced a White Paper on Education Reform in 2004, which outlined a portfolio of reforms and objectives spanning the entire education sector. The recommendations in this White Paper were to be implemented from 2007 at the latest and have major targets identified for 2015 and 2020. Strategies adopted to operationalise the policies include the introduction of the Capitation Grant (School Fee Abolition), expansion of Early Childhood Development

services, promotion of measures to improve Gender Parity in primary schools, and the introduction of Nutrition and School Feeding programmes.

2.15 Conceptual Framework

Maxwell (2005), Merriam (1998), and Miles and Huberman (1994) describe a conceptual framework (interchangeably with "theoretical framework") as a framework that explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied: the key factors, variables and the presumed relationships between them.

In the study, the conceptual or theoretical framework guides the research process in terms of the identification of relevant concepts, definition of key variables, problem statement, objectives of the study, specific questions to be investigated, selection of a research design, choice of sample and sampling procedures, data collection and analysis, and interpretation techniques.

Prior discussions established empirical evidence of the impact of the Capitation Grant Scheme particularly, its positive contributions to enrolment and very little on performance and the quality of teaching and learning in public basic schools. Though, the factors affecting performance and quality of teaching and learning are indispensable, the role of School Capitation Grant if properly managed is relevant for the success of the education in Primary and Junior High Schools.

It is against this background that the conceptual framework carved an integrated approach for the implementation and monitoring of the Capitation Grant in



Tamale Metropolis. The conceptual framework is premised on the basis of the performance of school pupils especially, at the Junior High School level.

Analysis of the performance at the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) in recent years in the Tamale Metropolis, "continue to show that results have been very abysmal. For instance, in 2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009 and 2010, the Tamale Metropolis secured 60th, 69th, 88th, 91st, 89th, 98th, and 103rd positions respectively, out of the 134 Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies (MMDAs) ratings nationwide whose pupils wrote the BECE throughout those years^{3,4}.

Government and other stakeholders have in diverse ways adopted some measures to address the challenges. One of the key policy measures is the Capitation Grant Scheme.

Through the Capitation Grant Scheme, Ghana embarked on a national initiative for the provision of universal primary education in 2004/2005 academic year. This initiative sought to bolster its constitution, in which free, compulsory and universal primary education is mandated, and to support its FCUBE programme which was established as an outgrowth of this constitutional mandate. Despite an existing policy of fee-free tuition in basic schools post-1996 as outlined by FCUBE, many districts continue to charge students levies to attend school as a means of raising funds to cover school-related expenses. The Capitation Grant Scheme was introduced to support financially and administratively the policy of free, universal primary education. It was expected to remove the financial barrier to enrolment in schools while, at the same time, compensating schools for any loss of revenue incurred by eliminating student levies. The Capitation Grant



⁴See http://savannahnewsblogspotcom.blogspot.com/2012/02/assessment

Scheme sought to encourage effective implementation of decentralization by empowering schools to plan and carry out school quality improvement activities using accountability guidelines and forms.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the conceptual framework of the Ghana School Capitation Grant. The core assumptions (indicated by the top box) which form the basis of the programme are that basic schools will no longer charge school fees, parents will enrol more of their children if no fees are charged and the rate of educational attainment will increase overall. These objectives are to be achieved through the activities outlined in the middle box with broken lines some of which are training of officers, school enrolment activities, grant disbursement, allocation and spending by schools and submission of returns by school heads. These activities are intended to produce the desired outputs, outcomes and impact (all indicated in boxes with blue lines at the right hand side of the figure) which are based on the programme's assumptions and objectives. However, to truly push the programme's activities to a successful end, it requires certain key commitments such as funding, accountability and strategic guidelines as indicated with boxes in green at the left hand side of figure 2.1.



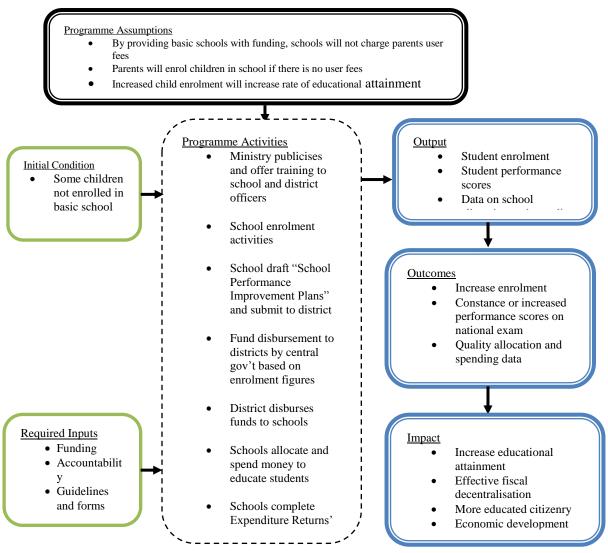


Figure 2.1: The conceptual framework of the Ghana School Capitation Grant **Source: UNESCO (2009)**

Literature suggests that, every society recognizes the importance of education to human and national development, and are therefore, drawing strategies, policies and programmes to enhance the quality of education at all levels. However, the worrying situation is the large numbers of children being out of school for various reasons including poverty. Poverty in particular, has been cited as the main cause of children not being in school.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the methodology used for the study. The chapter begins with a description of the study area, the research design, and the targeted population. The chapter specifically outlines the major tools of analysis and data test procedures with regards to the research objectives. Variable specification and description together with data collection procedures are also discussed in this section.

3.1 Study Area

Tamale Metropolis is one of the 26 districts in the Northern Region. It is located in the central part of the Region and shares boundaries with the Sagnarigu District to the west and north, Mion District to the east, East Gonja to the south and Central Gonja to the south-west. The Metropolis has a total estimated land size of 646.90180sqkm (GSS-2010). Geographically, the Metropolis lies between latitude 9° 16 and 9° 34 North and longitudes 0° 36 and 0° 57 West.

Tamale is strategically located in the Northern Region and by this strategic location, the Metropolis has a market potential for local goods from the agricultural and commerce sectors from the other districts in the region. Besides the comparative location of the Metropolis within the region, the area stands to gain from markets within the West African region from countries such as Burkina



Faso, Niger, Mali and the northern part of Togo and also en-route through the area to the southern part of Ghana (GSS, 2014).

There are 115 communities in the Metropolis. Most of the rural communities have a large expanse of land for agricultural activities and serve as the food basket for the Metropolis. However, these communities still lack basic social and economic infrastructure such as good road networks, school blocks, hospitals, markets and recreational centers, thereby hindering socio-economic development, poverty reduction and reducing the general phenomenon of rural-urban migration (GSS, 2014).

The metropolis has a total number of 219,971 households, living in 19,387 houses. The average household size in the metropolis is 6.3 persons per household. Children constitute the largest proportion of the household structure accounting for 40.4 % and heads of household make up 16.1% of the household population. Spouses form about 9.4% and other relatives constitute 12.9% of the population. The proportion of households who live in extended household structure (head, spouse(s), children and head's relatives) constitute the largest proportion (46.1%) than that of any other type of household structure. Nuclear households (head, spouse(s) and children) constitute only 19.5% of households in the metropolis (GSS, 2011).

Tamale metropolis is populated by the Dagomba people who speak Dagbani and the majority are followers of Islam, as reflected by the multitude of mosques in the town, most notably the central mosque. About 60 % of the people are engaged in agriculture and most of them especially in rural of the metropolis are small



scale farmers (MoFA, 2010). Tamale metropolis is the principal centre of education in northern Ghana. As at 2014, there were a total of 742 schools within the metropolis. Public schools comprise 94 kindergartens, 304 primaries, 112 Junior High Schools and 10 Senior High Schools. technical/vocational institutions, two colleges of Education, a polytechnic and two universities -one public and the other private. In the Education Ridge neighbourhood in the north-western part of the town and covering an area of about 3 km, 20 schools ranging from kindergartens through junior high and senior high schools, Teacher Training colleges, the Tamale Polytechnic and a university are located. The headquarters of the University for Development Studies is located in Tamale. According to the Tamale metropolitan education office however, with the creation of the Sagnarigu District, the metropolis now has a total of 160 primary schools and 49 Junior High Schools based on which the study is going to dwell on very much. Figure 3.1 below is the geographical map of Tamale metropolis.



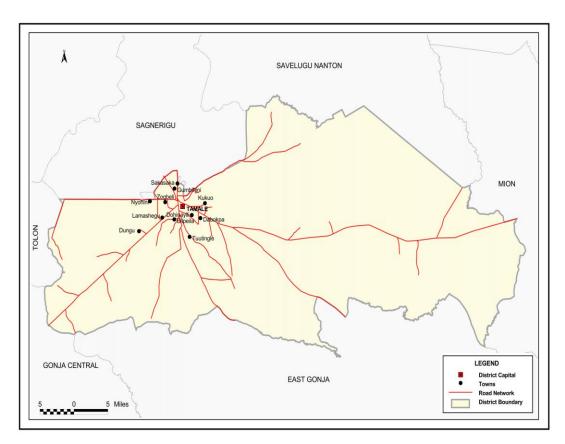


Figure 3.1: Map of Tamale Metropolis Source: Ghana Statistical Service, 2014.

3.2 Study Design

The study used a cross-sectional survey which is used to examine one variable in different groups that are similar in all other characteristics. Cross-sectional survey involves using different groups of people who differ in the variable of interest but share other characteristics, such as socio-economic status, educational background, and ethnicity. Data instruments such as structured and semi-structured questionnaires; face- to-face interviews and Focus Group Discussions (FGD) were used. All these methods took place in the schools and at the Metropolitan Education Office. Due to the difficulty in selecting these different groups of respondents, a combination of purposive and random sampling techniques was used. The choice of these techniques was based on the fact that, the respondents were made up of different groups including School heads,



teachers, Parent Teacher Association (PTA) Executives and School Management Committee (SMC) members, Circuit Supervisors, parents and pupils. For data analysis and presentation, the study adopted mainly descriptive statistics by using tables, frequencies and cross tabulation.

3.3 Targeted Population Size

Targeted population refers to the entire group of individuals or objects to which the research is interested in generalizing the conclusions. The target population usually has varying characteristics and it is also known as the theoretical population.

The Tamale Metropolitan Education Office as of January 2014 reported that there were about 14 educational circuits in the metropolis⁵. As shown on Tables 3.1 and 3.2, the targeted population for both primary and JHS are as follows;

Table 3.1 shows that the number of primary schools in the study area were 158 with 771 teachers, 790 School Management Committee (SMC) members, 632 Parent Teacher Association (PTA) executives and a student population of 38,937.

Table 3.2 shows that the number of Junior High Schools (JHS) in the study area was 57 with a teacher population of 823 and a student population of 15,400. SMC members of 285 and 228 PTA executives from the 14 circuits were used as control variables in the assessment of the impact Capitation Grants have on public basic schools.



⁵Data from the Statistics Department – Tamale Metro Education Office

Table 3.1: Targeted Populations in Primary Schools by Circuit

S/N	Circuit	No of Schools	student Pop	Teachers	SMCs	PTA Exes
1	Sakasaka	11	3976	99	55	44
2	Gumbihini	10	2414	115	50	40
3	Changni	11	2894	52	55	44
4	Hospital	12	4062	65	60	48
5	Dabokpa	12	2859	60	60	48
6	Yendi Road	9	1357	27	45	36
7	Salaga Road	9	1479	26	45	36
8	Aboabo	10	1786	38	50	40
9	Bamvim	12	2011	38	60	48
10	Kaladan	12	3762	41	60	48
11	Kpanvo	14	2343	57	70	56
12	Kumasi Road	12	2471	46	60	48
13	Lamashegu	13	3359	53	65	52
14	Zogbeli	11	4154	54	55	44
Total		158	38,927	771	790	632

Source: Tamale Metropolitan Education Office MIS Data base, 2013

Table 3.2: Targeted Populations in Junior High School by Circuit

S/N	Circuit	No of Schools	Student Pop	Teachers	SMCs	PTA Exects.
1	Sakasaka	6	2259	96	30	24
2	Gumbihin	2	545	15	10	8
3	Changni	4	1082	66	20	16
4	Hospital	6	1718	91	30	24
5	Dabokpa	9	2230	139	45	36
6	Yendi Road	1	69	9	5	4
7	Salaga Road	1	28	11	5	4
8	Aboabo	2	301	16	10	8
9	Bamvim	3	382	23	15	12
10	Kaladan	7	2213	105	35	28
11	Kpanvo	2	195	20	10	8
12	Kumasi Road	2	235	17	10	8
13	Lamashegu	4	1012	50	20	16
14	Zogbeli	8	3131	165	40	32
TOTAL		57	15,400	823	285	228
	T 1 3 7 4	104 17 1 40	O 000 3 #TO		2012	

Source: Tamale Metropolitan Education Office MIS Data base, 2013



3.4 Sampling Procedure

A total of 100 schools comprising 78 Primary and 22 Junior High Schools were randomly selected. One hundred schools were selected because it represented almost 50 % of the entire schools. The selection of the schools followed systematic random sampling technique. This method was applied because the population of the schools was logically homogeneous⁶ and the sample units uniformly distributed across the 14 educational circuits of the Tamale Metropolis. Within the sampled schools, the study also adopted stratified sampling technique to select 28 PTA executives, 58 teachers and 28 School Management Committee (SMC) Members and 50 parents. The Stratified sampling is a probability sampling technique wherein the researcher divided the entire population into different subgroups or strata, then randomly selected the final subjects proportionally from the different strata. This method was adopted because the groups are sub-groups within the larger school population who also contribute to the administration and welfare of the schools. In the view of Shahrokh and Edward (2014), stratification is the process of dividing members of the population into homogeneous subgroups before sampling and the strata should also be collectively exhaustive. The list of all these groups of respondents were obtained from the various school heads of the sampled schools.



Table 3.3 illustrates the public basic school population and the numbers of schools selected for the study. The selection of the schools was intended to ensure fair representation of all the 14 educational circuits in the metropolis. As seen on Table 3.3, at least not less 50 % each of primary schools and Junior High Schools

⁶See Ken Black (2004) *Business Statistics for Contemporary Decision Making (Fourth Wiley Student Edition for India) Wiley-India.* <u>ISBN 978-81-265-0809-9</u>.

were selected. For the private schools which represented non-capitation schools, 10 schools were selected through purposive sampling technique. This was mainly due to the limited number of these schools, their concentration in some circuits and also most of them were new schools which started operation in 2009 onwards a period long after the implementation of the Capitation Grant.

Table 3.3: Populations of Public Basic Schools in Tamale Metropolis and Selected Sample

Population of school by circuit					Sampled	schools	S
S/N	Circuit	Primary	JHS	Total	Primary	JHS	Total
1	Sakasaka	11	6	17	5	2	7
2	Gumbihini	10	2	12	5	1	6
3	Changni	11	4	15	5	2	7
4	Hospital Road	12	6	18	5	2	7
5	Dabokpa	12	9	21	5	2	7
6	Yendi Road	9	1	10	5	1	6
7	Salaga	9	1	10	5	1	6
8	Aboabo	10	2	12	6	1	7
9	Banvim	12	3	15	5	1	6
10	Kaladan	12	7	19	5	2	7
11	Kpanvo	14	2	16	8	1	9
12	Kumasi Road	12	2	14	5	1	6
13	Lamashegu	13	4	17	6	2	8
14	Zogbeli	11	8	19	8	3	11
	TOTAL	158	57	215	78	22	100

Source: Author's compilation – June 2014



3.5 Sources of Data

The researcher collected data from primary and secondary sources. Respondents such as circuit supervisors, pupils, School Management Committee (SMC) members, PTA executives, were interviewed orally using interview guide as seen in appendices 'III' and 'IV'. Structured questionnaires were designed for head teachers, teachers and parents as seen in appendices 'I' and 'II' (see pp.137 and 142). This method was adopted because the study population was made up of different individuals with varying characteristics.

