

CAPITATION GRANT POLICY AND ITS EFFECT ON STUDENTS' ENROLLMENT: A SURVEY OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE ASHANTI MAMPONG MUNICIPALITY OF GHANA

1. Benedict Osei-Owusu*

Senior Lecturer, Department of Educational Studies, College of Agriculture Education, Mampong-Ashanti, University of Education, Winneba, Ghana-West Africa. benedictoseiowusu73@gmail.com.

2. Eric Twum Ampofo

Lecturer, Department of Educational Studies, College of Agriculture Education, Mampong-Ashanti, University of Education, Winneba, Ghana-West Africa. twumampofo.eric@yahoo.com

3. Robert Ampomah

Lecturer, Department of Interdisciplinary Studies, College of Agriculture Education, Mampong-Ashanti, University of Education, Winneba, Ghana-West Africa. rampomah5@yahoo.com

***Corresponding Author: Email: benedictoseiowusu73@gmail.com.**

ABSTRACT

The capitation grant policy is one of the most vital educational policies which is aimed at reducing the high illiteracy rate in the country. This study sought to evaluate the relationship between the capitation grant policy and enrollments of students at the basic level. The study was a descriptive survey and the views of 100 respondents were sought using a self-developed questionnaire. Eighty-nine (89) of the respondents comprising head teachers, assistant head teachers and teachers were randomly sampled while eleven (11) GES officials involving circuit supervisors, the Head of Inspectorate Division and the Municipal Director of Education were purposively chosen to participate in the study. The study revealed that capitation grant programme relates to access to basic education, students' enrollment and school administration. Also, the findings of the study established no significant relationship between the capitation grant programme and gender enrollment, hence we failed to reject the hypothesis that guided the study. Based on the research findings, it is recommended that the Government, the Ministry of Education and stakeholders in education should ensure the sustenance, efficient and effective implementation of the capitation grant programme. Also, head teachers and educational authorities should see to the judicious application and utilization of the capitation grant of its intended purpose.

INTRODUCTION

The unanimity across the globe is that poverty and inequality can be effectively addressed through human capital development and the principles of human development are built on efficient education. Education is widely considered to be critical for national development. For years, education was home schooling, thus the home was the school, parents and elders in the family were the teachers, and learning was by observation of adults' life. The importance of education to development is clearly articulated in the UN Millennium Development Goals and the Education for All goals. Eyiah (2004) asserts that formal education was probably started by teachers in home-based schools in Moslem communities, and later the colonial government in the 1600s as private mission or company schools for selected personnel and later as colonial schools in the 1800s. With time, according to him, education developed unevenly over time and across geographical regions. John Amos Comenius, a 17th century philosopher view education as the primary means for improving society and as a means of personal advancement (Encyclopedia Britannica Online). Many educationists and economists have emphasized the impact of education on economic growth (Lucas, 1988; Barro, 1991). In fact, many scholars

agree that education plays a crucial role in technological advancement and also seen as a means to improve our health and reduce infertility (Foster & Rosenzweig, 1996; Schultz, 2003).

Graham (1971) states that in the late 18th century and throughout the 19th century many European countries such as Holland, Denmark, and England were already running schools in the Gold Coast. Children of wealthy African merchants on the coast and relatives of some of the important local chiefs had access to the schools. Monthly contributions from the salaries of European men at the Cape Coast Castle created the “mulatto fund” from which some financial support for children was drawn. Graham pointed out that though irregular, overseas officials also sponsored the education of some African children who travelled to Europe to study. As much as this was impressive, overseas training for African students was limited to the very few individuals. Graham noted, even in the castle schools that provided basic education, company support was limited often compelling the chaplains ‘turned teachers’ to resort to innovative means of fund-raising to support teachers, pupils and the schools.