The secondary data sources were mainly from Ghana Education Service (both Tamale metropolis and National), MIS data and other previous works on the topic under discussion. Data on school enrolment and Tamale Metropolis Education profile was obtained from school heads and the Ministry of Education website. The justification for this is that, the University for Development Studies gave an introductory letter which was given to the Metropolitan Education Director for approval to be given for data collection. The education Director in turn gave a letter of introduction to be given to all the selected school heads under the jurisdiction of the metropolitan education office.

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

The study used questionnaires as the major data collection methods. For example, in dealing with how beneficiary schools apply the Capitation Grant, the extent to which the Capitation Grant affect enrolment, retention and performance, information was gathered through administered questionnaire since these mainly involved values. However, with regard to how the Capitation Grant ensures



quality of teaching and learning the study used interviews and structured questionnaires as tools of data collection. With respect to measuring how Capitation Grant affects gender parity in schools, data on gross enrolment for boys and girls were used. The data were obtained from school heads and the Tamale Metropolitan Education database. Interviews were used to collect data from circuit supervisors, School Management Committees, PTA members and school pupils as seen in appendix 'B'.

3.7 Data Quality Measures

For secondary data, the study relied only on credible sources mostly which were the Ghana Statistical Services, Ministry of Education, Tamale Metropolitan Education, UNICEF, UNESCO and other well recognised institutions. The questionnaires were administered personally together with six field assistants to respondents. The researcher and five field assistants explained the details of the questionnaire to the respondents thoroughly in order to prevent respondents skipping, avoiding or giving wrong information to certain key questions. The purpose was to help the respondents understand the content of the questionnaire and to do away with ambiguities, suspicions, partiality and also to be able to provide independent opinions and views. The researcher established a good relationship with respondents throughout the questionnaire distribution and collection periods to enable them feel comfortable so as to give independent and accurate information. Questionnaires were finally refined before its final administration to respondents. Payment made to the field assistants was contingent upon accurate administration of the questionnaire.

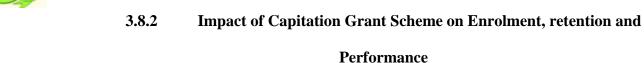


3.8 Method of Data Presentation and Analysis

This study adopted mainly descriptive statistics in the analysis. Data on the application of Capitation Grant, Pupils enrolment, performance and gender parity were processed with the help of Microsoft Excel programme which was presented on tables, charts and cross tabulation.

3.8.1 Examining how Capitation Grants are applied in Schools

A number of key variables which describe the activities to be undertaken in schools under the Capitation Grant policy were used in this analysis. Some of the key activities undertaken were the following: enrolment drives, provision of teaching and learning materials, school management (including stationery), community and school relationship, support to needy pupils, minor repairs, and payment of sports and culture levies (to be approved nationwide). In this regard contingency tables were used to connect the data (showing the levels and adequacy) on these variables from the various sampled schools with a sample size of 100 comprising 78 primary schools and 22 JHS using a cross section data for 2011.



The research used descriptive statistics to analyse this objective. Data were analysed using, histogram, cross tabulation and frequency tables. This is a comparative analysis and the study compared the differences in enrolment, retention and performance rates between selected capitation schools and non-capitation schools from 2001 to 2012. For performance, the study used the average third term scores of pupils in upper primary (P4, P5 and P6) and the Basic



Education Certificate Examination scores for English and Mathematics⁷ for Junior High Schools for the 2010/2011 academic year.

3.8.3 Impact of Capitation Grant on Gender Parity in Schools

The Gender Party Index (GPI) is a socio-economic index usually designed to measure the relative access to education of males and females. In its simplest form, it is calculated as the quotient of the number of females by the number of males enrolled in a given stage of education. The Gender Parity Index (GPI) reflects females' level of access to education compared to that of males. This is calculated for each school phase. A GPI of less than 1 indicates that there are fewer females than males in the formal education system in proportion to the appropriate school-age population. A GPI of more than 1 means that there are proportionately more girls than boys attending school.

A score of 1 reflects equal enrolment rates for boys and girls. To calculate the Gross Enrolment Ratio one must first determine the population of official school age for each level of education with reference to the theoretical starting ages and durations of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCE). Level 1 (primary education) and Levels 2 and 3 (secondary education) as reported by the country. The population of the official age for tertiary education is the 5-year age group immediately following the end of secondary education. Then, the number of pupils or students enrolled in each level of education is divided by the population of official school age for that level of education, and the result is multiplied by 100. The Gross Enrolment Ratios for males and females are calculated separately.

⁷ Achievement criteria for Capitation Grant in Ghana



The Gender Parity Index (GPI) is then calculated by dividing the female Gross Enrolment Ratio by the male Gross Enrolment Ratio for the given level of education. This method requires information on the structure of education (theoretical entrance age and duration of ISCED 97 Level 1 and Levels 2 and 3), enrolments in each level of education and the populations of the age-groups corresponding to the given levels of education. Separate figures for males and females are required (De Lannoy *et al.*, 2010).

Following this review, the Gender Parity Index was calculated for Primary and Junior High Schools using separate figures for boys and girls from 2000/01 to 2011/12 academic years in the Tamale metropolis. For the purpose of this study it is estimated as;

Gender Parity Index $(GPI_{SCH})_t = \frac{Girls\ Gross\ Enrolment\ Ratio_t}{Boys\ Gross\ Enrolment\ Ratio_t}$

Where SCH = Primary School or Junior High School and <math>t = is the time period indicating the academic year.

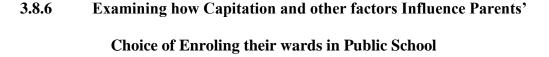
3.8.4 Limitations of the GPI

The GPI indicator is an imperfect measure of the accessibility of schooling for girls because it does not allow a determination of whether improvements in the ratio reflect increases in girls' school enrolment (desirable) or decreases in boys' enrolment (undesirable). It also does not show whether the overall level of participation in education is low or high. However, since the GPI was employed only to determine whether the Capitation Grant Scheme would enhance Gender parity in school enrolment, this limitation has been downplayed.



3.8.5 Impact of Capitation Grant on Quality of Teaching and Learning

There is no clear cut definition or explanation of what exactly constitute quality teaching and learning. However, in this study quality teaching refers to all teaching activities that contribute positively to the academic performance of pupils in basic schools. According to Hammond (2011), some of the factors that influence the quality of teaching and learning in schools are administrative supports for instruction, mentoring and professional development of the teacher, curriculum and assessments that support meaningful instruction, collaborative planning that builds knowledge and creates coherence, and availability of high-quality materials (a case for capitation grant). A Performance model indicating the average scores for a term of pupils in upper primary (P4, P5 and P6) and year 3 of JHS was used to examine the effect of capitation on the quality of teaching and learning. A correlation matrix was also developed to show whether there is any correlation between the provision and use of Teaching Learning Materials (TLM) and the averages cores of pupils which is used as a measure of quality teaching and learning.



This study used responses obtained from the survey of parents from the study area. The questionnaire for this objective was administered mainly through interviews. A sample of 50 parents whose wards have been enrolled in public schools for at least two years were randomly selected from 50 public schools in the study area.



In this section, a statistical analysis of the survey responses was conducted in order to identify possible trends. In order to predict the probability of choosing certain enrolment criteria as very important, important, or not important frequencies and percentages were used to tabulate the responses of parents regarding factors which influence them to enroll their wards in public basic schools. The explanatory variables which were hypothesized to influence parents' choice of public school as against private school were as follows;

Quality of teachers, school approach to discipline, academic reputation, school structures, Capitation Grant, level of education of parent, proximity of school to parents or wards residents, affordability of fees and other costs, teaching of moral values consistent with parents own values, and Paying attention to child specific needs.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study. First it presents descriptive statistics of the socio-economic characteristics of respondents (Head teachers, teachers, parents and pupils). The chapter also discusses how capitation grants are applied in school and how it affects enrolment, retention, and performance of pupils from both primary and Junior High schools. The chapter concludes with discussions of the effect of Capitation Grant on gender parity and the quality of teaching and learning in the study area.

4.1 Characteristics of Selected Schools

The demographic characteristics of sampled schools were analysed using level of school, year of establishment, number of schools under capitation, nature of classrooms and furniture. These variables were carefully selected in order to measure how well Capitation Grant had improved school infrastructure. From Table 4.1, 100 schools were selected of which 78 were primary schools and 22 were Junior High Schools. Table 4.2 suggests that 68% of beneficiary schools were established more than ten years before the introduction of the Capitation Grant Scheme with about 6% being established between one to five years after the introduction of the scheme. This gave a fair representation of the sampled schools because the major objective of this study was to determine the impact of the Capitation Grant Scheme on enrolment, performance and retention and it would have been out of place to select a sizeable number of schools that had enjoyed capitation just after five years of its launch. Besides, several variables could be



used to measure performance of pupils at the primary and Junior High School levels including years of service (i.e. how long the school has been active).

Table 4.1: Level of Schools

Level	Frequency	Percent
Primary	78	78.0
JHS	22	22.0
Total	100	100.0

Source: Survey data, June 2014

Table 4.2: Years of Schools Establishment

Year of Establishment	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1-5 years before CG	8	8.0
6-10 years before CG	18	18.0
Above 10 years before CG	68	68.0
1-5 years after CG	6	6.0
Total	100	100.0

Source: Survey data, June 2014

Of the 100 sampled schools, 62% were not part of the pilot schools when the scheme was introduced in 2004, while 35% were piloted schools and 3% did not know their status. 69% and 60% of the sampled schools respectively did not have adequate furniture and classrooms to facilitate effective teaching and learning.

4.2 Application of Capitation Grants in Sampled Schools

This section deals with how Capitation Grants were applied in the schools. To determine how Capitation Grants were applied in schools, head teachers, teachers and parents were asked questions relating to the purchase of items and school activities pertaining to the guidelines for spending Capitation Grant. For the head teachers who are the managers of the Capitation Grant at the school level,



questions were asked about whether the grants were used to purchase items or perform certain activities in the school. These include textbooks, Teaching Learning Material (TLM), stationary, sports and culture, minor repairs, computers/ICT, health and sanitation, environmental sustainability, In-service Training for Teachers (INSET), and school management activities. A positive response meant schools were spending their Capitation Grant on the items mentioned and a negative response is otherwise. The items selected are all part of the scheme to promote enrolment drives and the objective of relieving parents of all forms of fees at the basic level. Teachers and parents were also interviewed relating to their involvement in administration or application of the Capitation Grant. Out of the 100 sampled schools according to the head teachers', almost 100% did not use the Capitation Grant on textbooks, 80% spent the grant on stationery, and 35% spent on sports and culture, 90% on minor repairs, 25% on health and sanitation 6% on environment, 32% on In-service Training for teachers 62% spent on school management activities⁸. According to the school heads, all the items mentioned above are purchased by the school.



The conclusion from the interviews held with the head teachers', teachers' and Parents is that, the schools do not use the Capitation Grant for textbook attesting to the fact that textbooks are provided by the Ghana Education Service to all public schools for free. The core of the expenditures is made on Teaching Learning Materials, stationary, minor repairs and school management⁹ as over 60% of the schools apply their capitation on these items.

Further analysis on how the grant is applied is presented in Table 4.3. Among all the items covered by capitation according to the heads, the provision of teaching

⁸ An activity that involves conducting terminal exams, workshops and social issues

and learning materials and minor repairs are the two most popular and significant items the schools (both primary and JHS) spent their Capitation Grants on. 52% of schools spent a greater proportion of their Capitation Grant on minor repairs of broken furniture, broken doors, plastering of cracked walls and floor among others, while 25% spent theirs on teaching learning materials. Environmental sustainability which includes planting of trees and flowers around the school compound takes the least expenditure as only 1% of the sampled schools spent their Capitation Grant on that item.

Table 4.3: Highest Expenditure Rankings of Items in Capitation

Items	Frequency	Per centage (%)
Minor Repairs	52	52
TLM	25	25
Stationery	9	9
School Management	7	7
Sports & Culture	3	3
Health and Sanitation	2	2
Environmental Sustainability	1	1
Don't Know	1	1
Total	100	100

Source: Survey data (June 2014)

The application of the Capitation Grant in the manner as shown in Table 4.3 confirms the conditions of school facilities especially, those covered by the grant.

As seen in Table 4.4, teaching leaning materials are quite good and up to date in the schools as 78% of the sampled schools had their TLM in good condition followed by textbooks where 68% of the schools had enough stock of textbook which were still new. However, the condition of textbooks in the schools could not be attributed to the Capitation Grant since none of the schools spent the



Capitation Grant on textbooks. Only 44% had their health and sanitation facilities in good shape. Interestingly also, 49% of the schools had poor sports facilities and this could be attributable to the fact that the affected schools spent less of the capitation on these facilities as illustrated in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Condition of Items covered by Capitation Grant in schools

Items	Current condition	Percentage of schools (%)
Teaching Learning Materia	ls Good	78
Textbooks	Good	68
Furniture	Good	62
Sports facilities	Not Good	49
Health and Sanitation	Not Good	44

Source: Survey data (June 2014)

Table 4.5 using cross tabulation, primary schools and Junior High Schools were compared with regard to regularity of Capitation Grant disbursement. Specifically, school heads were asked whether the Capitation Grants were received at the beginning, middle or end of the term in each academic year. The analysis here was based on the time that each individual school actually received the Capitation Grant from the Tamale Metropolitan Education office. Again in this analysis, quite regular means Capitation Grant was received after 1st term of the academic year while quite irregular suggests that the grant was received after 1st and 2nd terms and very irregular means it was received in the following academic year. The results showed that, overall 55% of all the sampled schools had quite regular Capitation Grant while 24% and 21% respectively had quite regular and very irregular Capitation Grant disbursed for three academic years. This analysis is made bearing in mind that the release of Capitation Grant by central government

is done at the same time across the country. The differences in time of receiving the grant by the schools according to the head teachers and the circuit supervisors was due to the late submission of returns and other administrative bottlenecks at the Tamale Metropolitan Education Office.

Table 4.5: Regularity of Capitation Grant in 2010, 2011 and 2012 Academic Years

School	Quite regular	Quite irregular	Very irregular	Total
Primary	18	42	18	78
JHS	6	13	2	22
Total	24	55	20	100

Source: Survey data, June 2014

4.3 Impact of Capitation Grant Scheme on Enrolment, Retention and Performance

In this section, analysis of enrolment, retention and performance of pupils in both Primary and Junior High Schools are presented using descriptive statistics. Historical data of these variables (enrolment, retention and performance) were collected through structured questionnaires. The data covered 2001 to 2012 and the main objective was to make 'before and after analysis¹⁰ 'of the Capitation Scheme. A 4- year period was used neach for both 'before' and 'after' the introduction of the Capitation Grant Scheme. From 2001 to 2004 represented period before the Capitation while from 2005 to 2009 represented period after the introduction of Capitation. The analysis was even extended to 2012.



¹⁰ Enrolment, retention and performance statistics of schools before and after the introduction of capitation grant.

4.3.1 Enrolment and Retention in Primary Schools

This section explains enrolment and retention trends of Primary Schools from 2001 to 2012. It covers enrolment and retention trends at the primary level.

4.3.1.1 Enrolment

Enrolment trend in the sampled primary schools differs from that of the Junior High Schools during the period 2001 to 2012. Analysis of the enrolment is presented in figure 4.1 and Table 4.10. Total enrolment rose from 21,044 in the year 2001 to 23,445 in 2004 showing an increase of about 10.2% over the 4-year period before the implementation of the Capitation Grant. There was a massive increase after Capitation Grant Scheme was piloted in the 2004/2005 academic year as total enrolment in the sampled schools increased from 26,214 to 30,079 in the year 2005/2006 academic year representing about 12.8% but recorded marginal decline in 2007 and 2008. In the 2010/2011 academic year, it increased substantially to a record high of 31,864. In 2011 and 2012, enrolment declined marginally to 31,323 and 30,389 respectively showing a difference of 934. At this point, it is unclear whether the application of Capitation Grant was responsible for the trend in enrolment though enrolment was relatively higher after the implementation of the Capitation Grant Scheme compared to the periods before 2005. In effect, for a 4 - year period after the implementation of the Capitation Grant Scheme there was an increase in enrolment for about 16.7%. The same view is held by the World Bank, (2009), MOE (2008), Adamu- Issah et al. (2007), and Acheampong et al. (2007) that the Capitation Grant Scheme has had a positive impact on enrolment.



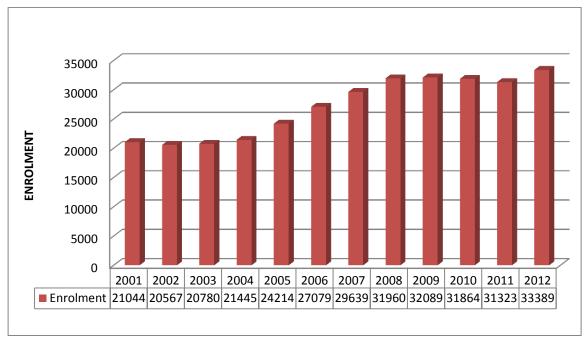


Figure 4.1: Enrolment in Primary Schools (2001-2012) (n=78) Source: Author's compilation from MIS Data of Tamale Metro Education Office

Table 4.6 presents further analysis of the enrolment in Primary schools. Columns 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 depict the status (periods before and after the implementation of the CG) academic years, boys' enrolement, girls' enrolment, total enrolment and Gender Parity Index (GPI) respectively. Clearly, enrolment for boys' for the 78 schools was higher than that of the girls' throughout the period under review. The table further illustrates the Gender Parity Index for the entire period. The Gender Parity Index showed tremendous improvement after the introduction of the Capitation Grant especially, in the years 2008, 2010 and 2011 even though it was not close to parity within these periods but an improvement over the period before the implementation of the Capitation Grant.



Table 4.6: Enrolment before and after Capitation Grant in Primary Schools (n=78)

	Academic	Boys	Girls		Gender Parity
Status	Year	Enrolment	Enrolment	Total	Index
	2001/2002	12943	8,101	21044	0.63
Before	2002/2003	13966	8,601	22567	0.62
Capitation	2003/2004	13642	9,138	22780	0.67
_	2004/2005	14967	10,478	25445	0.70
	2005/2006	14818	11,423	26241	0.77
	2006/2007	16833	13,246	30079	0.79
	2007/2008	16726	12913	29639	0.77
After	2008/2009	15851	13109	28960	0.83
Capitation	2009/2010	17190	12899	30089	0.75
	2010/2011	17492	14472	31964	0.83
	2011/2012	17311	14012	31323	0.81
	2012/2013	16941	13448	30389	0.79

Source: Extract from Tamale Metro Education Office MIS Database (2001-2011)

4.3.1.2 Retention

In analysing retention rates in the Primary Schools, head teachers and teachers were asked to provide information regarding total number of boys and girls who were in school from 2001 to 2012. The information was given by the heads and the teachers' and the results of drop-out in primary schools are presented in Table 4.7. Overall, total enrolment for boys for each academic year was higher than total enrolment for girls for the ten year period. For the drop-out statistics, higher values were recorded for girls than for boys. There were significant reductions in drop-out after the introduction of the Capitation Grant as shown in Table 4.7 below especially, from the year 2007, two years after the implementation of the scheme.



www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh

Table Drop-out Statistics in Primary Schools (n= 78)4.7:

Status	Acad. Year	Enrolment	Boys	Girls	Boys Drop -out	Girls Drop- out	Total Drop- out	Drop-out Ratio
	2001/02	21,044	12,943	8,101	158	172	330	0.01568
Before	2002/03	22,567	13,966	8,601	177	190	367	0.01626
Capitation	2003/04	22,780	13,642	9,138	195	225	420	0.01844
	2004/05	25,445	14,967	10,478	227	254	481	0.0189
	2005/06	26,241	14,818	11,423	138	208	346	0.01319
	2006/07	30,079	16,833	13,246	84	126	210	0.00698
	2007/08	29,639	16,726	12,913	32	70	102	0.00344
After	2008/09	28,960	15,851	13,109	34	63	97	0.00335
Capitation	2009/10	30,089	17,190	12,899	30	45	75	0.00249
	2010/11	31,964	17,492	14,472	17	26	43	0.00135
	2011/12	31,323	17,,311	14,012	11	15	26	0.00083
	2012/13	30,389	16,941	13,448	9	10	19	0.000625

Source: Author's computation from survey data, June 2001 -2012

Table 4.8 shows the drop-out in frequencies and per centage terms. As can be seen from the table, the drop-out per centages for both boys and girls in the 78 primary schools before Capitation was in all cases above 1% while per centage was less than 1 % after Capitation Grant with the exception of the year 2005 when it was piloted for the same 78 schools. The total drop-out column figures are calculated by summing up the drop-out figures for both boys and girls for each year and expressing it as a per centage of the enrolment figures for each year. For instance, to arrive at the total drop-out figure in per centage terms for 2001, we sum up the drop-out figure for both boys and girls as shown in Table 4.7 and express it as a per cerntage of total enrolment for the year in question. That is, 330/21,044*100 = 1.57 as shown in Table 4.8 below.



Table 4.8: Percentage Drop-out Primary Schools (n= 78)

Status	Acad. Year	Boys Drop-out (%)	Girls Drop-out (%)	Total (%)
Before	2001/02	1.22	2.12	1.57
	2002/03	1.27	2.21	1.63
	2003/04	1.43	2.46	1.84
Capitation	2004/05	1.52	2.42	1.89
After	2005/06	0.93	1.82	1.32
	2006/07	0.50	0.95	0.70
	2007/08	0.19	0.54	0.34
	2008/09	0.21	0.48	0.34
	2009/10	0.17	0.35	0.25
	2010/11	0.10	0.18	0.14
Capitation	2011/12	0.06	0.11	0.08
	2012/13	0.05	0.07	0.06

Source: Author's computation from survey data, June 2001 -2012

Figure 4.2 shows that the drop-out rates from 2001 to 2005 were relatively higher especially, between 2003 and 2004 compared to the periods 2006 to 2012. There were significant drops in 2011 (0.08%) and 2012 (0.06%).

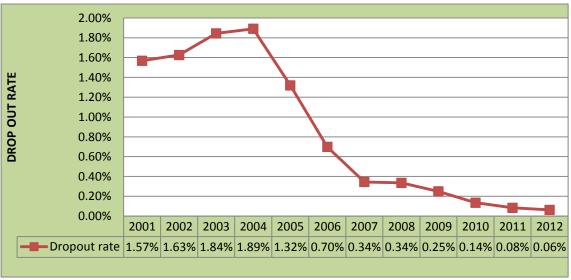


Figure 4.2: Drop-out Rate of Pupils in Primary Schools (n=78) Source: Author's computation from survey data, June 2014.

4.3.2 Enrolment and Retention in Junior High Schools

This section also explains the enrolment and retention trends in Junior High Schools from 2001 to 2012.



4.3.2.1 Enrolment

Figure 4.3 shows the enrolment trend for Junior High Schools. The enrolment rose steadily from 2,456 in 2001 to 9,038 between the years 2001 and 2009 showing about 70% increase between the periods. However, it fell marginally to 8,209 in 2010 and 8,553 in 2011. In the year 2012, enrolment increased marginally by about 6% to 9,038. The conclusion here is that after a year of the implementation of the Capitation Grant scheme, enrolment in Junior High Schools increased steadily until 2010 when there were marginal decreases. However, in 2012 it increased to a record high of 9,038. This could suggest that the schools have been proactive in the implementation of the Capitation Grant in their enrolment derives. In effect enrolment before the implementation of Capitation Grant between 2001 to 2004 increased by almost 31.2% while after the introduction, Capitation in five years (from 2004 to 2009) enrolment increased by about 50.6%. This shows that the implementation of the Capitation Grant Scheme has had a positive impact on enrolment at the basic school level and this is consistent with the views held by MOE (2010), World Bank (2009), and Acheampong (2007).



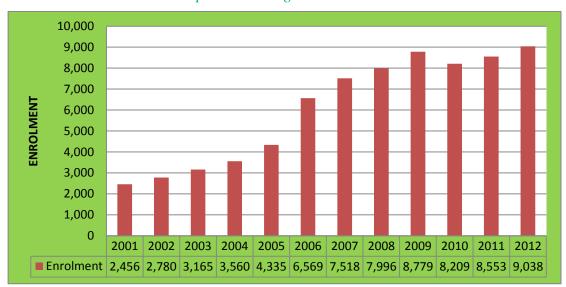


Figure 4.3: Enrolment for Junior High School (n=22) Source: Author's computation from survey data, June 2014

Table 4.9 presents a further analysis of enrolment including Gender parity for the 22 JHS. Columns 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 show the period before and after capitation, the respective years under consideration, total enrolment for the respective years, enrolment for boys, enrolment for girls and Gender Parity Index (GPI) respectively. The statistics in the table indicates that there were more boys enrolled in Junior High School than girls throughout the period though with improvement in gender parity. Periods before and after capitation both showed progressive increases in the GPI. However, the GPI was close to parity in 2008/2009 and 2009/2010 academic years.



Table 4.9: Enrolment Before and After Capitation Grant in Junior High School (n=22)

Denoor (II-	,				
	Academic				
Status	Year	Total Enrolment	Boys	Girls	GPI
Before	2000/01	2,456	1,401	1,055	0.75
	2001/02	2,780	1,561	1,219	0.78
	2002/03	3,565	1,924	1,641	0.85
Capitation	2003/04	4,560	2,470	2,090	0.85
	2004/05	5,335	3,042	2,734	0.90
After	2005//06	6,569	4,110	3,740	0.91
	2006/07	7,518	4,203	3,900	0.93
	2007/08	7,996	4,574	4,221	0.92
	2008/09	8,779	4,823	4,630	0.96
Capitation	2009/10	8,209	4,985	4,731	0.95
	2010/11	8,553	4,706	4,468	0.95
	2011/12	9,038	5,232	4,702	0.90

Source: Extracts from Tamale Metro Education Office MIS Database, June 2014

4.3.2.2 Retention

To analyse retention rates for the 22 Junior High Schools, head teachers and teachers were asked to provide information regarding total number of boys and girls who were in school from 2001 to 2012. The number of pupils who dropped out of school for the period was estimated to be very high as shown in Table 4.10.



Starting with Table 4.10, columns 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 shows the status of Capitation Grant, the year in question, total enrolment for both boys and girls, enrolment for only boys and enrolment for only girls respectively. Columns 6, 7, 8 and 9 also depict drop-out for boys, drop-out for girls, total drop-out for both boys and girls and drop-out ratio. Enrolment for boys and girls increased steadily between 2001 and 2012 with boys' enrolment being higher than that of girls. The drop-out figures show a decline for both boys and girls in 2005 to 2012. The drop-outs for both boys and girls were quite higher in 2005 which was a pilot year for the programme. In 2011 however, total drop-out rate was much lower as shown in Table 4.10.

www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh

Table 4.10: Drop-out Statistics in Junior High Schools (n=22)

Table 4.10. Drop-out Statistics in Jumor Trigit Schools (ii = 22)							
Δcad	Total			Boys	Girls		Drop-
		Boys	Girls	Drop-	Drop-	Total	out
1 cai	Linoiment			out	out	Total	Ratio
2001/02	2,456	1,401	1,055	147	195	342	0.13925
2002/03	2,780	1,561	1,219	164	220	384	0.13813
2003/04	3,565	1,924	1,641	185	248	433	0.12146
2004/05	4,560	2,470	2,090	208	263	471	0.10329
2005/06	5,335	3,042	2,734	220	298	518	0.09709
2006/07	6,569	4,110	3,740	176	205	381	0.058
2007/08	7,518	4,203	3,900	128	133	261	0.03472
2008/09	7,996	4,574	4,221	94	115	209	0.02614
2009/10	8,779	4,823	4,630	66	92	158	0.018
2010/11	8,209	4,985	4,731	47	76	123	0.01498
2011/12	8,553	4,706	4,468	33	50	83	0.0097
2012/13	9,038	5,232	4,702	30	38	68	0.00752
	Acad. Year 2001/02 2002/03 2003/04 2004/05 2005/06 2006/07 2007/08 2008/09 2009/10 2010/11 2011/12	Acad. Total Enrolment 2001/02 2,456 2002/03 2,780 2003/04 3,565 2004/05 4,560 2005/06 5,335 2006/07 6,569 2007/08 7,518 2008/09 7,996 2009/10 8,779 2010/11 8,209 2011/12 8,553	Acad. YearTotal EnrolmentBoys2001/022,4561,4012002/032,7801,5612003/043,5651,9242004/054,5602,4702005/065,3353,0422006/076,5694,1102007/087,5184,2032008/097,9964,5742009/108,7794,8232010/118,2094,9852011/128,5534,706	Acad. Year Total Enrolment Boys Girls 2001/02 2,456 1,401 1,055 2002/03 2,780 1,561 1,219 2003/04 3,565 1,924 1,641 2004/05 4,560 2,470 2,090 2005/06 5,335 3,042 2,734 2006/07 6,569 4,110 3,740 2007/08 7,518 4,203 3,900 2008/09 7,996 4,574 4,221 2009/10 8,779 4,823 4,630 2010/11 8,209 4,985 4,731 2011/12 8,553 4,706 4,468	Acad. Year Total Enrolment Boys Girls Boys Dropout 2001/02 2,456 1,401 1,055 147 2002/03 2,780 1,561 1,219 164 2003/04 3,565 1,924 1,641 185 2004/05 4,560 2,470 2,090 208 2005/06 5,335 3,042 2,734 220 2006/07 6,569 4,110 3,740 176 2007/08 7,518 4,203 3,900 128 2008/09 7,996 4,574 4,221 94 2009/10 8,779 4,823 4,630 66 2010/11 8,209 4,985 4,731 47 2011/12 8,553 4,706 4,468 33	Acad. Year Total Enrolment Boys Girls Dropout Boys Dropout Girls Dropout 2001/02 2,456 1,401 1,055 147 195 2002/03 2,780 1,561 1,219 164 220 2003/04 3,565 1,924 1,641 185 248 2004/05 4,560 2,470 2,090 208 263 2005/06 5,335 3,042 2,734 220 298 2006/07 6,569 4,110 3,740 176 205 2007/08 7,518 4,203 3,900 128 133 2008/09 7,996 4,574 4,221 94 115 2009/10 8,779 4,823 4,630 66 92 2010/11 8,209 4,985 4,731 47 76 2011/12 8,553 4,706 4,468 33 50	Acad. Year Total Enrolment Boys Girls Dropout Boys Dropout Girls Dropout Total Dropout 2001/02 2,456 1,401 1,055 147 195 342 2002/03 2,780 1,561 1,219 164 220 384 2003/04 3,565 1,924 1,641 185 248 433 2004/05 4,560 2,470 2,090 208 263 471 2005/06 5,335 3,042 2,734 220 298 518 2006/07 6,569 4,110 3,740 176 205 381 2007/08 7,518 4,203 3,900 128 133 261 2008/09 7,996 4,574 4,221 94 115 209 2009/10 8,779 4,823 4,630 66 92 158 2010/11 8,209 4,985 4,731 47 76 123 2011/12 8,553

Source: Author's computation from survey data, June 2014

Table 4.11 shows the results of drop-outs in per centage terms for boys and girls for the 22 JHS. As can be seen, the drop-out rates showed a steady decline throughout the period. Relatively there were more drop-outs before capitation period than post capitation for boys and girls. The conclusion here is that after the implementation of the Capitation Grant Scheme, drop-out rates for pupils in Junior High Schools declined significantly. The total drop-out column figures are calculated by summing up the drop-out figures for both boys and girls for each year and expressing it as a per centage of the enrolment figures for each year. For instance, to arrive at the total drop-out figure in per centage terms of 13.93 (%): we sum up the drop-out figures for both boys and girls as shown in Table 4.10 and express it as a per centage of total enrolment for 2001 as shown below in Table 4.11:

(342 / 2, 456 * 100 = 13.93%)



Table 4.11: Drop-out Statistics for Boys and Girls in Junior High School (n=22)

	Academic	Boys Drop-out	Girls Drop-out	Total Drop-out
Status	Year	(%)	(%)	(%)
	2001/02	10.49	18.48	13.93
Before	2002/03	10.51	18.05	13.81
Capitation	2003/04	9.62	15.11	12.15
	2004/05	8.42	12.58	10.33
	2005/06	7.23	10.90	9.71
	2006/07	4.28	5.48	5.80
After	2007/08	3.05	3.41	3.47
	2008/09	2.06	2.72	2.61
Capitation	2009/10	1.37	1.99	1.80
	2010/11	0.94	1.61	1.50
	2011/12	0.70	1.12	0.97
	2012/13	0.57	0.81	0.75

Source: Author's computation from survey data, June 2014

Figure 4.4 shows a pictorial representation of the drop-out ratios for boys and girls in Junior High Schools for the eight year period. It shows that the drop-out rate for 2005 was high (3.66%) compared to the rates for 2006, 2007 and 2008 which were in each case close to 2%. but in 2009 it dropped significantly to 0.95%. Between 2010 and 2012 however, the drop-out rate increased to a record high of more than 4% of total enrolment. The implication is that, Capitation Grant Scheme was able to effectively reduce drop-out rate in Junior High Schools for the first 4 years of its implementation and for that matter retaining more pupils in school.