Apparently, this remains the checkered history of educational financing in the then Gold Coast until the dawn of independence when educational policy became more connected to development policy. The school financing policies of a country are a reflection of its value choices, its order of priority in the allocation of its resources and its political philosophy. It is therefore not surprising that when the indigenous people of the Gold Coast became part of the government of their territories in the 19th century the educational financing policies of the colony changed (Eyiah, 2004; Graham, 1971). To help redress problems faced by the schools, the administration made grants available in 1874. Thus, 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. Also, in the 1980s the government came out with educational reforms which introduced the Junior and Senior Secondary School concepts. Indeed, the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) was adopted in 1995 (Ghana National Education Campaign Coalition Report, 2007).

The educational situation in Ghana based on quantity and quality has improved over the years. Thus, since 2000, increasing percentage of Ghanaian children of school-going age has attended school. For example, Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) increased from 57% in 1999/2000 to 86.5% in 2003/2004 (UNICEF Report, 2007; Ahadzie, 2008). Notwithstanding this, the country has 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.

Statement of the Problem

Education is a top priority of the UN Millennium Development Goals in that attaining universal primary education is its second goal. These goals require that every child, girl or boy alike, enroll and complete the full cycle of primary education. In recognition of the central role of education to development, the government of Ghana subscribed to the principles of the MDGs and EFA to attain universal primary education by 2015. This is reflected in the key policy

initiatives undertaken over the past decade to promote basic education. The government's initiatives among others include the Free Compulsory Universal Education (fCUBE) policy launched in 1996, and most recently the Capitation Grant Policy. In Ghana, like other parts of the world, basic schooling is comprised of 2 years kindergarten, 6 years primary school and 3 years junior high school. Since 2005, the Ghana Government has abolished school fees in basic schools and replaced it with capitation grants. This represents one of the key policy intervention design to enhance the achievement of the MDGs. Be that as it may, the policy still has to see effectiveness in its implementation. The bane has consistently appeared to emanate from the funding regimes initiated for the implementation of this policy. This study aims at investigating the present funding scheme and how it influences enrollment at the basic schools in the Ashanti Mampong Municipality of Ghana.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Education Policy Reforms in Ghana since Independence

Since the 1950s, Ghana's education system has gone through many reforms with the ultimate goal to improve access and quality. The concept of making basic education free for all children in Ghana dates back to 1951 with the introduction of the Accelerated Development Plan. This plan introduced a six year free and compulsory basic education, which resulted in massive increases in primary enrollment (Create, 2008). After independence in 1957, the new government, led by Dr. Kwame Nkrumah, introduced the 1961 Education Act, which extended free and compulsory basic education through an additional four-year middle school programme. While the policy helped to expand access to basic education, it did not yield the desired sustained growth in enrollment and completion rate. In 1970s, education participation suffered a major setback, leading to decline in enrollments, due to an economic downturn. In order to address this setback, a new education reform was launched in 1986 to improve access, quality, and management efficiency. This reform led to increases in public education expenditure to ensure that adequate resources were available to increase the momentum of universal basic education. While this reform led to substantial increases in enrollment, the increases could not produce the desired results. After nearly six years of implementation, many school-aged children were still out of school (Create, 2008).

The 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana, under Article 25 (1) guaranteed the rights of all persons to equal educational opportunities and facilities by ensuring free, compulsory and universal basic education. Indeed, the objectives of basic education were clearly spelt out in Article 38 (1-2) of the same Constitution. Pursuant to these constitutional requirements, the Government at that time launched the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (fCUBE) Policy in 1995 to provide access to basic education to all Ghanaian children (MOE, 2003). The policy aimed to improve access, quality and management efficiency in schools. Though this policy brought tremendous improvement in education delivery in Ghana, it was not without shortcomings. The key shortcoming of the programme related to the component of cost sharing which limited poor parents from enrolling their children in school (The World Bank and UNICEF, 2009).

One key government policies that stressed access to quality and affordable basic education was the 2003 Growth and 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 (National Development Planning Commission, 2005). In furtherance of the GPRS II, the Ministry of Education developed the Ghana Education Strategic Plan (ESP) in 2003. The ESP operated within the framework of a sector-wide approach (SWAp) in which all ministries,

departments, agencies, and donors harmonized resources to support the education sector (Ministry of Education, 2003). In other words, the ESP provided the roadmap for achieving the education-related MDGs and the EFA goals based on ten policy goals covering access and participation; quality of teaching and learning; health and environmental sanitation; and gender parity, among others. The implementation of the ESP increased the government's commitment to the development of the educational sector.