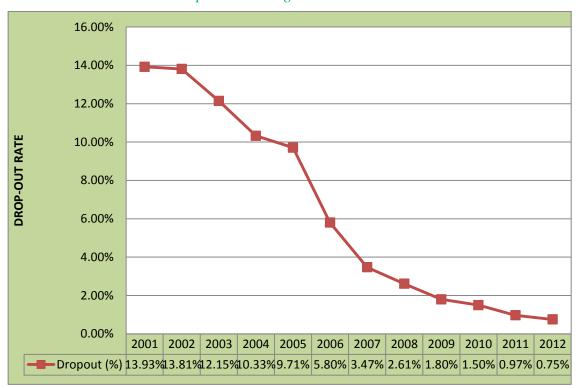


Figure 4.4: Drop-out Rate of Pupils in JHS (n=22) Source: Author's computation from survey data, June 2014

4.3.3 Performance

In measuring the performance of pupils in the sampled schools, a combination of BECE results and average terminal examination scores in core subjects were used. For the JHS, performance were measured in terms of percentage passes in BECE for boys and girls and also using the performances rates of continuing pupils in English Language, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies. Performance in primary schools was measured using only the pass ratios of pupils in 3rd term examinations. BECE performance rates covered the 8-year period while the assessment of pupils in core subjects was done using the 3rd term examinations for 2011 and 2012 academic years. The main respondents for the performance test were head teachers (for BECE) and classroom teachers (for upper and lower primary and JHS 1 and JHS 2).



Table 4.12 presents the per centage passes of BECE for the periods 2005 to 2012. Performance data before the introduction of Capitation Grant was not adequately available. The first row indicates the number of candidates that were presented for the BECE for the various years. Row two also shows the pass rate for both boys and girls while row three and four indicate the pass rate for boys and girls respectively. As can be seen, two years after Capitation Grant in 2005, overall pass rate for pupils at the JHS had increased from 41.8% to about 56% in 2006 and to 58% in 2007. From the year 2008 onwards however, the pass rate dropped continuously from the 58% mark to 44.7% and then to a record low of 36.02% by the year 2012. The pass ratio for boys for each year was greater than the pass ratio for girls. This means that the Capitation Grant Scheme has not done much to improve performance and this also is in line with the views of (TAMBSNET, 2011) and (Akyeampong *et al.*, 2007).

Table 4.12: BECE Performance of Junior High Schools.

	- WOLD 11-12-2-2-2-1 01-01-11-10-10							
No. of								
candidates/%								
passes(boys/girls)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Candidates	1135	1352	1512	1553	1397	3077	1582	1392
Passed (%)	41.8	55.94	58.29	44.7	29.87	37.92	37.1	36.02
Boys (%)	24.6	40.52	40.53	27.8	18.58	25.07	28.48	23.77
Girls (%)	17.2	15.96	14.18	14.9	11.52	14.34	14.32	12.66

Source: Author's computation from Ministry of Education Statistics, January, 2015.

Figure 4.5 is a pictorial representation of the total passes of BECE candidates for the period 2005 to 2012. A pass here refers to candidates who have obtained between aggregates six and thirty.

Overall, the pass in percentage terms increased from 42% in 2005 to a record high of 58% in 2006. It decreased to 45% in 2007 and further to 30% in 2009. There was improvement in the pass rate in 2010 as the year recorded 38% passes.

However, in 2011 and 2012 the percentage passes decreased marginally to 37% and 36% respectively. By implication the Capitation Grant Scheme is deemed to have impacted positively on performance of pupils at the BECE within two years of its implementation nationwide in 2005. The same cannot be said about the programme's impact from 2008 onwards. However, since there are several factors determining the academic performance of pupils in Junior High Schools, part of the problem according to the head teachers was attributable to factors such as quality of teaching, parental control and environmental factors among others.

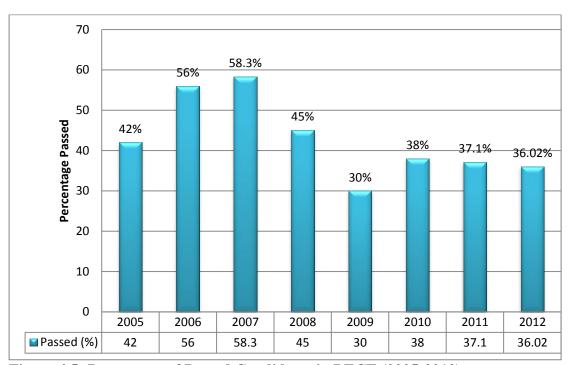


Figure 4.5: Percentage of Passed Candidates in BECE (2005-2012)

Source: Author's computation from overall BECE Results for Tamale Metropolis

The study also investigated the performance of 15 private Junior High Schools in the Tamale Metropolis. Data was obtained from the Metropolitan Education office covering the analysis of BECE results for 4 years (2010 – 2014). Extracts of the analysis are presented in Table 4.13 and Figure 4.7. From Table 4.13, the total number of candidates presented in 2010 was 443 out of which 97% of them



passed the exams obtaining between aggregates 6 and 30. However, between 2011 and 2014 the number of candidates presented for the examination and the per centage passed dropped even though the performances were still remarkable; from about 92.6% of passes in the year 2011 to 82.4% in the year 2014.

Table 4.13: BECE Performance of Private schools

YEAR	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Candidates	443	422	400	345	349
% Passed	97	92.6	87.6	83.2	82.4

Source: Extract from Analysis of BECE results in Tamale Metropolis (Metro Education Office)

Comparatively, there is a remarkable difference between the performances of private school candidates and those from public schools who enjoyed Capitation Grant for the 4 year period. The comparisons made are in respect of 2010, 2011 and 2012 as there were no available data for public school candidates in 2013 and 2014.

In assessing the performance of school, pupils classroom teachers were asked to indicate the scores of their pupil in core subjects (English, Mathematics, Social Studies and Science) using a cross section data. Performance in primary schools was measured using the scores of selected pupils across 30 schools (20 Primary and 10 Junior High Schools) with a targeted student population of 1,149. In this study, performance is measured using individual examination scores for third term in 2012/2013 academic year. Data on the performances of the pupils in all the subjects are presented in tables whilst data for performance by subjects are presented in figures.

As seen from Table 4.14, greater numbers of pupils' performance in English Language of the three class levels was very good as they scored between 50 and



69 marks. Out of 277 pupils at the lower primary 96 scored between 50% – 69% marks in English during the 3rd term examinations in 2011. While almost half of the total number of pupils in upper primary also had the same score. The number of JHS pupils who had the same score was 165. Comparatively, almost half of the population of pupils across Upper and Lower primary and JHS performed averagely in Mathematics but perform very well in Social Studies.

Table 4.14: Performances of Pupils in Core Subjects in 2012

Core Subjects	Class Level	Very Good (70-100%)	Good (50- 69)	Average (40-49)	Below Average (0-39)	Student Population
	Lower					
	Primary	45	96	86	50	277
English	Upper					
	Primary	80	206	120	11	417
	JHS	10	165	150	130	455
Total		135	467	356	191	1149
Mathem-	Lower Primary	33	66	102	76	277
atics	Upper Primary	56	101	182	78	417
	JHS	90	112	204	49	455
Total		179	279	488	203	1149
Social	Lower Primary Upper	98	96	80	3	277
Studies	Primary	116	200	97	4	417
	JHS	290	90	40	35	455
Total		524	366	217	42	1149
Science	Lower Primary Upper	20	79	102	76	277
	Primary	25	90	156	146	417
	JHS	95	182	87	91	455
Total		140	351	345	313	1,149

Source: Survey data, June 2014

A comparative analysis of performances of pupils at all level was made on subject



basis. Starting with English Language is shown in figure 4.6 below. Pupils in

upper primary have done well as compared to those in lower primary and JHS as 19% of them scored between 70% to 100% marks in their terminal exams as compared to 16% and 2% respectively for pupils in lower and Junior High Schools. With a score range of 50% - 69% marks, 49% of the pupils from the same class level were within that score range relative to 36% for JHS and 35% for lower primary. The upper primary class pupils were the lowest with average scores of between 40% - 49%. Overall Junior High School pupils performed below average in English Language as 29% of the pupils scored the average marks relative to 2% in upper primary and 18% in lower primary.

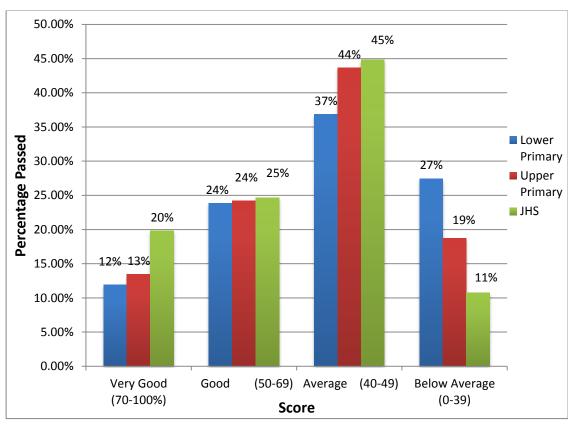
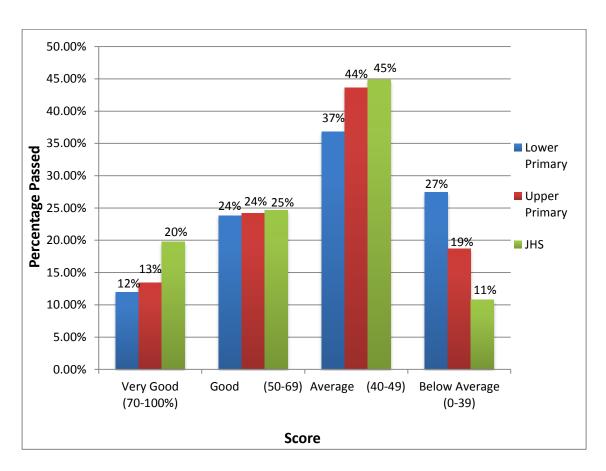


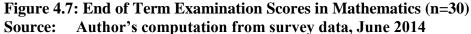
Figure 4.6: End of Term Examination Scores in English Language (n=30) Source: Author's Computation from Survey Data, June 2014.

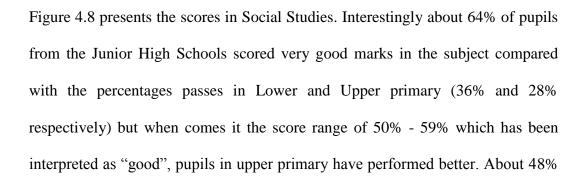
The performance of pupils in Mathematics is presented in Figure 4.7. The results showed the reverse on figure 4.6. About 42% of the pupils from all levels performed averagely in Mathematics with pupils in JHS in the lead (45% for JHS,



44% for Upper primary and 37 % for lower primary). The percentages of pupils scoring 50%-69% marks were virtually the same for Upper primary (24%) Lower primary (24%) and JHS (25%). For those who got very good scores (70%-100% marks), they represent 20% of JHS pupils, 13% of upper primary and 12% of lower primary pupils.









of this group scored that range of marks in Social Studies as compared to 35% of lower primary and 20% of JHS pupils.

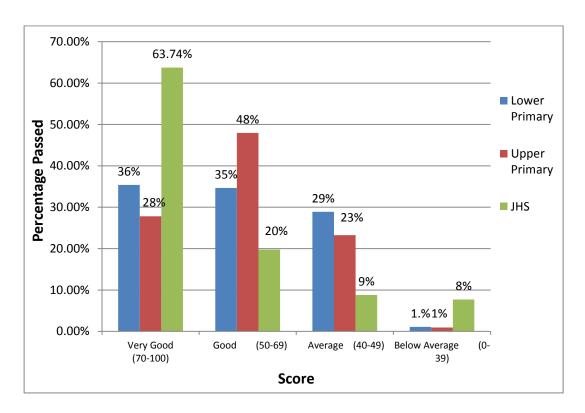


Figure 4.8: End of Term Examination Scores in Social Studies Source: Author's computation from survey data, June 2014

The final analysis on the impact of Capitation Grant on performance is presented in figure 4.9 showing the per centage scores of pupils in Science. The results are not too good for all levels. Only 6% of the total number of pupils in upper primary scored very good grades with the per centages of pupils in lower primary and JHS being 7% and 20% respectively. However, 40% of the pupils in JHS scored between 50%-59% marks in the subject as compared with lower and upper primary where pupils scored 29% and 22% respectively. The per centage of pupils scoring below average was relatively higher among pupils in upper primary (35%) compared with 27% for lower primary and 20% for JHS.



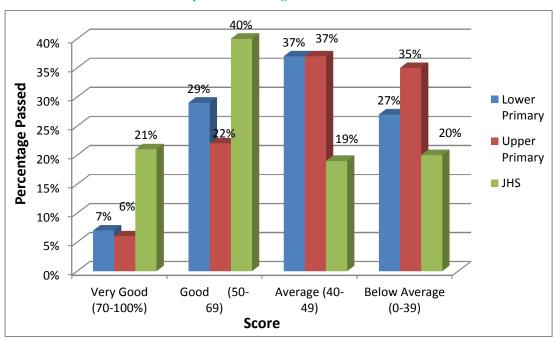


Figure 4.9: End of Term Examination Scores in Science Source: Author's computation from survey data, June 2014

4.4 Impact of Capitation Grant on Gender Parity

The Gender Parity Index (GPI) was calculated by dividing the female Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) by the male Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) for both Primary and Junior High Schools. This was done using enrolment figures for each year starting from 2000/01 to 2011/12 academic years. A GPI of less than 1 indicates that there are fewer females than males in the formal education system in proportion to the appropriate school-age population. A GPI of more than 1 means that there are proportionately more girls than boys attending school. A score of 1 reflects equal enrolment rates for both boys and girls

Table 4.15 shows that for each of the years under study, the GPI indicated that there were more boys in primary school than girls. The year that the GPI was close to parity was 2011 where the ratio was 0.92. Overall, it can be concluded that the Capitation Grant scheme which was introduced in 2005 nationwide, has



insignificant impact on Gender Parity in primary schools although the changes in the GPI before and after its implementation were positive

Table 4.15: Gender Parity Index for Primary Schools in Tamale Metropolis

	Pop	Total			GER	GER	GER	
Year	(6-11yrs)	Enrolment	Boys	Girls		(Boys)	(Girls)	GPI
2001	48,370	50,403	27,925	22,478	1.40	0.55	0.45	0.81
2002	50,349	50,334	27,527	22,807	1.00	0.55	0.45	0.82
2003	51,709	49,108	26,807	22,301	0.95	0.55	0.45	0.80
2004	53,105	52,777	28,900	23,877	0.99	0.55	0.45	0.80
2005	53,105	55,701	29,811	25,890	1.05	0.54	0.46	0.84
2006	56,010	61,624	32,766	28,858	1.10	0.53	0.47	0.83
2007	57,522	64,956	34,688	30,268	1.13	0.53	0.47	0.85
2008	59,076	67,608	35,910	31,698	1.14	0.53	0.47	0.86
2009	60,671	73,370	38,696	34,674	1.21	0.53	0.47	0.87
2010	62,128	71,174	37,422	33,752	1.15	0.53	0.47	0.88
2011	63,619	78,395	40,674	37,721	1.23	0.52	0.48	0.92

Source: Extract from Ministry Of Education MIS Database 2014

Table 4.16 shows the GPI results for 22 sampled Junior High Schools. As can be seen from the table, there has been improvement in the GPI from 2005 to 2012. However, the parity levels in relation to that of the primary schools are low. The academic year which recorded the highest GPI (0.74) was 2009. The GPI declined in 2010 and 2011 to 0.68 and 0.66 respectively and increased marginally to 0.71 by the year 2012. Following the discussion, it can be concluded that within a 5 year period of the introduction of Capitation Grant Scheme there had been a positive effect on Gender Parity in Junior High Schools after recording a progressively higher GPI between 2005 and 2009. However, these changes in the parity ratio were not significant as shown in Table 4.16.



Table 4.16: Gender Parity Index for Junior High Schools in Tamale Metropolis

_	Pop (12-	Total				GER	GER	
Year	14yrs)	Enrolment	Boys	Girls	GER	(Boys)	(Girls)	GPI
2001	19629	14,663	8,528	6,135	0.75	0.58	0.42	0.72
2002	20259	18,538	11,102	7,436	0.92	0.60	0.40	0.67
2003	20805	18,395	10,860	7,535	0.88	0.59	0.41	0.69
2004	21,368	20,059	11,518	8541	0.94	0.57	0.43	0.74
2005	23,450	22,368	12,838	9,530	1.01	0.57	0.43	0.74
2006	22,539	22,813	12,849	9,964	1.01	0.56	0.44	0.78
2007	23,147	25,194	14,110	11,084	1.09	0.56	0.44	0.82
2008	23,772	23,642	13,194	10,448	1.00	0.56	0.44	0.82
2009	24,414	26,638	14,823	11,815	1.09	0.56	0.44	0.83
2010	25,001	26,839	14,985	11,854	1.07	0.56	0.44	0.82
2011	25,601	28,666	15,706	12,960	1.12	0.55	0.45	0.86

Source: Tamale Metro Education Office MIS Database, June 2014

4.5 Impact of Capitation Grant on quality of teaching and learning

In this section, a comparative analysis was made on the level of agreement of respondents (teachers) with regards to the quality of teaching and learning in schools on one hand and the level of significant impact Capitation Grant had made on the quality of teaching and learning. Additionally, the average performances of pupils in the four core subjects (English, Maths, Social Studies and Science) were compared with the availability of teaching and learning materials in schools. Classroom teachers were the main respondents from the 100 sampled schools.



Table 4.17 presents the results of the impact of capitation grant on the quality of teaching and learning. Out of the 100 sampled schools (78 primary and 22 Junior High Schools), teachers from 44% of the schools disagreed that there is quality teaching and learning in schools, while 26% strongly disagreed. However, 24% agreed to this assertion while only 6% strongly agreed. Out of the 78 primary schools and 22 Junior High schools, about 42% and 50% respectively disagreed that there was quality teaching and learning in schools.

On the significance of Capitation Grant on the quality of teaching and learning, 51% of the schools concluded that the scheme had no significance in influencing the quality of teaching and learning in schools while 36% reported that the impact of Capitation Grant on quality of teaching and learning is significant. The conclusion here is that, the Capitation Grant Scheme had no significant effect on quality of teaching and learning in primary and Junior High Schools. This conclusion is supported by the analysis made on the application of Capitation Grant Scheme in the schools where significant proportions of the grant were used mostly on enrolment initiatives such as minor repairs on furniture which was targeted at keeping classroom structures in good shape to accommodate the ever increasing numbers in enrolment.

Table 4.17: Analysis of Impact of Capitation Grant on Quality of Teaching and Learning

		Type of Sc	hool	
Test Variable	Primary	JHS	Total (%)	
Quality of T & L	Strongly Agree	5	1	6
	Agree	18	6	24
	Disagree	33	11	44
	Strongly Disagree	22	4	26
Total		78	22	100
Level of CG on QTL	Very Significant	10	3	13
	Significant	24	12	36
	Insignificant	44	7	51
Total		78	22	100
0 4 41 1	4 4 6	1 4 T	2014	

Source: Author's computation from survey data, June 2014.

Using cross tabulation, the analysis of the effect of capitation on performance from 2011 to 2013 is presented in Table 4.18. The study used thirty schools whose performance were assessed earlier, (see table 4.11 and figure 4.5) to make the comparison. As can be seen from the table, schools which had adequate teaching



.

¹¹ 52 % of the schools applied most of their grant on minor repairs

and learning materials¹² had 47% of their pupils scoring good grades (50% - 69%) in all the core subjects in the year 2011 and only 15% in this category performed below average. Additionally, those who scored very good grades (70% -100%) were 13% of the student population as compared to schools which had inadequate TLM and those which had no TLM at all where the proportions were 6% and 1% respectively.

The trend was virtually the same even with much improvement in the years 2012 and 2013 as schools with adequate TLM through the Capitation Grant performed relatively better than schools where the TLM were inadequate or not available. In 2012 for example, 18 % of pupils in schools with adequate TLM had very good scores relative to the 13% the previous year. In 2013, the performance disparity between schools with adequate TLM and those without became wider. Only 10% of the pupils in schools with adequate supply of TLM, performed below average as compared to 50% of pupils from schools where TLM were not available. The inference or conclusion that can be drawn from these results is that the availability of teaching and learning materials which had been provided through the Capitation Grant Scheme had improved the quality of teaching and learning in schools.



¹²Facilities acquired through Capitation Grants

Table 4.18: Analysis of TLM on Performance (Categorical Data %)

Year	Level of TLM	Very Good (% of pupils)	Good (% of pupils)	Average (% of pupils)	Below Average (% of pupils)
011	Adequate	13	47	25	15
	Inadequate	6	40	38	16
	Not Available	1	30	50	19
012	Adequate	18	35	34	13
	Inadequate	1	35	54	10
	Not Available	4	22	28	46
013	Adequate	18	70	2	10
	Inadequate	8	40	35	17
	Not Available	10	5	35	50

Source: Author's computation from survey data, June 2014.

4.6 Analysis of how School Capitation Grant and other Factors Influence Parents to Enrol their Wards in Public Basic Schools

Parental choice is defined as the act of a parent enroling his/her child in a public primary or Junior High school rather than a private school. Dependent variables include the amount of importance placed on specific school choice criteria for school parents and reasons for keeping children enrolled in public schools. Parents were asked to rate fourteen criteria as very important, important and not important.

Specifically, this section explains what it is about a school that draws in certain parents and keeps them. Is it having high-quality teachers? Is it the school's moral values and or the Capitation Grant scheme? These characteristics and others were measured through a 10-item using descriptive analysis.

The results of the analysis are presented in Table 4.19 below. As can be seen, the majority of the respondents did not have any idea as to whether academic reputation (34%), the quality of teachers (42%), and teachers' attention to individual child academic and psychological needs were important in influencing



their decision to send their children to public basic schools in the Tamale Metropolis. Additionally, the parents considered as important the following factors for sending their wards to public basic schools; closeness of school to parent's home (48%), adequate facilities (30%) and parent's level of education (72%). The level of education here refers to parents' highest level of educational attainment (Primary, JHS, SHS, and Tertiary education). From the survey, 45% of the 50 respondents had primary, JHS and SHS as their highest levels of education. This suggests that, parents with low level of education prefer sending their wards to public basic schools in the Tamale metropolis. Furthermore, 40% of the respondents did not know whether quality teaching and learning were factors which influence enrolment of their wards.

However, the Capitation Grant Scheme which is the variable of interest in this study had significant effect on parents' decision to enrol their children in public basic schools. This is because about 68% of parents believed the Capitation Grant had relieved them of essential fees and other cost in the schools their wards attend. This analysis attests to the fact that lower fees in the public basic schools which is more or less a proxy measure of Capitation Grant is a very important consideration for parents to send their children to public schools. This is because, 80% of respondents see lower administrative fees as very important.

Overall, the factors which are significant in terms of the level of importance in influencing parents to enrol their wards in public basic schools include the following.



The proximity of school to parents home is a major factor to consider. About 48% of the parents thought nearness of school to their home influence their decision to enrol their wards in a particular school.

Regarding the availability of Capitation Grant Scheme in the school, the study found that about 68% of the parents thought the availability of Capitation Grant in a school influences their decision to enrol their wards in that school which is in line with the findings of Usman (2006).

Availability of adequate infrastructure in the school was another factor parents considered before sending their wards to a particular school. About 38% of the parents also thought that the availability of adequate infrastructure in school influences their decision to enroll their wards in a particular school.

Additionally, availability of Arabic education in the school is another factor. About 34% of the parents thought availability of Arabic instruction motivates them to enrol their wards in a particular school.

Peer group influence also influences parents to enrol wards in a particular school.

About 72% of the parents thought their colleagues influence them to send their wards to a particular school.

A lower school fee of the school is another factor that influences parents to send their wards to a particular school. About 80% of the parents thought lower school fees of schools influence them to send their wards to a particular school.



UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

Table 4.19: Determinants of Parents Decision to Enrol Their Wards in Public Schools

SCHOOLS						
	Statistic	Very	_	Not	I don't	
Determinants		Important	Important	Important	Know	Total
Academic	Frequency	11	6	16	17	50
Reputation	Percent	22	12	32	34	100
Closer to	Frequency	7	24	13	6	50
Home	Percent	14	48	26	12	100
Capitation	Frequency	7	34	7	2	50
Grant	Percent	14	68	14	4	100
School	Frequency	5	6	28	11	50
Discipline	Percent	10	12	56	22	100
Quality of	Frequency	8	11	10	21	50
Teachers						
	Percent	18	22	20	42	100
Attention	Frequency	5	9	23	13	50
Child Needs	Percent	10	18	46	26	100
Adequate	Frequency	19	15	11	5	50
Facilities	Percent	38	30	22	10	100
Arabic	Frequency	17	15	12	6	50
Education	Percent	34	30	24	12	100
Peer	Frequency	13	36	1	0	50
Influence	Percent	26	72	2	0	100
	Frequency	40	2	6	0	50
Lower Fees	Percent	80	4	16	0	100

Source: Author's calculation from survey data, June 2014



To test the validity of the responses in Table 4.19 parents were also asked whether they strongly disagree, disagree, strongly agree or agree with ten different statements relating to their preference to public basic schools as opposed to private schools. The results are presented in Table 4.20. Generally, parents disagreed¹³ with the following factors to the effect that these factors had positive influence over their decision to enrol their wards in public basic schools; (figures in brackets represent the percent of respondents who strongly disagree or disagree to the statement).

¹³Comprising "strongly agree and "agree"

- Academic performance (64 %)
- Quality of teaching and learning (56 %)
- Sufficient individual child attention (78 %)
- Small class size (68 %)
- Regulars reports of child behaviour in school (88 %)

On the other hand, the factors which had significant effect on the parents' decisions positively are as follows; (figures in brackets represent the percent of respondents who strongly agree or agree to the statement);

- Quality of teaching staff (78 %)
- Satisfied with school environment (64 %)
- Application of Capitation Grant (84 %)
- Fees and other charges within the means of parent (88 %)

From the above, the most critical factors that affect parents' decisions to enrol their wards in public basic schools in the Tamale metropolis are Proximity of school to parent's home, Capitation Grant Scheme, Adequate infrastructure, the existence of Arabic Education, Peer Group Influence ,Lower school fees and the Quality of teaching staff. In effect the impact of the Capitation Grant Scheme on enrolment has been positive following the records of school enrolment over the years and what parents are saying about the influence of Capitation Grant on their children enrolment decisions.

From the above, the most critical factors that affect parents' decisions to enrol their wards in public basic schools in the Tamale metropolis are proximity of school to parent's home, Capitation Grant Scheme, adequate infrastructure, the



existence of Arabic education, peer group influence, lower school fees and the quality of teaching staff. In effect the impact of the Capitation Grant Scheme on enrolment has been positive following the records of school enrolment over the years and what parents are saying about the influence of Capitation Grant on their children enrolment decisions.

Table 4.20: Level of Agreement with Factors Influencing Parents Decision on Enrolment

Variable	Statistics	Strongly Disagree	Digagraa	Strongly	A graa	Total
Satisfied with	T	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Total
Academic Satisfied with	Frequency	12	18	9	11	50
Performance	Percent	28	36	18	22	100
Satisfied with quality of	Frequency	8	20	10	12	50
Teaching	Percent	16	40	20	24	100
Quality of teaching Staff	Frequency	5	2	9	34	50
Acceptable	Percent	14	4	14	68	100
High standards						
for	Frequency	5	18	2	25	50
Students	Percent	10	26	4	50	100
Satisfied with school	Frequency	8	10	20	12	50
Environment	Percent	16	20	40	24	100
Child receives Sufficient	Frequency	26	8	6	10	50
attention	Percent	52	16	12	20	100
Small class	Frequency	22	12	8	8	50
sizes	Percent	44	24	16	16	100
Regular Reports of my child character	Frequency	34	10	2	4	50
in Sch.	Percent	68	20	24	12	100
Application of CG is reducing	Frequency	3	5	37	5	50
cost	Percent	6	10	74	10	100
Fees and other charges are within my	Frequency	0	6	15	29	50
means	Percent	0	12	30	58	100

Source: Author's computation from survey data – June 2014



4.7 Perceptions about the Impact of Capitation Grant

Head teachers, classroom teachers, circuit supervisors, school management committees and parents were all interviewed through face-to-face and designed questionnaires (closed and open ended). The open ended interviews afforded the respondents the opportunity to express their candid opinions on the general outlook of the Capitation Grant. The aim was to ellicit the responses regarding the impact of capitation on school enrolment, retention, performance and the quality of teaching and learning in schools.

All the 78 head teachers (100%) believed that the Capitation Grant Scheme had increased enrolment and education access but the rate given per child was not adequate which is consistent with the findings of Adamu-Issah *et al.* (2007). However, about 83% of the respondents believed that the grant of GHS¢4.50 as it was in 2014 was inadequate to cover the education of each child, considering the high cost of living in the country. Furthermore, both the head teachers and the classroom teachers have supported the argument that, the grant has overcome the key barrier to education for children from poor families because officially, fees are no longer paid by parents at both Primary and Junior High Schools resulting in increase in enrolment. This is contrary to the view held by Akyeampong *et al.* (2007) that the introduction of fee-free basic education may not be enough for Ghana to achieve and sustain growth in enrolment and effective participation. For him increased enrolments due to the introduction of Capitation Grant have clearly not been matched by adequate quality inputs into the school system to sustain the surge.



The teachers in particular, however, indicated that many more children had enrolled in school since the introduction of the scheme. The perceptions of classroom teachers and head teachers about the impact Capitation Grant has had on the quality of teaching and performance were mixed; about 76% of the head Teachers agreed with the assertion that the Capitation Grant Scheme had improved on the quality of teaching since a greater proportion of the Capitation is used to acquire materials that enhance teaching and learning but about 55% of the 30 respondents who are classroom teachers disagreed by saying that the materials provided by the grant for teaching and learning were not enough.