Prior to the ESP, an education reform review committee known as the Anamuah-Mensah Committee made a couple of recommendations for the improvement of the pre-tertiary education in Ghana, particularly improvements related to access. The Anamuah-Mensah Committee's recommendations directly informed further education reforms in 2007 (Osei, Owusu, Asem, Afutu-Kotely, 2009). The NPP Government at that time issued a White Paper on Education Reforms which outlined key policy interventions aimed at improving access and quality of education as well as accelerating Ghana's progress towards achievement of the MDGs and EFA goals. The Education Reforms had two key objectives. First, it builds on the commitments of the ESP as well as ensuring that high quality education was provided to children at the basic school level. Secondly, it aimed at ensuring that all second cycle education was made more meaningful and appropriate to the needs of young people and the demands of Ghana's economy (Ministry of Education, 2011). Under the new reform, basic education was expanded to include two years of kindergarten education, six years of primary education, three years of junior high school education and four years of senior high school (SHS) (Ministry of Education, 2011).

Financing Education

Many developing countries that have subscribed to the Education for All (EFA) policy and the MDGs have demonstrated their commitment to making basic education accessible to all. However, the critical issue facing many governments in developing countries today is how to mobilize the necessary financial resources to finance universal basic education (Inoue and Oketch, 2008). In recent times, the capitation grant policy emerged as one of the simplest and most promising methods of financing universal basic education. Ghana among other African countries, has taken a bold step to implement the capitation grant policy as part of its strategy to achieve the goals of the Millennium Development Goals. Financing is an economic activity of the government to provide and manage necessary resources for satisfying the educational needs of the people. It also refers to the various systems by which public schools are funded. According to Inmam (1994), many education policymakers and practitioners such as state legislators, state and local superintendents, educational administrators among others consider the funding of public schools to be the most difficult aspect. Education is considered the bedrock of human resource development in every nation and this justifies the heavy investment made by developing countries in educating their human resource. In Ghana, education costs encompass all financial outlays made by the government, households and communities, private sector, and other stakeholders in services and investments in the education sector. The public sector covers the personnel emoluments, operations and maintenance expenses, and development expenditures. Financing by parents, families, and communities are mainly in the form of school fees on teaching and learning materials, uniforms, books, pens and pencils, as well as development levies (Akyeampong, 2007).

Available literature suggests that the policy of Government funded education is not the only available option for attaining Universal Basic Education. Indeed studies in Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Uganda, Kenya and Guyana all suggest that for countries in their category, governments alone are definitely not in a position to finance any meaningful budget for free

and universal education. The question then is, has the government funded scheme of free education in Ghana made adequate provision for all these factors? As a matter of fact, there are two main issues regarding fund flow and utilization. Thus, educational funding, efficiency and accountability. In a report by Oxcon (2006) to Ghana's parliament entitled 'Making the Grade? Financial Management of Schools', the attention was drawn to how effectively an independent audit of implementing processes and procedures can, in itself alone, cause authorities to sit up and properly implement a programme such as funding for free education. In Ghana, administrative expenses are released to the schools for disbursement. This should effectively remove bottlenecks with proper administrative procedures. The fact still remains, though that running a school for fee free and universal basic education might involve service delivery activities and some infrastructural expenditure.