On the performance of pupils in both primary and Junior High Schools, 80% of both head teachers and teachers said the Capitation Grant Scheme had done little to improve it. They attributed the poor performance of pupils in recent times as indicated in the analysis generally, to pupils' attitude; lateness, absenteeism and refusal of pupils to do assignments given them. Besides, some of the pupils according to the teachers use mobile phones to play games with the computer and the habit of practising pre-marital or child sex. Other factors according to head teachers (40 out of 78) contributing to poor schools performance include inadequate classroom furniture, and inadequate English, Maths, Science and Environmental Studies textbooks.

On the contrary, about 20% of respondents comprising teachers and head teachers did not believe that increased enrolment could be attributed to the Capitation Grant, but rather to the transfer of students from one school to another. However, the head teachers said the practice where some children dropped-out of schools due to the inability of their parents to pay school fees had stopped.



On the impact of the CG on school management and administration, almost all the head teachers (95 %) believed that the CG had affected school administration negatively. The major problem was the disbursement of funds; according to the head teachers, funds were not released regularly to schools. This finding corroborates the evidence of SEND Ghana (2012), CREATES (2011) and CDD-Ghana (2010). At the time of collecting data for the study, all the head teachers confirmed that they had not received the grant for the 2nd term of the 2013/2014 academic year. They claimed that such delays affected schools administration. According to them schools budgets are always in deficit because of delays in releasing the grant.

The study also sought the views of circuit supervisors on the quality of education in their respective jurisdictions since the introduction of the CG. Most of the circuit supervisors (10 out of 14) were of the opinion that the quality had deteriorated, while the remaining 4 believed that it had improved. The latter simply used increased enrolment, and perhaps could not distinguish between quality and quantity, and the teaching learning processes in schools. Additionally, all of the 14 respondents agreed that the Capitation Grant Scheme had improved access to education and increased school enrolment in the Tamale Metropolis.

Finally, the survey data collected from School Management Committees (SMCs) and parents suggest that the Capitation Grant Scheme had improved school enrolment and access to basic education in general. All the respondents (28 SMCs and 22 parents) reported that there had been increased access and enrolment in both primary and Junior High Schools. However, they totally disagreed with the perception that the Scheme had improved performance and the



quality of teaching and learning in schools. They attributed these problems to teacher and pupils' attitude towards learning, lack of proper parenting or parental responsibility, logistical problems and lack of good parent-teacher relations.

For example, the majority of the parents (68%) or (15 out of the 22) reported that their children are usually sent away from school for non-payment of Parent Teacher Association (PTA) levies without prior notice to their parents. They were also of the view that some teachers report to school late coupled with lack of accountability by some head teachers and severe capital punishments meted out to pupils who break school regulations.

Some teachers according to majority of the parents (91%) or (20 out of the 22) refused to report the negative attitudes of their wards to them which may be responsible for their poor academic performance in school.

To a large extent, it was discovered that some parents do not monitor their children to determine whether they are actually taking their studies seriously or attend classes regularly. Out of the twenty two parents interviewed only five of them monitor their children in school. Accordingly, these parents have paid unannounced visits to the schools of the wards at least twice every term of the academic year.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter is an overview of the research showing the main purpose of the study and the kind of analysis employed. It highlights the summary and conclusions drawn from the analysis. The chapter concludes with policy recommendations that will help strengthen the application of the Capitation Grant Scheme to impact positively on educational outcomes in Primary and Junior High Schools in the Tamale metropolis and the country as a whole.

5.1 Summary of Findings

On the application of the Capitation Grant Scheme, the study revealed that less that 30 % of the sampled schools spent their Capitation Grant on ICT, Health and Sanitation, Environment sustainability Sports and Culture and In-service Training for teachers (INSET). The core of the expenditures is made on Teaching Learning Materials, stationary, minor repairs and school management ¹⁴ as over 60 % of the schools apply their Capitation on these items. Among all the items covered by capitation, the provision of Teaching and Learning Materials and minor repairs are the two most popular and significant items that schools spent their Capitation Grants on. Fifty-two (52) per cent of schools spent a greater proportion of their Capitation Grant on minor repairs while 25 % spent on TLM. Environment sustainability takes the least expenditure. There was a positive relationship between the proportion of Capitation Grant expenditure on minor repairs and the

 $^{^{\}rm 14}$ An activity that involves conducting terminal exams, workshops and social issues



condition of furniture in schools as 51 % of the sampled schools have their furniture in good condition. The disbursement of capitation grant was quite irregular as about 55 % of sampled schools normally receive Capitation Grant at the end of the term or even beyond that instead of the beginning of the term in every academic year.

The study also revealed that the Capitation Grant Scheme had impacted positively on enrolment in schools. Between 2001 and 2004, total enrolment in primary schools increased by about 10.2 % and between 2005 and 2008 which represents a 4-year period after the introduction of the Capitation Grant there was about 13.7 % increase in total enrolment. In the same vein, Junior High Schools enrolment before the implementation of Capitation Grant between 2001 to 2004 increased by about 31.2 % while after the introduction of the Capitation Grant in 4 years (from 2005 to 2008) it increased by about 49.88 %. Thus, enrolment by far in Junior High Schools was proportionately higher than it was in primary schools. Overall, enrolment for boys was much higher than that of girls.



The drop-out rates in primary schools from 2001 to 2005 were relatively higher especially between 2003 and 2004 compared to the periods 2006 to 2012. There were significant drops in 2011 (0.08 %) and 2012 (0.06 %). On the other hand, in Junior High School, the drop-out rate for 2005 was high (3.66 %) compared to the rates for 2006, 2007 and 2008 which were in each case close to 2 %. but in 2009 it dropped significantly to 0.95 %. Between 2010 and 2012 however, the drop-out rate increased to a record high of more than 4 % of total enrolment. In effect, drop-out in the Junior High School had reduced drastically during the

Capitation period as compared to periods before the introduction of the Capitation.

On the impact of Capitation Grant on academic performance, the study revealed that in JHS candidates in the BECE improved between the years 2005 and 2007. The percentage passed had increased from 41.8 % in 2005 to 58 % in 2007. However, from 2008 onwards the rate dropped continuously to a record low of 36.02 % by the year 2012. The Capitation Grant Scheme by implication was deemed to have impacted positively on performance of pupils at the BECE for only two years of its implementation nation-wide. In primary school, 34 % of pupils in the sample schools performed well in English in their terminal exams. Comparatively, almost half of the population of pupils across Upper and Lower primary and JHS performed averagely in Mathematics and Science while they performed very well in Social Studies.

The Capitation Grant had positive effect on Gender Parity in Junior High Schools after recording a progressively higher GPI between 2005 and 2009. However, these changes in the parity ratio were not significant.

On the significance of Capitation Grant on the quality of teaching and learning, the study revealed that the Capitation Grant had no significant effect on the quality of teaching and learning in 56 % of the schools as reported by the school heads. However, there was a positive relationship between the availability of quality teaching and learning materials provided by the Capitation Grant and performance of pupils in both primary and JHS. Schools with adequate TLM performed well in all core subjects. In schools where TLM were adequate, 60 %



of pupils on average performed well in all their terminal examinations in the core subjects in 2010/2011. Even though the per centage of pupils in this category dropped to 53 % in 2011/2012, they still performed better than schools with inadequate Teaching Learning Materials. In 2012/2013, the proportion of pupils who performed well increased to 83% relative to schools with inadequate or no teaching and learning materials.

It was also difficult to establish the impact of Capitation Grant on gender parity in both primary and Junior High Schools even though the GPI was near parity during the earlier part of the introduction of the scheme.

Finally, the factors which significantly influenced parents' decisions to enrol their wards in public basic schools in the Tamale metropolis are proximity of schools to parents' home, the Capitation Grant Scheme, adequate infrastructure, the existence of Arabic Education, peer group influence, lower school fees and the quality of teaching staff. It was also clear from the study that perceptions about the Capitation Grant across all respondents (head teachers, circuit supervisors, parents among others) were mixed; while some maintained it had achieved the objectives for which it was introduced, others believed it had not especially, on performance and the quality of teaching and learning in our schools. According to this group, performance especially, in the BECE in recent years had been abysmal. Additionally, respondents also perceived that the quality of education is dependent on several factors and therefore, needs a multi-faceted approach to deal with some of which include commitment on the part of parents and teachers and the provision of logistical support to schools.



The perception about the Capitation Grant Scheme was mixed. Majority of the respondents maintained that the scheme had helped to improve enrolment and reduce financial burden on parents, but had done little to improve the quality of teaching and learning and performance in our schools.

5.2 Conclusion

The conclusion here is that the Capitation Grant Scheme has no significant effect on quality of teaching and learning in primary and Junior High Schools. This conclusion is supported by the analysis made on the application of Capitation Grant Scheme in the schools where significant proportions of the grant were used mostly on enrolment initiatives such as minor repairs on furniture and other school structures¹⁵

Generally, enrolment in the sampled schools improved remarkably after the introduction of the scheme. The Capitation Grant Scheme did not make any significant impact on performance in both Primary and Junior High Schools. This could possibly, be as a result of the high enrolment in the schools without a corresponding expansion in school facilities and improvement in the quality of teaching and learning. Gender parity has however, improved especially in Junior High Schools during the Capitation Grant period by rising from 0.75 in 2000/01 to 0.95 in 2010/11 academic year.

¹⁵ 52 % of the schools applied most of their grant on this items

_

5.3 Policy Recommendations

The recommendations are direct measures that can be executed to strengthen the application of the school Capitation Grant Scheme to ensure quality and improved performance in our schools especially, in the Tamale metropolis and beyond.

Even though schools in the Tamale metropolis had witnessed higher enrolment rates since the introduction of Capitation Grant, there are some challenges especially, with regards to the quality of teaching and learning, performance and gender parity. To ensure the maximum impact of the Capitation Grant Scheme on these critical issues and on enrolment, education authorities must clearly define the procedures involved in the application of the grant. For example the scope of items and activities that should be covered by the scheme could be widened to cover examination fees and PTA dues among others. This recommendation is based on the fact that a greater proportion of the Capitation Grant is spent in the provision of Teaching and Learning Materials and on minor repairs which have no immediate effect on enrolment. Other variables which could influence enrolment include accessibility, school feeding, teacher-parent or school and community relations. Some of these activities particularly, the school feeding programme and Parent Teacher Associations already exist in the schools and so when combined with the Capitation Grant Scheme it could impact more positively on enrolment, retention, quality of teaching and learning and performance overall.

There was no direct relationship between the Capitation Grant and the quality of teaching and learning even though the study tried to justify the availability of quality TLM as a measure of performance among pupils. Therefore, to ensure a more effective impact of the Capitation Grant Scheme on the quality of teaching

and learning, a mechanized assessment of the application of Capitation Grant and



the performance of pupils is required and this requires the role of school committees. Secondly, part of the grant should be used to buy more modern TLM and for carrying out practical lessons such as field trips or excursions as these may enhance pupils' understanding of concepts discussed in classroom.

Additionally, since there is still wide enrolment gab between boys and girls in primary and Junior High Schools as suggested by the Gender Parity Index (GPI), more of the capitation grant should be given to schools with low enrolment of girls. The focus of such schools should be on attracting more girls to the school.

Furthermore, identifying policies and strategies that do not only increase gross enrolment but also make schools more efficient is very critical if Ghana wants to achieve substantially the education aspect of the of the United Nations' MDGs. For example investing in teacher quality and improving school administration and supervision are very critical. These strategies when effectively implemented together with the Capitation Grant scheme would enhance the quality of teaching and learning and, academic performance in basic schools in the Tamale metropolis and the country at large.



Although, conclusions and implications drawn from this study are limited to the study area, they can be generalized for other areas in the Northern Region of Ghana as more empirical studies are conducted on the Capitation Grant Scheme and its impact on enrolment, gender parity, performance and retention. In the future, it would therefore, be interesting to find out how the scheme improves school management and the quality of education in general at the basic school



level. Further research is also needed to investigate the level of community participation in school administration to boost the educational outcomes as outlined in the Capitation Grant scheme policy document.

The major challenge of the study was inadequate data on Capitation Grant disbursements from school heads and education officers. Data about capitation cash flows at district and school levels are surprisingly inaccessible. Since Capitation Grants are public money intended to improve the quality of learning, it is in the interest of citizens that such information be more readily available. This challenge in fact, limited the analysis of Capitation Grant disbursement as respondents mostly were asked questions based on binary responses.



REFERENCES

- Addae-Mensah, I. (2000). Education in Ghana: A Tool for Social Mobility or Social Stratification. The J.B. Danquah Memorial Lectures in Ghana, April, 2000.
- Adamu-Issah, M., Liv E., Forson M., & Schrofer T. (2007). Achieving Universal Primary Education in Ghana by 2015: *A Reality or a Dream?* Working Paper. United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), New York.
- Adu-Agyem J; Osei-Poku P. (2012). "Quality Education In Ghana: The Way Forward". International Journal of Innovative Research and Development. pp. 165–166. Retrieved 13 June 2014.
- Addy E. S. (2002). Impact Assessment Study of The Girls' Education Programme In Ghana. A Report For UNICEF Ghana May, 2002.
- Agyare-Kwabi P. (2013). Gender, Social Inclusion (Gesi) and Education in Ghana. Policy Brief. www.star-ghana.org/.../STARGhana_GESI%20Policy%20Brief [Accessed 26/02/2014].
- Ahadzie, W. (2008). "Global March Against Child Labour/ICCLE's Assessment of Fast Track Initiative in Ghana", A Reporton Ghana's Progress towards Achieving the EFA Goal, June, 2008.
- Ainsworth, M., Beegle, K. & Koda, G. (2000). *The impact of adult mortality on primary school enrolment* in Northwestern Tanzania, Africa Region Human Development Working Paper Series, World Bank.
- Akorfa C., S. & Charles A. (2011). Prevailing Against the Odds of Dropping out of School in Ghana. *African Journal of Education and Technology*. Vol. 1 No. 2(2011) 125-141/ ISSN 2046-6935.
- Akyeampong, K., Djangmah, J., Oduro, A., Seidu, A., & Hunt, F. (2007). Access to basic education in Ghana: *The evidence and the issues* (CREATE Country Analytic Report). Brighton, UK: University of Sussex.
- Akyeampong K (2005) "Vocationalised Secondary Education in Ghana" in Lauglo J. & MacLean R (Eds) Vocationalisation of Secondary Education Revisited, Springer, Dordrecht, The Netherlands.
- Alexander, K. L., Entwisle, D. R., & Horsey, C. S. (1997). From first grade forward: Early foundations of high school drop-out. *Sociology of Education*, 20, 87-107.
- Aliu, S, (2001). "The Competitive Drive, New Technologies and Employment: *The Human Capital Link*". A Paper presented at the Second Tripartite Conference of Manpower Planners. Chelsea Hotel, Abuja.
- Ampiah J.G. (2002). Attitude of Junior Secondary School Students towards Science, Institute of Education, University of Education, Ghana



- Ampratwum E. & Armah-Attoh D., (2010). Public Expenditure Tracking Survey: *Tracking Capitation Grant in Primary* Schools in Ghana. CDD Draft Analytical Report-Tansparency and Accountability.CDD Ghana. Accra. January 2010.
- Amoako, R. (2014). Assessing the Effectiveness of the Capitation Grant to Basic Schools in Ghana: A Case Study of Oforikrom Sub-Metro. KNUST, Thesis.
- Arunatilake, N. Jayawardena, P., (2009). Formula funding and decentralized management of schools *Has it improved resource allocation in schools* in Sri Lanka? Sri Lanka: The Institute of Policy Studies.
- Aryeetey, E & Nimo, P (2004). Strengths and Weaknesses of the Governance Structure within the Primary Education System. In Africa Education Watch, 2008. The Ghana report.
- Atakpa, S. K. (1996). Factors Affecting Female Participation in Education in Relation to the Northern. Accra: Ministry of Education Report.
- Avotri, R. (2000). Gender and Primary Schooling in Ghana. Brighton: IDS/FAWE
- Barro, Robert J. (1991). *Economic Growth in a Cross Section Countries*. Working paper no 3120. Cambridge Mass; NBER September 1991
- Bertrand, T.F., T. Frederic & N. Robert, (2004). *Production and Partial Characterization of a Thermostable Amylase from Ascomycetes yeast Strain Isolated from Starchy Sail*. McGraw Hill Inc., New York, USA.,pp: 53-55.
- Birdsall, N., Levine, D. & Ibrahim, A., (2005). *Towards Universal Primary Education:* Investments, Incentives, and Institutions. European Journal of Education, 40 (3): 337-349.
- Bruneforth, M., (2006). Characteristics of children who drop-out of school and comments on the drop-out population compared to the population of out-of school children. Background paper for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2007.
- Bruns Barbara, Alain M. and Ramahatra R (2003). *Achieving Universal Primary Education by 2015; A Chance for Every Child.* A report by The World Bank 1818 H Street NW, Washington, DC 20433 ISBN 0-8213-5345-4t.
- Casely-Hayford L. (2008). Political Economic Analysis of Education in Ghana. *Paper Presentation Star-Ghana*. http://www.starghana.org/userfiles/files/pages.
- Centre for Democratic Development (2010). "Ghana Centre for Democratic Development Annual Report" Accra: Centre for Democratic Development.
- Colclough, C., Rose, P., and Tembon, M., (2000). Gender inequalities in primary schooling: the roles of poverty and adverse cultural practice. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 20: 5–27.