Ornstein and Levine (1993) identify four sources for funding education in the United States. These sources include the flat grant model, which is the oldest, simplest and most inequitable method of financing education. With this model, funds for a school is based on a fixed amount multiplied by the number of pupils in attendance and it does not take into consideration any special requirements. The second is the foundation plan. This plan guarantees a minimum annual expenditure per pupil for all schools in the state irrespective of local taxable wealth. So schools with high population and low income families suffer from this plan. Thirdly, is the power-equalizing plan which is being adopted by most states recently and here, the state pays a percentage of the school expenditures in inverse ratio to the wealth of the district and so the wealthier schools get less and the poor schools get more. Finally the weighted pupil's plan, here the pupils are weighted in proportion to their special characteristics such as handicapped, disadvantaged, or doing a special programme such as vocational or bilingual to determine the cost of instruction per pupil and they receive funding accordingly. Considering these sources of funding in the United States, how do Ghana's funding schemes take care of the needs of special districts and of special pupils? Do pupils of deprived and rural schools have the same opportunities to compete with those of the well-endowed schools in the urban areas rather than giving them the bigger share of the funds because they have larger numbers?

The Capitation Grant Policy

Capitation grant policy happens to be one of the artless facsimiles of educational finance used in some countries to allocate funds to schools. The grant is allocated to schools based on the number of students enrolled. In other words, it is a per capita allocation of financial resources to school. In African, some countries such as Uganda, Kenya, Malawi and Ghana have adopted the capitation grant policy following the abolition of school fees. In Uganda, for example, the Ministry of Education and Sports pays capitation grant to basic schools and senior high schools based on fixed and variable grants. A fixed amount is paid to schools per a child enrolled and variable grants are paid based on the government's own criteria (MOEES, 2010; Grogan, 2008). Likewise, in Ghana, the Government with the support from the World Bank under the Pilot Programmatic Scheme Project introduced the capitation grant concept in 2004. This was on a pilot basis in forty (40) most deprived districts in the country where enrollments were very low. The grant was meant to alleviate the financial burdens that prevented households from sending their children to school and also to foster fiscal decentralization. During this pilot phase, beneficiary schools received an amount of Gh¢ 2.50p per every male child enrolled and Gh¢ 3.50p for every female child enrolled. This was to compensate the affect schools for revenue losses due to abolition of fees and levies (Akyeampong, 2007).

The implementation of the policy led to a 14% increase in enrollment in primary schools the following year in the piloted districts. Additionally, gross enrollment rate in the piloted districts

increased by 5% compared to the average increase of 2% in the non-piloted districts. The phenomenal increase in enrollment figures in 2004 following the implementation of the capitation grant policy in the piloted districts led to the nationwide implementation of the policy in 2005 (World Bank & UNICEF, 2009; MOE, 2005). However, unlike the pilot project, there was no difference between the proportion of the grants to males and females. As a matter of fact, per capita share of the grant was Gh¢ 3.0 for both males and females. In 2009, the grant was revised upward from the Gh¢ 3.0 to Gh¢ 4.50p, hence public basic schools in Ghana receive capitation grants of Gh¢ 4.0 (\$1.75) per every child enrolled per year (Akyeampong, 2007). The grants are used principally for the day-to-day running of public schools, specifically, the grants are used for procuring teaching and learning materials, payment of sports and cultural levies, payment of cost of school and cluster based in-service training and transportation cost involving official duties. In fact, each year, heads of basic schools prepare School Performance Improvement Plan (SPIP) which is forwarded to the District Director of Education for his or her approval before the grant can be accessed by head teachers.

Efficiency and Effectiveness of the Capitation Grant

According to the Government of Ghana, one of the main reasons why children do not attend school is that parents simply cannot afford to pay the levies and fees charged by educational institutions. From the view point of schools, according to the capitation grant policy administration guidelines, schools can use the grants in the following ways: provision of teaching and learning materials, school management, community-school initiatives, support to needy pupils, schools and cluster based in-service training, minor infrastructural repairs and payment of sports and culture levies. Yet research by Brookings (2003) found that capitation grant disbursement often falls short of school's expectation. This, in fact, makes it difficult to execute activities and improve service delivery.

Efficiency is achieving the maximum or best possible result or output with the minimum possible resource or input. Educational output is measured on the nature of the objectives of the educational system. According to Wolfe (1984), efficiency is "the amount of learning achieved during school attendance, compared to the resources provided". Salerno (2003) in his economic definition of efficiency, sees it as "the extent to which an institute efficiently allocates the physical inputs at its disposal for a given level of output". Considering the two definitions, you will notice that both talk about resource allocation. The available literature that deals with the efficiency and effectiveness of funding for education dwells mainly on sector-wide comparisons of funding regimes, and in Ghana the regimes dwell more on basic education institutions. The study however will consider the effectiveness and efficiency of the administration of funding at one level of education only and for the purpose of achieving the objectives for the fund.

The Millennium Development Goals for education defines the objective of education to include Universal Basic Education for all. In Ghana the goals are further specified as Free Compulsory and Universal Basic Education for all children of school going age. This objective is ambitious by all standards and needs therefore to be carefully defined so as not to compromise efficiency and effectiveness of the teaching and learning fundamental goal of education.

In trying to measure the success of the objective of free education, it was realized that education was significantly underfunded; hence educational outcomes will also be less than optimal. Naschold (2002) emphasized that, that pro-poor expenditure predominantly in basic schools sub-sectors is the main priority for countries that are far from reaching the Education for All

(EFA) targets. The question is whether the funding regime that now exists is sensitive to the poor or is blind to the special needs of the poor in education.

Capitation Grants and Enrollment

Despite the tremendous progress in expanding enrollment and increasing years of schooling since 1960, over 100 million children of primary school age are still not enrolled in school, with more than 70 percent living in Sub-Sahara Africa and South Asia (World Bank Independent Evaluation Group, 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 (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991; Harbison & Hanushek, 1992; Hanushek, 1995; Glewwe, 1999). 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. Thus, 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.

Many studies have been carried out to show the impact of various interventions on educational outcomes. For example, Osei, Owusu, Asem, and Kotey (2009) in his study on the topic “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 enrollment 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 had no significant impact on BECE pass rates in Ghana, no significant relationship existed between capitation grant and gross enrollment, and capitation grant has not impacted on bridging the gap between enrollment and the BECE pass rates for male and female. Schultz (2003) used randomized order of programme phase-in to examine the impact of the Progresa programme in Mexico, which provided cash grants to families conditional on their sending their children to school. He found an increase in enrollment of all students in grades 1 through 8, especially, among girls who had completed grade 6. Vermeersch and Kremer (2005) examined the effect of school grants on school participation in Kenya and found that school participation went up in Kenyan preschools where grants were provided than in comparison to schools where there were none. In many countries, parents face significant private costs of education, either for school fees or for other inputs such as uniforms. In Kremer, Moulin, and Namunyu (2002), evaluated a programme in which an NGO, International Christelijk Steunfonds Africa (ICS), provided uniforms, textbooks, and class-room construction to seven schools, randomly selected from a pool of poorly performing candidate schools in Kenya. They found that school dropout rates fell considerably in treatment schools, and after five years pupils in treatment schools had completed about 15 percent more schooling.

Purpose of the Study

The study is meant to find out whether, in the light of evidence gathered, the present scheme has addressed the implementation bottlenecks in the previous policies for fee-free education and the effects it has had on enrollment of Junior High School (JSH) students in the Ashanti Mampong Municipality of Ghana.

Significance of the Study

An assessment on the impact of the capitation grant policy on education service delivery is a timely enterprise for varied reasons. First, the findings of this study will add to prevailing literature on capitation grant policy model and government-related assistance to schools in general. Second, the study will bring to light the challenges associated with the introduction of capitation grant policy as an additional education intervention. Last but not least, the findings will be beneficial to the Ministry of Education, stakeholder in education, school administrators, teachers and parents as to the challenges facing the policy and the effective ways to address these bottlenecks.

Research Questions

1. To what extent does the capitation grant policy related access to basic education in the Ashanti Mampong Municipality
2. To what extent does the capitation grant policy relate to students' enrollment in basic schools in the Ashanti Mampong Municipality?
3. To what extent does the capitation grant policy relate to basic school administration in the Ashanti Mampong Municipality?

Hypothesis

H₀ There is not significant relationship between capitation grant policy and gender enrollment in basic schools in the Ashanti Mampong Municipality?