- Coulombe, H. & Wodon, Q., (2007). 'Poverty livelihoods and access to basic services in Ghana', Ghana Country Economic Memorandum (CEM): *Meeting the Challenge of Acceleratedand Shared Growth*, http://siteresources.worldbank.org (Accessed 15 Dec. 2012).
- CREATE (2010). Complementary Education and Access to Primary Schooling in Northern Ghana. CREATE Ghana Policy Brief 2 September 2010.
- CREATE (2008). Educational Access in Ghana: Country Policy Brief. Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity.
- CREATE (2007). Analytical Report for Ghana: Country Policy Brief. Access to Basic Education in Ghana: The Evidence and the Issues, June 2007.
- Darko R. O., Gertrude A., Freda E. A., Afutu-Kotey R. L. (2009). Effects Of Capitation Grant On Education Outcomes in Ghana. Institute of Statistical Social and Economic Research (ISSER) (March 2009), University of Ghana, Leon, Accra.
- Darling-Hammond L., (2010). Quality Teaching: What Is It And How Can It Be Measured?

 https://edpolicy.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/events/materials/ldhscopeteachereffectiveness.
- Dawuda M. A. (2003). *The Impact of Capitation Grants on Access to Primary Education* in Ghana. Thesis Work on Sustainable International Development. The Heller School for Social Policy and Management Brandeis University DC 20433.
- De Lannoy, A., Pendlebury, S., Rudolph, N., & Hall, K. (2010). Statistics on Children in South Africa: *Education Gender Parity Index*. Children's Institute, University of Cape Town.
- Den Ule, D. and Rasmussen Douglas B. (2010). Adam Smith on Economic Happiness. Reason Papers. *A Journal of Interdisciplinary Normative Studies* 32 (Fall 2010): 29-40.
- Dare, A. (2005). 'Indicators of Quality'. A paper presented at the National Consultative Workshop on Implementing Quality in Low Income Countries, Ghana.
- Dolphyne, E. F. (1998). The Girl-Child and School. *The Ghanaian Child*, 1(3), 6-10.
- Duflo, E. & Kremer M. (2003). Use of Randomization in the Evaluation of Development Effectiveness: Paper prepared for the World Bank Operations Evaluation Department (OED) Conference on Evaluation and Development Effectiveness in Washington, D.C. Economic Development," *Journal of Economics Literature*, 46(3). pages
- Edward, A. & Armah-Attoh D (2010). Public Expenditure Tracking Survey: *Tracking Capitation Grant in Primary Schools in Ghana*. CDD-Ghana Accra. March 2010



- Elbedour, S., Bart, W. M., & Hektner, J. M. (2000). Scholastic Achievement and Family Marital Structure: Bedouin Arab Adolescents from Monogamous and Polygamous Families in Israel, *Journal of Social Psychology*, vol. 140, no. 4 pp. 503–515.
- Elbedour, S., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Caridine, C. & Abu-Saad, H. (2002). The Effect of Polygamous Marital Structure on Behavioural, Emotional, and Academic Adjustment in Children: *A Comprehensive Review of the Literature*. Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review, vol. 5, no. 4, pp. 255-271.
- Eloundou-Enyegue P. M. and Williams L. B. (2006). Family Size and Schooling in Sub-Saharan African Settings: *A Re-examination. Demography*, 43, (1), pp. 25–52
- Elton, L. (1992). University teaching: A professional model for quality and excellence. Paper Presented at the "*Quality by Degrees*" Conference at Aston University.
- Fanfuwa, A. B. (2003). Nigerian Education: *Yesteryears, Now and the Future*" in Abayomi, F., Atilade, D. and Matswamgbe, M. (Eds), State of Education in Nigeria: What Hope for the Future? Lagos, Ajasin Foundation.
- Filmer D, Pritchett L.(1999). The impact of public spending on health: does money matter? *Social Science & Medicine* 49 (November): 1309–1323.
- Fobih, D.K. (1987). Social-psychological factors associated with school drop-out in the Eastern Region of Ghana, *The Journal of Negro Education*, 56(2), 229-239.
- Foster, A. D. & Rosenzweig, M. R. (1996). "Technical Change and Human-Capital Returns and Investments: Evidence from the Green Revolution", the American Economic Review, 86 (4):931-953.
- Fredriksen B. (2007). Lessons learned from abolishing school fees in Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi and Mozambique. Executive summary: draft not for circulation. New York: SFAI-UNICEF.



- Galimaka, L. (2008). *Policy Gaps in Universal Primary Education that Contribute to School Drop-out in Uganda.* Unpublished Master's Degree thesis. The Hague, the Netherlands: Graduate School of Development Studies, Institute of Social Studies.
- Ghana National Education Campaign Coalition (2007). Report-4th edition, August 2007.Ghana Statistical Service (2011). *Ghana Living Standards Survey*. Ghana Statistical Service.
- Ghana Statistical Service (2010). 2010 Population and Housing Census Report, Accra: Ghana Statistical Service.
- Ghana Education Service, (2008). *Education Sector Performance Report* 2008 Accra. Ghana Statistical Service. .
- Ghana Statistical Service (2008). *Ghana Living Standards Survey*. Accra: Ghana Statistical Service.

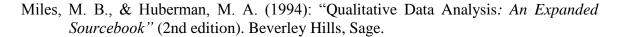
- Ghana MOESS (2006). A Study into Complementary Education System in the Three Northern Regions, Ministry of Education, Science and Sports- Basic Education Division.
- Ghana Education Service, (2004). *Annual Education Sector Operational* Plan 2004. March 2004.
- Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) (2003). *Child labour survey*. Accra: Ghana Statistical Service.
- Ghana Education Service; Basic Education Division, Girls' Education Unit (2001). *A National Vision for Girls' Education In Ghana And A Framework*; Action: Charting the Way Forward; August, 2001.
- Glewwe, P. & Jacoby, H. (1995). *An Economic-Analysis of Delayed Primary-School Enrolment in a Low-Income Country* the Role of Early-Childhood Nutrition. Review of Economics and Statistics, 77 (1), pp.156-169.
- Glewwe, P., Kremer, M., Moulin, S., & Zitzewitz, E. (2004). "Retrospective vs. prospective analyses of school inputs: The case of flip charts in Kenya". *Journal of Development Economics* 74, 251–268.
- GoG/World Bank (2011). *Joint Review of Public Expenditure and Financial Management*. Government of Ghana and The World Bank, October 2011.
- Government of Ghana (GOG, 2004). White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, Accra Ministry of Education Youth and Sports.
- Gökhan-BakIr, B.T., Thomas, H., Bernhard, S., Alex S. M. & Vishwanathan SVN (2007), Predicting Structured Data, MIT Press.
- Graaf de K., (2005). Public Expenditure Tracking (PET) in Tanzania at district-level: *effects on local accountability*. Paper for presentation at the European Conference of African Studies organised by the Africa-Europe Group for Interdisciplinary Studies, London: 29 June 2 July, 2005.
- Guarcello, L. Lyon, S,. & Rosati, F. C., (2008). Child Labour and Education for all: An issue paper. *The journal of the History of Childhood and Youth* Vol. 1(2), 254-266.
- Haki, E., (2007). The Capitation Grant for Primary Education: *Challenges and Recommendations or Improvement*. Education Brief NO. 07.2E ISBN-13: 6766.
- Hanushek, E. A. (1995). "Interpreting Recent Research on Schooling in Developing Countries", World Bank Research Observer, 10:227-246.
- Hanushek, E. A. & LudgerWoessmann (2008), "The Role of Cognitive Skills in Economic Development". *Journal of Economic Literature* 2008, 46:3, 607–668.
- Harbison, R. & Hanushek, E. A. (1992). *Educational Performance of the Poor: Lessons from Rural* Northeast Brazil, Oxford University Press, Oxford.



- Harmon, C. Oosterbeek, H. & Walker, I. (2000). "The Returns to Education: A Review of Evidence, Issues and Deficiencies in the Literature" Centre for Economics of Education- London School of Economics and Political Science Houghton Street London WC2A 2AE.pg (28) ISBN 075301436 X.
- Harvey, L. (1995). 'Editorial: *The Quality Agenda'*. *Quality in Higher Education*, 1 (1), pp. 5-12.
- Hunt, F.(2008). Dropping out of school: A cross-country review of literature, CREATE Pathways to Access, Research Monogram No. 16. University of Sussex'
- Ibrahim, I. & Oduro-Ofori, E. (2005) Basic School Drop-out in Ghana: *A case study of Amansie West District*. Journal of Science and Technology, vol. 25, no. 1, pp. 67-76.
- IMANI-Ghana (2013). Forum for Education Reform: State of Education in Ghana, Accra.
- https://www.modernghana.com/news/509540/state-of-education-in-ghana.html (Accessed 21/01/15).
- Ingram, G., Wils, A., Carrol, B. & Townsend, F. (2006). The Untapped Opportunity: How Public-Private Partnerships Can Advance Education For All. AED Washington, DC
- http://www1.worldbank.org/education/efafti.
- International Monetary Fund (2006). Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy. Country Report No. 06/225. IMF Publication Services June 2006. http://www.imf.org
- Jordan, W., Lara, J., & McPartland, J. (1996). Exploring the causes of early drop-out among race, ethnic, and gender groups. Youth & Society, 28, 62-94.
- Karma, R. (1999), Research Methods., New Delhi, SAGE Publications.
- Kattan, R.B. (2006). Implementation of free basic education policy (Education Working Paper Series, No. 7). Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- King, K. & Martin C. (2002), The vocational school fallacy revisited: education, aspiration and work in Ghana 1959-2000. *International Journal of Educational Development* 32 (5), 623-631.
- Knesting, K. & Waldron, N. (2006). Willing to play the game: *How at-risk students persist in school*. Psychology in the Schools, 43, 599-611.
- Kress, G. (2011). Partnerships in research: *Multimodality and ethnography. Qualitative Research*, 11(3), 239–260.
- Lauglo, J. & MacLean R. (2005) Vocationalisation of Secondary Education Revisited, Springer, Dordrecht, The Netherlands.



- Levačić, R. (2006). Funding Schools By Formula. *International Conference on Educational Systems and the Challenge of Improving Results*, September 15 and 16 2006 University of Lausanne, Switzerland.
- Levacic, R., & Downes, P. (2004). Formula Funding of Schools, Decentralisation and Corruption: A Comparative Analysis, International Institute of Educational Planning (IIEP), Paris: UNESCO.
- Lockheed, M., & Verspoor, A. (1991). *Improving Primary Education in Developing Countries*. New York, Oxford University Press, .
- Lucas, R. E., Jr. (1988). *On the mechanics of economic Development*. J. Montary Economics 22 (July, 1988): 3-42.
- Lyon G.S. & Rosati F. C. (2008). Child labour and Education For All. *Understanding Children's Work Project Working Paper Series*, November 2006 Revised 2008 http://ssrn.com/abstract=1780257.
- Maxwell, J.A., (2005). Qualitative research design: an interactive approach 4th edition. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- McMahon, W. W. (1999). Education and Development: *Measuring the Social Benefits OUP*. Oxford University Press, New York, 1999, pp. xiv + 299.
- McPartland, J.M. (1996). Exploring the Causes of Early Drop-out Among Race-Ethnic and Gender Groups. Youth and Society, 28, (1), 62–94.
- Merriam, S. B. (1998). Qualitative research and case study applications in education: revised and expanded from case study research in education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Michelle C. & Ayana Douglas Hall (2006). *Parents' low Education leads to low income, Despite full time Employment,* Columbia University, NewYork.



- Ministry of Education (2013). *Education Sector Performance Report, 2013*. Ministry of Education Accra, Ghana July 2013.
- Ministry of Education (2012). <u>Education Finance Brief 2012.</u> Ministry of Education Accra, Ghana. November 2012.
- Ministry of Education (2011). *Education Sector Performance Report 2008*. Ministry of Education Accra, Ghana 2011.
- Ministry of Education (2010). *Education Sector Performance Report 2010*. Ministry of Education Accra, Ghana 2010.
- Ministry of Education (2008). *Education Sector Performance Report 2008*. Ministry of Education Accra, Ghana 2008.



- Ministry of Education, Science and Sports. (2008). *Preliminary Education Sector Performance Report* (ESPR) Accra, Ghana.s
- Ministry of Education Science and Sports (MOESS) (2007). *Preliminary Education Sector Performance Report*, Accra, Ghana June 2007
- Ministry of Education (2006). Educational Sector Performance Report, 2006. Ministry of Education Accra. Ghana, August 2006.
- Ministry of Education (2006). "Capitation Grant Guidelines" Accra: CRDD, Accra 2006.
- Ministry of Education (2003). *Ghana Education Strategic Plan–2003*. Acera Ministry of Education -2003. Acera, Ghana 2003.
- MOESS (2006). A Study into Complementary Education System in the Three Northern Regions, Ministry of Education, Science and Sports- Basic Education Division, Accra, Ghana 2006.
- MOESS (2006). Ghana Education Strategic Plan. Ministry of Education, Science and Sports-Accra, Ghana 2006.
- Ministry of Education, Science and Sports. (2008). *Preliminary Education Sector Performance Report* (ESPR).
- MoFA (2010). Facts and Figures. Ministry of Agriculture Accra, Ghana 2010.
- Niçaise, I. (2010). A smart social inclusion policy for the EU: the role of education and training. University of Leuven and Nesse. Paper for distribution at the Belgian EU Presidency conference Ghent, 28-29 September 2010.
- Nsowah, M. (2008). "School Feeding Programme: Cooked up to Fail?", www.modernghana.com, accessed on June 10, 2015.
- Oduro, A.D. & Senadza B. (2004). *Cross-border provision and the future of Higher Education in Africa* A Case Study of Ghana, Paper Prepared for the 11th General Conference of the Association of African Universities (AAU) to be Held in Cape Town, South Africa, from 21 25 February 2005.
- Okaja, E. (2007). Realizing the Interface between UPE and child labour in Uganda: *A case study of Soroti district*. PhD thesis, Institute of Social Studies, The Hague.
- Oketch, M. (2006). "Determinants of Human Capital Formation and Economic Growth of African Countries", Economics of Education Review, 25, (5): 554-64
- Okpukpara, B. C. & Chukwuone, N. A. (2006). Child Schooling in Nigeria: *The Role of Gender in urban, Rural*, North and South Nigeria. [Accessed; 23/05/2012].
- Osei-Fosu, A. K. (2011). Evaluating The Impact Of The Capitation Grant And The School Feeding Programme On Enrolment, Attendance And Retention In Schools: The Case Of Weweso Circuit.



- Osei-Fosu, A. K. (2011). "Evaluating the Impact of the Capitation Grant and School Feeding Programme on Enrolment, Attendance and Retention in Schools. Journals of Science and Technology, 31 (1), (2011), 55.
- Palladan N.Y. and Maigari M. U., (2010). Funding and The Challenge Of Teacher Education in Nigeria. Being A Paper Presented At The 3rd Zonal Conference of The Colleges of Education Academic Staff Union Held At Fce (T) Gombe, Nigerai. September 2010.
- Peil, M. (1995). 'Ghanaian Education as seen from an Accra Suburb', *International Journal of Education Development* 15: 289-305.
- Riddell, A. (2008). Factors Influencing Educational Quality and Effectiveness in Developing Countries: *A Review of Research*. Deutsche Gesellschaftfür Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH Eschborn.
- Rouse, C. E. & Lisa B. (2006). U.S. Elementary and Secondary Schools: *Equalizing Opportunity or Replicating the Status Quo*. Research Paper. http://futureofchildren.org/futureofchildren/publications/docs/16_02_06.pdf [Accessed 19/03/2014]
- Sammons, P. (2007). School effectiveness and equity: *Making Connections Reading*: CfBT Education trust http:///www.spuedudoc.files wordpress.com/ 2011.
- Schultz, T. P. (1997). "Demand for Children in Low Income Countries," in Rosenzweig, M. And Stark, O. (eds), *Handbook of Population and Family Economics*, Elsevier Science B. V., North Holland.
- Schultz, T. P. (2002). "Why Governments Should Invest More to Educate Girls." World Development 30: 207–225.
- Schultz, T. P. (2003). "School Subsidies for the Poor: Evaluating the Mexican Progresa Poverty Program", *Journal of Development Economics*, 74 (1), 199-250.
- Shahrokh, M. E. & Edward, R. D. (2014). *Effect of separate sampling on classification accuracy*. Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering and Center for Bioinformatics and Genomic Systems Engineering, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX 77843, USA.
- Skoufias, E. & Parker, S. W. (2001). Conditional Cash Transfers and Their Impact on Child Work and Schooling: Evidence from the PROGRESA Program in Mexico. Economia, vol. 2, no. 1, pp. 45-96. DOI: 10.1353/eco.2001.0016.
- SNV (2006). *Academy for Educational Development* in Northern Ghana.SNV_Ghana, Northern Portfolio, Tamale. No. 03, July 2006
- Stearns, E. & E. J. Glennie (2006). When and why drop-outs leave high school, Youth & Society, Vol. 38, No.1, pp. 29-57.



- Tamale Metropolitan Basic Schools Parent Teacher Association/School Management Committee Network (2011). *Research Report*. Tamale November 2011.
- Tanye, M. (2008). 'Access and Barriers to Education for Ghanaian Women and Girls'. *Interchange*, 39(2), 167-184.
- Tanye, M. (2008). Access and Barriers to Girls Education in Ghana. Interchange, 39(2), 167-184.
- Tashakkori, A., &Teddlie, C. (Eds.). (2003a). *Handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioural research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Tessa Bold, Mwangi K., Germano M., and Justin S. (2011) Why Did Abolishing Fees Not Increase Public School Enrolment in Kenya? Working 271.Center for Global Development. 1800 Massachusetts Ave., NW Washington, DC 20036
- Theobald, D., Umar, A., Ochekpe, S. & Sanni, S. (2007), Nigeria: *Country Case Study, Country profile prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report* 2008 Education for All by 2015: will we make it? UNESCO, Paris, 2008/ED/EFA/MRT/PI/75, 39.
- UNDP/GOG (2012). 2010 Ghana Millennium Development Goals Report. UNDP, Ghana and NDPC/Government of Ghana. November 2012. ISBN 9988
- UNESCO, (2011). The Hidden Crisis: Armed Conflict and Education, Global Monitoring Report,
- UNESCO, (2010). Reaching the Marginalized. *Global Monitoring* Report France: UNESCO Publishing: http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001866/186606e.pdf [27 Dec. 2012]



- UNESCO (2009). *Education for All Global Monitoring Report:* OXFORD University Press UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization 7, Place de Fontenoy, 75352 Paris 07 SP, France. ISBN 978-92-3-104089-4
- UNESCO, (2005). Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2005. UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2000). The World Education Forum: *Education For All, by the year 2015*, Dakar, Senegal.
- UNESCO (1997). Educating For A Sustainable Future; A Transdisciplinary Vision For Concerted Action. A report of the 19th Special Session of the General Assembly of the United Nations (June 1997) (A/S-19/29, paragraphs 105-106) EPD-97/CONF.401/CLD.1.
- UNICEF (2012). "Education in Ghana: A fact sheet". *Education for All Gloabal Monitoring Report*.
- UNICEF (2010). *Annual Report Covering* 1 January 2010 through 31 December 2010 http://www.unicef.org/publications

- UNICEF (2007). "Achieving Universal Primary Education in Ghana by 2015: A Reality or Dream?", *Division of Policy and Planning Working Papers*, June, 2007,
- United Nations (1997). United Nation's Report on the World Social Situation, 1997.
- Usman, L. (2006). Rural Nomadic Fulbe Boys' Primary Schooling: Assessing Repertoires of Practice in Nigeria. McGill Journal of Education, 41 (2).
- Uwaz, (2010). Capitation Grant for education: When will it make a difference? Policy brief TZ.08/2010E. Uwazi, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.
- Uwezo (2012). Are Our Children Learning? *Numeracy and Literacy acoss* East Africa at Twaweza in Nairobi, Kenya.
- http://www.uwezo.net/wpcontent/uploads/2012/08/RO_2011_EastAfrica Report. Accessed (2/07/2013).
- Wayman, F. (2002). Incidence of Militarized Disputes Between Liberal States, 1816-1992. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the International Studies Association, New Orleans, La., Mar. 23-27, 2002.
- World Bank (2010). Education in Ghana: *improving equity, efficiency and accountability* of Education service delivery (Washington: World Bank).
- World Bank (2009). The World Bank Annual Report 2009 Year in Review. http://www.worldbank.org.http://www.uis.unesco.org/data/atlas-out-of-school-children/en (Accessed 21/01/13).
- World Bank (2007). Country Report on Child Labour, New York: World Bank, Accra, Ghana.



- World Bank (2005). Global Monitoring Report. *Millennium Development Goals; From Consensus to Momentum*. IBRD / The World Bank. 1818 H Street NW Washington DC 20433.
- World Bank (2004). Books, Buildings, and Learning Outcomes: *An Impact Evaluation of World Bank Support to Education* in Ghana. Washington DC: World Bank, Operations Evaluation Department (OED).
- World Bank (2002). Africa Pulse Office of the Chief Economist for the Africa region. *The World Bank, Accra, Ghana.*
- World Bank (1997). *Kenya welfare monitoring survey 1997*. The World Bank. http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/2003/03/2488142/kenya-welfare-monitoring-survey-1997. Accessed May 2015.

World Economic Forum (2011). Gloabal Competitiveness Report: *Committed to improving the state of the world Geneva, Switzerland, World Bank 2010* ISBN-13: 978-92-95044-87-6.



APPENDICES

I Questionnaire for Head Teachers/Teachers

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES TAMALE

IMPACT OF SCHOOL CAPITATION GRANT ON SCHOOL ENROLMENT, GENDER PARITY, RETENTION AND PERFORMANCE IN PUBLIC BASIC SCHOOLS IN THE TAMALE METROPOLIS OF THE NORTHERN REGION OF GHANA

This instrument is designed to elicit responses from head teachers and teachers of some selected Primary and Junior High Schools in the metropolis in relation to the Capitation Grant. The instrument is aimed at studying, the trend of Capitation Grant disbursement to schools from 2006 – 2012 and how the capitation grant is applied in these schools. All views and opinions expressed by respondents will be strictly treated as confidential and used for research purposes only.

SECTION A

Demography of Sampled Schools

l.	School level (a) Primary (b) Junior High School
2.	LocationCircuit
3.	Year established
4.	Student population
5.	Teacher population
6.	No of classroom blocks
7.	Availability of toilet/urinary facilities (01) Yes (00) No
8.	Playing ground/sports facility
9.	School library (01) Yes (00) No
10.	ICT Facility (01) Yes (00) No



SECTION B

Application of the Capitation Grant in Schools

Q7. What are the guidelines regarding the use or application of the Capitation						
grant?						
Yes	1	No	00			
Q8. If yes are the following i	tems covered by the C	Capitation G	rant?			
Teaching and Learning Materials (TLM)	01					
Stationary	02					
Sports and culture	03					
Minor Repairs.	04					
ICT	05					
Health and sanitation	06					
Environment sustainability	07					
INSET ¹⁶	08					
School management	09					
Exams	10					
Q9. Among the items ticks		or items th	at takes the	highest		
percentage of CG expenditur	re					
	Percenta	ge of total e	xpenditure	%		
	Percenta	ge of total e	xpenditure	%		
	Percenta	•	-			
Q10. Please tick appropriation (tick)	=	e Teaching	Learning M	laterials		
Textbook	01					
Exercise books	02					
Stationary	03					
Computers	04					
Markers/Chalk etc	05					
Q11 How was items acquired	d by the school?	•				
Purchase of items by the sch	<u> </u>		01			
Purchase of items by educati	•		02			
Some were purchased by		others by				
education office			03			
Very regular	01					
Quite regular	02					
Regular	03					
Quite irregular Irregular	04 05					
meguiai	U.S					

 $^{^{\}rm 16}$ In-service Training/Education for Teachers



Very irregular	06					
Q13. How do you receive CG for the following period in each academic year?						
(Tick)						
		Begir	ıning	Mid	dle	End
1st Term		01		02		03
2nd Term		01		02		03
3rd Term		01		02		03
Q14 How would you describe the current condition of the following facilities in						
your school?						
Facility	Very bad	Bad	Very C	Good	Good	Don't know
Furniture	01	02	03		04	05
Textbook	02	03		04	05	
Health facility (First Aid) 01 02 03 04 05						05
Sports and culture	01	02	03		04	05
TLM	01	02	03		04	05
Sanitation	01	02	03		04	05

SECTION C

Impact of Capitation Grant on Enrolment, Gender Parity, performance and retention.

Enrolment, Gender Parity and Retention

Enrolment

Q15 Please indicate in the table below the enrolment figures for boys and girls in this school for the academic years specified

	Enrolment		Drop-out		Teacher/Pupil ratio	
Year	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Tatio	
2003						
2004						
2005						
2006						
2007						
2008						
2009						
2010						
2011						
2012						

Performance (for JHS)



Q16 indicate the performance of this school in the BECE for the years indicated					
	Total	Pupils	Percentage of passes		
Year	(who sat for BECE)				
			Total	Boys	Girls
2005					
2006					
2007					
2008					
2009					
2010					
2011					
2012					

SECTION D (for classroom teachers only)

Effect of Capitation Grant on quality of teaching and learning

- 11. What is the average number of pupils in a class in this school?
- 12. In the table below indicate the average number of pupils who passed in English,

 Mathematics and Science in the 3rd terminal exams for the past 3 years

Academic Year	% passed in English	% passed in Maths	% passed in Science	% passed Social Studies
2011				
2012				
2013				

3. In each of the following years	s indicate the level of availability of Teaching
Learning Materials in your class	
2011: TLM were adequate	TLM were inadequate
TLM were not available [
2012: TLM were adequate	TLM were inadequate
TLM were not available [
2013: TLM were adequate	TLM were inadequate
TLM were not available [



1

II Questionnaire for parents

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES TAMALE

IMPACT OF SCHOOL CAPITATION GRANT ON SCHOOL ENROLMENT, GENDER PARITY, RETENTION AND PERFORMANCE IN PUBLIC BASIC SCHOOLS IN THE TAMALE METROPOLIS OF THE NORTHERN REGION OF GHANA

This instrument is designed to elicit responses from parents of some selected Primary and Junior High Schools in the metropolis in relation to the Capitation Grant. The instrument is aimed at identifying the factors that influence enrolment of pupils in schools in the Tamale metropolis All views and opinions expressed by respondents will be strictly treated as confidential and used for the research only

SECTION A:

Basic Information about Respondent.

- Gender of Respondent: Male [1] Female [2]
 Age of respondent: ----- Don't know [] Refused []
 Highest Level of Education:
 Primary [01] JHS [02], SHS [03] Tertiary [04] Arabic Education No formal education

 Occupation: Formal [01] Informal [02] No occupation [03]
- 5. Level of school attended by your ward: Primary (01) JHS (02)

SECTION B

Opinions on Capitation Grant

	6.	Do you have any idea about the School Capitation Grant? Yes [1] No [2]
	7.	If your answer to (6) is yes, briefly state three (3) things about the Capitation
		Grant
i.		
ii.		



SECTION C

Factors influencing School Enrolment in this school

9.	How many wards do you have in this 2 3 4 and above school?
	SCHOOL:
10.	Please indicate the current class of your ward(s) and the year(s) of admission
1^{st}	Child: Present class
2 nd	Child: Present class
3^{rd}	Child: Present class
11.	Do you pay any fees for your ward(s) in this school? Yes [1] No [1]
12.	If your answer to (11) is yes please specify the kind of fees paid

		Level of payment (tick as applicable)	
Fee Description	Amount in GhC	Termly	Annually
Textbooks			
PTA dues			
Development levy			
Sports			
Examinations			



SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES TAMALE

IMPACT OF SCHOOL CAPITATION GRANT ON SCHOOL ENROLMENT, GENDER PARITY, RETENTION AND PERFORMANCE IN PUBLIC BASIC SCHOOLS IN THE TAMALE METROPOLIS OF THE NORTHERN REGION OF GHANA

This instrument is designed to elicit responses from circuit supervisors of some selected Primary and Junior High Schools in the metropolis in relation to the Capitation Grant. The instrument is aimed at gathering data on the impact of capitation on enrolement and quality of education in their respective circuits in the Tamale metropolis. All views and opinions expressed by respondents will be strictly treated as confidential and used for the research only

Interview Guide for Circuit Supervisors

- 1. What is your highest level of education?
- 2. What is your age?
- 3. What work do you do?
- 4. What is the name of your circuit?
- 5. What is the number of primary schools in your circuit?
- 6. What is the number of Junior High Schools in your circuit?
- 7. What in your opinion is the impact of the Capitation Grant on enrolment?
- 8. What in your view was the state of quality of teaching and learning before the introduction of the Capitation Grant?
- 9. What in your view was the state of quality of teaching and learning after the introduction of the Capitation Grant?
- 10. What is your role in the processing and expending of the Capitation Grant?
- 11. What account for the different times of receiving the Capitation Grant by the schools?



Interview Guide for PTA Members and SMC Members

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES TAMALE

IMPACT OF SCHOOL CAPITATION GRANT ON SCHOOL ENROLMENT, GENDER PARITY, RETENTION AND PERFORMANCE IN PUBLIC BASIC SCHOOLS IN THE TAMALE METROPOLIS OF THE NORTHERN REGION OF GHANA

This instrument is designed to elicit responses from PTA members and SMC members of some selected Primary and Junior High Schools in the metropolis in relation to the Capitation Grant. The instrument is aimed at gathering data on the impact of capitation on enrolement and quality of teaching and learning in their respective schools of their wards in the Tamale metropolis. All views and opinions expressed by respondents will be strictly treated as confidential and used for the research only

Interview Guide for PTA Members and SMC Members

- 1. What is your level of education?
- 2. What is your age?
- 3. What work do you do?
- 4. How many wards do you have in this school?
- 5. What motivated you to enrol your ward(s) in this school?
- 6. What is the impact of Capitation Grant on enrolment?
- 7. What is the impact of Capitation on the performance of your ward(s)?
- 8. In your opinion, has the Capitation Grant improved quality of teaching and learning in Tamale metropolis?
- 9. Do you still pay levies for your ward(s)?
- 10. How much do you normally pay?
- 11. What item(s) do these levies usually cover?
- 12. Have you any role in the expending of the Capitation Grant?