METHODOLOGY

Design of the Study

Descriptive survey design was the research design for the study. Descriptive survey involves collecting data in order to test hypotheses or answer questions concerning the current status of the subject of interest. It therefore determines and reports events as they occur naturally (Gay, 1992). This design allows researchers to describe situations as they are and to generalize from a sample to a population.

Population and Sampling Procedures

The sample size comprises hundred (100) respondents. Sixty-one (61) of the respondents were head teachers and assistant head teachers, twenty-eight (28) were teachers, nine (9) were circuit supervisors and one (1) each was for the Head of Inspectorate Division and The Municipal Director of Education. The head teachers and the teachers were randomly selected from the basic schools in Ashanti Mampong while the circuit supervisors, the Head of Inspectorate Division and The Municipal Director of Education were purposively chosen.

Research Instrument

Questionnaire was the main data collection instrument. Questionnaires were used because they are the main method of data collection and also the population was literate. Also the coverage of questionnaire is wide as researchers can reach respondents more easily and is unaffected by problems of 'non-contacts'. Again, the popularity of questionnaires is probably based on some advantages among which are its low cost in terms of both money and time involved (Sarantakos, 1997). In all 29 items made up the questionnaire of which 9 items were open-ended questions and the remainder close-ended ones.

Data Analysis Plan

All the research questions were answered using Pearson zero-order correlation matrix. However, the hypothesis of the study was tested using Chi square.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**Research Question 1: To what extent does the capitation grant policy related access to basic education in the Ashanti Mampong Municipality**

This research question was aim at ascertaining the extent to which the capitation grant policy relates with access to basic education. In this regard, Pearson zero-order correlation matrix was used to establish the relationship. The result of the Zero-order correlation between parental involvement and day students' performance in Mathematics and English language is presented in Table 1

Table 1: Capitation Grant Policy and Access to Basic Education

Capitation Grants	Access to Basic Education		
	Pearson Correlation		
	Sig.	(2-tailed)	.685**
	N		.000
			100

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Data in Table 1 reports the Zero-order correlation coefficients between the capitation grant policy and access to basic education. The Zero-order correlation coefficients obtained are $r = 0.725^{**}$. These is positive with significance or p-value = 0.000 which is less than $\alpha = 0.01$. This suggests that the capitation grant policy was significantly related pupils' access to basic education.

Findings from this present study are consistent with a plethora of studies. As a matter of fact, all of these studies stressed that there is a positive relationship between state funding of education (capitation grant) and access to basic education (Schultz, 2003; Vermeersch & Kremer, 2005; UNICEF Report, 2007; Ahadzie, 2008). Specifically, Vermeersch and Kremer (2005) examined the effect of school grants on school access and participation in Kenya and found that school access and participation went up in Kenyan preschools where grants were provided than in comparison to schools where there were none. This is not surprising because in many African countries, parents face significant private costs of education, either for school fees or for other inputs such as uniforms which sometimes prevent them from sending their wards to school. The results of this study are however differed in the views espoused by Osei et al. (2009). In his study on the topic "effects of the capitation grant on education outcome in Ghana", he found that the capitation grant policy has not significant impact on pupils' access to basic education.

Research Question 2: To what extent does the capitation grant policy related to enrollment in basic schools in the Ashanti Mampong Municipality?

Research question two also sought to establish the relationship the capitation grant policy and enrollment in basic schools. Zero-order correlation was therefore used to assess the relationship between capitation grant policy and enrollment in basic schools. Table 2 depicts the findings.

Table 2: Capitation Grant Policy and Students' Enrollment in Basic Schools

Capitation Grants	Enrollment in Basic		
	Pearson Correlation		
	Sig.	(2-tailed)	.765**
	N		.000
			100

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

According to the results in Table 2, the Zero-order correlation coefficients obtained on enrollment in basic education is $r = 0.675^{**}$. This is positive with significance or p-value =

0.000 which is less than $\alpha = 0.01$. This implies that the capitation grant policy was significantly related to students' enrollment in basic education.

Findings from this current study uphold views expressed by a number of researchers such as Hanushek (1995) and Glewwe (1999). Notwithstanding this, the present study findings contradict the findings of Osei et al. (2009). According to him, state funding of education (capitation grant policy) has not direct influence on students' enrollment. The findings from this current study however shared the views espoused by Schultz (2003). Schultz (2003) used randomized order of programme phase-in to examine the impact of the Progresá programme in Mexico, which provided cash grants to families conditional on their sending their children to school. He found an increase in enrollment of all students in grades 1 through 8, especially, among girls who had completed grade 6. In fact, in many African countries, parents face significant private costs of education, either for school fees or for other inputs such as uniforms. Again, the findings emanating from the present find support in the work Kremer et al. (2002). In fact, they evaluated a programme in which an NGO, International Christelijk Steunfonds Africa (ICS), provided uniforms, textbooks, and class-room construction to seven schools, randomly selected from a pool of poorly performing candidate schools in Kenya and established that school dropout rates fell considerably in treatment schools, and after five years pupils in treatment schools had completed about 15 percent more schooling.

Research Question 3: To what extent does the capitation grant policy related basic school administration in the Ashanti Mampong Municipality?

This research question sought to find out the relationship between the capitation grant policy and basic school administration. Zero-order correlation was therefore used to assess the relationship between capitation grant policy and basic school administration. The result is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Capitation Grant Policy and Basic School Administration

		Basic	School
Capitation Grants	Pearson Correlation	.741**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	100	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

With reference to the results in Table 2, the Zero-order correlation coefficients between the capitation grant policy and basic school administration is $r = 0.741^{**}$. The coefficient is positive with significance or p-value = 0.000 which is less than $\alpha = 0.01$. This establishes that the capitation grant policy was significantly related to basic school administration.

The findings from my study share similar views with research works including that of Akyeampong (2007); Naschold (2002); and Brookings (2003). For instance, Naschold (2002) emphasized that, that pro-poor expenditure policy predominantly in basic schools' sub-sectors is the main priority for countries that are far from reaching the Education for All (EFA) targets. Also, Akyeampong (2007) argued that the capitation grants are used principally for the day-to-day running of public schools, specifically, the grants are used for procuring teaching and learning materials, payment of sports and cultural levies, payment of cost of school and cluster based in-service training and transportation cost involving official duties. So according to him, without this grants the administrative activities in the basic schools will definitely come to a halt.

Testing the Hypothesis

Efforts were made to test the hypothesis that guided the study. In this regard, Chi square was used to test the hypothesis. The null hypothesis hence states that...

H₀ There is not significant relationship between capitation grant policy and gender enrollment in basic schools in the Ashanti Mampong Municipality.

Table 4: The Capitation Grant Policy and Gender Enrollment in Basic Schools

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi Square	2.823 ^a	1	.469
Continuity Correction ^b	2.502	1	.542
Likelihood Ratio	2.819	1	.465
Fisher's Exact Test			
Linear by Linear Association	2.807	1	
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is

b. Computed only for a 2x2

According to the result in Table 4, the Chi square index shows there is no significant association between the sex of the child and enrollment in basic schools $\chi^2(5) = 2.502$. In this case, the sig. value of .542 is greater than the alpha value of .05. This implies that male's enrollment at the basic schools is not significantly different from female's enrollment after the introduction of the capitation grant policy.

The findings from study in one way or the other share parallel view with Osei et al. (2000). For example, Osei et al. (2009) in his study on the topic "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 enrollment 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 had no significant impact on BECE pass rates in Ghana, no significant relationship existed between capitation grant and gross enrollment, and capitation grant has not impacted on bridging the gap between enrollment and the BECE pass rates for male and female. Thus, according to him there is no significant relationship between the sex of the child and enrollment.

With reference to the findings emanating from the present study and their supporting literature we failed to reject the null hypothesis which states that "There is not significant relationship between capitation grant policy and gender enrollment in basic schools in the Ashanti Mampong Municipality.

CONCLUSION

In this study, steps were taken to ascertain how the capitation grant policy affect access to basic education, pupils' enrollment, basic school administration and gender enrollment. The findings from the current study therefore established a positive relationship the capitation grant policy and access to basic education, pupils' enrollment and basic school administration. On the other hand, the findings of the study established no significant relationship between the capitation grant policy and gender enrollment. On the basis of this we conclude that the capitation grant

policy has an influence on many educational activities and matters in diverse ways. In fact, the policy is good one and so therefore pragmatic steps should be taken to sustain it and also ensure its efficient and effective implementation.

RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the findings and conclusions discussed on this current study, the following recommendations are made.

- 1 In this study, the capitation grant policy was found to affect access and enrollment of pupils. It is therefore recommended the Government, the Ministry of Education and stakeholders in education should ensure the sustenance, efficient and effective implementation of the capitation grant programme.
- 2 Also, the current study established association between the capitation grant programme and basic school administration. It is hence recommended that head teachers should see to the judicious application and utilization of the capitation grant of its intended purpose.

REFERENCES

- Ahadzie, W. (2008). "Global March Against Child Labour/ICCLe's Assessment of Fast Track Initiative in Ghana", *A Report on Ghana's Progress towards Achieving the EFA Goal*, June, 2008, [www.iccle.org/ images/ghana.pdf](http://www.iccle.org/images/ghana.pdf), accessed on April 5, 2010.
- Akyeampong, K. (2007). *50 years of educational progress and challenges in Ghana*. Sussex, UK: University of Sussex.
- Barro, R. (1991). "Economic Growth in a Cross-Section of Countries," *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 106(2): 407-443.
- Eyiah, J. K. (2004). *Brief history of state-organized education in Ghana*. Accra: Black Mask.
- Ghana Education Service (2005). *Guidelines for the distribution and utilization of capitation grant to basic schools*. Accra: CRDD.
- Hanushek, E. A. (1995). "Interpreting Recent Research on Schooling in Developing Countries", *World Bank Research Observer*, 10:227-246.
- Harbison, R. & Hanushek, E. (1992). *Educational Performance of the Poor: Lessons from Rural Northeast Brazil*, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Kremer, M., Moulin, S. & Namunyu, R. (2002). *Unbalanced Decentralization*, Mimeo, Harvard University.
- Inmam, D. (1994). *A report by the National Institute of Educational Governance, finance, policymaking, and management part of the office of educational research and improvement*. New York: Macmillan Publishers.
- Ministry of Education [MoE] (2003). *Education for all. National action plan work programme*. Accra: CRDD.
- Ministry of Education [MoE] (2006). *Capitation grant guidelines*. Accra: CRDD.
- Naschold, F. (2002). *Aid and the millennium development goals: ODI opinions*. London: ODI.
- OxCon, M. (2006). *Making the grade? Financial management of schools*. Oxford: *International Conference on Education and Development*. Retrieved on 20/10/2009 from <http://www.cfbt.com/pdf>.
- Osei, R. D., Owusu, G. A., Asem, F. E. & Kotey, R. L. (2009). "Effects of Capitation Grant on Education Outcomes in Ghana", ISSER, Global Development Network, www.gdnet.org, accessed on April 5, 2010.
- Schultz, T. P. (2003). "School Subsidies for the Poor: Evaluating the Mexican Progresas Poverty Program", *Journal of Development Economics*, 74 (1), 199-250.

- UNICEF & World Bank (2006). *School Fee Abolition Initiative (SFI). Workshop building on what we know and defining sustained support. Nairobi, Kenya*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- UNICEF (2007). “Achieving Universal Primary Education in Ghana by 2015: A Reality or Dream?”, *Division of Policy and Planning Working Papers*, June, 2007, www.unicef.org/policyanalysis, accessed on April 5, 2010.
- Vermeersch, C. & Kremer, M. (2005). “School Meals, Educational Attainment, and School Competition: Evidence from a Randomized Evaluation”, *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper*, WPS3523.